TroyMUN'26

JCC

The Napoleonic Era

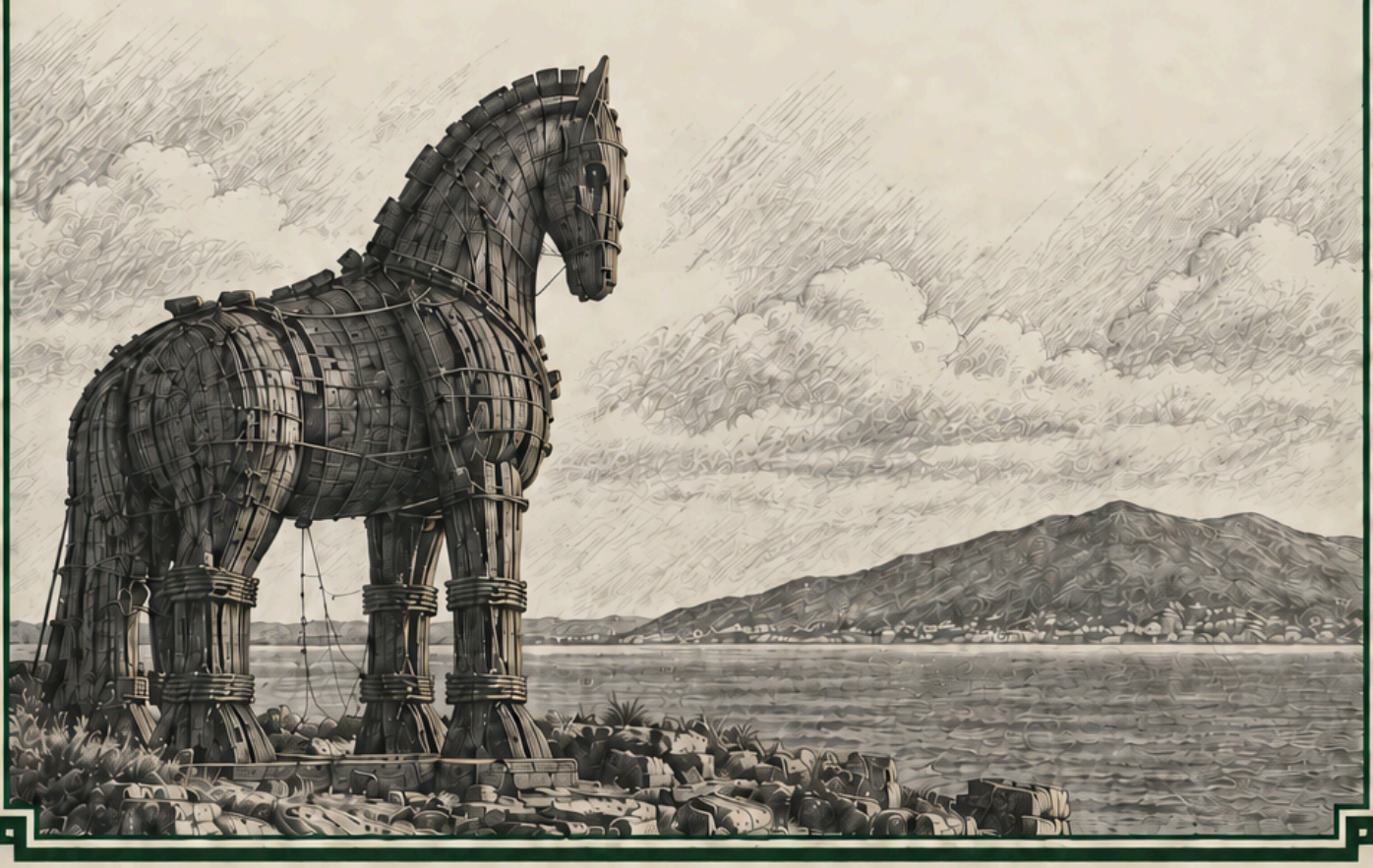


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Letter from the Secretary-General

Esteemed Prospective Participants, On behalf of TROYMUN Family, I would like to welcome you all to the ninth edition of TROY Model United Nations Conference. My name is Baran Akarsu and it is an utmost honor and privilege to serve as the Secretary-General of TROYMUN 2026. The ninth edition of TROYMUN will be held with the collaboration of Parion Hotel and Çanakkale College once again and it will take place in Çanakkale. While the junior edition of TROYMUN will take place between 23th-25th of November, the senior edition will be held between 27th and 29th of November. Since our last edition We are extremely delighted and excited to meet once again and discuss some of the world's current problems. This year, we will host five committees in each of our editions. The committees will be a bit more interesting, more related to our current life and new rather than our past editions. The topic of Ensuring Habitat Protection and Biodiversity Conservation will be discussed in United Nations Environmental Programme for our Junior Edition. Reminding that it will be the first time of hosting UNCoST, The discussion is going to be covered under Raising Awareness on Usage of AI and Combatting the Misuse of Artificial Intelligence for our Junior Edition. UNICEF with the topic of The Effects of Social Media Usage and Digital Bullying on Children's Mental Health: International Maritime Organization with the issue of Protecting Oceans from Plastic Pollution and Maritime Waste for our Junior Edition. Not to forget our last and another new gen committee for Junior Edition, include an exciting wait for you to shine as a star. FCC: The Galactic Senate In the Futuristic Crisis Committee, delegates will prepare for the upcoming galactic elections with their factions. There will be four factions competing in the elections. Besides the elections, delegates will also cooperate with

each other to solve the problems of the galaxy. Meanwhile for our Senior Edition, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime will discuss Combating the Rise of Cyber-Enabled Transnational Organized Crime and Darknet Marketplaces. UNWomen with the topic of Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention). Senior Edition Of UNICEF's Agenda Item will be Ensuring the Protection of Children's Rights in Armed Conflicts: The Case of Gaza. As you knew from our last edition, We gathered together in a committee to dream about the America. We know it is in your dreams before your sleeps, American Dreams! An exciting rehandling of Historical U.S Senate comes with a new discussion; The Civil Rights. Our last and fifth for our Senior Edition will be a Crisis Committee. JCC will be with us in order to discuss The Napoleonic Era. We are looking forward to see you as a star, a delegate, a diplomat in our ninth edition which is special and the last before the double digits. Delighted to hear your solutions on these crucial topics and wish you fruitful debates. A group of experienced MUN delegates as well as successful and exemplary individuals well versed in the topics at hand will chair and monitor our committees. I have full faith in each and every member of our Academic Team and I believe they will guide you towards enhancing your academic knowledge along with practicing your debating and negotiating skills through presenting the best environment for a spirit of diplomacy. Meanwhile, now that they can arrange physical challenges, coffee breaks and social events again, I believe our amazing and all-mighty Organization Team members are in a frenzy! They are working with great dedication to ensure that you leave TROYMUN 2026 with unforgettable memories and lots of new friends. Overall, we are all looking forward to meet you again! On behalf of TROYMUN family and Parion Hotel, I would like to thank you for your time and consideration and once again, with great pleasure, welcome you to TROYMUN 2026. Do not forget to apply, to read your study guides, prepare some speeches and motions, and buckle your seatbelts for three days of fun, discussion, games and politics! In case of any questions, do not hesitate to contact us. We would be more than happy to help you. See you in November.

Your Sincerely,

Baran Akarsu

Secretary-General of TroyMUN

Letter from the Under Secretary-General

Fellow Delegates,

I can proudly say that you are the luckiest people in this conference because you came to the most entertaining committee. In our committee JCC, you are going to experience a war from the side of the rulers, and you will try to be from the side of the winners. We chose the Napoleonic Wars as the topic, and we tried our best to give you the best experience, and we guarantee that you will have fun. And I would like to express my thanks to our secretary general, Baran Akarsu; my mentors Poyraz Karaman and Nuri Öztunç; and dear crisis team members.

If this is your first crisis committee experience or if this is your first MUN experience, you don't have to worry; don't overthink, and just let it flow. A few minutes after starting, you will probably get into the role, and you will have fun. It's just like a historical role-playing game, so like I said, just have fun and see you in the committee.

Poyraz Perit Dilber

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What is a JCC and how does it work?

A Joint Crisis Committee usually comprises two groups of delegates/representatives in separate rooms, debating the same, perpetual crisis.

Typically these factions have opposing positions in the crisis and either try to dominate the other side or seek common ground. As a rule, there are no boundaries to a faction's course of action, besides having to remain realistic.

The crisis is presented to the delegates, who can react to it in the form of directives, short one-clause resolutions. These directives influence the outplay of the scenario. Directives will be further explained in the rules of procedure, but here is an example:

"Public Directive: US Blockade of Cuba

The US hereby decides that the 3rd carrier strike group shall blockade any shipping bound for Cuba, by all means necessary.

- US Secretary of Defense"

If this directive is submitted, the crisis will change accordingly and will develop.

Your chairs will act like a delegate whenever it's necessary. More about it in the workshop.

Crisis Updates:

Throughout a crisis session there will be multiple spontaneous crisis updates given by the crisis team. These include the latest developments of the crisis at hand, as well as the results and repercussions of submitted directives.

As an example:

"Crisis Update No. X October 30th 1962

The reconnaissance plane (sent out in the previous directive) has spotted a soviet submarine near the coast of Florida.

Public opinion of JFK is at an all-time low, due to inaction in the face of the crisis…"

Events:

The scenario's outplay is also affected by random events, such as natural disasters, leaks, other countries' actions, and so on…

Intelligence:

Having more knowledge than the opposing faction is key in facing the crisis. E.g. The reconnaissance planes' findings (from the example above) are not known to the opposing faction (they don't know their submarine has been spotted). Directives can involve intelligence actions, e.g. spy operations, but are at risk of detection.

Procedure of debate: The debate in this JCC will be held in the following two ways most of the time:

1. **Unmoderated Caucus**: Unmoderated caucuses in JCC will function identically to those found in conventional Model UN committees: they will serve as informal periods of debate where delegates can physically move across the committee room to approach fellow delegates in colloquial conversation.

2. **Semi-Moderated Caucus**: Semi-moderated caucuses in JCC will function identically to those found in conventional Model UN committees: they will serve as debate periods when the delegates cannot physically move across the committee room but rise to talk without interrupting other delegates.

3. **Freeze Time:** These directive breaks are short recesses in which the crisis team will be given the opportunity to confer and process directives. While directives are being processed by the staff, delegates are encouraged to engage in colloquial debate without leaving their respective seats in the committee room and not writing more directives until the freeze time is over.

Directives

This JCC involves two types of directives:

1. Private Directives:

A. A private directive can be issued by any delegate and involves actions that are to be taken by assets or institutions under his jurisdiction. E.g. The Prime Minister of Italy may issue a private directive to his intelligence agency to observe/infiltrate a specific

place or institution, but he cannot issue a private directive commanding UN Peacekeepers, as those are not under his jurisdiction.

B. A private directive can be issued without informing other members of the faction.

C. The outcome of a private directive will be decided by the crisis team and the submitter will be given notice individually.

2. Public Directives:

A. A public directive can be issued by any delegate and involves actions that are to be taken by any assets or institutions under the entire block's jurisdiction. E.g. The Sec. The General of the USSR may issue a public directive to move troops of the Warsaw Pact from place A to place B.

B. Some public directives have to be submitted, proposed to the committee in a speech, and voted on and passed by a simple majority of all members of the faction. Others do not necessarily need a proposal nor voting but all public directives will be examined by the chairboard. Without an approval from the chairboard, a public directive cannot be sent.

C. The outcome of a public directive will be decided by the crisis team and the entire faction will be given notice through the next crisis update.

Where to go now?

While the study guide provides much of the knowledge you need to move forward in the committee, we strongly advise you to conduct further research on your roles and delve deeper into the historical contexts in order to fully participate in your committee. It will be worthwhile, we assure you—obviously, to dominate the opposing side!

We will brief you on the process and the subject during the workshop that kicks off the conference. Keep in mind that having prior knowledge will set you apart from other delegates so research more about this topic and read our guide. Also, information in this guide contains events that occur after the committee's start date.

Holy Roman Empire

From 962 until the 13th century, the empire was one of the most powerful monarchies in Europe. It depended on cooperation between emperors and still relatively powerful and independent vassals because Otto I succeeded in unifying all German tribes into a single kingdom. The empire reached its peak of territorial expansion and power in the mid-13th century, under the House of Hohenstaufen. During this time, it controlled large areas in Central Europe and played an important role in European politics. However, its stability and influence were not absolute.

