

HASALMUN'24



Napoleon's Retreat from Russia Study Guide

"Youth will shape the world"

Table of Contents

1. Letter from the Secretary-General.....	2
2. Letter from the Under-Secretary-General	3
3. Introduction.....	4
4. Glossary	5
5. Historical Background	7
5.1 The Seven Years' War.....	7
5.2 The French Revolution.....	8
5.3 War Of The First Coalition.....	9
5.4 French Expedition to Egypt.....	10
6. Internal Situation of France.....	13
6.1 Council of Five Hundred.....	13
6.2 Federalist Revolts.....	14
6.3 Wars of the Vendee.....	15
7. Geopolitical Situation in Europe	17
7.1 Treaty of Campo Formio.....	17
7.2 War of the Second Coalition	18
7.3 Standings of Major Powers.....	18
8. Key Characters.....	22

1. Letter from the Secretary-General

Dear delegates,

It is my utmost pleasure and honour to welcome you all to the 11th annual session of Hüseyin Avni Sözen Model United Nations Conference. I, Haktan Keskin, consider it a priceless and flattering opportunity to serve as the Secretary-General in HASALMUN'24, a platform for dialogue, collaboration, and innovative problem-solving on pressing global issues.

It is my desire to create an environment in which you will find the chance to put your negotiation and critical thinking abilities into action and have a greater awareness of societal issues. As we convene in the spirit of cooperation this May, I kindly urge each and every one of you to listen with an open heart and leave room for understanding while respecting differing viewpoints. I believe it is through constructive debate that we can work towards finding viable solutions to the challenges we are facing today. What will be expected of you is to exhibit an unmatched sense of collaboration, think outside the box, and step into the shoes of bureaucrats during the conference

I would like to express my most heartfelt gratitude to any and every one of you attending our conference. Finally, I wish you the best of luck in your committee, and I hope that we were successful in generating the finest possible conference for you. With our guidance and assistance, you will be expected to complete the work that we began.

Once again, I welcome you all to the 11th edition of Hüseyin Avni Sözen Model United Nations Conference. We cannot wait to meet you!

All the best,
Haktan Keskin

2. Letter from the Under-Secretary-General

Most Esteemed Participants,

I hope this letter finds you in high spirits. It is my utmost pleasure to welcome you to the historical crisis committee of the eleventh annual session of HASALMUN. I, as Çağın Can Doğan, am thrilled to serve as the under-secretary-general of this committee.

Napoleon shaped modern Europe in a way never seen before, perhaps only by the Romans. Not only did Napoleon revolutionise warfare, he also revolutionised the civil codes, measurement systems and many more. Revolutionary France itself was full of brilliant minds, a true accomplishment of meritocracy. Napoleon happened to be the sharpest of them all, however, even the greatest does not achieve all by himself. He did, after all, begin his life as a little boy in Corsica. And the events leading up to his ascension as emperor are perhaps the most interesting event of all his life.

I would specifically recommend you to read sections 7.1 and 7.2 as these explain the current situation you will find yourselves at the beginning of this committee. Also, the characters are another section I would recommend you to look at carefully.

Dear delegates I hope to meet you all and have a great committee as we decide and shape the future of Europe and France. I wish you all good luck on your journey at this historical crisis committee and may the most radical revolutionary win! And on a side note, no top secret has ever ruined any committee.

Also, if you have any questions regarding the study guide you can always contact me,

Sincere gratitudes,

Çağın Can Doğan

cagancandogan@yahoo.com

3. Introduction

Napoleon Bonaparte would go down as one of the most important figures in history. However, before that, he was born to a Corsican family. He would join the French military. He raised the ranks due to his connections within the country, as well as, due to his military prowess. Battle after battle, campaign after campaign, Napoleon would prove his excellence in the art of war numerous times. Yet a military career alone would prove not to be enough to please the ambitious Corsican.

The political situation in France unfolded in a complex manner. The new revolutionary republic was not known for its stability. Marked by internal strife for control over the country and control over one's head itself, the early years of the revolution were turbulent. Revolts against the republic were commonplace. When the internal issues lacked the means to overthrow the republic, foreign powers would attempt to do such. The War of the First Coalition saw nearly a whole continent unite to keep the monarchical rule. Yet due to the overwhelming successes of its generals, including Napoleon, and also to the many men thrown to death the French Republic would come out as victorious.

And with a brief breath taken without wars, the revolution now only had enemies within. The very accusations of treason and counterrevolution were now being thrown at the very revolutionary who executed the previous king. The seats of power had never been so weak. And at such a moment, within all the chaos, one Napoleon Bonaparte would rise to the task. In a swift coup, Napoleon would come into power. Having defeated 4 more coalitions, ruled almost all of mainland Europe, and nearly achieved what Alexander the Great could; Napoleon himself would succumb to his ambitions. One victory would be enough for the coalition. Napoleon would be exiled to Alba, then return to rule France, only to be exiled to St. Helena without return.

4. Glossary

Carabinier

Heavy cavalry, armed with swords and rifles. They were also the elite mounted units of the French Army.

Chasseur

Also called “Hunters”, Chasseurs are light infantry specialized in quick action and reconnaissance.

Dragoons

Light cavalry, armed with pistols and swords.

Grenadier

Elite Infantrymen who specialized in assault. They also used strict measures when gathering recruits, thus, grenadier units would excel at physical properties.

Imperial Guard

Well-trained personal units of Napoleon. They would assist Napoleon in every campaign until his exile in 1815.

Line Infantry

The backbone of the Napoleonic Era armies. They would make up the majority of the army and were regular infantry with swords and rifles.

Ships of the Line

Three-decker ships with sails. They were the main warships of the 18th and early 19th centuries. Usually had at least 2 rows of cannons.

