THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF WARFARE

MEDIEVAL WARS



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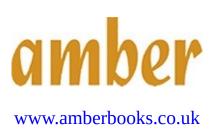
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FOREWORD TO THE SERIES

by Dennis Showalter

The Encyclopedia of Warfare offers five characteristics justifying its possession. First, it is chronological. Its entries reflect a fundamental characteristic of history. History is linear. It starts somewhere in time. It goes somewhere in time. Its events interact in a temporal context. And the encyclopedia's chronological perspective enables making connections that otherwise might remain obscure. It contextualizes, for example, the 1147 siege of Lisbon with the Crusader-Turkish wars of the same period— and in the process demonstrating the comprehensive aspect of Christian—Muslim rivalry. Lisbon was far from Jerusalem only in terms of miles.

The encyclopedia is also comprehensive. It eschews a Western-centric perspective that too often sacrifices understanding for familiarity. The chronological chapters are subdivided by time and place. Thus they integrate the ancient wars of China and of South and South-East Asia, the battles of early Rome and those of Ireland in the twenty-fifth century BCE (a single entry, to be sure, but meriting consideration!) Cross-referencing cannot be easier. And that cross referencing enables not merely juxtaposition, but comparison on a global scale of war's methods and war's consequences.

The encyclopedia is concise. Its entries honour a time-tested formula. They address 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where', 'why', and thereby offer frameworks for further investigation of taproots and ramifications. But that does not mean a 'one size fits all' template. Events recognized as important— Hattin, Gettysburg, the Somme— are more fully developed without distorting the essentially economical format. Nor are the entries mere narratives. They incorporate analytical dimensions relative to their length and insightful whether phrases, sentences or paragraphs— like the comment that Crusader Jerusalem's 1187 surrender to Saladin involved ransoming most of the population 'at reasonable rates'!

The encyclopedia is user-friendly and clearly written. Not only are its more than

five thousand entries individually intelligible. The graphics synergise with the text, enhancing rather than challenging or submerging it. The maps in particular are models of their kind, both accurate and informative.

Finally the encyclopedia is concentrated on warmaking. It eschews military history's framing concepts, whether economic, cultural or gender, in favour of presenting war at its sharp end. That enables covering the full spectrum: wars and revolutions, campaigns and counter-insurgencies, battle and sieges. And in turn the encyclopedia's format facilitates integrating, rather than compartmentalising, war's levels and war's aspects. In these pages Marathon and Hastings, the rise of the Roman Empire and the British Empire, become subjects for comparison and contrast.

The Encyclopedia of Warfare, in short, admirably fulfills the definition of a work that provides information on many elements of one subject. Its value, however, is also in context. This work makes broader contributions to military history's reference apparatus, and to its reference mentality, on two levels. The encyclopedia complements the electronic era's meme of 'six degrees of separation'. The idea that everything is no more than six steps away from everything else is a natural byproduct of websurfing, where a half-dozen mouse clicks can lead far away indeed from the original reference point. It also encourages diffusion: engagement on peripheries at the expense of the centre.

The Encyclopedia of Warfare encourages and facilitates refocusing on war's essential elements: the planning, conduct and result of using armed force. Diffusion is a natural aspect of the currently dominant approach to military history as an academic discipline. The concept of pivotal events has been overshadowed by an emphasis on underlying structures: reaching out from the operational towards the institutional, the political and the social dimensions. War's sharp end at best jostles for place. It can lose out to an intellectual disdain that is also aesthetic and moral. Warfare, in the sense of making war, is arguably to the twenty-first century what sex allegedly was to the Victorians. It involves emotions nice people do not feel and actions nice people do not perform. Writing about it becomes the new pornography, pandering to appetites best left neither nurtured nor acknowledged.

The encyclopedia contributes balance and perspective to this discourse. Its contents reinforce the specific, unique nature and function of armed forces

compared to any other institutions. Its entries demonstrate that warmaking has had a direct, significant impact on human affairs; that combat has fundamentally altered history's course in both short and long terms. To understand this is to understand the world in which we live. And *The Encyclopedia of Warfare* enables that understanding in an impressive fashion.

DENNIS SHOWALTER June 2013

Medieval Wars 500–1500

The wars of the medieval period were brutal affairs, conducted primarily at close range with edged and impact weapons, supported by the bow and arrow and the crossbow. Yet by the end of the era, gunpowder weapons were starting to reshape the nature of the battlefield, from infantry battles to siege warfare against fortresses.

Post-Roman Britain 500–1100

■CAMLANN, 537

The *Annales Cambriae* record the deaths of King Arthur and Mordred, often interpreted as belligerents. Gildas' contemporary descriptions of internal discord suggest civil war, but neither this nor the location are certain.

■ARFDERYDD, 573

Gwendoleu of Arfderydd, the area encompassing Hadrian's Wall and Carlisle, fought against Peredur and Gywri of Strathclyde. The *Annales Cambriae* record that Gwendoleu fell and Merlin went mad.

■DEORHAM, 577

The forces of Gloucester, Cirencester and Bath united to dislodge Ceawlin's 'Wessex' forces from Hinton Hill, overlooking the Avon valley. The towns were defeated and their kings Connmail, Condida and Farinmail were slain. The victory extended Ceawlin's power from the Solent to the Thames and the Severn Estuary, isolating the West Country Britons from those of the Welsh Marches and Wales.

■DEGSASTAN, c. 603

Aidan, king of the Scotti, attempted to halt the expansionist warfare of Ethelfrid of Northumbria. Ethelfrid defeated the numerically superior army at Degsas' Stone. His brother, Theobald, was killed with all his men.

■CHESTER, 616

Ethelfrid of Northumbria vanquished an army from the British kingdoms of Powys and Rhos, possibly allied with the Anglo-Saxon Cearl of Mercia. Despite heavy losses, Ethelfrid was victorious and King Selyf Sarffagadan of Powys and Cadwal Crysban of Rhos fell. Notably, 1200 British monks from Bangor-on-Dee were slaughtered. The victory isolated the British kingdoms in Wales from those of Strathclyde and Rheged in the north.

■Hatfield Chase, 12 October 633

Edwin of Northumbria was defeated by an alliance of Cadwalla of Gwynedd and Penda of Mercia. Edwin was killed, his army destroyed and Northumbria fragmented as Cadwalla pursued a year of rapine in the north.

■HEAVENFIELD, 634

Oswald of Northumbria, possibly with allies from Dal Riata, defeated

Cadwalla's numerically superior forces. Oswald took a defensive position alongside Hadrian's Wall and hemmed in Cadwalla's advancing army.

■MASERFELTH, 642

Penda of Mercia defeated Oswald of Northumbria. The location is uncertain; contenders include Oswestry, 'Oswald's Tree'. Tradition states Penda had Oswald's body ritually dismembered and displayed in a tree as a sacrifice to Woden.

■WINWAED, 655

Oswy of Bernicia defeated the superior forces of Penda of Mercia and his Deiran and East Anglian allies. Mercians and their allies were killed, including the East Angle Ethelhere. Oswy beheaded Penda.

■Invasion of North Wales, 1063

Harold Godwinson led a land and sea campaign from Gloucester to curb the power of Gruffudd ap Llewellyn, 'King over all of the Welsh'. Harold attacked Rhyddlan, razed Gruffudd's fleet and put his men to flight. Harold secured the submissions of Welsh sub-kings as Tostig led a campaign of plunder. Gruffudd was murdered by his own men and Harold sent his head to Edward the Confessor.

■Northumbrian Revolt, 1065

Following a series of murders, the northern aristocracy rebelled against Tostig Godwinson, Earl of Northumbria, slew his men and declared him an outlaw. The lords of Northumbria and Mercia marched south to confirm Morcar of Mercia as their new Earl and plundered the area around Northampton. Harold Godwinson allied himself with Morcar against his brother. Tostig fled into exile in Flanders and sent emissaries to Harald Hardrada of Norway.

Early Medieval Scotland 500–1100

■DUNNICHEN, 20 MAY 685

Ecgfrith of Northumbria attempted to reinforce his power in northern Britain in an attack against the Pictish Kingdom of Fortiu, to the north of the Mounth. The southern Pictish zone above the Forth acknowledged Northumbrian suzerainty, but Bridei of Fortiu challenged Northumbrian power and harassed its allies.

The Northumbrians marched into north Angus near the Lake Lunn Garan, an area marked by deep hills, a narrow pathway and boggy terrain. Feigning retreat, the Picts led Ecgfrith's men into a narrow mountain pass where they were ambushed. Ecgfrith was killed and the greater part of his army slaughtered. The defeat marked the independence of the Pictish kingdoms from Northumbria and the end of their tributary status. The recovery of lands from Northumbrian control coincided with the rejection of the newly established See at Abercorn, which was symbolic of Northumbrian-sponsored 'Roman' Christianity.

■CARHAM, 1018

Huctred, Earl of Northumbria, marched against Malcolm II of the Scots Kingdom (south of the Forth and Clyde) and Owain of Strathclyde. Huctred was defeated and killed and the Scots gained control of Lothian.

■DUNSINANE (BATTLE OF THE SEVEN SLEEPERS), 1054

Siward of Northumbria led land and sea forces against Macbeth of Scotland, following Scottish attacks on Northumbria. Battle was met north of the Firth of Forth on the feast of the Seven Sleepers of Ephesus. Siward was victorious; 3000 Scots and 1500 English fell and Macbeth put to flight. The English regained control of Cumbria, installing Malcolm III as King of Strathclyde.

■Lumphanan, 15 August 1057

Malcolm III of Scotland mortally wounded his rival Macbeth at an engagement north of the Mounth. Retreating over the Cairnamounth pass, Macbeth staged a last stand and was defeated. He died at Lumphanan.

■ALNWICK, 13 NOVEMBER 1093

Malcolm of Scotland led his fifth and last invasion of northern England, besieging the castle at Alnwick. Robert de Mowbray, Earl of Northumbria, set out to relieve the castle. Although lacking the manpower to engage the Scots in open battle, Robert succeeded in taking them unawares and attacked Malcolm's besieging forces before the ramparts. Malcolm and his son were both killed,

resulting in ongoing dynastic struggles in Scotland.

Wars of the Franks 500-1000

■VOILLE, 507

Clovis' victories over the Alemanni east of the Rhine and the Burgundian Kingdom on the Rhone valley brought the Franks into the orbit of the Gothic kingdoms and the scene of Mediterranean politics. Despite the mediation of Theodoric, Clovis moved against the Visigothic kingdom of Aquitaine. The superior army of Alaric II of Toulouse met Clovis' forces in the northern marches of Visigothic territory. Fighting took place with javelins and hand-to-hand combat, the Goths deserted the field and the Senatorial leaders of the Auvergnats under the command of Appollinarius were all killed. Clovis killed Alaric and plundered his treasury at Toulouse. He drove the Goths from Angoulême and his son, Theuderic, subdued the Visigothic kingdom south to the Pyrenees. Clovis was made consul by the Emperor Anastasius.



■VEZERONCE, 25 June 524

Following the death of Clovis, his four sons continued the Frankish Wars against Burgundy. Clotair and Childebert finally defeated Gundomar and his Ostrogothic allies and the Burgundian Kingdom was annexed into the Merovingian lands.

■Wogastisburg, 631

Dagobert I sent three armies recruited from the Austrasians, Alemanni and Lombards to stem the growing cohesion of Slavic power united under Samo, once a Frankish merchant. Dagobert's armies were heavily defeated, probably in Bohemia.

■Compiègne, 26 September 715

The first in a series of battles in the Frankish civil wars following the death of Pepin of Heristal. Pepin's grandson Theudoald succeeded him briefly as Mayor of the Palace to Dagobert III. Theudoald was ousted in favour of Ragenfrid of Neustria and Pepin's illegitimate son, Charles Martel, was declared mayor by the nobles of Austrasia. Ragenfrid defeated Theudoald with the support of Eudo, Duke of Aquitaine.

■Cologne, 716

Chilperic II and Ragenfrid, Mayor of the Palace of Neustria, led a force against Austrasia. A simultaneous invasion was led by their ally Radbod of Frisia. Charles Martel, recently escaped from imprisonment by Plectrude and Theudoald in their power base at Cologne, retreated rather than face insuperable odds. Cologne fell after a short siege and Chilperic II and Ragenfrid were declared king and mayor respectively by the Austrasians.

■Ambieve, 716

Charles Martel defeated the army of Chilperic II and Ragenfrid of Neustria. Attacking as they rested at midday, Charles Martel employed a feigned retreat to draw them from their defensive position into open ground.

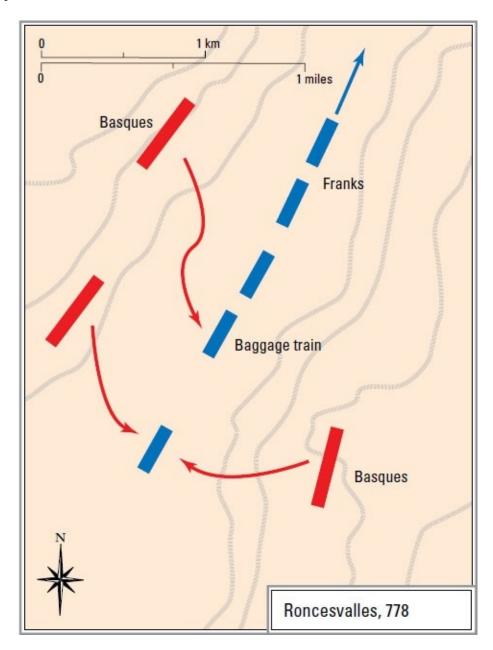
■VINCY, 717

Charles Martel routed the troops of Chilperic II and Ragenfrid of Neustria. Having pursued them to Paris, Charles Martel moved against Plectrude in Cologne and secured the remains of Pepin's treasury.

■Soissons, 718

Chilperic II, Ragenfrid and Eudo, Duke of Aquitaine were defeated by Charles Martel's army of veterans. Ragenfrid fled to Angers, Eudo and Chilperic II to lands south of the Loire. Eudo handed Chilperic II over to Charles Martel in

return for recognition of his Dukedom. On the death of Chlothar IV, Charles Martel recognized Chilperic II as king in return for royal legitimization of his mayoralty.



■The Boarn, 734

Charles Martel's army was ferried over the Aelmere to the Boarn, where he defeated and killed Poppo, king of the Frisians. Looting and destruction of heathen temples followed. Charles Martel annexed the Frisian kingdom.

■Roncesvalles, 778

The rearguard of the Frankish Army was ambushed and defeated in the Pass of Roncesvalles by an alliance of Christian Basques of Pamplona and the forces of the Emir of Cordova.

■BALLON, 22 NOVEMBER 845

Charles the Bald of West Francia was defeated by the numerically inferior troops of Nominoe, Duke of Brittany. The Bretons lured the Frankish troops into the treacherous marshlands between the Oust and the Aff.

■Soissons, 923

The climax of the rebellion by West Frankish nobles against Charles III (the Simple), led by his brother, Robert, Count of Paris. Charles III was defeated and deposed and Robert was killed.

Wars of the Germanic Migrations 500–750

■THE ICE OF LAKE VANERN, c. 530

Onela of Sweden was defeated by the exiled Swedish princes Eanmund and Eadgils and the Geatish King Heardred. The battle, fought on the frozen lake, is recorded in *Beowulf* and Norse sagas.

■Asfeld, 552

Audoin, leader of the Lombards and allied to the Emperor Justinian, defeated the Gepid army of Thorisind. Jordanes records the battle as one of the bloodiest of his time, with the loss of 60,000 lives.

■CORONATE, 689

Cunipert, King of the Lombards, returned from exile with an army of Piedmontese and defeated the rebellion of Alahis, Duke of Trent and Brescia, along with his Venetian forces. Alahis was killed in the battle.

■Bravalla, 750

Legend recorded by Saxo Grammaticus and Norse saga. Harald Wartooth of Denmark is defeated by Sigurd, King of Sweden, in a battle replete with heroes, berserkers, fighting bears and Valkyries.

Wars of the Byzantine Empire 500–1000

■AMIDA, 502–03

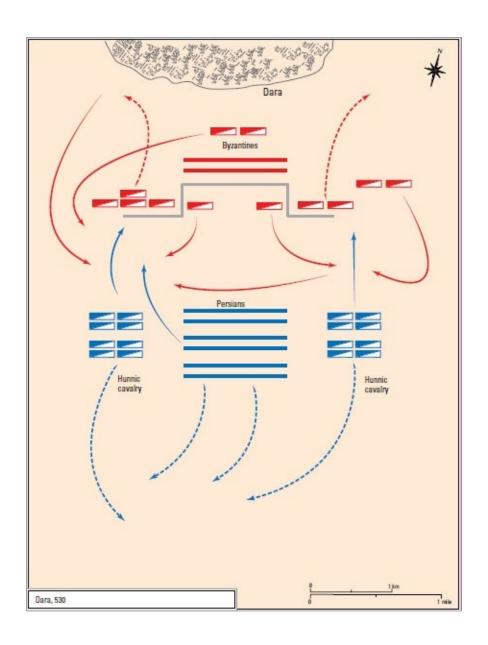
A Sassanian Persian siege of Byzantine-held Amida is noted for a spirited defence in which Byzantine soldiers undermined the Persian siege ramp from inside the walls until it collapsed. Nonetheless, the city fell.

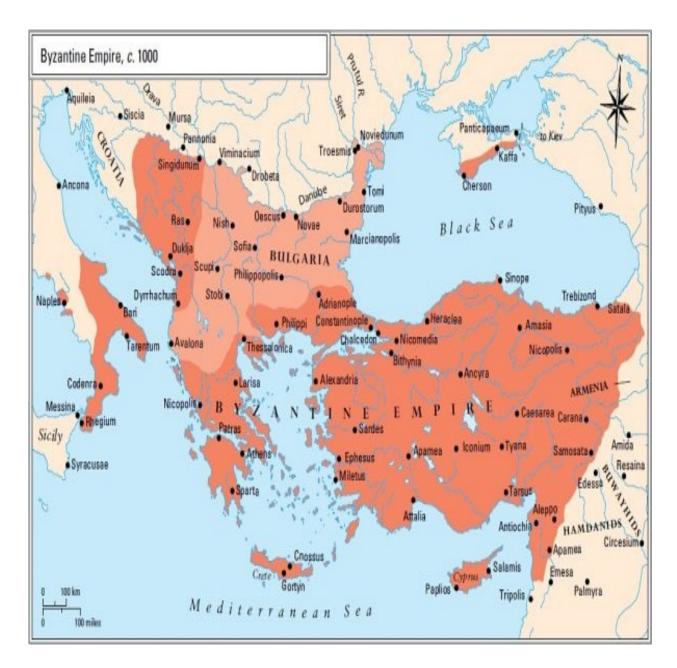
■DARA, 530

One of Byzantine Gen Belisarius' earliest victories. The Byzantine field army of the east, about 25,000 men, was camped near Dara when a 40,000-strong Sassanian force under Firuz approached. Belisarius assumed defensive positions outside the town, digging a series of ditches with narrow passages left for his troops to cross. The Persians began with a cavalry charge that temporarily drove the Byzantine left flank back, but the Byzantines regrouped and the first day concluded with two fights between champions of each army. On the second day, 10,000 more Persians arrived. After arrow exchanges at midday, the Persians launched a general assault. The Byzantines threw them into confusion with a flank attack by cavalry that had been concealed. In the final phase, the Byzantines divided the Persian army into two parts and defeated each in turn.

■CALLINICUM, 19 APRIL 531

A Sassanian cavalry force of 15,000 under Azarethes invaded Byzantine territory; Belisarius brought a mixed Byzantine force of 25,000 to challenge him, pursuing the withdrawing Persians. In an Easter Day battle, both sides began with arrow exchanges. Under their cover, Azarethes reinforced his left-wing cavalry. Their charge then crumbled the Byzantine right wing. The Byzantine cavalry fled. Belisarius' infantry, in close formation, survived the attack until dark, then escaped.





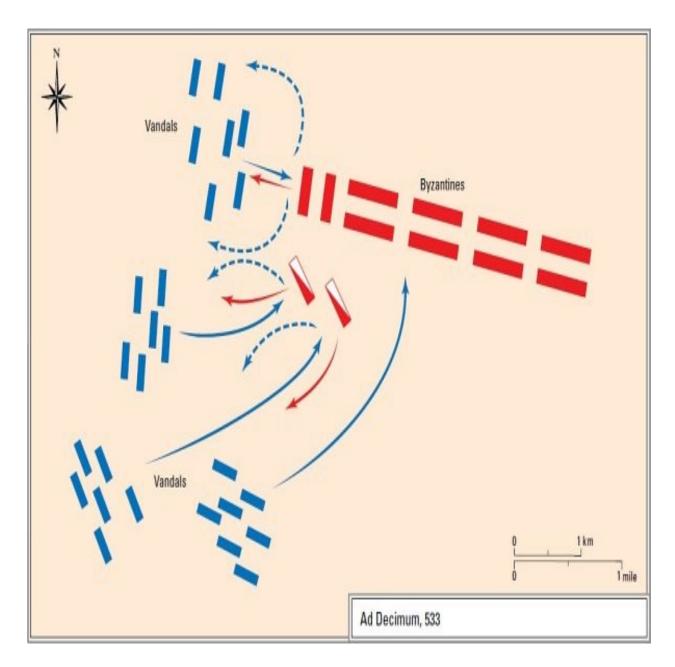
■Constantinople I, 532

In the Nika revolt, massive rioting and property destruction in Constantinople threatened Emperor Justinian. Eastern veterans under Belisarius and Herul mercenaries under Mundus charged the mob in the Hippodrome, slaughtering an estimated 30,000.

■AD DECIMUM, 13 SEPTEMBER 533

In 533, a Byzantine army under the command of Belisarius invaded the former Roman province of Africa, currently ruled by Vandals under King Gelimer. After his unopposed landing, Belisarius marched rapidly toward Carthage. The Vandal army ambushed the Byzantine force on 13 September at Ad Decimum, the 10-mile marker on the road south of Carthage, at a point where the road passed through a narrow defile. Gelimer's plan was apparently to bottle the Byzantine force in and attack it from both sides, but the Vandal attack was badly coordinated. The first Vandal contingent, commanded by Gelimer's brother, Ammatas, was not yet organized for battle when it ran into the Byzantine advance guard. This force was almost completely destroyed, the dead including the Vandal prince. A second Vandal force soon engaged with Belisarius' Hun mercenaries, but proved to be so terrified of the Hunnic force that they hardly fought back. The Byzantines pursued them nearly to the walls of Carthage.

Gelimer then appeared on the scene with the largest of the three Vandal forces. He drove the Byzantines back from the field, the Vandal cavalry routing Belisarius' mercenary cavalry. Gelimer then discovered his brother's body and stopped to bury it. Belisarius was able to regroup his forces and his counterattack found the Vandal force completely unprepared. The Vandals were routed, Gelimer fleeing away from Carthage, apparently in the mistaken belief that Byzantine forces already blocked the way to his capital city. Belisarius lost at most 1800 men, while Vandal casualties numbered 10–12,000. Although most of the Vandal army still remained intact, Belisarius was able to march on to Carthage, which opened its gates to him.



■TRICAMARUM, 15 DECEMBER 533

The Byzantine invasion army under Belisarius had taken Carthage, but the Vandal king Gelimer's army was still largely intact. Belisarius marched out to meet Gelimer 27km from Carthage; the Byzantine force numbered about 8000 infantry and 5000 cavalry and the Vandal army was slightly larger.

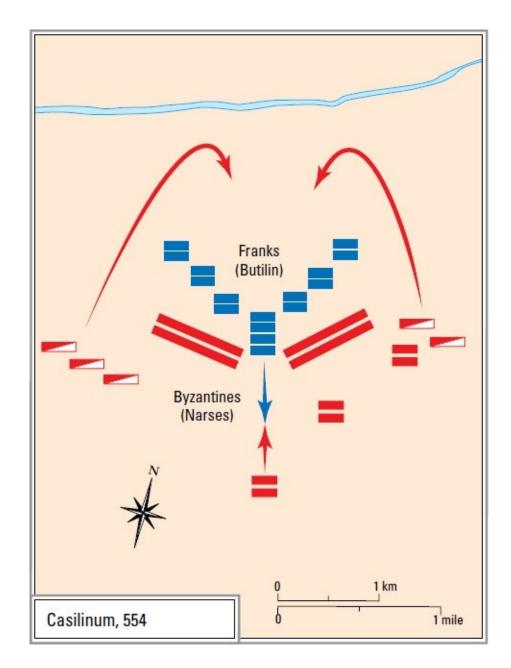
Belisarius first tried to lure the Vandals into a disordered charge, but Gelimer held his ground. The Byzantines then attacked the Vandal centre. In a hard fight, the Vandals were driven back, but their wings did not come to support them. The Vandal centre eventually collapsed into a rout, whereupon the wings of the Vandal force also fled back to their camp. Belisarius began to organize an assault on the Vandals' fortified camp. Before he could attack, Gelimer fled, precipitating a mass flight before the Byzantines stormed the by-then empty camp.

■ROME III, 537–538

Byzantine general Belisarius defended Rome with 5000 soldiers. Vitigis, the Gothic king, established a partial siege, his seven fortified camps blocking supplies and breaking the aqueducts. An attempted assault in March 537 failed, but Vitigis' seizure of Portus increased pressure on Rome. Belisarius offered battle, but was driven back into the city. Stalemate ended when Roman reinforcements arrived and the Goths were defeated as they withdrew.

■ROME IV, 546–47

Gothic king Totila besieged Byzantine-held Rome. Gen Belisarius tried to break the siege, but his small army was driven off. Much of the population starved; others attempted flight, although most were killed. Finally, part of the garrison betrayed the city to Totila. Early in 547, Totila abandoned Rome and Belisarius reoccupied it, restoring the walls Totila had slighted. Totila tried and failed to force Belisarius out again.



■SENA GALLICA, 551

A total of 50 Byzantine warships attacked 47 Gothic ships blockading Ancona. The Goths came out to meet the Byzantines; in missile exchange and then boarding, the Goths, inexperienced at sea, were completely defeated.

■TADINAE, 552

Byzantine Gen Narses with 20,000–25,000 men met a somewhat smaller Gothic army under Totila. Battle commenced with the Goths' unsuccessful attempt to take a gully and outflank the Byzantines, followed by single combats between champions. Totilo then launched an attack of cavalry with lances along the entire

battle front, but the Byzantines held. The Byzantine advance then drove the Goths through their own infantry in a bloody rout.

■Mons Lactarius, 552

A Byzantine army under the eunuch Narses trapped a Gothic force under King Teïas as it marched to relieve Cumae. In a two-day fight, Teïas and much of his army was killed.

■Casilinus, 554

Frankish raiders with some Goths invaded Byzantine-held Italy. Narses met them with 18,000 men near Capua; the Franks under Butilin had a similar force. When the Byzantines struck a Frankish foraging party, the Franks left their fortified camp to fight. The Franks, formed into a wedge (*cuneus*), broke through the Roman centre, only to be hit by Byzantine cavalry on their flanks and rear, suffering a massive defeat.

■CONSTANTINOPLE II, 559

A Kotrigur Hun force of 7000 advanced on undefended Constantinople. Belisarius assembled a scratch force of guardsmen, veterans and volunteers and defeated the Huns in an ambush. Justinian then paid them to withdraw.

■MELITENE I, 576

In a cavalry battle, Byzantine Gen Justinian defeated the Sassanian Persian king Khusrau near Melitene and sacked the Persian camp. Fleeing Persians looted Melitene, but many drowned in the Euphrates as they fled.

■Solachon, 586

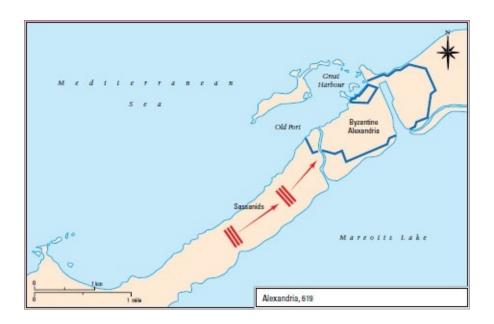
A Byzantine army under Philippicus halted a Persian invasion in northern Mesopotamia. Both armies were apparently all cavalry; the Byzantine right flank broke the Persian left; the Persians fled when threatened with double envelopment.

■VIMINACIUM, 601

Part of a long campaign against the Avars, the Byzantine Balkan army heavily defeated the Avars at Viminacium by dismounting their cavalry and withstanding repeated Avar cavalry charges. Avar losses were heavy.

■ANTIOCH, **613**

Emperor Heraclius, personally commanding the Byzantine army, tried to stop invading Persians in a bloody battle that was at first indecisive, but the Persians regrouped and routed the Byzantines, consolidating their hold on Cilicia.



■JERUSALEM V, 614

A Sassanian Persian army under Shahrbaraz invaded Byzantine Palestine. Jerusalem surrendered peacefully, but when Shahrbaraz marched on, the inhabitants expelled the Persian garrison. Shahrbaraz turned back and placed the city under siege. Strongly fortified, but with a mostly civilian and clerical populace, Jerusalem withstood the siege for 21 days, its garrison vastly outnumbered by the Persians and a large number of Jewish rebels under the command of Benjamin of Tiberias. When the wall was finally breached, Shahrbaraz took the city by storm. Many relics and churches were destroyed and priests killed in revenge for the Christians' duplicity. The Persian conquerors deported much of the Christian population to Persia and also carried off the relic of the True Cross. They left the city under the control of their Jewish allies.

■ALEXANDRIA, 619

The Sassanian Persian invasion of Byzantine Egypt began in 617 or 618. In 619, they reached Alexandria, which was highly defensible, but had a large civilian population that could not be fed since the Persians held the surrounding countryside. Byzantine governor Nicetas and Orthodox patriarch John the Almsgiver both soon fled to Cyprus. The city surrendered in June 619, although one source reports that it was betrayed to the Persians.

■Issus, **622**

Byzantium's Emperor Heraclius defeated a large Persian army under Shahrbaraz in eastern Anatolia, discovering an ambush and responding with a feigned retreat that drew the Persians out. Although not decisive, Issus restored Byzantine morale.

■SARUS, **625**

The Byzantine vanguard crossed the Sarus, but was lured into an ambush and nearly destroyed by their Persian opponents. Emperor Heraclius then led the rearguard over the unguarded bridge, driving the Persians off.

■Constantinople, 626

A Sassanian Persian army under Shahrbaraz and the Avars jointly besieged Constantinople. Emperor Heraclius sent part of his field army to reinforce the garrison. The Avars, unskilled in siegecraft, tried to bring Persians to the European side of the city in canoes, but they were destroyed by the Byzantine fleet, leaving the Avars to attempt primitive siege towers. When another Byzantine army arrived, the Avars and Persians both withdrew.

■NINEVEH, 12 DECEMBER 627

All available Persian forces gathered under Gen Rahzad to meet a Byzantine invasion of Assyria. Emperor Heraclius feigned retreat, then turned and attacked the disorganized Persian force, winning a decisive victory. The Persians retreated after eight hours of fighting. About 6000 Persians died in the battle, including Rahzad, who may have been killed in single combat with Heraclius. A force of Persian reinforcements numbering 3000 then arrived, but were too late to fight in the battle.

■RAVENNA, 729

Byzantine troops sent to restore order in Italy after a tax revolt met an Italian army near Ravenna. The Byzantines were defeated and thousands were killed, helping loosen Byzantine control of northern Italy.

■PLISKA, **26** JULY **811**

In 811, Byzantine emperor Nicephorus I launched a great campaign against the Bulgars, personally leading a very large army that included many courtiers and court officials. The Bulgar khan Krum tried to make peace, but Nicephorus rejected his offers.

On crossing the frontier, the emperor took Pliska, the Bulgar capital, slaughtering the garrison and a relief force that arrived too late, then proceeded to lay waste to the countryside. He then marched on, believing that Krum's army had been destroyed, allowing discipline to slacken despite pleas for greater caution. The Byzantine army soon found itself caught in a trap: the Bulgars had blocked the end of the river valley they were traversing with a log palisade and ditch. When Nicephorus' scouts brought word, he fell into depression and took

no immediate action. The Bulgars, reinforced by Avar and Slav allies, attacked before dawn on 26 July, targeting the imperial encampment. Nicephorus was among the first to fall in the surprise attack and uncontrollable panic rapidly spread among the Byzantine troops. Many fleeing Byzantine soldiers drowned in the nearby marshes; in fact, so many were trampled to death in their haste that the Bulgars were able to cross the marshes on their bodies. Some Byzantines reached the palisade to the south and tried to climb, only to fall to their deaths in the ditch on the far side. The desperate soldiers burned a section of the palisade and it fell outward over the ditch, but when they tried to cross on it, it gave way and many were burned to death in the ditch. It was perhaps the worst Roman defeat since Adrianople in 378. Khan Krum made Nicephorus' skull into a drinking bowl.

■Versinikia, 22 June 813

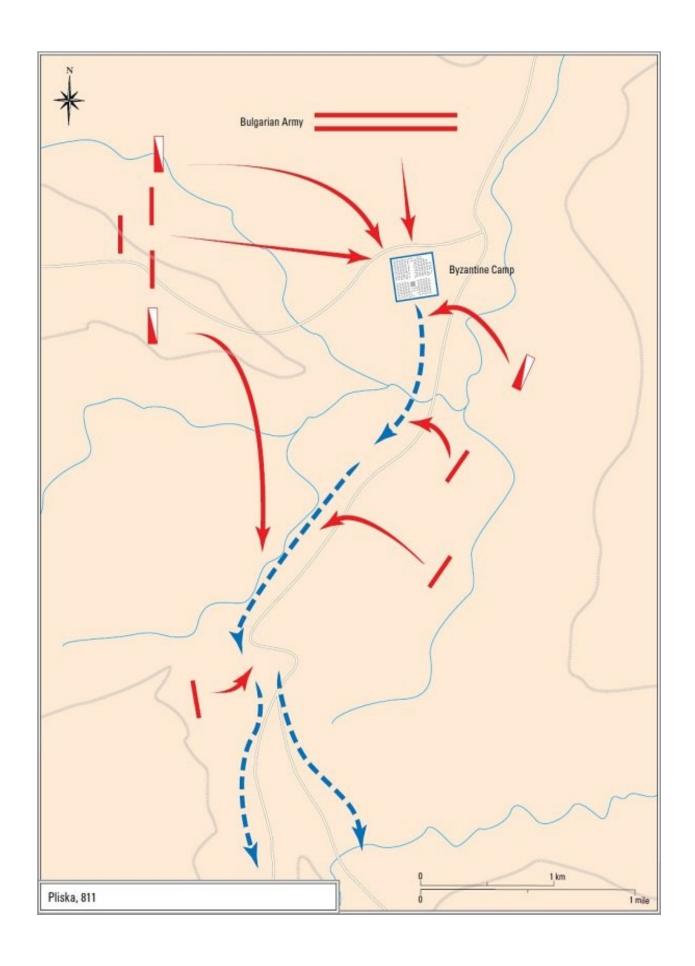
Bulgars defeated a much larger Byzantine army because an impatient Byzantine general led his wing forwards without orders. He did not receive support; the wing was slaughtered and the rest of the army fled in panic.

■LALAKAON, 3 SEPTEMBER 863

Emir Omar of Melitene raided to the Black Sea with about 8000 men. His force was surrounded by 13 Byzantine corps under Petronas and almost completely destroyed, outnumbered at least three to one.

■BATHYS RYAX, 878

Two Byzantine divisions (4,000–5000 men) shadowed retreating Paulician rebels. They got in an argument over which was bravest and disobeyed orders in a dawn attack that created panic and broke the rebel army.



■ACHELOOS, 20 AUGUST 917

Byzantines under Leo Phocas attacked the Bulgars under Tsar Symeon. The Byzantines were winning, but a rumour spread that their commander was dead, causing panic. Symeon turned his troops and routed the Byzantines.

■Dorostolon, 971

Byzantine emperor John I Tzimiskes led an army of about 30,000 to drive the Rus' under Svyatoslav out of Bulgaria. They met outside the fortress of Dorostolon. The Russians began the action with a charge, only to be stopped; a second charge was similarly contained. Finally, John sent in heavy cavalry on both wings, breaking through the Rus' shieldwall and causing a complete route.

■ADRIANOPLE, 972

A Byzantine army under John I Tzimiskes defeated the larger, but inferior Rus' army of Svyatoslav. Russian advance was halted with archery, then a cavalry charge; the Rus' withdrew to Kiev.

■PANKALIA, 24 MARCH 979

In a surprise attack, Byzantium's Gen Bardas Phocas crushingly defeated a rebel army under Bardas Sclerus, Phocas wounding Sclerus in single combat. The battle ended the rebellion and Sclerus escaped to Muslim territory.

■GATES OF TRAJAN, 17 AUGUST 986

Byzantine emperor Basil II retreated after unsuccessfully besieging Sofia. Bulgarians under Tsar Samuel surrounded his army in the mountains and nearly annihilated it as the Byzantines fled; Basil himself barely escaped.

■Spercheios, 996

Byzantines under Nicephorus Uranus surprised a Bulgarian army under Tsar Samuel as they returned from raiding Greece. The Byzantines daringly crossed the flooded Spercheios River, completely routing the Bulgarians in a dawn attack.

Chinese Sui/Tang Dynasty 581–950

■Bohai Sea, 598

A Chinese army and supporting fleet invaded the Korean kingdom of Goguryeo (Koguryo). The fleet was badly damaged in storms and repulsed by a Korean fleet. The army, depleted by disease, withdrew.

■YODONG REGION, 612

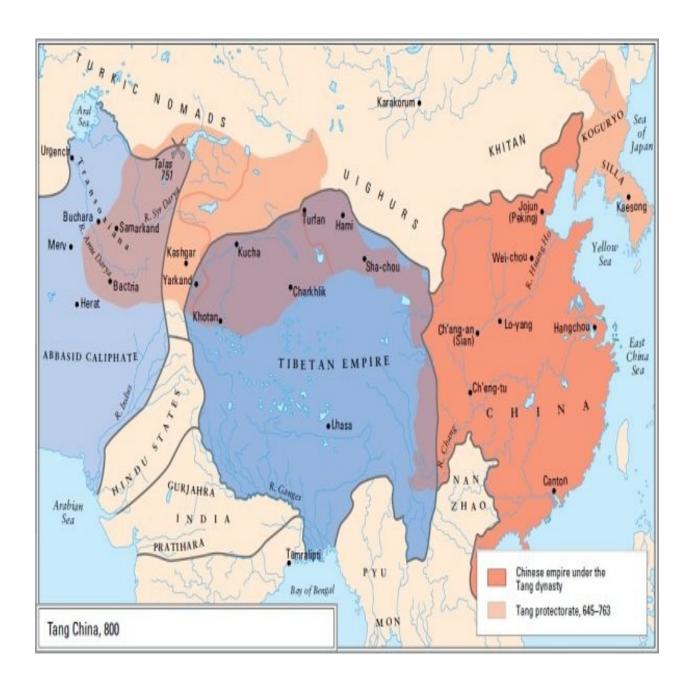
A large Sui Dynasty/Chinese army invaded the Korean kingdom of Goguryeo (Koguryo). While medieval accounts suggest that the Chinese invasion included over a million troops, this is doubtlessly an exaggeration. A system of fortresses in northern Goguryeo tied down the Chinese invasion. In the Yodong region (present-day north-east North Korea) a Korean fortress withstood a lengthy siege by Chinese forces purportedly numbering over 300,000, another exaggeration. The garrison of the fortress finally began negotiating surrender terms, but Korean reinforcements arrived and the fortress continued to hold. Chinese forces were meanwhile depleted, unable to obtain sufficient supplies in the region. The siege was lifted when Goguryeo Gen Ŭlji Mundŏk (Eulji Mundeok) led forces that cleared the Chinese from the region. It is thought that the Chinese lost all but 2700 out of their force of over 300,000 during the campaign.

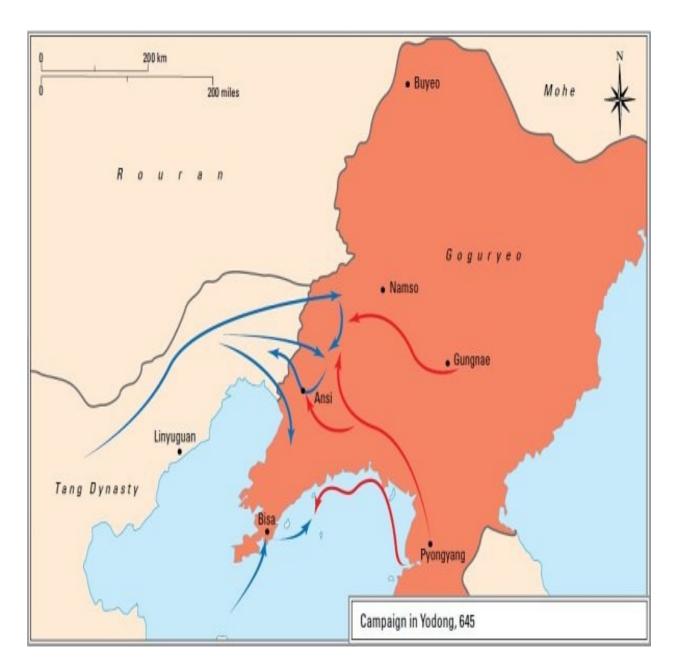
■Pyongyang, 612

During the Chinese invasion of the Korean kingdom of Goguryeo (Koguryo), a Chinese amphibious force attempted to seize the city of Pyongyang. The amphibious force entered Pyongyang, but was ambushed and retreated to the coast.

■Salsu River, 612

During a Chinese invasion of the Korean kingdom of Goguryeo (Koguryo), a large Chinese army began the process of crossing the Salsu River (present-day Chongchon river in north-eastern North Korea). In response the Koreans broke a dam upstream, flooding the river and isolating part of the Chinese army. The Gorguryeo gen Ŭlji Mundŏk (Eulji Mundeok) attacked the isolated Chinese and badly defeated them. Exaggerated accounts give Chinese losses of more than 300,000 troops.





■Huoyi, 8 September 617

As the Chinese Sui Dynasty began to collapse, the Sui Gen Li Yuan joined a rebellion against the dynasty. Li Yuan's 70,000 troops defeated Sui loyalists at Huoyi, near the Yellow River.

■Hulao, 28 May 621

Li Shimin, the second emperor of the new Chinese Tang Dynasty, led an army against two rebellious warlords, Dou Jiande and Wang Sichong. The warlords were defeated at Hulao, in central China.

■Ansi Fortress, 645

The Chinese Tang Dynasty, like the previous Sui Dynasty, invaded the Korean kingdom of Goguryeo (Koguryo), which, at the time, included parts of present-day China, including the Liaodong peninsula. The Ansi Fortress guarded part of this area, being located just southeast of the Liao river. A Chinese army reportedly as large as 60,000 led by Emperor Taizong defeated Goguryeo forces outside of the fortress and then began a siege. The fortress proved impregnable to assault, so the Chinese laboriously built an earthen ramp designed to overlook the fortress walls. The Koreans foiled this effort by building higher wooden ramparts atop their walls in the path of the Chinese ramp. The fortress continued to hold while winter approached and the Chinese forces withdrew, being unable to obtain adequate supplies in a hostile area with worsening weather.

■BAEKGANG, 27 AUGUST 663

Forces of the Korean kingdom of Baekje, with their Japanese allies, were badly defeated by forces of the Korean kingdom of Silla and their Chinese allies at Baekgang, in present-day South Korea.

■TA-FEI, 670

A Tibetan army attacked an invading Chinese army near Mount Ta-Fei in the Tarim Basin. The Chinese forces had separated into an advance force and rearguard; both were decisively defeated.

■Kao Yu, 685

A Chinese Tang Dynasty army crushed a rebel force in the province of Jiangsu, near the central- west coast of China. Tang forces inflicted at least 7000 casualties on the rebels.

■TIANMENLING, 698

Chinese Tang Dynasty forces had defeated rebel Mohe peoples and pursued them into the former Korean kingdom of Goguryeo. There, the Mohe and Belhae Koreans joined forces and defeated the invading Chinese army.

■Shibao, 745–59

Chinese forces invaded the Tarim Basin in present-day western China, which was held by Tibetans. Shibao was a strong Tibetan position in the Red Hills, continually resupplied by Tibetan cavalry, while besieging Chinese forces lacked adequate supplies. The Chinese appointed a Turkish general, Qosu Khan, who ordered a massive assault with 63,000 men. The assaulting force suffered huge losses in the attack, but finally captured Shibao, finding only 400 dead Tibetans inside.

■Yongqiu, 756

During the An Shi Rebellion against the Chinese Tang Dynasty, loyal forces under Zhang Xun successfully defended the walled city of Yongqiu in Henan Province, inflicting heavy losses on much larger rebel forces.

■Suiyang, 757

During the An Shi Rebellion against the Chinese Tang Dynasty, 130,000 rebels under Yin Ziqi besieged the city of Suiyang in Henan Province. Zhang Xun, having successfully defended Yongqiu the previous year, was chosen to command 10,000 loyalists defending Suiyang. Suiyang repelled all assaults for several months. Food supplies in Suiyang were exhausted and the defenders eventually resorted to cannibalism. The city finally fell, but the costly siege crippled rebel strength.

■HENSHU, 781

Chinese Tang Dynasty emperor Dezong, intending to establish firmer control within the Tang Empire, dispatched Imperial troops who defeated warlord forces under Tian Yue in modern-day Hubei Province in central China.

■Huang Chao Rebellion, 874–84

As the power of the Tang Dynasty in China declined, rebellions were numerous. Huang Chao, a charismatic merchant, led a particularly destructive rebellion. Huang's territorial successes throughout China were temporary, resulting in the sacking of major cities and the devastation of rural regions, while Tang generals unenthusiastically pursued the mobile rebels. Huang escaped capture, but died during a clash with rival rebels.

■TING HSIEN, 945

Khitan forces led by Liao emperor Taizong clashed with Jin Chinese forces in present-day northern China. Taizong was defeated and barely escaped capture in this attempt to expand the Khitan Liao Empire.

Wars of the Turkish Empires 600–1299

■Derbent, **627**

During the Third Perso-Turkic War, the western Turkic Khaganate fought against the Sassanid Empire in alliance with the Byzantine emperor Heraclius. The Khagan Tong Yabghu led a Göktürk and Khazar force that stormed the newly fortified Sassanid city of Derbent in the southern Caucasus. In the aftermath of this victory, Heraclius led a Byzantine offensive, which defeated the main Sassanid army at Nineveh in December 627, while the Khagan's forces took Tbilisi.

■DANDANAQAN, 23 MAY 1040

A Seljuq force of 20,000 that had been raiding the western provinces of the Ghaznavid Empire defeated a 50,000-strong Ghaznavid army at Dandanaqan in Khorasan. The disputed territory was incorporated into the Great Seljuq Empire.

■Didgori, 12 August 1121

A 56,000-strong Georgian army under King David IV intercepted and defeated a Seljuq invasion force totalling at least 150,000 men at Didgori, near Tbilisi. David followed up his victory with the capture of Tbilisi in the year 1122.

■YASSI CHEMEN, 10–12 AUGUST 1230

The last Khwarezmian ruler, Jalal ad-Din, captured the Ayyubid city of Ahlat, provoking an Ayyubid alliance with the Seljuq Sultanate of Rûm. Jalal ad-Din was defeated in a three-day battle by the Seljuq sultan Kayqubad I.

Korea 600-1100

■HWANGSANBEOL, 660

A 50,000 strong Silla army commanded by Gen Kim Yushin attacked a force of no more than 5000 Baekje troops under Gen Gyebaek, which was defending Sabi, the Baekje capital. Despite being heavily outnumbered, the Baekje army inflicted heavy casualties, beating off at least four Silla attacks before being overwhelmed and annihilated. Sabi was then captured by the Silla army, leading to the surrender of King Uija of Baekje.

■HEUNGHWAJIN, 1018

Khitan troops numbering 100,000 under the command of Gen Xiao Baiya invaded the Korean kingdom of Goryeo. Their line of advance crossed a stream near Heunghwajin, where Goryeo's army under Gen Gang Gam-chan had set a trap. Gen Gang had the stream blocked and broke the dam as the Khitan force crossed the stream bed. Many Khitans were drowned. These losses increased the already considerable numerical superiority of the 208,000 strong Goryeo army.

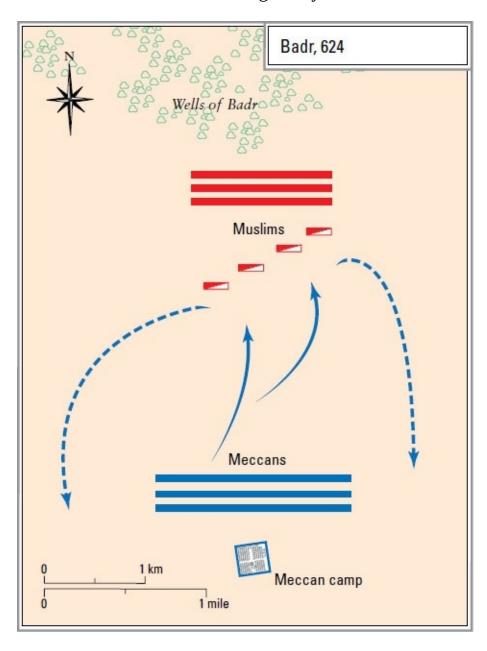
■Kwiju, 1019

Despite his defeat at Heunghwajin, Gen Xiao Baiya advanced on the Goryeo capital, Kaesong, but his army suffered badly in the harsh Korean winter. The Khitan army was virtually annihilated by Gen Gang Gam-chan at Kwiju.

Chinese Nanchao War 650-774

■Chang' an, 763

A 100,000-strong Tibetan army surrounding the Chinese capital, Chang'an, was panicked into retreat by the renowned Chinese Gen Guo Ziyi who had spread rumours of his advance at the head of a huge army.



