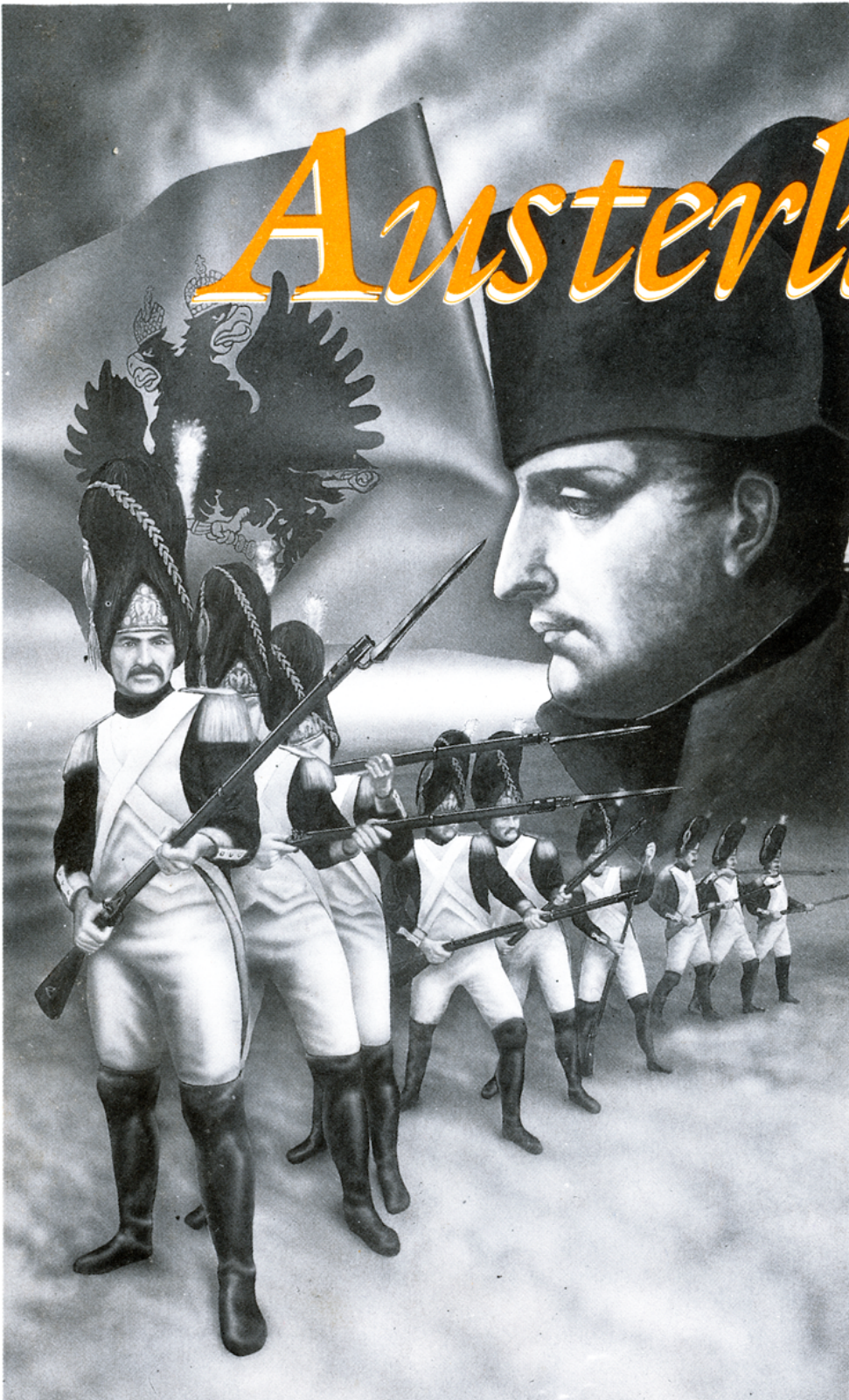


Austerlitz



PSS

AUSTERLITZ

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1 INTRODUCTION

Welcome to Austerlitz - one of a range of new titles that brings a fresh, realistic experience to wargaming. Most computer wargames allow the player a great deal of freedom in the way that he or she views the battle and issues commands. The player is invested with a god-like status that simply does not take into account the difficulties and complexities present on a real battlefield. Far from enhancing the game, this unwanted feature prevents the player from appreciating the finer points of the strategy and tactical planning employed by the actual commanders who lived the battle scenario for real.