Liberalism

Liberalism is a political and social philosophy that promotes freedom, civil liberties, democracy, and private enterprise. As of the 19th century, liberals consisted mostly of reformists who wished for a liberal governance with a constitutionalized monarchy.

Sister Republic

Sister republics are used to refer to the various republican client states that the French established during the Wars of the Coalition.

National Convention

National Convention was the parliament of the French Republic, following the takeover by the Jacobins.

Estates General

Estates General was an old institution of the French Kingdom. The Estates General consisted of 3 estates, clergy, nobility and the bourgeois. And it would be called by the French King, mainly in times of turmoil.

Royalists

Royalists were the supporters of the monarchy during the French Revolution.

Radicals

Radicals are used to refer to the proponents of republican ideals during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Jacobins

The Jacobins were the most radical faction that existed during the French Revolution. They would execute the French King and rule over France during the Reign of Terror.

5. Historical Background

5.1. The Seven Years' War

The Seven Years' War pitted the alliance of Britain, Prussia and Hanover against the alliance of France, Austria, Sweden, Saxony, Russia, and eventually Spain. The war was driven by the commercial and imperial rivalry between Britain and France, and by the opposition between Prussia and Austria. In Europe, Britain sent troops to help its ally, Prussia, which was surrounded by its enemies. However, the main British war aim was to destroy France as a commercial rival, and they therefore focused on attacking the French navy and colonies

overseas. France was committed to fighting in Europe to defend its ally, Austria. It therefore had few resources to spare for its colonies.

The Seven Years' War (1756–1763) was the first global war which was fought in Europe, India, America, and at sea. In North America, imperial rivalry between Britain and France struggled for supremacy. In the United States, the conflict is known as the French and Indian War. Early in the war, the French which were aided by Canadian militia and Indigenous allies, defeated several British attacks and captured a number of British forts. In 1758, the tide turned when the British captured Louisbourg, followed by Quebec City in 1759 and Montreal in 1760. With the Treaty of Paris in 1763, France formally ceded Canada to the British. The Seven Years' War therefore laid the bicultural foundations of modern Canada.

The dominance of the British navy was a deciding factor in the outcome of the war. The navy played a crucial role in the attacks on Louisbourg and the city of Quebec and successfully stopped French ships from reaching the colonies. It also defeated the French plan to invade Britain. France and Spain had organized a major expedition for the invasion of England, but the British naval victories at Lagos, Portugal, in August and Quiberon Bay, France, in November 1759 made this impossible. Despite military and naval victories, the British were staggering under a colossal national debt by 1760. The war minister urged the government to declare war on Spain, which made a defensive alliance with France in August 1761. But the new king, George III, wanted peace.

The war would not end, however, until 1763. Britain declared war on Spain in January 1762 and continued its operations overseas. In February and March 1762, the British took Martinique, St. Lucia, Grenada and St. Vincent. They captured Havana from the Spanish in August, followed by Manila in October 1762.

Meanwhile, the governments of Britain, France and Spain were negotiating peace terms. The first minister of the French government was determined to regain the valuable sugar colonies of Martinique and Guadeloupe and to keep a base for the fisheries. He also wanted but had to settle for the tiny islands as a fishing station.

Britain agreed to return Martinique and Guadeloupe to France but secured the West Indian islands of Dominica, Tobago, St. Vincent and Grenada. Spain surrendered Florida to the British but received part of France's vast Louisiana territory.

France also left New France to Britain, as it was less valuable commercially than either the sugar islands of the West Indies or the fishing islands of the North Atlantic. The size and location of New France also made it an expensive colony to defend and maintain.

In addition, Choiseul was convinced that the American colonies, which no longer needed British military protection, would soon strike out for independence. Twelve years later, the American colonies rose in revolt against Britain. Ironically, it was only with the military aid of the French that they finally gained their independence.

5.2. The French Revolution

The three major revolutions in France occurred in the years 1789, 1830 and 1848. There is the French Revolution of 1789, which brought down the Monarchy and the Ancien Régime¹ and resulted in the beheading of King Louis XVI, his famous wife, Marie Antoinette, and many more aristocrats. The Revolution lasted until 1792 at which point the National Assembly put an end to the monarchy and declared the First Republic (1792-1799.) The bloodshed and devolution into extremism that marked this period was called the Reign of Terror, where Jacobins (the leftwing radical revolutionaries) and the Committee of Public Safety executed anyone deemed an enemy of the revolution which were usually the members of the nobility, the clergy, or were counter-revolutionaries. These radical forces ultimately turned on themselves when even their leader Maximilien de Robespierre himself was executed in 1794. There was bloodshed with estimates of deaths reaching 20,000.

After this period, the Directory was established wherein Napoléon Bonaparte proved his worth and loyalty. As a savvy young general, he took control as First Consul in 1799 in the Coup of 18 Brumaire, a quickly organized and bloodless coup. His rule was marked by military ambitions and Imperial expansion, but he also created a Civil Code (the Napoleonic Code) that among other things reformed education and allowed for meritocratic promotion in the officer

¹ Ancien Régime was the political and social system of the Kingdom of France that the French Revolution overturned through its abolition in 1790 of the feudal system of the French nobility and in 1792 through its execution of the king and declaration of a republic.

corps. In fairly short order he crowned himself Emperor by taking the crown from the pope and putting it on his own head in Notre Dame Cathedral in 1804. Napoléon's grand aspirations, particularly the disastrous Russian Campaign, brought about his downfall. He had a brief return to power in France after escaping exile during the "Hundred Days.". In 1815 he was defeated at Waterloo and exiled for good on the Island of Saint Helena. The Bourbon Restoration, one in 1814 and another in 1815, brought France back under control of the Monarchy under Louis XVIII. Other monarchies of Europe were keen for stability to return to France and were hoping to prevent more revolutionary fervour from disturbing their own thrones. As the following decades would show, their efforts were in vain.