Muslim Expansion 624–1100

■BADR, 13 MARCH 624

In the earliest days of Islam, Muhammad and his followers had to flee their hometown of Mecca in Arabia and set up a Muslim community in Medina, roughly 320km to the north of Mecca. Mecca was controlled by the Quraish tribe, who were polytheistic and hostile to Islam. A clash between the Muslims of Medina and the Quraish of Mecca initially took place along the important caravan route that ran north and south along the western edge of the Arabian peninsula. The wells at Badr, 130km south-west of Medina, were a key point along that route, which became the scene of the first significant battle between the Muslims and the Quraish. Muhammad commanded 313 men, two horses and 70 camels, taking up defensive positions near Badr as the Quraish approached with over 900 men, 100 horses and 170 camels. Both sides included archers and swordsmen. By tradition, the battle opened with personal combat between champions from each side. Both sides sent out three champions, including Ali, Hamza and Ubayda for the Muslims. All three Muslim champions slew their opponents, although Ubayda was mortally wounded. After the combat of champions, the Quraish mounted a general attack. The Quraish attack faltered and the Muslims counter-attacked. The Quraish fled in disorder, pursued by the Muslims, who gathered over 40 prisoners.

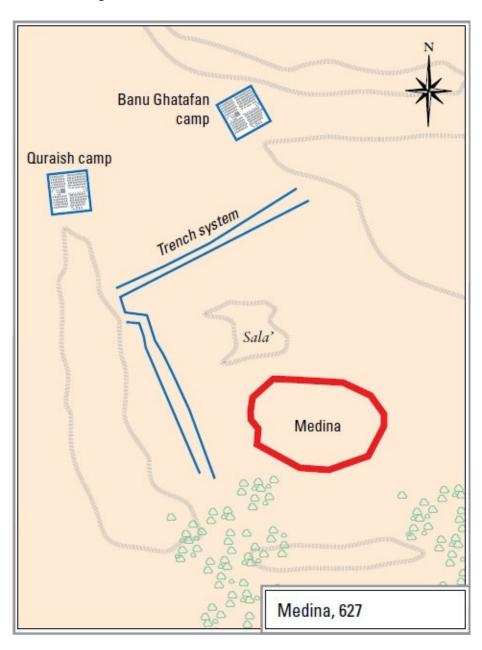
The Muslims had lost 14 killed, while the Quraish lost more than 70 killed. The Muslims executed some Quraish captives immediately after the battle, but Muhammad then ordered the lives of prisoners spared. Some of the prisoners became converts to Islam. Although small, the battle was decisive in terms of the survival of the seminal Muslim community.

■Ohod, 625

The battle of Ohod (often rendered Uhud) was the second battle between the Quraish tribe of Mecca and the Muslims of Medina in Arabia. The Quraish with 3000 men advanced on Medina. Muhammad led 1000 Muslims around the rear of the Quraish force, which then turned to attack the Muslims. The Muslims repulsed the initial attack, but ultimately lost the battle and retreated to Medina.

■MEDINA, **627**

The polytheistic Quraish tribe of Mecca in Arabia had been engaged in war with the Muslims of Medina, led by Muhammad since 624. The Quraish allied with other Arab tribes and gathered an army of 10,000 to march on Medina in early 627. Muhammad, with only 3000 combatants and alerted to the approach of the Quraish, ordered ditches dug around Medina. The Quraish army consisted largely of mounted warriors on horses and camels, which could not cross the Muslim ditches nor assault the walls of Medina. Unprepared for siege warfare, probing attacks by the Quraish failed. In personal combat between champions, the Muslim Ali slew the Quraish champion Amr. Total casualties are unknown, but the Muslims suffered few losses, while the Quraish army became badly depleted and was compelled to withdraw.



■MUTA, 629

Zaid Ibn Harithah was defeated while leading a small force into modern-day Jordan to avenge the murder of Muslim emissaries by local Arab tribes in the first confrontation between Muslims and the Christian Byzantine Empire.

■MECCA, 630

Muhammad's followers from Yethrib-Medina and allied Arab tribes numbering 10,000 forced the eventual submission of Mecca and the ruling Quraish tribe in an almost bloodless assault. The idols in the Ka'ba were subsequently destroyed.

■YAMAMA, **632**

After two failed attacks under the commanders Ikrimah and Shurahbil, Khalid ibn al-Walid led a force of 13,000 to defeat Musailama and the Banu Hanifa tribe and subjugated central Arabia.

■HIRA, 633

Khalid ibn al-Walid besieged the fortified city of Hira, capital of the Lakhmid Kingdom until it was annexed by Persia in 602. The Lakhmids surrendered, allied with Khalid and acted as spies against the Sassanids.

■ULLAIS, **633**

Khalid pursued Persian and Christian Arab forces from Walaja to the plain between the Euphrates and Khaseef. Light cavalry massacred the Sassanians in retreat in the Khaseef. Ullais was also known as the battle of Blood River.

■ZUMAIL, **633**

Khalid's spies identified the location of imperial camp at Zumail. The Islamic forces conducted a co-ordinated three-sided attack at night, nearly destroying the Christian Arab corps.

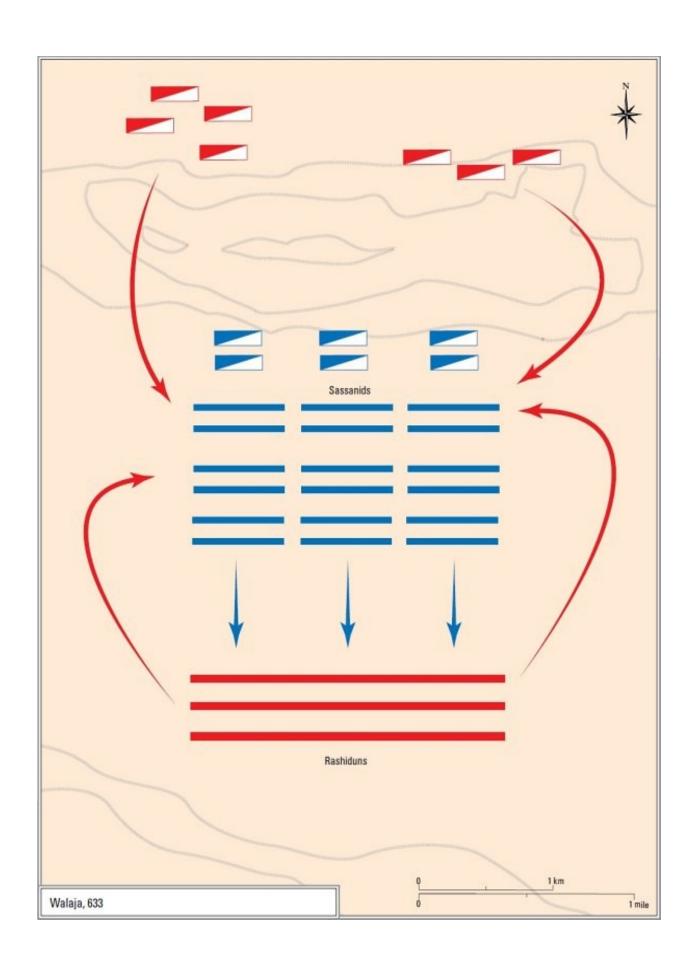
■WALAJA, **633**

Khalid ibn al-Walid led an army of the Rashidun Caliphate numbering around 15,000 against the numerically superior Sassanid forces of Yazdegerd III. The Sassanids sent two armies to intercept the Islamic forces at Walaja near the Euphrates, recruiting Arab allies en route. Khalid moved his forces to meet the armies separately before they coalesced. The battlefield consisted of a plain between two high ridges, bordered by the Euphrates and the desert. Khalid deployed the terrain and his superior numbers of cavalry, positioning them behind the western ridge until he was able to entrap the entire Persian army. After assuming an initial defensive position, the Persian commander Andarzaghar launched a counter-attack. Following a period of retreat, the light

cavalry charged the more unwieldy Persian heavy cavalry. Khalid's forces then gradually surrounded and decimated the Persian army.

■SALASIL, 633

Khalid ibn al-Walid tricked the heavily armed Persian army into a series of marches until they were exhausted. The Islamic cavalry broke through the infantry lines of the Persian army, who were massacred in retreat.



■FIRAZ, **633**

Khalid defeated an alliance of the Byzantine and Sassanian forces both garrisoned in the border region of Firaz. Khalid led a force of around 18,000 against a force of up to 180,000. After giving the enemy the option to cross the Euphrates, Khalid caught them in a pincer movement with the river at their back. Some 50,000 Byzantine and Sassanids fell and Firaz surrendered.

■AJNADAIN, 634

The combined Islamic forces of several armies, numbering 20,000, were summoned to Ajnadain by Khalid ibn al-Walid to meet a local Byzantine force of around 9000. Islamic archers were ordered to fire in controlled barrages against the initial forays of lightly armed Roman infantry and archers, but these remained out of range. Al-Waqidi records that after suffering initial losses, Khalid sent individual warriors to challenge their Roman counterparts. Numerous Roman commanders were killed by Dharar Ibn al-Azwar, then, as the duelling became widespread, Khalid ordered a general advance. On the second day of the battle, the Roman lines collapsed after the loss of their commander Theodore, following a failed ambush against Khalid. The Byzantine forces were routed by the Islamic cavalry as they fled towards Jerusalem, Jaffa and Gaza. Despite a decisive victory, many Islamic commanders fell.

■Bosra, **634**

Islamic forces attack the Byzantine Army at Bosra, the capital of the Ghassanid kingdom. After several days of battle, the Islamic forces besiege the city. As reserve forces were moving towards Ajnadain, the Byzantine commander surrendered.

■SANIYYAT-UL-UQAB, 634

Khalid laid siege to Damascus and formed an isolating cordon around the city; the largest detachments covered the southern road to Palestine and the northern road to Emesa. Heraclius sent 12,000 Byzantines reinforcements to break the siege; these were intercepted and routed in a pass 32km north of the city.

■MARJ-UD DEEBAJ, 634

Following the surrender at Damascus, the Byzantine Army were given a three-day truce to disperse. Leading the cavalry, Khalid pursued and attacked the Byzantine army on the plain of Jabal Ansariya, close to Antioch.

■PELLA, **635**

Khalid defeated the Byzantine army under Theodore the Sacellarius, the military

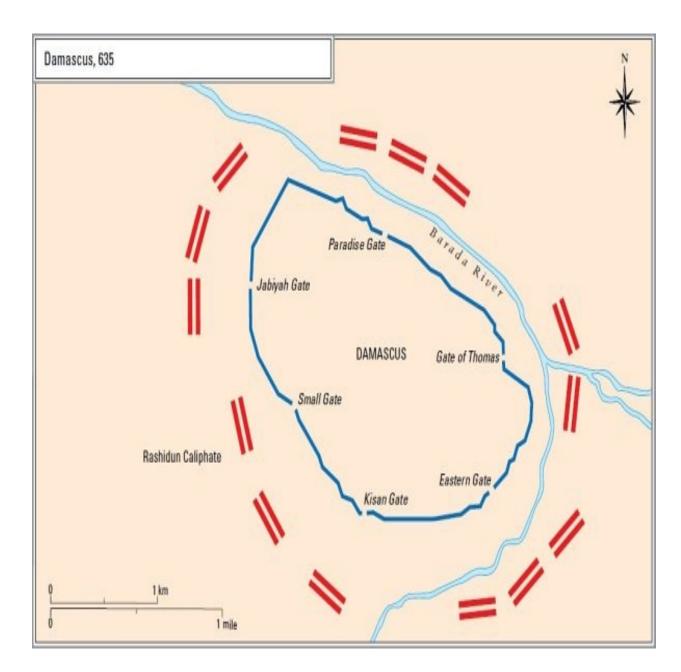
commander in Syria. As imperial treasurer, Theodore's role was to provide reassurance to unpaid soldiers and mercenaries.

■DAMASCUS, 635

Khalid ibn al-Walid laid siege to Damascus, the stronghold of Byzantine Syria. The fortifications of Damascus were intimidating, surrounded by an 11m high wall and guarded by six gates. Lacking siege equipment, Khalid surrounded the city, with each gate guarded by a general commanding over 4000 troops. One cavalry detachment reconnoitred for Byzantine relief columns from Emesa as another protected lines of communication with Medinah and engaged the Byzantine garrison at Fahal. Following the defeat of a relief column, the Byzantine defenders attempted a series of counter-attacks. Infantry covered by archers rushed first from one and then from several gates, but suffered serious losses and could not break the siege lines. On receipt of insider information, Khalid launched a surprise attack against the lightly guarded Eastern Gate and, after initial resistance, the city surrendered and was spared further bloodshed.

■YARMUK RIVER, 636

Vahan's ethnically mixed force of 50,000 pursued Khalid's army of 25,000 in retreat from Damascus. After six days of single combat, cavalry charges and negotiations, Khalid's forces routed the Byzantines. The survivors fled towards Egypt.



■QADISIYA, 637

Sa'd ibn abi-Waqqas led an Islamic force of 30,000 against a numerically superior, but inexperienced Persian army of infantry, heavy cavalry and elephant corps. The decisive Islamic victory effectively ended the Persian control of Iraq.

■HAZIR, **637**

Meenas commanded a garrison force of around 70,000 against Khalid's mobile guard in an offensive aimed at preventing a full-scale siege of Qinnasrin. Meenas was killed, the garrison slaughtered and the city surrendered.

■Iron Bridge, 637

Following the Rashidun victory at Yarmuk, the Islamic army marched into Anatolia. Approaching Antioch from the east, they encountered the Byzantine army outside modern-day Mahruba, near an Iron Bridge over the Orontes. Few details remain beyond the prominent role played by Khalid and the Islamic mobile guard. The Byzantine Army suffered catastrophic losses and fled to Antioch, which was then besieged.

■JALULA, 637

Following the capture of Ctesiphon, 12,000 Islamic troops engaged the Sassanian armies regrouping at Jalula. The Sassanian commander Mihran dug entrenchments in an attempt to slow the opposing cavalry, but his forces were defeated.

■Jerusalem, 637

With the defeat of the Byzantine field army, Jerusalem was gradually besieged by Islamic armies marching from the east. Heraclius could not offer any assistance and the surrender of Jerusalem solidified Islamic control over Palestine.

■ALEPPO, 638

The Roman general Joachim unsuccessfully defended the fort of Aleppo with 4000 garrison troops against the Islamic forces of Khalid. After a siege, Aleppo surrendered and the garrison was permitted to depart.

■BABYLON, 639

In one of the initial engagements of the conquest of Egypt, Amr ibn al-Asl defeated the Byzantine force near Heliopolis, then besieged Egyptian Babylon until its surrender in 641.

■Nihawand, 641

Known as 'The Victory of Victories'. Nihawand saw the decisive defeat of the Sassanian imperial forces marshalled to defend the wealthy provinces of modern-day Iraq. The desert frontier was in disarray and undermanned following Sassanid abolition of the client Lakhmid state that functioned as a buffer zone against the Byzantine Empire. After defeat at Jalula in 637, the city was abandoned by the Marzbans of the north-eastern provinces. Yazdegerd III had moved his capital to Merv from which he conducted raids into Islamic-held territory and raised levies for a major offensive. The commander Mardan Shah led some 60,000 against an Islamic army numbering 30,000, led by numerous commanders including Caliph Omar. The Persian cavalry may have been tricked into an ill-prepared attack on a Bedouin force that feigned flight, only to

surround the Persians in pursuit.

■ALEXANDRIA, 642

The Islamic forces of Amr were bombarded from within the heavily fortified walls for months, but the death of Heraclius prevented Byzantine reinforcements being sent and the city fell after a siege of over a year.

■Tripoli, 643

Abdullah ibn Zubayr captured the last of the Byzantine coastal enclaves in North Africa after a siege lasting one month.

■BALANJAR, 650

Abd ar-Rahman ibn Rabiah invaded the northern Caucasus intent on conquering the Khazar Khagagnate, but was defeated. A ninth-century source describes catapults used by both sides.

■BATTLE OF THE MASTS, 655

Fought off the coast of Mount Phoenix in Lycia, this naval battle was a crucial victory for Islam over a naval force of some 500 ships led by Emperor Constans II. Abdullah bin S'aad led a relatively inexperienced fleet of some 200 ships. The Byzantine ships were moored in close formation; the Islamic victory may have resulted from the superior boarding and close combat techniques of their forces.

■BASRA, 656

Also known as the 'battle of the Camel'. A rebel group in Egypt first imprisoned, then murdered Caliph Uthman. The accession of Ali ibn Abi Taleb (the cousin and adopted son of the Prophet) led to dissension within the Sahaba (companions of the Prophet). A rebel faction under Aisha marched to Basra with an army of 3000 warriors to demand vengeance for the murder of Uthman. Ali raised a force of several thousand aided by allies from Kufra and defeated Aisha's faction. The spiral into civil war and eventual schism leaves the reliability of the sources for the battle questionable, but both factions are reputed to have suffered great losses.

■Siffin, 657

Ali led an army against Mu'awiya, Governor of Syria, who was in revolt against him. After three days of battle with many casualties, the belligerents withdrew to Kufa and Damascus respectively.

■Constantinople, 673–78

Mu'awiya's forces failed to defeat the Byzantine fleet at sea, but remained in

possession of the Asiatic shore of the sea of Marmora in 672. The army returned the next year and formed a land and sea blockage along the Bosphoros river, keeping the city in an intermittent state of siege. The fifth-century Theodosian Walls remained unbreached and the city defences under Emperor Constantine IV Pogonatus were unbroken. The defeat of the Islamic navy at the battle of Syllaeum in 677 owed much to the use of Greek fire and ensured that the city was re-supplied by sea. The harsh winter of 677–78 and the starvation suffered by the Islamic forces resulted in the siege being lifted. Mu'awiya sued for peace in 678.

■KERBALA, 680

Husain ibn Ali led a revolt of the Banu Hashim, the clan of the Prophet, against the Umayyad Yazid I in defence of the hereditary principle of the Caliphate. Accounts of the battle have uncertain veracity in view of their doctrinally partisan nature. Shi'a traditions describe the massacre of Husain's companions by onslaughts of lances and arrows and the decapitation of the remaining members of the Prophet's family.

■Sebastopolis, 690–92

The Umayyad Gen Marwan defeated an army led by the Byzantine emperor Leontios who had successfully subjected Islamic forces to a series of humiliating defeats in Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan and Albania. The Byzantine Army included a force of 30,000 Slavs (forcibly resettled within the empire by Justinian II) under the Bulgar-Slav commander Neboulos. Marwan secured victory by persuading Neboulos and some 20,000 of the Slavic contingent to defect.

■CARTHAGE, 698

Following the Byzantine reconquest of Carthage under John the Patrician and Tiberius Aspimarus. Hasan ibn al-Nu'man led a counter-attack with the Islamic forces who had fled to Kairouan. Hasan's force of 40,000 outnumbered the Carthaginian defenders, although the Byzantines had called on their traditional Amazigh allies, plus Franks and Visigoths. Hasan launched a successful land and sea offensive and the Byzantine forces withdrew to Corsica, Sicily and Crete.

■KABUL (MASKIN), 701

Abd ul Malik dispatched Syrian reinforcements to his general Al-Hajjaj ibn Yusuf, governor of the eastern Muslim provinces. Al-Hajjaj successfully defeated the revolt of Ibn Al Ashath, who then retreated to Kabul.

■RIO BARBATE, 711

Internal dissensions in the Visigothic kingdom in Spain resulted in an alliance between the remaining Byzantine governor in North Africa, Count Julian of Ceuta, and Musa ibn Nusair. Tariq ibn Zayid, governor of Tangiers, led an initial raid on Gibraltar with 1700 men, possibly aided by a fleet of Count Julian's ships. Subsequently he led a force of 7000 Syrians, Berbers and Yemenis on to Cartagena. The Visigothic king Roderick had been campaigning against Basques and Franks in the northern town of Pamplona. His force of 25,000 marched south and encountered Tariq's army at Rio Barbate near Cadiz. Roderick's commanders Sisbert and Osbert either deserted or defected during the battle. Roderick was killed with the majority of his court and the defeated Visigoths fled to Seville.

■Constantinople, 717–18

Leo the Isaurian defeated the fleet of Maslama and Suleiman and drove their remaining ships into the Sea of Marmara. Leo repulsed several more attacks before the arrival of Bulgar allies saw the besiegers withdraw.

■Covadonga, 718

The Visigoth Pelayo successfully repulsed a Moorish advance in the first major Christian victory against the Islamic invasion of the Iberian peninsula.

■Toulouse, 9 June 721

Al-Samh ibn Malik al Khawlani besieged the city of Toulouse. Eudo, the Duke of Aquitaine, retreated at the start of the siege to gather allies and defeated the Moors in a surprise attack.

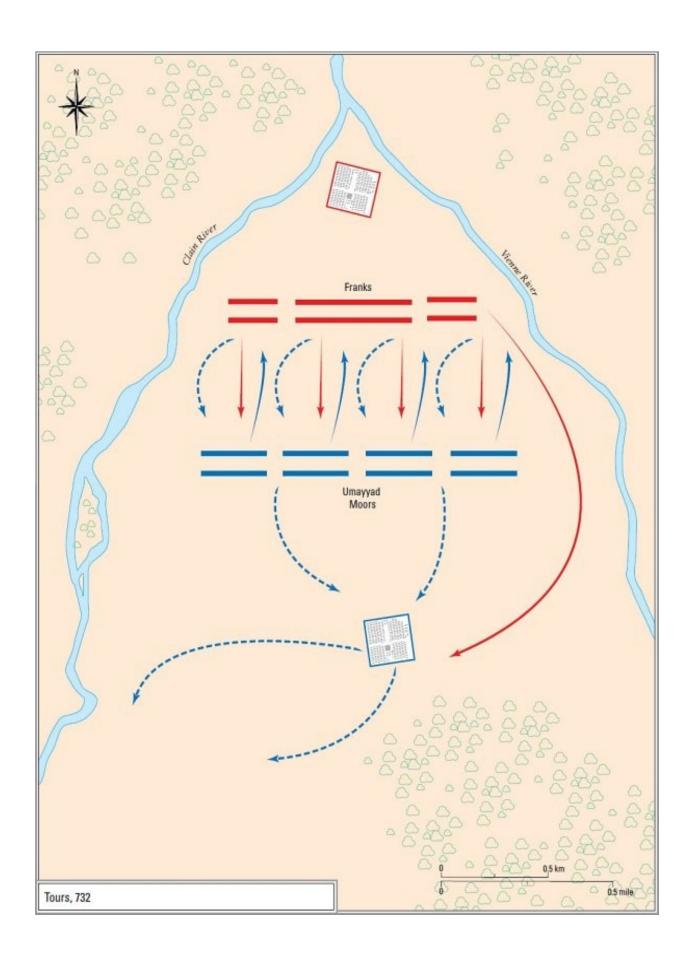
■BALANJAR, 723

According to the ninth-century historian al-Tabari, al-Djarrah ibn Abdullah captured the town of Balanjar and massacred much of the population who had tried to defend the city with a cordon of 3000 wagons.

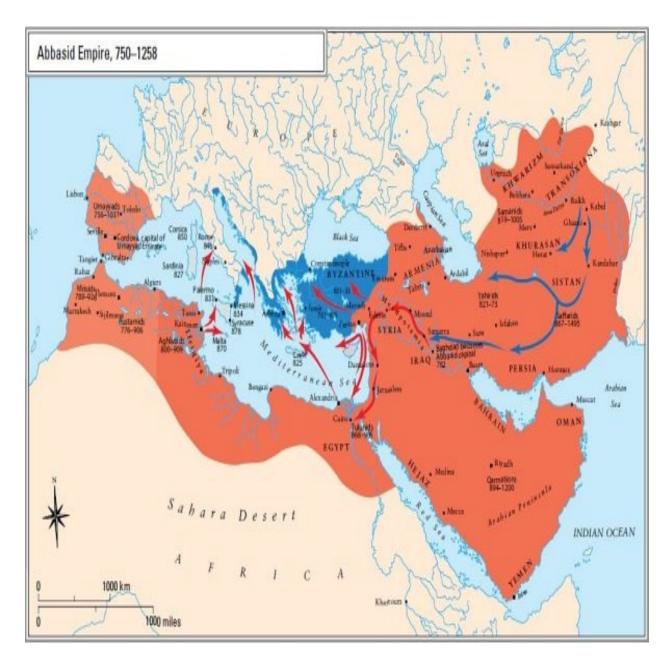
■Tours, 732

Abd er-Rahman led a force of Arab and Berber cavalry from the Kingdom of Al-Andalus across the mountains by the valley of Roncesvalles and into Gascony. At Bordeaux, the Islamic force of some 50,000 defeated the alliance of Eudo of Aquitaine and Munuza, once a Berber commander in Spain. From here, the army overran southern Gaul for several months, reaching as far as the Loire. The anonymous Arabic source describes the army reputedly laying waste to the country and ladening themselves with captives and spoils. Both the Mozarabic Chronicle and Isidore Pacensis attest to the destruction of churches and of the general population and suggest that the aim of the expedition was raid and

pillage, not conquest.

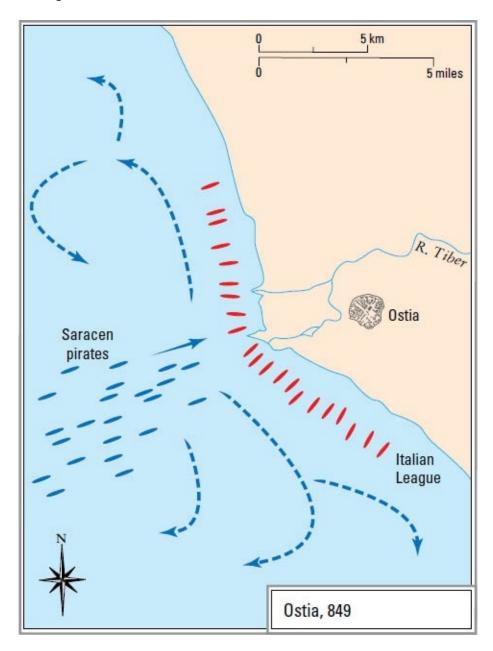


Eudo of Aquitaine fled to Austrasia with the remnants of his army and sought the assistance of Charles Martel, with whom he had previously contested the status of Major of the Palace. Charles Martel reordered his forces and marched south from the upper Danube. Abd's forces had looted the extra-mural church of St Hilary at Poitiers, but made no serious attempt to besiege the city itself. The forces then separated into several raiding parties and pillaged the area between Tours and Poitiers. Upon hearing the advance of the armies of Charles Martel and Eudo from the east, Abd withdrew towards Poitiers, covering the slow dispatch of the train of booty with a series of skirmishes to delay the approaching Frankish forces. An anonymous Arabic source makes pointed reference to the disorder caused by the baggage train and Abd's reluctance to order his troops to abandon their spoils.



The discipline and mobility of the lightly armed Islamic cavalry made it difficult to counter in mounted combat and they could easily outmanoeuvre the Frankish heavy cavalry. Although probably possessing superior numbers and both cavalry and infantry forces, Charles dismounted his cavalry to present a strong defensive line. Isidore Pacensis describes the solid phalanx of the Frankish forces as 'a belt of ice frozen together, and not to be dissolved, as they slew the Arabs with the sword'. This defensive position resisted the repeated charges of the Islamic cavalry until nightfall. An Arabic anonymous Aramic source describes the Islamic assault breaking the Frankish lines, but deterred by

the enemy looting the baggage train and then taking flight at the death of Abd er-Rahman. By contrast, Isidore Pacensis records the retreat of the Islamic forces from the battlefield during the night. Despite the divergence of the sources, it appears that the Islamic forces withdrew, perhaps lacking the weight to deal an effective blow and desirous of protecting their remaining booty. Charles refused to send the cavalry in pursuit, wary of the risk posed by a feigned retreat to men and reclaimed spoils alike.



■KASHGAR, 736

Nassr ibn Sayyar, Governor of the garrison city of Balkh, unsuccessfully

defended the city against Khurasani troops led by al-Harith ibn Surayj, in revolt over conditions for native converts in Umayyad-controlled Khurasan.

■ACRONIUM, 739

Theophanes the Confessor records the defeat of a large Islamic force raiding across Anatolia by Leo the Isaurian and his son the future Emperor Constantine V.

■RUPAR THUTHA, 746

The last Umayyad caliph, Marwan II, occupied Kufa and Mosul in a series of campaigns to reunite the Umayyad Empire and put down Syrian and Kharijite rebellions.

■ZAB, 25 JANUARY 750

The final defeat of the Umayyad Dynasty by the first Abbasid caliph Abu al-'Abbas al-Saffah. Around 300 members of the Umayyad family were killed. Marwan fled to Egypt and was later executed.

■TALAS, 751

Islamic and Tibetan allies defeated the Tang Gen Kao Hsien-chih. The number of combatants is uncertain. The Abbasid army of Ziyad ibn Salih may have numbered 20,000, including their Tibetan and Uyghur allies. The Tang forces including their Ferghana allies may have numbered 10,000, plus 20,000 Karluk mercenaries. The retreat of their allies and the desertion of the Karluks left the Tang army outnumbered and outmanoeuvred.

■HERACLEA PONTICA, 806

An Arab army of up to 135,000 men under Caliph Harun al-Rashid invaded Anatolia and took Heraclea Pontica (modern-day Eregli) after a decisive victory against a Byzantine field army commanded by Emperor Nikephoros I.

■ANZEN, 22 JULY 838

A 25,000-strong Byzantine army commanded by Emperor Theophilos was decisively defeated at Anzen in Anatolia by Gen Afshin's Arab army of 20,000 men. Theophilos fled to Constantinople, allowing Caliph al-Mu'tasim's army to besiege Amorium.

■Amorium, August 838

An Arab army of 80,000 men under Caliph Al-Mu'tasim invaded Anatolia and took the strongly fortified Byzantine city of Amorium after a two-week siege. The 30,000-strong garrison and up to 40,000 inhabitants were massacred.

■OSTIA, 849

Naval expeditions under the Aghlabid Emirate of Tunisia systematically raided the coastlines of Provence and Italy. A fleet for the common defence of the coastline, formed by Naples, Amalfi and Gaeta, gathered at Ostia. The engagement opened with an attack from Neapolitan galleys, but midway through the battle, a storm scattered the Islamic ships, allowing survivors to be easily defeated. Islamic booty and prison labour helped build the Leonine Walls.

■SAMOSATA (SAMSAT), 873

The Byzantine emperor Basil I advanced from Anatolia, penetrating deep into Arab territory and reaching the valley of the Euphrates, which was temporarily incorporated into the empire, together with the city of Samosata.

■APULIA, 875–80

Islamic attacks conquered Bari, Taranto and Brindisi and saw the formation of numerous Emirates claiming independence from the Aghlabid Emirate of Tunisia. Islamic and Lombard control of Apulia was gradually eradicated in the 870s, first by a series of campaigns under Louis the Pious and, in 880, by the navy of Byzantine emperor Basil I.

■TAORMINA, 1 AUGUST 902

Byzantine control of Sicily was steadily eroded by a series of Arab offensives that began in 827. The coastal fortress of Taormina was the last Byzantine stronghold on the island and was captured in August 902.

■GARIGLIANO, JUNE 915

The Fatimid Caliphate conquest of Minturno on the Garigliano river in 883 posed a serious threat to Rome. Pope John X led a combined Italian and Byzantine force in an offensive which destroyed the Fatimid army.

■MELITENE, 934

The city of Melitene (Malatya) in eastern Anatolia had been a major Byzantine stronghold until its conquest by the Arabs in 638. A Byzantine counter-offensive by a 50,000-strong army under John Kourkouas recaptured the city in 934.

■SIMANCAS, 934

Abd al-Rahman III led a large army with the assistance of the Moorish governor of Zaragoza, Abu Yahya. Ramiro II of Leon headed a combined force from Navarre, Galicia and Asturias. The forces gathered near the walls of the city of Simancas, but a total eclipse caused such terror that battle was not joined for two days. After several days of combat, the Christians emerged victorious and held control of the Douro.

■CANDIA, 960–61

In 960, a 50,000-strong Byzantine army under the future emperor Nicephoros II Phokas invaded Muslim-held Crete. Although the island was quickly overrun, the capital of Candia was only taken in 961 after a long siege.

■ADANA, 964

After defeating Sayf al-Dawla, Emir of Aleppo, and sacking the city in 962, the Byzantine emperor Nicephoros II Phokas launched an offensive into southern Anatolia. He captured Adana, despite fierce resistance by Sayf al-Dawla's garrison.

■ALEPPO-ANTIOCH, 969

After the recapture of Anatolia the armies of Byzantine emperor Nicephoros II Phokas invaded Syria and stormed Antioch, before retaking Aleppo from the chamberlain Karguyah, who had overthrown the emir Sayf ad-Dawla. Both cities became Byzantine protectorates.

■Crotone, 982

Emperor Otto II and his Italo-Lombard allies fought the numerically inferior forces of the Kalbid emir of Sicily, Abu al-Qasim. German heavy cavalry killed al-Qasim, but, following his death, the Islamic troops surrounded the German forces. The resulting slaughter included the deaths of Landulf IV of Benevento; Henry I, Bishop of Augsburg; Günther, Margrave of Merseburg; numerous German counts and Otto II, who subsequently died on his journey north.

■Civitate, 18 June 1053

Robert Guiscard, Humphrey de Hauteville and Richard of Aversa faced Leo IX with an army of Lombard, Italian and Swabian troops. The forces met on the banks of the Fortore river. Richard led a cavalry charge, which put the ramshackle Lombards to flight. Humphrey attacked the formidable Swabian mercenaries, at the centre, eventually decimating them with the assistance of Robert's reserve and Richard's cavalry.



■SAGRAJAS (AZ-ZALLAQAH), 1086

King Alfonso VI's Castilian and Leónese force of 2500 men was defeated by a 7000-stong Andalusian army under Yusuf ibn Tashfin at Sagrajas, near Badajoz. Alfonso barely managed to escape and his army was effectively destroyed.

Norse Expansion 800–1066

■ELLANDUN, 825

Egbert of Wessex defeated Beornwulf of Mercia, overturning the balance of power and resulting in the submission of the Mercian subject kingdoms (Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Essex, East Anglia) to the overlordship of Wessex.

■HINGSTON DOWN, 837

A great Viking 'Ship-Army' joined with Cornish Britons resisting submission to Wessex to raid across the south-west. Egbert of Wessex defeated the combined forces on the Cornish side of the Tamar.

■ACLEA, 851

Aethelwulf of Wessex defeated a large force of Viking ships raiding along the Thames, described by *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* as the 'greatest slaughter of a heathen raiding-army that we have ever heard tell of'.

■YORK, 867

The Viking army of Ivar and Halfdene wintered in York and repaired the Roman fortifications. Osberht and Aella, rival claimants to the Northumbrian throne, combined their forces and succeeded in breaching the walls behind which the Vikings had fled. Once inside the fortifications, the Northumbrians were slaughtered and both kings killed; Aella subjected to the Blood-Eagle. The submission of the survivors effectively ended the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria.

■Englefield, 31 December 870

Earldorman Aethelwulf of Berkshire led the shire levies to victory against a contingent of Vikings on a plundering expedition from their base at Reading, killing one of their earls.

■HOXNE, 870

The Viking army annihilated the army of Edmund of East Anglia at Hoxne. Edmund died fighting fiercely with a great many of his men and East Anglia became subject to Viking control.

■READING, 4 JANUARY 871

Aethelred and Alfred of Wessex attacked the Vikings at their stronghold in Reading. The Wessex forces succeeded in taking the gate, but were seriously defeated once confronted with the main Viking army.

■ASHDOWN, 8 JANUARY 871

Aethelred and Alfred of Wessex defeated a large Viking army, killing five earls and two kings, Bagsecg and Haldan. Both sides divided their forces into two divisions and employed shieldwalls.

■WILTON, 871

In his first engagement as king of Wessex, Alfred's depleted forces suffered a serious defeat by the reinforced Viking army. Following a long battle, the Vikings feigned a retreat, killing those who broke ranks in pursuit.

■HAFRSFJORD, 872

In one of the most decisive sea battles of medieval Scandinavia, Harald Fairhair defeated a loose confederation of kings and jarls opposed to his conquests and consolidation of power throughout Norway.

■CHIPPENHAM, 6 JANUARY 878

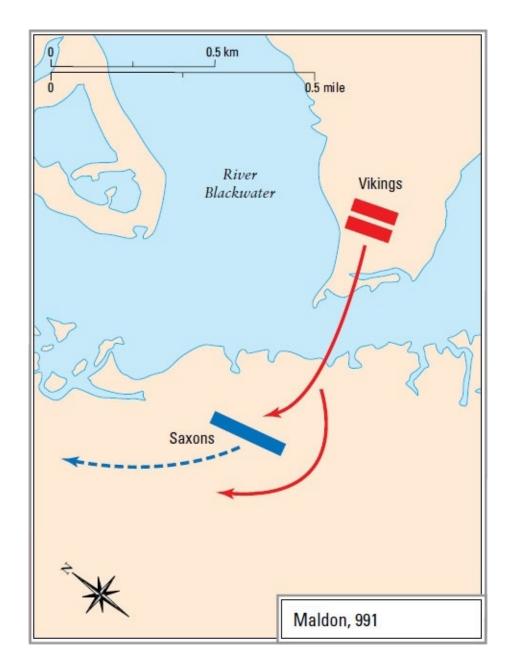
The Viking Guthrum attacked the Royal Vill of Chippenham on the feast of Epiphany and overrode much of Wessex. Alfred and his remaining thegas fled to Athelney, many others fled overseas or submitted to Guthrum.

■EDINGTON, 878

Alfred of Wessex with the Shire levies of Somerset, Wiltshire and Hampshire routed the entire Viking army, put them to flight, then besieged them for a fortnight at Chippenham until they sued for peace.

■CYNWIT, 878

The men of Devon routed a force of 23 Viking ships surrounding their stronghold on the earthwork at Countisbury. Around 1200 were killed, including their kings, and the 'Raven' banner was captured.



■Leuven, 891

Arnulf, king of East Francia, defeated a force of mounted Vikings riding in advance of their fleet towards Louvain, blocking the run of the river Dyle with the bodies of dead Norsemen.

■Tettenhall, 5 August 910

The Vikings of Northumbria mounted an attack on Mercia, believing Edward of Wessex to be with his forces in Kent. Edward commanded the combined levies of Wessex and Mercia, surrounding the Viking forces between Wednesfield and Tettenhall in Staffordshire. The decisive Anglo-Saxon victory and the death of

the Viking kings Eowils and Healfdan signalled the end of Viking raids in Britain south of the Humber.

■CORBRIDGE, 915/918

Vikings from Waterford, led by Ragnall, fought an indecisive battle with Constantine of Scotland and Ealdred, son of Eadwulf, of Northumbria at Corbridge. In 918, Ragnall established himself as king at York.

■Tempsford, 918

Edward the Elder stormed the Burh, fortified by Vikings from Huntingdon and East Anglia, killing the East Anglian leader Guthrum II and the earls Toglos and Manna.

■Brunaburh, 937

Aethelstan of Wessex, his brother Edmund and forces of Wessex and Mercia defeated a confederacy of Irish Norse led by Olaf, Constantine of Scotland and the Strathclyde Welsh of Eugenius.

■BAUDS, 962

Vikings colonized the Orkneys and Hebrides and systematically attacked the Scottish mainland. Indulf, King of Scotland, defeated a party of Norse 'pirates', but then fell in battle.

■MALDON, 10 AUGUST 991

The Earldorman of Essex, Brythnoth, his housecarls and the local fyrd faced a large Danish raiding party, possibly led by Olaf Tryggvason, across the causeway at Northey Island on the Blackwater Estuary. The poem *The Battle of Maldon* depicts Brythnoth refusing to pay ransom and inducing the Vikings to cross the causeway. Following Brythnoth's death, the shield wall eventually disintegrated and his men fled or were overwhelmed.

■GLEN MAMMA, 30 DECEMBER 999

Brian Boru of Munster and his ally, Mael Sechanaill II, routed the combined armies of Mael Morda of Leinster and Sygstrygg Silkbeard of Dublin in a narrow valley of the Wicklow Mountains.

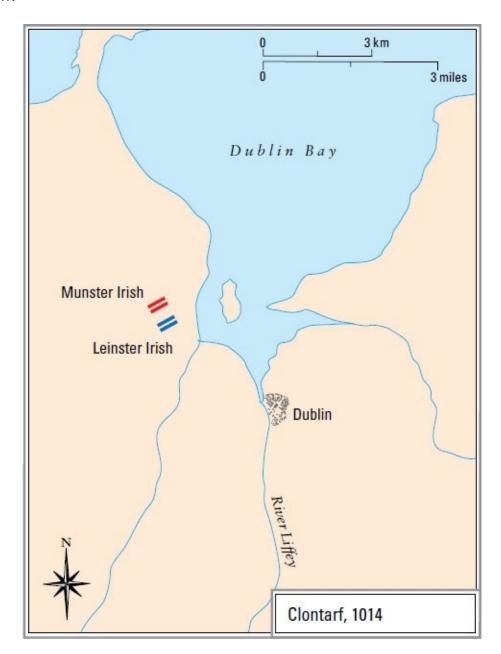
■Swold, 1000

Olaf Tryggvason, and his fleet, headed by the 'Long Serpent,' was defeated and killed by a coalition of Olaf of Sweden, Swein Forkbeard of Denmark and Eric Hakonson.

■NAIRN, 1009

Swein Forkbeard of Denmark besieged the town of Nairn and defeated Malcolm

of Scotland in his attempt to raise siege. Malcolm was wounded, but the Danes withdrew.



■MORTLACK, **1010**

Swein of Denmark's forces were routed after a desperate struggle. Three Scottish thains were lost but Malcolm of Scotland is reputed to have strangled the Danish leader Enetus.

■CLONTARF, 23 APRIL 1014

Brian Boru and his Ui Neill and Manx allies defeated an alliance of Vikings

from Orkney, Man and Dublin and Leinstermen. Thousands fell on both sides including Brian Boru, his son and grandson.

■NESJAR, **1016**

At Nesjar in 1016 Olav Haraldsson fought off an attack from the Swedish Sveinn Hakonarson and the Norwegian chieftain Erling Skjalggson, in the first of several sea battles for control of the waters around Norway.

■PEN, 1016

Edward Ironside repulsed the invading army led by his Danish rival Cnut, from Kenwalh's Castle, an Iron Age hillfort in Castle Wood, defended by a single rampart and ditch.

■ASHINGDON OR ASSANDUN, 18 OCTOBER 1016

Edmund Ironside and his entire English forces tracked Cnut's forces heading inland. Following the desertion of his Mercian ally Eadric Streona, Edmund was defeated and Ulfkell Snilling of East Anglia killed.

■SHERSTON, 1016

The raiding army of Cnut, aided by Eadric Streona of Mercia, faced Edmund Ironside in an indecisive encounter with great slaughter on either side.

■HELGEAA, 1026

Olaf II Haraldsson of Norway and Anund Jakob of Sweden attacked the coast of Skane. Cnut met them with a combined English and Danish fleet, and the battle was indecisive.

■STRANGEBJERG, 1028

Cnut arrived on the coast of Norway with a powerful fleet, having suborned the chieftains of Norway. Olaf II Haraldsson fled to Russia

■STIKLESTAD, 29 JULY 1030

Olaf II Haraldsson, aided by Harald Hardrade and a muster of 4000 from Sweden and southeastern Norway, was defeated and killed by rebel Norwegian chieftains leading a force of some 14,000.

■Norwegian invasion of Britain, 1066

In 1038, Harthacnut of Denmark and Magnus of Norway named each other their successor, should they die without a male heir. Harthacnut died in 1042, as king of Denmark and England. Harald Hardrada succeeded Magnus in 1047, but preoccupation with extending his power in Denmark and Sweden delayed pursuit of his claim until the death of Edward the Confessor. Harald received emissaries offering support from Scandinavian Orkneyers and Tostig

Godwinson. Tostig sought to reclaim the earldom of Northumbria from which he had been deposed by his brother and was already harrying the English coast with Norse pirates. Hardrada sailed to Northumbria with 200 ships the combined forces with his allies numbered 300 ships and 9000 men. Hardrada raided the coast of Yorkshire to the Humber, then pursuing a few retreating English ships, followed the Ouse to disembark at Riccall.



■Fulford, 20 September 1066

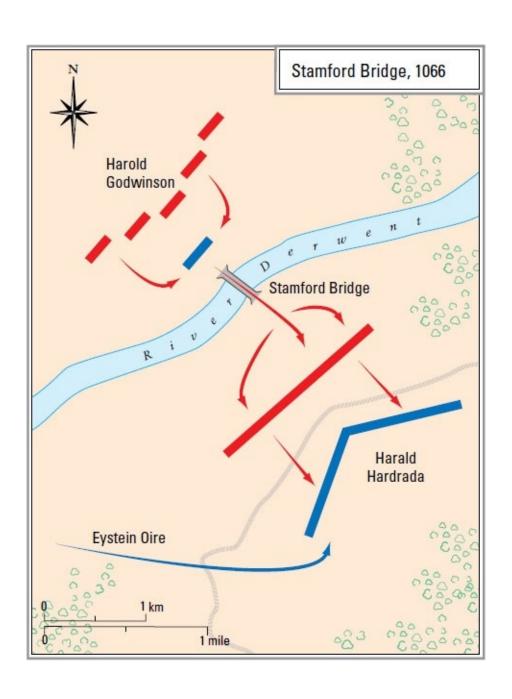
Edwin of Mercia and Morcar of Northumbria blocked Hardrada's route to York at Gate Fulford. The English broke from the battle after suffering a rout, but

there were severe losses on both sides.

■STAMFORD BRIDGE, 25 SEPTEMBER 1066

Following the defeat of the Mercian and Northumbrian levies at Gate Fulford, Hardrada accepted surrender from the citizens of York and demanded hostages from throughout the shire. To receive these hostages, he marched the main body of his army away from his ships to Stamford Bridge. Harold Godwinson headed north, having demobilized the Essex levies at Sandwich. Taking only his housecarls, reinforced with what levies could be mustered en route, Harold met with the English ships and remnants of the army at Tadcaster and surprised Hardrada's forces at Stamford Bridge.

The Norwegian position was on the eastern side of the River Derwent, but failed to set a proper guard on the bridge. The forces were well-matched but surprise and preparedness gave the English the upper hand. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* reports that both sides slogged it out on foot in 'a stubborn battle'. However in the 'Heinskringla' (*Lives of the Norse Kings*) the English are depicted riding in on the Norwegians from all sides, throwing spears and shooting, suggesting that Harold may have used mounted troops and archers. Through a long and bloody battle Harold's housecarls and the Mercian and Northumbrian levies were seriously depleted, but were eventually victorious. Both Tostig and Harald Hardrada fell, Hardrada having been struck in the throat by an arrow. The Norwegian forces gave way and were cut down as they fled the 19km to their ships, where Harold gave them quarter. Of the 300 invading ships, between 20 and 24 ships sailed home.

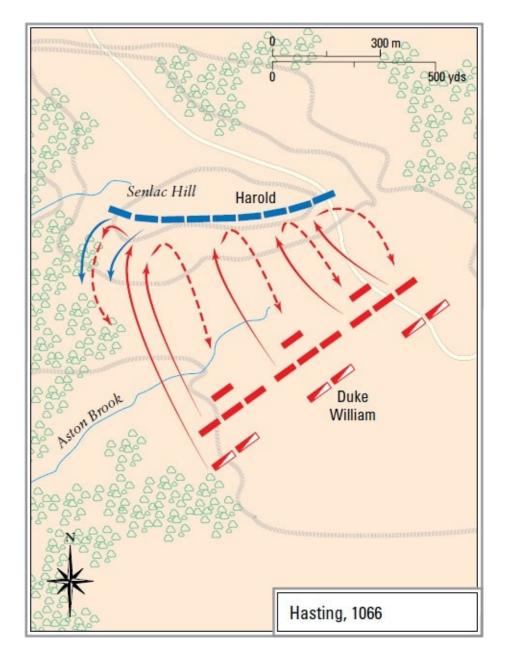


Wars of Norman England 1066–1200

■HASTINGS, 14 OCTOBER 1066

Harold marched south with his housecarls from York to London in five days and waited five days to muster all the available militia, gathering forces in the region of 9000 men, including some 3000 housecarls. Had he waited longer in London, he might have gathered musters from the southern counties and the remnants of the Northern Levies. William of Normandy had landed at Pevensey on 28 September. His forces included feudal contingents and mercenaries from Normandy, Brittany and Flanders and have been estimated to number between 7000 and 50,000, including cavalry of 12,000 and infantry of 20,000. William moved his forces to Hastings and began construction of a castle, raiding for supplies across the Sussex countryside, much of it Harold's ancestral land.

Harold arrived at Senlac Hll on 13 October and organized his forces in a defensive position on a ridge 13km northwest of Hastings, overlooking a marshy valley and brook. The housecarls stood at the highest point and at the centre of the line with the mass of infantry positioned on either side. The next morning, he formed a solid shield wall, 400m broad and 800m deep, behind which his forces were armed with javelins, swords, pikes and axes.



William led the Normans from the centre with the French and Flemish on his right and the Bretons on his left. The Norman archers and crossbow-men advanced shortly after dawn, but as they were firing uphill, they made little initial impact on the housecarls' shields. William ordered the infantry advance, which was hampered by the slope and marshy terrain. A contingent of Breton infantry retreated down the hill under a barrage of javelins and collided with the archers and cavalry who became mired in the marsh. The Bretons were pursued down the hill and the rest of the Norman infantry retreated. William, his brother Odo of Bayeux and Count Eustace of Boulogne rallied the centre and right. The Anglo-Saxon charge was cut off by a contingent of the cavalry, rallied to protect

the Bretons. William led a cavalry charge up the slope, which eventually broke, but, as it was pursued downhill, manoeuvred a devastating counter-attack. The use of feints and counter-attacks was a regular Breton tactic assimilated and deployed by Norman cavalry at Argues (1053) and Messina (1060). William led another charge against the centre, which was repulsed, followed by another feigned flight. The shieldwall wavered despite Harold's orders to hold fast. This reflects a definite contrast with the level of discipline apparent from the concerted actions of the Normans and the device of feigned flight and counterattack. The dwindling Anglo-Saxon line held as the Normans wrought ongoing mounted attacks. These alternated with coordinated high-angle fire volleys and repeated infantry assaults, gradually demolishing the shieldwall. Harold's two brothers, Gyrth and Leofwine, plus a number of his bodyguard fell before Harold was struck in the eye with an arrow and mortally wounded. The Fyrd levies gave way, leaving only the housecarls surrounded on the crest of the ridge. William imperilled his victory and barely escaped when the contingent of housecarls he pursued rallied themselves in retreat to slaughter a large number of Normans in a deep ditch called Malfosse.



■ELY, **1071**

Ely was a refuge for rebels, including Hereward 'the Wake' and Morcar. William surrounded the island with ships and soldiers, constructed a bridge and broke in after several bloody assaults. Morcar was captured, but Hereward escaped.