Austerlitz uses a unique system developed by Dr. Peter Turcan which simulates the intricacies of Napoleonic warfare to a more realistic degree than has yet been achieved by any other program. You must take on the responsibilities of either the Emperor Napoleon, commanding the French Grande Armée, or Czar Alexander I, commanding the Austro-Russian forces.

Like those commanders, your view of the battle will be limited to what you can see from the place you are standing at. Your view of the battlefield is fully rendered in three dimensions, allowing you to actually observe the terrain that the battle takes place over.

Your orders will be written by you and then relayed by a dispatch rider to your corps commanders, who will in turn order the divisional generals to move their

infantry, cavalry, and artillery units. You will have little control over the decisions made by regimental colonels at the lowest level of command. As was the case at the real Battle of Austerlitz, your orders may be ignored or reinterpreted at each level of command, either because of superior local knowledge, or owing to the continually changing morale of individual units and their commander.

Now, you may read on, and begin to experience the glory and horror that was the Battle of Austerlitz...

Napoleon at
Austerlitz



2 A PLAYER'S GUIDE TO AUSTERLITZ

Loading the Game

Please refer to your disk label for loading instructions on your machine.

Setting Up the Game

Once the game has loaded you will be asked a series of questions that tailor the way the game is played. The responses in brackets are recommended for the first time you play.

1 Human to play Napoleon, Alexander, or both commanders?

You may command either army while the computer commands the opposing force. Alternatively two players may play against each other with the computer mediating.

A useful way of learning the game is to give the computer control of both sides so that you may watch how the battle progresses.

2 Messages between generals to be displayed?

This is not realistic, so you will probably wish to answer N to this option once you are more advanced.

(Y)

It is initially helpful, however, to see how orders are interpreted as they pass down the chain of command.

(Y) 3 Player to be allowed to view battlefield from places other than the commander's position.

Again, this is not a realistic option, and you will probably wish to answer N for advanced play. It is useful, however, for familiarizing yourself with the battlefield, and the way in which the computer represents objects and terrain.

(Y) 4 Cannons Firing?

This will allow you to see the puffs of smoke resulting from cannon fire.

(Y) 5 Note on what the program is doing to appear at the bottom of the screen?

This is provided as an aid to following the sequence of play.

(N) 6 Change historical orders?

When the game begins both sides will be issued with the actual orders given at the start of the real Battle of Austerlitz. It is not wise to change these until you are thoroughly familiar with the game. When you wish to do so, please refer to section 3 of this manual.

(N) 7 Save off game every hour?

This is a precaution against the computer being accidentally switched off, and refers to a simulated hour of game play.

Starting the Game

Once you have answered the questions to set-up, the game will begin. Depending on which commander-in-chief you have chosen to play, you will either be look-

ing East from Napoleon's position on Zurlan Hill, or West from Alexander's position on the Pratzen Heights. A map has been supplied, which shows the initial dispositions of both armies. If you have elected to play Alexander, you will now be asked if you are ready to issue your orders. If you are playing Napoleon, you will have to wait while the Austro-Russian army moves first. Before you issue any orders, you are advised to thoroughly familiarize yourself with the battlefield.

The Play Screen

The screen is divided into two parts. The upper, and larger, portion of the screen shows a three-dimensional representation of the view from your current position, while the lower, smaller portion is the command window. This is where you issue orders and receive messages.

The View

The initial view is from your commander's position (Alexander or Napoleon). Your commander is always located at the bottom of the screen, no matter which direction he is looking in. You can see as far as one and a half to two miles in any direction, bearing in mind that the entire battlefield is fourteen miles from east to west and eight miles from north to south.