5.3. War Of The First Coalition

The War of the First Coalition (1792-1797) was a continent-spanning conflict in which a coalition of European powers, including Austria, Prussia, Great Britain, the Dutch Republic, Spain, and several others, sought to contain and defeat Revolutionary France. The war was sparked by the ideals of the French Revolution (1789-1799), which threatened the established monarchies of Europe

The French revolutionaries, who had long feared military intervention by neighbouring monarchies, declared war on Austria on 20 April 1792 to preserve and expand the Revolution. After winning the Battle of Valmy, the French declared themselves a republic, executed their king, and pursued expansionist war goals such as the conquest of Belgium and the Rhineland; these factors drew more nations into the anti-French coalition. By 1793, the Republic was in dire straits, having to fend off enemy armies on all fronts. Through draconian measures such as the Reign of Terror, the Republic was able to crush internal dissent and swell its armies with conscripts.

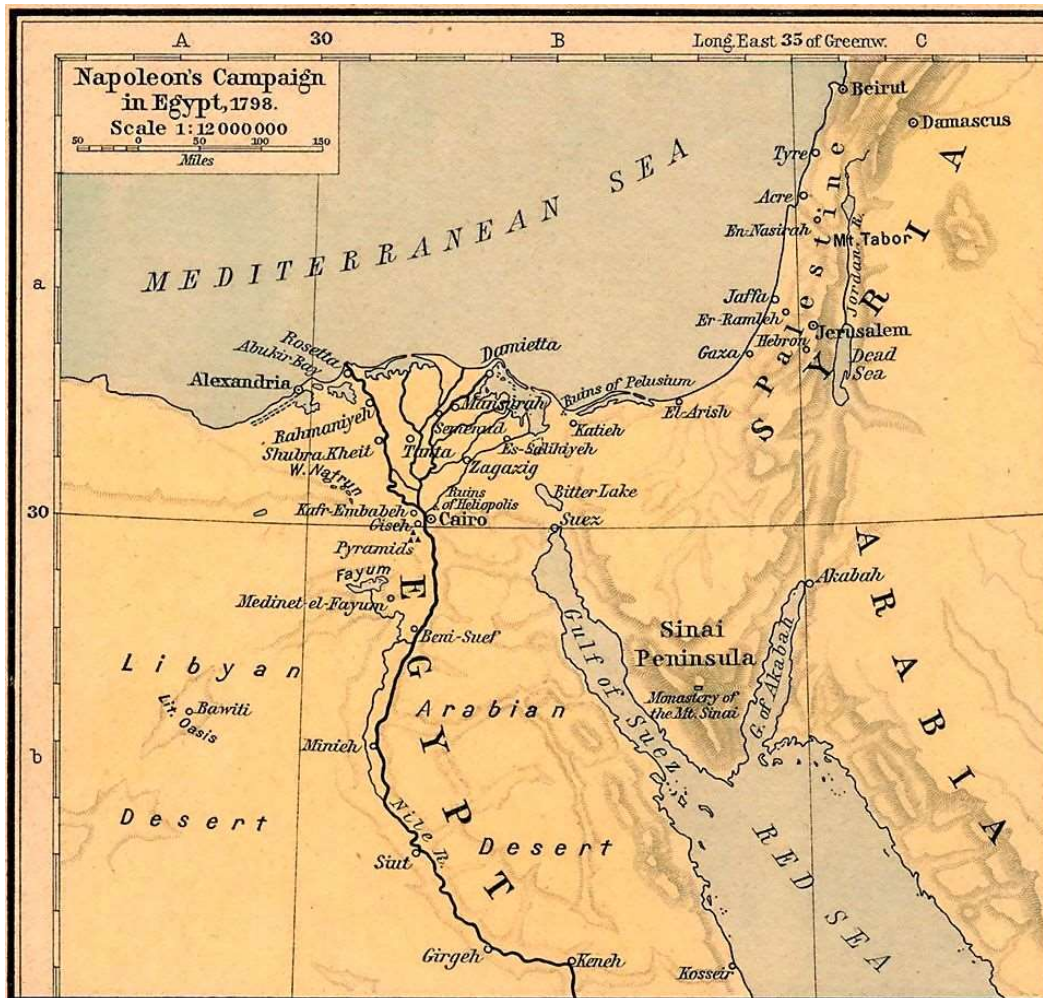
The French counterattacks, utilizing overwhelming numerical superiority and revolutionary zeal, succeeded in pushing the Allied armies back. The European powers gradually lost heart and began dropping out of the Coalition until the Treaty of Campo Formio, signed in October 1797, left Great Britain as the only nation to remain at war with France. However, the end of the war solved none of the underlying issues, and hostilities resumed a year later in the War Of The Second Coalition. These conflicts, collectively called the French

Revolutionary Wars, redrew the map of Europe and led directly into the Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815).

5.4. French Expedition to Egypt

The French Expedition to Egypt and Syria (1798-1801), led by Napoleon Bonaparte, aimed to establish a French colony in Egypt and to threaten British possessions in India. Despite initial French victories, the campaign ultimately ended in failure, and Egypt remained under Ottoman control.