■TINCHEBRAY, 28 SEPTEMBER 1106

Robert of Normandy attacked the army of Henry I as it besieged the castle of his ally, Mortain, but was defeated and captured together with the Count of Mortain, Robert Belleme and Edgar the Aetheling.

■CRUG MAWR, 1136

An alliance of Deheubarth and Gwynedd, with armoured horsemen, defeated the Norman lords of south Wales, pursuing them to the River Teifi, where many drowned and to Cardigan, which the Welsh burned.

■Northallerton, 22 August 1138

The marauding army of David of Scotland, supported by northern nobles, was defeated by the forces of Archbishop Thurstan of York, under the standards of the Northern Saints.

■Coed Eulo, 1157

The army of Henry II and his Welsh allies, including Madog of Powys, was routed in a deep wooded valley by the sons of Owain Gwynedd. Henry himself narrowly avoided capture.

■ALNWICK, 1174

William the Lion of Scotland besieged castles and raided across northern England in support of Henry the Young King's rebellion against Henry II. As William headed to Alnwick with Norman knights and Frankish mercenaries, the English army under Richard de Lucy approached from Newcastle under the cover of mist and took them unawares. William was captured as his horse fell, bringing the rebellion to a halt.

■Tailleborg, 1179

Richard I, then Duke of Aquitaine, attacked the cliff-top fortress, first looting surrounding lands. Left with no reinforcements or lines of retreat, the defenders attacked Richard outside the walls and were easily subdued.

■GISORS, 27 SEPTEMBER 1198

Richard I and Brabancon mercenaries routed Philip Augustus and 300 knights. Pursued to the Gisors, the bridge collapsed with 20 knights drowned and 100

captured. Lacking siege machinery, Richard then retreated to Dangu.

Wars of the Holy Roman Empire 900–1259

■MERSEBERG (RIADE), 15 MARCH 933

A large Magyar army commanded by the warlords Bulcsú, Lél and Súr invaded central Germany, but was decisively defeated by the German heavy cavalry of King Henry I the Fowler near the Unstrut river.

■Lechfeld, 10 August 955

A Magyar army of 25,000 light cavalry commanded by the warlords Bulcsú, Lél and Súr invaded central Germany in an attempt to repeat the large-scale raid of the previous year. However, on this occasion, Otto I the Great, King of the Germans, was prepared to meet the threat. He ordered his troops, which were drawn from across Germany, to concentrate on the Danube, around Neuburg and Ingolstadt. This placed his army across the Magyar line of communications in a good position to attack their rear while they were raiding north-east of Augsburg. Otto also anticipated the probable Magyar route for their return journey; he believed that, as in the past, they would head back towards Hungary via Lotharingia (Lorraine), the West Frankish Kingdom (France) and finally Italy. He therefore ordered his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne and Duke of Lotharingia, to keep his forces concentrated in Lorraine to block their line of retreat.

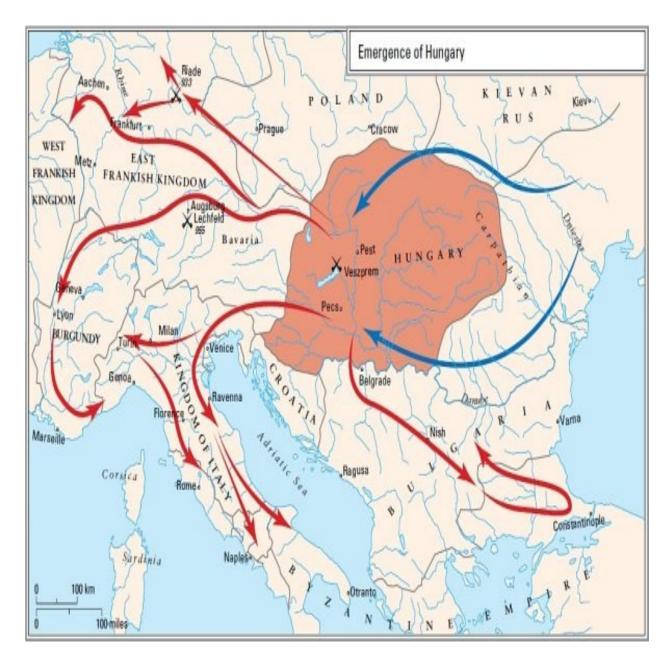
The German army probably totalled 8000 cavalry in eight 1000-strong *legiones* (divisions)— three from Bavaria, two from Swabia, one from Franconia and one from Bohemia under Prince Boleslav I. The eighth division, which was commanded by Otto and slightly larger than the others, included Saxons, Thuringians and the king's personal guard. Otto's forces caught the Magyar army as it attacked Augsburg, which was fiercely defended by a garrison led by Bishop Ulrich.

The arrival of the German army forced the Magyars to abandon their attacks on Augsburg and to deploy on the Lechfeld, the flood plain to the south of the city. The Magyar cavalry launched a frontal attack on the Bavarians, while a detachment made a wide outflanking move, routed the baggage guards and charged into the rear of the Swabians. This dangerous threat was finally contained when the attackers were driven off by the Franconian division.

The Magyars' frontal attack was beaten off by Otto's more heavily armoured cavalry, which inflicted severe casualties on their opponents. In such close

combat, the Magyar horse archers were at a marked disadvantage, lacking the space to effectively use their deadly shoot-and-run tactics. Bulcsú feigned a retreat with part of his force in an attempt to lure Otto's men into breaking formation and pursuing, but the German line held and routed the Magyars.

In an exceptional move for an army of this period, the German forces maintained their discipline and methodically pursued the Magyars for the next couple of days, rather than dispersing to loot the enemy camp. Many fugitives were killed, or drowned attempting to cross the Lech river. Bulcsú and several other Magyar leaders were captured and executed. It seems likely that German casualties totalled approximately 3000. Although the Magyars may well have lost no more than 1000 men in the battle itself, a further 2000 were probably killed afterwards by the pursuing German cavalry, while another 1500 or so were slaughtered by German peasants as they made their way back to Hungary.



The victory effectively ended the Magyar threat to Germany and boosted Otto's prestige as a warrior and commander. He was hailed as emperor by his troops on the Lechfeld battlefield and, in 962, was formally crowned as Holy Roman Emperor by Pope John XII. Militarily, the battle at Lechfeld is often regarded as marking the beginning of the dominance of heavy cavalry in battle, which was soon to evolve into the armoured knight on the battlefields of northern Europe.

■CEDYNIA, 24 JUNE 972

Odo I, Margrave of the Saxon Ostmark, invaded Poland with an army of about

4000 men, but was defeated near Cedynia, West Pomerania, by a Polish force commanded by Duke Mieszko I.

■VLAARDINGEN, 29 JULY 1018

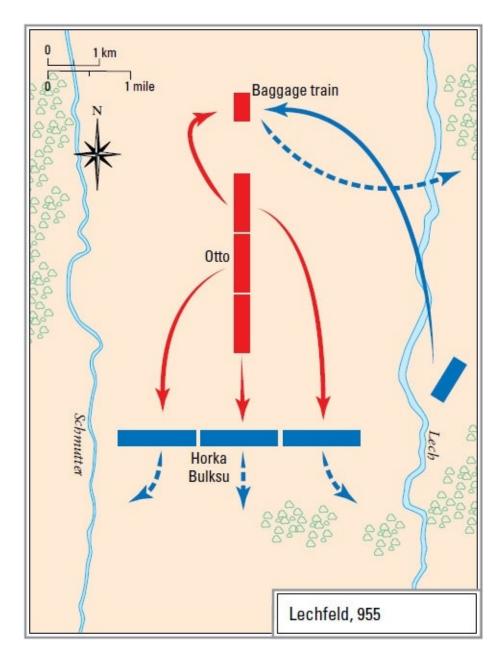
Godfrey II, Duke of Lower Lorraine, led an imperial force of possibly 1000 men against the rebellious Count Dirk III of Friesland. The imperialists sailed west, along the rivers Waal and Merwede, to Dirk's stronghold in Vlaardingen. On landing, Godfrey's men found that the numerous ditches made it impossible to deploy near the castle and attempted to move to more open ground, but were ambushed and routed with heavy losses.

■NAKLO, 10 AUGUST 1109

Prince Bolesław III Wrymouth of Poland invaded Pomerania to secure his northern borders against the pagan Pomeranian tribes. The Poles captured the stronghold of Nakło nad Noteci after defeating a Pomeranian relief force near the town.

■Głogów, 14 August 1109

King Henry V of Germany's invasion of Poland in support of the exiled Zbigniew, Duke of Poland, was halted by the defenders of Głogów in Silesia. Harassment by Polish guerillas forced Henry to abandon the siege.



■HUNDSFELD (PSIE POLE), 24 AUGUST 1109

An imperialist army under King Henry V of Germany invaded Polish territory in support of the exiled Zbigniew, Duke of Poland, but was defeated by Prince Bolesław III Wrymouth's Polish army near Wrocław in Silesia. The battle was dubbed 'Dogs' Field' (*Hundsfeld* in German; *Psie Pole* in Polish) after Bishop Wincenty Kadłubek of Kraków wrote of 'dogs which, devouring so many corpses, fell into a mad ferocity, so that no one dared venture there'.

■Welfesholz, 11 February 1115

Saxon and Thuringian nobles led by Duke Lothar of Saxony rose against the

Holy Roman Emperor Henry V. They defeated imperial forces at Welfesholz, near Mansfeld in Saxony, forcing Henry to relinquish effective control of the province.

■Nocera, 1132

A rebel army under Prince Robert II of Capua and Ranulf II, Count of Alife, destroyed King Roger II of Sicily's royalist forces at Nocera Inferiore in southern Italy. Roger escaped, accompanied by only four knights.

■RIGNANO, 30 OCTOBER 1137

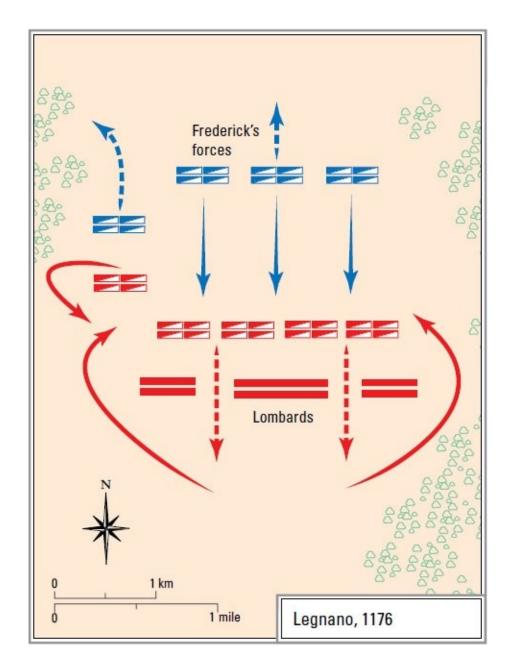
King Roger II of Sicily's army was defeated at Rignano in Apulia by Ranulf II, Duke of Apulia and Count of Alife, supported by 800 German knights sent by the Holy Roman Emperor Lothair III.

■Weinsberg, December 1140

King Conrad III of Germany seized the lands of Henry the Proud, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria. On Henry's death, his brother Welf, reclaimed Bavaria, but was defeated by Conrad at Weinsberg, near Heilbronn.

■MONTE PORZIO, 29 MAY 1167

An imperialist army of 1600 men commanded by Christian I, Archbishop of Mainz, defeated Oddone Frangipane's 10,000-strong army of the Commune of Rome. The poorly equipped Roman militia were routed by Christian's knights, losing over 4000 men.



■LEGNANO, 29 MAY 1176

Attempts by the Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick I Barbarossa, to assert control of northern Italy led to the formation of the Lombard League in 1167, an anti-Imperialist alliance of northern Italian city-states, backed by Pope Alexander III.

In 1174, Frederick attempted to finally crush the League and invaded northern Italy. He took the towns of Susa and Asti in Piedmont, but was forced to abandon the long siege of Alessandria in 1175. By 1176, he had received reinforcements, but his forces were no more than 3000 strong (mainly German knights). The League was able to raise an army of 4000 men and the two forces

clashed at Legnano near Milan. Frederick's knights broke much of the League's cavalry, but were repulsed by the elite Lombard infantry protecting their standard. A final counter-attack by the League's Brescian cavalry routed the Imperialists.

■CORTENUOVA, 27 NOVEMBER 1237

The Second Lombard League was formed by the northern Italian city-states in 1226 to counter attempts by the Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick II, to impose his authority on the region. In August 1237, Frederick led a 10,000-strong army into northern Italy in an attempt to crush the League. After prolonged manoeuvring, he surprised and defeated the League's army of 15,000 men under Pietro Tiepolo near Cortenuova in Lombardy, inflicting 10,000 casualties.

■Brescia, August-October 1238

Following his victory at Cortenuova, Frederick II besieged Brescia, one of the few cities of the Lombard League that had continued to resist him. The city held during a three-month siege and Frederick was forced to withdraw.

■VITERBO, 1243

The Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick II, installed an imperial garrison in Viterbo in 1240, which was expelled by a popular uprising in 1243. Frederick besieged the city, but was persuaded to withdraw by Pope Innocent IV.

■PARMA, 18 FEBRUARY 1248

The Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II's siege of Parma ended abruptly when his fortified camp was surprised and captured by a sortie on 18 February 1248. The 5600-strong Imperialist army lost at least 3000 men.

■Fossalta, 26 May 1249

The Lombard League's army of 8800 men under Filippo Ugoni was marching to attack Modena when it was intercepted near the city by a 15,000-strong imperialist army commanded by King Enzio of Sardinia, the illegitimate son of the Emperor Frederick II. Despite being heavily outnumbered, the League's forces made repeated attacks, finally routing the Imperialists. Casualties were heavy on both sides and Enzio and 400 of his knights were captured.

■Cassano, 16 September 1259

The Ghibellines under Ezzelino da Romano were defeated at the Ada river by Guelphs under Azzo VII d'Este. Azzo won a significant victory for the Guelphs; Ezzelino was wounded and captured.

Wars of the Balkan and Slavic Peoples 900–1250

■Bosnian Highlands, 927

A Bulgarian force of 30,000–70,000 men under Duke Alogobotur invaded Croatia, but was heavily defeated as it crossed the Bosian Highlands in May 927 by a far larger Croatian army commanded by King Tomislav.

■Preslay, 971

The Byzantine emperor, John I Tzimiskes invaded Bulgaria with an army of 40,000 men and stormed the capital, Plevna. The Bulgarian tsar, Boris II, was captured and deposed and his country became a Byzantine province.

■STUGNA RIVER, 1093

An army led by three princes of Kievan Rus', Sviatopolk II of Kiev, Vladimir Monomakh of Chernigov and Rostislav of Pereyaslav, was attacked and defeated by 8000 Cuman tribesmen near the Stugna river.

■GVOZD MOUNTAIN, 1097

An Hungarian army led by King Coloman I crossed the River Drava and invaded Croatia. King Petar Svačić of Croatia attempted to intercept the invaders before they reached the Adriatic coast and the two armies clashed at Gvozd Mountain. Petar was defeated and killed, marking the end of the Svačić dynasty. Croatia was then linked to Hungary in a personal union between the two crowns, which continued until 1918.

■Lipitsa, 22 April 1216

This was the decisive battle in the wars of succession for the Grand Princely throne of Vladimir-Suzdal, following the death of Vsevolod the Big Nest. In the battle, fought on 22 April 1216, the forces of Mstislav the Daring and Konstantin Vsevolodovich defeated the army of Konstantin's younger brothers, Yuri Vsevolodovich and Yaroslav. Konstantin seized the throne of Vladimir-Suzdal and ruled as Grand Prince until his death two years later.

■Klokotnitsa, 9 March 1230

An 85,000-strong Epirote army led by Theodore Komnenos Doukas invaded the Bulgarian Empire, but was defeated by a Bulgarian force of 25,000 men commanded by Tsar Ivan Asen II.

Chinese Song, Jin, Yuan and Ming Dynasty Wars 960– 1644

■TANGDAO, 16 NOVEMBER 1161

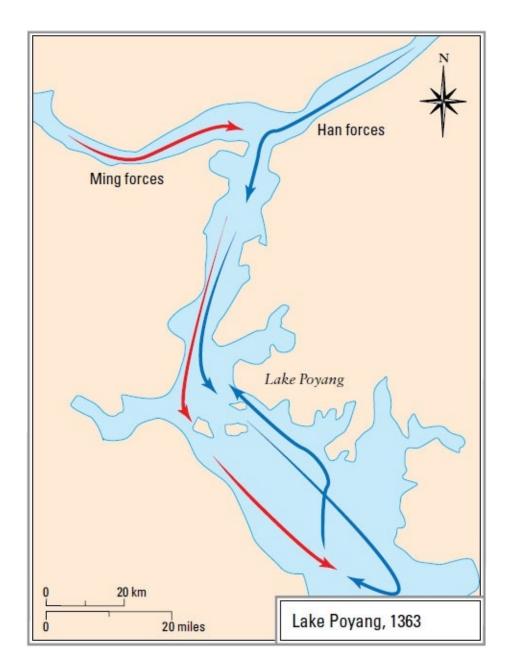
A Southern Song fleet of 120 warships equipped with trebuchets hurling gunpowder bombs surprised and defeated a Jurchen Jin force of 600 naval vessels off the island of Tangdao in the East China Sea.

■BACH DANG, 1288

The attempted Mongol invasion of Champa in 1288 was frustrated at Bach Dang. The defenders placed sharpened stakes in the sea near the shore. When the tide retreated, the ships caught on the stakes.

■Lake Poyang, 30 Aug 1363–4 Oct 4 1363

The largest naval battle in history, 300,000 Han crews and marines in 'tower ships' faced 200,000 Ming in smaller, similar vessels. In long weeks of fighting on the huge, shrinking lake, the Ming eventually prevailed.



■Tumu, 1449

In July 1449, Oirat Mongol forces totalling 20,000 men led by Khagan Esen Tayisi carried out large scale raids into Chinese territory. The Ming Zhengtong emperor was persuaded by the influential eunuch, Wang Zhen. to lead his 500,000-strong army in person against the raiders. However, Wang Zhen held effective command and conducted an incompetent campaign, which culminated in the defeat of the Ming forces and the capture of the Zhengtong emperor.

■Pyongyang, 8 January 1593

The Chinese attack on Pyongyang in 1593 was the turning point in the Japanese

invasion of Korea. They drove the Japanese out of the city to begin a retreat that ended with them leaving Korea.

■ULSAN, 1597

Ulsan, a small castle guarding a harbour on the eastern coast of Korea, was one of the Japanese fortresses established to provide control of the country and to ensure communications with Japan. In 1597, while still incomplete, Ulsan came under attack from a huge Chinese and Korean army in one of the last battles of the invasion. Repeated attacks using waves of troops were beaten back from the walls so that even further assaults could be mounted across piles of corpses. Starvation and very cold weather took their toll on the defenders, who froze to death at their posts. Desperate foraging parties searched the pockets of dead soldiers in the moat to find scraps of food. The castle was defended by Kato Kiyomasa, who held out until a Japanese relieving army arrived and attacked the rear of the Chinese lines.

■SARHU, 1619

During the winter of 1618–19, a 160,000-strong Ming army advanced in four detachments on the Manchu city of Hetu Ala. Although he had only 60,000 men, the Manchu khan Nurhaci beat each of the first three Ming detachments in turn. The final 40,000-strong Ming force was badly demoralized as it retreated through the mountains and was routed when a shadowing 20-man Manchu scouting force sounded horns, giving the signal to attack.

■NINGYUAN, 1626

The Manchu khan Nurhaci led an army of at least 60,000 men in assaults on the city of Ningyuan. Nurhaci was mortally wounded by artillery fire and the attacks were beaten off by the city's 10,000-strong Ming garrison.

■Nanyang, **1642**

Li Zicheng took the Ming city of Nanyang with a 20,000-strong peasant rebel army, following up his victory with the capture of Beijing, after which he proclaimed himself as the first emperor of the Shun Dynasty.

■Shanhai Pass, 28 May 1644

After taking Beijing, Li Zicheng attacked a 100,000-strong Ming and Manchu army in the Shanhai Pass. Li's 60,000 men had almost defeated the Ming contingent when his army was broken by a Manchu cavalry charge.

■FORT ZEELANDIA, 1661

Fort Zeelandia was the most important Dutch colonial outpost on the island of Taiwan. In 1661, it was captured by Zheng Chenggong (Koxinga) in an action

that marked the beginning of Chinese rule over Taiwan.

Scandinavian Kingdoms 1157–1471

■GRATHE HEATH, 1157

Three claimants to the Danish throne, Sweyn III, Cnut V and Valdemar I the Great, had agreed to partition the country between them. Sweyn broke the pact, killing Cnut and wounding Valdemar, who managed to escape to Jutland. Sweyn then invaded Jutland, but his army was broken by Valdemar's forces in a surprise attack at Grathe Heath. Sweyn managed to escape, but was hunted down and killed by local peasants.

■VISBY, 27 JULY 1361

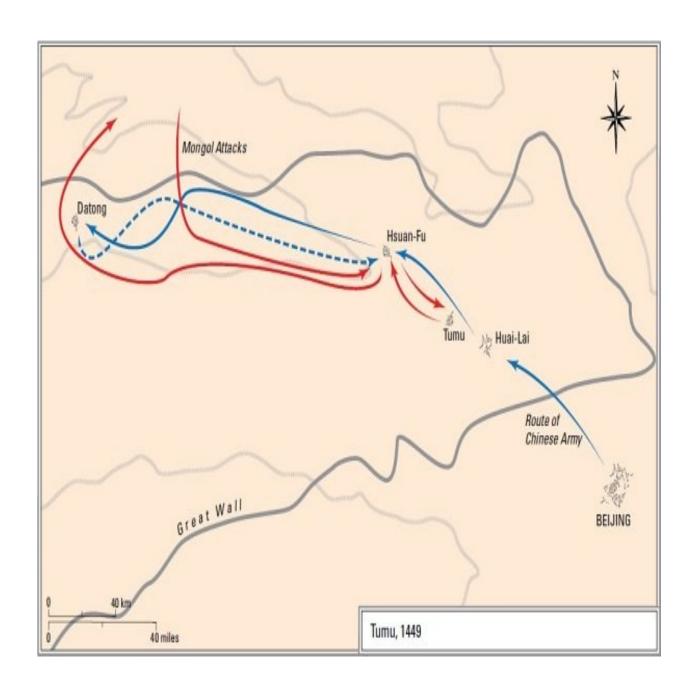
The battle of Visby in 1361 was fought on the island of Gotland between King Valdemar IV of Denmark and the local yeomanry. After overcoming the defenders, the Danish king laid siege to the town of Visby, which soon surrendered. According to legend, its inhabitants then paid money to persuade the Danes not to carry out looting. Mass graves found at Visby have yielded important archaeological finds concerning medieval warfare.

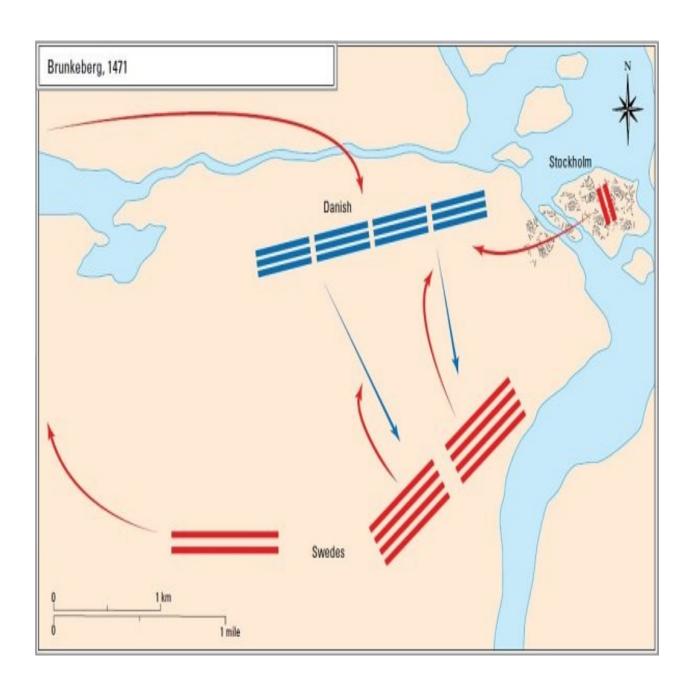
■HELSINGBORG, 1362

A Danish fleet commanded by King Valdemar IV defeated a Hanseatic squadron under Johann Wittenborg, the mayor of Lübeck, at Øresund, off Helsingborg. Twelve Hanseatic ships were lost and Wittenborg was executed on his return to Lübeck.

■Brunkeberg, 10 October 1471

A Swedish force of at least 8000 peasant levies and 1000 knights led by Sten Sture the Elder attacked and defeated a 6000-strong Danish army under King Christian I of Denmark at Brunkebergsåsen near Stockholm.





The Iberian Peninsula and the *Reconquista* 1000–1250

■GRAUS, 1063

King Ramiro I of Aragon attacked Graus, a town on the border of the Moorish Emirate of Zaragosa. Ramiro was defeated and killed by the Emir's army, which was supported by a force of 300 Castilian knights.

■CABRA, 1079

Emir Abd Allah of Granada invaded the Emirate of Seville with the tacit support of Alfonso VI of León and Castile, but was defeated at Cabra by a Granadine army under Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar (El Cid).

■UCLÉS, 29 MAY 1108

A 2300-strong Castilian and Leónese force under Alfonso VI was defeated here by an Almoravid army commanded by Tamim ibn-Yusuf. The *infante*, Sancho Alfónsez, was murdered by villagers while trying to escape from the battlefield.

■ALARCOS, 18 JULY 1195

A large Almohads army, commanded by Emir Abu Yusuf Ya'qub al-Mansur, defeated a smaller Castilian force under Alfonso VIII. The emir deployed the veteran Almohades and Andalusian cavalry in the first line, supported by a second line of African archers and javelin-armed infantry and a third line to act as a reserve. After three charges, Alfonso's 8000 cavalry broke through the centre of the emir's frontline, but the gap was closed behind them and they were surrounded by the archers and infantry of the second line. The Castilian infantry, supported by Alfonso's bodyguards and the knights of the Military Orders, attempted to follow up the initial breakthrough, but were defeated by the emir's first line, which had reformed. Alfonso's army then broke in rout with the loss of 20,000–25,000 men, including three bishops and much of the Castilian nobility.

■Las Navas de Tolosa, 16 July 1212

Las Navas de Tolosa was a turning point in the Christian *Reconquista* of Moorish Spain. The allied Christian army was led by a local shepherd along a path to take the Muslim army by surprise.

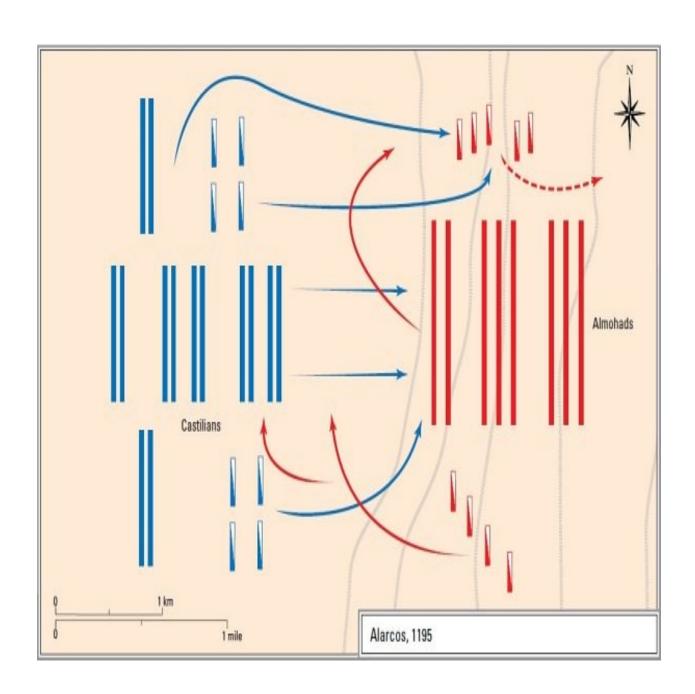
■MURET, 12 SEPTEMBER 1213

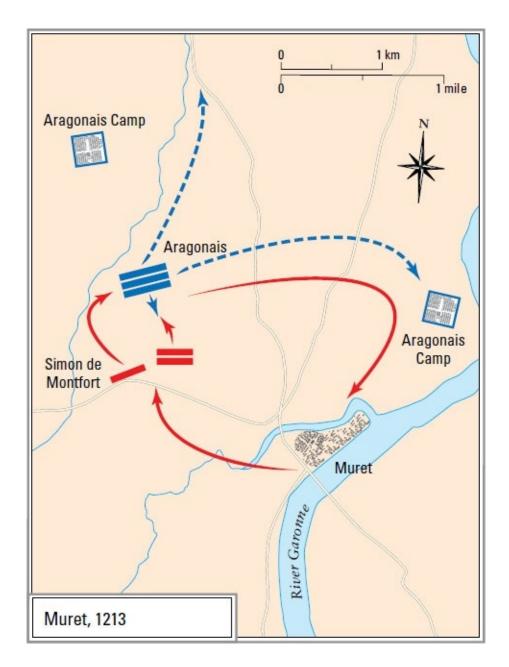
Simon IV de Montfort led the Albigensian Crusade to destroy the Cathar heresy and bring Languedoc under the crown of France. He invaded Toulouse and exiled its count, Raymond VI, who sought aid from his brother-in-law, King Peter II of Aragon. De Montfort's conquests in Languedoc threatened Aragon's

borders and Peter agreed to cross the Pyrenees and deal with Montfort's crusaders who had just taken Muret.

On 10 September, Peter's army of 3000 cavalry arrived at Muret, where it was joined by 30,000 militia infantry from Toulouse. The crusader infantry drove off the first of three allied cavalry divisions under the Comte de Foix, which attacked an open gate in the city walls. As this action was being fought, three divisions of crusader cavalry sortied via another gate. The first charged the Comte de Foix's disordered men in flank, breaking them after a short melee. It was then joined by the second division commanded by William d'Encontre and both formations charged the allies' main battle led by King Peter. At this stage, the crusaders' third division under de Montfort charged the allied left flank. King Peter was killed and the surviving allied cavalry broke, with many fugitives killed in the ruthless pursuit.

So far, the allied infantry had not been seriously engaged; they misinterpreted the confused cavalry actions as a crusader defeat and surged forward to attack the town walls. They broke as de Montfort's cavalry rallied and reformed to attack their rear. Thousands were killed in the crusader pursuit and many drowned trying to ford the Garonne river. Allied losses totalled 15,000–20,000 dead, while crusader casualties were very light, although almost certainly greater than their claims of only one knight and eight sergeants.





■JEREZ, 1231

Ferdinand III of Castile launched a plundering raid or *cavalgada* against the Emirates of Cordoba and Seville. The raiders defeated a Moorish force led by Emir Ibn Hud before returning to Castile with their loot.

Indian Wars 1000–1200

■PESHAWAR, 1009

Mahmud of Ghazni led his Turkic-Afghan warriors out of present-day western Afghanistan to victory against a confederation of Hindu princes at Peshawar, in present-day Pakistan. Victory enabled further raids by Mahmud.

■GUJRAT, 1025

Mahmud of Ghazni led his Muslim Turkic-Afghan warriors into Gujrat Province (in present-day Pakistan) defeating local defenders and seizing the Hindu temple of Somnath. The temple was looted of its riches and destroyed.

■KOPPAN, 1052

Rajadhiraja, the ruler of the Chola Empire in present-day southern India and Sri Lanka, was killed fighting the rebellious Chalukya kingdom. His younger brother, Rajendra, defeated the Chalukyas and maintained the Chola Empire.

■GUJRAT, 1178

Muhammad of Ghur led a Muslim Turkic-Afghan army into the province of Gujrat, in present-day Pakistan. His army was weak after crossing a desert and local forces under Raja Bhimdev II repulsed the invaders.

■TARAIN, 1191

Muhammad of Ghur led his Muslim Turkic-Afghan army into north-central India. A confederation of Hindu princes formed a large army and stopped the invasion at Tarain, north of Delhi. The Hindus used superior numbers to defeat the left and right wings of Muhammad's army. Muhammad himself was badly wounded in personal combat with Govindraj, the brother of the Hindu commander, Prithviraj. Muhammad withdrew northwards beyond the Indus river.

South-east Asia 1000–1200

■VIJAYA, **1044**

A Dai Viêt (North Vietnamese) army commanded by Emperor Lý Thái Táng invaded Champa (South Vietnam), defeated the Cham king Sa Dau and sacked his capital of Vijaya. An estimated 30,000 Cham were killed.

■KHMER INVASION OF CHAMPA, c. 1130

Operations by the Khmer kingdom of Cambodia against Champa began around 1130 and culminated in an attack on Champa in 1145, when King Suryavarman II, the founder of Angkor Wat, captured Vijaya and went on to pillage and destroy the temples at My So'n. The Khmer king continued his campaign in an attempt to control the whole of Champa, but was defeated by a future ruler of Champa in 1149.

■KHMER INVASION OF ANNAM, c. 1150

Having subdued Champa during his initial campaigns, the Khmer king Suryavarman II sought to control the whole of Vietnam by conquering Annam in the north. However, instead of marching against Annam with allies from Champa, he discovered that a Champa—Annam alliance had been created against him. In a series of actions, the alliance managed to drive the Khmers out, to be followed by an invasion of Cambodia on their own behalf.

Byzantine Wars 1000–1453

■KLEIDION, 29 JULY 1014

Confronted by the high palisade erected by the Bulgarians under their ruler Samuel, the Byzantines, led by Emperor Basil II, initially tried to storm the obstacle. They suffered high losses in the attempt and the emperor was ready to call off the campaign. The Byzantine general Nikephoros Xiphias volunteered to lead a small force over the mountains in an attempt to find a way behind the enemy position. Basil's troops maintained their position and launched small-scale assaults to keep the defenders busy. Xiphias followed a difficult track to the west of the pass, which led across Mount Belasica and fell on the rear lines of the Bulgarians. The Bulgarian army was crushed. According to later traditions, Basil II captured and blinded 15,000 prisoners and ordered every hundred to be led back to Samuel by a one-eyed man.

■CANNAE, 1018

A Byzantine force under the governor of Italy, Basil Boioannes, defeated an army of rebels led by Melo from Bari. The Varangians sent by the emperor Basil II played a decisive role to the Byzantine victory.

■SHIRIMNI, 11 SEPTEMBER 1021

The Byzantine army under Emperor Basil II defeated the forces of King George I of Georgia. The Georgians were reinforced by Armenian auxiliaries. The Georgians began the battle and put to flight a part of the Byzantine army. However, the Byzantines, led by Basil, counter-attacked and won the battle. The most effective part of the Byzantine army was the Varangians, who led a ferocious attack on the enemy.



■SVINDAX, **1022**

The Byzantine army under Emperor Basil II defeated the forces of King George I of Georgia. As a result, the Georgian king abandoned his claims to Tao and surrendered many possessions to Basil II.

■SYRIA, 1030

A campaigning force of 20,000 men under the emperor Romanos III was crushed by an Arab force near Aazaz. The Byzantine army broke and fled because many soldiers were exhausted by thirst and dysentery.

■ADRIATIC, 1032

After capturing Cassano, the Sicilian Arabs carried out a naval raid across the Adriatic to Corfu, where they burnt the city. However, they were defeated at the hands of the Byzantine and Ragusan fleets.

■Invasion of Sicily, 1038

George Maniakes led a Byzantine invasion of eastern Sicily. His aim was to exploit the civil conflicts among the local Arabs and bring the entire island under Byzantine control. Maniakes' army included Varangian and Norman mercenaries.

■MESSINA, **1038**

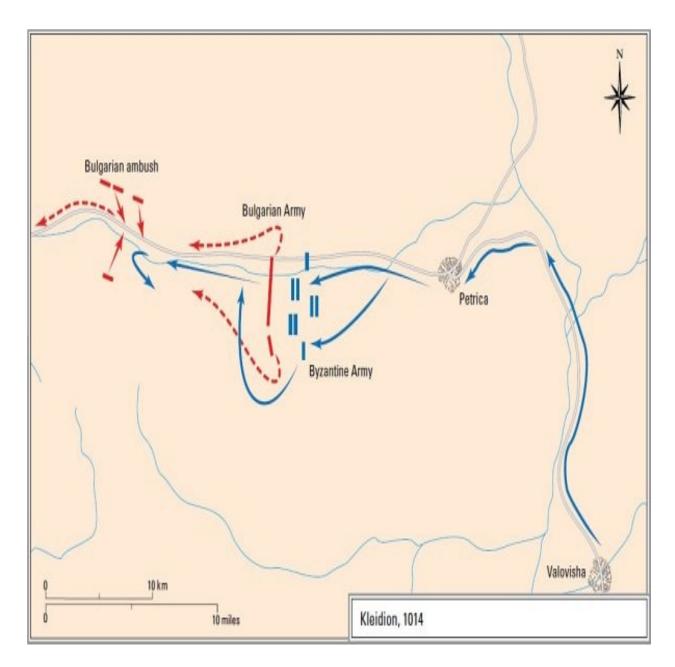
A Byzantine army of up to 15,000 under George Maniakes stormed Messina and defeated the Sicilian Arabs. The Byzantine force relied on Varangian soldiers under Harald Hardrada and on Norman and Lombard mercenaries under Arduin.

■RAMETTA, 1038

The Arabs of Sicily and a force of 5000 Arabs from Africa attacked the Byzantines under George Maniakes. A fierce battle was fought and eventually Maniakes put the Arabs to flight.

■DRAGINA, 1040

The Byzantines under George Maniakes defeated an army of Arabs under Umer. The charge of the Byzantine and Norman heavy cavalry demolished the Arab battle line at the first attack. Umer barely escaped with his life.



■Bulgarian Revolt, 1040–41

Emperor Romanos III's decision to force the Bulgarians to pay their taxes in coin and not in kind triggered a revolt. A certain Peter Deljan raised an army and marched southwards. The army that was sent to fight Deljan and their leader, Tihomir, joined the rebels. However, Deljan had Tihomir killed. The rebels defeated the Imperial army close to Thessalonica. However, another Bulgarian leader, Alusjan, seized control over the revolt and replaced Deljan as its head. Leading 20,000 men, Alusjan marched to besiege Thessalonica. After six days, the besieged carried out a sortie and caught the rebels by surprise. Around

15,000 Bulgarians were captured. In the aftermath of this defeat, Alusjan had Deljan blinded and withdrew to the interior. The Imperial army invaded Bulgaria and Emperor Michael IV defeated the Bulgarians in Prilep. The revolt was crushed.

■MONOPOLI, **1042**

A Byzantine force of 3500 men under George Maniakes defeated the forces of the rebel Argyros from Apulia and the Normans. The rebels numbered around 7000. Maniakes made a terrible example and had many civilians executed.

■Sasireti, **1042**

Feudal lords under Liparit IV, Duke of Kledkari, revolted against the king of Georgia Bagrat IV. The rebels attempted to place the king's half-brother Demetrius on the throne and requested Byzantine military aid. The forces of the rebels under Liparit and their Byzantine allies defeated the royal army. The royal army commanded by Bagrat was reinforced by 700 Scandinavians, who were campaigning under the Viking Ingvar.

■KORSUN, **1044**

After leading an unsuccessful naval campaign against the Byzantines, the Russian prince, Vladimir of Novgorod advanced on Korsun and captured it from the Byzantines. He retained it until he signed a treaty with the Byzantines.

■KARS, 1048

A force of Seljuq Turks under Ibrahim, the brother of Togrul, launched the first large-scale Seljuq raid on Byzantine Armenia. The Byzantines and the Armenians were defeated and a large number of Armenians were enslaved.

■KAPITRON, 1048

Following their defeat in Erzerum, the Byzantines, under the command of Katakalon Kekaumenos and Liparit regrouped and fought against the advancing Seljuqs. The Byzantines won the battle, but Liparit was captured by the enemy.

■PECHENEG RAIDS, 1048–54

The Pechenegs raided the Balkans, crushing a Byzantine army under Constantine. A second battle near Adrianople had the same outcome, despite the bravery of the Byzantine commanders Dokeianos and Arianites. The Byzantines reorganized their defence. They stopped seeking pitched battles and the field army was dispersed through fortified camps. From these, the Byzantines launched surprise attacks on the Pechenegs, seizing booty and prisoners. These tactics proved successful and pushed the enemy back to Bidin. However, a large-scale Byzantine attack failed because of the lack of co-ordination between the

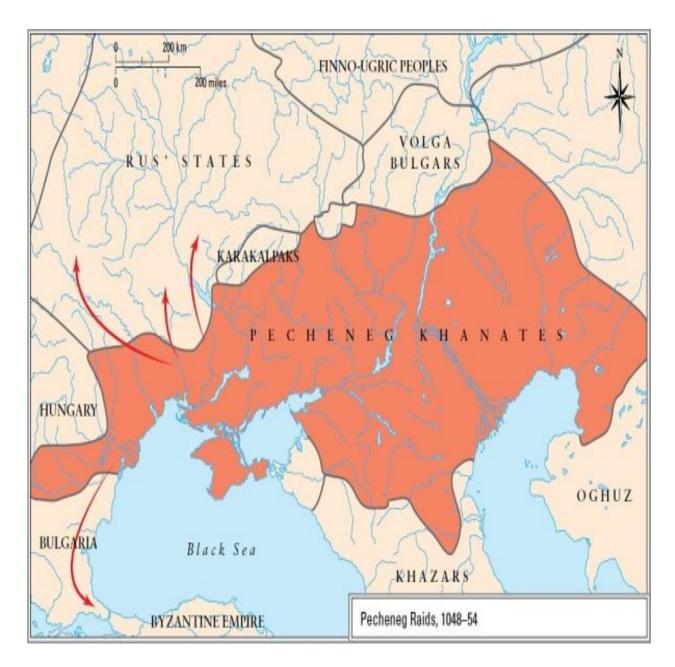
Byzantine generals. A large Byzantine force suffered heavy casualties. The emperor Constantine IX Monomachos was forced to recognize the settlement of the Pechenegs between the Haemus and lower Danube. In 1054, the emperor signed a 30-year peace treaty and, through titles and gifts, appeared the Pechenegs.

■STRAGNA, 1049

The Byzantine troops under Aaron Vladishtlav abandoned their camp and established themselves in hiding places. The Seljuqs under Hasan started plundering the camp. The Byzantines emerged from their hiding places and routed the Seljuqs.

■MANZIKERT, 1049

The Seljuqs under Togrul besieged the city for 30 days. They tried to mine the walls. The Byzantines, under Basil Apokapes, destroyed the siege engines of the Seljuqs and forced them to lift the siege.



■ANATOLIA, 1064

A Seljuq army under Sultan Alp Arslan besieged Ani, which fell after 25 days. The city was pillaged and much of its population was slaughtered. Around 50,000 people were captured.

■Sebastia, 1068

When Emperor Romanos IV was stationed in Lykandos, he was informed that the Seljuqs had sacked Neokaisareia. Leading a mobile cavalry force, the emperor forced the Turks to abandon the booty and prisoners they had captured.

■HERAKLEIA, 1068

While Romanos IV was in Herakleia, the Seljuqs defeated the Byzantines under Philaretos Bacharamios, destroyed Ikonium and retreated. Romanos ordered the army of Chatatourios to attack the retreating Turks. He failed to carry out the attack.

■OTRANTO, 1068

The Normans captured the city from the Byzantines. The besiegers bribed a niece of the city's governor whose house was attached to the wall. They entered the city with ropes through her house.

■Sebastia, **1070**

The Byzantines under Manuel Komnenos were defeated by a Seljuq force under Arisghi. By feigning retreat, the Seljuqs enticed the Byzantines into an undisciplined charge. Many Byzantines were killed and their general was captured.

■BARI, **1071**

Leading a large army, the Norman leader Robert Guiscard laid siege to the city in 1068. The Byzantines pushed back the numerous Norman assaults. Guiscard blockaded the city's port by building a fortified bridge, which prevented Byzantine reinforcements from entering Bari. Although the defenders destroyed the bridge, the Byzantine navy failed to provide effective support to the besieged. The city was starved into submission and surrendered after negotiations in 1071.

■Manzikert, 26 August 1071

A Byzantine force of 40,000 under Emperor Romanos IV marched against the Seljuqs in Anatolia. On the march, Romanos was forced to dismiss his German mercenaries. He also sent a large part of the army, including Varangians and Frankish mercenaries, to Chliat. These forces played no further role in the campaign. Romanos reached Manzikert on 24 August and sent Nikephoros Bryennios to chase off Seljuq raiders. Bryennios' army was ambushed and withdrew. Similarly, by feigning retreat, the Seljuqs ambushed and annihilated a cavalry force under Nikephoros Basilakes. Realizing that the Turks were present in greater strength than he had previously assumed, Romanos ordered the left wing of the army under Bryennios to attack. However, the Seljuqs forced Bryennios to withdraw. On 26 August, the Imperial army launched a full-scale attack. The Byzantines advanced, with the rearguard protecting the main line and flanks. The Seljuqs harried the Byzantine line with arrows while constantly moving back. The Seljuq wings attacked the Byzantine wings at close range

before withdrawing again. Consequently, the Byzantine wings marched at slower pace than the centre. By mid-afternoon, the Byzantines had reached the empty Seljuq camp. However, they failed to come to grips with the enemy and the emperor's forces were no longer in close contact with the wings. It was dusk and the emperor gave the order to withdraw. However, the signal was misunderstood by some officers and soldiers who believed that the emperor had fallen. Andronikos Doukas, the head of the rearguard, deliberately failed to cover the withdrawal of the army. He reversed his own lines and marched towards the camp. Romanos' division was isolated and the emperor was captured by the Seljuqs.

■KALAVRYAI, 1078

A force of 6000 mercenaries under Alexios Komnenos defeated a force of 12,000 under the rebel Nikephoros Bryennios. Komnenos won the battle because he exploited the plundering of the enemy camp by Bryennios' own Pecheneg allies.

■NICAEA, 1080

Nikephoros Melissenos revolted and became the self-proclaimed emperor. He captured Nicaea, where he established a garrison of Turkish mercenaries. When he moved to Thessalonica, these mercenaries seized the city, which became the capital of a Seljuq state.

■Durrachium, 18 October 1081

The Normans under Robert Guiscard defeated the Byzantines under the emperor Alexios I Komnenos. Robert detached some cavalry to entice the Byzantines into an undisciplined charge. They were pushed back by Byzantine archers. The Norman right under Count Ani charged the left flank of the Varangians. The Byzantines under Pakourianos attacked and broke Ani's troops. Consequently, the Norman knights who were engaged in skirmishes with the Byzantine right were outflanked. The Varangians joined the pursuit of the enemy and became separated from Alexios' main line. Tired by the chase and the weight of their equipment, they were unable to resist the assault of Norman spearmen sent by Guiscard. The whole Varangian detachment perished. The main battle line of the Byzantines, which was situated behind the Varangians, was crushed by the charges of Guiscard's heavy cavalry that had been held in reserve.

■Antioch, 1084

The Seljuq leader, Suleyman, took advantage of the absence of Philaretos Bachramios, who had established his own independent principality and captured

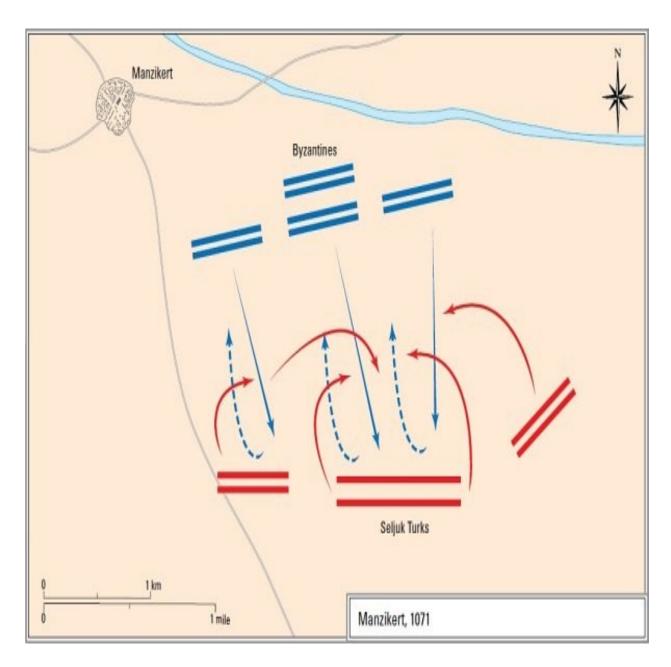
the city. With the assistance of accomplices, the Seljuqs entered the city without resistance.

■Dorostorum, 1086

The Pechenegs defeated the Byzantines under Alexios I Komenos. The Pechenegs used their wagons as a fortified camp. It was an equal fight until Pecheneg reinforcements arrived late in afternoon. This relief force routed the Byzantines.

■LEBURNION, 1091

The Byzantines under Alexios I Komnenos and their Cuman allies inflicted a severe defeat on the Pechenegs. Many prisoners were captured. The Byzantine victory was followed by the slaughter of a large number of Pechenegs.



■Northern Syria, 1099–1104

Bohemond, the Prince of Antioch, with the support of several Pisan ships, led an unsuccessful attack on Laodikeia. In 1101, Tancred captured Kilikia and Maras and blockaded Laodikeia, which capitulated in 1103. In 1104, the Byzantine generals Boutoumites and Monastras seized Kilikia and Maras, while Kantakouzenos, leading a surprise attack from the sea, recaptured Laodikeia. However, he failed to capture the fortress from the Normans. Jocelin of Courtenay recaptured Laodikeia in the name of the crusaders.

■Durrachium, 1107–08

The king of Sicily, Bohemond, besieged the city. The Byzantines, together with the Venetian fleet, blockaded the Normans from land and sea. Many Normans died and Bohemomd was forced to sign a peace treaty with Alexios I.

■PHILOMELION, 1116

The Seljuq ruler Malik-Shah led a major assault on the rearguard of the army of Alexios I while it was marching towards Nikomedia. The attack was driven off by Nikephoros Bryennios. The Byzantine cavalry pursued the Seljuqs.