Power Struggles Between the Emperor and Pope

The emperors and the Church had close connections between them because the Church was one of the most powerful structures in Europe. The pope could influence politics and even support or reject an emperor. Although emperors had close relations with the Pope, sometimes they could have disagreements about who should have more power and who had the right to choose bishops and other important church leaders. This interest led to the Investiture Controversy between the 11th and 12th centuries.

Investiture Controversy Conflict

It was a conflict about who got to appoint people to official positions in the Catholic Church, such as bishops. This conflict undercut the Holy Roman Emperor and other European monarchies. At the time, ruling kings and other lords appointed people to these positions within their realms. In the 11th and 12th centuries, a series of popes began to defend that only the church had the power and authority to appoint people to their positions in the church. For that, kingdoms and especially the Holy Roman Empire opposed this situation. It was a 50-year conflict, and it was settled in 1122 by the winning of the church.

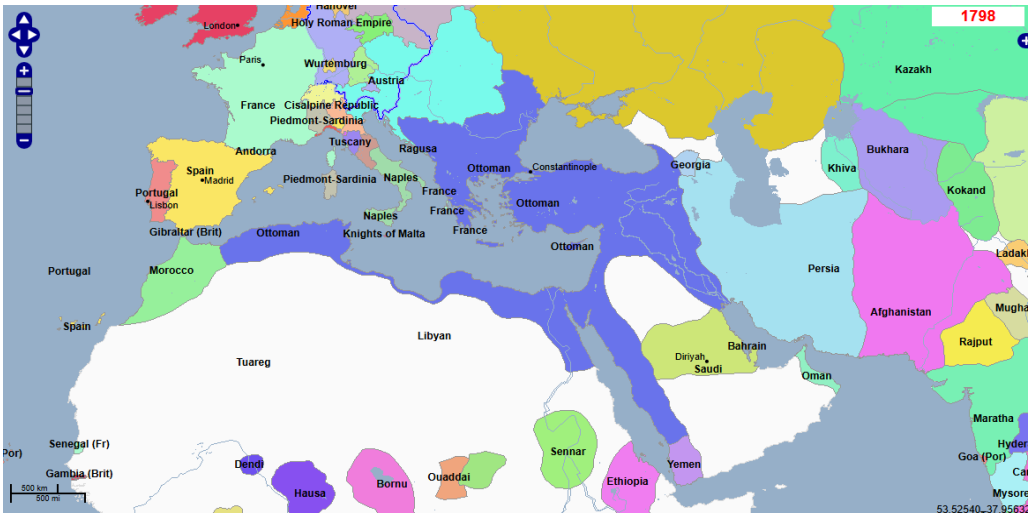
The Reason Why the Holy Roman Empire Got in the War

Following the French Revolution in the late 18th century, they feared that these republican and egalitarian ideas would spread to the peoples within their own territories. For the empire was a fragmented entity composed of hundreds of small principalities, and such ideas could completely destroy the monarchical regimes, specifically the Habsburg monarchy in the Holy Roman Empire. In response to this threat, they formed a unified counter-revolutionary front for the need to protect the traditional monarchical order. Restoring the French monarchy and for their empires to continue, they issued joint warnings to France. Consequently, the Coalition Wars against France began.

Ottoman Empire (1299)

At the end of the eighteenth century, the Ottoman Empire was still one of the largest states in the world. Its territories covered the Balkans, Anatolia, the eastern Mediterranean, the Arab provinces, and parts of North Africa. For this reason, it would be wrong to describe the Empire as a state that was simply collapsing. However, the Ottoman government faced serious military, financial, and

administrative problems. Long wars had weakened the treasury, while Russian expansion around the Black Sea and the Balkans became a growing threat. Trade and agriculture continued in many parts of the Empire, but repeated wars often damaged production, tax collection, and economic stability.



The Ottoman state was officially ruled by the sultan, but the Empire was not governed through a fully centralized system. The government in Istanbul depended on the grand vizier, senior officials, religious authorities, and military institutions. In the provinces, governors, judges, tax collectors, military households, and local notables known as the ayan carried out many important duties. They collected taxes, protected local order, recruited soldiers, and represented regional interests. Some ayan became powerful enough to negotiate with or resist the central government. Therefore, Ottoman rule depended on both the authority of the sultan and cooperation with local leaders.
This did not mean that the provinces were fully independent. Provincial notables still needed titles, offices, and legal approval from the sultan. At the same time, the government needed their soldiers, money, and local influence. Istanbul therefore tried to strengthen its authority without losing their support. This balance became especially important during the reign of Sultan Selim III, because his reform program required both financial resources and provincial cooperation.

Sultan Selim III and the New Order:

Selim III became sultan in 1789, while the Ottoman Empire was at war with Russia and Austria. The wars ended with the Treaty of Sistova in 1791 and the Treaty of Jassy in 1792. These agreements brought a period of peace, but they also showed Russia's growing power around the Black Sea. The Empire had failed to recover important territories, and many Ottoman officials

believed that short-term military solutions were no longer enough. Selim and his advisers concluded that the state needed reforms in military training, finance, technical education and diplomacy



The reforms of Selim III became known as the Nizam-ı Cedid, meaning the “New Order.” The term is often associated with Selim’s new army, but the reform programme was much wider. It included changes in taxation, military education, artillery, naval organisation, administration and diplomacy. The government also employed European military experts and translated materials about European armies and institutions. The aim was not to turn the Ottoman Empire into a European state. Instead, Selim wanted to adopt useful European methods to strengthen Ottoman power and independence.

The new army was organised separately from the Janissaries. Its soldiers received regular training, used modern weapons, wore standard uniforms and lived in newly built barracks. The government also supported military engineering schools, technical publications and reforms in the artillery and navy. The Nizam-ı Cedid army remained smaller than the traditional Ottoman forces, but it showed that a disciplined and centrally controlled army could be created inside the Empire.

Some of these soldiers later fought successfully against French forces in the eastern Mediterranean.



Ottoman Foreign Policy and Napoleon

Selim's reforms also brought important changes in Ottoman diplomacy. Before this period, the Empire usually sent temporary ambassadors for specific negotiations. In 1793, Yusuf Agah Efendi was appointed to London as the first permanent Ottoman ambassador in Europe. Later, permanent missions were also opened in Vienna, Berlin and Paris. These embassies helped the government obtain regular information about European politics, military preparations and diplomatic alliances. They supported both Ottoman foreign policy and Selim's internal reforms.

Ottoman foreign policy was not based on permanent friendship with any European country. Russia was the greatest territorial threat, France was an important diplomatic and commercial partner, and Britain was becoming more powerful in the Mediterranean. Selim first tried to stay outside the wars caused by the French Revolution. He wanted to use the period of peace to continue his reforms. However, Napoleon Bonaparte's invasion of Ottoman Egypt in 1798 made neutrality impossible. From the Ottoman point of view, the expedition was a direct attack on Ottoman territory and the authority of the sultan.

The invasion of Egypt caused a major change in Ottoman diplomacy. The Empire declared war on France and formed alliances with Russia and Britain, even though both countries had previously been Ottoman rivals. Agreements with Russia in December 1798 and Britain in January 1799 showed the practical nature of Ottoman foreign policy. The government was willing to cooperate with former enemies against a more immediate threat. After the French left Egypt, relations with

France slowly improved and Ottoman alliances changed again. Delegates should therefore not view the Empire as permanently aligned with France, Britain or Russia. Ottoman policy depended on current threats, territorial security and the need to protect the reform programme.

Portuguese Colonialism (1704-1804)

For Portugal, the 18th century was a period of great transition within the Portuguese Empire redirected its political and economic attention to South America and Africa. From 1704 until 1804, the futures of Portuguese colonization included the Brazilian Gold Rush, heavy economic reliance on Great Britain, sweeping administrative changes enacted by the Marquis of Pombal and increasing conflicts that would eventually lead to South American independence.

Leading to Reform and the Golden Age

However, everything changed in December 1703 following the signing of the Treaty of Methuen between Portugal and Great Britain. The treaty made clothes from Britain available in Portugal and Portugal wine available in Britain. While it was beneficial for farmers it made Portugal entirely dependent on British goods.

At the same time huge quantities of gold and diamonds were discovered in Brazil. Thus beginning the Gold Age of Brazil. The process involved thousands of Portuguese colonists and hundreds of thousands of African slaves that had had to mine these deposits. The Brazilian colony became the main focus of the empire. Moreover, most of these resources were sent straight from Lisbon to London as payment for British goods.

Finally, Portugal expanded its territories in South America. On January 13 1750, Portugal and Spain signed the Treaty of Madrid, which separated the lands depending on their current inhabitants.

The Pombaline Period and New Reforms

On November 1, 1755, an earthquake destroyed Lisbon. Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo, known later as the Marquis of Pombal, became the main political figure consulted by King Joseph I and ruled from 1750 to 1777, where he introduced important reforms to centralize the Portuguese colonies;

Removal of the Jesuits (1759):

Pombal threw the Jesuit priests out of all Portuguese territory. The government confiscated their property and expelled them from the authority over the natives and indigenous people in Brazil and India.

Change of the capital (1763):

The capital of Brazil was moved from Salvador da Bahia further to Rio de Janerio to control the gold trade and shipping more effectively.

Trading monopolies:

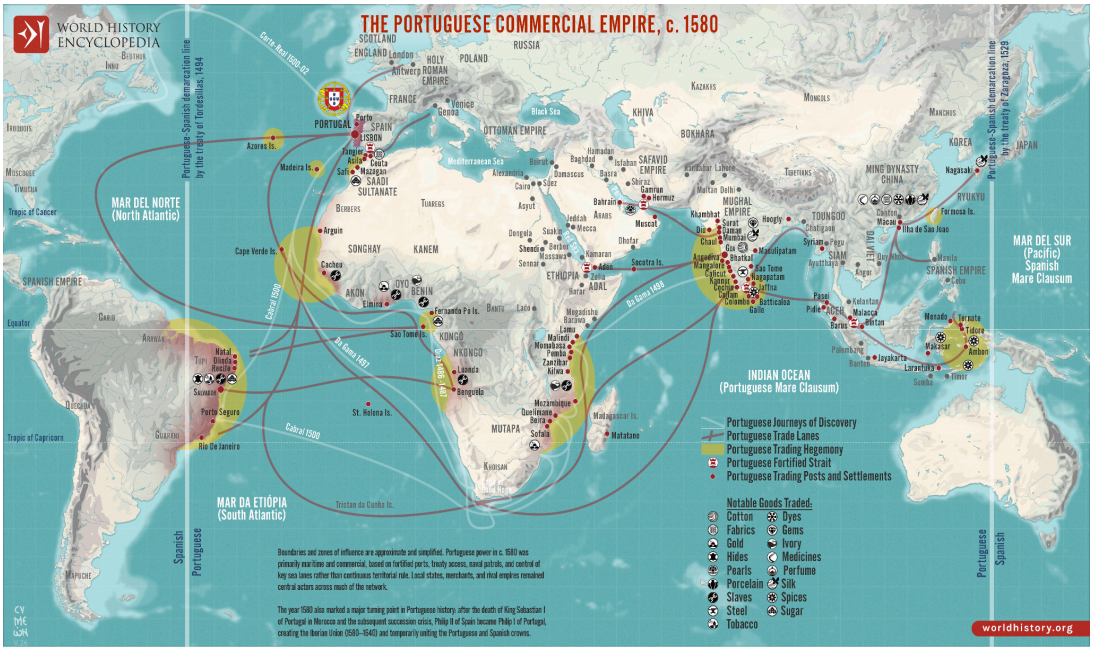
The government developed official trading companies, for instance, Companhia Geral do Grão-Pará e Maranhão to gather more profits, control trade and implement strict taxation.

The ports in Africa like Angola and Benguela were actively used in slave trade sending labor force to Brazilian mines and sugar plantations. In the Estado da Índia, the Portuguese presence was limited to only small territories with protected coastal settlements, working mostly through the governmental structure instead of force.

The happenings, New Ideas and The road to the Crisis

In the closing years of the 1700s the production of gold in Brazil started to decrease but at that time the Portuguese monarch enforced heavy taxes. Powered by the concepts of Enlightenment and the American Revolution, discontented local

aristocrats commend a revolt named Inconfidência Mineira in 1789 which was led by Joaquim José da Silva Xavier, a braver of local people. However though the Portuguese monarchy curbed the rebellion and brought the deserved punishment to the leaders of the revolt, it was a serious attempt to free itself from Portuguese dominance in America.



The Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (1772-1795)

Why was it vulnerable?

By the 18th century, the Commonwealth experienced serious political paralysis. This mainly happened because of the Liberum Veto rule, “a rule that lets one deputy block any legislation." While empires like Russia, Prussia, and Austria grew stronger and more centralized, the Polish state remained weak and struggled to make reforms that would’ve been necessary for their growth.

How was it divided?

Taking advantage of this weakness, neighboring powers began seizing Polish land to expand their own territories. The First Partition in 1772 took about one-third of Poland's territory. Poland tried saving itself by adopting a modern constitution in 1791, but this only led to the Second Partition in 1793 by Russia and Prussia. After a failed national rebellion, the three empires completed the Third Partition in 1795.

How it ended and the aftermath

Due to Kościuszko Uprising's failures, the final partition in 1795 completely wiped out the state. However, it also sparked a major revival. The reforms and spirit of the enlightenment forged a strong identity for the nation. Even if they weren't displayed on the map, this awakening ensured Polish people survived the long era of foreign occupation.

GREAT SIEGE OF GIBRALTAR

With the American independence war raging, Spain and France saw an opportunity to take one of Britain's most important port cities, Gibraltar. The importance of Gibraltar was so obvious that the defenses of the city needed to be enhanced. In 1777, Colonel William Green suggested further modifications to the defenses, which included the construction of the King's Bastion. When the dates showed 24th June 1779, hostilities began. The Spanish and French forces blockaded the port to cut off their supply with the hope of bringing the garrison to surrender. Despite outbreaks of scurvy and other sicknesses due to lack of supplies, the garrison held their morale against the bombardment of the Spanish fleet. The British position was improved with the arrival of two relief convoys, the first in January 1780 under Admiral Rodney and the second in April 1781 under Admiral Darby. These relief convoys brought food and extra troops, and they helped to evacuate civilians. In November 1781, Spanish soldiers were building more trenches and batteries in order to bring their cannons closer, but General Elliot called for an attack, so on the evening of the 26th, 2500 British soldiers crossed the isthmus in order to attack Spanish frontlines. The British destroyed the artillery and trenches that were going to be used against them and lost only 4 soldiers. The Spanish army had a devastating loss.

In February an important occurrence happened. Lieutenant Kohler of the Royal Artillery demonstrated the depression carriage he had invented, and the specialty that made it stand out was its ability to aim downwards. This carriage was near perfect for the north face since it was really steep, but still it wasn't enough, so a group of artificers under Sergeant Major Henry Ince started to work on a tunnel in Gibraltar. At first the plan was just digging a corridor underground and putting a cannon there to shoot easier, but while making some holes around the tunnel to aid ventilation, they realized that these holes were perfect for a gun embrasure. In the end, the British put 17 guns, which covered the whole north face. In early 1782 the French troops, which were under the leadership of Duc de Crillon, captured the island of Menorca. This success made him the commander of the siege of Gibraltar. With his aide, Colonel D'arcon, they made a massive attack plan. The attack was led by 10 floating batteries, which had thick walls and many cannons to protect the crew from large sailing vessels. On the 13th of September the attack plan was launched. The batteries got into their position and started launching cannonballs with all their power to the town. The backfire of British cannons was ineffective until they started to heat cannonballs in a furnace. These heated cannonballs were causing lots of damage. By late afternoon 2 main ships were on fire, and by one in the morning they were abandoned, and the other batteries were set on fire so they wouldn't get captured. Britain won the battle, and the presence of the Franco-Spanish army was nearly gone. The last relief convoy arrived in October under Admiral Howe. On the 2nd of February 1783, a truce was signed between the sides. Britain kept Gibraltar, and Franco-Spanish took Menorca and parts of the West Indies and Florida. The siege lasted three years and seven months and was the longest in British history. Seven thousand British soldiers were outnumbered by forty thousand Franco-Spanish soldiers, but they still managed to hold.

American Revolutionary War

The American Revolutionary War was a kind of insurrection that was done by 13 colonies of Great Britain's North American colonies. The war had begun in 1775 with the cooperative rebellion of those 13 colonies. Those 13 colonies started protests against “taxation without representation," and soon it exploded into an armed conflict on the 19th of April, 1775, during the battles of Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts, but the conflicts did not reach this point easily.

Leading to War

Everything started on the 13th of February 1763 with the Treaty of Paris ending the Seven Years War. France surrendered all of its North American possessions east of the Mississippi to Britain. This ended a source of insecurity for the British colonists along the Atlantic Coast. The costs of the war and maintaining an army led the British government to impose new taxes on its colonists, with world-shaking results.
Tensions further intensified on the 22nd of March 1765 with the imposition of the first direct tax on the American Colonies; the tax required stamps on legal documents, newspapers, and playing cards, which resulted in widespread boycotts.
Simmering tensions in Massachusetts boiled over on March 5, 1770, when British soldiers fired into a taunting crowd, killing five colonists and fueling anti-British propaganda.

Then on the 16th of December 1773, the arrival of three ships in Boston Harbor
Carrying 342 chests of tea sparked a tense standoff between Thomas Hutchinson, the governor of the Province of Massachusetts Bay, and a clandestine political organization known as the Sons of Liberty
In response in March and April 1774, four punitive laws were passed by the British Parliament to punish Massachusetts for the Boston Tea Party. Known as the Intolerable Acts by American colonists, they closed Boston Harbor, suspended colonial self-rule in Massachusetts, shielded British officials from local prosecution, and forced citizens to house soldiers.

The Great Revolution

And finally the war had started in Massachusetts. The first shots of the Revolutionary War were fired at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts. The news of the bloodshed rockets along the eastern seaboard, and thousands of volunteers converge in Cambridge, Mass. These are the beginnings of the Continental Army.
On the 17th of June, Britain's forces and American forces came face to face at Bunker Hill during the siege of Boston. Britain's forces took the victory militarily, but they lost so many soldiers while fighting against the militia forces. The resistance of the inexperienced militia forces against the most powerful and professional army of the era encouraged Colonial side to fight until the end of the war

On the 4th of July 1776, during the Second Colonial Congress, the separation of the 13 North American British colonies from the Kingdom of Great Britain was officially announced. It established the foundational philosophical principles of the American Revolution and provided the legal and moral justification for self-governance.
In 1777 the American army won two great victories against the forces of Great Britain. The victory was so magnificent that the forces of France and Spain wanted to take sides from the Army of America against Great Britain. The alliance is secured with the “treaty of alliance” in 1778.

On the 19th of October 1781, American victory. Outnumbered and outfought during a three-week siege in which they sustained great losses, British troops surrendered to the American army and their French allies. This last major land battle of the American Revolution led to negotiations for peace with the British and the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1783.



Treaty of Constantinople (1784)

The Ottoman Empire agrees to Russia's annexation of Crimea.

The Treaty of Constantinople (1784) The Ottoman Empire Recognises Russian Annexation of Crimea The Treaty of Constantinople, signed on 8 January 1784, was a crucial piece of international diplomacy in the late 18th century. This accord formally recognised Russia’s

annexation of the Crimean Peninsula that had taken place the previous year. Though the treaty temporarily deferred a war, it significantly elevated Russian power in the Black Sea, heralding a new era of conflict between the two great powers.

Leading to the treaty

Everything started with the Russo-Turkish War (1768-1774).

This resulted in the Treaty of Küçük Kaynarca, signed on 21 July 1774. It decreed that the Crimean Khanate was now independent of the Ottoman Empire; however, this status had been effectively on paper for some years as Russia had increasingly exerted influence over Crimean political affairs. Throughout the following years, Russia continued to meddle in Crimean affairs, maintaining troops on the peninsula and bolstering the positions of pro-Russian officials in the Crimean government. Though the Ottomans protested these actions, the empire, still recovering from its military defeat, lacked the power to effectively resist.

In April 1783, Empress Catherine II proclaimed the formal annexation of Crimea into the Russian Empire.

The official rationale was to establish order and stability, though this claim was not recognised by the Ottoman Empire. The European powers, with the exception of Austria, responded with alarm, though none wished to confront Russia. Under immense pressure due to ongoing economic difficulties, internal instability, and military weakness, the Ottomans acceded to negotiations rather than another potentially devastating war.

The Treaty of Constantinople (1784)

The Treaty of Constantinople (1784) On 8 January 1784, the two powers formally signed the Treaty of Constantinople. The Ottoman Empire recognised Russian ownership of the Crimean Khanate, thereby ending any direct Ottoman jurisdiction. In return, the Ottomans and Russians agreed to normalise diplomatic relations, averting immediate further war.

For Russia, this treaty was a resounding diplomatic triumph.

It gave her international legitimacy for the annexation of Crimea and cemented her position as a major power along the Black Sea. The Ottomans' acceptance of the treaty was based purely out of necessity, the empire desperately needing to recover its military and economic position.

Why crimea was important

Why Crimea was important From the outset, Crimea had been the most strategically and economically important region in the Black Sea. It dominated naval access to the region, provided a vital buffer to southern Russia, secured access for the Ottoman Empire to its Balkan territories, and was ideal for naval facilities.

Whichever power controlled the Crimea enjoyed substantial military advantages.

Moreover, Crimea had long been home to the Crimean Tatar population, who had extensive religious and cultural ties to the Ottoman Empire. Losing Crimea would therefore symbolise not only the loss of territory but also a loss of prestige and influence over the Muslim population of the region.

Consequences

Consequences While the Treaty of Constantinople temporarily defused the crisis, it did not settle the underlying animosity between Russia and the Ottoman Empire.

Russia wasted no time in improving its naval position, turning the region into the base of its new powerful Black Sea fleet. Crimea became home to Russia's premier naval port, Sevastopol, and fortifications were erected on the peninsula. The Ottomans, meanwhile, viewed the treaty as little more than a delay in what they saw as inevitable further conflict.

Their ambition to regain the Crimea only three years later triggered the Russo-Turkish War of 1787.

The Treaty of Constantinople thus became a turning point that shifted the balance of power in the Black Sea definitively in Russia's favour. This was, however, far from the end of the crisis; delegates in this crisis committee know this all too well. Diplomacy has played its part, but a great deal of work remains to be done in what was to prove a very unstable time for both Russia and the Ottoman Empire.

Russo-Turkish War (1787-1792)

The Reason Why This War Happened

If we look at the first war that happened between 1768 and 1774, Russian cavalry pursuing Polish rebels violated the Ottoman border and entered Balta. There, the Russian cavalry massacred not only the Poles but also the Muslims in the town. The Ottomans lost the war, Crimea gained independence, and after that, they were occupied by Russia. Consequently, the Ottomans aimed to reclaim the lost Crimean Khanate, leading to the Second Ottoman-Russian War (1787-1792).

Both sides at War

On August 19, 1787, the Ottoman Empire declared war against Russia with the aim of reclaiming Crimea. However, the situation on the battlefield became difficult for the Ottomans because Russia and its ally Austria caught the Ottomans in a crossfire.
On May 31, 1788, the Russian and Ottoman navies comforted each other off the coast of Ochakov. After a resistance lasting approximately seven months, the Russians launched a general offensive amidst freezing winter conditions. The fortress fell following two hours of extremely bloody street fighting.
On September 22, 1789, the Battle of Rymnik was unfolded by Ottoman goals because of their lost territories in the previous conflict with Russia following their earlier defeat at Focsani that year.
The Ottoman forces, overconfident after initial positioning, suffered heavy losses, estimated 6000 and 20000 killed or wounded. This decisive victory not only boosted Allied morale but also earned Suvorov a prestigious honor. Despite brilliant victories of the Russian army on Ochakov, Focansi, and Rymnik, the Ottomans did not accept the peace terms.

On December 22, 1790, Russians attacked Izmail, and they won. During the assault, Izmail particularly distinguished himself in the column of General Mikhail Kutuzov, which captured the Kiliya gate. For his leadership and personal courage, Suvorov appointed him the commandant of the city.

During these wars, Russia and Austria formed an alliance to establish a balance against the threat posed by Prussia and Poland and get the Ottomans out of the Balkans. Meanwhile, due to Russia's growing power in the Black Sea and the potential risk they exhibited in the The The Mediterranean, France, and Britain sided with the Ottomans. However, France and Britain provided only logistical and intelligence support instead of military aid.