The Mouse

The Mouse acts as a pointing finger on this perspective view. Clicking on the mouse while the pointer is over

villages, terrain features, army units, and other features will return the name of the location, or the name of the generals and unit types, and also the objects range and direction. For a close up view (if the view is obscured), just click the mouse on any obscured part and the whole scene will appear.

Recognizing Units

Units can be identified by their uniforms. Pointing at a unit and clicking the mouse will show you the unit in greater detail. Each regiment is represented as a block of units led by a colonel. Colonels can be identified by their triangular flags.

During the course of the game, units will change formation and direction. The infantry, for instance, will form into squares if threatened by cavalry, while guns will be seen to be towed, or will be lined up to fire.

There will also be individual horsemen, either generals or dispatch riders. Generals will be carrying a flag; riders will not. Senior generals will be colour coded, and a square flag indicates a division, corps, or commander in chief's position.

The Command Window

This part of the screen shows your orders, and the reports that you receive back from the battlefield. It is also used to pass commands to the program, and for the program to give you messages. When you are typing commands into this window you may use upper or lower case characters. Spelling mistakes, incorrect commands, and semantic errors will be identified by the program. In the event that you make an error, the command is left on the screen with the cursor at the point at which the program believes an error to have occurred.

The command can now be edited and re-entered using the cursor, backspace, and delete keys. The program uses a pattern matching routine to allow names to be shortened to their smallest identifiable sequence. For example: 'Pratzen' can be shortened to 'Prat', since no other name begins with this sequence. Whenever a key appears at the bottom right hand corner of the command window, either click the mouse, press any key, or wait for time-out (about 20 seconds), to go back to the 'Orders:' prompt.

Commands and Orders

There are two types of command that can be entered when you are prompted for an order. The first type is a system command that tells the program that you wish to do something with the game. The second type is an actual order for one of your corps commanders. The commander in chief (you) can only order the divisional generals under him. You may not directly order lower ranking officers. Each turn represents 15 minutes of simulated game time. A maximum of 8 orders or commands may be entered on each turn.

Moving the Headquarters

At the start of your armies movement phase you will be asked if you wish to move your HQ. If so, you must specify which of the four compass directions (N,S,E, or W) you wish to move in, and then select the exact destination with the mouse. The change of location will not take place immediately. You will move as far towards your new destination as time allows. Your view will then, of course, be from the new position.

Basic Commands

These are commands given to the program, they may be entered on any turn.

LOOK

This command alters your view of the battlefield. In its simplest form, the command is used with any of the four compass directions (North, South, East, or West). Compass directions may be abbreviated to their initial letter. Providing you are not already looking in the proposed direction, your view will be changed to show the battlefield from your current position in the direction requested. For example:

Look East or Look E.

If you opted for the ability to view the battlefield from other positions during the game set-up then you may also use the extended form of this command. In this case you follow the compass direction with the word From accompanied by either a place name, or the name of a Corp's Commander. For example:

Look S From Puntowitz

would show you the view South from that village, while

Look E From Bernadotte

would show you that Corps Commander's view East. Bear in mind that, when viewing from another general's position, you may only choose one from your own army!

POINTS

This command will cause the program to display your current points. These provide a running indication of how well you are doing. Points are given according to the current size of your army, the prisoners taken and casualties you have caused, and the farms and villages that you control.

PAUSE

This will cause the game to freeze until you are ready to continue.

SAVE

At the end of the next period of battle, the game will be saved before play is allowed to continue. This is useful if you wish to stop playing and continue to play at a later time or date. It also prevents you having to restart the game from the beginning should there be a power cut, or the computer is accidentally turned off.

X (OR ESC KEY)

This stops the computer waiting for more orders, and allows the game to progress to the next turn. You should use this command if you wish to issue less than 8 orders in a given turn.

QUIT

Abandons the current game.

Battle Orders

All orders are written sentences which are dispatched to your Corps Commanders during the following turn.