■ANATOLIA, 1120–21

The emperor John II Komnenos led a campaign against the Seljuqs. After successive victories on the battlefield, the Byzantines captured the fortified city of Laodikeia. The following year, the Byzantines captured Sozopolis through trickery. Paktarios, a cavalry commander, was instructed to fire arrows at the enemy troops who occupied the gates. When the Turks sallied out in frustration, Paktarios' troops feigned retreat and the emperor's main force ambushed the Seljuqs.

■Beroe, 1122

The Byzantines under John II Komnenos fought a large-scale battle with the Pechenegs. The Pecheneg cavalry charged and fired missiles constantly to the Byzantines. The Byzantines forced the enemy back to their wagon circle, but they failed to penetrate it. This fortified enclosure withstood many attacks. Eventually, the emperor's intervention took charge of the Varangians, who broke the wagons with their axes, causing the defeat of the Pechenegs.

■Corfu I, 1147

A Norman fleet of 70 galleys under George of Antioch captured Corfu. The island surrendered thanks to bribes and the dissatisfaction of the population over the tax burden.

■Corfu II, 1149

Byzantine and Venetian galleys under Stephen Kontostephanos captured the island from the Normans. The allies attacked from towers and ladders attached to ships and occupied the city. The defenders of the citadel were starved into submission.

■SERBIAN REBELLION, 1150–51

The revolt under Uroš II was incited by the Normans of Sicily and backed by the Hungarians. Manuel I Komnenos defeated the Hungarians before they could join the Serbs. The battle took place at Tara. Manuel I and his generals performed individual acts of valour and the emperor's duel with the Hungarian commander

Bagin sealed the Byzantine victory. Afterwards, the Serbian leader swore to remain loyal to Manuel I.

■SIRMIUM, 8 JULY 1167

The Byzantines under Andronikos Kontostephanos defeated the Hungarians under Dionysios. The Byzantines won the battle because of intelligent tactical dispositions, mainly the weakening of the Hungarian line by the feigned withdrawal of the Byzantine left.

■EGYPTIAN EXPEDITION, 1169

A Byzantine army and a naval force of 200 ships under the command of Andronikos Kontostephanos joined forces with the king of Jerusalem, Amalaric, at Ascalon and laid siege to Damietta. The siege failed, according to the Byzantine sources, because Amalaric, not wanting to share the profits of victory, dragged out the operation until the Imperial army ran short of provisions and suffered from famine. Meanwhile, the besieged received reinforcements and supplies from Cairo, whereas the Byzantines began to run out of material for the construction of siege engines. Eventually, the Byzantines assaulted the walls using ladders and archers. Their attack was aborted when they were informed that Amalaric had negotiated a truce with the defenders. Being demoralized and pressed by the lack of supplies, the Byzantines lifted the siege and departed. The siege had lasted for three months.

■**A**EGEAN, 1170

The emperor Manuel I ordered the arrest of all Venetians throughout the empire and confiscated their properties. Venice forbade its subjects to trade with the Byzantines and sent a fleet to attack the Aegean islands.

■RAGUSA, 1171

The Venetian fleet of 120 ships attacked the city, which was under Byzantine control. After some fighting, the city surrendered, was forced to pay tribute to Venice and to demolish part of its walls.

■CHIOS, 1171

The Venetian fleet captured the island from the Byzantines. In April 1172, the Venetians were forced to abandon Chios. Famine and disease claimed the life of 6000 men and depleted the Venetian army.

■Myriocephalon, 17 September 1176

A Byzantine army of about 25,000 soldiers under Manuel I Komnenos was defeated by the Seljuqs under Sultan Kilij Arslan II. The Byzantines were marching towards Iconium when they were ambushed by the Seljuqs.

■Invasion of Greece, 1185

A large Norman fleet sailed from Messina and captured Durrachium. Following the Via Egnatia, the Normans under Baldwin sacked Thessalonica and captured much booty. The Normans were stopped in Mosynoupolis, where they were defeated by Alexios Branas.

■CONSTANTINOPLE UPRISING, 1185

When an agent of Andronikos I went to arrest Isaak II Angelos, the latter killed the agent and sought asylum in Hagia Sophia. Isaak appealed to the people of Constantinople and was declared emperor. Andronikos I was executed.

■STRYMON, 1185

Following their victory in Mosynoupolis, the Byzantines under Alexios Branas continued to pursue the Normans until the banks of Strymon. In Dimitriza, the Byzantines plundered the enemy camp and captured generals Richard and Baldwin.

■Constantinople, 1186

General Alexios Branas revolted against the emperor Isaak II Angelos. He was defeated and killed by Conrad of Montferrat, who was the emperor's brother-in-law, in a battle at the walls of Constantinople.

■BERRHOE, 1189

The Vlachs and the Cumans, who led unremitting attacks on Byzantine territories from fortified strongholds, ambushed and scattered the Byzantine army in a narrow defile. The emperor Isaak II Angelos barely escaped with his life.

■ANTALYA, 1207

The Seljuqs, under Sultan Kay-Khusraw I, exploited the fragmentation of the Byzantine Empire by the armies of the Fourth Crusade and captured this port from the Italian adventurer Aldobrandini. The siege lasted for two months.

■Adrianople, 1254

A small army under Emperor Theodore II Laskaris defeated a Bulgarian force under Michael I Asan. Laskaris led a surprise attack on the enemy camp. Most of the Bulgarian soldiers managed to flee unscathed.

■PELAGONIA, 1259

The Nicaeans under John Palaiologos defeated the forces of Michael Angelos of Epiros, Guillaume II of Villehardouin and 400 German knights. The Cuman and Turkish cavalry archers ambushed the Franks and many knights were taken

prisoner.

■Constantinople, 1261

An army of 800 men under Alexios Strategopoulos captured Constantinople. Strategopoulos took advantage of the absence of the Latin fleet and, with the help of the city's inhabitants, his army entered Constantinople using ladders.

■Bursa, 1317–26

The Ottomans blockaded the city, destroyed its countryside and built forts to prevent it from receiving reinforcements. Being pressed by starvation, the local authorities surrendered the city to Orhan, who made it his capital.

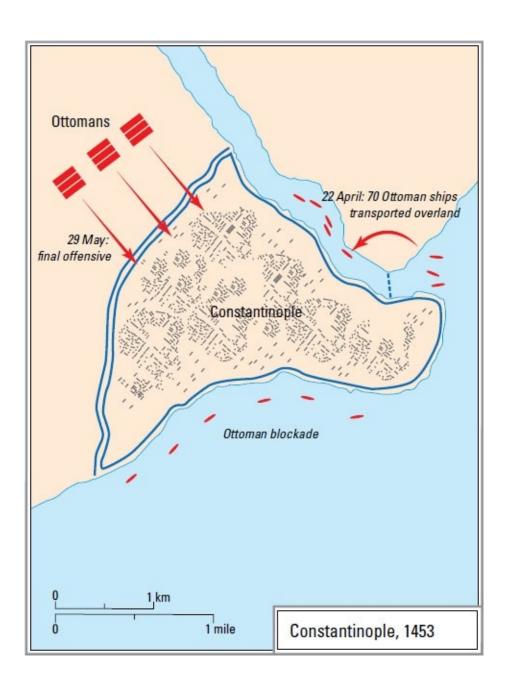
■Constantinople, 1422

The Ottomans had taken almost all of the Byzantine Empire and penetrated deep into the Balkans, but Constantinople remained Byzantine. Sultan Murad II besieged the city for several months, but could not breach the walls and finally withdrew.

■Constantinople, 6 April–29 May 1453

On 2 April, the advanced units of the Ottoman army pitched camp in the landward side of the city. The emperor Constantine XI Palaiologos ordered the great chain of iron and wood on wooden floats be placed across the Golden Horn to prevent the Ottoman fleet from entering it. On 5 April, Sultan Mehmed II arrived and set up camp along the land walls close to the Gate of Romanos. The size of the Ottoman army is unknown, with eyewitnesses providing estimates ranging from 60,000 to 300,000. The defenders were around 5000 and many of them were western European reinforcements. The Ottomans had large cannons, bombards and arquebuses. The largest of their cannons was some 8.8m long and hurled stones weighing 544kg. Because of the heat and pressure generated, it could be fired only seven times a day. It was designed by the Hungarian engineer Urban. Lacking men, the defenders decided to man only the outer section of the city's land walls. They had crossbows, small arms, small canons and arquebuses. However, their canons proved ineffective and damaged the walls, because the fortifications of Constantinople were unable to support them. The core of the Ottoman fleet was 16 to 18 galleys, 60 to 80 galliots and around 20 vessels for carrying horses. The defenders had between 10 and 39 ships. On 20 April, the defenders received minor reinforcements and supplies commissioned by the Pope and the king of Aragon. This indicates that the Ottomans were unable to control the sea fully. To deal with this, on 22 April, the Ottomans wheeled their ships overland from the Bosporus to the Golden Horn. They bypassed the iron

chain and were able to harass the defender's ships in the harbour. The defenders' plan to attack the Ottoman fleet was delayed due to dissension among the Venetian and Genoese. When the attack was launched on 29 April, it failed. Meanwhile, the defenders were able to deal with the Ottoman bombardment and to rebuild damaged sections of the walls with wood, stones, earth and hides. On 18 May, the Ottomans filled in part of the moat and attempted to wheel a wooden turret up to the walls. The defenders burnt it down. Consequently, from 16 May to 25 May, the Ottomans carried out extensive mining operations. All of them were successfully foiled by the defenders who were led by John Grand. On 28 May, when the land walls were sufficiently weakened, Mehmed II ordered a general assault. This assault was concentrated around the gates of Romanos and Charision, where Giustiniani, the leader of the Genoese reinforcements, and the emperor were positioned. After an artillery barrage, the Ottomans led a disorganized assault that was repelled. However, it managed to weary the defenders. A second attack was carried out by the Anatolian Turks, but this was repelled. Then the Janissaries attacked the defenders and, after an hour of fierce fighting, they succeeded in advancing to the inner walls. About 50 Ottomans entered the city through a small gate called Kerkoporta. They climbed the tower above the gate. At the same time, Giustiniani was wounded and withdrew. The defenders panicked and the Janissaries poured into the city through this position. Constantine XI, who was at Charision Gate, perished, although his body was never found. It is calculated that about 4000 people were killed and at least 50,000 were taken prisoner.



The Crusades 1096–1291

First Crusade 1096–99

■NICAEA, 14 MAY-19 JUNE 1097

United crusader and Byzantine forces (perhaps 60,000) besieged Seljuq-held Nicaea, suffering heavy losses in an attempted escalade. After crusaders repelled a relief force under Kilij Arslan, the Turkish garrison surrendered to the Byzantines.

■DORYLAEUM, 1 JULY 1097

The First Crusade army became divided while marching in Anatolia. Turkish sultan Kilij Arslan attacked the vanguard of 20,000 with 6000–7000 cavalry. Bohemond rallied the crusaders and the noncombatants and infantry made a strong camp while he, with about 3000 knights, shielded them, then fell back on the camp. Fighting continued until the main crusader force of *c*. 30,000 arrived and attacked the Turkish flank.

■Tarsus, 1097

Tancred and Baldwin of Boulogne cleared the south flank of the First Crusade's advance, taking Tarsus and liberating the Armenian Christians from Turkish rule. Baldwin garrisoned Tarsus after fighting Tancred for possession.

■Antioch, 1097–98

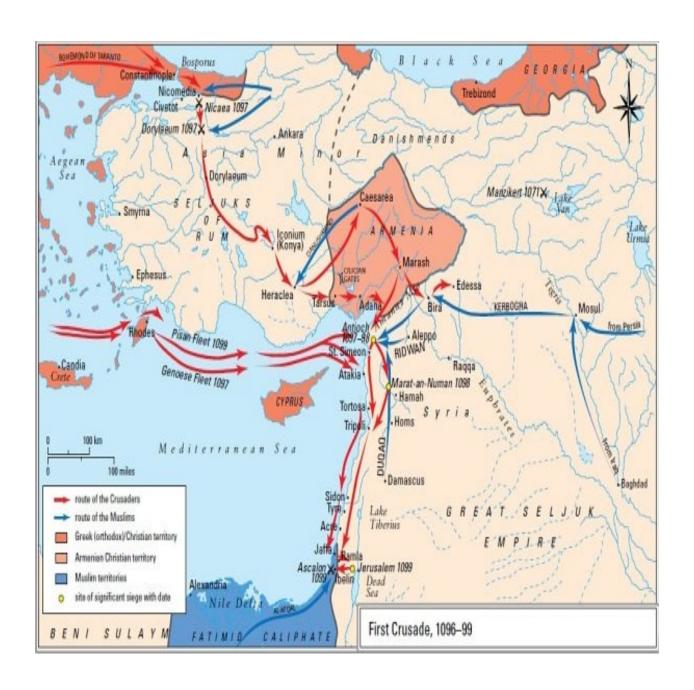
The First Crusade army besieged the very strong city of Antioch, erecting camps outside the major gates. They defeated a relief effort from Damascus in December, but a sally from Antioch killed many and made morale plummet. Crusaders crushed another relief force from Aleppo in February. A traitor let crusaders into the city on the night of 2–3 June, as a third relief force under Kerbogah of Mosul approached.

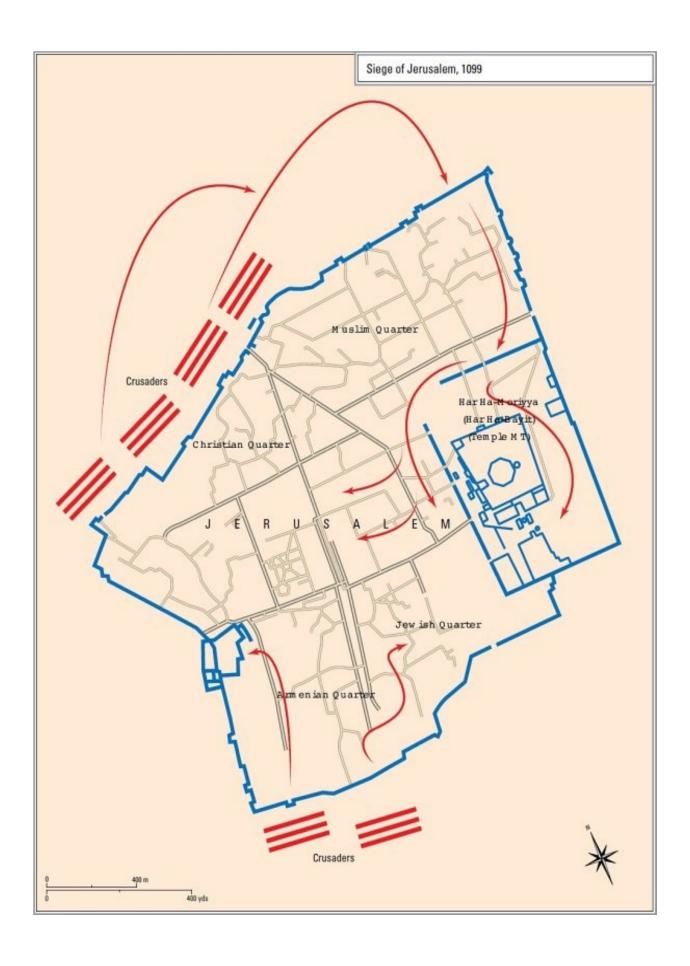
The crusader army, now numbering under 30,000, was vastly outnumbered and suffering from starvation and lack of horses. Heartened by discovery of the Holy Lance, they broke out of the city and attacked Kerbogah on 28 June. Exiting the city in five divisions, the crusaders counted on speed. The overconfident Kerbogah threw forces into the fight piecemeal, where they were defeated in turn. The main Mosul force fled without engaging.

■Siege of Jerusalem, 1099

The First Crusade army, numbering around 12,000–14,000 combatants, reached

Fatimid-held Jerusalem on 7 June. Jerusalem was strongly fortified and garrisoned and the crusaders had to bring water in from a distance since the Fatimid governor had poisoned the local wells. The crusaders decided on an immediate assault (13 June), despite having only one siege ladder, but were driven off with heavy losses. The crusaders then established a siege, with the troops of Godfrey of Bouillon, Robert of Flanders and Robert of Normandy to the north and Raymond of Toulouse on the west. Two Genoese ships then arrived, which were dismantled, their timber used to build a ram and catapults. The crusaders also constructed two great siege towers, one in Raymond's camp and the other under Godfrey's command. Under heavy missile attack from the walls, the crusaders filled in the ditch surrounding the city so the siege towers could approach. The assault began on 13 July, impelled by news that a Fatimid relief army was approaching. Raymond's men were unable to manoeuvre his siege tower to the wall, but on the north side of the city, a ram brought down part of the outer wall early on 14 July. The crusaders then burned the ram, clearing the way to the inner wall. The siege tower was dragged up to the wall in the course of the day. Normally, siege towers were used to fire at the defenders, but, on 15 July, two Flemish knights used spare timber to bridge the gap and established themselves on the wall, opening the gate to their comrades. The crusaders flooded into the city, massacring most of the populace.





■Ashkelon, 1099

A Fatimid army of 15,000–20,000 under Vizier al-Afdal gathered at Ashkelon and the First Crusade army of about 9000 marched against them from the recently conquered Jerusalem. On 12 August, the crusaders caught the Fatimids by surprise in their camp north of the city, the crusaders attacking in three divisions. The Fatimid Ethiopian infantry charged valiantly, but the bulk of their army never deployed properly and was overwhelmed.

■Mersivan, 1101

The Danishmend Turkish army surrounded a Lombard and French crusader force in Anatolia. After days of fighting and several efforts to break out, the Christians panicked. Most of the crusaders were massacred or captured.

■Eregli I, 1101

The crusader army of William of Aquitaine and Welf of Bavaria suffered a surprise attack by Kilij Arslan's Seljuqs in early September and was routed. Many leaders escaped, but most crusaders died.

■Eregli II, 1101

A 15,000-man crusader army under Count William II of Nevers was ambushed near Eregli, Anatolia, by Kilij Arslan and almost entirely destroyed. Only William and a few knights made it to Antioch.

■RAMLEH, 1102

A Fatimid army several thousand strong invaded the Kingdom of Jerusalem from Ascalon. Baldwin I underestimated their numbers and attacked with a disorganized cavalry force of only 500 knights, without waiting for his infantry to catch up with his vanguard. Most of Baldwin's army was lost, including Count Stephen of Blois. Baldwin escaped with only a few men, who barricaded themselves in a tower and escaped at night.

■HARRAN, 1104

Seljuq emirs Soqman ibn Ortuq and Jikirmish attacked a combined Christian force led by Bohemund of Antioch and Baldwin of Edessa, which had been besieging Harran. Details of the battle are unknown, except that the Christians were heavily defeated and Count Baldwin was captured, ending Frankish expansion toward the Euphrates. Consequences of the battle were slight, as the Turkish leaders fought each other over division of the spoils.

■**A**RTAH, 1105

Tancred, regent of Antioch, was besieging Artah when a Muslim relief force

under Ridwan of Aleppo attacked. Tancred defeated the Muslim force, perhaps employing a feigned retreat, then completed his siege of the city.

■SARMIN, 1115

Bursuq bin Bursuq's Seljuq army invaded Antiochene territory in 1115. Prince Roger of Antioch, aided by Baldwin of Edessa, gathered an army of Franks and Muslim allies several thousand strong that caught the Turks by surprise on 14 September. The crusader left wing rapidly broke the Turks facing them. The Turcopoles on the Frankish right were thrown back, but the Christians soon rallied, winning an easy victory.

Crusader-Turkish Wars 1119–49

■AGER SANGUINIS, 28 JUNE 1119

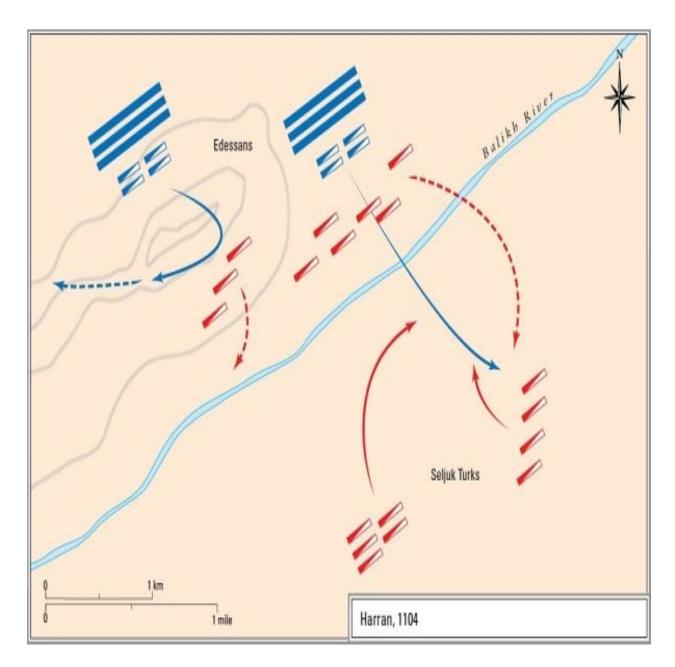
The 'Field of Blood' was a catastrophic defeat of the Franks of Antioch. When Il-Ghazi of Mardin invaded the Principality of Antioch, Roger of Antioch mobilized immediately instead of awaiting reinforcements from the south. His force of 700 knights and about 3000 infantry marched against the enemy only to be caught by surprise in a steep-sided valley; Il-Ghazi's force, travelling on little-used paths, appeared suddenly on all sides. The fight began with archery on both sides and heavy casualties. When the forces engaged, the Frankish right enjoyed considerable success. However, the Turcopoles on the Frankish left were driven back, which threw the men behind them into confusion, leaving the Frankish force unable to recover as a strong wind blew sand in their faces. Roger and most of his army died in the encounter.

■Azaz, 11 June 1125

The Seljuq Il-Bursuqi of Mosul invaded Edessa and besieged Azaz. King Baldwin II of Jerusalem, Joscelin I of Edessa and Pons of Tripoli assembled a relieving army about 3000 strong. They attacked Il-Bursuqi on 13 June, Baldwin feigning a retreat and thus drawing the larger Turkish army into a close engagement in which Frankish superior armour had a decisive advantage. The Turks were defeated in a bloody battle.

■MARJ ES-SUFFAR, 1126

In King Baldwin II of Jerusalem's second major battle against the Turks, the Franks, although badly hurt by Turkish archery, rallied with a strong attack late in the day, winning the victory.



■EDESSA, 28 NOVEMBER-24 DECEMBER 1144

Edessa, weakest of the crusader states, was the first to fall to a resurgent Islam. Count Joscelin II of Edessa had made an alliance with his Turkish neighbour, Kara Arslan, against Imad ad-Din Zengi, ruler of Mosul and Aleppo. Joscelin left with most of his army to support Kara Arslan, leaving Edessa almost undefended. Zengi seized the opportunity, rushing his army to attack the city in its lord's absence. He arrived on 28 November and laid the city under siege. The few trained soldiers and civilians, under the command of Archbishop Hugh II and the Armenian and Jacobite bishops of the city, attempted a defense, but did

not have sufficient force to man the entire circuit of walls or the knowledge to combat Zengi's efforts to undermine them. The Edessans held out for nearly a month, as Count Joscelin frantically tried to muster a force from the other crusader states to raise the siege. But Zengi's siege engines and mines worked too quickly. The Muslim army took Edessa on 24 December, sacking and slaughtering the panicked defenders, many of whom were trampled to death while trying to reach the citadel. The citadel fell on 26 December. Zengi had all the Frankish survivors killed, but spared the native Christians. He was able to go on to take Saruj, but returned to Mosul as a Jerusalemite army approached. The fall of Edessa led to the calling of the Second Crusade.

■Lisbon, 1147

Northern crusade armies numbering about 10,000 with a fleet of 150–200 ships stopped in Portugal, where Afonso Henriques convinced them to help attack Muslim-held Lisbon. They invested the city in late June, finding vast food stores in the suburbs. A massive attack in early August failed, but a mine brought down part of the wall in mid-October. The governor surrendered, but the city was still sacked.

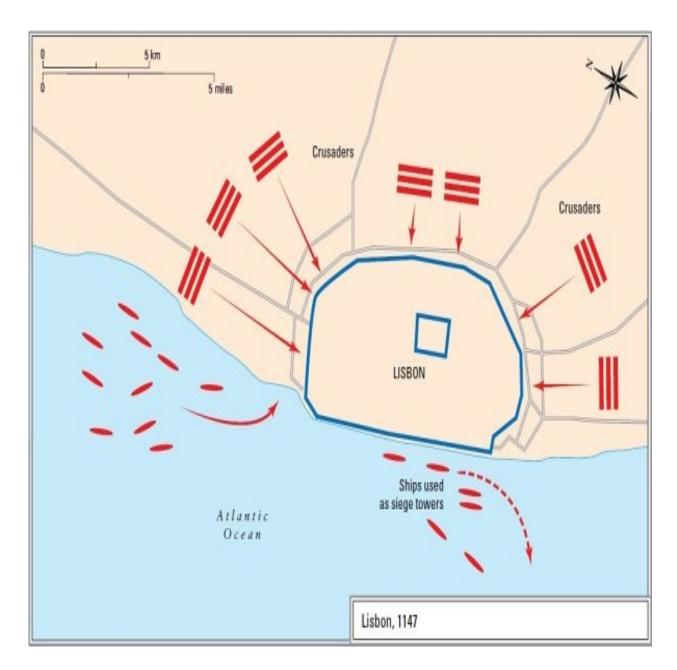
Second Crusade 1145-49

■DORYLAEUM II, 1147

Emperor Conrad III's large crusading army fell into a Turkish trap. Their cavalry was drawn away, leaving the crusader infantry unprotected. The German retreat became a rout after their rearguard was destroyed.

■DAMASCUS, 23–28 JULY 1148

The forces of the Second Crusade led by Louis VII of France and Conrad III of Germany decided with Baldwin III of Jerusalem to attack Damascus. Their army, perhaps 50,000 strong, approached Damascus from the west, driving back outlying Muslim forces. Word came that Nur ad-Din's army was marching to relieve the city, so the crusaders knew they had to take the city quickly. The crusaders shifted operations to the east, believing the wall to be weaker, but found themselves trapped with no water, little food and no easy way into the city. They could not return to the western wall because the area had been reoccupied by Muslim forces. After a siege of only four days, the Crusader army had to withdraw, effectively ending the Second Crusade. They suffered heavy casualties on their march back to Christian territory



■INAB, 29 JUNE 1149

Nur ad-Din of Aleppo besieged Inab with about 6000 men; Raymond of Antioch came with a relieving force of 1400. The Muslims withdrew, but attacked Raymond's camp, killing most of the Antiochenes, including Raymond.

Crusader-Turkish Wars 1153-87

■ASCALON, 1153

Ascalon was the last port to fall to the Kingdom of Jerusalem. In a seven-month siege by Baldwin III, the large Fatimid garrison waged a strong defense behind

Ascalon's strong walls, conducting a series of skirmishes and resupplied by sea in May. In August, the defenders' destruction of a siege tower backfired when the tower collapsed and brought down part of the wall, allowing the successful Christian assault.

■HARIM, 12 AUGUST 1164

A large Christian force came to raise Nur ad-Din's siege of Harim. The Muslims retreated and the Christians pursued, losing all cohesion. The Muslims turned and defeated the Christians piecemeal, then took Harim.

■AL-Babein, 18 March 1167

Amalric of Jerusalem invaded Egypt, pursuing Shirkuh's Egyptian force up the Nile with his cavalry. The Muslims turned at the edge of the desert, where sand limited the Frankish cavalry's effectiveness. Amalric, with his 374 Frankish knights, attacked the centre, which retreated to draw Amalric away. The main battle broke down into small fights. When Amalric returned, he rallied some of his Turcopole troops. There was no clear victor.

■Montgisard, 25 November 1177

This was Saladin's worst defeat. The Ayyubid sultan launched a raid from Egypt against Jerusalem. He bypassed Templar-held Gaza and Ascalon, held by King Baldwin IV with 500 men. Baldwin managed to get word to the Templars at Gaza, who helped his men break out of Ascalon. The combined force caught Saladin's larger army by surprise. Those who stood were annihilated; those who fled were harried back to Egypt.

■JACOB'S FORD, 1179

Baldwin IV of Jerusalem began constructing a strong castle, Chastellet, to defend the vulnerable Jacob's Ford on the Jordan river. Saladin tried to bribe Baldwin to cease construction, then attacked. A large Muslim force reached the incomplete Chastellet on 23 August. They immediately undermined a wall and, after several attempts, broke in on 30 August, killing 700 soldiers and builders, taking 800 captives and destroying the fortress.

■KERAK, 1183

Saladin invested Kerak castle with a vastly superior force of about 20,000. Baldwin IV led a relieving army of perhaps 8000. Saladin feared being caught between the castle and Christian field army and withdrew.

■Cresson, 1 May 1187

Saladin's son al-Afdal raided Galilee with about 7000 men. A Templar and Hospitaller force of 130 knights and 300 mounted sergeants attacked them. In

fierce fighting, the Christians were destroyed, only four knights managing to escape.

■Tiberias, 2 July 1187

Saladin invaded the Kingdom of Jerusalem with a force of about 30,000. To lure the Christian army out, Saladin sent a detachment against Tiberias on 2 July; the town fell on the same day, although Eschiva of Galilee withdrew with her garrison to the citadel. The decision to rescue Eschiva, the wife of Raymond of Toulouse, led to the crusader defeat at Hattin. Eschiva was forced to surrender the day after the battle.

■HATTIN, 4 JULY 1187

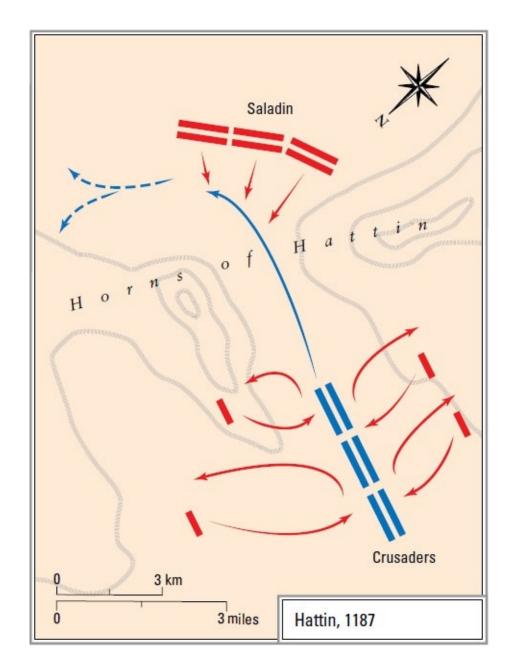
Saladin invaded the Kingdom of Jerusalem with a force probably numbering 30,000, the culmination of years of mounting pressure on the crusader settlements. The controversial King Guy rallied all available forces to counter the threat, raising perhaps 20,000 men (including 1200 knights); the largest army ever assembled by the kingdom. To bring together this force, Guy assembled most of the manpower of the military religious orders, as well as stripping garrisons from fortresses throughout the kingdom.

To lure the Christians into battle, Saladin sent a detachment to take the fortress of Tiberias; the main city fell on 2 July, although Raymond of Tripoli's wife Eschiva was able to withdraw to the citadel with the garrison. When word reached the Christian army, Guy decided after long and acrimonious debate to march to the relief of Tiberias' garrison.

The Christian army's march on 3 July proved to be very slow, with the men suffering constant Muslim attacks on their right flank and to their rear. Instead of reaching Tiberias, they camped for the night at Markana, on a waterless plateau, the men and their horses already suffering grievously from thirst in the summer heat. By the morning of 4 July, Saladin's army had completely surrounded the demoralized and disunified Christian force. Guy desperately needed to push forward to the Sea of Galilee for water.

Action opened when Raymond of Tripoli launched a charge to break through the Muslim line, which just opened ranks and let him through. Instead of turning back to attack the Muslim rear, Raymond continued toward Tiberias, adding to suspicions that he was a traitor. The rest of the Christian army suffered a barrage of arrows and smoke from the grass fires the Muslims had set that aggravated their thirst even more. Some of the rearguard broke free, but the main Frankish cavalry was left unsupported by the infantry, which retreated against orders to

the Horns of Hattin, an extinct volcano whose lip was littered with Bronze- and Iron-Age walls that gave them some protection. This 'mutiny' rendered it impossible for the Christians to break out, since the cavalry could not advance without infantry support. Through the day, the Frankish predicament grew ever more desperate, fatigue and thirst taking their toll as they fought off constant Muslim harassment. Late in the day, Guy led two desperate charges, both aimed directly at Saladin in the hope of killing the Muslim sultan and disheartening his troops, but the Christians were thrown back both times. Later in the fight, the Christian relic of the True Cross was captured and its bearer, the bishop of Acre, was killed, further disheartening the surviving crusaders. When the Muslims broke through the Frankish defences, they found Guy and his knights slumped on the ground, so weakened by exhaustion and thirst that they could fight no longer. The battle of Hattin destroyed the fighting force of the Kingdom of Jerusalem. Most of the leaders received courteous treatment and were soon ransomed, although Saladin personally executed his enemy, Reynald of Châtillon. The 200 Templar and Hospitaller prisoners were butchered, while the surviving foot soldiers were enslaved. The destruction of the Christian army made it possible for Saladin to take control of most of the Kingdom of Jerusalem over the next few months, including Jerusalem itself. The desperate plight of the crusading cause led to the calling of the Third Crusade.



■Jerusalem, 1187

After delivering his crushing victory at Hattin, Saladin easily took most of the kingdom of Jerusalem. The most important point symbolically was Jerusalem. Although Jerusalem was denuded of its garrison, Patriarch Heraclius and Lord Balian of Ibelin decided to resist. Only two other knights and few professional soldiers were within the walls, although Balian knighted all noble boys over the age of 16 and 30 burgers to stiffen the defence. Saladin's army numbered at least 20,000.

Saladin invested the city with his army on 20 September, but attempted no

escalade, as the Christians put up a show of resistance by manning the walls. It became a battle of negotiation, Saladin threatening to put all Christians to the sword and Balian threatening to destroy the Dome of the Rock. Jerusalem opened its gates on 2 October, ransoming most of the populace at reasonable rates.

Third Crusade 1189–92

■ACRE, 1189–91

When Saladin released King Guy of Jerusalem in July 1188, almost all his kingdom was in Muslim hands and Guy's own leadership was under threat.

His response was to take a small force to besiege the Muslim-held town of Acre, which started on 28 August 1189. At first, Guy's force was far too small even to invest the large and strongly-fortified city, but gradually more and more men joined him, including his political rivals and gradually crusaders from Europe.

Saladin soon arrived and camped close to the strong Christian field camp, but failed to overrun Guy's force on 15 September. Soon a first wave of crusaders arrived—Germans, Dutch, English, Danish and northern French—bringing the number of besiegers to 30,000. On 4 October, Saladin failed again to dislodge the Christians in a major battle during which the crusaders broke into Saladin's camp, but were soon driven out again.

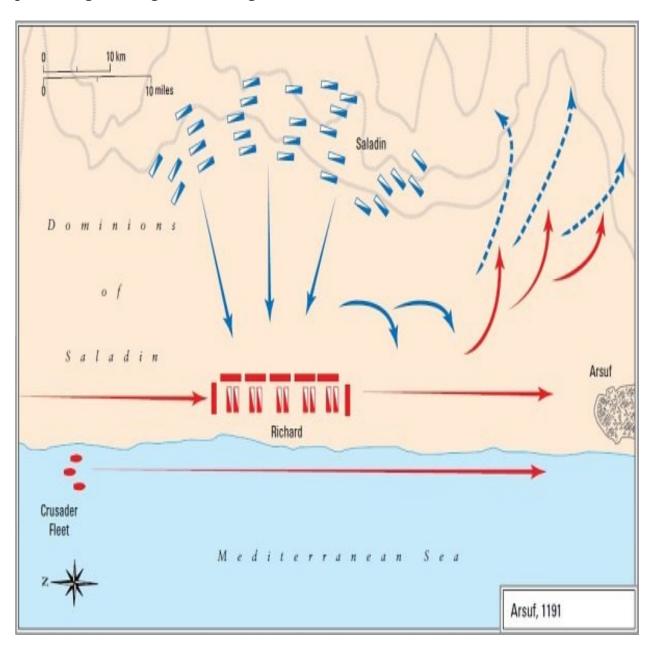
On 5 May 1190, the crusaders launched a major assault against Acre, employing three great siege towers in an attempt to break their way in, but they were driven off, with the flammable towers destroyed by Greek fire. Saladin's response was an eight-day assault on the crusader camp, which began on 19 May. A large French crusader army arrived in July 1190 and, on 25 July, the army launched a massive assault on Saladin's camp. The assault failed, resulting in 4000–5000 Christians being killed.

Acre's plight became more desperate as crusader fleets blocked off its harbour, but the deadlock was only broken after Kings Philip II of France and Richard I of England arrived in mid-1191. The city surrendered on 12 July 1191, after Saladin's final effort to drive off the crusader army failed. The crusaders took 3000 Muslim prisoners, but massacred them when negotiations for their ransom broke down.

■ARSUF, 7 SEPTEMBER 1191

After taking Acre, the army of the Third Crusade, under Richard the Lionheart,

set out to march the 129km to Jaffa. Saladin's army shadowed the Christian march, harrowing the flank and especially the Hospitaller rearguard. Skirmishes were so frequent that the crusaders made barely 8km progress a day. An attempt to negotiate with Saladin rapidly broke down. On 7 September, the crusader army north of Arsuf suffered such heavy attacks that Richard stopped to face the enemy. Each army numbered about 20,000, although the Muslim force was mostly cavalry, compared to about 4000 knights, 2000 Turcopoles and 14,000 infantry on the Christian side. The battle started at about 900 hours, Saladin launching his Turkish light cavalry against the Christian line in the hope of provoking a disorganized charge.



The Christians were harried for hours, but managed to hold their positions, the more vulnerable cavalry sheltering behind a shield of infantry that responded to the Muslims with their own crossbows and bows. King Richard prepared the cavalry for a decisive envelopment of the Turks, but, before he could do so, the Christian line finally broke when the Hospitallers on the left flank, goaded beyond bearing, charged the enemy, sweeping the neighbouring northern French contingent along with them. Richard the Lionheart ordered a general attack to keep his force from disintegrating. His forceful action managed to keep the Christian army from breaking up in pursuit, while Richard's Anglo-Norman reserve force repulsed Turkish counter-attacks. A series of crusader charges finally drove Saladin's army from the field and looted his camp. Although a Christian victory, Arsuf was not decisive; Saladin lost perhaps 7000 men (to Christian losses of 700), but retained a sufficient force to dog the crusaders' footsteps.

■JAFFA, 1192

In the last engagement of the Third Crusade, Muslims attacked King Richard's camp of 2000 men outside Jaffa. Richard had time to organize a solid defence of lances and crossbows; the Muslims never closed.

Fourth Crusade 1202-04

■Constantinople, 8–13 April 1204

The Fourth Crusade, a mostly French army of about 10,000 accompanied by a large Venetian fleet of over 200 vessels, including 60 galleys, reached Constantinople in June 1203. Their goal was to support the claim of Byzantine prince Alexius against a usurper. In an initial assault in 1203, the crusaders took a section of Constantinople's walls and forced the usurper to flee. Relations between the crusaders and the Constantinopolitans soon broke down and the emperor friendly to them was killed in a coup early in 1204. The crusaders decided on revenge and conquest.

In 1203, the crusaders had found the great land walls of the city impenetrable, so in 1204 they focused their assault on the sea walls that overlooked the Golden Horn. The Venetians under Doge Enrico Dandolo prepared for the assault by lashing cargo ships together for stability and creating flying bridges that could be connected to Constantinople's towers with grappling hooks. They also protected the ships from enemy missiles with meshes of vines. The first assault on 9 April

failed as adverse winds blew the ships away from the towers. A second assault on 12 April was more successful. Some crusaders crossed onto Constantinopolitan towers by means of the flying bridges, while others landed on the narrow shore and scaled the wall at other points. As the crusaders broke into the city, they purposely set a fire to discourage resistance. That night, the usurper fled and resistance had ended by the morning of the 13th. The Westerners systematically pillaged the Christian city of everything they could find, their loot including a great wealth of holy relics and important historical artefacts. They then proceeded to choose one of their own, Baldwin of Flanders, as emperor.

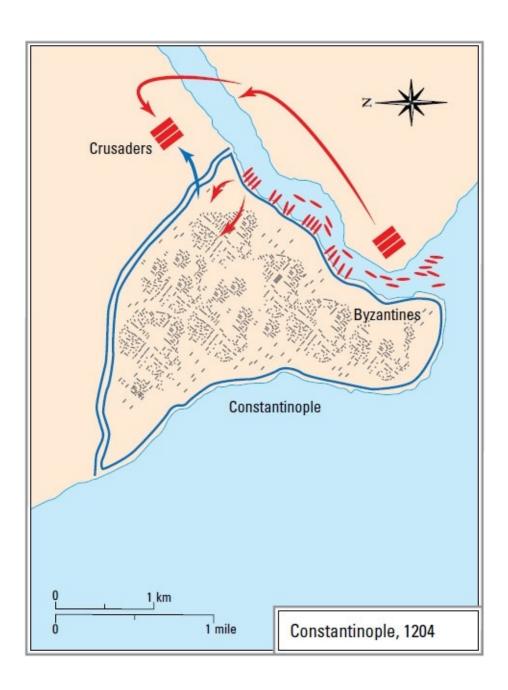
Crusader-Bulgar Wars 1205-08

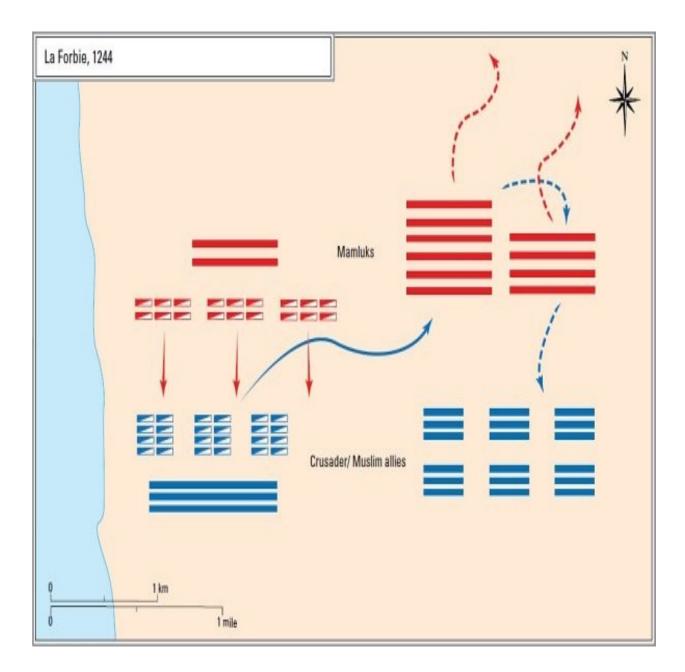
■Adrianople, 14 April 1205

Western Emperor Baldwin I of Constantinople besieged Adrianople with a relatively small force early in 1205. Kaloyan, the Bulgar tsar, brought a relieving force to the city's aid. An attack on the heavily fortified crusader camp was impractical and the force of 300 knights was formidable, so Kaloyan turned to guile. The Bulgar sent his Cuman allies against the crusaders, who had formed before their camp. These lightly armed cavalrymen feigned flight, drawing the crusaders into a disordered pursuit; the Cumans then turned and wounded many with arrows. The same stratagem was accomplished with even more success the following day. Despite warnings, a force under Count Louis of Blois pursued the seemingly fleeing Cumans, who led them into an ambush. Baldwin came to support Louis and most of the crusader force was killed; Baldwin was captured and soon died. The Bulgars overran Thrace and Macedonia.

■PHILIPPOPOLIS, 30 JUNE 1208

Henry of Constantinople with a strong army including 2000 knights defeated a Bulgar army of 30,000 with a direct assault against Tsar Boril that forced his flight. The crusaders then harried the Bulgar retreat.





Fifth Crusade 1213–21

■DAMIETTA, 1218–19

A crusading army decided in April 1218 to attack the strongly fortified city of Damietta on the Nile delta. The 18-month siege was marked by constantly departing and arriving groups of crusaders.

The first stage of the siege was a series of attempts to take Chain Tower on an island in the Nile. The crusader force succeeded in this objective after constructing a floating miniature castle with a revolving scaling ladder. The Muslims then blocked the Nile to the crusaders by sinking ships.

October 1219 saw two major attacks on the crusader camp, but, in February 1219, the crusaders were finally able to cross to the Damietta bank. Direct assaults on the city started on 8 July but failed, as did a 29 August attack on the Muslim camp. On the night of 4 November, however, crusader sentries discovered an unguarded tower and scaled the wall.

Crusader Battles 1244

■LA FORBIE, 17–18 OCTOBER 1244

After Khwarazmian mercenaries sacked Jerusalem, the Christian settlers in Outremer and their Ayyubid allies from Damascus and Homs marched south to confront a combined Khwarazmian–Mumluk force. Each side's army numbered about 11,000. The Christian knights on the right wing were at first successful against the Egyptians, but the Khwarazmians overran the Damascenes in the centre, then fell on the crusaders' rear. The Christian-Ayyubid force was annihilated.

Seventh Crusade 1248-54

■EL MANSURA, 1250

King Louis IX's crusader cavalry crossed the Nile to attack the Ayyubid Muslim camp, but without infantry support, the cavalry was pinned in a day-long battle. Louis held the field, but without decisive victory.

Crusader–Turkish Wars 1268

■Antioch, 1268

Mamluk sultan Baibars attacked Antioch, which was strongly fortified, but defended only by a small force. The city surrendered after a short siege, after which Baibars massacred or enslaved the population despite a promise of mercy.

Eighth Crusade 1270

■Tunis, 1270

On his second crusade, King Louis IX attacked Tunis. Dysentery soon ravaged the crusader camp and, on 25 August, the king himself died. The crusaders withdrew under Charles of Anjou, having accomplished nothing.

Crusader-Turkish Wars 1289-91

■Tripoli (Lebanon), 1289

Mamluk sultan Kalavun brought a large force against Christian Tripoli. Venetian and Genoese defenders deserted and the city offered little organized resistance to a general assault. Most of the defenders were massacred.

■ACRE, 4 APRIL-18 MAY 1291

Mamluk sultan al-Ashraf Khalil attacked Acre with a huge Muslim army, determined to take the last major outpost of the Kingdom of Jerusalem. The Muslim force probably outnumbered the 30,000–40,000 people in Acre, about 15,000 of whom were fighting men.

The city's double walls were in good repair, but the Mamluks undermined them and launched missiles against them, including jars of explosive material. The Christians responded with repeated sorties, until defenders feared that not enough men survived to defend the walls. The outer walls had to be abandoned on 8 May and, on 18 May, Acre fell to a general assault. As Muslim troops entered, much of the populace fled to the port, fighting and capsizing ships in their frenzied effort to escape. The Templar convent held until the 28th, when it collapsed, killing both attackers and defenders.

Russian/Russo-Swedish Wars 1142–1500

■Novgorod, 1164

Seeking to control the Gulf of Finland, the Kingdom of Sweden attempted to send a fleet up the Neva river onto Lake Ladoga. The fleet was driven off, with many of its ships captured.

■NEVA, 15 JULY 1240

The declaration of a crusade against the pagans of north-east Europe suited the interests of the Kingdom of Sweden. The nominally Swedish component of the crusade, including Finns, Norwegians and some Teutonic Knights, advanced up the Neva river. A hurriedly raised army under the command of Prince Alexander of Novgorod caught the Swedes by surprise and routed them, probably close to the point where the River Izhora flowed into the Neva.

■LAKE PEIPUS, 1242

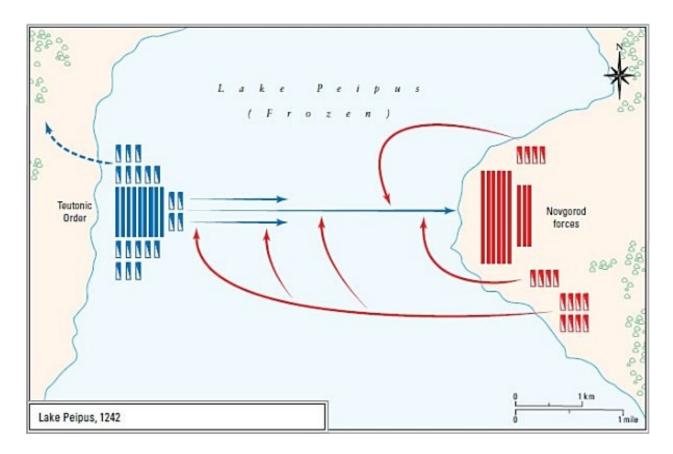
As part of the crusade to bring Christianity to the largely pagan lands of north-eastern Europe, the Teutonic Knights sent an expedition towards Pskov, on Lake Peipus. Other allied forces also invaded the region, creating a crisis for Novgorod, to whom Pskov owed allegiance.

The loss of Pskov caused Novgorod to raise an army under Prince Alexander, which retook the town and launched raids designed to draw out the Crusader army. As the Crusader army advanced over the ice of Lake Peipus, it was outnumbered by Alexander's army and many allied troops fled the field.

The core of the crusader force, the Teutonic Knights, led a charge at the Russian centre, becoming embroiled in a melee. Russian cavalry crushed the crusader flanks and surrounded the knights, inflicting a severe defeat. Prince Alexander was afterward known as 'Nevski' for his leadership in the battle.

■Turku, 1318

Novgorodian forces made several forays into Finland, often causing great destruction. In 1318, the town of Turku was attacked and heavily damaged, probably as part of a campaign to consolidate Novgorodian control over the Baltic coastal region.



■Vyborg, 1495

In the early months of the Russo-Swedish War of 1495-97, Russian forces besieged Vyborg castle. During the final assault a mine was detonated by the defenders, causing the Russians to retreat in disorder and break off the siege.

■IVANGOROD, 1495

In response to the Russian offensive, Swedish forces attacked and captured the newly built Russian fortress at Ivangorod. Once it became apparent that the fortress could not be held, it was demolished and the Swedes retreated.

The Celtic West– Ireland and Wales 1150–1500

■Móin Mhór, 1151

An invading army of Connachtmen and Lenistermen ambushed a Munster force led by Toirdhelbach Ó Briain, King of Thomond, as he emerged from a mountain pass. Ó Briain lost two of his three battalions, some 3000 men.

■BATTLE OF ABERCONWY, 1194

A hard-fought battle near the estuary of the Conwy river between Llywelyn ap Iorwerth, a prince of Gwynedd, and his uncle, Dafydd ab Owain Gwynedd. Llywelyn's victory allowed him to seize control of northern Wales.