End of the War and Treaty of Jassy

Count Aleksandr V. Suvorov, Russia’s heralded general, defeated the Ottomans under Selim III at Fokshan and Rymnik in 1789 and defeated the Turks again at Izmail in 1790. The Treaty of Jassy (January 7, 1792) ended the war and confirmed Russian gains. By this treaty, the Ottoman Empire ceded the entire western Ukrainian Black Sea coast (from the Kerch Strait westward to the mouth of the Dniester) to Russia.

Mysore and Maratha Wars

There were 2 big powers in India in the 1760s that didn't get along with each other well. One of them was called the Empire of Maratha, and the other one was called the Kingdom of Mysore, and after a while their bad relations exploded into a war that will take so long.

The disagreement between those states had started with the decline of the Mughal Empire. After the decline of the Mughal Empire, India witnessed the rise of several regional powers, among them the Marathas, Mysore, and Hyderabad. The Marathas had established their dominance over a large portion of western and central India. While the Marathas got bigger and bigger, the Kingdom of Mysore, under Hyder Ali, transformed from a small principality to a powerful military state. The military reforms and ambitious events to expand Mysore's territory done by Hyder Ali brought him into an armed conflict with neighboring powers

1st Conflict

The first conflict occurred around 1764 when Hyder Ali wanted to extend the territories controlled by Mysore, but his greed was so strong that he wanted to claim the territory, which was traditionally owned by Marathas.
On April 1764, Hyder Ali sieged the Savanur, and they bombarded the city so heavily they were unable to withstand the assault. The nawab surrendered within days, and they paid a steep indemnity of two hundred thousand rupees and supplied military contingents of Hyder Ali.
Just after the siege on May 1764, the Army of the Maratha Empire attacked the Hyder Ali forces that were in the Savanur, and they defeated them
Hyder Ali was compelled to make peace by agreeing to pay a large indemnity and cede certain territories to the Marathas. This early war demonstrated the Maratha military strength but also revealed Mysore's growing capacity to challenge established powers in southern India.

2nd Conflict

The second conflict started in 1771. Hyder Ali regained military strength and refused to continue paying tribute to the Marathas. Marathas marched deep into Mysore territory after Hyder Ali stopped paying tribute, forcing him to sign a treaty and pay 28 lakh rupees.

3rd Conflict

After the back-to-back defeats, the new ruler Tipu Sultan wanted to reverse his father's prior concessions and face-offs with the Marathas. So he started the third conflict by besieging Nargund, but the answer from the Marathas didn’t come late. Maratha forces pushed deep into Mysorean lands to reclaim ground and counter Tipu's army. But the army of Mysore pushed again, and they captured as far as Bahadur Fort.



French Revolutionary Wars

Reasons

The Declaration of Pillnitz, which was declared by Prussia and Austria, caused a major outrage in France. This declaration stated that Austria would go into war with France only if all the other major European powers also went to war with France. This made French people get fuelled with nationalism, and in the end this fury and fear of being attacked started the war.

Another important event is the Flight of Varennes. While King Louis XVI was travelling from France to the Austrian-controlled fortress of Montmédy in an attempt to secure support from foreign powers and strengthen the monarchy, he was captured in the town of Varennes and taken back to Paris. This event severely undermined confidence in the king and was an important cause for his future execution.

By late 1791 an alliance called the Girondins, which was a political group that was gaining power in the assembly, supported the idea of a war since they argued that a war would spread revolutionary ideas all around the world and especially Europe, unite the people, and expose the traitors in government. Meanwhile, King Louis XVI and his supporters secretly wanted war too; however, they wanted France to get defeated swiftly so the invading countries could restore absolute monarchy.

Lastly, the Holy Roman Empire, Prussia, the Dutch Republic, Spain, Portugal, Naples, the Papal States, and Great Britain formed a coalition against France due to the political and industrial changes taking place there; consequently, France initiated the war on April 20, 1792.

First Coalition Wars

After France declared the war, it was a complete disaster for them. Austrian and Prussian troops were moving towards Paris. However, the Battle of Valmy, which took place on the 20th of September, was a turning point for the war. The resistance of a French artilleryman stopped the Prussian invasion. This success boosted the morale of revolutionaries, and the day after the war, on the 21st of September, monarchy was removed completely, and the first republic of France was declared.

In 1973, King Louis XVI was executed by guillotine for high treason. This shocked other European kingdoms since a ruler was killed by their people. This event caused Great Britain, Spain, the Dutch Republic, and some Italian states to also enter the war alongside Austria and Prussia, and so the first coalition was officially formed.
France faced both internal rebellions and external enemies attacking from every front. There were a lot of political struggles besides the war. There were two governments, one of them being a revolutionary government. They brought the mass mobilization system and created the world's first mass national army. In December of the same year, the strategic port of Toulon, which was in the hands of British-backed royalists, was recaptured with the plan of Napoleon Bonaparte.
In 1976, France stopped its political problems and internal rebellions; on the other hand, the war with Austria went on. General Napoleon Bonaparte was assigned to the Italian frontline, which had weak equipment, and still he and his army defeated the Sardinian and Austrian armies thanks to Napoleon's military genius. Having completely conquered northern Italy and advancing towards Vienna, Napoleon forced Austria to make peace. The first coalition collapsed completely after the Treaty of Campo Formio, which was signed in October 1797

Second Coalition Wars

The second coalition countries were the Holy Roman Empire, the Ottoman Empire, Great Britain, Switzerland, the Kingdom of Naples, the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Republic of Lucca, the Archduchy of Austria, the Kingdom of Portugal, and the Russian Empire.
After the Treaty of Campo Formio, Europe turned into a more peaceful environment, but France ended it with aggressive foreign policies and military expansions through Europe. French soldiers marched into the Papal States and Switzerland. Pope Pius VI got abducted, and this caused a huge outrage for Catholics. Napoleon convinced the Directory to launch an expedition to Egypt so that France could harm or even stop the British trade routes, which are crucial. In May 1798 Napoleon set sail with a huge fleet and captured the island of Malta. This shocked the Ottoman Empire's Sultan, Selim III, since the Ottoman Empire had good relations with France. British Admiral Horatio Nelson tracked down the French fleet, and when they anchored their ships at the coast of Alexandria, he and his fleet annihilated them at the Battle of the Nile, which took place on the 1st of August 1798. This loss caused the French soldiers to remain in Egypt and not receive any help. The French capture of Malta was an important reason for Russia to have a conflict with France. Since Tsar Paul I was an

important admirer of rulers of Malta, and he was the grandmaster of the Saint John Knights, he viewed this incident as a personal disrespect and attack on Christianity. Seeing this opportunity, Austria let the Russian army use their land to march towards France. This caused France to declare war. On 29 November 1798, the second coalition officially formed.

The Battle of the Pyramids was a combat that took place on 21 July 1798, near Cairo. French troops won this combat even though they had fewer soldiers and were short on equipment since they lost the connection with the fatherland. This victory opened the way to Cairo. Despite these victories in Egypt, the French army remained completely isolated from Europe. Napoleon learned that the Ottoman Empire was building an army in Syria to march against him. So Napoleon decided to act before, and he marched into Syria, but he and his army were defeated because of the resistance of the heavily fortified coastal city of Acre, which was reinforced by the British navy. French soldiers had casualties, and besides, there was a plague outbreak, so they had to retreat back to Egypt.

At the same time French forces in Europe were facing losses. The coalition launched massive attacks in northern Italy.

The Battle of Verona started in March 1799 by the French; they wanted to push Austrian forces back before the Russian army could arrive, but Austrian defense succeeded. In April France attacked again to break the stalemate, but not only did Austria defend successfully, but they also made a counterattack and pushed the French back into their own lands. So the Battle of Magnano was won by the Austrians. At the battle of Cassano the Russian army arrived, and Marshal Alexander Suvorov took supreme command of allied forces. He launched aggressive attacks across the Adda River, and these successful attacks opened the gates of Milan. The Battle of Trebbia, which happened in June, was started by the French to break the coalition's grip on northern Italy. Again, Marshal Suvorov defeated the French army brutally, so the coalition's expansion went on. Lastly, at the battle of Novi, French soldiers aimed to reclaim northern Italy. They were positioned on the heights of Novi to get an advantage, but the Russo-Austrian forces overpowered them. Despite their hard work and tactics on the front line, French soldiers lost another battle, and it was devastating for them. These tragic losses caused France to get surrounded on all fronts, and the country was on the verge of collapse.

But when the dates showed September 1799, everything turned upside down. At the second battle of Zurich, the Russian army had a devastating loss, which was caused by lack of coordination in the coalition. The Austrian troops, which should have backed the Russian

army, left them isolated, and when Tsar Paul I heard about this, he blamed Austria for the loss, so he withdrew Russia from the coalition immediately.
When Napoleon received these economic, political, and military crises back in the fatherland, he abandoned his army in Egypt and secretly went back to Paris by ship. Because of the unstable government, he and his supporters staged the coup of 18 Brumaire, and the Directory got overthrown. After that, he established the French Consulate and called himself the first consul, so he became the de facto dictator.
After securing his power, Napoleon immediately moved to reclaim Italy.

Italian campaign

The Siege of Genoa took place in April 1800, and it was started by the Austrians. Even though Austrians captured the city. French general André Masséna's 2-month defense, which ended because of starvation in the army, saved enough time for Napoleon to assemble a new army. It was a strategic win for the French.
The Battle of Montebello, which took place on 9 June 1800, was started by the French to prevent the Austrian army, which was retreating from Genoa. The Austrian army was more than double the amount of the French army, but French General Jean Lannes managed to stand his ground until reinforcements came, so the French became superior and broke the Austrian lines. Another important thing is that, before these battles, Austria usually dominated the French army with the help of the coalition, but when Austria started losing, it affected the army psychologically too.
The Battle of Marengo was started by the Austrians. Napoleon overextended the army to obtain intelligence to take surprise attacks, but because of the overextension, the army was disorganized. Austrians caught French off guard near the Marengo village. The French were driven back for miles, and the Austrians thought they had won the battle, but while the exhausted Austrians were resting, General Dessaix arrived with a big French division. The battle started again, and the French were the advantageous side, and they dominated the Austrians again.
After getting defeated tragically. The Austrian side requested to negotiate. On 15 June 1800, both sides sat down to reach an agreement. The French side forced Austrians to leave all of Northern Italy. They had to surrender all their strongholds and fortresses west of the Mincio River to the French. They had no other choice, so the Convention of Alexandria was signed. This convention caused all Austro-Russian progression to get wasted.

The Battle of Hohenlinden was started by the Austrians to push the French out of Germany. After the Convention of Alexandria, Austrians had to gain land other than Italy. So Austrian troops marched into snowy Bavarian forests, but heavy snowstorms caused confusion on the Austrian side. The French ambushed Austrians, who were trapped on snowy, narrow forest roads, and the outcome of this battle was a brutal French win.

In the Battle of Pozzolo, France initiated the attack with the aim of crossing the Mincio River, which was accepted as the border of France. Crossing the river was a hard task strategically since the Austrians placed their artillery in case of another battle. A brutal battle that went on for 2 days ended with French victory. The French successfully secured the bridge, so the Austrians had to retreat towards Venetia, and this battle ended Austria's hope for lands in Italy.

The Armistice of Treviso was a ceasefire that was requested by Austrians since they lost on both the German and Italian fronts. With this ceasefire, Austria's participation in the second coalition wars was over, and they had to surrender their other key fortresses to France.

With the Treaty of Lunéville, Austria was officially out of the second coalition countries, and the Holy Roman Empire was forced to recognize the Rhine River as the official border of France. Furthermore, Austria renounced all claims on Northern Italy. Another thing is that this treaty left Great Britain against France alone

The Treaty of Amiens, which was signed between France and Great Britain on 25 March 1802. The Treaty of Amiens was the official end for the second coalition, which was set up to Destroy the French Republic. Great Britain agreed to return its overseas colonies, which were captured in war. France agreed to leave Northern Italy. A peaceful environment was formed in Europe until Britain declared war on France in May 1803, so the peace lasted for 14 months.



Anglo-Russian Invasion of Holland

The Anglo-Russian Invasion of Holland was one of the major campaigns of the War of the Second Coalition (1798–1802), a conflict fought between Revolutionary France and a coalition led by Great Britain, Austria, Russia, the Ottoman Empire, Naples, and Portugal. After the French army invaded the Dutch Republic in 1795, the Batavian Republic was established. Although officially an independent republic, it was closely allied with France and followed French foreign and military policy. This gave France access to Dutch ports, financial resources, and one of Europe's strongest navies.