By the end of 1797, the French Republic was dominant in Western Europe, having defeated almost all its enemies in the War of the First Coalition. Only Great Britain remained at war; despite half-hearted overtures for peace in 1797, the British now displayed a renewed determination, as Prime Minister William Pitt the Younger looked to bankroll a second anti-French coalition. The French Directory, the government of the Republic, was equally determined to see the war to its conclusion and assembled a 120,000-man army for a daring invasion of Britain. Command of this Army of England was given to General Napoleon Bonaparte, who set out on a rapid tour of the dockyards to assess the feasibility of such an expedition. His disheartening conclusion was that British naval superiority doomed any attempted invasion to failure. Instead, Bonaparte offered an alternative path to victory, suggesting that the French could threaten Britain's empire by establishing a colony in Egypt.



(Fig. 1: Map of Napoleonic Era Egypt)

French ministers had been toying with the idea of a French colony in Egypt since the 1760s, but the Directory's desire to defeat Britain made it particularly appealing now. The Directory desperately needed to recoup the loss of its colonies in the West Indies, and the rumoured wealth of Egypt would make it a fine addition to France's struggling colonial empire. Egypt's location also made it the perfect base from which the French could menace British interests both in the Mediterranean and in India, and Bonaparte suggested opening communications with anti-British elements in India like Tipu Sultan. The Directory even saw the benefits of a defeat, as it would rid them of the troublesome General Bonaparte, whose rising popularity made him a threat. The insatiably ambitious Bonaparte, of course, had motives of his own, wishing to emulate his hero Alexander the Great and build an eastern empire.

Seeing no downsides, the Directory approved the expedition on the condition that Bonaparte would raise the necessary funds himself and that he would return to France within

six months. Almost immediately, Bonaparte procured the needed 8 million francs, securing 'contributions' from France's sister republics in Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. Bonaparte selected 21 of the finest demibrigades in France, amounting to some 38,000 soldiers. He also filled his officer corps with some of the most talented generals in the French army. Alexandre Berthier returned as his indispensable chief of staff, while division commands were held by experienced generals Jean-Baptiste Kléber, Louis Desaix, Louis-Andre Bon, Jean Reynier, and Jacques Menou.

Hoping to give the expedition a scientific purpose as well, Bonaparte secured the services of 167 of the most distinguished scientists and scholars in France; directed by mathematician Gaspard Monge, these savants were to conduct research and show off European scientific advances. The presence of these savants would lead to the discovery of the Rosetta Stone and the birth of modern Egyptology.

Arriving at Cairo on 14 June, Bonaparte gathered every available soldier and marched for Alexandria. By the time they arrived, Smith had ferried 15,000 Ottoman soldiers under Mustapha Pasha to Aboukir; on 25 July, Bonaparte engaged them at the Battle of Aboukir, which would turn out to be his last victory in Egypt. 2,000 Ottomans were killed in the battle with many more drowning as they were driven into the sea. The French lost less than 1,000 casualties, but with Brueys' fleet destroyed and France once again at war with Europe, it was clear no reinforcements were coming.

Having told no one of his intentions to leave Egypt, Bonaparte sailed away on 23 August with only a handful of officers and savants, abandoning the rest in Alexandria. Within 41 days, he was back in France, and by the end of the year, he had seized control of the French government in the Coup of 18 Brumaire.

6. Internal Situation of France

6.1. Council of Five Hundred

The Council of Five Hundred was the lower house of the Corps Législatif, established by France's Constitution of 1795 during the French Revolution. It consisted of 500 delegates

elected through limited, indirect suffrage and was responsible for proposing legislation, subject to approval or rejection by the upper house, the Council of Ancients. Additionally, the Council of Five Hundred nominated candidates for the five-member Directory, the executive branch. This council governed from 1795 to 1799, known as the Directory period until it was dissolved in a coup that effectively concluded the French Revolution.

The election process outlined by the constitution required citizens to gather in assemblies within each canton to select electors who were at least 25 years old, owned or rented property and paid substantial taxes. These electors then chose delegates for both legislative houses. Eligibility for the lower house required candidates to be at least 30 years old. Additionally, a decree stipulated that two-thirds of the initial legislative body's members must come from the National Convention, the previous governing body, to prevent domination by Jacobins or royalists. The first election occurred in November 1795, with subsequent elections for one-third of each body annually, and delegates served three-year terms.

In April 1797, royalists gained significant seats in the Council of Five Hundred, with Charles Pichegru, a right-wing ally, becoming its president. Concerned about a shift towards the right, centrist Republicans orchestrated the Coup of 18 Fructidor, expelling two Directory members and over 50 royalist legislators with military assistance, while annulling electoral outcomes in 49 departments. This consolidated the Directory's power and reduced electorate influence.

Despite attempts by the Directory to manipulate the 1798 elections, left-wing candidates made gains, causing further alarm among Republicans. The Coup of 22 Floréal followed, where the Directory pressured legislative leaders to expel 127 newly elected delegates. Subsequent Jacobin victories led to a standoff in 1799 when the Council of Five Hundred resisted a purge by the Directory. Instead, they forced the replacement of three Directory members in the Coup of 30 Prairial, electing Lucien Bonaparte as council president.

Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès, deeming the system unstable, conspired with Napoleon Bonaparte to overthrow the Directory. On November 10, 1799, both legislative bodies met at Saint-Cloud. The Directory members resigned, and Bonaparte addressed the Council of Ancients, declaring the end of the Directory. The Council of Five Hundred protested vigorously as armed forces surrounded them during the Coup of 18–19 Brumaire, marking the demise of

the Council of Five Hundred and the Directory's governance system. This event paved the way for Napoleon's rise to power and the establishment of the Consulate.