■Dún Beal Gallimhe, 1230

Richard Mór de Burgh led an inconclusive Norman assault on Galway fort, held by Áed Ó Flaithbertaig for the king of Connacht. After several days of fighting, reinforcements from Connacht arrived and the Normans withdrew.

■BRYN DERWIN, 1255

Llywelyn ap Gruffudd, co-heir of the Welsh principality of Gwynedd, fought and defeated his brothers, Owain and Dafydd, at Bryn Derwin, south-west of Snowdonia. Llywelyn's army outnumbered the combined forces of Owain and Dafydd who were captured after not much more than an hour of fighting, thereby ending the battle. Llywelyn's victory gained him the sole rulership of Gwynedd and positioned him as the effective leader of the rest of Wales.

■CADFAN, 1257

Welsh forces led by Maredudd ap Rhys Gryg and Maredudd ap Owain, lords of Deheubarth, defeated an English royal army in the Tywi Valley in Carmarthenshire, southern Wales. As the English army, under the command of Stephen Bauzan and Nicholas FitzMartin, lay encamped in the valley, the Welsh, hidden in the woods, harassed them through the night. In the morning, the English began to withdraw to Carmarthern, but experienced continued harassment until about midday, when the Welsh outflanked them and captured the English supply train at Coed Llathen. The following day, the English moved to the west, toward Cymerau, but ran into a marsh where their mounted troops were bogged down. The Welsh promptly attacked and, in the ensuing battle, many English knights were pulled from their horses and trampled to death. English casualties included Bauzan and as many as 3000 of his men.

■CREADRAN CILLE, 1257

Cenél Conaill forces led by Goffraid Ó Domnaill halted the northward advance of Maurice FitzGerald, Lord Justiciar, near Sligo. The battle turned into a rout of the Anglo-Normans who were then driven from lower Connacht.

■CALLAN, 1261

Munstermen led by Fíngen Mac Carthaig, King of Desmond, engaged a royal army commanded by John FitzThomas, 1st Baron of Desmond, at Callan near Kenmare in south-west Munster. The mountainous terrain was not suited to the Anglo-Norman force, many of whom were mounted, and an immense slaughter occurred. According to the Annals of Ireland, their losses included FitzThomas, his son Maurice, eight barons, 15 knights and countless soldiers.

■ÁTH AN CHIP, 1270

Connachtmen attacked an Anglo-Norman force fording the Shannon river near Carrick-on-Shannon. After breaking up the vanguard, the Connachtmen then dislodged the enemy rear, forcing the Normans to leave nine dead knights and 100 horses on the field.

■OREWIN BRIDGE, 11 DECEMBER 1282

A mounted English force supported by archers surprised the army of Llwelyn ap Gruffudd, Prince of Gwynedd, near Orewin Bridge on the Yfron river. Attacked from the rear, the Welsh broke and fled. Llwelyn himself was killed.

■DENBIGH, 1294

During a general Welsh revolt led by Madog ap Llywelyn, the tenants of Denbigh rose up against the earl of Lincoln and drove him out with heavy losses. Edward I responded with overwhelming force and quickly retook Denbigh.

■MAES MOYDOG, 5 MARCH 1295

The Welsh revolt led by Madog ap Llywelyn against Edward I effectively ended at Maes Moydog in Caereinion when the earl of Warwick defeated Madog with a combined force of cavalry, crossbowmen and archers.

■ATHENRY, 10 AUGUST 1316

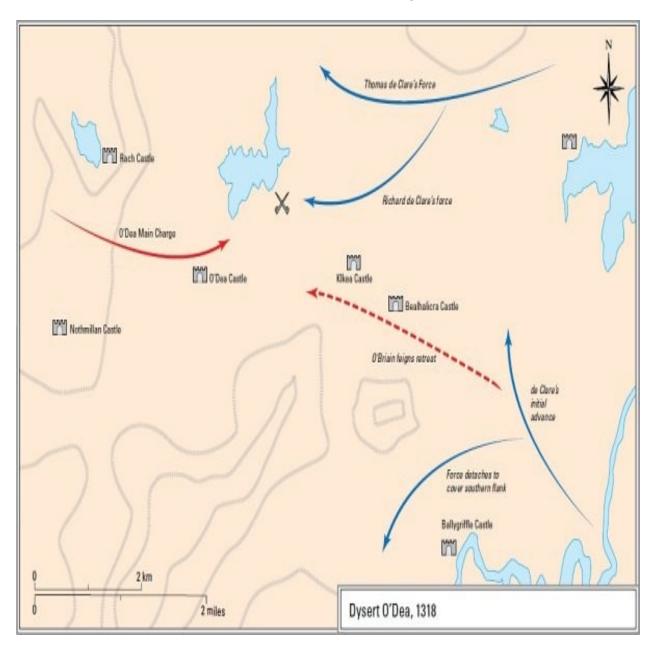
A force of Anglo-Norman colonists and allied Munster Irish defeated an army of Connachtmen led by Feidlim Ó Conchabair, the king of Connacht, who was killed. Over 1500 heads were collected from the battlefield and sent to Dublin.

■Dysert **O'**Dea, **10** May **1318**

Conor O'Dea of Thomond and a small contingent of Munstermen held the ford of the Fergus river against an advancing Anglo-Irish force under Richard de Clare. De Clare heedlessly rushed across the river with some of his knights, only to be surrounded and killed. De Clare's main force then crossed over and surrounded the O'Deas in turn, but were thrown into disarray by the arrival of Irish reinforcements and routed.

■Ardnocher, 10 August 1329

Thomas Butler, brother to Edmund, Earl of Carrick, led an unsuccessful Anglo-Norman attack on the MacGeoghegan fort of Ardnocher in Westmeath. Butler and several other Norman leaders were killed, along with some 140 soldiers.



■FIODH-AN-ÁTHA, 1330

Ualgarg Ó Ruairc, King of Breifne, led an Irish force against Fiodh-an-Átha (Finnea, Co. Westmeath), but was repulsed by the town's Anglo-Norman population. Among the slain was Art Ó Ruairc, in line to the kingship of Breifne.

■Lough Neagh, 1345

Aodh Reamhair Ó Néill, King of Tyrone, invaded Clandeboye (Co. Down) across Lough Neagh, but was repulsed in a naval encounter with Clandeboye ruler Éinri Ó Néill. Aodh escaped with difficulty back across Lough Neagh.

■CALRY-LOUGH-GILL, 1346

An engagement between Ualgarg Ó Ruairc, King of Breifne, and Ruaidrí Ó Conchobair of the Clann-Donough near Lough Gill (Co. Sligo). ÓRuairc was routed and subsequently slain with all his foreign (probably Scottish) mercenaries.

■Baile Loch Deacair, 1356

Aided by Clann an Baird's men, Donnchadh Ó Ceallaigh of Uí Maine slew Aodh Ó Conchobair, King of Connacht, at Baile Loch Deacair (Balloughdacker) in a personal act of revenge.

■TRIAN CONGAIL, 1383

Niall Mór Ó Néill, King of Tyrone, led a large Irish force into Clandeboye (Counties Down and Antrim) and attacked and burned several English settlements there. An opposing English force formed up near Carrickfergus where, in a mutual cavalry charge, Aodh Óg Ó Néill, presumably the son of Niall Mór, and Roland Savage, son of English baron Henry Savage, wounded each other with spears. Aodh Óg died three days later.

■Tochar Cruachain-Bri-Ele, 1385

Near Croghan (Co. Offaly), Murchad Ó Conchobhair and the men of Uí Failghe (Co. Offaly), joined by the Cenél Fiachach, defeated the English of Meath. Among the English dead were Nugent of Meath and his son Chambers.

■Ros-mhic-Thrúin, 1394

In October 1394, King Richard II of England landed with a large army at Waterford. In defiance, Leinster king Art Mac Murchadha Caomhánach attacked, plundered and burned the English port of New Ross (Ros-mhic-Thrúin, Co. Wexford).

■Tragh-Bhaile, 1399

The Clann Enrí Ó Néill, led by Domhnall mac Enrí of Tyrone, mounted an excursion against the English of Tragh-Bhaile (Dundalk, Co. Louth). The

English repulsed them, killing many, and Domhnall was taken prisoner to England.

■MYNYDD HYDDGEN, JUNE 1401

A few hundred Welsh bowmen led by Owain Glyn Dŵr, Prince of Wales, defeated a larger and better-armed, but undisciplined English force in the Cambrian mountains of Wales. English losses were around 200 men.

■Tuthill, 2 November 1401

This was a skirmish between a Welsh army commanded by Owain Glyn Dŵr and the English defenders of the town and castle of Caernarfon, in northern Wales. The battle was inconclusive, with some 300 Welsh casualties reported.

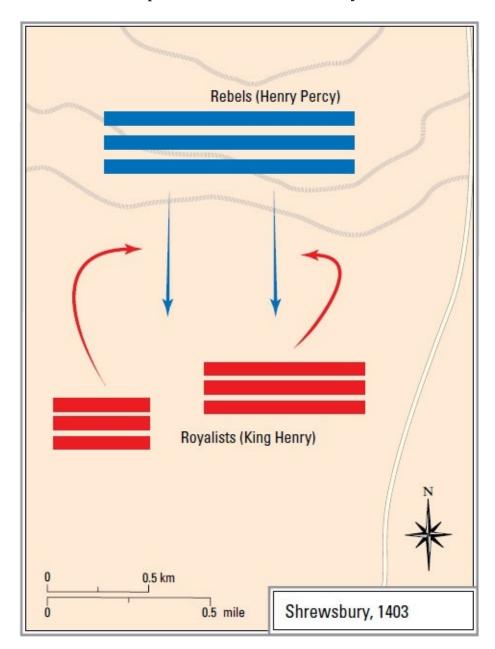
■Bryn Glas, 22 June 1402

The county levy of Herefordshire under Edmund Mortimer pursued the smaller force of Owain Glyn Dŵr, Prince of Wales, to a hill near Pilleth. There the Welsh turned and overwhelmed the English, taking Mortimer prisoner.

■Shrewsbury, 21 July 1403

In 1403, the earls of Northumberland and Worcester in northern England rose up in rebellion against King Henry IV. Henry Percy ('Hotspur'), son of the earl of Northumberland, joined by his uncle Thomas Percy, raised an army of some 14,000, including a significant force of Cheshire longbowmen, and then marched on Shrewsbury, in Shropshire. A royal army near the same size, led by King Henry himself, met them three miles north of Shrewsbury. After an unsuccessful effort to negotiate a settlement, battle began around midday with a massive, mutual exchange of arrows. However, the Cheshire longbowmen proved superior to the royal archers and collapsed the king's right wing, commanded by the earl of Stafford. According to a contemporary monastic source, the king's men 'fell like autumn leaves, every arrow striking a mortal man'. Stafford himself was killed and his men fled the field. The king's left wing, under the command of his son Henry, Prince of Wales (the future Henry V), held fast, although the 16-year old prince himself withdrew with a grievous arrow wound to the face. Hotspur then led a charge of knights directly against the king, hoping to kill him, and managed to take the royal standard. Unfortunately, upon lifting the visor of his helmet Hotspur himself took an arrow to the face and was instantly killed. However, confusion on the battlefield led some of the Northumbrian forces to believe that Hotspur lived and the king was dead, prompting Henry IV to show himself and shout out 'Henry Percy is dead'. When realization of this sunk in, the battle came to a halt. The royalist army had taken

the heavier losses, but Hotspur's death ended the Percy rebellion.



■PWLL MELYN, 1405

A Welsh force, led by Gruffudd ap Owain Glyn Dŵr, attacked Usk castle in south-east Wales, but were repulsed by the English defenders. The castle garrison pursued the retreating Welsh into nearby Monkswood where Gruffudd was captured.

■CLUAIN IMMORRAIS, 1406

At Cluain Immorrais (near Geashill, Co. Offaly), Murchadh Ó Conchobair, Lord

of Uí Failghe (Offaly), led a small mounted troop to victory against a combined force of English and Connacht mercenaries, who took some 300 casualties.

Japanese Genpei War 1180–85

■Uji, 23 June 1180

The Minamoto clan once again resumed their efforts to unseat the powerful Taira family from their control of the Shogunate and the Emperor. With a decree of Prince Mochihito supporting their uprising, the small Minamoto army moved south from Kyoto commanded by Minamoto Yorimasa, seeking promised support from warrior-monks at Nara. At the ruined bridge over the Uji, superior Taira forces destroyed the Minamoto and rebellion in a sharp combat.

■NARA, 1180

Taira forces in great number attacked the Nara monastery, which had allied to the Minamoto clan. Around 3500 monks and their followers fell when the Taira burned the monastery and two temples after a spirited defence.

■ISHIBASHIYAMA, 14 SEPTEMBER 1180

Minamoto Yoritomo took advantage of the sudden death of Taira Kiyomori in a raid to move the Minamoto up out of Izu towards Edo with his supporters, the Miura. Oba Kagechika, a strong supporter of the Taira, promptly rallied his forces for a rapid movement in pursuit, amassing ten times Yoritomo's numbers. The Taira overtook the Minamoto in the narrow isthmus near the ravine of Ishibashiyama. Under cover of darkness and a torrential rainstorm, the Taira launched an all-out attack up the valley into the surprised Minamoto samurai. In the murk and muck, the Minamoto were entirely annihilated, but Yoritomo escaped the Taira's vengeance into the surrounding foothills in the confusion. Kagechika continued the pursuit in vain for three days, finally abandoning it and leaving Yoritomo alive, then fleeing to the coast to Awa Province by sea to resume the fighting.

■Fujigawa, 9 November 1180

Invading Minamoto territory, the Taira army paused at the Fujigawa river to find the Minamoto and their Takeda allies mustered on the far bank. An attack or disturbance during the night provoked a Taira retreat.

■SUNOMATAGAWA, 6 AUGUST 1181

Minamoto Yukiie's attack upon a Taira force invading Owari Province disintegrated when the Taira on the far side of this river allowed his approach and then smothered the attack in showers of arrows and samurai.

■YAHAGIGAWA, 1181

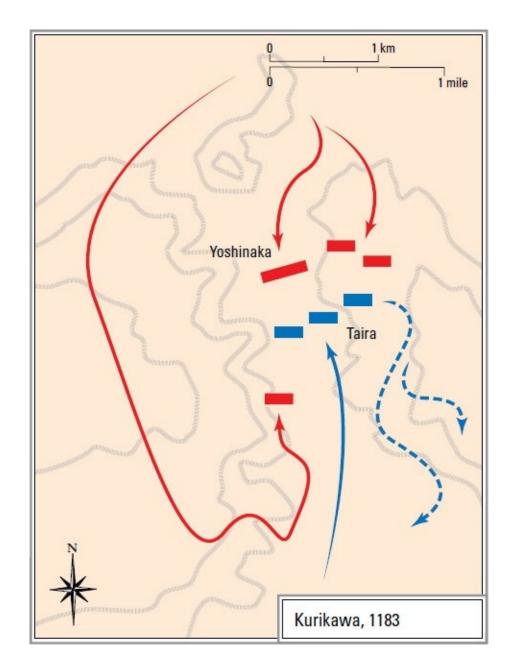
Retreating defeated before the Taira advance, Minamoto Yukiie attempted to hold the river with a stockade made of timbers from a dismantled bridge. Only the illness of Taira Tomomori saved the Minamoto after another rout.

■HIUCHI, APRIL-MAY 1183

Taira Koremori and his main army succeeded in capturing this palisaded hilltop bastion, garrisoned by a detachment of Minamoto Yoshinaka's troops. A traitor suggested breaching the moat's dam; the Taira stormed and took the position.

■KURIKAWA, 1183

The main Taira army moved southward out of Kyoto, overcoming isolated Minamoto detachments placed along the line of Kiso Yoshinaka, the Minamoto commander's, advance. Alerted to the quality and quantity of the Taira force, Yoshinaka discovered that the Taira had split their army in two, with the larger portion under Taira Koremori and Michimori camped just before this pass, which Yoshinaka convinced them was already defended. A deep, blind valley opened out of the pass. The Minamoto drew the Taira army into a protracted fight, while special units circled around to the enemy's rear. As night fell, Yoshinaka's infiltrators attacked and stampeded a herd of cattle into the Taira, their onset made all the more startling by torches tied to the animals' horns. The panicked Taira fled into the blind valley where the Minamoto butchered them. This marked the first Taira defeat.



■SHINOHARA, 1183

Minamoto Yukiie joined his force with Kiso Yoshinaka's, the combined Minamoto armies rapidly pursuing the Taira forces retreating after the disaster at Kurikawa. The Taira made a fierce stand here, but lost and resumed their retreat.

■MIZUSHIMA, 17 NOVEMBER 1183

The defeated Taira evacuated Kyoto and moved south back to their own territory, rallying and readying their forces in expectation of Kiso Yoshinaka's pursuit. The Minamoto army had looted the Imperial capital, with Yoshinaka and Minamoto Yukiie forfeiting imperial and popular support with that action and

other rude conduct. Yoshinaka divided his forces and engaged the Taira here, losing badly and retreating back to Kyoto with weakened numbers in still further disgrace.

■Muroyama, 1183

Minamoto Yukiie took the smaller portion of the Minamoto army and moved into Taira territory, finding the enemy's morale and numbers rallied sufficiently to thrash his army soundly and send them limping back to Kyoto.

■Fukuryūji, 1183

Seno Kaneyasu, one of the more clever Taira allies, held this palisaded keep for a while against Kiso Yoshinaka's army under Imai Kanehira, slowing the Minamoto advance with archery directed into the surrounding rice paddies.

■HOJUJIDONO, 1184

Kiso Yoshinaka sought sole control of his Minamoto clan and declared himself Japan's first shogun. He began by attacking the Hojujidono palace where the Minamoto had installed their puppet-emperor, Go-Shirakawa, after the clan's triumphant entry into Kyoto. The emperor's retinue and allied warrior-monks resisted the attack, but with the defenders slaughtered and the palace in flames, Yoshinaka took the emperor and fled while the rest of the clan moved against him.

■UJI, 19 FEBRUARY 1184

Miyamoto Yoshitsune moved to drive Kiso Yoshinaka from Kyoto after his attempted coup. Having demolished the bridge into the city, Yoshinaka's forces found themselves flanked and beaten by Yoshitsune's Kamakura army, which forded the Uji river.

■Awazu, 21 February 1184

Kiso Yoshinaka was in flight to the city of Awazu when his horse became enmired in a frozen rice paddy. His retainers and warrior-wife failed to hold off Minamoto Yoshitsune's pursuing forces long enough for his suicide.

■ICHI-NO-TANI, 18 MARCH 1184

This Taira fortress on advantageous ground obstructed the Minamoto advance under Yoshitsune near Kobe. Two loosed riderless horses proved its impassable cliffs passable and Yoshitsune, with 200 samurai, entered the bastion's rear and seized it.

■KOJIMA, 1184

The Taira navy on the Inland Sea supported this bastion on the coast against

Minamoto Noriyori's advance into their territory. The Minamoto cavalry managed to swim an intervening strip of ocean and overrun the position.

■YASHIMA, 22 MARCH 1185

Minamoto Yoshitsune's nascent fleet, during a fierce storm, launched a seaborne assault upon this Taira stronghold near the Taira fleet's anchorage. The Minamoto advancing under a cloud of smoke drove the Taira to their ships.

■DAN-NO-URA, 25 APRIL 1185

Strengthened by allies and ships, Minamoto Yoshitsune led his clan in superior force against the Taira at sea. After a bloody defeat, the Taira and their puppet-emperor plunged into the sea.

Mongol Wars 1190–1402

Conquests of Genghis Khan 1211–27

■BEIJING, 1215

Following a series of Mongol victories under Genghis Khan, the Jin's northern capital of Zhongdu (Beijing) came under threat. The Juyong Pass to the north of the capital was well defended, so the Mongols were forced to make a detour and began a long siege of Zhongdu. The city surrendered when the garrison were reduced to cannibalism and the Jin emperor fled to his other capital at Kaifeng in the south.

■OTRAR, 1219

Genghis Khan conducted a fierce five-month siege against Otrar, a well-defended outpost of the Khwarazm Empire. According to legend, when it fell, the governor was executed by having molten silver poured into his eyes.

■BUKHARA, 1220

While the siege of Otrar was in progress, Genghis Khan led his main army to assault Bukhara. The 20,000-strong garrison fled, leaving only a handful of troops to be defeated by the Mongol besiegers.

■SAMARKAND, 1220

The fall of Samarkand was the decisive action of the Khwarazm War. A brave sortie was made using elephants, but the Mongol horsemen broke the attack and a surrender was negotiated after the citadel fell.

■HERAT, 1220

The Mongol conquest of Central Asia was accompanied by much slaughter. The armies divided in pursuit of the Khwarazm Shah Jalal-al-Din. After Genghis Khan captured Nishapur, his son Tolui captured Herat after fierce fighting.

■MERV, 1221

The Khwarazm outpost of Merv fell to the Mongols after much fierce fighting. The Mongol general Tolui is said to have sat on a golden chair to watch the execution of the numerous prisoners taken.

■Nishapur, 1221

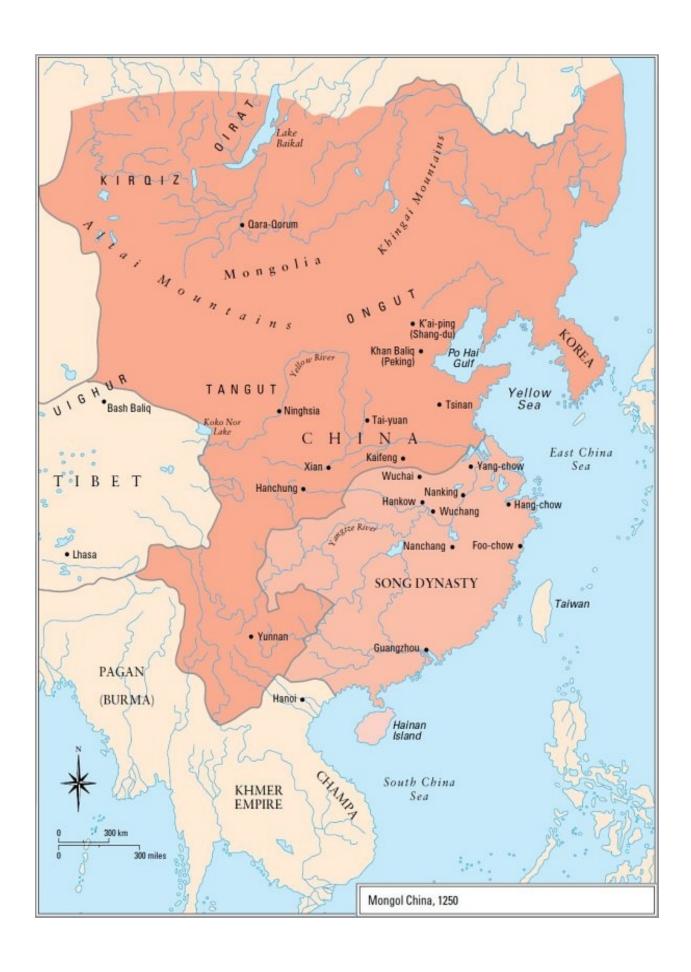
During the preliminary attack on Nishapur, Toghachar, Genghis Khan's son-inlaw, was killed by an arrow. The subsequent sack of the well-defended city was far more terrible than normal and the area was laid to waste.

■Indus River, 1221

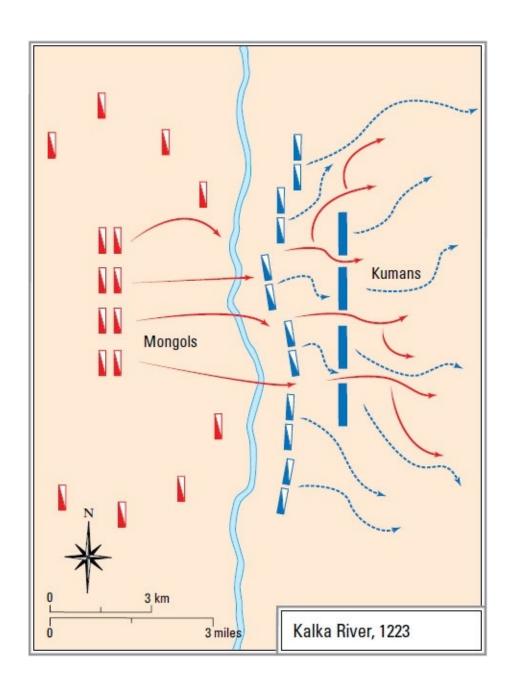
Jalal al-Din of Khwarazm evaded the Mongols as far as the Indus river. Here, his army were encircled, so Jalal al-Din swam his horse across the river. Admiring his bravery, the Mongols let him escape.

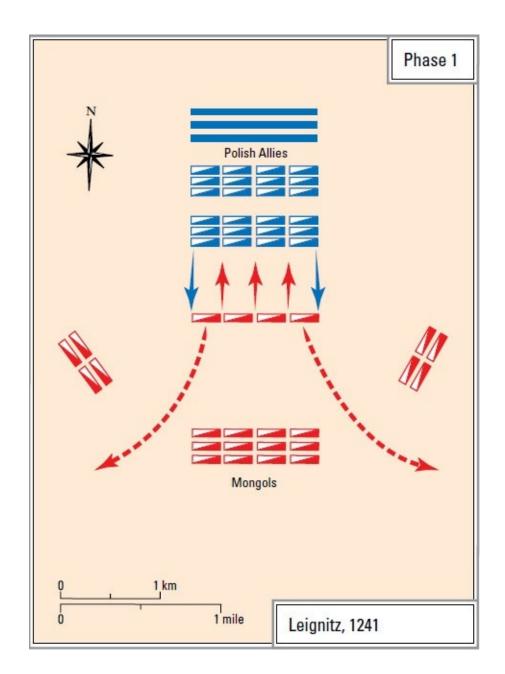
■KALKA RIVER, 31 MAY 1223

The battle of the Kalka river was one of the greatest victories achieved under the Mongol general Subadai. By 1223, the Mongols had regrouped in the southern Russian steppes. The Russian princes would appear to have had no intelligence about the campaigns and conquests of Genghis Khan. The first information that a new enemy had appeared in the southern steppes was brought to Mstislav Mstislavitch in Galich by his father-in-law, Khan Kotyan, whose nomadic territory lay close to the easternmost bend of the Dnieper. Mstislav of Galich immediately summoned a council of war in Kiev. They made the decision that the Russians and Polovtsians should move east to seek out and destroy the Mongols wherever they might be found. When the expeditionary force was on its way, the Mongol envoys met the main body at Pereyaslavl and tried to dissuade them from fighting. However, when a second attempt at parley failed, the army crossed the Dnieper and marched eastwards across the steppes for nine days, little knowing that they had in fact been misled by a Mongol false retreat, a favourite tactic conducted on a grand scale. They soon encountered a Mongol army at the Kalka river. The Kumans retreated in such haste that they galloped over the Russian camp and trampled it underfoot. There was complete confusion and a terrible slaughter. Mstislav of Kiev defended himself inside a hastily erected stockade until he was persuaded to give himself up. The princes were taken by the Mongols and crushed beneath platforms placed over their bodies. Subadai led the Mongol army home, having covered 6430km in less than three years.









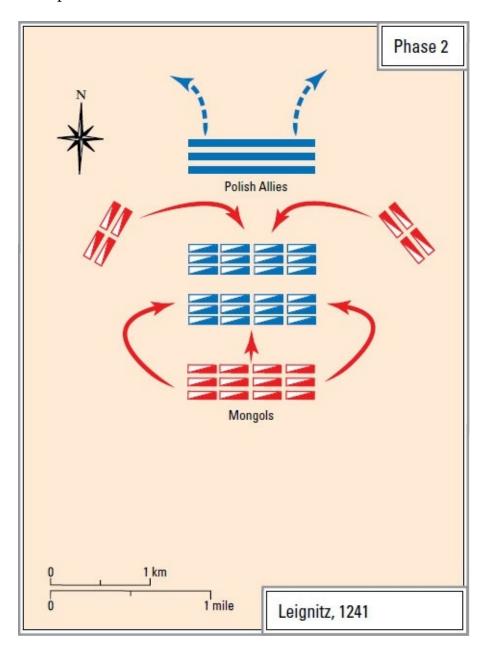
■SIT **R**IVER, 1226

While the main body of the Mongol army was besieging Vladimir, their vanguard, went to reconnoitre the position of Prince Yuri located on the Sit river. Vladimir was demoralized when the Mongols presented the head of one of Yuri's sons at the gate and thousands of Russian prisoners began erecting palisades. After a fierce bombardment, the city surrendered and the army moved against, and defeated, Prince Yuri at Sit.

Mongol Campaigns 1232–1336

■KAIFENG, 1232

Kaifeng was the southern capital of the Jin, who defended it against the Mongols in a long siege celebrated for using iron bombs and fire lances. The city only fell when the Jin emperor fled.



■KIEV, 1240

The city of Kiev fell to the Mongols after a short, but brave resistance. Many of the civilians took refuge on a certain church roof, which collapsed under their weight. The city was then almost completely destroyed.

■CRACOW, 1241

The Mongols had not intended to capture Cracow as they were already satisfied with the booty they had collected during their raid, but, on hearing that its prince had fled, they entered Cracow virtually unopposed.

■LEIGNITZ, 9 APRIL 1241

The Mongol army in Poland continued westwards towards Breslau (Wroclaw), the capital of Silesia. Crossing the Oder river at Ratibor, some on rafts and some swimming, the Mongols approached Breslau ready for a siege, but found that its inhabitants had done their work for them, burning the town themselves and taking refuge in the citadel.

Here the Mongol main body was rejoined by a detachment under Kaidu that had taken a more northerly route. Scouts informed them that a hostile army had taken up a position against them not far to the west of Breslau at Wahlstatt, near Leignitz (Legnica). A decision now had to be made over whether to attack the castle of Breslau first or to take on the Polish army, which was under the command of Henry the Pious, Duke of Silesia. Czech and German knights were also present and a persistent tradition claims that a contingent of Teutonic Knights was also there, possibly under their Grand Master Poppo of Osterna, although this has been called into question.

As Henry marched out from Liegnitz with his army, a stone fell from a church and nearly struck him. This was taken as a bad omen and it was therefore with some trepidation that he arranged his forces into four divisions on the fateful battlefield. The Mongols left Breslau and advanced to fight him and appear to have adopted their favourite tactic of a false withdrawal to lure their enemies on. The allied army seems to have been initially thrown into confusion by volleys of Mongol arrows, but rallied sufficiently to mount a charge against the Mongols, at which the Mongols carefully withdrew.

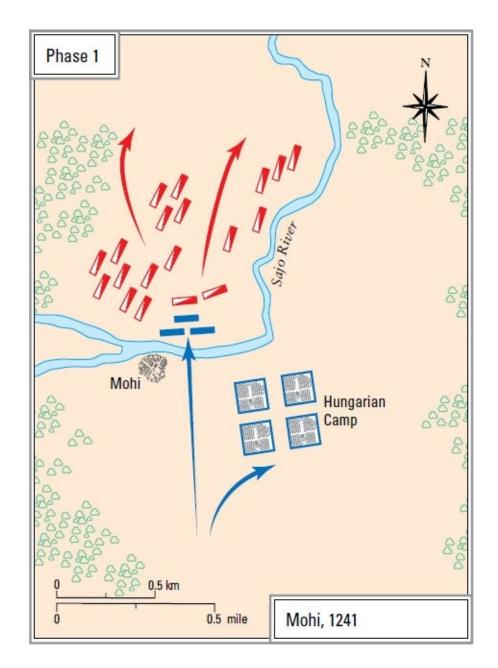
At this point great alarm was caused in the allied ranks by a man who appeared out of the Mongol ranks on horseback and galloped around crying out in Polish: 'Fly, fly!' This apparition no doubt accompanied the Mongol counterattack. Some of the army retreated, but Henry the Pious charged the Mongols once again. The chronicler Dluglosz includes a vivid description of the Mongol tuk (standard) made from crossed bones and yak tails, which he describes as being 'a Greek cross, on top of which was a grey head with a beard'. He also mentions the strange phenomenon of clouds of burning, foul-smelling smoke that the Mongols used at Leignitz. It was probably produced by burning reeds,

fanned by a favourable wind. With this smoke acting as both an irritant and a smoke screen, the Mongols pressed home their advantage. Henry the Pious escaped with four of his followers. Three were killed and then the duke's own horse gave way. After a brave combat, Henry was slain and his head was cut off.

The body of Henry the Pious was identified later by his wife only because of the six toes he had on one foot. He was the most distinguished out of thousands of casualties at Leignitz on 9 April, because we are told that the Mongols filled nine sacks with the ears cut off from the slain as trophies. Henry's head was impaled upon a spear and paraded outside the walls of his castle. The defenders were suitably terrified, but Leignitz was not a major Mongol target, so the Mongols abandoned Poland and marched on into Bohemia and Moravia, heading in the general direction of their main military objective of Hungary.

■MOHI, 11 APRIL 1241

The newly reunited Mongol army withdrew to the Sajo river, where they inflicted a tremendous defeat on King Bela IV at the battle of Mohi. The king had summoned a council of war at Gran (Esztergom). As Batu was advancing on Hungary from the north-east, it was decided to concentrate at Pest and then head north-east to confront the Mongol army. When news of the Hungarians' apparent intentions reached the Mongol commanders, they slowly withdrew, drawing their enemies on. The Mongols took a stand near Eger to the east of the River Sajo. It was a strong position. Woodland prevented their ranks from being reconnoitred, while across the river on the plain of Mohi, the Hungarian army appeared to be very exposed. Subadai launched his attack during the night of 10–11 April 1241, only one day after his compatriots won the great battle of Leignitz. One division crossed the river in secret to advance on the Hungarian camp from the southeast. The main body began to cross the Sajo by the bridge at Mohi. This met with some resistance, so catapults were used to clear the opposite bank. When the crossing was completed, the other contingent attacked at the same time. The result was panic and, to ensure that the Hungarians did not fight desperately to the last man, the Mongols left an obvious gap in their encirclement. As they had planned, the fleeing Hungarians poured through this trap that led to a swampy area. When the Hungarian knights split up, the light Mongol archers picked them off at will. It was later noted that corpses littered the countryside for the space of a two days' journey.



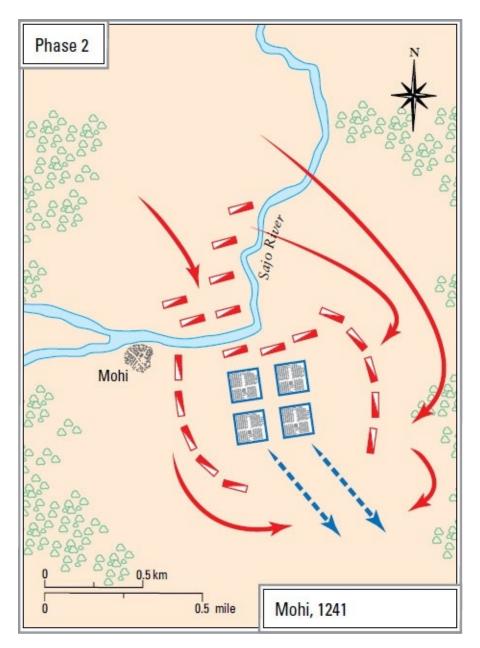
■KÖSE **D**AĞ**,** 26 JUNE 1243

The Mongols attacked the Seljuq Sultanate of Anatolia late in 1242. The sultan was joined by the Empire of Trebizond and their combined army was larger than the Mongol one. The Mongols stated that they welcomed the odds because it promised more loot. The result was a decisive Mongol victory at Köse Dağ early in 1243 that led to the decline of the Seljuqs and the absorption of Trebizond into the Mongol Empire.

■BAGHDAD, 29 JANUARY-10 FEBRUARY 1258

The Mongol siege of Baghdad began with arrow letters threatening to spare only

non combatants. A bombardment led to the capture of the eastern wall. Those who tried to escape were killed before the city fell.

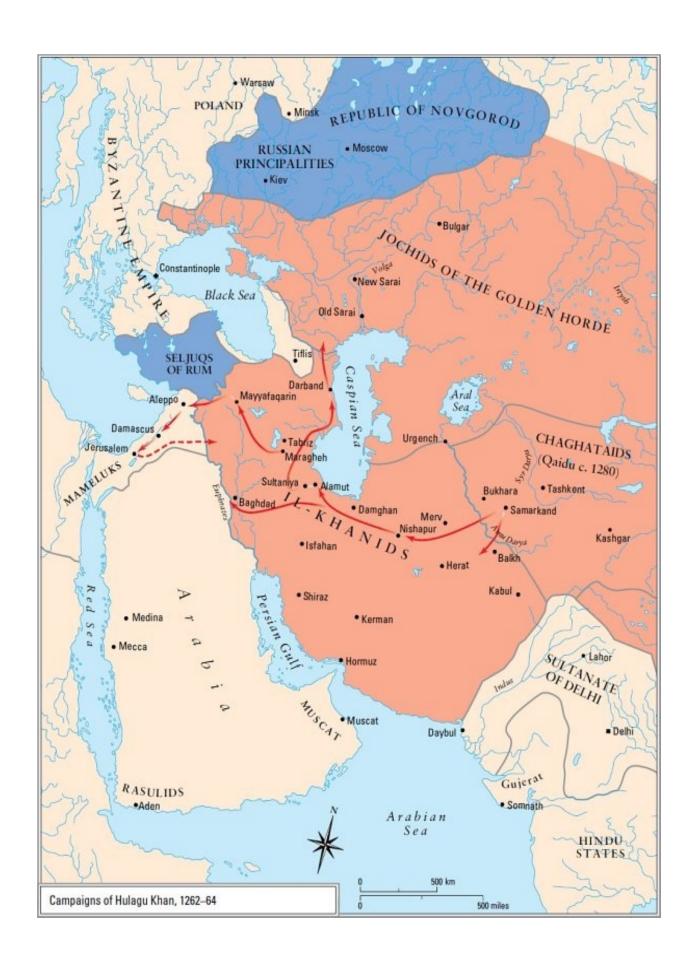


■AIN JALUT, 3 SEPTEMBER 1260

Qutuz's Mamluks followed the Mongols up the coast to Acre, which was then held by a crusader army. The crusaders were enthralled by the prospect of a battle between Mongols and a Muslim army and chose to remain neutral, although they sent supplies to Qutuz in acknowledgement of the recent sacking of Sidon by the Mongols.

Ketbugha was in the Biqa valley when he received the news that the Mamluks

had entered Syria, so he gathered his troops who were then widely scattered on garrison duties or grazing and headed south. He took up a position at Ain Jalut ('Goliath's spring') north-west of Mount Gilboa. It was an excellent place for a cavalry battle, and the adjacent valley offered good pasture. Baybar's Mamluk vanguard made contact with the Mongol through some extensive skirmishing, and on ascending a hill observed the Mongol positions. The Mongols had also noted him, so he beat a hasty retreat to join Qutuz and the main body. The battle of Ain Jalut took place on Friday 3 September 1260. The Mamluks approached from the north-west, and the Mongols charged into them, destroying the Mamluk left flank. But Qutuz rallied his troops and launched a counterattack that shook the Mongols. They again attacked, but Qutuz again rallied his men to the cry of 'Allah - help your servant Qutuz against the Mongols!'. He then launched a frontal attack that led to a complete Mamluk victory. Ketbugha was killed and the Mongol army disintegrated. There followed a pursuit of the Mongol stragglers. Ain Jalut had therefore provided that rarest of events, a Mongol defeat, so that it is often regarded as being the turning point in their conquests.



■Terek River, 1262

The Golden Horde was a Mongol state brought about by the submission of the Khanate of Kipchak. At its height, it enjoyed great wealth (hence the name). In 1262, the Golden Horde became embroiled in the civil war arising from the disputed succession to the position of Great Khan of the Mongols after the death of Ogedei Khan. The battle of the Terek river was a victory won by Mongol general Nogai, nephew of Berke Khan of the Golden Horde, during the civil war between his uncle and Hulagu. Taking the initiative, Hulagu marched north and defeated Berke in a surprise attack beside the Terek River. However, victory was rapidly turned into defeat when many of Hulagu's troops were drowned as the ice of the frozen river gave way under them. Nogai's army then successfully counter-attacked and the survivors fled.

■XIANGYANG, 1268–73

The long siege of Xiangyang displayed great ingenuity on the part of the Song defenders and the Mongol besiegers. Xiangyang was supplied by paddle boats driven by men working treadmills. Two Song officers led a relief convoy of a hundred paddle boats laden with supplies, but were intercepted by the Mongols during the night, with bales of burning straw providing artificial illumination from the banks. In 1272, the Song built a pontoon bridge to link the two cities, but the Mongols constructed mechanical saws that cut the bridge into sections, after which it was burned. Both sides also had exploding bombs with fragmenting iron cases. These were used largely as anti-personnel weapons. A provisioning operation of Xiangyang was carried out later on in the siege, helped by Southern Song ships that were equipped with fire lances, siege crossbows and trebuchets shooting fire bombs. Yet, even when a river blockade was finally put in place and firmly maintained, the Mongol siege weapons of traction trebuchets, bombs and siege crossbows proved incapable of causing any real damage to the walls, so Muslim counter weight trebuchets and their operators were summoned to China from the lands of the west. The weapons were constructed at the Mongol capital, where Khubilai Khan attended some of the trials in person, before being transported to Xiangyang. This may have been done by dismantling the machines, although they could have been mounted on wheeled carriages. Projectiles could now be launched weighing ten times greater than any stone thrown beforehand. One particular shot launched on target brought down a tower of Xiangyang with a noise like thunder. The destruction of the walls in this way eventually led to Xiangyang's surrender.

■Bun' EI, 1274

The first Mongol invasion of Japan takes its name from the year period of Bun'ei during which it occurred. A fleet carrying defeated Chinese and Korean troops sailed from the coast of Korea and first ravaged the island of Tsushima, where great heroism was displayed by the samurai warriors. They were the first to encounter this strange and terrible enemy who used exploding bombs flung by catapult. Their tactics were also unfamiliar because the Mongol troops were organized in huge phalanxes, unlike the samurai who were used to a more individual style of combat. Arrows (some poisoned) were loosed in dense volleys. From Tsushima, the Mongols sailed to Iki, where the local governor put up a fierce resistance before being killed. Captives were taken from Iki as the Mongols prepared for their landfall on Japan's southern main island of Kyushu.

■HAKATA **B**AY, 1274

When the Mongols landed at Hakata Bay, they were subjected to attacks by groups of samurai, who were driven back inland. The Mongols soon withdrew, satisfied with the intelligence they had gathered about Japanese defences.

■NGASAUNGYYAN, 1277

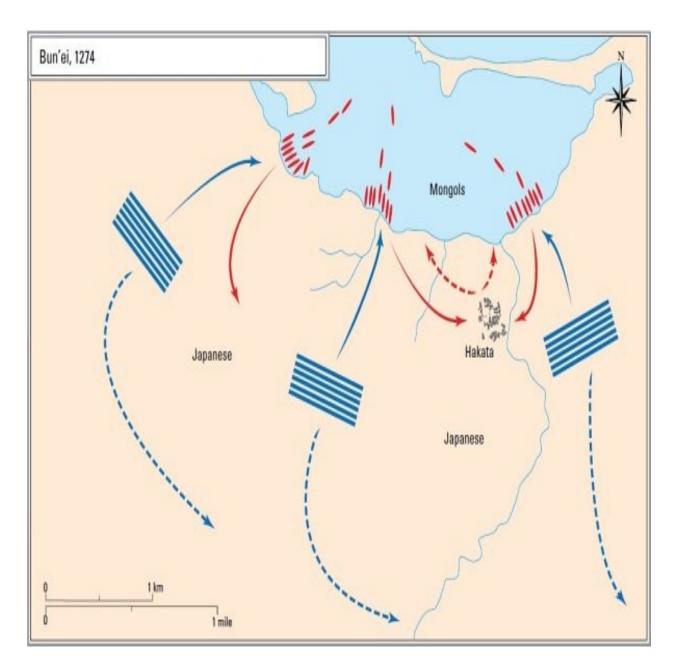
In Burma, the Mongol horses were startled by war elephants, but the Mongols refused to be panicked and calmly took their mounts to the rear, then returned to loose arrows against the elephants, stampeding them.

■YAMEN, 19 MARCH 1279

The Mongol conquest of the Song was initially hampered by their lack of ships and naval expertise for use both at sea and on rivers. In 1265, many ships were captured as the nucleus of a fleet. The advance against the Song was stepped up and it was a sea battle at Yamen that brought about the final eclipse of the Southern Song. Bayan crossed the Yangtze in 1275 and, from 1277, the war against the Song developed into a seaborne chase from one port to another. The pursuit reached its climax at Yamen, situated off Guangdong Province. The Mongols blockaded the Song fleet, which attempted to break out. In the ensuing battle, the Song imperial ship was one of the casualties, so, before the Mongols reached them, an official took the child emperor in his arms and jumped into the sea, drowning them both.

■KYUSHU, 1281

During the second Mongol invasion of Japan the Mongols were forced to wait on their ships before landing. There, the fleet was caught by a typhoon (the *kamikaze* or divine wind) that sunk their ships.



■Homs, 29 October 1281

The second battle of Homs was an indecisive encounter between the Mamluks of Egypt and the Mongol Ilkhanate, including Armenian and Georgian auxiliaries. The Mamluk left flank and the Ilkhanate centre were broken in succession.

■KAUNGSIN, 1283

Following their victory at Ngasaungyyan in 1277, the Mongols advanced to Kaungsin in northern Burma, but were driven back by the heat. They took Kaungsin in 1283, an operation resulting in the fall of Pagan.

■Kulikovo, 8 September 1380

Grand Duke Dimitri of Moscow (Dimitri of the Don) fought an important battle against the Golden Horde of the Mongols at the field of Kulikovo, at the confluence of the Don and the Nepryadva rivers.

Conquests of Tamerlane 1370–1405

■KANDURCHA, 1391

The battle of Kandurcha (the Battle of the Steppes) was won by Tamerlane against his protégé Toktamish, who first defeated Tamerlane's left wing, only for reserve troops to circle round and attack Toktamish's rear.

■PANIPAT, 1398

The battle of Panipat in 1398 was a defeat inflicted upon Sultan Nasir-u Din Mehmud of the Tughlaq Dynasty in the north Indian city of Delhi by Tamerlane, as part of his campaign to control India.

■BAGHDAD, **1401**

Tamerlane besieged Baghdad, but the defenders held out for 40 days before Tamerlane decided to storm the city. This was followed by a brutal sack of the city, in which almost every inhabitant was killed.

■ANGORA/ANKARA, 20 JULY 1402

Tamerlane approached Ankara knowing that it had been left lightly defended by Bayezid the Thunderbolt and gave orders for immediate siege operations against Ankara's mighty Byzantine walls. The city's water supply was diverted and the mining of the ramparts began. Mongol troops were already scaling the walls when the news came that Bayezid had abandoned his march to Sivas and was two days away from Ankara, but when the Ottoman army arrived, they were in a very poor state. The only source of water available for Bayezid's troops was a spring that Tamerlane had arranged to be fouled. Therefore, they were in no position to fall upon the rear of a besieging army, so Tamerlane was given ample opportunity to organize his battle lines. They looked magnificent, being crowned at the front by the presence of war elephants from India. Bayezid's army included Serbian troops under his brother-in-law Stephen Lazarevic and, in fact, the Serbs scored the first gain of the day by driving back Tamerlane's left wing. However, there were problems among the Ottoman ranks. Certain contingents from Anatolia were from a similar ethnic background to Tamerlane's own troops and his agents had been active among them, so some came over to Tamerlane's side. Faced by rear attacks along with the frontal assault, the Ottoman army began to give way. On the right wing, Lazarevic's Serbs hung on until forced to

retreat to cover other contingents' withdrawal. Soon, only Bayezid and his janissaries were left. He held on until nightfall, then retreated with only 300 warriors left to accompany him. The enemy followed in hot pursuit and killed Bayezid's horse as he was being ridden. Bayezid the Thunderbolt was taken prisoner.

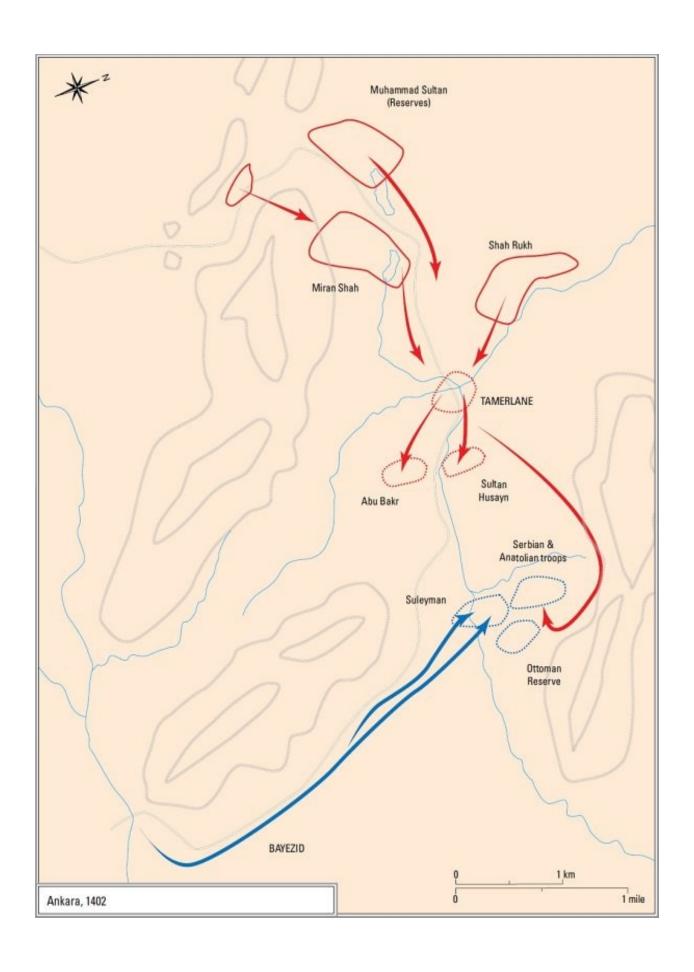
Teutonic and Livonian Wars 1198–1500

■UMERA, 1210

The crusading Brothers of the Sword, consisting of Livonians, Germans and Latgalians, pursued Baltic pagans into present-day Estonia. The Brothers were ambushed and repulsed. Several captured Brothers were executed by the Pagans.