For Great Britain, French control over the Netherlands posed a serious strategic threat. Dutch ports such as Den Helder, Amsterdam, and Texel were located only a short distance from the English coast. If France could fully utilize these ports, British trade in the North Sea and the English Channel would be endangered. Britain therefore considered the Batavian Republic an essential target in its broader strategy against France.

Meanwhile, Tsar Paul I of Russia joined the Second Coalition with the objective of limiting French expansion across Europe. British and Russian leaders believed that a successful invasion of Holland would weaken France, encourage anti-French uprisings, and possibly restore the House of Orange to power.

Objectives of the Coalition

The invasion had several military and political objectives:

- Remove the Batavian Republic from the French alliance.
- Restore William V, Prince of Orange, or another Orange government.
- Capture or destroy the Batavian fleet.
- Open a new northern front against France.
- Encourage Dutch citizens to revolt against the Batavian government.

British ministers expected that many Dutch citizens remained loyal to the House of Orange and would support an Allied landing. This assumption would later prove overly optimistic.

The Landing at Callantsoog

On 27 August 1799, approximately 12,000 British troops under Lieutenant General Sir Ralph Abercromby landed near Callantsoog in North Holland.

The landing was successful because the Allied navy controlled the sea, allowing troops and supplies to reach the shore with relatively little resistance. French and Batavian forces withdrew, enabling the British to establish a secure beachhead.
Several days later, additional British troops arrived under Prince Frederick, Duke of York, who assumed overall command. Russian troops also landed, bringing the Allied force to roughly 40,000 soldiers.

The Vlieter Incident

One of the campaign's greatest successes occurred before the main battles even began.
On 30 August 1799, much of the Batavian fleet surrendered to the British without fighting in what became known as the Vlieter Incident.
Several Dutch naval officers remained sympathetic to the House of Orange and refused to fight against Britain. As a result, Britain gained control of a large part of the Dutch navy without a major naval engagement.
Although this represented an important naval victory, it did not determine the outcome of the campaign on land.

Major Battles

Battle of Bergen (19 September 1799)

The Allied army launched a coordinated attack against French and Batavian positions near Bergen.
However, poor communication between British and Russian commanders caused serious problems. The difficult terrain—including dunes, marshes, and narrow roads—made coordination even harder. Russian troops suffered heavy casualties, and the attack ultimately failed.
The battle demonstrated that numerical superiority alone was insufficient without effective leadership and coordination.

Battle of Alkmaar (2 October 1799)

Following the setback at Bergen, the Allies reorganized and launched another offensive. This time they succeeded in forcing French forces to withdraw from several positions. Although the victory improved Allied morale, it failed to achieve the decisive breakthrough needed to capture Amsterdam or destroy the Franco-Batavian army.

Battle of Castricum (6 October 1799)

The decisive engagement of the campaign occurred near Castricum.
General Guillaume Brune, commander of the French army in Holland, launched a determined counterattack supported by Batavian troops.
After intense fighting, British and Russian forces were forced to retreat. Castricum effectively ended Allied hopes of conquering Holland.

Why Did the Invasion Fail?

1. Lack of Dutch Support

British planners expected a large Orangist uprising. Although some Dutch citizens supported the House of Orange, the anticipated nationwide rebellion never occurred.

Without widespread local support, the Allies were forced to rely entirely on their own military resources.

2. Difficult Geography

North Holland's landscape consisted of sand dunes, canals, flooded fields, and narrow roads.

These conditions made it extremely difficult for large armies to maneuver and limited the effectiveness of cavalry and artillery.

3. Command Problems

British and Russian commanders often disagreed on strategy.
Differences in language, military doctrine, and communication reduced the efficiency of joint operations.

4. Effective French Leadership

General Guillaume Brune successfully used defensive positions and local geography to offset Allied numerical advantages.
Rather than seeking unnecessary battles, he forced the Allies into costly attacks before launching his own counteroffensive.

Convention of Alkmaar

After the defeat at Castricum, further offensive operations became impossible.
Negotiations resulted in the Convention of Alkmaar, signed on 18 October 1799.

Under the agreement:

- British and Russian forces would evacuate Holland.
- French and Batavian troops would allow the evacuation without interference.
- The campaign officially ended in November 1799.

Consequences

Although Britain retained control of much of the Batavian fleet, the campaign failed to achieve its primary political objectives.
The Batavian Republic remained a French ally, and French influence in the Low Countries continued.
The campaign also weakened cooperation within the Second Coalition. Tsar Paul I became increasingly dissatisfied with British strategy and gradually withdrew Russia from active cooperation. This division benefited France and indirectly strengthened Napoleon Bonaparte, who would seize power later that year during the Coup of 18 Brumaire.

French Campaign in Egypt and Syria

With the French Revolutionary Wars raging in Europe, the French Directory spotted the opportunity to invade Egypt and strike a major blow to Britain's trade routes to India. The strategic importance of Egypt was so evident that General Bonaparte proposed a huge military expedition to secure the region. When the dates showed 1st July 1798, hostilities began as French forces landed near Alexandria and quickly marched to secure a famous victory against the Ottomans at the Battle of the Pyramids.
However, the hopes of the French were quickly ruined. British Admiral Nelson obliterated their fleet in the Battle of the Nile just a few weeks later. This devastating loss left Napoleon's army completely stranded and cut off from home. The soldiers managed to maintain their morale during a tough march through Syria amid extreme desert heat and a plague epidemic; however, they had to retreat because they failed to capture the strongly fortified city of
Acre. With the worsening situation, Napoleon himself returned to France. He abandoned his army in Syria, which was forced to surrender to the Ottoman and British troops in 1801.

Battle of Orsova

The Battle of Orsova took place on 7 August 1788 during the Austro-Turkish War of 1788–1791. Austria had entered the war against the Ottoman Empire while allied with Russia. The Ottoman army, commanded by Grand Vizier Koca Yusuf Pasha, planned to advance into the Banat region and attack the Austrian positions around Orsova and Mehadia. On 7 August, Ottoman forces began bombarding the Habsburg positions near Orșova and crossed the Danube. Austrian troops attempted to stop the crossing but were unable to hold their positions. As more Ottoman soldiers reached the opposite bank, the Austrian force began retreating toward Szupany and Koramnik. Ottoman troops continued the attack and pursued the withdrawing soldiers through the surrounding mountainous terrain.

The battle ended in a clear Ottoman victory. Most of the Austrian De Vins infantry battalion was lost during the fighting and retreat, while the Ottomans captured 11 cannons and ammunition. The victory allowed Koca Yusuf Pasha to continue the Ottoman offensive

deeper into the Banat. However, Orșova was only an early success in a larger war that continued until the Treaty of Sistova in 1791.

Siege of Šabac

The Siege of Šabac took place between 21 and 24 April 1788, during the Austro-Turkish War of 1788–1791. Šabac was an Ottoman fortress on the Sava River, located on an important frontier route toward Belgrade. Early in the war, Habsburg forces under Anton Ferdinand Mittrowsky crossed the Sava and surrounded the fortress. The attacking force included infantry, cavalry, and engineers prepared for siege operations.

The Habsburg army bombarded the Ottoman position for several days. On 24 April, the fortress surrendered; Colonel Paul Davidovich played an important role in convincing the Ottoman commander to capitulate. Around 800 Ottoman soldiers were taken prisoner, while the Habsburg forces captured 17 cannons and 16 standards. Austrian losses were comparatively light. The fall of Šabac therefore became one of the first clear Habsburg successes of the 1788 campaign.

However, the capture of Šabac did not lead to an immediate collapse of Ottoman defenses. The wider Habsburg campaign soon faced major logistical problems, disease, and Ottoman counterattacks. Šabac was therefore an important local victory, but not a decisive victory in the wider war.



Siege of Šturlić

The Siege of Šturlić took place on 9 February 1788, during the opening stage of the Austro-Turkish War of 1788–1791. Šturlić was an Ottoman-held frontier fortress on the Korana River, near the Habsburg–Ottoman border. At the beginning of the war, Habsburg Croatian troops from the Lika and Otočac regions crossed the Korana and launched attacks against Ottoman frontier positions, including Drežnik and Šturlić.

The force sent against Šturlić was commanded by Lieutenant Colonel Mathias Rukavina von Boynograd. Habsburg troops burned parts of the surrounding area before attacking the fortress. However, the Ottoman garrison offered strong resistance and successfully defended the position. During the fighting, Rukavina was seriously wounded, while the Habsburg force suffered approximately 141 killed and wounded. Unable to capture the fortress, the attackers withdrew toward the Korana River.

The engagement ended in an Ottoman victory. Although Šturlić was a relatively small action compared with later battles of the war, it demonstrated that Habsburg attempts to quickly capture Ottoman frontier fortifications would face serious resistance. The fortress remained in Ottoman hands after the attack.

Haitian Revolution

The Haitian Revolution was a major successful slave uprising in the French colony of Saint-Domingue between the years of 1791 and 1804, where the enslaved people with black skin fought against colonial slavery systems in the region. The revolution resulted in the removal of slavery and the independence of Haiti, making it the first independent Black-regional republic and one of the most significant anti-colonial movements in history. It was important because there were hundreds of revolutions that failed during the slavery period, and the Haitian Revolution was the only one that was successful.

Before the Revolution

When the slavery system was still going on in Haiti, the little region was single-handedly providing nearly half of the world's sugar needs. The slaves were mostly of African descent, and due to racism, they were working and being traded in very hard conditions around the world with almost no rights. Before the revolution began in 1791, Saint-Domingue had already experienced growing tensions between different groups in society, which the French Revolution made the tensions even stronger and the situation much more complicated.

During the Revolution

The Haitian Revolution began in August 1791 when thousands of enslaved people started a huge uprising in the northern part of Saint-Domingue Island. They destroyed plantations and fought against the people who supported the slavery system. As the revolution continued, different groups, including enslaved people, free people of color, and European powers, became involved in the conflict. France eventually removed slavery in its colonies in 1794, but the fighting continued because other countries, especially Britain and Spain, also wanted to control Saint-Domingue. Toussaint Louverture became one of the most important leaders of the revolution and helped organize the former slaves into a powerful army. However, in 1802, Napoleon Bonaparte sent French troops to the island in order to get control of the colony and restore French power. Toussaint Louverture was captured and died in prison, but the revolution continued under leaders such as Jean-Jacques Dessalines and more.

After the Revolution

After years of fighting, the revolutionaries defeated the French army in 1803. On January 1, 1804, Jean-Jacques Dessalines declared the independence of Haiti, and it became the first independent country in Latin America and the Caribbean created by a successful slave revolution, and it became the first independent Black republic in the modern world. The revolution permanently ended slavery in Haiti and showed that enslaved people could successfully fight against a powerful colonial empire and reminded everyone that they also had rights. However, Haiti faced many difficulties after independence, including economic problems and international isolation because of other countries wanting to continue the slavery system, so they also received pressure from powerful countries. Even with these

challenges, the Haitian Revolution became an important symbol of freedom, anti-colonialism, and resistance against slavery and racism.

Anglo-Spanish War

The Anglo-Spanish War and the Road to Napoleon's Coronation

Spain Changes Sides

By 1796, Spain had undergone a major change in its foreign policy. Only a few years earlier, Spain had fought Revolutionary France during the War of the Pyrenees. The Peace of Basel in 1795, however, brought an end to that conflict.
The Spanish government now saw Britain as a more immediate threat to its interests. Spain's long-standing connections with France were restored, and in August 1796, Spain and France concluded the Second Treaty of San Ildefonso.
This agreement brought the two countries into a military alliance against Great Britain. For Spain, the decision was influenced by its traditional rivalry with Britain, Britain's naval power, and the importance of Spanish possessions and trade routes across the Atlantic.
As a result, Spain entered the war against Britain in 1796.

The Anglo-Spanish War

The new war was closely connected to the wider French Revolutionary Wars. Britain was fighting Revolutionary France, while Spain had now become a French ally.
The Spanish government hoped that cooperation with France would protect Spanish interests. In practice, however, the alliance created serious military and economic difficulties.

Britain possessed one of Europe's strongest navies and was able to attack Spanish commerce and colonial possessions. Spain, meanwhile, had to divide its resources between defending the Iberian Peninsula, protecting its overseas empire, and supporting France.
The conflict therefore became an important example of the growing importance of naval power during the Revolutionary Wars.

The Battle of Cape St. Vincent

One of the most important naval engagements occurred on 14 February 1797.
The British fleet under Admiral Sir John Jervis defeated a larger Spanish fleet near Cape St Vincent in Portugal.
The battle demonstrated the effectiveness of the Royal Navy and damaged Spanish naval prestige.
Among the British commanders was Horatio Nelson, who played a notable role during the battle. His reputation increased considerably as a result of his actions.
The defeat made it more difficult for Spain to cooperate effectively with France at sea.