6.2. Federalist Revolts

The Federalist Revolts were a series of uprisings that occurred across France during the summer of 1793 in response to the centralization of power in Paris during the French Revolution (1789-99). The rebellions, mainly led by the moderate Girondin faction, aimed to distribute power more evenly among France's 83 departments or provinces, which was opposed by the Jacobins. The Jacobins feared that such decentralization, seen as federalism, would lead to the breakup of the French Republic. Tensions escalated after the fall of the Girondins on June 2, triggered by an insurrection in Paris. This event sparked rebellions in cities like Caen, Lyon, Marseille, Toulon, and Bordeaux. Despite initial resistance, most of these revolts were quelled within months by the victorious Jacobins, who then implemented the Reign of Terror to suppress dissent and reinforce their revolutionary ideology.

Not all federalist revolts were explicitly aligned with the Girondins, but they shared a common goal of opposing the Jacobins during the French Revolution. Despite differing motivations, these revolts were distinct from the concurrent War in the Vendée, which had Catholic and royalist objectives. While the Federalist revolts initially succeeded in overthrowing the Jacobin administrations, a lack of coordination among the different rebel factions led to a swift loss of momentum. By October, most of the revolts had been suppressed, and the Federalist rebels faced harsh reprisals from the Jacobins. On October 31, the 22 imprisoned Girondins were executed in Paris, and many others who had fled were killed or took their own lives in the subsequent year.

6.3. Wars of the Vendee

The Wars of the Vendée (1793–96) were counterrevolutionary uprisings that occurred in western France during the French Revolution. The initial and most significant uprising began in 1793 in an area known as the Vendée, which encompassed parts of modern-day Loire-Atlantique, Maine-et-Loire, Deux-Sèvres, and Vendée. This region, marked by strong religious sentiments and economic underdevelopment, had shown little enthusiasm for the Revolution of 1789 and was particularly aggrieved by the Civil Constitution of the Clergy passed in July 1790, which imposed strict controls on the Catholic Church.

The rebellion gained momentum with the introduction of conscription laws in February 1793. Riots erupted in Cholet on March 4, and by March 13, the Vendée was in full-scale revolt. This uprising coincided with growing discontent in Lyon, Marseille, and Normandy and posed a serious internal threat to the Revolution following a recent military defeat at Neerwinden on March 18. Peasant leaders like Jacques Cathelineau, Gaston Bourdic, and Jean-Nicolas Stofflet joined forces with royalist nobles including Charles Bonchamps, Marquis de Bonchamps, Maurice Gigost d'Elbée, François-Athanase Charette de La Contrie, and Henri du Vergier, Count de La Rochejaquelein. By May, the rebel forces, numbering around 30,000, captured towns like Thouars, Parthenay, and Fontenay. Renaming themselves the "Catholic and Royal Army," they turned north and seized Saumur on June 9.

After crossing the Loire River, the Vendéans advanced east and seized Angers on June 18 but were unable to capture the critical city of Nantes. This led to two months of chaotic and scattered fighting. By autumn, government forces received reinforcements and were placed under unified command. On October 17, the main Vendéan army, numbering about 65,000, suffered a decisive defeat at Cholet and retreated north across the Loire, with only a few thousand remaining under Charette to continue resistance in the Vendée. The Vendéans then moved north to rally support in the Cotentin region and occupy some towns. They later retreated south and attempted to capture Angers on December 3 but failed, turning east and facing defeat at Le Mans on December 12, resulting in the death of perhaps 15,000 rebels in a brutal battle and subsequent massacre of prisoners. The main Vendéan army was ultimately crushed by Republican forces at Savenay on December 23 while attempting to re-enter the Vendée.

Although general warfare ended at this point, severe reprisals by Republican commander General Louis-Marie Turreau de Garambouville provoked further resistance. With Turreau recalled in May and the moderate Thermidorian faction rising to power in Paris in July, a more conciliatory approach was adopted. In December, the government announced an amnesty, and on February 17, 1795, the Convention of La Jaunaye granted the Vendée freedom from conscription, freedom of worship, and some indemnities for losses.

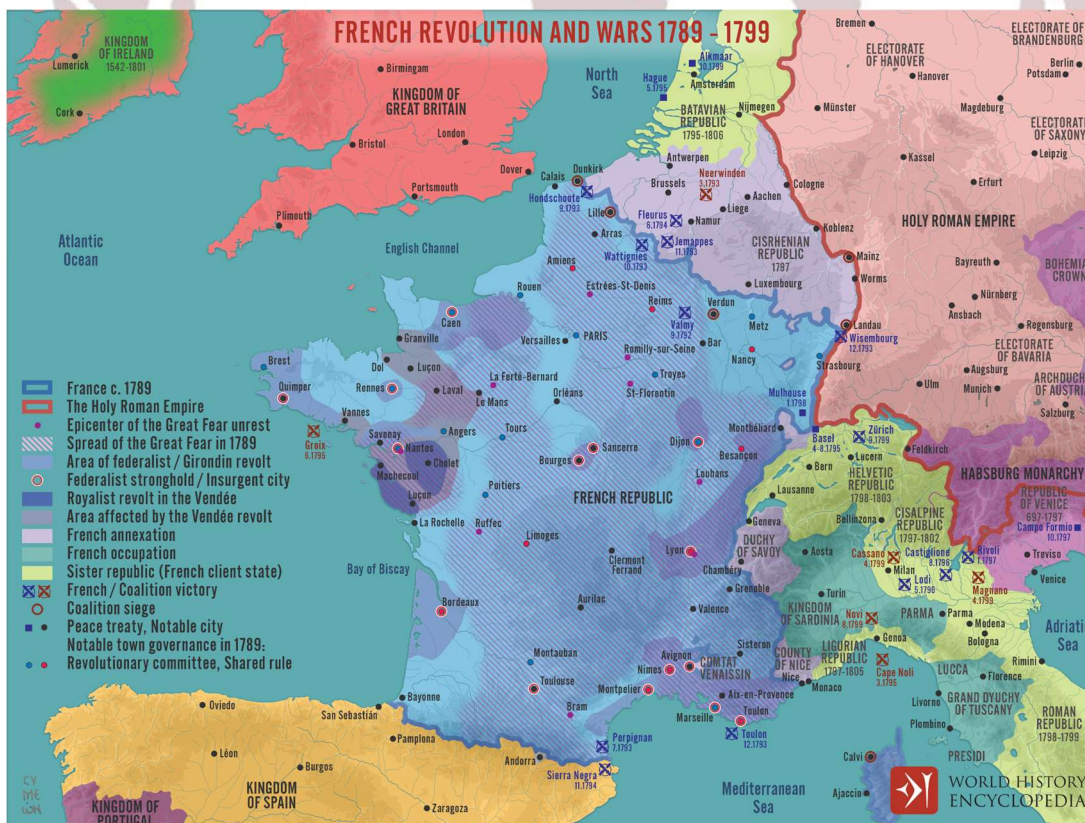
Charette resumed armed resistance during a British-backed landing of exiled French nobles at Quiberon Bay, Brittany, in June 1795. The defeat of the nobles in July and the capture