■VILJANDI, 1211

The crusading Livonian Order attacked the fortified pagan town of Viljandi in present-day Estonia. The town held, but negotiations allowed priests with holy water to enter the town before the Livonian Order withdrew.



■ST MATTHEW'S DAY, 21 SEPTEMBER 1217

The crusading Sword Brothers, including Germans and converted Baltic Christians, attacked and defeated the pagans in present-day Estonia. Killed in battle was convert leader Caupo, but the pagan commander, Lembitu, also died.

■OTEPÄÄ, FEBRUARY 1217

Estonians allied with Russians, totalling 20,000 men, besieged the crusader Sword Brothers' outpost at Otepää. The town was strongly fortified and could not be taken by assault, but provisions were scanty, even for the small garrison. A relief column of 3000 Germans and Baltic Christians arrived, but could not break the siege. Negotiations allowed the garrison to evacuate the town and the Sword Brothers withdrew from Estonia.

■Lyndanisse, 15 June 1219

The king of Denmark, Valdemar II, invaded Estonia and defeated an army of Baltic pagans. The battle is linked to the origins of the Danish flag; a white cross on a red field.

■LIHULA, 8 AUGUST 1220

A large army of combined pagan tribes in Estonia attacked the Swedish fortified outpost of Lihula. The Swedes had only 500 men in the garrison, which attempted to fight its way out of Lihula once the town had caught fire. Only about 50 Swedes escaped to the Danish outpost of Tallinn. The defeat discouraged further Swedish crusades in Estonia, leaving such efforts to Denmark and the Livonian Order.

■SAAREMAA, 1227

The Livonian Sword Brothers invaded the Baltic island of Saaremaa, the last major stronghold of pagans in Estonia. The island was captured, converted to Christianity and held by the Sword Brothers until 1236.

■Saule, 22 September 1236

Estonia had been mostly conquered and converted by the crusading Livonian Sword Brothers. An expedition built around the Sword Brothers, reinforced by Baltic Christians and German knights from Holstein, was organized to invade present-day Lithuania. The army of 3000 was commanded by Master Volkwin and advanced into the lands of the Lithuanian Samogitian tribe. Local defenders under Vykintas organized behind the invaders and Volkwin turned his army back towards Estonia. The path was blocked by thousands of Samogitians at a swampy area near a stream.

The Holstein knights and Sword Brothers attempted to break through, but their heavy horses and armour bogged them down in the swampy terrain, where they were showered with javelins and swarmed by the more mobile Samogitians. Volkwin and at least 48 knights were killed, and the invading army was routed with heavy losses.

■SKUODAS, 1259

Lithuanian Samogitians raided Courland near the border of present-day Lithuania and Latvia. A party of Livonian knights sent to pursue the raiders was ambushed by the Samogitians, who killed 33 of the knights.

■DURBE, 13 JULY 1260

A crusading army of Teutonic Knights, Danes and Baltic Christians, led by Hornhausen, was organized to invade Lithuania. Instead, Samogitian Lithuanians raided Courland (Latvia) and Hornhausen turned his army against them. The swampy terrain hampered the heavy knights and allied Baltic tribes switched sides during the battle. Hornhausen and 150 knights were killed in the defeat, which was followed by pagan rebellions in Prussia and Livonia.

■RAKOVAR, 18 FEBRUARY 1268

A large Russian army advanced into present-day Estonia and fought the Livonian branch of the Teutonic Knights. Both sides claimed victory after the fierce battle, called the battle of Wesenberg by the knights.

■KARUSE, 16 FEBRUARY 1270

An army of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania under Traidenis defeated an army of the Livonian Order of the Teutonic Knights. Lutterberg, commanding the knights, was killed in the battle.

■AIZKRAUKLE, 5 MARCH 1279

Grand Duchy of Lithuania forces under Traidenis defeated a force of the Livonian Order of the Teutonic Knights in present-day Latvia. Ernst von Rassburg, the knights' commander, was killed in battle.

■GAROZA, 1287

The Semigallian tribe had been in revolt against the Livonian Order of the Teutonic Knights in present-day Latvia and won a battle at Garoza. Despite the victory, the Semigallians were pacified by 1290.

■PLOWCE, 27 SEPTEMBER 1331

The Teutonic Knights with 7000 troops advanced into central Poland, where they fought 5000 Poles. The seesaw battle was claimed as a victory by both sides,

each losing a third of their force.

■PÖIDE, 4 MAY 1343

During the Estonian Uprising against the Teutonic Knights, the knights invited four rebel Estonian kings to Pöide castle for negotiations. The kings and their retinues were attacked and killed in the courtyard.

■GRUNWALD (TANNENBERG), 15 JULY 1410

War began between the Teutonic Knights, based in Prussia, and Poland and their ally the Grand Duchy of Lithuania in 1409. After an advance by the Teutonic Knights into Polish territory, both sides called a truce and mobilized larger armies. Once the truce expired in 1410, the Poles and Lithuanians began a counter-offensive. The armies clashed between the towns of Grunwald and Tannenberg, in present-day northern Poland.

The Teutonic army, commanded by Grand Master Jungingen, consisted of German knights and foot soldiers from Prussia, Pomerania and Stettin, plus volunteers and mercenaries from different parts of Europe. The Polish king, Jagiello and Lithuanian Grand Duke Vytautas commanded the Polish-Lithuanian forces, which also included volunteers and mercenaries from Bohemia, Russia and elsewhere.

The Polish-Lithuanian army totalled between 30,000 and 39,000 men, significantly outnumbering the Teutonic army of 20,000–27,000 men. However, the Teutonic army included more heavy knights, more trained troops, better armour and weapons, plus some bombards. The Polish-Lithuanian army had a lower proportion of heavy knights, consisting largely of light cavalry and raw infantry levies.

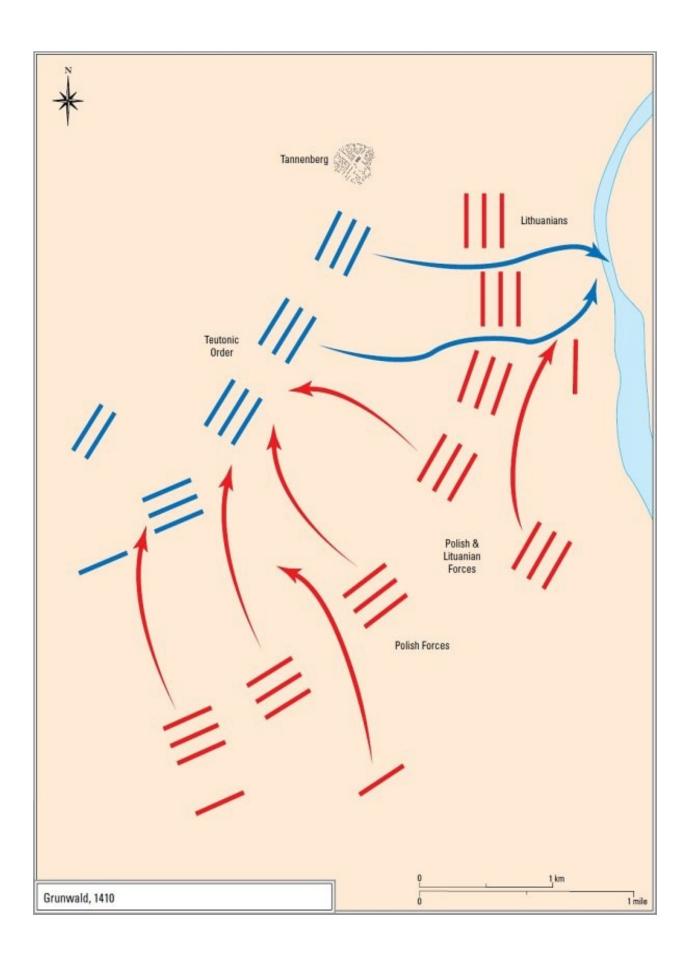
The Teutonic army was drawn up facing east by south-east. The Polish-Lithuanians were opposite, drawn up on a few low hills and partly in woods, with the Poles on the left and the Lithuanians further north on the right. Grand Master Jungingen expected the larger Polish-Lithuanian force to attack his position. When they failed to do so, he sent envoys across the battlefield to provoke King Jagiello. Legends suggest that Jagiello was delaying battle in order to force the Teutonic army to stand for hours in their heavy armour in the hot July sun, while his forces were in partial shade. The Teutonic envoys reportedly threw down two swords in front of Jagiello as part of the provocation, suggesting that if the king of Poland was afraid, here were more weapons and that the Teutonic army would fall back to weaker positions.

Shortly afterwards, Vytautas and the Lithuanians on the right did launch an

attack against Jungingen's position. The Teutonic bombards managed two shots against the rapidly advancing Lithuanian light cavalry. A counter-attack by heavy Teutonic Knights drove back the Lithuanians in disorder. As the Lithuanians retreated beyond their original line, the right flank of the Polish line was exposed. Jungingen wheeled his knights towards the Poles, hoping to complete the victory.

The Teutonic army drove back the Poles and captured the royal banner of Cracow. Polish reserve heavy cavalry counter-attacked, recapturing the banner in fierce fighting. Spotting King Jagiello on a hill, some Teutonic Knights attacked that position. One knight identified as von Kökeritz nearly reached the king, but was stopped at the last moment by the royal secretary, Oleśniscki.

Teutonic victory seemed imminent, but their main force was fully engaged facing south-east against the Poles, when Grand Duke Vytautas, having rallied his Lithuanians, attacked Jungingen's rear and left flank. Nearly surrounded by superior numbers, the Teutonic Knights attempted to cut their way through their converging enemies. Jungingen was killed, as were several other high-ranking Teutonic Knights. The Teutonic force was shattered and routed. A futile last stand at their camp using wagons as barricades was overrun.



The Teutonic army was annihilated, with nearly 8000 killed and 14,000 captured. Polish-Lithuanian losses in victory had been heavy, with those killed and wounded totaling 12,000. The Peace of Thorn followed, in which the Teutonic Order ceded some territory and agreed to pay an indemnity.

■Chojnice, 18 September 1454

A Polish and Prussian confederation army besieged a small Teutonic Order garrison in the fortified town of Chojnice in present-day northern Poland. A Teutonic army of 9000 cavalry and 6000 infantry under Bernard Szumborski advanced to relieve Chojnice. Near the town, they were attacked by almost 20,000 Poles, Prussians and foreign mercenaries under the Polish king, Casimir IV.

The Teutonic force was driven back and Bernard Szumborski was captured. The Polish-Prussian advance was halted by a solid line of Teutonic infantry behind barricades and supported by bombards. The garrison of Chojnice then sallied out and attacked the Polish-Prussian rear, causing panic and confusion. The Teutonic army counterattacked and Bernard Szumborski escaped. The Polish-Prussian force routed, losing 3300 killed or captured. The Teutonic force lost 100 knights and an unknown number of infantry in their victory.

■Swiecino, 17 September 1462

A Polish force consisting largely of mercenaries, defeated a Teutonic force, also consisting largely of mercenaries, near Swiecino in northern Poland. Killed in action was the Teutonic leader Raveneck.

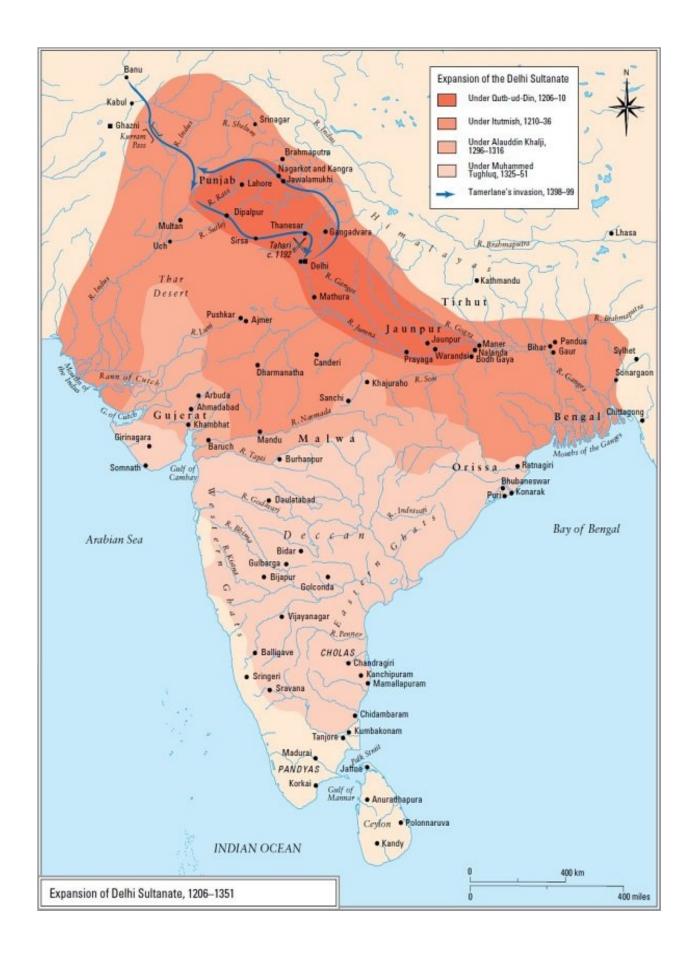
■ZAKOTA SWIEZA, 15 SEPTEMBER 1463

Also known as the battle of Vistula Lagoon, a Teutonic Order fleet was destroyed by a Prussian Confederation fleet allied with Poland, near modern-day Kaliningrad, Russia.

India and South-East Asia 1200–1400

■CONQUEST OF THE DECCAN, 1296–1323

The first stage of the conquest of the Deccan by the Delhi Sultanate began in 1296, when Alauddin Khilji, the son-in-law and commander of Sultan Jalaluddin's armies, raided and plundered Devagiri (Maharashtra). Khilji subsequently murdered the sultan and took control of the sultanate. The wealth of the Kakatiya Kingdom also attracted the attention of Khilji, who launched an attack against its Telugu Province in 1303. His armies were led by Malik Fakruddin, but were heavily defeated by the Kakatiya army in a battle at Upparapalli (Karimnagar District). A second attempt was made in 1309 by Malik Kafur, who managed to capture Siripur and Hanumakonda forts, although the fortress of Warangal was only taken after a prolonged siege. Malik Kafur's forces' atrocities at Warangal intimidated King Prataparudra sufficiently to induce him to offer an enormous amount of tribute, and sue for peace. According to contemporary accounts a total of 241 tonnes of gold, 20,000 horses and 612 elephants laden with the looted treasure (including the Koh-i-Noor diamond, at the time the world's largest diamond) were paraded through Delhi. However, Prataparudra re-asserted his independence in 1320 following the fall of the Khilji Dynasty and the accession of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq as sultan of Delhi. Tughlaq sent his son Ulugh Khan in 1323 to defeat the defiant Kakatiya king. Ulugh Khan's (Muhammad bin Tughluq's) first attack was repulsed but he returned a month later with a larger and reorganized army. The unprepared and battle-weary forces of Warangal were finally defeated, and King Prataparudra was taken prisoner. He committed suicide by drowning himself in the River Narmada while being taken to Delhi.



■MYINSAING, 1299

The Burmese Pagan Empire fragmented into several small rival states following the Mongol capture of its capital in 1287. Antipathy between these states flared up in 1299, provoking a further Mongol attack, which was defeated at Myinsaing.

■CHAKANGRAO, 1376

King Borommaracha I of Ayutthaya attempted to take the city of Chakangrao, which was reinforced by the governor of Nan and his army. This force set an ambush for the Ayutthayan army, but was heavily defeated.

■KAMPHAENG PHAT, 1378

King Borommaracha I launched a further offensive to seize Sukhothai's frontier city, Chakangrao. The king of Sukhothai, Mahathammaracha II, realized the hopelessness of further resistance and surrendered the city. He was allowed to rule part of his former lands as a tributary state of Ayutthaya. The western part of Sukhothai, including Chakangrao, was annexed by Ayutthaya and the cities of Chakangrao and Nakhon Chum were merged under the new name of Khampaeng Phet.

■SAEN SANUK, 1387

King Saen Müang Ma of Chiang Mai foiled an attempted coup by his uncle Prince Phrom, who sought aid from Ayutthaya. King Borommaracha I attacked Chiang Mai, but was defeated in a fierce battle at Saen Sanuk.

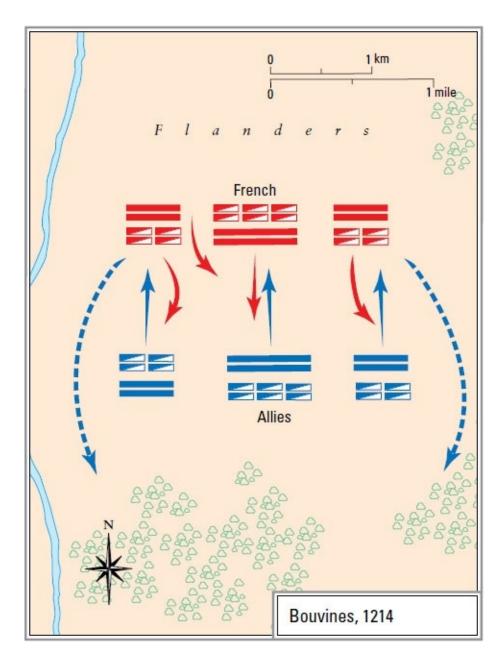
French and Anglo-French Wars 1200–1337

■DAMME, 30–31 MAY 1213

An English expeditionary force caught the fleet of King Philip II of France in the port of Damme and quickly overwhelmed a large portion of it. The action was resumed the next day with an attack on the remainder of the fleet. The English were then repulsed by King Philip's army, which left its siege of Ghent to drive off the numerically inferior English before they could capture Damme itself.

■BOUVINES, 27 JULY 1214

An allied force including troops from the Holy Roman Empire, England and rebellious French provinces met a French army commanded by King Philip II at Bouvines. The French chose the battleground and fought a largely defensive battle against superior numbers. Each of the allies had a different reason for fighting against Phillip, but found a common cause under the command of Otto IV, the Holy Roman Emperor. The allied vanguard engaged as soon as it arrived, bringing about a melée, which the French cavalry on the right wing eventually won. As the remainder of the allied army arrived, it hurried into the attack in a piecemeal fashion, offsetting their numerical advantage. Troops were still arriving to join the right wing of the allied army even after the centre and left had been defeated, but by then the outcome was no longer in doubt.



■Taillebourg, 21 July 1242

Large English and French armies under the command of Henry III and Louis IX respectively clashed at Taillebourg, both seeking to control the strategic river crossing there. A French cavalry charge decided the issue.

First Barons' War and England 1215–24

■ROCHESTER, 1215

Rochester castle blocked King John's route from Dover to London and was besieged. Even after part of the keep was undermined, the defenders made a long and determined resistance until they were eventually starved into submission.

■DOVER, 1216–17

Dover castle was key to communications with France and thus vital to the operations of the French force under Prince Louis, which was assisting the rebel barons against King John. Louis laid siege to the castle in 1216 using land and naval forces. Despite gaining entry by undermining a tower, the French were repulsed and the siege broken off. Operations against Dover Castle were renewed the following year, but Louis was again unsuccessful.

■Lincoln, 20 May 1217

With part of Louis' army involved in siege operations at Dover, the remainder was besieging Lincoln. An English relief army broke the siege and drove the remainder of the French army towards London.

■SANDWICH, 24 AUGUST 1217

After a serious defeat off Dover, the remainder of the French fleet was again brought to action off Sandwich. The loss of his fleet deprived Prince Louis of reinforcements and made his position in England untenable.

■BYTHAM, 1220

Having changed sides several times in the barons' wars, William de Forz rose in rebellion against Henry III. The fall of his castle at Bytham brought his rebellion to a temporary end; he revolted again in 1223.

■BEDFORD, 1224

Bedford castle was besieged for eight weeks by the young king Henry III and eventually fell after four assaults. This brought the surrender of the rebellious Fawkes de Breauté and helped cement Henry's position as king of England.

Iceland 1246

■HAUGSNES, 19 APRIL 1246

Although small by European standards, the clash between two rival chieftains at Haugsnes in 1246 saw the highest casualties (about 100) of any battle in Icelandic history. It established þórður kakali Sighvatsson as the dominant Icelandic leader.

Eastern European and Ottoman Wars 1250–1500

■Kressenbrunn, July 1260

Fighting for control of the duchies of Austria and Styria, the army of King Ottokar II of Bohemia routed that of King Béla IV of Hungary. Both forces were very large and were supplemented by mercenaries.

■BAPHEUS, 27 JULY 1302

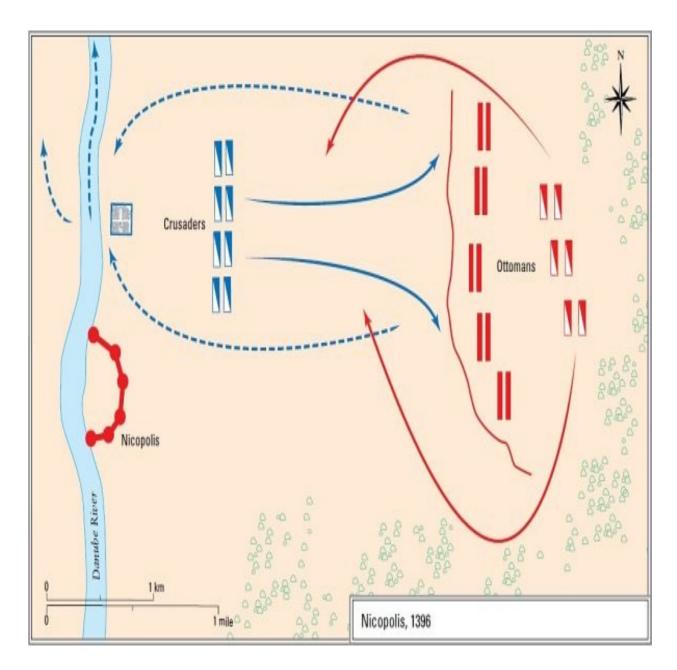
What seemed to be an inconsequential rebellious clan, the Ottoman Turks, led by founder, Osman I, stunned a Byzantine army sent to relieve their siege of Nicaea. The Turkish light cavalry drove the heavier Byzantine forces from the field.

■Pelekanon, 10–11 June 1329

The Ottoman Turks, led by Sultan Orhan I, defeated another Byzantine army, under Andronicus III, attempting to stop their expansion throughout Asia Minor. The smaller, but better-armoured Byzantine forces proved to be no match against the experienced Turks.

■Posada, 9–12 November 1330

Wishing to form an independent political entity, the Wallachians put together a military confederacy that raised an army led by Besarab I. It was a small force, estimated at around 10,000, which was not very experienced in warfare. Facing them was the Angevin king of Hungary, Charles I Robert, whose army was much larger (estimated at 30,000) and far more experienced. Charles Robert took the offensive, attacking Wallachian sites, even if not sympathetic to his opponents. As he pushed further, fewer assisted him. Eventually, his own guides led him into an ambush in the Carpathian Mountains. There, the Wallachians quickly overwhelmed the Hungarians. In order to save himself, Charles Robert was forced to exchange his clothes with one of his soldiers, who was slain shortly thereafter. The Wallachians still had many conflicts to fight, but were effectively on their way to sovereignty.



■Adrianople, 1365

A decade after Adrianople was captured by the Serbs from a weakened Byzantine Empire (1355)— however, it was regained shortly afterwards— the Ottoman Turks defeated the Byzantines outside it, although the city would not fall until 1369.

■Maritsa, 26 September 1371

As the Ottoman Turks moved further into the Balkan peninsula, the declining Serbian Empire determined to stop them. Assembling a large army, with exaggerated estimates of nearly 70,000, the Serbian king Vukašin Mrnjavčević

tried to surprise the Ottomans, but was unable to do so. The smaller Ottoman force, under the able leadership of Lala Şâhin Pascha, defeated the Serbs and killed Vukašin, thus facilitating the conquest of south-eastern Europe.

■SAVRA, 1385

Following Maritsa, the Ottoman Turks lost several engagements against small local armies, but nevertheless moved further into the Balkan peninsula. At Savra, the Turks faced and destroyed another of those forces, led by Balsa Balsich.

■Kosovo, 15 June 1389

Perhaps the first major defence against Ottoman Turkish forces invading the Balkan peninsula was that made by Serbian forces under Prince Lazar Hrebeljanović at Kosovo in 1389. The Turks were led by their Sultan, Murad I. Both armies were large, with (likely exaggerated) numbers always placing the Turks at a two-to-one advantage, athough the Serbians did have some heavy cavalry, which the Turks lacked. The two forces met in an open field, with their soldiers arrayed in a similar formation. The Serbs began the conflict with a heavy cavalry charge which, however, did not force the Turks to flee as was hoped. When the Turks counter-attacked, the Serbs fled and the battle ended. Both sides suffered extremely heavy casualties, including both commanders. Murad's son, Bayezid I, who had proven himself particularly valiant in the battle, succeeded to the Ottoman throne.

■ROVINE, 17 May 1394

After several victories, the large Turkish army, led by Sultan Bayezid I, was defeated by a smaller, but very determined Wallachian force, although there is some dispute as to what caused the Ottoman rout.

■NICOPOLIS, 25 SEPTEMBER 1396

The battle of Nicopolis was the first combined military effort of western European forces in a crusade against the Ottoman Turks. English, French and Burgundian crusaders marched without difficulty through central Europe—where they were joined by Hungarians, Wallachians, Transylvanians, Germans and Knights Hospitallers— and into Ottoman territory south of the Danube river. The initial campaign, including early attacks against fortified Turkish locations, was quite successful, with Vidin and Rahova surrendering after strong Crusader attacks. Eventually, they moved on to besiege Nicopolis. Bayezid I, the Ottoman Turkish Sultan, was attacking the remnants of Byzantium, but he quickly marched to Serbia to counter them.

John the Fearless seemed not to have known Bayezid's plans or progress. In

fact, it was not until the day prior to the battle of Nicopolis, when the Ottomans were less than 7km away, that the crusader leaders learned that a large enemy army led by the Sultan approached their force and wanted to fight a battle. The crusaders broke off their siege of Nicopolis and prepared for a battle outside its walls. Both sides are said to have numbered more than 100,000, but are likely to have been between 12,000 and 15,000. The crusaders were led by a number of different generals: John the Fearless, Count of Charolais and heir to the Duchy of Burgundy; Philip of Artois, the Constable of France; Jean II le Meingre dit Boucicault, the Marshal of France; Jean de Vienne, the Admiral of France; Guillaume de la Trémoille, the Marshal of Burgundy; Sir Enguerrand de Coucy VII and the Hungarian king, Sigismund I.

Sigismund, the most experienced against the Ottomans, recommended that the Hungarians and other central European troops, almost entirely infantry, should be in the front of the crusader forces. He suggested that they meet the irregular infantry of the Turks who were always in front of their army. He would take a defensive stance to provoke the Ottomans into a charge that might be defeated at the contact of the two infantry forces or reinforced by the strong Franco-Burgundian cavalry in the second rank. However, Sigismund was overruled by the Franco-Burgundians. They believed that a heavy cavalry charge would defeat the Turks.

They charged headlong into the Turks, standing behind a line of stakes. Initially, the shock of this charge brought success, breaking through the stakes and pushing the Turkish irregular infantry back. However, these troops did not break, quickly reforming before a second attack could be made. That charge also pushed the Ottoman vanguard back, but did not break it and, when a counterattack came from Bayezid's regular troops, the crusaders were finished. Although some German and Hungarian infantry tried to reinforce their cavalry, all were quickly defeated.

The battle of Nicopolis lasted only a very short time, no more than an hour. King Sigismund and his army, which had not participated in the battle because it had been so short, retreated to the Danube, boarded boats and sailed back to Buda.

The many captives were executed, until John the Fearless's nobility was recognized and some of the European nobles became held for ranson. No more than 300, from a total of up to 6000, were spared. The Turks had also suffered numerous losses, but far fewer than the crusaders.

■Vorskla River, 12 August 1399

Wishing to halt the Golden Horde's expansion into north-eastern Europe, Grand Duke Vytautas of Lithuania formed an alliance of forces, including Teutonic Knights. led from their *Wagenburg* ('wagon fort') by a Mongol feigned retreat, the Europeans were defeated with heavy casualties.

■SUDOMER, 25 MARCH 1420

Allied central European Catholic forces attacked the Hussities almost immediately after Pope Martin V called a crusade against them. In their second battle, the battle of Sudomer, the Hussites prevailed, using a wagenburg field fortification. Jan Žižka emerged here as an effective general.

■Prague, 12 June 1420

The citizens of Prague joined the Hussite rebellion in 1419. Answering the call to crusade, a large German army arrived outside Prague on 12 June, but their siege was raised by the arrival of Žižka's soldiers.

■VITKOV HILL, 12–14 JULY 1420

Following their relief of Prague, a Hussite force of 9000 retreated to nearby earthen fortifications. Armed mainly with agricultural implements and some rudimentary gunpowder weapons, the Hussite heretics on Vitkov Hill were attacked by Holy Roman Emperor Sigismund's army. However, Jan Žižka's peasant army's surprise flanking attack routed the crusaders.

■Vyšehrad, 1420

A Catholic force from Plzeň was intercepted on their way to relieve Emperor Sigismund by soldiers under Jan Žižka. The Hussites, using their artillery-filled wagons, fired gunpowder artillery at the crusaders, chasing them from the field with heavy casualties.

■KUTNÁ HORA, 21 DECEMBER 1421

Jan Žižka's Hussites once more defeated the crusaders in December 1421. Emperor Sigismund's superior forces surrounded the Hussites, but, after forming a column of cavalry and wagens, Žižka pushed his way through their lines and routed them.

■Nebovidy, 6 January 1422

Having chased Sigismund from Bohemia, Jan Žižka went on the offensive by attacking the fortification at Nebovidy. The Hungarian garrison was small and easily defeated. The Hussite victory forced Sigismund from his winter quarters.

■Německý Brod (Deutschbrod), 1422

Two days after his victory at Nebovidy, Jan Žižka attacked Sigismund's relief army, defeating it and causing heavy casualties. Some crusaders escaped to nearby Německý Brod, which the Hussites quickly captured, massacring the inhabitants.

■Hoice, 27 April 1423

Having defeated the crusaders, the Hussites fell into two militant factions, the Taborites and the Ultraquists. Equal in numbers, the Taborites, led by Jan Žižka, defeated the Ultraquists of Čeněk of Wartenberg, ending the civil war.

■Aussig (Ústi nad Labem), 16 June 1426

Trying to take advantage of Žižka's death in 1424, another crusade was called against the Hussites. The response resulted in a huge army entering Bohemia. Learning from previous experience, the crusaders had built their own artillery-laden wagons. However, the Hussites held the higher ground, negating the effect of the crusaders' artillery. The crusaders' charge was initially successful, but their impetus failed and, fatigued, they were quickly defeated, with heavy losses.

■KHIROKITIA, 7 JULY 1426

Attempting to halt the piracy of his ships, Barsbay, Mamluk sultan of Egypt, invaded Cyprus. His 5000-man army defeated the 4600 soldiers of King Janus of Cyprus. Janus, taken prisoner, agreed to become the vassal of Egypt.

■Domažlice, 14 August 1431

A crusading army besieging Domažlice was surprised by a Hussite army, led by Prokop the Bald, thought to be many kilometres north. The sight of the approaching and singing Hussite relief army led to mass panicking among the crusaders, who fled, with the Hussite army killing many.

■Lipany (Ěesky-Brod), 30 May 1434

Once again, the crusade having been quelled, Taborite Hussites faced Ultraquist Hussites (with Catholic allies) in a religious war. Lured from their *Wagenburg* by a feigned retreat, the Taborites were defeated by cavalry attack and artillery fire.

■GROTNIKI, 4 MAY 1439

The end of the Hussites came when Polish crusaders, led by Hińcza of Rogów, defeated a small force, led by Spytko of Melsztyn, in a quick and ruthless battle of which few details are known.

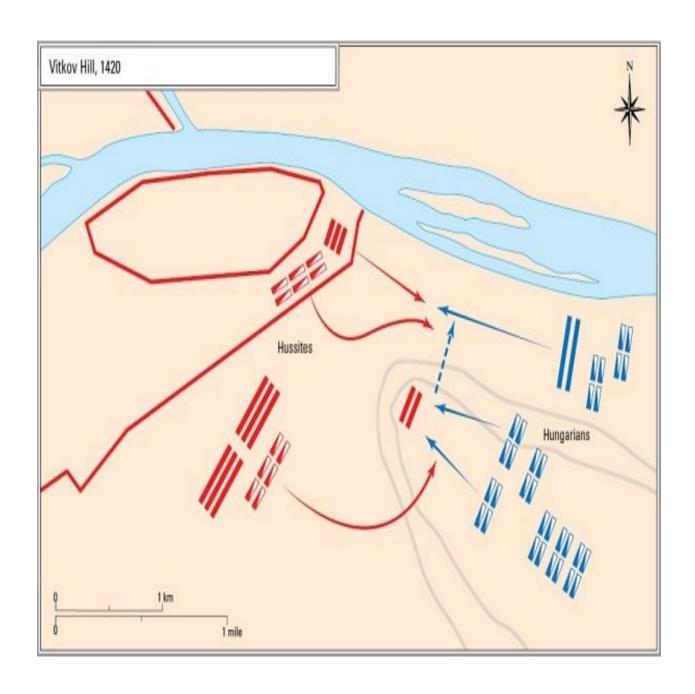
■ZLATICA, 1443

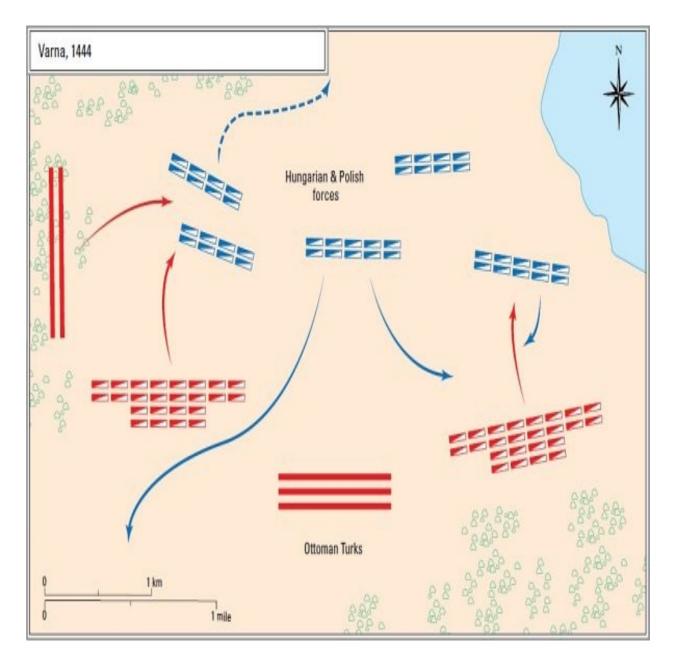
After several defeats in the Balkans against the forces of János Hunyadi, the Ottoman Turks, led by Sultan Murad II, defeated the Hungarians and their allies,

the Poles and Serbs, in a mountain pass.

■VARNA, 10 NOVEMBER 1444

Following on his victory the previous year, Sultan Murad II's large army of Ottoman Turks soundly defeated a smaller crusading force primarily drawn from central Europe. It was the last serious attempt by Christian Europe to save Constantinople from Ottoman rule. Folowing pleas from the Byzantines, Pope Eugenius IV agreed to organize a crusade. Largely composed of Hungarians, Germans and Poles, the 25,000-strong Crusader army was led by Hungarian king Ulászló I. With a force of 40–50,000 troops, Murad II's army met the Christians near Lake Varna, close to the Black Sea coast. During the battle Ulászló and many of his knights were killed after an unsuccessful charge against the elite Janissary infantry in the Ottoman centre. At the end of the day both sides disengaged, with no clear victor. The Christian losses were so heavy, however, that their army soon disintegrated and retreated from Ottoman territory.





■Kosovo, 17–20 October 1448

A second battle at Kosovo was fought between the Ottoman Turks, led by their sultan, Murad II and the Hungarians, led by János Hunyadi. The Serbs, who controlled the area where the battle was fought, tried to remain neutral, although their territory suffered from the destruction of both forces. Both armies were large, although the numbers reported— which place the Turks at a significant advantage (24,000 against 40,000—60,000)— are certainly exaggerated. Both also had fairly large numbers of gunpowder weapons, which opened the battle with a strong, but ineffective barrage. The Hungarians then charged their cavalry, which

was initially successful, but soon became fatigued and impotent. The Turkish janissaries held and other troops rallied around them. After a long and costly battle, the Hungarians fled, followed by their remaining forces. The Serbs captured Hunyadi, who was only released when a ransom of 100,000 florins was paid.

■Belgrade, 4–22 July 1456

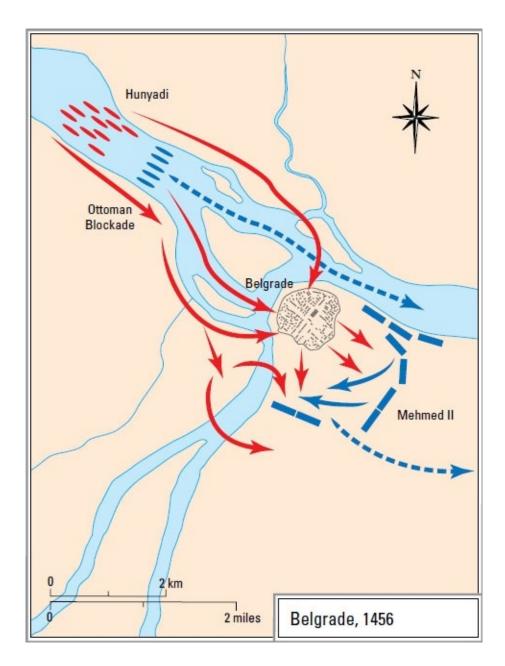
The Serbian capital Belgrade had remained an island of defiance against the Ottomans in the Balkans. Sultan Mehmed II (the Conqueror) tried to follow up his victory at Constantinople by besieging Belgrade. But, despite having the same gunpowder artillery arsenal, he could not bring down these walls. A counter-attack launched by the townspeople, inspired by septuagenarian Franciscan friar Giovanni da Capistrano, forced the Turks into flight, with Mehmed only barely escaping capture.

■DIREPTATEA, APRIL 1457

In a battle for the right to rule Moldavia, the army of Ştefan cel Mare, in alliance with Vlad III Dracul (the Impaler), defeated that of Petru Aron and he was crowned Stephen III of Moldavia.

■Trabzon, 1461

The last remnant of the Byzantine Empire, Trebizond, on the south-eastern coast of the Black Sea, was attacked by Ottoman sultan Mehmed II. Besieging the capital city, Trabzon, Mehmed quickly forced the city into submission.



■The Night Attack, 17 June 1462

Vlad III's invasion of Bulgaria led to an attested 23,000 impalements of Bulgarians and Turks. Ottoman sultan Mehmed II responded by invading Bulgaria and Transylvania. Wanting to stop this invasion, but thinking that he lacked sufficient soldiers to fight a battle against Mehmed's troops, Vlad launched a night attack the Turkish camp. He hoped to cause confusion among the Ottomans and (possibly) assassinate the sultan. He did cause confusion, but neither killed Mehmed nor discouraged the Turks to end their invasion. Mehmed pursued the retreating Wallachians, reaching the capital, Târgoviste, but retreated

on finding that Vlad had impaled a further 20,000 of his men.

■LIPNIC, 20 AUGUST 1470

Testing the weakness of eastern Europe, Golden Horde leader Ahmed Khan simultaneously attacked Poland, Moldavia and Lithuania. These invasions ended when the Moldavian king Stephen III defeated a large force retreating to Horde lands with booty and slaves.

■Negropont, 1470

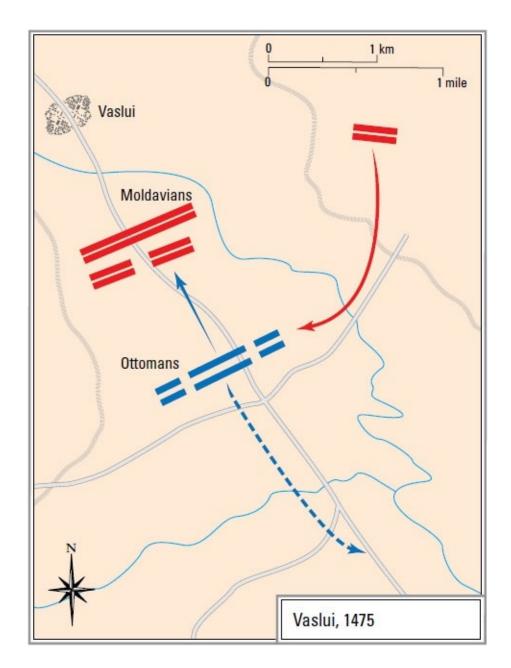
The Ottoman army, led by Sultan Mehmed II, was besieging Negropont when a Venetian fleet arrived to relieve the city. However, the admiral, Nicolò Canale, retreated rather than face the Turkish fleet and the city surrendered.

■OTLUKBELI, 11 AUGUST 1473

After defeating the Byzantines, Sultan Mehmed II turned to the remnants of Mongol-controlled Asia Minor. One of these areas, the Ak Koyunlu (White Sheep), which had few soldiers and no gunpowder weapons, were easily defeated.

■Vaslui, 10 January 1475

The only question about the Ottoman Turkish invasions by the mid-fifteenth century was how far north or west in Europe they would go. The Turks had already conquered the Byzantine Empire and much of the Balkans; they showed no stopping. No kingdom was more active against the Turks than Moldavia. A large army of Moldavians, led by their king, Stephen III, faced an even larger army of Turks under Hadân Suleiman Pasha, the Beylerbey of Rumelia outside of Visuli. The Moldavians attacked with gunpowder artillery, handguns and bows, then launched their cavalry at the Turks, who were having difficulty seeing what was happening through the cold January fog. The Ottomans remained confused, until they fled or surrendered. The latter were impaled, with only the commanders being preserved. However, the defeat was far from decisive as the Turks would return the next year.



■VALEA ALBA, 26 JULY 1476

Allied with the Crimean Khanate, Mehmed II again tried invading Moldavia. Arrayed in a forest, the Moldavians initially withstood Ottoman attacks using intensive handgun fire and forcing the attackers to suspend their assaults. Mehmed, using his own guards, rallied his janissaries, who eventually charged the forest and defeated the Wallachians. Both sides took heavy casualties. However, the Turks could not capitalize on their victory, being decimated by ensuing months of starvation and plague.

■Shkodër, 1478–1479

Albania had resisted Ottoman control, although Mehmed II determined to change that. Shkodër was besieged and, despite being bombarded continually by gunpowder artillery, hung on for nine months until the Ottomans allowed the citizens to leave.

■Breadfield, 13 October 1479

Wanting to repeat the success of his father, János Hunyadi, Hungarian king Matthias Corvinus determined to halt Turkish progress in the Balkans. Mustering a force of Hungarians and other Christian soldiers, he fought a larger Ottoman army. Early on, the Ottomans held sway, but eventually the Hungarians wore them down, causing them to flee. No quarter was given to the Turks, who were pursued and killed.

■RHODES, 1480

The Knights Hospitaller had held the island of Rhodes, 26km off the coast of Asia Minor, since 1306. Their navy constantly harassed ships coming to or from the Ottoman Turkish ports. Sultan Mehmed II decided finally to put an end to this piracy. On his deathbed, he sent a large expeditionary force to the island in May 1480. They would besiege the fortifications for the next four months, using a large number of gunpowder weapons to bring the Hospitallers to surrender. But, assisted by the townspeople, they did not surrender, resisting attacks on Fort St Nicholas in the harbour and the Jewish quarter on the eastern side. Having suffered heavy casualties, the Turks retreated to the mainland and gave up their siege. It would be another 42 years before Rhodes would be attacked again.

■OTRANTO 1480–81

A sizeable Ottoman army attacked Otranto, quickly defeating the city and castle. From the city, the Turks made several raids on southern Italy. However, their occupation was brief as Ferrante, King of Sicily, retook Otranto in September 1481.

■YENIEHIR, 1481

Bayezid and Cem, Mehmed II's sons, fought a brief war to succeed him. This first battle was won by Bayezid, but Cem was able to escape and return with Mamluk supporters. He lost again and was sent into exile.

■Krbava Field, 9 September 1493

Pushing into Croatia, Ottoman armies faced little united resistance. Finally, several local lords combined in one army, led by Mirko Derenčin. However, these were inexperienced men fighting very experienced soldiers. Their enthusiasm quickly gave way to defeat.

■ZONCHIO, 25 AUGUST 1499

For four days, Ottoman and Venetian ships fought in the Ionian Sea. The conflict went back and forth, with Venetian and Ottoman ships changing hands and at least one sunk by gunpowder artillery. Eventually, the Ottomans prevailed.

Wars of Sicily, Sardinia and Italy 1250–1500

■Cingoli, 1250

A Sicilian-Guelph invasion of southern Italy by Cardinal Pietro Capoccio was so resoundingly defeated by Imperial-Ghibelline troops that the baggage train— a large stock of papal arms— was captured. Capoccio escaped disguised as a mendicant friar.

■Montebruno, 25 February 1255

At Montebruno, the army of one of the Guelph claimants—Thomas II of Savoy, Count of Flanders— was defeated by an army of Ghibelline citizens from Asti and the surrounding regions. Thomas was captured in the battle.

■MONTAPERTI, 4 SEPTEMBER 1260

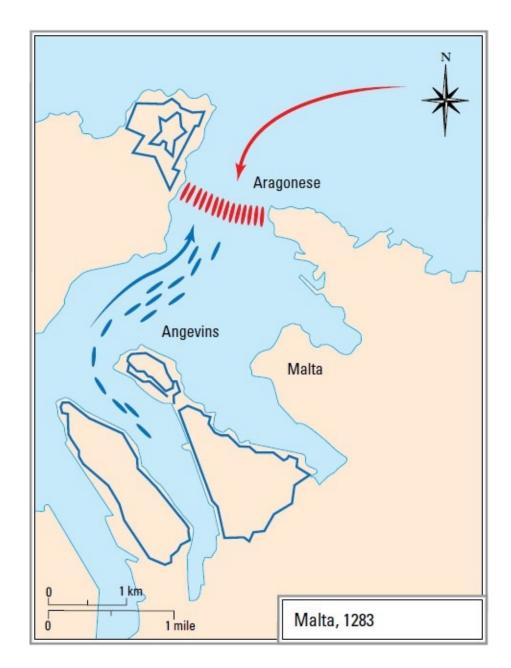
One of the largest of the Guelph-Ghibelline battles was fought between Florence and Siena at Montperti, outside the walls of Siena. The Sienese (Ghibellines), even with German heavy cavalry mercenaries, were outnumbered by more experienced Florentines (Guelphs). Both sides launched charges at each other, but the battle was likely decided by an act of treachery, when Florentine Bocca degli Abati, switching sides, caused a rout by the Guelph troops.

■Benevento, 26 February 1266

The forces of Charles of Anjou and Manfred of Sicily fought the most decisive battle of the Guelph-Ghibelline Wars. Manfred's army was better experienced and armed, although not more numerous, but Charles placed his soldiers in a defensive formation and forced Manfred's troops to cross a bridge before they attacked. Several charges could not break Charles' formation and he eventually gained victory, although with heavy casualties on both sides (including Manfred).

■Trapani, 1266

Venetian-Genoese competition in the eastern Mediterranean resulted in this naval battle. Venetian galleys, numbering 24, led by Jacopo Dandolo, fought with 27 Genoese galleys, led by Lanfranco Borbonino. The Genoese were quickly defeated.



■DESIO, 21 JANUARY 1277

In 1277 at Desio, control of the very important northern Italian city of Milan was decided between forces of the Visconti and Della Torre families. Interestingly, both families were led by ecclesiastical leaders, Ottone Visconti, Archbishop of Milan, and Raimondo della Torre, Bishop of Como. Visconti soldiers, taking refuge in the walled town of Desio, were attacked by the Della Torres, who eventually forced the gates open, but fell to defeat in fighting among the streets with both sides taking heavy casualties. As a consequence, the Viscontis assumed rule in Milan.

■MALTA, 8 JULY 1283

During the War of the Sicilian Vespers, an Aragonese fleet, commanded by Roger of Lauria, soundly defeated an Angevin-Napolese fleet, commanded by William Cornut (who was killed), in the harbour mouth of Malta.

■GULF OF NAPLES, 5 JUNE 1284

Roger of Lauria proved his naval expertise by attacking the Neapolitan fleet, commanded by Charles II, in their home port. Lauria feigned a retreat, allowing his own galleys to surround and attack the less experienced Neapolitan galleys.

■Meloria, 6 August 1284

Genoa, competing economically with Pisa, chose to settle matters in a large naval battle, with estimations of Genoese 88 galleys vs 72 Pisan ones. The more experienced Genoese made quick work of the Pisans.

■LES FORMIGUES (LAS HORMIGAS), 4 SEPTEMBER 1285

Fighting at night, Roger of Lauria's expertise and experience led to yet another victory in the War of the Sicilian Vespers. His Aragonese galleys destroyed more than half of the opposing Franco-Genoese galleys.

■THE COUNTS, 23 JUNE 1287

Roger of Lauria's next victory was near Naples when his 40–45 Aragonese galleys defeated a superior Angevin fleet of 70 galleys. His less experienced opponents were forced to manoeuvre until confused and easily defeated.

■CAMPALDINO, 11 JUNE 1289

In northern Italy, the larger towns—Florence, Pistoia, Lucca, Siena and Prato in this case— often favoured the pro-papal Guelphs— as they were likely to gain more economic and political sovereignty, while smaller towns— Arezzo— and principalities favoured the pro-imperial Ghibellines. The Guelph army adopted a defensive formation and, although Ghibelline charges pushed their centre formation back, Guelph counter-attacks eventually defeated them, causing huge Ghibelline casualties.

■Curzota, 1296

In one of the numerous naval battles between Venice and Genoa for control of the Mediterranean Sea, Genoese galleys defeated Venetian ones. Marco Polo, recently returned from China, fought among the Venetians.

■Curzola, 8 September 1298

A Genoese fleet of 66–75 galleys, led by Lamba Doria, defeated a larger Venetian fleet of 95 galleys, commanded by Andrea Doria, off the coast of

Dalmatia. Marco Polo was among those captured by Genoa.