The Attack on Tenerife

Later in 1797, Britain attempted to attack the Spanish-controlled Canary Islands.
The expedition was unsuccessful. British troops and sailors were unable to capture Santa Cruz de Tenerife and were forced to withdraw.
The attack demonstrated that British naval superiority did not automatically guarantee success against Spanish coastal defences.
It also showed that the Anglo-Spanish conflict was being fought across a wide geographical area rather than only in European waters.

Economic Pressure on Spain

The war placed considerable pressure on the Spanish economy.
British naval activity disrupted Spanish trade with its American colonies. Spain depended heavily on maritime connections with the Spanish Empire, meaning that British control of important sea routes could have consequences far beyond Europe.

Spanish finances were already under pressure, and the cost of maintaining military forces made the situation more difficult.
At the same time, Spain's alliance with France did not provide the security that the Spanish government had expected.
France was primarily concerned with its own wars in continental Europe, while Spain had to deal with British naval power on a much larger geographical scale.

The Situation Changes

By the end of the 1790s, the political situation in Europe was changing rapidly.
Napoleon Bonaparte had returned from Egypt and seized political power in France through the Coup of 18 Brumaire in November 1799.
As First Consul, Napoleon attempted to stabilise France and reorganise its relations with other European powers.
For Spain, this meant that cooperation with France increasingly depended on Napoleon's policies.
The French government wanted Spain to remain an ally because Spanish territory, ports, and naval resources were strategically valuable in the struggle against Britain.

The Treaty of San Ildefonso and French Influence

The relationship between France and Spain became increasingly unequal.
Napoleon's France was becoming the dominant military power in continental Europe. Spain, by contrast, was struggling with financial difficulties and the consequences of the war with Britain.
Spanish foreign policy was strongly influenced by Manuel Godoy, the powerful minister of Charles IV.
Godoy attempted to maintain Spain's position while avoiding complete dependence on either France or Britain. This became increasingly difficult as Napoleon demanded greater cooperation.
Spain's alliance with France therefore gradually became less a partnership between equals and more a relationship in which France could pressure Spain to follow its strategic objectives.

The Peace of Amiens

The Anglo-Spanish conflict did not continue without interruption.
In 1802, the wider war between Britain and France temporarily ended with the Treaty of Amiens.
Spain also made peace with Britain as part of the broader settlement.
For a short period, Europe experienced relative peace.
However, the peace did not resolve the major disagreements between Britain and France.
Napoleon continued to expand French influence across Europe, while Britain remained concerned about the growing power of France.
The peace therefore proved temporary.

War Returns in 1803

The Treaty of Amiens collapsed in 1803.
Britain and France returned to war in May 1803. At first, Spain attempted to remain neutral.
Napoleon, however, needed Spain's cooperation.
The French emperor was preparing for a possible invasion of Britain and wanted to prevent Spain from supporting the British. Spain eventually agreed to provide financial and military assistance to France.
Although Spain did not immediately declare war on Britain, its growing cooperation with Napoleon increasingly brought it into the French camp.
The situation would become even more important after Napoleon abandoned his immediate invasion plans and turned his attention toward reorganising his European strategy.

The Road Toward a New European War

By 1804, Napoleon had transformed the political structure of France.
The Consulate had concentrated power in his hands, and the Senate eventually declared him Emperor of the French.
His coronation took place on 2 December 1804 at Notre-Dame Cathedral in Paris.
At this point, Spain remained closely connected to France, while Britain was once again at war with Napoleon.

The Anglo-Spanish relationship had therefore changed dramatically within less than a decade:

1795: Spain makes peace with Revolutionary France.

1796: Spain becomes a French ally and enters war with Britain.

1797: Britain defeats the Spanish fleet at Cape St Vincent.

1802: Britain and Spain temporarily make peace.

1803: War between Britain and France resumes, and Spain moves closer to France.

1804: Napoleon becomes Emperor of the French.

Why Is This Period Important?

The period from 1796 to 1804 is important because it demonstrates how quickly European alliances could change during the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars.

Spain began the period as a former enemy of Revolutionary France but soon became one of France's most important allies.

For Britain, the conflict demonstrated the importance of naval power. Britain's ability to attack Spanish commerce and challenge Spanish fleets allowed it to place considerable pressure on Spain even when French armies dominated much of continental Europe.

For France, Spain was valuable because of its geographical position and naval resources. Napoleon increasingly viewed the Iberian Peninsula as part of the wider struggle against Britain.

By the time Napoleon became emperor in 1804, the foundations had already been established for the much larger Franco-British and Franco-Spanish conflicts that would dominate European politics in the following decade.

Irish rebellion (1798)

Introduction

The Rebellion of 1798 was the first—and bloodiest—mass republican uprising in Irish history, launched by the "United Irishmen," an underground republican organization that aimed to overthrow the Kingdom of Ireland, sever ties with Great Britain, and establish an Irish Republic based on the principles of the French Revolution.

The 1790s marked an exceptional period in Irish history, as the United Irishmen was a secular organization that commanded significant support among both Catholics and Protestants—particularly those in the northern region of Ulster.

However, this unity between Catholics and Protestants was far from universal, and the conflict itself gave rise to sectarian strife and acts of brutality in certain regions.

Background

Following the defeat of the Catholics in the Jacobite-Williamite War of the 1690s, the Penal Laws were enacted; anyone who refused to recognize the English monarch as the head of their church—namely Catholics and Presbyterians—was barred not only from Parliament but also from holding public office or serving in the military.

Throughout the 17th century, lands belonging to Catholics were also confiscated on grounds of political disloyalty. Catholics—who were largely descended from the pre-17th-century Irish population—also suffered from restrictions regarding land ownership, inheritance, the practice of professions, and the right to bear arms.

Although the relaxation of certain penal laws from the late 1700s onwards allowed for the opening of new Catholic churches and schools, as well as enabling Catholics to join the clergy and acquire property, the vast majority of the Irish population remained excluded from political power—and largely from wealth and land ownership—as the final decade of the 18th century began.

United Irishmen

Founded in Belfast in October 1791—with branches later opening in Belfast and Dublin—by a group consisting mostly of Presbyterians but also including upper-class Irishmen (such as Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Bagenal Harvey, Henry Joy McCracken, and Thomas Addis Emmet), the United Irishmen campaigned solely for reform and lobbied to extend voting rights to Catholics and the propertyless. The United Irishmen held a resolutely non-sectarian outlook, aiming to unite Irish people of all denominations by transcending past sectarian conflicts. As Theobald Wolfe Tone, a leading member of the group, stated, their motto was "to unite Catholic, Protestant, and Dissenter under the common name of Irishman."

Late 18th Century

The United Irishmen did not remain an openly reformist organization for long. The French Revolution took a radical turn in 1791. Over the next two years, it deposed King Louis XVI and declared a Republic.

Tensions escalated following the outbreak of war between Britain and Revolutionary France in 1793. British officials were alarmed; fearing the rapid spread of the Revolution across the English Channel, they were determined to counter it with military force.

At the same time, public discontent was growing due to state repression alongside economic hardships; the government was deploying troops to suppress the United Irishmen and other "rebellious" groups. The government also announced that men were required to serve in the militia to maintain internal security in Ireland during the war with France. Resistance to forced conscription into the militia led to violent uprisings in 1793 that resulted in the deaths of more than 200 people.

In such a political climate, the path to peaceful reform in Ireland was blocked. The United Irishmen— sympathizers of the Revolution—were now viewed by the British as a serious threat.

As a result of this the Society of United Irishmen were banned and went under ground in 1794 after its collaboration with the French government came to light. A crackdown on members ensued, Wolfe Tone went into exile first to America and then to France, where he sought military aid for a revolution in Ireland.

After that The United Irishmen party announced that their goal was now a fully independent Irish Republic.

Forced underground, the United Irishmen began establishing a clandestine military structure. To recruit more foot soldiers for their hoped-for revolution, they made contact with the

Defenders—a Catholic secret society that had already been engaged in low-level skirmishes with Protestant groups such as the Peep of Day Boys and the newly formed Orange Order, particularly in the north.

Consequently, while the vast majority of the United Irishmen's senior leadership remained Protestant, the rank-and-file membership—with the exception of northeast Ulster—became increasingly Catholic.

Earl William Fitzwilliam, Ireland's liberal Lord Lieutenant, was appointed in January 1795 with the aim of passing Henry Grattan's proposal—which envisaged full Catholic emancipation, including the right of Catholics to sit in Parliament—and thereby averting discontent. However, to the great disappointment of liberals and Catholics in Ireland, Fitzwilliam was dismissed by Prime Minister William Pitt in March of that same year, just three months after taking office. Pitt feared alienating the Protestant ruling class in Ireland at a time when the war with revolutionary France was ongoing.

Fitzwilliam had dismissed the hardline conservative Irish cabinet—comprising John Fitzgibbon, John Foster, and John Beresford, whom radicals dubbed the "junta"—and replaced them with liberals such as Henry Grattan. Yet, following Fitzwilliam's dismissal, his successors—Lords Lieutenant Camden and subsequently Westmoreland—reinstated the "junta," which pursued a policy of repression. Many viewed Fitzwilliam's dismissal as the squandering of the last opportunity to prevent violent conflict in Ireland during the 1790s.

Towards Rebellion

In 1796, revolutionary France dispatched a massive invasion fleet to Ireland—accompanied by Wolfe Tone—comprising approximately 14,000 troops. Purely by chance, the fleet encountered storms, and some vessels foundered off Bantry Bay in County Cork. Battered by the weather and having lost many soldiers to drowning, the fleet was forced to return to France.

Stunned by the near-invasion, the government in Dublin responded with a wave of brutal repression, enacting an Insurrection Act that suspended *habeas corpus* and other peacetime legal protections.

Deploying a force composed of British regulars, militia, and the staunchly loyal "Yeomanry"—a newly formed unit that largely served to deepen existing Protestant sectarian divisions—government forces sought to terrorize Irish revolutionaries who might aid the French in the event of an invasion. The methods employed by Crown forces included the

burning of homes and Catholic churches, mass arrests, extrajudicial killings, and the practice of smearing burning pitch onto victims' scalps.

The government also established a network of spies that succeeded in infiltrating and undermining the United Irishmen. This campaign led to the arrest and death of much of the movement's leadership. Foremost among them was Lord Edward Fitzgerald—the rebels' figurehead and principal military commander—who was mortally wounded while resisting arrest on May 18, 1798.

By the summer of 1798, facing intense pressure from their own supporters, the United Irishmen planned a coordinated national uprising aimed at overthrowing the government in Dublin, severing ties with Britain, and establishing an Irish Republic.

The Outbreak of the Rebellion

Faced with mounting threats, the United Irishmen felt compelled to launch a rebellion before it was too late. The uprising was scheduled to begin on May 23, 1798, with the halting of all mail coaches departing from Dublin.

However, authorities in Dublin were aware of the plans and arrested much of the United Irishmen's senior leadership on the eve of the rebellion. Edward Fitzgerald, their most senior leader in Ireland, was shot and mortally wounded during his arrest.

While mail coaches were stopped in some areas, other regions remained unaware of the planned uprising; furthermore, with the vast majority of the United Irish leadership imprisoned or in exile, the revolt erupted in a localized and uncoordinated manner.

In the areas surrounding Dublin—Kildare, Wicklow, Carlow, and Meath—large numbers of United Irishmen took up arms in response to the halting of the mail coaches; yet the city of Dublin itself, heavily garrisoned and under martial law, saw no activity.

The initial uprisings led to some fierce clashes, but the poorly armed (mostly possessing homemade pikes) and ill-led rebels were defeated by British, militia, and Yeomanry troops. In many instances, rebels who were captured or surrendered were massacred by vengeful government forces.

Lacking adequate arms, training, and leadership, the rebels stood almost no chance against government forces. Dublin was placed under a tight military blockade and never faced a serious threat.

Wexford, Ulster and Kilalla

The United Irishmen achieved success only in County Wexford. There, rebels who rose up on May 27 defeated militia and Yeomanry units, capturing the towns of Enniscorthy and Wexford.

The leadership of the Wexford rebels comprised both Catholics and Protestants (the leader was the Protestant Bagenal Harvey), though it included Catholic priests such as Father John Murphy, and the vast majority of the rebels were Catholic; in many cases, they were enraged by sectarian atrocities committed by the Yeomanry in the preceding months.