The orders that you can send to your commanders are quite complex and sophisticated, but they must contain certain instructions if they are to be understood. These are explained below. Each order consists of two parts, the Action, and the Conditions. There are five possible types of action: Battle Actions, Support Actions, Report Actions, Transfer Actions, and Strategy Actions. Conditions vary depending on the type of action, and are explained in the relevant sections below. The order must be preceded by the name of the general it is intended for. If the order is to apply to the whole army, the name of the General should be replaced by the term *All Corps*.

Battle Actions

These are actions that concern the movement and combat of your units. The options open to you are:

- **MOVE** - go to another location.
- **ATTACK** - initiate an offensive action.
- **DEFEND** - initiate a defensive action.
- **SHELL** - fire artillery batteries.
- **STAY IN RESERVE** - take no specific action, but be ready for further orders.
- **RETREAT** - withdraw troops.

The possible conditions that may be applied to Battle Actions are: Place, Time, and Duration. These determine your troops targets and objectives. Let us assume, as an example, that you wish to move an entire corps to a specific location. First state which commander the order is intended for, next the time at which the order is to be executed, followed by the action (in this case Move), and finally the destination. For example:

(Who) Bessieres

(Time) at 12 30 pm

(Action) Move

(Place) to Jirschikowitz

When stating who is to follow an order, remember that you can only issue direct orders to corps commanders. If you wish a specific unit to follow the order, you must ask the Corps Commander to order the unit for you. For example:

*Lannes at 12 45 pm Order 3 infantry divisions to Defend
Santon Hill*

Or you may wish a Corps Commander to order a subordinate officer. For example:

*Bagration at 1 15 pm Order Markov to Defend the hills 1
mile South of you*

You must use, the Order clause. For example:

Bagratiion Move Ulanius 1 mile South would be illegal.

If your orders to a Corps Commander do not specify any forces, he will select one or more of his own choice. He will, at the same time, be acting on his own initiative, issuing his own orders within the bounds of the strategy he is working in, and any attack/defence line that may have been specified.

The place named need not be a named village or farm - it could be a General or a description of some terrain feature, or an enemy force, or simply a distance and direction relative to one of these names. To give a relative position, simply type in a distance, then a direction (one of eight compass directions), then the place. For example :

1 1/2 Miles East of Pratzen.

The time of the action is optional. Use it when the timing of an action is critical.

The duration of the action is also optional, and takes the form:

for (x) hours (y) minutes

or

for (x) hours

or

for (y) minutes

Here are some examples of a range of Battle Orders, using a number of Battle Actions and Conditions:

- *Kienmayer order your artillery to move 1/2 mile north*
- *Murat move to Bosenitz Stream*
- *Langeron shell Kobeinitz for 3 hours*
- *Bernadotte shell the enemy cavalry 1 mile east of you*
- *Kienmayer order your infantry to move to the HQ*
- *Murat at 2 30 pm retreat*

Support Actions

When a Corps Commander is supporting another he may transfer troops to the supported corps, should a request for them be made. There are 4 support actions:

- **GIVE SUPPORT TO** - respond to requests for transference of troops.
- **TAKE SUPPORT FROM** - request transference of troops.
- **STOP GIVING SUPPORT** - refrain from transferring troops.
- **STOP TAKING SUPPORT FROM** - refrain from requesting troops.

If a Support Action is taken, the corresponding Action is sent back automatically. For Example, if the order:

Bagrati on Give Support To Liechtenstein

is entered, then the Commander's staff send the corresponding order:

Liechtenstein Take Support From Bagrati on

The Conditions listed under Battle Orders can also be applied to Support Orders. As with Battle Orders, you must state which Corps Commander should perform the Action and you have the option of stating the time it should begin. An additional condition is (Assign Corps) which is the corps a commander will give support. You may give support to more than one corps.