■Ponza, 14 June 1300

Roger of Lauria continued to win naval battles during the War of the Sicilian Vespers with his—by then—very experienced Aragonese-Angevin galley crews. His fleet, outnumbering an opposing fleet of Sicilian galleys, captured 26 galleys.

■Montecatini, 29 August 1315

The combined Florentine and Napolese army significantly outnumbered the Pisans. However, the Pisans, commanded by the *condottere* (mercenary) Uguccione della Faggiuola, outmanoeuvred their opponents, defeating them and causing huge casualties (including members of all Florentine noble families).

■ZAPPOLINO, 15 NOVEMBER 1325

The Ghibellines of Modena faced the Guelphs of Bologna with equal numbers of cavalry, but a significantly smaller number of infantry. Yet the Modenese fought with greater unity and intelligence, more than making up for their numerical inferiority.

■PARABIAGIO, 20–21 FEBRUARY 1339

Mercenaries (*condottieri*) were used by everyone in northern Italy during the fourteenth century. When not employed, they often operated as private armies, raiding at will to keep occupied and supplied. At Parabiagio, the Milanese decided to put an end to one of these armies. Interestingly, both sides were commanded by Visconti brothers. On the point of collapse, the Milanese rallied and eventually defeated the *condottieri*, with heavy casualties on both sides.

■GAMENARIO, 22 APRIL 1345

A Guelph queen of Naples, Joan I, seemingly pursuing peace, had her armies besieged at the Piedmontese castle of Gamenario. However, Ghibelline forces, under John II, Marquess of Montferrat, soundly defeated them in a battle fought nearby.

■Porto San Lorenzo, 20 November 1347

Several Roman nobles and their retainers, including Stefano Colonna the Younger, tried to put down Cola di Rienzo's rebellion by force. Rienzo discovered and defeated this 'army' at the gate of San Lorenzo, with Colonna dying in the melée.

■Bosporus, 13 February 1352

To combat a Byzantine trade monopoly with the Venetians, a Genoese fleet

fought a similarly sized Venetian fleet in the Bosporus strait. After a long and bloody battle lasting well into the night, the Venetians withdrew.

■Alghero, 25 August 1353

Using their support of Aragonese claims to Sardinia as provocation for further conflict, a Venetian fleet fought and defeated a Genoese fleet off Alghero, although it had little overall effect on the continual warfare between these Italian states.

■Modon, 1354

Wintering on the island of Sapienza and with two-thirds of their vessels beached, a Venetian fleet, led by Niccolò Pisani, was surprised by a Genoese fleet, led by Paganino Doria, who took most of the ships as prizes.

■Cascina, 28 July 1364

Pisans and Florentines had fought against each other for several centuries, with little territory exchanged over that time. In the most recent engagements, both towns employed large numbers of mercenary forces, with those of Pisa led by the famous *condottieri*, John Hawkwood and Hanneken von Baumgarten.

Recently, they had led Pisan troops to several victories. In response, Florence replaced the ineffective Pandolfo II Malatesta with his cousin, Galeotto, insisting on positive results. The two armies met near Pisa, just outside Cascina, on the hot evening of 28 July 1364. The Florentines had camped and were resting, when Hawkwood and Baumgarten decided to attack their camp. The Florentines were surprised, but fought diligently and regrouped, counter-attacking the Pisans and driving them from the field. Both sides took huge casualties, especially among the Pisan mercenaries. However, Malatesta did not advance on Pisa and thus the city remained outside Florentine control for another 38 years.

■Cesena, 1377

During the War of the Eight Saints, the rebellion of the small town of Cesena against the papacy provoked its recapture by *condottieri* leader John Hawkwood and Robert, Cardinal of Geneva. In retaliation, the cardinal, serving as papal legate for the expedition, supervised a massacre of between 2500 and 5000 citizens as punishment, gaining for himself the name 'The Butcher of Cesena'.

■CHIOGGIA, AUGUST 1379–JUNE 1380

The Genoese captured Chiogga in the Venetian lagoon in summer 1379. Outmanoeuvring the Genoese fleet, that of Venice, led by Carlo Zeno, blockaded Chioggia. With no relief, after holding out for several months, the Genoese surrendered.

■Castagnaro, 11 March 1387

John Hawkwood, employed as captain of the Paduan army, lured the Veronese to a field outside Castagnaro. Foolishly, the Veronese attempted to attack the Paduans, appearing to be haphazardly arrayed next to a canal, by crossing a make-shift bridge of fascines. However, when Hawkwood's cavalry charged from the nearby woods, the Veronese were quickly routed, in what must have been one of the shortest battles in medieval history.

■ALESSANDRIA, 1391

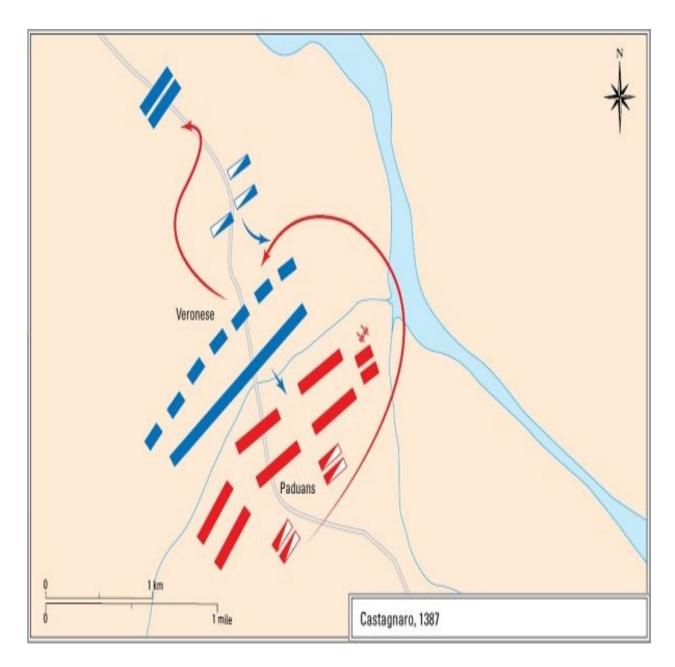
After losing several battles to the Florentines, mostly against John Hawkwood, a Milanese force under Jacopo dal Verme surprised a French army outside Alessandria. The French, led by Count Jean III of Armagnac, were crushed, with Armagnac himself killed.

■Portomaggiore, 16 April 1395

Azzo X d'Este's dispute with his family over control of Ferrara led to an attempt to capture the city. However, his army of 8000 *condottieri* were soundly defeated by Venetian allies of the Ferrarese and imprisoned.

■Casalecchio, 26 June 1402

In 1402, armies of Bologna and Florence, led by Giovanni I Bentivoglio, were allied against those of Milan, Rimini and Mantua, led by Gian Galeazzo Visconti, Duke of Milan. The war was short-lived, however, as the Bolognese-Florentines were soundly defeated at Casalecchio.



■SANLURI, 30 JUNE 1409

Fighting for the island of Sardinia, a smaller Spanish-Sicilian army of King Martin I of Sicily defeated an army largely of Franco-Italian mercenaries. However, Martin was unable to profit from this victory as he died shortly afterwards.

■Arbedo, 30 June 1422

Milan's defence relied on the control of fortifications along the alpine passes. The Swiss cantons of Uri and Unterwalden bought the well-fortified town of Bellinzona, but then refused to resell it to the Milanese, who tried taking it by

force. The Swiss chose to fight, initially stopping the Milanese cavalry, but could not sustain their efforts and were virtually annihilated.

■L'AQUILA, 1424

Braccio da Montone, leading a Neapolitan army, had laid siege to l'Aquila for 13 years when a force of Angevins, under Muzio Attendolo and Francesco Sforza, came to relieve the city, defeating the Napolese and killing Braccio.

■ZAGONARA, 28 JULY 1424

Florence and Milan hired numerous *condottieri* to fight several wars in Lombardy. Attempting to raise the Milanese siege of Zagonara, laid by Angelo della Pergola, a Florentine force, led by Carlo I Malatesta, fought a lengthy battle and were ultimately defeated.

■Soncino, March 1431

The first of two battles between the Milanese and Venetians in 1431, this one on land. Francesco I Sforza led the Milanese in a surprise attack of the Venetians, capturing more than 2000 men.

■PAVIA (BATTLE OF THE PO), 6 JUNE 1431

A riverine battle between galley fleets from Venice, trying to aid their recently defeated army and Milan. After a lengthy conflict, the larger Milanese fleet defeated the Venetians, who suffered heavy losses in men and galleys.

■SAN ROMANO, 1 JUNE 1432

The Chianti region had been fought over by Florence and Siena for centuries. However, the battle near Florence is most famous because it was memorialized in Paolo Uccelo's famous painting. The Florentines, led by Niccolò da Tolentino, met the invading Sienese, led by Francesco Piccinino. The battle, by similarly sized forces, lasted more than six hours and ended with no definitive result, although the Sienese returned to Siena.

■DELEBIO, 18–19 NOVEMBER 1432

Late in 1431 Venice invaded the Valtelina. In November 1432, the duke of Milan, Filippo Maria Visconti, took a small army into the region, fighting two battles near Delebio, both of which losses by Venice.

■Ponza, 5 August 1435

Fighting for control of the western Mediterranean, a Genoese fleet defeated an Aragonese one, capturing the future king of Aragon, Alfonso V **Anghiari, 29**June 1440

Filippo Maria Visconti, Duke of Milan, had so infuriated other Italian states that

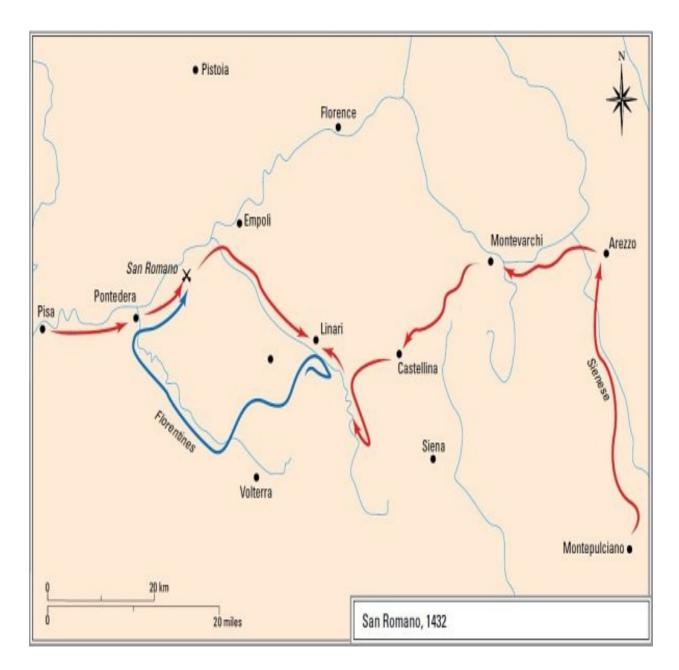
an Italian League of the Republics of Venice and Florence and the Papal States joined against him. The League attacked Anghiari and won, despite the Milanese outnumbering them.

■CARAVAGGIO, 15 SEPTEMBER 1448

Although the Italian League fell apart, Venice remained at war with Milan. Both fielded armies of *condottieri*. The Milanese, a republic for only a brief time, were led by Francesco Sforza, later Duke of Milan, who defeated the Venetians.

■SARNO, 1460

The fight to claim Naples between the Angevins and Aragonese took an Angevin turn when they ambushed an army led by King Ferdinand I. He escaped utter defeat and capture only when relieved by a nearby garrison.



■MOLINELLA, 25 JULY 1467

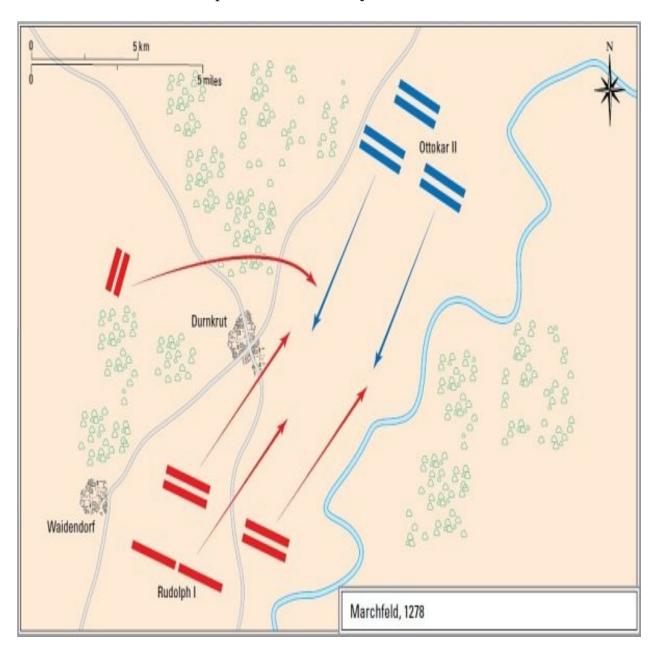
Venice and Florence fought again in 1467. The battle was fought along the Idice river, near the village of Molinella. The armies were equal in numbers and technology, including artillery, but ended essentially without a clear victor. The Venetian general, *condottiere* Bartolomeo Colleoni, decided not to advance on Milan.

■MACOMER, 14 MAY 1478

The Aragonese finally conquered Sardinia when they faced Leonardo Alagon, Marquis of Oristano. The local militias, a large part of the Sardinian force, could not compete against the more professional Aragonese and were soundly defeated.

■CAMPOMORTO, 21 AUGUST 1482

In an early battle of the War of Ferrara, fought between the Papal States and Ferrara (with many allies on both sides), the papal army, led by Roberto Malatesta, defeated a Neapolitan force, led by Alfonso, Duke of Calabria.



Monarchic, Imperial and Noble Wars of Western Europe 1250–1500

■TAGLIACOZZO, 23 AUGUST 1268

The Ghibelline Conrad V (Conradin) challenged the Guelph Charles of Anjou for the Sicilian crown. The Ghibellines had seemingly won the battle, before the Guelphs lured them into a trap and chased them from the field.

■ROCCAVIONE, 12 DECEMBER 1275

Charles of Anjou's Guelph army was defeated by northern Italian Ghibellines. Numbers, experience and technology being equal, it is likely that the Ghibellines choosing the field and using defensive tactics was what won the battle in their favour.

■MARCHFELD, 26 August 1278

Trying to exert his claim to the Holy Roman Empire, Ottokar II, King of Bohemia, campaigned in the Austrian lands of Emperor Rudolph I, with the two eventually meeting at the battle of Marchfeld. After a gruelling summer battle between heavy knights, which essentially ended in a draw, Rudolph's concealed reinforcements attacked Ottokar's flank and drove the Bohemians from the field, although without Ottokar, who had been slain.

■WORRINGEN, 5 JUNE 1288

A German army of Heinrich VI, count of Luxembourg and Siegfried II, Archbishop of Cologne, attacked the Brabantese besiegers of Worringen, led by Duke Jan I. The Brabantese won after killing Heinrich and capturing Siegfried.

■Furnes, 20 August 1297

Guy de Dampierre, Count of Flanders, fought a French force led by Robert II of Artois. The French trounced the Flemings, although both armies were similar in size, type and technology. Guy was captured and imprisoned.

■GOLDEN SPURS (COURTRAI), 11 JULY 1302

Flemish townspeople rose against French political and economic rule by massacring a garrison of soldiers in Bruges. Following this, the Flemings besieged Courtrai castle, while the French army marched north. The Flemings dug ditches on the battlefield—some filling them with water from the Lys river—and ordered their forces in solid lines behind them. Several French cavalry charges were repulsed, with many knights killed, before the French fled, giving

the Flemings victory.

■Mons-en-Pévèle, 18 August 1304

The Flemish army faced a large French army, fighting an unusually long battle that ended with neither side controlling the battlefield. However, with their leader, Willem von Jülich, slain, the Flemings withdrew.

■GAMMELSDORF, 9 NOVEMBER 1313

Gammelsdorf was fought between two cousins claiming the German throne: Frederick I, Duke of Austria and Louis, Duke of Bavaria. Louis' soldiers, mostly Bavarian militia, defeated the Austrians more numerous and largely cavalry force.

■Morgarten, 15 November 1315

In Morgarten Pass, Austrian Duke Leopold I, with a largely cavalry army of 2000–3000, was ambushed by 3000–4000 Swiss peasants, who shot arrows at and rolled stones and logs onto them. The Austrians fled, taking huge casualties.

■Cassel, 23 August 1328

The county of Flanders rebelled against France in 1323, although the French did not respond until 1328. At that time, a large army, led by recently crowned Philip VI, surrounded an equally large Flemish force positioned in Cassel, on a hill 176m high. After several days, the Flemish soldiers attacked the French camp, nearly capturing the king. However, a French response routed the rebels, who suffered huge losses.

■CHAMPTOCEAUX, 14–16 OCTOBER 1341

In the first large conflict of the Breton Civil War, Charles of Blois, allied to the French, besieged Champtoceaux from 10 October to 26 October. John of Montfort, allied to the English, attempted to relieve the siege but, despite coming close to capturing Charles at one point, he failed to do so and retreated, leading to the fall of the town and a shift in the war to Charles.

■STAVEREN, 26 SEPTEMBER 1345

To subdue Frisian rebels, armies of William IV, Count of Holland, Hainaut and Zeeland, landed on the beach near Staveren, where the local forces, fighting tenaciously from trenches with pikes, spears and swords, defeated them.

■BAESWEILER, 22 AUGUST 1371

Wenceslas, Duke of Brabant, led an army into Jülich to punish Duke William VI for not protecting travelling merchants. The Jülich army outnumbered the Brabantese, who were in disarray from the outset and defeated them fairly

quickly.

■SEMPACH, 9 JULY 1386

In an effort to regain some of the lands and control lost by the Austrians over the previous 75 years, as well as to counter recent raids into their lands, Duke Leopold III invaded Switzerland in 1386. Their opponents were an alliance of cantons, the Old Swiss Confederacy, principally Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden. Leopold's army outnumbered the Swiss, and included a large number of heavy cavalry. Initially, the Austrians were successful, but, during a battle fought on 9 July 1386 outside the town of Sempach, the Swiss duplicated the results of their ancestors. Learning from past mistakes of fighting against the unconventional Swiss, the Austrians dismounted their cavalry, but they were unaccustomed to fighting in this way and were hindered by their heavier and hotter armour. The Swiss simply outlasted them. Among the dead was Leopold and a number of his greater nobles.

■BILEĆA, 27 AUGUST 1388

The Ottoman Turks seemed unstoppable as they invaded south-eastern Europe. Only rarely did they face setbacks. One was when a Bosnian army defeated an Ottoman force outside of the town of Bileća.

■OTHÉE, 23 SEPTEMBER 1408

Following an ineffectual artillery duel, the Burgundians, led by Count John the Fearless, quickly defeated the rebelling Liégeois by charging into their lines and, with a small force, circling around and attacking from the rear.

■LA ROCHELLE, 1419

A Castilian fleet allied to the French was intercepted by an English fleet off the coast of La Rochelle. The Castilians won, but could not keep the English from controlling the Channel.

■Brustem, 28 October 1467

The Liégeois, inexperienced in fighting battles, gathered an army and met the Burgundians, led by Charles the Bold, at Brustem, where they were soundly defeated. Charles then besieged and sacked Liège, ending their rebellion.

■Neuss, 29 July 1474–27 June 1475

Assisting the Archbishop of Cologne, Charles the Bold laid siege to Neuss. The Burgundians possessed a large gunpowder artillery train and the walls held for nearly a year until a German army defeated the fatigued Burgundians.

■Nancy, 5 January 1477

Following defeats against the Swiss at Grandson and Murten the previous year, Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, gathered what forces and artillery he had left to meet the rebellion of Lorraine at Nancy on 5 January 1477. Heavily outnumbered by their opponents, the Burgundians were defeated by infantry forces; Charles was among those killed.

■Cosmin Forest (Codrii), 26 October 1497

John I, King of Poland, and Ştefan cel Mare, Prince of Moldavia, decided a border dispute in the Cosmin Forest. Surprising the Poles, the Moldavians fought for three days until forcing them out of Moldavia.

The Iberian Peninsular and Balearic Islands 1250–1500

■HALMYROS, 15 MARCH 1311

Walter V of Brienne, the Frankish duke of Athens, dismissed the mercenary Catalan Company without settling its arrears of pay. The Catalan's 2000 cavalry and 4000 infantry deployed on the plain of Orchomenus, near the Cephissus river, flooding the fields in front of their position. Walter launched a frontal attack with his 6000 cavalry and 8000 infantry, which bogged down in the swampy ground and was decisively defeated by the lightly equipped mercenaries.

■MANOLADA, 5 JULY 1316

This action was fought by armies led by Louis of Burgundy and the Infante Ferdinand of Majorca, both of whom claimed the Principality of Achaea on behalf of their wives. Ferdinand's defeat ensured continued Angevin supremacy in Achaea.

■RIO SALADA, 30 OCTOBER 1340

The sultans of Morocco and Granada besieged Tarifa with an 80,000-strong army. Alfonso XI of Castile and Alfonso IV of Portugal led a relief force of 12,000 infantry and 9000 cavalry, which decisively defeated the besiegers.

■Llucmajor, 25 October 1349

In 1344, James III of Majorca was driven into exile by his cousin Peter IV of Aragon and was killed in the battle of Llucmajor on 25 October 1349, while trying to retake Majorca.

■Nájera, 3 April 1367

An Anglo-Gascon army of 24,000 men commanded by Edward, the Black Prince, intervened in the Castilian civil war in support of Pedro the Cruel against his half-brother Henry II of Castile. The Black Prince's force (including 12,000 archers) was reinforced by 4000 Castilians led by Pedro and attacked Henry's 60,000-strong army near Nájera. English archery inflicted heavy casualties before Henry's force was routed with the loss of at least 5000 men.

■MONTIEL, 14 MARCH 1369

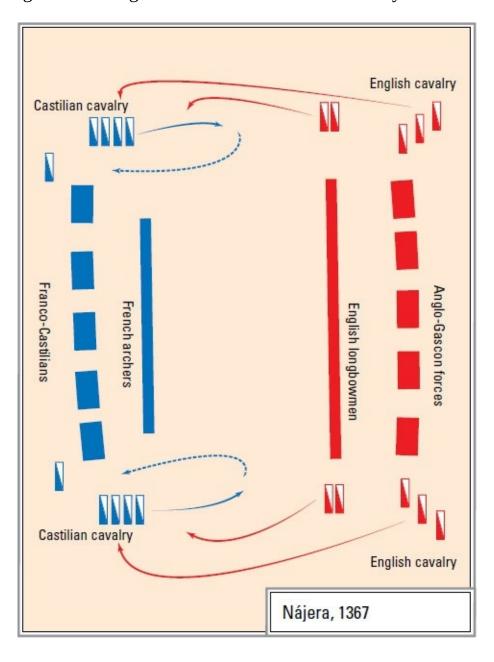
Pedro the Cruel's 40,000-strong army was routed by a force of 6000 men under Henry II of Castile. Pedro's forces suffered at least 14,000 casualties and he was killed by Henry while trying to escape.

■Atoleiros, 6 April 1384

A Portuguese force of 1400 men under Dom Nuno Álvares Pereira intercepted a 5000-strong Castilian army besieging Fronteira. The Portuguese formed a defensive square that repelled several attacks before the demoralized Castilian army was routed.

■TRANCOSO, 29 MAY 1385

A 600-strong Castilian raiding party was caught by a Portuguese force of 300 men, which dismounted and deployed in ploughed fields. The Castilians fled after making several charges that were beaten off with heavy losses.



■ALJUBARROTA, 29 MAY 1385

Juan I of Castile invaded Portugal with an army of 8000 cavalry and 10,000 infantry. João I commanded the Portuguese field army of 2500 cavalry and 12,000 infantry (including 700 English archers), which intercepted the Castilians near the abbey of Aljubarrota.

The Portuguese took up a strong defensive position among orchards, cutting brushwood barricades to cover their flanks and digging a trench in front of their main line. Their crossbowmen and the English archers deployed on each flank with the dismounted knights and men-at-arms in the centre.

The Castilian nobles pressured a reluctant Juan into ordering a frontal attack, despite the fact that his army was exhausted after several hours march. Juan advanced in three lines, the first comprising French mercenaries, the second formed by his Castilian cavalry and the third containing crossbowmen and other infantry. The French cavalry dismounted and attacked before the rest of the Castilian army could come up to support their assault. They took heavy losses from archery and crossbow fire as the attack was funneled into the gap in the barricades in the centre of the Portuguese line. This attack was repelled with French losses of several hundred dead and 1000 captured, but Juan failed to realize the extent of the defeat and committed his cavalry to a charge, which lost impetus in crossing the trench and was also badly shot up by archery and crossbow fire. Unsurprisingly, the cavalry were defeated by the Portuguese knights and men-at-arms, suffering at least 500 casualties before breaking in rout. Juan escaped, but his army was shattered, losing 6000 dead and 2000 prisoners. Apart from Juan, virtually all the Castilian commanders were captured.

■CEUTA, 1415

In August 1415, a 45,000-strong Portuguese army commanded by King João I surprised and stormed the Moroccan city of Ceuta. João's son, Prince Henry the Navigator, distinguished himself in the assault on the city.

■Alfarrobeira, 20 May 1449

Rivalries within the Portuguese royal family briefly flared up into civil war in 1449, when an army of 30,000 men commanded by King Alfonso V defeated a 6000-strong rebel force under Pedro, Duke of Coimbra.

Wars of Scotland 1263–1500

■LARGS, 2 OCTOBER 1263

Hakon IV of Norway with a fleet of more than 100 ships invaded Scotland to claim the Hebrides; they also raided the Scottish mainland coast. To counter the threat, Alexander III of Scotland called up local militias as well as knights and their retainers. A Scottish force numbering perhaps 500 met a large Norse raiding force (800–900) at Largs in early October and drove them off in confused fighting.

■DUNBAR, 27 APRIL 1296

The English under Earl Warenne attacked Dunbar castle. Relieving Scots arrived on 27 April, but mistook Warenne's manoeuvring for retreat and advanced in disorder. An English cavalry charge routed the Scots with heavy slaughter.

■Lanark, May 1297

In a minor incident, the Scot William Wallace and his supporters attacked the English sheriff of Lanark in May 1297, killing him and burning several buildings. Lanark ignited the Scottish revolt against England.

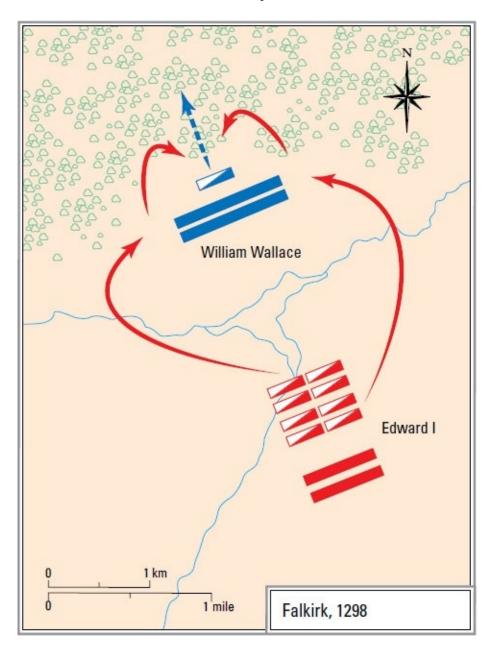
■STIRLING BRIDGE, 11 SEPTEMBER 1297

In early September, an English army under Earl Warenne entered Scotland to suppress a growing rebellion. William Wallace and Andrew Murray joined forces to oppose him with numbers of perhaps 3000–4000 men. They took position around Abbey Craig to protect strategically vital Stirling Bridge. Warenne, with an army perhaps twice as large, attacked northward across the bridge on 11 September, after losing the element of surprise by oversleeping. The English vanguard crossed the narrow bridge two abreast. As they formed on the north side, the Scots attacked. The ground was waterlogged, so English cavalry could not manoeuvre and infantry became mired. Warenne tried to send reinforcements, but the bridge collapsed, either by sabotage or the sheer weight of men. Most of the English caught on the north bank were slaughtered, perhaps totalling 500, with a few dozen Scots casualties.

■FALKIRK, 22 JULY 1298

Edward I responded to William Wallace's great raid of northern England with a massive invasion of Scotland to suppress the rebellion. The English army initially mustered 3000 cavalry and 25,000 English and Welsh foot, although numbers were smaller at the battle, as Edward suffered supply problems and a

Welsh mutiny. Indeed, Edward considered retreat, but the Scots under William Wallace offered battle. Wallace's force was smaller than Edward's, perhaps 6000 pikemen, 1000 archers and 500 cavalry, but he prepared a strongly defensive position on the road to Stirling. Four divisions of Scottish infantry formed into schiltrons, tightly packed ranks of pikemen brandishing 3.6m spears, protected by a line of stakes roped or chained together. Archers were placed between the schiltrons to protect the lightly armoured pikemen from English bowmen, while the Scots cavalry in turn protected the archers. The Scots were further defended by woods and marshes on the flanks and by a stream in front.



The battle on 22 July was bloody. The first English attack by heavy cavalry became mired in the wet ground and failed to penetrate the schiltrons, but the Scots horse fled as the English advanced on the right flank. The English cavalry was then able to ride down the unprotected Scots archers, leaving the schiltrons exposed to Edward's archers and Gascon crossbowmen. The men of the schiltrons—untried militia—held their ground, but they were unable to advance over the wet ground to meet the enemy, and fell in their hundreds. Finally, Edward sent his cavalry back in to break the schiltrons. Thousands of Scots were killed, with relatively light English casualties and the Scottish rebel army was effectively destroyed.

■STIRLING CASTLE I, 1299

Stirlingshire rebels led by Thomas Morham and Gilbert Malherbe besieged strategically vital Stirling castle, held by an English garrison. The Scots lacked siege equipment, but eventually starved the garrison into submission.

■STIRLING CASTLE II, 20 JULY 1304

Edward I of England besieged strategically vital Stirling. Heavy English trebuchets killed many and damaged the walls. The Scots 'rebels' finally surrendered on 24 July for fear of the massive trebuchet 'Warwolf'.

■METHVEN, 19 JUNE 1306

King Robert the Bruce advanced against English-held Perth. On 19 June, a force of 300 cavalry and 1300 infantry under the Englishman Aymer de Valence surprised and totally defeated the Scots; Robert fled.

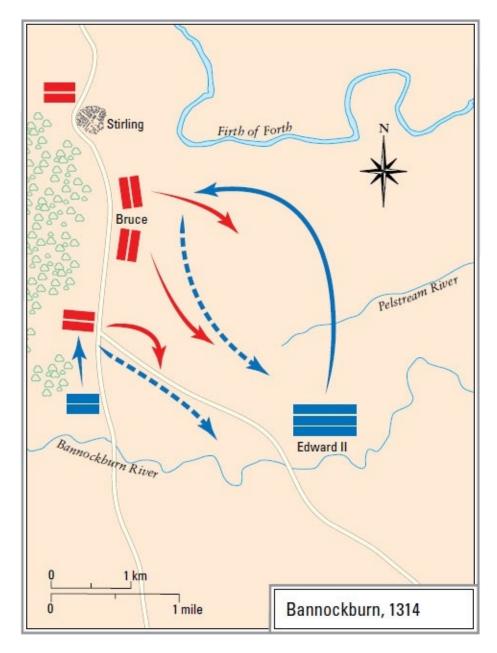
■LOUDON HILL, 10 MAY 1307

Robert the Bruce of Scotland's first victory. Robert, with 600 Scots spearmen, chose his ground carefully, protecting his force with a bog and series of ditches. Aymer de Valence's English force numbered about 3000, but they had to advance with a tightly restricted front along the highway. Scottish spearmen pushed downhill into the disordered English ranks. A panic ensued and at least one hundred Englishmen were killed.

■Bannockburn, 24 June 1314

Edward II of England invaded Scotland to suppress Robert the Bruce's rebellion. The English force numbered perhaps 10,000 infantry and 2000 cavalry; the Scots force was 5000–6000, mostly highly experienced light infantry. Robert deployed his Scots to keep the English from relieving Stirling castle. On 23 June, the English cavalry vanguard tried to slip between the Scots and Stirling castle, but a Scottish division under Thomas Randolph, Earl of Moray, drove them back in

heavy fighting. The engagement disheartened the English, whose supplies had also failed and led them to expect a night attack.



King Robert had intended a defensive battle. The Scots had dug in on high ground, protected by pits, traps and caltrops. However, seeing the English in disorder, he ordered his schiltrons to advance onto the marshy plain on 24 June. Four Scottish schiltrons advanced in turn, striking a series of hammer blows against the English, who could not deploy along a front that was highly restricted, being trapped between a river, a number of streams and the Scots. The English and Welsh archers could not be placed properly to cut down the lightly

armoured Scots; one group worked around a stream and began firing against the Scots, only to be ridden down by Scots cavalry. The English tried to stop the Scottish advance with isolated attacks, but failed.

King Edward's household finally forced him to withdraw. As the English force wavered, the Scottish 'small folk' charged from the high ground and precipitated an English rout. The bulk of the English army was killed or captured, hundreds drowning in the Forth or in the many streams like the Bannockburn that surrounded the battlefield.

■FAUGHART, 14 OCTOBER 1318

Edward Bruce, Robert the Bruce's brother, invaded Ireland. On 14 October, Bruce's Scots-Irish army attacked a stronger Hiberno-Norman force and the three Scottish divisions were each defeated separately. Bruce himself was killed.

■MYTON, 20 SEPTEMBER 1319

Archbishop Melton of York raised local levies to stop Scottish raiders. On 12 September, they attacked the Scottish camp. Scottish spearmen advanced and the English were disastrously defeated; many clerics fell in the rout.

■Boroughbridge, 16 March 1322

English troops under Andrew Harclay held the bridge against rebellious Earl Thomas of Lancaster with archers supported by dismounted men-at-arms, preventing Lancaster from joining a Scottish force on 16 March. Lancaster was captured and executed.

■Invasion of Scotland, 1332

Robert Bruce's death inspired Scottish exiles in England and France to return. The Disinherited, under Edward Balliol, landed at Kinghorn with an 88-ship fleet on 6 August, driving off local forces. Their army of about 1500 defeated young King David II at Dupplin Moor, then took Perth and won a naval battle on the Tay. Balliol was crowned king, but was forced to flee by a surprise attack in December.

■Dupplin Moor, 10–11 August 1332

Edward Balliol's 1500-man force defeated a superior Scottish royal army under the earl of Mar, storming Mar's camp and occupying the high ground. Many suffocated in the melee. About 2000 royalists fell.

■DORNOCK, 25 MARCH 1333

In a small border incident, William Douglas with 50 men set on an English force of 800. Two Englishmen were killed as well as 24 Scots and William Douglas

was captured and imprisoned.

■HALIDON HILL, 19 JULY 1333

In the second Anglo-Scottish War, Edward III of England with his ally Edward Balliol besieged Berwick. Archibald Douglas, guardian of the young David II, marched with a large army to relieve the siege. The English chose their ground on Halidon Hill, Edward dismounting his men-at-arms and placing them in three divisions, each flanked by archers; his army numbered perhaps 8000. On 19 July, Douglas attacked uphill with about 1200 men-at-arms and 13,500 spearmen arrayed in four schiltrons. Slowed by the bogs at the base of the hill, the Scots were cut down by the English archers, then as the attack wavered, the English cavalry mounted and charged. They pursued the broken Scots for five miles. Douglas, five earls and thousands more Scots fell. Berwick surrendered to Edward and Balliol was restored as king of Scotland.

■Boroughmuir, 30 July 1335

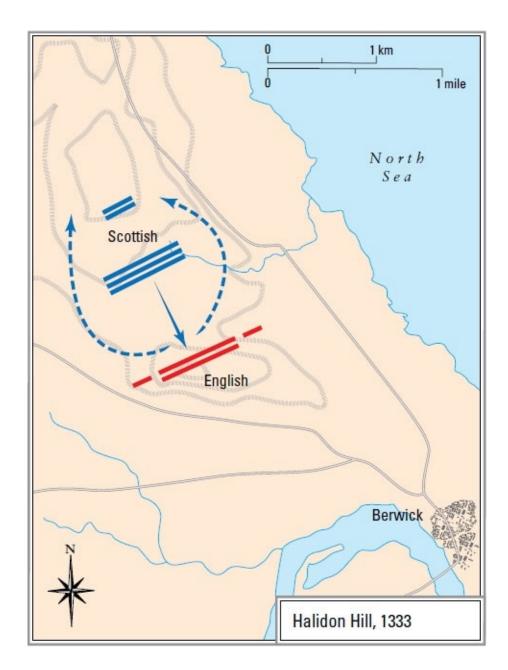
Guy of Namur with 300 men marched to join Edward III on 30 July, but was ambushed by Scots under John Randolph. Namur retreated into derelict Edinburgh Castle, but surrendered the next day.

■Culblean, 30 November 1335

In the Second Anglo-Scottish War, David Strathbogie besieged Andrew Murrey's wife in Kildrummy castle. On 30 November, Murrey, with 1000 men, defeated and killed Strathbogie in a surprise attack, scattering his larger force.

■Neville's Cross, 17 October 1346

David II of Scotland invaded England with about 10,000 men. On 17 October, he stumbled on a northern English army of about 5000. The Scots advanced in schiltrons over rough ground, suffering heavy losses to archers. The Scottish right pushed the English back, but were thrown into disorder by a cavalry attack. The Scottish rearguard then withdrew, sealing David's defeat. Several thousand Scots, as well as hundreds of Englishmen, died in the battle.



■OTTERBURN, 5 AUGUST 1388

Hotspur (Henry Percy) raised an English force to pursue Scots raiders. Reaching them at twilight, he attacked the Scottish camp immediately. After heavy and confused fighting, Hotspur was captured and about 2000 English died.

■North Inch, September 1396

This 'Battle of the Clans' was a staged battle between two Scottish highland clans. Thirty men from each side fought. Clan Chattan won with 11 survivors; 29 of the Camerons were killed.

■Nesbit Moor, 1402

A party of 400 Scottish raiders in Northumberland was ambushed by 200 Englishmen from the Berwick garrison under the earl of March. The Scots were badly cut up; several leaders were captured.

■HOMILDON HILL, 14 SEPTEMBER 1402

A Scottish raiding force of perhaps 10,000 found their route blocked by an English army. The Scots took a defensive position, but were mowed down by archery. At least 1200 Scots died.

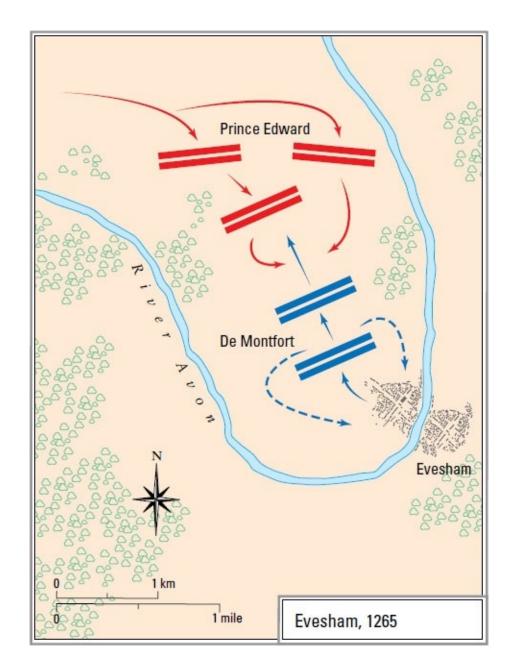
■Tuiteam Tarbhach, 1406

A Scottish clan battle, in which Clan Mackay caught up with MacLeods of Lewis who had just raided their lands as the latter crossed Tuiteam Burn. The raiding party was completely destroyed **HARLAW**, **24 JULY 1411**

A bloody battle between Donald, Lord of the Isles and the Earl of Mar, whose force was smaller, but better armed. In the day-long struggle, Donald lost 900 men and Mar 500, with no clear victor.

■Inverlochy, September 1431

James I tried to assert his authority over the Highland clans, imprisoning Alexander, Lord of the Isles. In September, a force of Highlanders under Donald Balloch ambushed the army James I sent against them under the earl of Mar, with bowmen firing down on their camp while the Highlanders charged from the south. More than 1000 royalists are believed to have been killed in the encounter, with only 30 Highland losses.



■PIPERDEAN, 10 SEPTEMBER 1436

About 4000 English soldiers under Henry Percy and the Earl of Mar moved against Dunbar castle, but Scots under William Douglas attacked them. The English were routed; perhaps 400 were killed and 300 captured.

■SARK, 23 OCTOBER 1448

The Earl of Northumberland invaded Scotland with 6000 men. A total of 4000 Scots under the Earl of Ormond attacked the English camp, driving them into the rising tide at their back. Approximately 1500 English were killed, with another 500 drowned.

■ARKINHOLM, 1 MAY 1455

This small engagement, fought on 1 May, ended the Scottish Civil War between James II and the Black Douglases. Royalist forces, perhaps under the earl of Angus, decisively defeated the rebels.

■LOCHMABEN FAIR, 22 JULY 1484

Scots rebels Albany and Douglas came to Lochmaben Fair on 22 July with 500 English cavalry to incite rebellion against James III. Townsmen took arms against the rebels, routing them and capturing Douglas.

■SAUCHIEBURN, 11 JUNE 1488

On 11 June, as many as 30,000 troops under James III met a Scottish rebel army of 18,000 under Prince James at Sauchieburn. Details of the battle are confused. The rebels won and James III was killed.

■DRUMCHATT, 1497

After James IV of Scotland revoked the MacDonald title 'Lord of the Isles' in 1495, Alexander MacDonald rebelled, claiming his traditional family lands. Clans Mackenzie and Munro, although normally rivals, joined forces against MacDonald as he invaded Ross. After a short battle at Drumchatt ('the Cat's Back') near Strathpeffer, MacDonald fled. He was hunted down and soon killed.

Second Barons' War, England 1264–67

■NORTHAMPTON, APRIL 1264

A royalist army commanded by Henry III besieged Northampton, which was held by two of Simon de Montfort's sons. A royalist detachment led by Prince Edward broke into the town and forced the surrender of the castle.

■ROCHESTER, 1264

Rebel forces commanded by Simon de Montfort and Gilbert de Clare took Rochester, but the castle held out for a week until the siege was raised by a relief force led by Henry III.

■Lewes, 14 May 1264

A 5000-strong rebel army led by Simon de Montfort surprised a royalist army of 10,000 men commanded by Henry III and Prince Edward. De Monfort deployed his forces in three divisions, the right under his sons Henry and Guy, the centre led by Gilbert de Clare and the left of Londoners. Prince Edward's cavalry broke the Londoners, but then pursued them for several hours, during which time the rebels had defeated the main royalist army.

■EVESHAM, 4 AUGUST 1265

A royalist army of at least 7000 infantry and 1000 cavalry commanded by Prince Edward trapped Simon de Montfort's 5000-strong rebel force in a loop of the River Avon near Evesham. De Montfort attempted to break the centre of the royalist line, but his Welsh troops deserted and the remainder of his force was quickly surrounded. The rebel army was shattered, losing 3000 men, including de Montfort who was killed in action.

■Siege of Axholme, 1265

After their defeat at Evesham, many rebels fled to the Isle of Axholme in the Lincolnshire Fens where they were besieged by royalist forces. Some eventually surrendered, but de Montfort's son, Simon the Younger, escaped.

■CHESTERFIELD, 1266

Despite the royalist victory at Evesham, the Earl of Derby and other barons continued their resistance to Henry III, but were again defeated at Chesterfield. Some of the survivors then took refuge at Ely in the Fens.

■KENILWORTH, JUNE-DECEMBER 1266

Undismayed by repeated royalist victories, a rebel garrison of 1200 men held

Kenilworth castle against a six-month siege. Attempts to storm the castle failed, but the garrison was finally starved into surrender on 13 December 1266.

■ELY, 1267

Prince Edward defeated rebel forces under John d' Eyvill, which were holding out on the Isle of Ely in the fens of Cambridgeshire. This royalist victory marked the end of the Second Barons' War.

Japanese Genko War 1331–33 and Fourteenth-Century Battles

■KASAGI, 1331

Emperor Go-Daigo sought to wrest power back from a weak shogunate, taking refuge here while he sought alliances with warrior-monasteries. Bakufu troops stormed the temple and dragged the emperor into exile.

■AKASAKA, C. 31 OCT-20 Nov 1331

Kusunoki Masashige, Go-Daigo's samurai, brilliantly held this flimsy fortress against Bakufu troops. With supplies and defenders exhausted, a fake funeral pyre convinced the besieging troops that the escaping clan had committed suicide in defeat.

■CHIHAYA, 1333

With Go-Daigo returning from exile, Kusunoki Masashige successfully defended this impregnable hill-top fortress, inflicting by ruses extremely heavy casualties upon Bakufu attackers and resisting all assaults. Loyalist forces flocked to the emperor's cause as a result.

■Bubaigawara, 1333

Nitta Yoshisada proclaimed Go-Daigo's cause and marched against the Bakufu. Here Yoshisada had to retreat after attacking recently reinforced Bakufu troops, who— on the next day— found the Imperialist forces reinforced and, retreating, attacked from the rear.

■KAMAKURA, 1333

Taking severe losses through defended narrows, Nitta Yoshisada ground toward this, the Hojo shogun's last bastion. Forces depleted by battle and the Chihaya siege, the shogun committed suicide after Yoshisada attacked across neighbouring tide flats.

■MINATOGAWA, 1336

Ashikaga Takauji made his family's bid for the Shogunate, attacking here after an initial repulse. Having urged Emperor Go-Daigo's retreat in vain, Kusonoki Masushige and Nitta Yoshisda fought Takuji's landing. Masushige committed suicide in defeat.

■KANEGASAKI, 1337

Nitta Yoshisda was left as Emperor Go-Daigo's last loyal general and

concentrated his family's resources at this strategic fortress on Tsuruga Bay, in which he sheltered Prince Takayoshi. The army of Ashikaga Takauji closely besieged the castle, which fell after the defenders had been reduced to eating their horses and the dead. Nitta himself escaped, but his son, the prince and most of his family committed suicide upon the surrender.

Hundred Years War 1337–1457

■CADSAND, NOVEMBER 1337

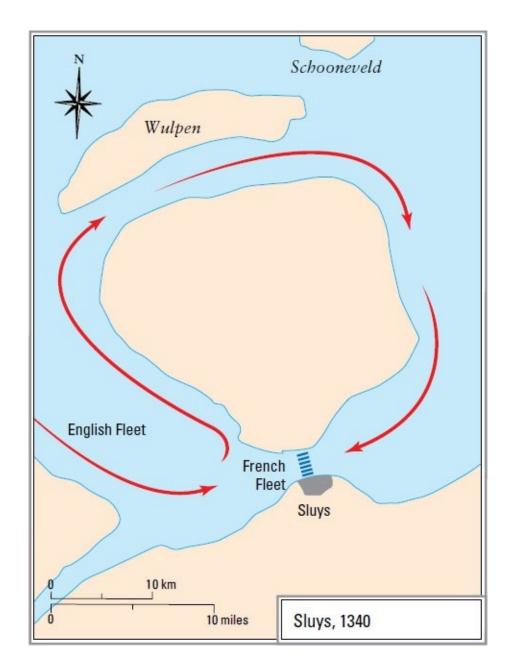
As a show of strength against France, Edward III of England sent a small fleet against the Flemish island of Cadsand. The troops, led by Walter Manny, raped and slaughtered the villagers.

■Arnemuiden, 23 September 1338

In the first naval battle using artillery, a French fleet of 48 galleys overwhelmed five English carracks transporting a cargo of wool. The Englishmen who survived the battle were massacred, numbering about 1000 in total.

■SLUYS, 24 JUNE 1340

Edward III invaded Flanders with a fleet of 120– 160 ships. A French fleet opposed his landing, taking station at the opening of the Zwin estuary, then about 5km wide. The French admirals arrayed their 213 vessels in three lines, the ships of each line chained to their neighbours. As the English approached, the French fleet drifted eastward, as wind blew into the mouth of the river. They cast off their chains, but failed to re-form before the English hit their first line. It was a battle of archery, then grappling and boarding. The English ships were full of longbowmen intended for the invasion of France; they vastly outshot the Genoese crossbowmen in French employ. As evening fell, Flemings attacked the French third line from the rear. In an overwhelming victory, Edward captured 190 French ships and 16,000– 18,000 Frenchmen died.



■SAINT-OMER, 26 JULY 1340

Robert of Artois led 1000 English archers and 10,000–15,000 Flemings to attack Saint-Omer, which the Duke of Burgundy held with several thousand men. Robert offered battle and eventually some of the duke's men burst out and attacked. Robert's men were driven off and their camp breached, where many thousands were slaughtered. Meanwhile, the Duke of Burgundy emerged and Robert overwhelmed him, with the battle ending in stalemate.

■Brest, 18 August 1342

The Earl of Northampton reached France with a fleet of 260 ships, but only a

small land army. They caught by surprise 14 Genoese galleys anchored at Brest. Three of the galleys made it up the estuary of the Elorn river; the other 11 grounded in mud and were burned by the English. The French raised the siege of Brest and withdrew, thinking that a large army had come.

■MORLAIX, 30 SEPTEMBER 1342

The Earl of Northampton with about 2400 Englishmen and an unknown number of Bretons attacked the French port town of Morlaix; after an initial assault on 3 September failed with heavy casualties, the earl settled down to a siege. Charles of Blois came to relieve the siege with perhaps 3000 cavalry, 1500 Genoese crossbowmen and some Breton infantry. Northampton received word of Charles' approach and made a night march with most of his men, digging in to block the French line of advance. The English protected themselves with pit-traps and trenches. The first French cavalry charge was repulsed. When the second line charged in turn, they rode straight for the English traps, where 50 French men-atarms were killed and another 150 captured. Northampton then withdrew into the forest, where the French besieged him inconclusively for several days.



■Auberoche, 21 October 1345

The earl of Darby launched a surprise attack on French forces besieging the castle of Auberoche. Despite superior numbers, the French fell back, whereupon the garrison sortied, trapping the French and slaughtering them.

■ST-Pol-de-Leon, 9 June 1346

Charles of Blois' overwhelmingly superior army trapped an English commander with 80 men-at-arms and 100 archers. The English dug in on a hill and repelled attacks until dark, when the French withdrew.