and execution of Stofflet in February 1796 followed by Charette's capture and execution in March brought an end to the struggle. General Lazare Hoche announced in July that order had been restored in the west.

Smaller royalist uprisings occurred in the Vendée in 1799, 1815, and finally in 1832 in opposition to the constitutional monarchy of Louis-Philippe.

7. Geopolitical Situation in Europe

7.1. Treaty of Campo Formio



(Fig 2. Political Situation following the Treaty of Campo Formio)

The Treaty of Campo Formio, signed in today's Northeastern Italy, officially ended the war of the First Coalition between France and Austria. Although the British remained at war with the French, the war on land was effectively over. Austria and the subsequent Holy Roman Empire fought against France over Switzerland, the Low Countries and Northern Italy. The peace marked a significant turn of events as the Austrian Empire surrendered many territories to the French and recognised several sister republics of France.

The peace left France free of a major land conflict for a short period of time. However, the threat of a British intervention on the mainland still towered over the French. The French had several gains from the treaty. Firstly, the area consisting of modern-day Belgium was annexed into France, as well as several border regions alongside the Swiss and Italian borders. Secondly, The Batavian Republic, established during the war, was recognized. In addition, the French sister republics in Northern Italy and Switzerland were also recognized by the Austrians. However, following the treaty, the Roman Republic, established in Central Italy, would be dissolved in favour of the Papacy. Also, the French sister republic along the Rhein area would be recognized, however, the area would be under French control nominally without much autonomy.

7.2. War of the Second Coalition

Following the Treaty of Campo Formio, a revolution would take place in Rome, supported by France. Consequently, a French force would enter Rome to support the new republic. In addition, French forces would also enter Switzerland and Batavia, effectively vassalizing the states. Furthermore, A joint Russo-British expedition would leave for Malta. A series of naval defeats inflicted upon the French would encourage the Neapolitan Kingdom to declare war upon the French, supported by the British. The subsequent attacks upon The Roman Republic would result in a re-established Papal State. Simultaneously, the Austrians and the Holy Roman Empire would also declare war upon the French Republic, citing the French provocations towards the Treaty of Campo Formio as a reason.

At the start of the committee, the French Republic is at war with Austria, HRE (except Brandenburg-Prussia), Russia, Ottomans, the United Kingdom, the Kingdom of Sardinia, and Portugal. The French are joined by their respective allies of Batavia, the Helvetic Republic, the Subalpine Republic, the Cisalpine Republic, the Ligurian Republic and the Kingdom of Spain.

7.3. Standings of Major Powers

Prussia

During the Napoleonic Wars, which lasted until 1815, Prussia was a prominent figure in the many alliances that opposed France. Following Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna established a peaceful new order, and Prussia and France did not engage in direct conflicts for a significant time. Previously, however, France and Prussia had been exchanging sides during major European conflicts. Prussia and France had been allies during the War of the Austrian Succession. Only for them to be on opposing sides several years later during the Seven Years' War. As a result, Prussia had fragile relations with Monarchical France. These relations were further antagonized during the French Revolution as the Prussian ideology was of an absolutist rule.

Ottoman Empire

Napoleon invaded and defeated the Mamluk forces in Egypt in 1798 when it was ruled by the Ottoman Empire. His intention was to utilize Egypt as a gateway to India and East Asia. Napoleon was left stranded in Egypt when the French fleet was destroyed at the Battle of the Nile by the Ottoman-allied British Navy. Napoleon's invasion prompted the Ottomans to declare war on France, although there was never actual conflict. After an Ottoman delegation travelled to France in 1802, a treaty establishing a long-term alliance was signed by the two nations yet didn't last long. The Ottoman Empire was forced to join the Third Coalition against France in 1805, having left the alliance due to pressure from Russia and Britain. Despite the brief alliance, the relationship between Napoleonic France and the Ottoman Empire was marked by tension and conflict. While Napoleon saw the Ottomans as a way to expand his empire and increase his power, the Ottomans were wary of French ambitions in the region and sought to protect their interests.

United Kingdom

The United Kingdom had been the longest and the most significant rival of France for nearly a millennia before Napoleon. The British were the first to oppose France and were the only country continuously participating during the Coalition Wars. The British Navy was the reason for the defeat of Napoleon in Egypt. Napoleon had planned an invasion of England a year prior to his coronation. At the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, Admiral Nelson defeated him. After that, Napoleon focused on continental Europe in an effort to sabotage British trade by preventing British goods from being landed anywhere that he had any influence over. In 1812, Russia called off the boycott, and the French emperor staged a disastrous invasion. Germany and Austria then formed an alliance with Britain to oppose France. Then, with help from Prussia, a British army under the command of the Duke of Wellington beat Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815.