Despite determined and costly assaults, the rebels failed to capture the towns of New Ross and Arklow and found themselves trapped in the southeastern corner of Ireland. In retaliation for the killing of prisoners by government forces at New Ross, the rebels killed over 100 local loyalists at Scullabogue and more than 100 people at Wexford Bridge. The fighting during the rebellion was marked by extreme ideological fervor and increasingly sectarian brutality; prisoners on both sides were frequently killed after combat.

The Wexford rebellion was suppressed on June 21, 1798—roughly a month after it began—when over 13,000 British troops stormed the main rebel camp at Vinegar Hill, dispersing the main insurgent army, though failing to trap them. While some elements attempted to spread the uprising to the Kilkenny area, others sought to join forces with the United Irishmen in Kildare and Meath before ultimately taking refuge in the Wicklow Mountains. Guerrilla warfare continued, but the main rebel stronghold had fallen.

In the north, the predominantly Presbyterian United Irishmen launched their own uprisings in the counties of Antrim and Down in early June to support Wexford; however, despite initial successes, they were defeated by government troops and militia. Their leaders, Henry Joy McCracken and Henry Munro, were captured and executed.

A short-lived rebellion also broke out in western County Cork but was quickly suppressed following a skirmish near Clonakilty.

The final act of the rebellion occurred in August 1798, when a small French expeditionary force of 1,500 troops landed at Killala Bay in County Mayo.

Led by General Humbert, they defeated a British force at Castlebar but were subsequently defeated at Ballinamuck and forced to surrender. While the French soldiers were allowed to surrender, the Irish rebels accompanying them were massacred.

The final attempt by the French to land an expeditionary force in Ireland—accompanied by United Irishman leader Wolfe Tone—was repelled and defeated by the Royal Navy in a naval battle off Tory Island, off the coast of Donegal, in October. Tone was taken prisoner along with more than 2,000 French soldiers. Sentenced to death, Tone committed suicide in a Dublin prison.

Lord Cornwallis, the new Lord Lieutenant sent to suppress the rebellion, sought to halt the bloodshed and reprisals by government forces once the fighting had ended.

He signaled this intent by sparing the lives of other imprisoned United Irish leaders in exchange for information about the secret United Irish organization. An amnesty and pardon were also announced for rank-and-file United Irishmen who surrendered their weapons. Most did surrender, though some—including the Wicklow guerrilla fighter Michael Dwyer—held out for several years after the rebellion, only surrendering in 1803.

Afterwards

The main hostilities of the 1798 rebellion lasted only three months, yet the death toll reached into the tens of thousands. Estimates of the number of deaths range from a low of approximately 10,000 to a high of 70,000. In addition, thousands of people were wounded, and thousands of homes and farms were burned.

Thousands of former rebels were exiled to Scotland or sent to penal colonies in Australia. Others, such as Miles Byrne, went into exile and served in the French revolutionary and Napoleonic armies until 1815.

A short-lived uprising in 1802, led by Robert Emmet—the younger brother of one of the leaders of the 1798 United Irishmen—yielded little result other than Emmet's execution.

In 1800, under pressure from British authorities, the Irish Parliament voted itself out of existence, and Ireland was governed directly from London from that time until 1922.

Cornwallis’s aim was for Catholic Emancipation to accompany the Union, thereby securing Catholic support for the new United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. However, this did not come to pass due to strong opposition from conservative Irish Protestants and King George III. Catholics did not gain the right to sit in Parliament or hold public office until 1829.

Although the radicals of the 1790s had hoped that religious divisions in Ireland would become a thing of the past, the violent sectarian clashes that occurred on both sides during the

rebellion actually hardened sectarian animosities. Many Northern Presbyterians came to view the British connection as less dangerous to their interests, given that they would be a minority in an independent Ireland.

Thus, the United Irishmen's hope of establishing a secular, independent, and democratic Irish Republic ended in total defeat. However, the laying of the foundations for the ideology of Irish republicanism would leave a long and lasting impact on Irish politics.

Napoleon’s Coup of 18 Brumaire

France Under the Directory (1795–1799)



(An image that shows 5 elected directors when the directory was established)

By 1799 the French Republic was in one of the Revolution's most volatile periods. The Directory was established by the Constitution of Year III in 1795. Initially, the goal was to prevent the return of royal dictatorship and Jacobin radicalism. The executive power was exercised by five directors, and the legislative power was divided between two assemblies, the Council of the Ancients and the Council of Five Hundred.

Initially, the regime brought a level of stability to France following the Reign of Terror but was soon associated with political corruption, financial crises, and ineffective leadership. Inflation had sapped the economy’s strength, the collection of taxes was inefficient, and many citizens had lost confidence in the government. The Directory became more reliant on the French Army to put down internal dissent and restore order, increasing the power of military leaders in politics.

At the same time, France remained engaged in the War of the Second Coalition, placing additional pressure on the government. While French armies continued to achieve victories on several fronts, military success could no longer compensate for domestic instability.

Napoleon's Return to France



(A caricature that shows Napoléon's departure from Egypt)

In October 1799, General Napoleon Bonaparte returned unexpectedly from Egypt. Although the Egyptian Campaign had failed to achieve all of its strategic objectives, news of those failures reached France slowly. Instead, Napoleon was still celebrated as the victorious commander of the Italian Campaign and one of the Republic's greatest military heroes.
His popularity, combined with the weakness of the Directory, convinced several leading politicians that Napoleon could provide the authority needed to establish a stronger government.
Among the most influential of these politicians was Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès, one of the directors and author of the famous revolutionary pamphlet ‘What Is the Third Estate?’ Sieyès believed that France required constitutional reform but needed a respected military leader capable of securing political change.

Planning the Coup

The conspiracy brought together both civilian politicians and military officers.
Its principal participants included:

1) Napoleon Bonaparte—whose military prestige provided legitimacy and force.
2) Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès—one of the five directors and the principal political architect of the conspiracy.
3) Roger Ducos—Director and moderate ally of Sieyès.
4) Lucien Bonaparte—Napoléon's youngest brother, delegate of Corsika, and he will be elected soon as President of the Council of Five Hundred.
5) Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand—France's former Minister of Foreign Affairs who offered diplomatic and political support.
6) Joseph Fouché, Minister of Police—who ensured that opposition within Paris remained limited.
Rather than presenting the coup as a revolution, its organizers argued that France faced an imminent Jacobin conspiracy. This claim justified moving the legislative councils from Paris to Saint-Cloud, where troops loyal to Napoleon could guarantee their "security."

Staging the Coup

18 Brumaire (9 November 1799)

On the first day of the coup, a rigged session that Jakobin delegates did not invite had been organized at both councils, and they passed the acts for promoting Napoléon as the military commander of Paris and urgently moving both of the councils to an estate located outside of the city called Chatéu de Saint-Cloud to prevent them from any radical movements from Jakobins or any attacks from Royalists.
At the same time in the palace of Luxembourg:
- Sieyès and Roger Ducos resigned from the Directory and called the other directors to do the same.
- Paul Barras, one of the most influential directors, also resigned after a great bribe

- The remaining directors, Louis Gohier and Jean-François Moulin, were isolated and prevented from exercising authority.
With three resignations, the Directory had been constitutionally dissolved.

19 Brumaire (10 November 1799)

The following day, Napoleon personally addressed the legislative councils in an attempt to justify the government's reorganization.
His appearance before the Council of Five Hundred quickly turned into a political crisis. Many deputies accused him of violating the Constitution and demanded that he be declared an outlaw.
As tensions increased, Lucien Bonaparte left the chamber and declared that extremist deputies threatened both Napoleon and the Republic.
Shortly afterwards, soldiers under General Joachim Murat entered the assembly hall and dispersed the deputies by force. Organized resistance collapsed, allowing the conspirators to establish a provisional government.

The Consulate

Following the success of the coup, executive authority passed to a provisional commission that soon drafted the Constitution of Year VIII.
The new constitution created the Consulate that was headed by three consuls:
- Napoleon Bonaparte
- Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès
- Roger Ducos
Although executive power was theoretically shared, Napoleon rapidly emerged as the dominant figure. As First Consul, he controlled the military, directed foreign policy, appointed government officials, and exercised significant influence over legislation.
Within only a few years, Napoleon transformed the Consulate into an increasingly centralized regime, culminating in his coronation as Emperor of the French in 1804.

Historical Significance

The Coup of 18 Brumaire marked the end of one phase of the French Revolution and the beginning of another.
Some historians argue that the coup effectively ended the revolutionary experiment in representative government by concentrating political authority in the hands of a single individual. Others maintain that Napoleon preserved many important achievements of the Revolution, including legal equality, administrative reform, and the abolition of feudal privileges, while replacing political instability with a stronger executive government. Regardless of interpretation, the coup fundamentally reshaped both France and Europe. It provided the political foundation for the Napoleonic Consulate and eventually for the Napoleonic Empire, whose influence would dominate European affairs for more than a decade.

Louisiana Purchase

On the 13th of April, 1803 The United States bought 828,000 square miles from the French Empire for 15 million (the number is up to 27 million with the interests) American dollars treaty was signed by Robert Livingston, James Monroe, and François Barbé-Marbois. At first President Thomas Jefferson only wanted to secure the vital port of New Orleans to guarantee the Navigation Rights of American farmers on the Mississippi River, so he sent Robert Livingston and James Monroe to France. But at that time France needed funds to draw the swords to Europe, so they offered the whole Louisiana territory. The U.S. government paid around 4 cents per acre and gained rights rule from the Mississippi River to Rocky Mountains

First Barbary War

On the 14th of May 1804, Lord of Tripoli Yusuf Karamanlı officially declared war against the USA due to not paying taxes by cutting down the American flag at the consulate building. This was just the starting point, but there was more to come.
On the 1st of August, the American battleship USS Enterprise had defeated the battleship called "Tripoli", which was owned by Tripoli at Malta, deficits.

On the 31st of October the American ship “USS Philadelphia" got washed ashore into an uncharted reef while they were chasing a pirate ship, and after a while the crew got captured by the pirates as hostages.
On the night of February 16, 1804, Decatur led a covert team of American sailors into Tripoli Harbour and destroyed the captured Philadelphia, ruining the Pasha’s plans of converting it into a Barbary warship.
On August 3, 1804, Commodore Edward Preble's Mediterranean Squadron launched the first of a series of bombardments on the harbour of Tripoli. Designed to destroy the defending batteries and sink enemy ships, but in the time we are in, it is a mystery if they will be successful.



Warsaw Uprising

Who was the leader?
The leader of the rebellion was led by Tadeusz Kościuszko. A talented military engineer who designed West Point and helped the Americans win the Battle of Saratoga.

Why did it happen?

By 1793, Russia and Prussia had invaded and divided the country multiple times to take its land. After the Second Partition, the Polish were furious. They refused to let their state be destroyed without putting up a fight. In March 1794, Kościuszko declared a national insurrection in the city square of Kraków and took charge.

Kościuszko realised that the regular Polish army was too small to take on major empires by themselves. So for the '17s, he urged ordinary people to fight with a promise. He issued a decree to end serfdom. Serfdom is a system that treated peasants like property. Ending serfdom granted the people personal freedom and a land of their own. Due to this, thousands of peasants joined the fight. Using homemade pikes with the use of their farm scythes. Despite the odds, this makeshift army achieved significant numbers of victories.



A highly romanticised painting of the Battle of Racławice depicting Kosciuszko's forces chasing after the retreating Russian forces

How it ended and the aftermath

Despite their incredible courage, good intentions did not take them far, as they weren't strong enough to overcome the well-trained armies of Prussia and Russia. By November 1794, the uprising came to its end. Kosciuszko was seriously wounded and captured.
In 1795, the neighboring empires completely divided what was left of the region. This Third Partition removed Poland from the map of Europe for the next 123 years.
Even though it failed militarily, the uprising turned Kościuszko into a lasting symbol of liberty. He remained committed to these ideals for the rest of his life. In his will, he left his

American estate to fund the freedom and education of African-American slaves, including those owned by his close friend Thomas Jefferson.

Italian Campaign (1796–1797)

Italy Before the Campaign

In 1796, Italy was not a united country. The peninsula was divided between several states, including the Kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont, the Papal States, the Republic of Venice, and a number of smaller duchies. Austria was the strongest foreign power in northern Italy and directly controlled Lombardy. France had already been fighting Austria and Sardinia-Piedmont as part of the War of the First Coalition. For the French government, northern Italy was therefore both a military front and a possible way to weaken Austrian influence in Europe.