■CAEN, 26 JULY 1346

The English seized Caen, which was garrisoned by 1000–1500 French troops. The French commanders decided to defend the suburb on Île Saint-Jean rather than the old town, although the island's defences were weak. A sudden, disorderly English assault proved effective. French defences failed at several points on the river and French troops at the bridge held, only to be outflanked. About 2500 French fighters and townspeople were slaughtered; others were ransomed.

■BLANCHETAQUE, 24 AUGUST 1346

The French Godemar du Fay held the Blanchetaque ford against Edward III's army. An English advance of 100 men-at-arms and 100 archers established a bridgehead and gradually pushed the French back until they broke.

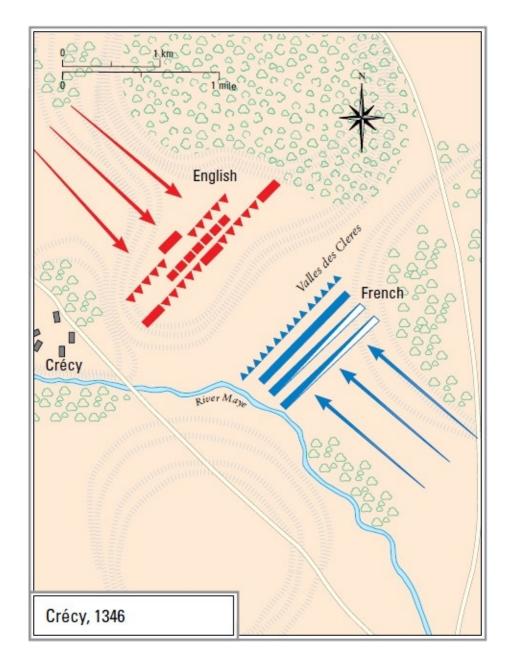
■Crécy, 26 August 1346

Preparatory to this first great land battle of the Hundred Years War, Edward III had raided deep into France with an army of about 4000 men-at-arms, 7000 archers and 5000 other infantry. They began to withdraw upon news that Philip VI had gathered a large French army (12,000 men-at-arms and 20,000–25,000 infantry) to meet them. Philip, determined not to suffer another embarrassment, decided to cut the English army off and force battle.

On 26 August, Philip with his advance troops blocked the English retreat. English scouts had discovered the French presence and Edward responded by digging in his much smaller army on the gently rising ground near the village of Crécy. The English position was strong. The 16-year-old Prince of Wales commanded the first line of dismounted men-at-arms, while King Edward commanded the reserves. Edward posted his longbowmen on the wings, forward of the main lines, protecting them with circles of baggage carts and shallow pits, with the five English cannon also positioned on the wings. The men-at-arms'

horses were also protected at the rear in a laager of baggage carts.

Although it was already late afternoon and most of the French army was still spread out along the road, Philip decided on an immediate attack. Inexplicably, the first troops he sent into action were his 6000 Genoese mercenary crossbowmen. The Genoese were made to advance, shooting as they went, a tactic to which crossbows are ill suited. Increasing their difficulties, the large shields that normally protected crossbowmen as they reloaded were still in the baggage, as was most of their ammunition. Worst of all, it began to rain, which affected the crossbows' mechanisms and slowed their advance still further. The Genoese soon broke and fled under a storm of English arrows.



To the French leaders, the Genoese withdrawal appeared to be cowardice and treason. Without orders, the count of Alençon charged them with the elite French cavalry. While massacring their own mercenaries, the French inadvertently got within range of the English archers and soon suffered heavy losses. Some of the French men-at-arms reached the first English line, where a vicious fight developed around the Prince of Wales.

The French attack continued into the night, with repeated charges against the English positions as reinforcements reached the battlefield and threw themselves into the engagement. They failed, however, to break through to the English

archers, who continued to inflict great damage on men and horses. As dark fell, the English men-at-arms mounted and charged the surviving groups of French horse and French infantry in turn. The bulk of the French infantry broke and ran, suffering heavy losses. King Philip himself was nearly killed; he escaped with his life, but left his personal standard and the Oriflamme on the battlefield. The battle was effectively over by the end of the day, although 2000 French infantry turned up the next morning. They mistook the English for their own army and were quickly scattered and slaughtered.

This great English victory displayed beyond doubt the power of well-positioned and well-defended longbowmen. Few Englishmen died at Crécy, but the French toll was enormous. About 2000 French men-at-arms perished, including eight princes of the blood and the blind King John of Bohemia. Nobody knows how many common French soldiers also fell, but King Philip made the carnage even worse by ordering the massacre of the surviving 'traitor' Genoese mercenaries.

■CALAIS, 4 SEPTEMBER 1346–3 AUGUST 1347

The English siege of the strongly held seaport of Calais dragged on for 11 months. In November, an effort to storm the town from boats in the moat failed. Supplies and reinforcements reached Calais by sea as late as April, but famine finally took its toll. King Philip finally came to relieve Calais in late July, but withdrew in face of the stronger English army. Calais surrendered on 3 August.

■LA ROCHE-DERRIEN, 1347

An English force of 700 under Thomas Dagworth came to relieve this Breton town, under siege by Charles of Blois with about 1500 men. The French force was divided into four sectors. Dagworth attacked the largest before dawn, although his attempt at surprise failed. Fighting was heavy and confused until the garrison came to Dagworth's assistance. The English defeated the other French units in turn, inflicting heavy casualties.

■LUNALONGE, 1349

A stalemate between French and Anglo-Gascon armies. The English in an entrenched position typical of the early Hundred Years War beat off French cavalry attacks and the English were able to withdraw that night.

■Les Españols sur Mer, 29 August 1350

Also known as the battle of Winchelsea, this battle developed when Edward III organized a fleet to stop raiders and intercepted 24 Castilian ships sailing southward. The English had twice the number of ships, but their vessels were

smaller and lower, so they suffered heavy casualties while closing with the enemy. However, they quickly gained the advantage in hand-to-hand fighting, winning a complete victory.

■THIRTY FRENCH KNIGHTS, 26 MARCH 1351

The French and English each provided 30 champions to fight this battle in Brittany. Fighting several hours in accordance with strict rules the French won the day. The battle accomplished nothing.

■Saintes, 1351

The French Guy de Nesle tried to halt an English advance, drawing his men up on foot before them on rising ground. The French were completely defeated, because another English force attacked their rear.

■ARDRES, 1351

An English raiding party in France was cornered by French troops. Forced to defend themselves on open ground and with archers almost out of arrows, the English force was killed or captured.

■MAURON, 14 AUGUST 1352

A superior French force attacked about 750 English troops. The English commander, Walter Bentley, dismounted his men-at-arms, placing archers on the wings. A French cavalry charge scattered the unprotected archers on one wing. Dismounted men-at-arms then attacked the English centre. After hard fighting, the French were driven back. Both English and French suffered heavy casualties, including 89 Knights of the Star, who had previously sworn never to retreat.

■Poitiers, 19 September 1356

Civil war in France led Edward III of England to renew his efforts at conquest. He planned an ambitious pincer strategy to trap Jean II's French army, his own large army attacking from the west while the Prince of Wales came up from Gascony to threaten the French rear. In the event, King Edward's army was delayed, while Edward the Black Prince began a pillaging thrust into France. His English-Gascon force consisted of about 2000 archers, 1000 Gascon infantry and 3000 men-at-arms, all mounted.

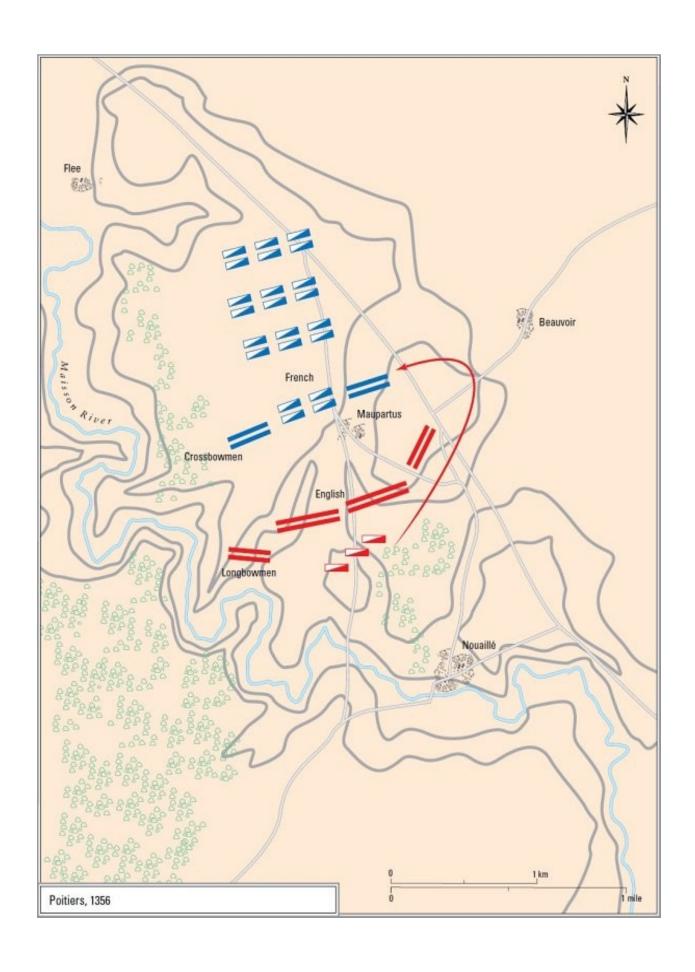
Jean II took the field with 8000 men-at-arms and 3000 infantry, his goal to force the Black Prince into a decisive battle. As they approached, the prince marched over fields to avoid detection, finding and routing part of the French rearguard. The prince then took up a defensive position on a hill north of Nouaillé, a forest to the rear, with a hawthorn hedge and vines in front. Marshes protected the left flank, while on the right, the English dug deep trenches. As

usual, archers were posted on the wings, with dismounted men-at-arms in the centre under the Prince's command. The thirsty, hungry English stood to arms, expecting immediate attack. Battle was delayed for a day as a cardinal tried to negotiate peace. The Prince of Wales proved willing to negotiate, but Jean II refused proposals out of hand.

By the morning of Monday 19 September, the English army was in bad straits, but the French delayed attacking such a strong position. Finally, the French planned a massed cavalry charge— 500 men-at-arms on armoured horses—to break up the English archers, the rest of the army following on foot. Meanwhile, the Black Prince planned a desperate retreat and started moving the Earl of Warwick's men. The French advance guard saw the enemy movement and launched a charge against the English wings, but not against the all-important archer positions. On one wing, archers were able to move behind the charging Frenchmen and fire at the horses' unarmoured rumps; on the other, the impetuous French charge brought them into close range of archers concealed in trenches.

The main French force was already advancing on foot, led by the dauphin. They suffered a barrage of arrows, which had less effect on footmen than they would on cavalry. Some Frenchmen were able to close with the English, where they fought hand-to-hand for about two hours before retreating, still in good order.

At this point, in a horrible miscalculation, King Jean ordered his son to withdraw to safety. The Duke of Orléans, seeing the dauphin and his entourage depart, misunderstood and pulled back with the entire French second line. In exasperation, the king himself advanced with the third line. By then, the English were running out of arrows, so Jean was able to close with the English men-at-arms. The English were tired and wounded, but still outnumbered the remaining French, especially as archers joined in with swords and knives. The decisive blow came when the Captal de Buch took 160 of the English reserve and charged the French rear. The prince then mounted many of his men-at-arms and charged the unmounted French on open ground. Caught between two forces, the French were slaughtered and those who fled were cut down; Jean himself was captured, along with about 3000 of his army. About 2500 French men-at-arms died.



■Mello, 10 June 1358

French peasant rebels, the 'Jacques', camped in a strong position on the plateau of Mello; a French army under King Charles of Navarre opposed them. Charles invited the peasant leader for a parley, but took him captive. Charles' army then charged the leaderless peasants. Despite their strong position in two lines with archers in front and carts and trenches protecting the flanks, the peasant army was overrun and destroyed.

■Brignais, 6 April 1362

The mercenary Great Company, about 5000 strong, attacked a French force of 4000 that had been sent against them. Accomplishing complete surprise, the Company captured 1000 French fighters, killing and scattering the rest.

■Cocherel, 16 May 1364

An Anglo-Gascon force of 1500–2000 under the Captal de Buch met 1200 Franco-Gascons under Bertrand du Guesclin. After a bloody engagement, du Guesclin committed his reserve against the Captal's flank, causing a rout.

■AURAY, 16 MAY 1364

Charles of Blois with 3000–4000 men came to relieve the siege of Auray. The Anglo-British defenders, about 2000 men under Sir John Chandos, took a strong position on rising ground. Chandos drove off the first Franco-Breton attack, whereupon the Bretons of Charles' second division deserted, leaving Charles isolated. The English then charged, completing the French route with their reserves. Some 800 Franco-Bretons died, including Charles.

■PONTVALLAIN, 4 DECEMBER 1370

In December, English bands were spread out in disorganized camps, preparing to enter winter quarters. With a series of forced marches, a French force under Bertrand du Guesclin completely surprised the largest group, under Grandeson. Another French force under Sancerre, hearing of the battle, attacked the English band under Fitzwalter and massacred them. The English suffered very heavy casualties and the rest of the English force was scattered.

■LA ROCHELLE, 22–23 JUNE 1372

A Castilian-French fleet of 20–40 ships trapped an English convoy of about 20 merchant ships and three warships in La Rochelle's harbour. In a two-day battle the English suffered complete defeat.

■Chizé, 1373

Sir John Devereux brought an English force c. 800 strong to relieve Chizé castle.

Initially successful, the English fled when French troops rallied. Almost the entire English force was killed or captured.

■CHATEAUNEUF-DE-RANDON, 1380

Bertrand du Guesclin brought a French force to attack an independent mercenary band occupying this small town. The town surrendered after a short siege, but France's great General du Guesclin died of dysentery.

■ROOSEBEKE, 27 NOVEMBER 1382

Charles VI's large French army completely defeated about 40,000 rebel Flemings under Philip van Artevelde. The untrained townsmen took a defensive position, but were outflanked and massacred until nightfall; about 27,500 died.

■Margate, 24 March 1387

About 200 armed merchant ships under Jan Buuc dared an English Channel blockade, but the Earl of Arundel with 47 great ships ambushed them, defeating Buuc in two engagements and capturing 68 vessels.

■Bramham Moor, 19 February 1408

The rebellious Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland marched against York with a Northumbrian-Scottish army. Sir Thomas Rokeby met Percy with local levies, defeating and killing the earl.

■HARFLEUR, 18–22 SEPTEMBER 1415

When Henry V invaded France in 1415, his first target was the town of Harfleur. King Henry invested the town with his force of about 2000 men-at-arms and 6000 archers; Harfleur had a garrison of 400. The 12 great guns of Henry's siege train inflicted serious damage on the town's walls. He then planned a general assault, but Harfleur's leaders surrendered on terms on 22 September.

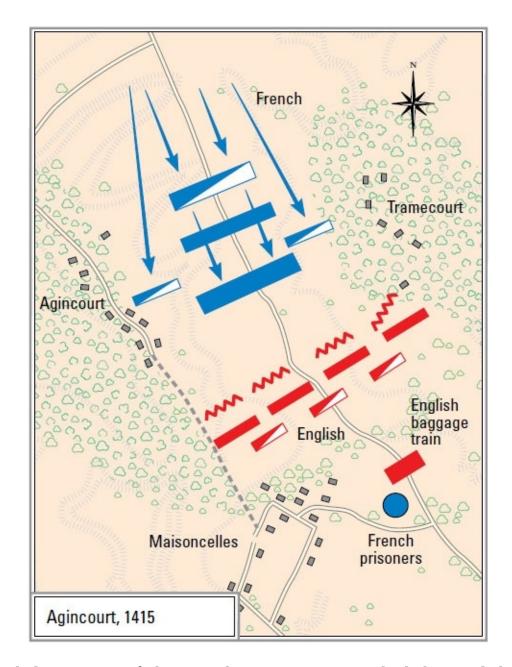
■AGINCOURT, 25 OCTOBER 1415

Henry V of England invaded France in 1415 to reignite the Hundred Years War, taking advantage of a French civil war. After taking Harfleur, the English force of perhaps 1500 men-at-arms and 7000 archers marched northward. The French mustered a much larger army, perhaps as many as 10,000 men-at-arms and a total force of 25,000, under Constable of France Charles d'Albret, to confront the invaders. At first, d'Albret shadowed the English route as he raised more men. However, the English force was rapidly weakening. The campaigning season was over, they were short on food and dysentery was running rampant. Finally, the French forced battle on 25 October.

King Henry chose his ground carefully, placing his men in a narrow defile

between two forests. As usual, dismounted English men-at-arms were placed in the centre in three lines, with archers protected by stakes on the wings. Some archers may also have been positioned in the centre interspersed with the men-at-arms. Although their numbers were far superior, the French hesitated to attack, wary of the English archers and the narrow front, especially as they would have to advance through the thick mud of freshly ploughed fields. Henry finally started the fight in mid-morning by moving his army forward to within archery range; inexplicably, the French did not attack until after the English archers had driven in stakes to protect themselves against cavalry charges.

After English arrows began stinging the French, d'Albret sent his cavalry against the archers in a catastrophic charge. Unable to gain much speed on the muddy ground, the French men-at-arms and, more importantly, their horses were struck by a hale of arrows. Wounded horses threw their riders into the mud or rampaged, maddened by pain. Even before the cavalry charge failed, the constable began leading a second charge consisting of dismounted men-at-arms. Their plate armour was largely proof against English arrows; the plan must have been that they would close with the English centre and overwhelm it with their superior numbers. They advanced in horrible conditions through knee-deep mud, trying to push forward despite the weight of 23–27kg of armour, trying to breathe through the slits in their helmets. Arrows were unlikely to pierce them, but many were knocked off their feet by the force of blows and they were advancing in such close order that those who fell were trodden into the mud.



Nonetheless, some of the French men-at-arms reached the English centre, certainly exhausted by their arduous crossing of the fields. The front was too narrow for the French to deploy their superior numbers and they were also harried by the English archers, who attacked them on the flank with hatchets and swords. In a three-hour fight, the English killed, captured, or drove off their attackers.

Much of the French never engaged with the English. In the afternoon, fearing an attack by the French rearguard, Henry ordered the execution of all but his highest-ranking prisoners. The attack never materialized, though, with the demoralized Frenchmen fleeing the battlefield.

While all sources agree that Agincourt was a great English victory, they vary widely in their accounts of the slain. The English suffered heavy casualties, about 1600, suggesting how desperate the fighting had been. Anywhere between 4000 and 10,000 fell on the French side, including their commander and a large number of other nobles.

■ROUEN, 31 JULY 1418–19 JANUARY 1419

King Henry V besieged Rouen between July 1418 and January 1419. Soon running low on food, the town expelled 12,000 poor people who were left to starve outside the walls. The commander, Guy le Bouteiller, finally surrendered.

■Baugé, 21 March 1421

A 6000-man Franco-Scottish army confronted a larger English army besieging Baugé. Their surprise attack failing, the English were defeated in a long, bloody fight in which their commander, the Duke of Clarence, was killed.

■MEAUX, 6 OCTOBER 1421–10 MAY 1422

Henry V besieged Meaux in October 1421 until the garrison surrendered on 10 May 1422. Henry's artillery and miners brought down sections of wall, but no general assault was attempted as the besiegers fell prey to dysentery.

■CRAVANT, 31 JULY 1423

A French royalist army 8000 strong marched into Burgundy, encountering the earl of Salisbury's Anglo-Burgundian army on the banks of the Yonne river. The English crossed under their archers' protective fire, both fording and crossing the narrow bridge. The French retreated, but their Scottish allies under the earl of Buchan stood their ground. In the major English victory, 6000 French and Scots were killed and 2000 captured.

■La Brossinière, 26 September 1423

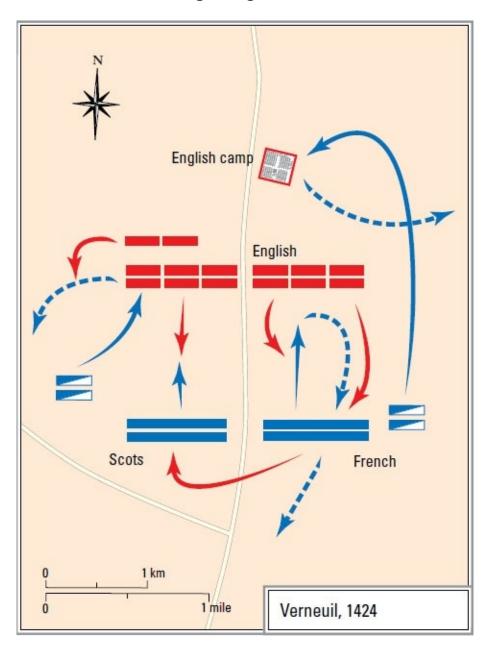
About 2800 French supporters of the dauphin caught an English raiding force of about 1500 under William de la Pole. The English were broken in a flank attack and nearly all were massacred.

■Verneuil, 17 August 1424

A French royalist force of 14,000–16,000 (including about 6000 Scots) took Verneuil with a ruse, drawing the English army of 8000–10,000 under John, Duke of Bedford, out against them.

The French army was far from unified. Scots and French divisions were drawn up side by side, with Lombard mercenary cavalry on both wings. The

English formed with dismounted men-at-arms in the centre and archers on the wings, then advanced to within arrow range. As the archers drove in protective stakes, the Milanese cavalry attacked and broke through the English right wing, but went on to attack the baggage train; the Lombard cavalry on the other wing soon joined them. Bedford pushed back the French, but broke off pursuit to attack the Scots, now fighting alone, on the right flank. More than 7000 Frenchmen and Scots died, with light English casualties.



■Brouwershaven, 13 January 1426

Philip the Good of Burgundy invaded Zeeland, held by a mixed Zeelander-

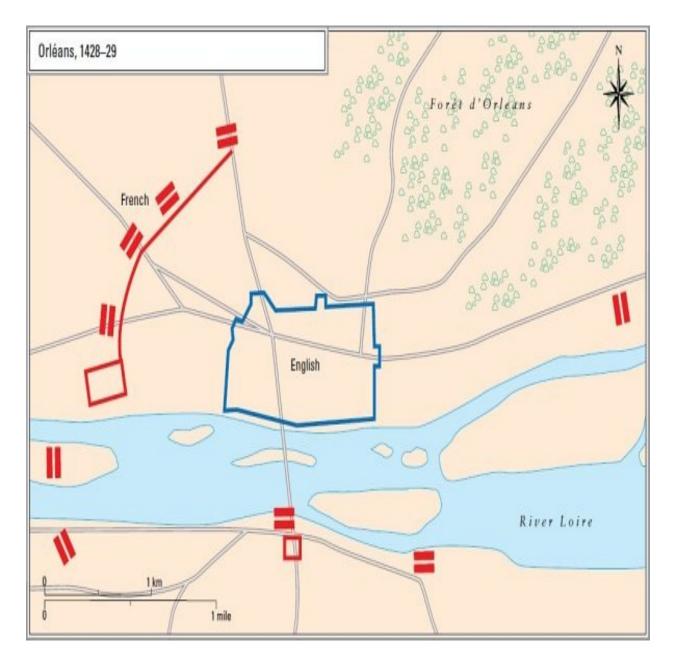
English force. The English attacked as Philip disembarked, but the Burgundian knights drove their enemies onto a dike and killed 3000.

■ST JAMES, 1426

An English army raiding into Brittany took refuge at St-James-de-Beuvron, where a French force under Arthur de Richemont attacked them. The French were caught off guard by a sortie and withdrew.

■ORLÉANS, 12 OCTOBER 1428–8 MAY 1429

After a series of triumphs, an English army under the earl of Shrewsbury reached the strategically placed city of Orléans, which still held out for Charles VII of France. Orléans was connected to the Duke of Orléans, England's inveterate enemy, so the Orléanais could expect brutal treatment from the enemy. As a result, they refused to surrender, after which Shrewsbury mounted a siege on 12 October 1428.



Orléans was a strongly fortified town with suburbs extending to the south bank of the Loire. The English effort to take the city opened in the south-bank suburb with an attack on the Augustins, a walled monastery. They soon took the Augustins, then went on to seize Les Tourelles, a heavily fortified gate that protected the southern end of the long bridge over the Loire that led into Orléans. The French defenders were forced back behind the city walls, destroying a section of the bridge as they went.

The walls of Orléans were invulnerable to the cannon of the day, so the English had no choice but to try to starve the defenders out. The death of their

commander and a number of temporary commanders probably also added to English inactivity during the winter months. Eventually the Earl of Suffolk took charge. The English force was insufficient to invest the large town completely, but they created a series of fortified camps to control the surrounding countryside. Some food and reinforcements continued to find their way into the town, despite English patrols. Nonetheless, by spring 1429, the defenders were growing desperate.

Then came one of history's great surprises: a French peasant woman presented herself to the demoralized dauphin of France, proclaiming that God had sent her to raise the siege of Orléans and to see Charles crowned as true king. Joan of Arc quickly won credence. She was equipped with arms and armour, as well as a banner proclaiming her cause and was sent to Orléans with a hastily assembled relief force. She entered the city on 29 April. Jean de Dunois (the 'Bastard of Orléans') soon accepted Joan at least as a talisman, but his caution continued to clash with her fiery demands for immediate attack. Joan quickly gave heart to the dispirited French, inspiring the men to confess their sins and sing hymns.

At Joan's urging, the French made a direct assault on 4 May against the English fortress of St-Loup, taking the position after heavy fighting. Joan then wrote to the English demanding their withdrawal in God's name (the letter is still extant). The defenders joined with Joan in clamouring for a further assault until Dunois had to agree to attack Les Tourelles on 7 May. Again, the French abandoned subtlety in favour of a full frontal assault. The first escalade failed and Joan suffered an arrow wound, leading the English to chant gleefully 'the witch is dead'! However, Joan soon returned to the fight and the French force successfully overran Les Tourelles in the evening, killing or capturing all defenders.

On 8 May, Suffolk gathered the English garrisons from the fortresses surrounding Orléans and drew them up for battle. The French responded by taking up battle formations outside the city walls.

The two forced faced each other for an hour, neither side willing to start the conflict (it was a Sunday, so Joan was unwilling to attack). Finally, the English withdrew, ending the siege.

■ROUVRAY, 12 FEBRUARY 1429

The 'Battle of the Herrings' developed when the French attacked an English supply convoy under Sir John Fastolf. The English fortified themselves with

their wagons; the French failed to break through. About 400 Frenchmen were killed.

■JARGEAU, 11–12 JUNE 1429

A French force of 3000 attacked the town of Jargeau, held by an English garrison of 700. French artillery brought down a tower and the French, rallied by Joan of Arc, scaled the walls.

■Meung-sur-Loire, 15 June 1429

A French army led by Jean, Duke of Alençon and Joan of Arc attacked Englishheld Meung-sur-Loire. They took the fortified bridge in a single day, ignoring the Englishheld town and castle.

■BEAUGENCY, 16–17 JUNE 1429

A French force under Jean, Duke of Alençon and Joan of Arc thrust into the Loire Valley. They attacked English-held Beaugency on 16 June, soon forcing the English to abandon the town and take refuge in the castle. The second day saw an artillery barrage against the castle. That night, Alençon received word of an English relief force, so he offered generous terms for the castle's surrender.

■PATAY, 18 JUNE 1429

A 5000-man English army was caught unprepared by the 1500-man vanguard of the French army under La Hire. The English, mostly archers, had no time to fortify themselves and were scattered.

■Compiègne, 18 June 1430

Joan of Arc gathered 300–400 volunteers to protect Compiègne. After a failed surprise attack against the Burgundians at Margny, Joan fell back to Compiègne, but was captured because the gate was already closed.

■GERBEVOY, 1435

English troops under the Earl of Arundel encountered a large French force near Gerbevoy. Many of Arundel's soldiers ran most who remained were killed. Arundel himself suffered a culverin wound and later died.

■ROUEN, 1449

A large French army under Dunois, the 'Bastard of Orléans', took Rouen, the English capital of France, after a three-week siege. Their victory was due to Dunois' modern and large artillery train.

■FORMIGNY, 15 APRIL 1450

The increasingly desperate English gathered a force of 4000–7000 soldiers, two-thirds of them bowmen, to halt the French advance into Normandy. They

encountered a 5000-man French army under the Comte de Clermont at Formigny on 15 April 1450.

The English under Thomas Kyrielle took up a defensive position, in line behind stakes and low earthworks. Action began with a series of ineffective French charges against the English flanks. Clermont then had two cannon brought forward, whose shot had little effect; the English soon charged and seized them. The battle turned when the Duke of Brittany with 1200 men arrived on the English flank. Forced out of their prepared position, the English (mostly lightly armoured archers) could be overwhelmed in a series of charges. Kyriell and 900 of his men were captured; about 2500 English were killed. French losses, however, were under 1000.

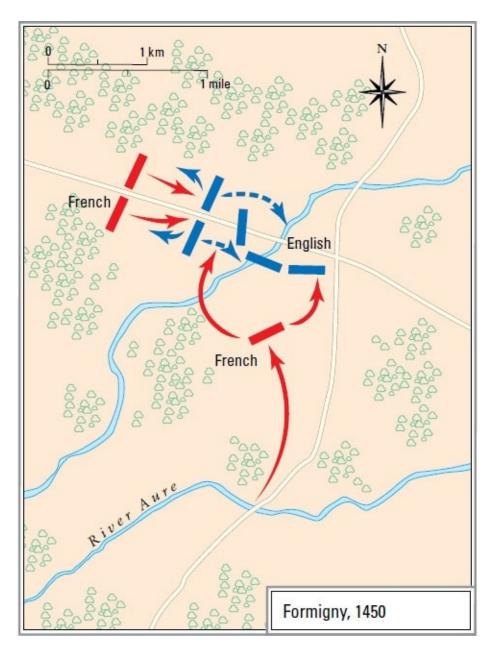
■Castillon, 17 July 1453

A 9000-man English army led by Shrewsbury encountered a French force invading Gascony in July 1453. The French soldiers took refuge in a heavily fortified camp, their 300 cannon, archers and crossbowmen mowing down English charges. A Breton flank attack eventually completed the English rout.

Ethiopian War 1445

■GOMIT, 1445

Ethiopia, led by Zara Yaqob, overcame the forces of the Adal Sultanate, led by Badlay ibn Sa'ad ad-Din who was killed. His body was then distributed around Ethiopia.



Wars of the Roses 1455–85

■ST ALBANS I, 22 MAY 1455

The first battle of St Albans is regarded as the first battle of the Wars of the Roses. It was fought between Richard, Duke of York, assisted by Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, whose 3000 men overcame 2000 Lancastrians under Edmund, Duke of Somerset, who was killed in the fighting in the city streets of St Albans. An important outcome of the battle was the temporary seizure of Henry VI.

■BLORE HEATH, 23 SEPTEMBER 1459

At Blore Heath, a Lancastrian army under Lord Audley attempted to intercept a Yorkist army marching to join up with the Yorkist main body at Ludlow. The ambush was foiled and Lord Audley was killed.

■Ludford Bridge, 12 October 1459

Richard, Duke of York made a stand at Ludford Bridge across the River Teme below Ludlow Castle, but when some of his troops defected, he was forced to take refuge in Ludlow and then fled.

■SANDWICH, JANUARY 1460

The battle of Sandwich was a minor naval engagement fought at sea off Sandwich between the Earl of Warwick, Captain of Calais and a Lancastrian fleet. It secured the English Channel for the Yorkist cause.

■Northampton, 10 July 1460

Landing at Sandwich, the Yorkists under Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, advanced to London and headed north towards Coventry where King Henry VI was based. The King's Lancastrian army advanced to meet them and took up a position at Northampton behind some field defences. The Yorkista attacked in rain against a barrage of arrows. The Lancastrian Lord Grey of Ruthin changed sides as the battle began and their defence collapsed.

■WAKEFIELD, 30 DECEMBER 1460

The battle of Wakefield was a major defeat for the Yorkists. Richard, Duke of York, was inside his castle of Sandal to the south of Wakefield and was expecting reinforcements, but before any supporters arrived, he made the strange decision to march out and give battle to the Lancastrians. He was heavily defeated and died in battle. His son, Edmund Earl of Rutland, was killed as he tried to escape.

■MORTIMER'S CROSS, 2 FEBRUARY 1461

Mortimer's Cross was a victory gained by Edward, Earl of March (later Edward IV) as he successfully prevented a Lancastrian army under Owen Tudor from joining forces with the main Lancastrian body in England. Owen Tudor attempted an encirclement of the Yorkist left wing but his troops were defeated. During the flight from the battlefield, some of the Lancastrians were followed as far as Hereford, where Owen himself was captured and beheaded.

■ST ALBANS II, 17 FEBRUARY 1461

The Earl of Warwick attempted to halt the progress to London of the Lancastrian army at St Albans, 38 km (24 miles) north of London. The Lancastrians outmanoeuvred him by making a wide sweep, but were unable to follow up their victory.

■Ferrybridge, 28 March 1461

The minor conflict at Ferrybridge was a preliminary to the battle of Towton. The Earl of Warwick, leading the Yorkist vanguard of the newly proclaimed King Edward IV, forced their way under arrow fire across the broken bridge of the Aire river. The following day, the successful Yorkists were ambushed by Lancastrians, although their main body soon arrived. Crossing upstream at Castleford, they began a pursuit of the Lancastrian army.

■Towton, 29 March 1461

The battle of Towton was the largest battle of the Wars of the Roses and one of the bloodiest in English history. The Yorkists were led by King Edward IV, the Lancastrians by Henry Beaufort, Duke of Somerset. The battle began with a discharge of arrows by the Yorkists as snow began to fall. The wind carried the arrows far into the ranks of the Lancastrian army, who replied with a barrage of arrows that fell short. Both armies then advanced and began a long and bloody hand-to-hand struggle, constantly replenished from the rear. As the Lancastrians fell back, a panicked retreat began. A wooden bridge across the Cock beck broke under the weight of the retreat and as many as 30,000 soldiers died in all.

■Hedgeley Moor, 25 April 1464

This battle, a footnote to the Wars of the Roses, was an encounter between the families of Neville and Percy, during which the Percies attempted an ambush against the Yorkists. Sir Ralph Percy was killed in the battle.

■HEXHAM, 15 MAY 1464

In another encounter in the north of England, John Neville, Lord Montague, attacked the camp of a Lancastrian raiding party located beside a river near

Hexham. Three important Lancastrian leaders were captured and later beheaded.

■Edgecote Moor, 26 July 1469

The battle of Edgecote Moor arose from the defection to the Lancastrian side of the Earl of Warwick, who reinforced the rebels. The rivals met almost unexpectedly near Banbury. The Earl of Pembroke was captured.

■Losecoat Field, 12 March 1470

Also known as the battle of Empingham, this was the main engagement of the Lincolnshire Rebellion. Although a victory for Edward IV, it was one of the factors that caused him to flee from England.

■RAVENSPUR, 1471

King Edward IV returned to England to regain his throne. He landed at Ravenspur and avoided fighting Lancastrian armies by claiming that he acknowledged Henry VI and merely wished to reclaim his dukedom of York.

■BARNET, 14 APRIL 1471

The battle of Barnet was fought between Edward IV and the Earl of Warwick. The fighting began early in the morning when fog obscured the battlefield and the flank attacks were dissipated while a fierce melee went on in the centre. An impetuous attack by the Earl of Oxford left the battlefield and, when they returned, they were attacked by their allies in mistake leading to a defeat for Warwick. While retreating, Warwick was killed by Yorkist soldiers.

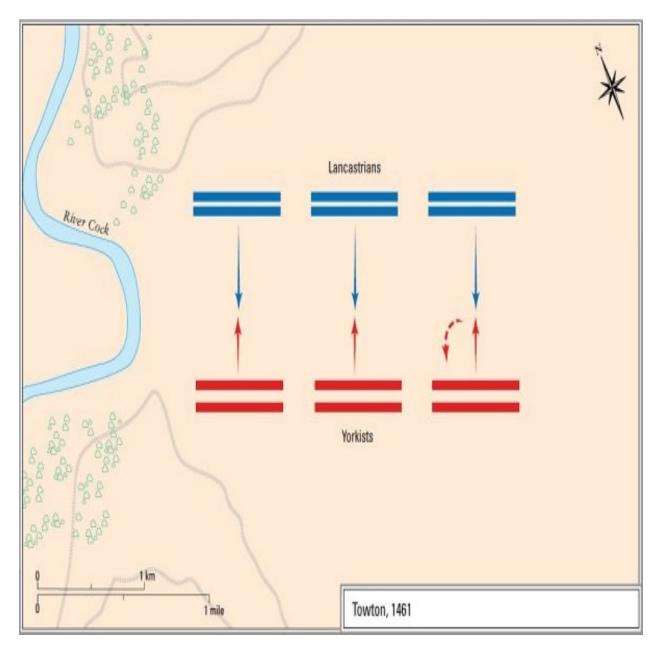
■Tewkesbury, 4 May 1471

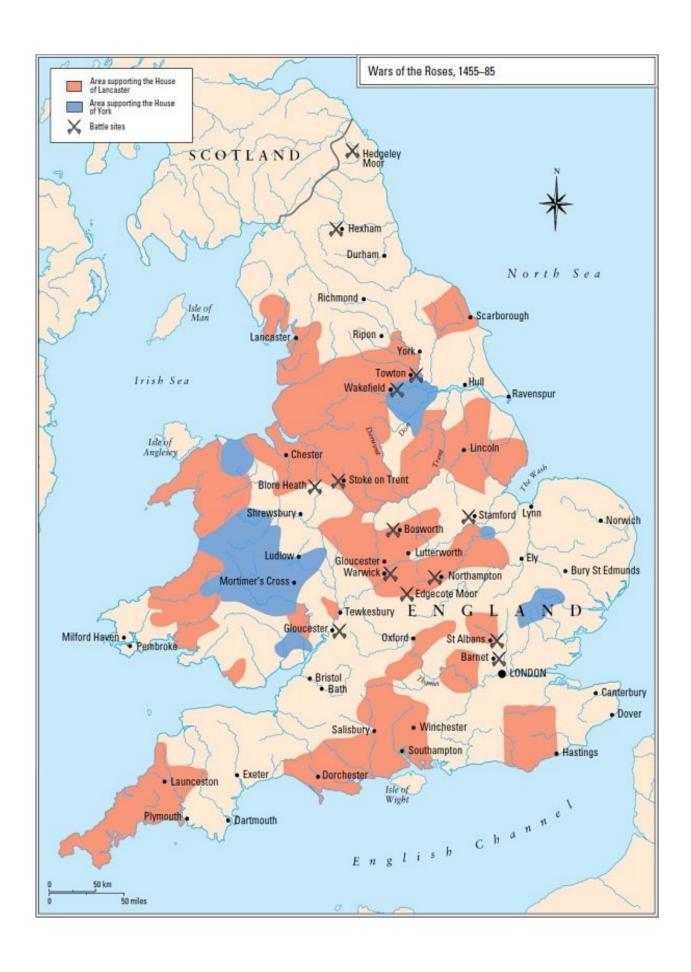
The battle of Tewkesbury came about when the Lancastrians, retreating into Wales, were caught while crossing the Severn river after being denied the safety of the city of Gloucester. The battle was evenly balanced until the Lancastrian Duke of Somerset accused an ally of treason and killed him, causing a split in the ranks. The Yorkists took advantage of the confusion and attacked in force, driving the Lancastrians towards the river where many drowned.

■Bosworth Field, 22 August 1485

Bosworth Field, the battle that ended the Yorkist line, was one of the most decisive battles in English history. Henry Tudor, exiled in France, provided a nucleus of resistance for the Lancastrian lords who had been dispossessed following the triumph of Edward IV and his successor, Richard III. Henry and his army landed at Milford Haven in August 1485 and began to raise additional troops. King Richard III did the same and, owing to the locations of their allies and the directions of movement, the armies met at Bosworth Field near Leicester. The forces of Lord Stanley and the Earl of Northumberland were of

questionable loyalty, so Richard treated the former as hostile and placed the latter, who had pledged loyalty to him, safely to his rear.



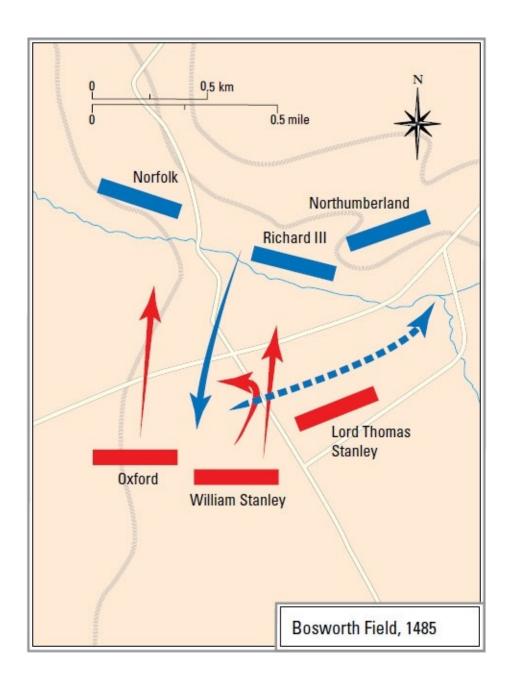


The battle of Bosworth Field began precipitately when Richard attacked first to prevent Henry from bringing into action his Burgundian gunners. The move was led by the Duke of Norfolk. Henry was still arranging his army and there was some confusion, but the line held and the Duke of Norfolk was killed. There followed something of a stalemate and, seeing Henry Tudor riding towards Lord Stanley to ask for his allegiance, Richard III unleashed a fierce cavalry charge.

The impact was considerable and Richard's own lance pierced the body of Henry Tudor's standard bearer. Although seemingly successful, at that point Lord Stanley declared for Henry and attacked Richard III's left flank. The Earl of Northumberland withdrew his forces and Richard III was killed on the field of battle. The coronet he wore on his helmet was hacked off, and presented as a crown to Henry Tudor.

■EAST STOKE, 16 JUNE 1487

Regarded as being the final battle of the Wars of the Roses, at Stoke King Henry VII crushed the Yorkist rebellion under the pretender Lambert Simnel and the Earl of Lincoln, who led an army containing German and Irish mercenaries. The Yorkists immediately went on the attack, but after three hours the lightly armoured Irish troops suffered heavy losses and Lincoln's army was defeated. It was one of the deadliest fights of the war, with perhaps 7000 of the 20,000 combatants dying, as there was a mutual agreement that there would be no quarter for those left standing. All of the main Yorkists commanders died at the battle apart from Simnel, who was captured and eventually pardoned.



Swiss-Burgundian War 1474–77

■HÉRICOURT, NOVEMBER 1474

This was the first encounter of the Swiss-Burgundian War. An allied army of Austrians, Alsatians and Swiss besieged Héricourt and defeated Charles the Bold's relieving army, thus delaying his plans to annex Alsace and Lorraine.

■PLANTA, NOVEMBER 1475

In November 1475, the army of the Duchy of Savoy engaged the Swiss Confederates who were initially driven back, but reinforcements forced the Savoyards to withdraw their left flank. During the attack, 1000 Savoyards died.

■GRANDSON, 2 MARCH 1476

Grandson was a major defeat for Charles the Bold at the hands of the Swiss Confederacy. It followed his capture of the castle of Grandson on Lake Neuchâtel. Charles assumed that the approaching Swiss vanguard was their entire army and withdrew his cavalry so that his artillery could deploy, but the rapid advance of the Swiss main body did not allow for the artillery to be used.

■MORAT, 22 JUNE 1476

Also known as the battle of Murten, Morat was a castle besieged by Charles the Bold. The Swiss relieving army advanced steadily in a dense pike formation and overcame the Burgundian army, capturing much booty.

■Nancy, 5 January 1477

During a severe winter, Charles the Bold laid siege to the city of Nancy, previously captured by the Duke of Lorraine, who sent a relieving army. Charles deployed his army of 3000 besiegers in a defensive position, which had a small stream, as well as 30 small cannon, in front of it. The position was sufficiently strong to dissuade the Duke of Lorraine's much larger army of 10,000 from a frontal attack. Instead, the largely Swiss vanguard was sent off in an encircling movement against Charles' left flank. Meanwhile, the centre took up a position on Charles' right. When they attacked, Charles tried to reorganize his forces, but was caught up in the overwhelming advance. Charles was hit on the head and knocked off his horse. His body was found three days later. Nancy was relieved and when Charles' death became known, the Swiss-Burgundian Wars ended.

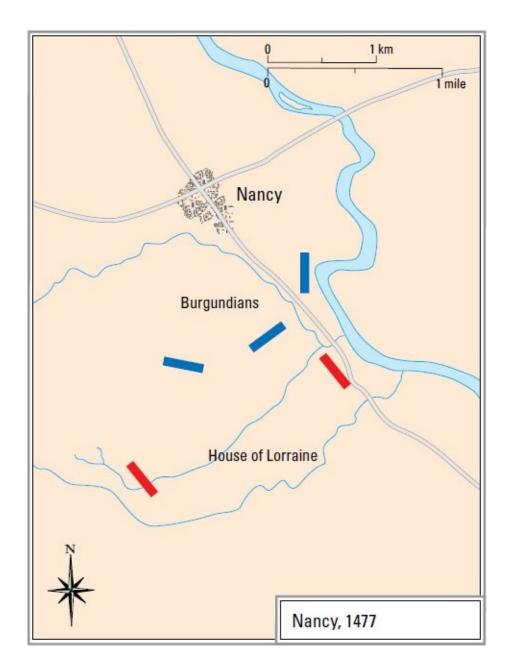
Spanish-Muslim Wars 1481–92

■ALHAMA DE GRANADA, 1482

Situated between Malaga and Granada, Alhama was strategically important to the Sultanate of Granada. In 1482, it fell to a Christian army as part of the reconquest of Moorish Spain.

■Loja, 1486

The attack on Loja in 1486 was led personally by King Ferdinand and proved to be a disaster for the Christian army, who were driven off and pursued. A planned withdrawal then turned in to a panic retreat.



■MALAGA, 18 AUGUST 1487

The siege of Malaga in 1487 began with a fiercely contested attempt by the Christian besiegers to find suitable places where they could locate their artillery. pieces A bombardment followed and Malaga was also the last occasion on which a trebuchet was used during a siege. When it was discovered that the garrison were beginning to suffer from the effects of starvation, a gunpowder mine was exploded under them and the city surrendered.

BAZA, 4 DECEMBER 1489

The Amir Muhammad the Valiant surrendered Baza to the Catholic monarchs

rather than submit to his hated nephew Boabdil, whom he regarded as a traitor, but Boabdil withdrew his assurances and prepared to defend Granada.

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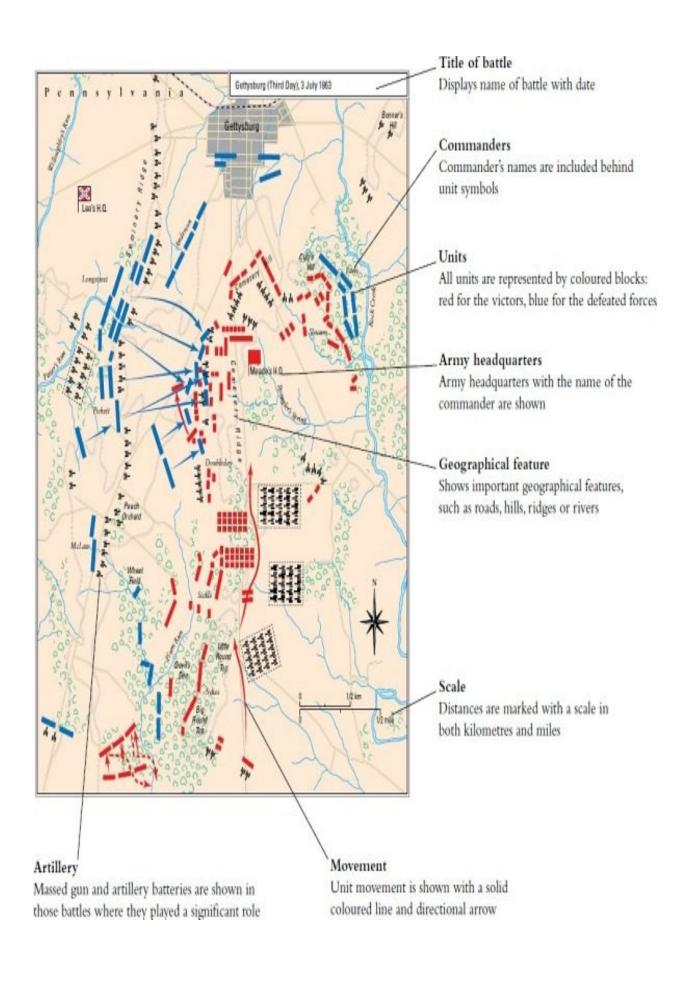
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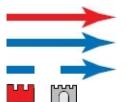
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HOW TO USE THE MAPS

Each map in this book is designed to provide a concise picture of the battle as it unfolded. The dispositions of both sides are shown with red and blue blocks, the red forces indicating the recognized victors and the blue the defeated forces. Movement is shown with coloured arrows. Significant geographical features are also marked, such as towns,hills, ridges, roads, railway lines and rivers. A distance scale is also included. For battles after 1914, the standard NATO military unit symbols are used, indicating the type of force, its size, commander and number or other identifying mark.



KEY TO THE MAP SYMBOLS



Direction of movement of victors

Direction of movement of defeated forces

Secondary movement

Castle or fort



Camp



Cavalry



Infantry



Guns/artillery batteries



Ancient galleys



Ships



Ship sunk



Aircraft movement/attack



Airfield



U-boat



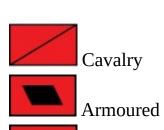
Conflict/flashpoint



Battle

Types of unit symbols (post 1914 maps)







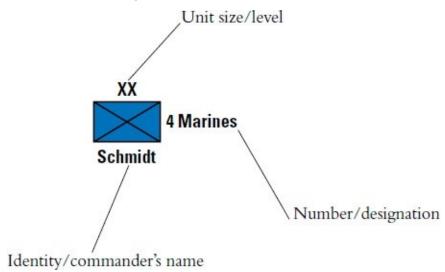


Unit sizes

XXXXX Army Group/Front

XXXX Army
XXX Corps
XX Division
X Brigade
III Regiment
II Battalion
I Company

How to understand a unit symbol



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