Austria

During the Napoleonic Era, France and Austria's relations were defined by a complex interplay of conflicts, diplomacy, and strategic manoeuvring. Before this period, they had a history of alternating between alliances and rivalries. Austria initially opposed Revolutionary France, participating in the War of the First Coalition, but eventually signed several treaties with the French Republic to secure peace. However, tensions resurfaced during the War of the Third Coalition and subsequent conflicts, as Austria sought to curb Napoleon's expanding influence in Europe. Despite intermittent hostilities, there were moments of reconciliation, such as Napoleon's marriage to Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria in 1810. However, in the end, the Austrians would be one of the coalition partners that would strike the Republic down. And Austria would play a crucial role during the Congress of Vienna.

Russia

Russia had been a participant in several conflicts against France before the Napoleonic Era. During the early stages of the Coalition Wars, Russia participated against France. Following the signing of the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807, which brought France and Russia together during the Napoleonic Wars, rivalry broke out over opposing objectives and territorial claims.

An important turning point was caused by Napoleon's unsuccessful invasion of Russia in 1812, which raised tensions and resulted in a time of hostility between the two empires. Over the course of the century, France and Russia negotiated a shaky power dynamic in the European diplomatic arena. While they occasionally succeeded in uniting against mutual enemies, their efforts were frequently thwarted by pervasive mistrust and conflicting strategic goals. Despite occasional attempts at peace, such as the Treaty of Paris after the Crimean War in 1856, underlying tensions continued because of ideological and geopolitical disputes. The Franco-Russian ties did not start to thaw until the second half of the century, with the establishment of a multipolar system and the mutual recognition of common challenges. This culminated in the creation of the Franco-Russian Alliance in 1894 as a counterweight to German predominance.

Spain

In 1796, the Treaty of San Ildefonso was signed by Bourbon Spain and Revolutionary France as part of their joint resistance against Britain. After losing the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, the connection broke down. In 1808, Napoleon, the French Emperor, invaded Spain and crowned his brother Joseph as King Joseph in an attempt to gain support from Portugal, Britain's ally. After the Battle of Vitoria in 1813, the French were driven from Spain by the British, led by the Duke of Wellington. Napoleon imprisoned the Bourbon king Ferdinand VII, but his opposition continued to acknowledge him as the legitimate ruler of Spain. Following the French defeat in the Peninsular War, he reclaimed the throne in 1813. A military coup in Spain in 1820 brought the Trienio Liberal, a liberal administration, to power. Two years later, Ferdinand VII persuaded the European monarchs to assist him in regaining his position of authority. With French aid, the liberal administration established Ferdinand as the absolute monarch once more.

Portugal

Political ties were severely strained by the Napoleonic Wars, as Portugal opposed French aspirations for dominance under Napoleon Bonaparte's expansionist goals. During the Peninsular War (1807–1814), Portugal was invaded by French forces, making it a vital battleground. Still, the French troops were eventually driven out due to Portugal's persistent resistance and British assistance. Tensions simmered over disagreements over colonial territory

and competing views on politics, despite occasional cooperation, notably during the liberal faction's war against absolutist forces in the Portuguese Civil War of the 1830s.

Sweden

In 1805, Sweden joined the War of the Third Coalition against France, leading to the Franco-Swedish War, which ended in Sweden's defeat in 1810 by France's ally, Russia. The subsequent Treaty of Paris in 1810 led to French Marshal Jean-Baptiste Jules Bernadotte's election as heir-presumptive to the Swedish throne due to his popularity with the Swedish army and concerns about potential conflicts with Russia. Bernadotte's successful leadership of Swedish troops against Napoleon in 1813 contributed to Napoleon's exile to Elba in 1814.

8. Key Characters

Napoleon Bonaparte



Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821) was a renowned French military and political leader who emerged during the French Revolution. He seized power in 1799, becoming First Consul and later Emperor in 1804. Napoleon's rule saw significant reforms, including the Napoleonic Code, which modernized French law. His military campaigns expanded French territory across Europe, but he faced defeat at the Battle of Waterloo in 1815, leading to his exile and eventual death on the island of Saint Helena. Napoleon is remembered for his military genius and reforms, though his rule was marked by controversy and the extensive destruction of the Napoleonic Wars.

Louis Alexandre Berthier



Louis Alexandre Berthier (1753-1815) was the chief of staff of Napoleon from his Italian Campaign in 1796 until his defeat at the hands of the coalition. He was an avid supporter of Napoleon, having lasted during his whole reign and even before. He was the Minister of War several times. He was also awarded the title of the Marshall of the Empire in 1804. Although his life was spent battling across continents, even having fought in North America, he would later die in 1815 when he fell off a window in his estate.

Charles Maurice de Talleyrand



Talleyrand (1754-1838) would handle diplomatic affairs before the revolution, after the revolution and after the restoration. An excellently skilled diplomat, his name is synonymous with cynical and Machiavellian diplomacy. He would serve as the first prime minister of France. He would also serve as the minister of foreign affairs during the republican era, as well as during the reign of Napoleon. Although he was distrusted by the rulers he worked under, he would be given significant positions regardless due to his abilities. He would initially support Napoleon's takeover of the Council of Five Hundred. However, during the Coalition Wars, he would attempt several secret talks with enemy monarchs and foreign ministers. He would later be one of the most critical figures in the Congress of Vienna.