Bonaparte Takes Command

In March 1796, the French Directory appointed the 26-year-old **Napoleon Bonaparte** commander of the Army of Italy. Although he had already gained attention during the Siege of Toulon and the political crisis of 13 Vendémiaire in Paris, this was his first command of a full field army. The troops he received were experienced but suffered from poor supplies,

limited equipment, and low morale. Bonaparte understood that he needed a quick campaign. He encouraged his soldiers with promises of victory and presented northern Italy as a region where the army could find the resources it lacked.

Montenotte, Mondovì, and the Defeat of Piedmont

Napoleon began his offensive in April 1796. French victories at Montenotte, Millesimo, and Dego separated the Piedmontese army from its Austrian allies. Napoleon then turned against Piedmont and defeated its forces at Mondovì on 21 April.

With the French army advancing deeper into its territory, Sardinia-Piedmont requested peace. The Armistice of Cherasco, signed on 28 April 1796, removed Piedmont from active fighting and gave France access to important fortresses and routes. The settlement was followed by the Treaty of Paris on 15 May 1796, which formally ended the war between France and Sardinia-Piedmont. Napoleon was now free to concentrate his army against Austria.





Lodi and the Capture of Milan

After defeating Piedmont, Napoleon moved east against the Austrian army. On 10 May 1796, French and Austrian forces met at Lodi, where an Austrian rear guard defended a bridge over the Adda River. French artillery and infantry attacks eventually forced the Austrian defenders to retreat.

The main Austrian army escaped, so Lodi did not destroy Austria's forces. However, the victory opened the road to Milan. French troops entered the city on 15 May, giving Napoleon control over much of Lombardy and forcing the Austrians further east.

Mantua, Castiglione, and Bassano

The fortress of Mantua became the main Austrian stronghold remaining in northern Italy. Napoleon placed it under siege in 1796, and Austria repeatedly sent armies to rescue it.

The first major relief army was commanded by Dagobert von Wurmser. His advance forced Napoleon temporarily to abandon the siege, but Napoleon concentrated his forces and defeated the Austrians at Castiglione on 5 August 1796.

Wurmser later attempted another advance. Napoleon defeated his forces at Bassano on 8 September. Wurmser managed to reach Mantua with part of his army, but this left him trapped inside the already besieged fortress.

The Battle of Arcole

Austria launched another attempt to save Mantua in autumn 1796 under General József Alvinczi. Austrian forces advanced from different directions and placed the French army under serious pressure.

The main fighting took place at Arcole from 15 to 17 November 1796. French forces initially struggled in the marshy terrain around the Alpone River, but after three days of fighting, Napoleon forced the Austrian army to withdraw. Arcole stopped another major attempt to relieve Mantua, although Austria was still determined to save the fortress.



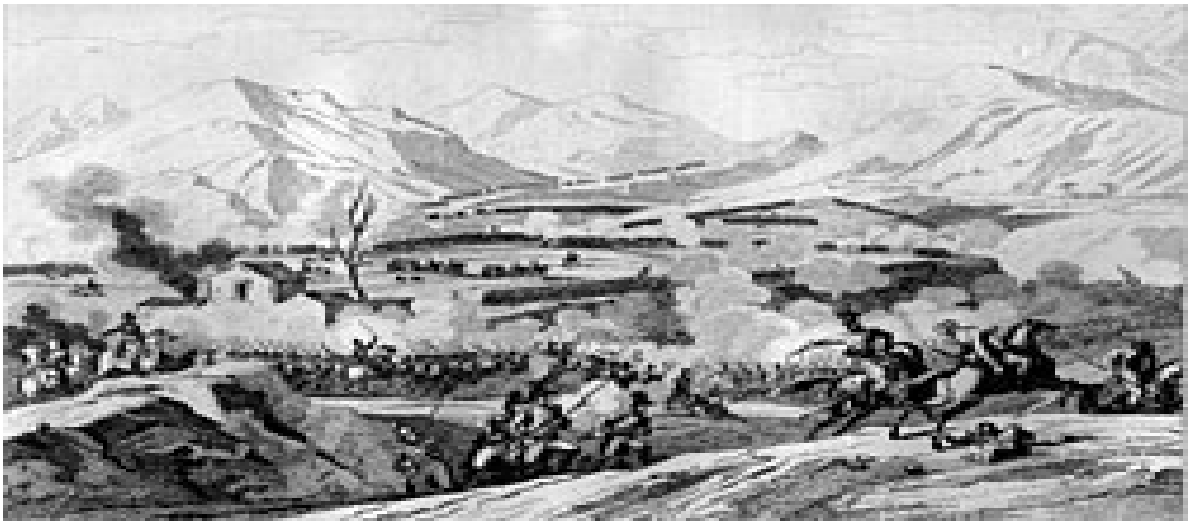


Rivoli and the Fall of Mantua

Austria made its final major attempt to rescue Mantua in January 1797. Alvinczi advanced toward Rivoli, north of Verona, while Napoleon rapidly concentrated French forces in the area.

The Battle of Rivoli on 14–15 January 1797 became one of the decisive victories of the campaign. Austrian forces attacked from several directions but had difficulty coordinating their movements. Napoleon concentrated his troops against the most dangerous attacks and used artillery and reinforcements to defeat them.

The Austrian defeat ended any realistic chance of saving Mantua. With supplies running out and no relief army coming, Mantua surrendered on 2 February 1797. Austria had lost its main defensive position in northern Italy.



The Papal States and the Treaty of Tolentino

France had already fought the Papal States earlier in the campaign. The first French advance ended with the Armistice of Bologna on 23 June 1796, which temporarily stopped the fighting.

After the fall of Mantua, Napoleon renewed military operations against the Papal States. French forces advanced rapidly, and Pope Pius VI chose to negotiate rather than continue the war. The Treaty of Tolentino, signed on 19 February 1797, ended the conflict. The Papal States were forced to accept territorial and financial demands from France. This secured Napoleon's southern position and allowed him to concentrate on the final campaign against Austria.

The Advance into Austria and Leoben

With Piedmont defeated and Mantua captured, Napoleon began a direct offensive toward Austria in March 1797. French forces crossed the Tagliamento and advanced through the Alpine regions toward the Habsburg lands.

The situation had now completely changed. Napoleon had started the campaign fighting Austrian forces in northern Italy; less than a year later, his army was advancing toward Austria itself. With French forces threatening the road toward Vienna, the Austrian government agreed to negotiate.

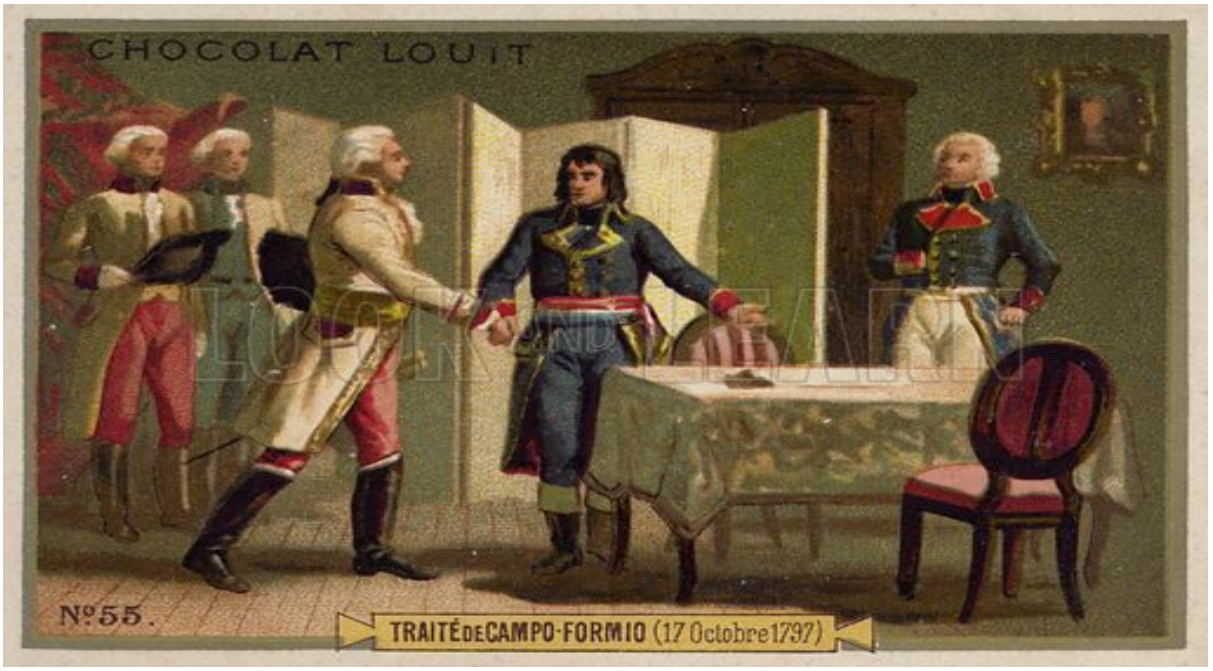
The preliminaries of Leoben, agreed on 18 April 1797, ended the main military operations between Napoleon's army and Austria and prepared the way for a final peace settlement.

The Treaty of Campo Formio

The final settlement between France and Austria was the Treaty of Campo Formio, signed on 17 October 1797.

Austria recognised the Cisalpine Republic and accepted major French gains. France also gained the Austrian Netherlands and strengthened its position in Italy. In return, Austria received Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, territories that had previously belonged to the Republic of Venice.

Campo Formio effectively ended the War of the First Coalition between France and Austria. Britain remained at war with France, but Austria, the main continental opponent of the French Republic, had been forced to make peace.



The Partition of Caucasus

Why did this incident happen?

The 18th century was a transformative period for eastern Georgia, marked by intense geopolitical friction between the expanding Russian Empire, the Ottoman Empire, and successive Persian dynasties. With the efforts of the Persian rulers to establish control over the South Caucasus, the eastern kingdoms of Kartli and Kakheti became primary theatres of military conflict. These incursions reshaped the physical and cultural landscape of the region, leaving behind historical fortifications, battlefields, and a legacy that ultimately altered the region's political trajectory.

Qajar dynasty

In 1779, after the death of Mohammad Karim Khan Zand, Agha Mohammad Khan, a leader of the Turkmen Qajar tribe, set out to reunify Iran. By 1794 he had eliminated all his rivals and had reasserted Iranian sovereignty over the former Iranian territories in Georgia and the

Caucasus. Iran, for its part, launched the Battle of Krtsanisi to establish dominance over Georgia and the Caucasus.

Treaty of Georgievsk of 1783

Before the incident happened, this agreement was concluded by Catharine the Great of Russia and Erekle II of Kartalinia-Kakhetia (eastern Georgia), by which Russia guaranteed Georgia's territorial unity and the continuation of its reigning Bagradit dynasty return for prerogatives in the conduct of Georgian foreign affairs.

The Battle of Krtsanisi

From September 8 to September 11, 1795, the Battle of Krtsanisi is fought between the Qajars of Iran and the Georgian armies of the Kingdom of Kartli-Kakheti and the Kingdom of Imereti at the place of Krtsanisi near Tbilisi.
The war ended with a decisive victory of Qajars and Georgia once again came under Persian control. They captured and completely destroyed their capital, Tbilisi.
The Qajars won the war, and Agha Mohammad Khan kept the promise he had made to Heraclius (Erekle). He had declared that he would invade the kingdom if Heraclius did not end his alliance with Russia and submit to Iranian suzerainty.
Although Russia had signed the Treaty of Georgievsk with Georgia in 1783, it was preoccupied with its own internal crises. Consequently, it failed to provide timely support to Georgia.

After the War

Although Iran had won the war, its dominion over the territories would not last long; for the Shah would fall victim to assassination in Shusha in 1797, and the Georgian king would lose his life the following year.
With Georgia lying in ruins and the central rule in Iran being concerned with the next heir to the throne, it opened the way for Georgia's annexation by Russia several years later by Tsar Paul.
Iran was not going to easily surrender the territories of Transcaucasia and Dagestan, which it had held for centuries, to the Russians. The consequences of the Battle of Krtsanisi directly

led to the fierce Russo-Persian Wars (1804–1813 and 1826–1828); in these conflicts, Agha Mohammad Khan's successor, Fath-Ali Shah, would attempt to reverse Russia's military advance and re-establish Iranian authority in the regions north of the Aras and Kura rivers.

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