Lucien Bonaparte



Lucien Bonaparte (1775-1840), was the younger brother of Napoleon Bonaparte. During Napoleon's coup, he was the president of the Council of Five Hundred. Lucien was an avid supporter of the revolution and sincerely believed in the republican ideals. He would serve as the minister of internal affairs during the early years of Napoleon's rule. However, following the declaration of the French Empire, he would fall into a disagreement with Napoleon. And he would distance himself from his brother's rule and policies.

Emmanuel Joseph Sieyès



Emmanuel Joseph Sieyès (1748-1836), also known as Abbe Sieyès, was a clergyman and politician. He was one of the main theorists of the French Revolution. He would serve as the president of the National Convention and the Council of Five Hundred that followed it. He would be one of the main supporters of Napoleon's coup. He would serve as one of the 3 councils following the coup, alongside Napoleon and Jean Jacques Régis. He was also a supporter of the early revolution during 1789 and the republican ideals.

Joseph Bonaparte



Joseph Bonaparte (1768-1844) was the older brother of Napoleon. He was one of the earliest supporters of Napoleon as he helped Napoleon rise in the ranks of the French Army using his connections in Paris. He was a lawyer and diplomat who worked in Paris. He would continue to support his brother during his coup. Following the Reign of Napoleon, his brother would first assign him as the King of Naples. However, following the French Invasion of Spain, he would be declared as the King of Spain. Following Napoleon's defeat, he moved to the USA and settled there.

Jean Jacques Régis de Cambacérés



Jean Jacques Regis de Cambaceres (1753-1824) was a nobleman, lawyer, freemason and statesman. Although he was a noble himself, he would be one of the supporters of the French Revolution in 1789. He would be part of the National Convention and the following Council of Five Hundred. He supported Napoleon's coup and following it he would become one of the 3 councils of France. After the abolishment of the councils, he would serve as the Archchancellor of the empire and minister of justice. He was one of the main writers of the Napoleonic Code which constituted the first civil code of France.

Joachim Murat



Joachim Murat (1767-1815) was one of Napoleon's most prominent generals. In addition to that he would also serve as an admiral for France. Earning him the titles of Marshall of the Empire and Admiral of France. He was also one of the few to return to France from Egypt alongside Napoleon. He would be one of the supporters of Napoleon's coup. He would also serve in famous battles such as Austerlitz and Leipzig. After Napoleon's brother, Joseph Bonaparte was declared King of Spain; he would be declared the King of Naples.

Charles François Lebrun



Charles François Lebrun (1739-1824) was a French statesman. He would serve in the Estates General, National Assembly and the Council of Five Hundred. He was a key supporter of the revolution and was a representative of the Third Estate. Following Napoleon's coup, he would become one of the councils of France. He was an excellent administrator and treasurer.

Jean Victor Marie Moreau



Jean Victor Marie Moreau (1763-1813) was one of the greatest military minds of his time. He would inflict several defeats during the Wars of the Coalition. His victories would earn him the title of Marshall of the Empire. He supported Napoleon during his early rule. However, as his influence grew, he would become a political rival of Napoleon. His wife would personally organize several meetings with conspirators against Napoleon. As a result of his conflicts with Napoleon, he would be banished to the USA.

Pierre Roger Ducos



Pierre Roger Ducos (1747-1816) was a prominent revolutionary figure. He would serve in the Estates General, National Convention and the Council of Five Hundred. He was one of the members who voted in favour of the execution of the French King. During Napoleon's coup, he was one of the members of the council. He would support the coup using his means as a council member. He would later serve as the president of the Senate during the early years of Napoleon's rule. He would later, however, attempt to support the royalists and would be

banished from France to Germany.

Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte



Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte (1763-1844), also known as Charles XIV John, was a French commander. He was also a skilled administrator and diplomat. He served under the French Republic and Napoleon. He also married Napoleon's sister. He would be one of the supporters of Napoleon's coup. His military career in France would come to an abrupt end in 1810. When he was chosen as the crown prince to the heirless Swedish King. And he would continue to become the King of Sweden. During the coalition wars, the French would invade Swedish Pommerenia. Jean would play a crucial

role in the forming of a new coalition as a result.

Jean Étienne Marie Portalis



Jean Étienne Marie Portalis (1746-1807) was a lawyer and statesman. He would be arrested during the early years of the revolution. However, after the death of Robespierre, he was released and escaped to Switzerland. Where he stayed until Napoleon's coup. Following this, he returned to France and was one of the main figures that wrote the Napoleonic Code. He would serve as minister of public worship under Napoleon until his death.

Hugues Bernard Maret



Hugues Bernard Maret (1763-1839) was a statesman, diplomat and journalist. He would criticize the monarch before the revolution using his publications. Following the revolution he became a diplomat. During the coup of Napoleon, he would once again use his publications to support Napoleon. He would continue to become a propagandist of Napoleon. He would also briefly serve as minister of foreign affairs.

Claude Ambroise Régnier



Claude Ambroise Régnier (1746-1814) was a lawyer and statesman. He would be part of the Estates General, National Convention and the Council of Five Hundred. He was one of the proponents of Napoleon's coup. He would support him from his position in the Council of Five Hundred. Following Napoleon's arrival to power, he would serve as minister of justice. He was also one of the main writers of the Napoleonic Code.

Martin Michel Charles Gaudin



Martin Michel Charles Gaudin (1756-1841) was a statesman and an excellent economist. He would serve under Napoleon as minister of finance from 1799 until Napoleon's fall in 1814.

Michel Ney



Michel Ney (1769-1815) was a prominent commander and cavalry officer. He was a supporter of Napoleon during his coup. He was also awarded the title of the Marshall of the Empire. He would serve under Napoleon until his defeat at the Battle of Waterloo. He would also be present during Napoleon's campaign in Russia. After Napoleon's exile to St. Helena, he was executed for treason.