Here are some examples of Support Orders:

- *Lannes give support to Bernadotte*
- *Lannes stop giving support*
- *Soult at 6 30 pm give support to Murat, Legrand, and Davout*

Report Actions

A Report Order requests the Corps Commander to ask all subordinates for details of men, guns, casualties,

prisoners, and so on, and to pass all that information back to you, the Commander-in-Chief. The Report Action is:

SEND ME YOUR BATTLE REPORT

Examples:

- *Davout send me your battle report*
- *All corps at 8 30 pm send me your battle report*

Transfer Actions

These tell a Corps Commanders to permanently transfer one or more of his divisions to another Corps Commander. The Transfer Action is:

TRANSFER

All of the previously mentioned conditions may be used, in addition to which you may specify the Division. To transfer a division to another Corps Commander, you may type in the name of its General, or its type, and a specified and unspecified number of divisions. If you are not using the name of the division's general, you must indicate its type, eg: infantry etc.

Here are some examples of Transfer Orders:

- *Prschibitschewski Transfer Muller To Dokhturov*
- *Keinmayer Transfer your cavalry to Langeron*
- *Lannes at 6 pm Transfer 2 divisions of infantry to Soult*

Strategy Actions

Corps Commanders will only ever operate on a single strategy. Strategy orders will probably only be issued at the beginning of the battle. You may also wish to use them if things go very badly or very well.

The possible Strategy Actions are:

- **CHANGE YOUR STRATEGY TO ATTACK**
- **CHANGE YOUR STRATEGY TO DEFEND**
- **CHANGE YOUR STRATEGY TO STAND-BY**

- **CHANGE YOUR STRATEGY TO RESERVE**
- **CHANGE YOUR STRATEGY TO RETREAT**

If you wish to minimize the level of control a Corps Commander has over his divisions, in order to take direct control over them, then change the Corps Commander's Strategy to STAND. Some Examples:

- *Bernadotte at 1 pm Change Your Strategy to Attack*
- *Langeron at 7 pm Change Your Strategy to Defend*

Attack & Defence Line Actions

This is a strategic Order to those Corps Commanders who are to make up the front line. It is important that the front line is complete, as it is in the historical orders both armies start with by default. A Corps Commander on the front line is given two places to form a line between, and two Corps Commander's names to link with at these places. Alternatively, a flank can be specified that does not require a place or general to be named. This order need not be issued if you wish to use the historic orders the Corps Commanders will adjust the line specified to ensure a firm link with the named commanders. If a defence line is specified the Commander will make the best use of the surrounding terrain and buildings, while an attack line will be pushed forward.

The choice of strategies are:

- **FORM AN ATTACK LINE FROM**
- **FORM A DEFENCE LINE FROM**

In addition to the conditions mentioned under Battle Actions, you must specify who the line is linking with, and/ or whether it is to be open at the north flank or the south flank. Examples:

- *Soult form a defence line from the north flank to Menitz linking with Legrand*

- *Bernadotte form a attack line from Blasowitz linking with Bessieres to Telnitz linking with Soult*
- *Dokhturov form a defence line from 1/2 mile south of Pratzén linking with Kollowrath to the south flank*

Je suis content de vous ; vous avez à la journée d'Austerlitz, justifié tout ce que j'attendais de votre intrépidité ; vous avez décoré vos aigles d'une immortelle gloire. Une armée de cent mille hommes commandée par les Empereurs de Russie et d'Autriche, a été en moins de quatre heures, ou coupée ou dispersée ; ce qui a échappé à votre fer s'est noyé dans les lacs ; 40 drapeaux, les étendards de la Garde Impériale de Russie, 120 pièces de canon, 20 Généraux, plus de 30,000 prisonniers sont le résultat de cette journée à jamais célèbre. Cette infanterie tant vantée, et en nombre supérieur, n'a pu résister à votre choc ; et désormais vous n'avez plus de rivaux à redouter : ainsi en deux mois, cette troisième coalition a été vaincue et dissoute. La paix ne peut plus être éloignée ; mais, comme je l'ai promis à mon Peuple avant de passer le Rhin, je ne ferai qu'une paix qui me donne des garanties et assure des récompenses à nos alliés.

Soldats, lorsque le Peuple Français plaça sur ma tête la couronne impériale, je me confiai à vous pour la maintenir toujours dans ce haut éclat de gloire, qui seul pouvait lui donner du prix à mes yeux ; mais dans le même moment nos ennemis pensaient à la détruire et à l'avilir, et cette couronne de fer conquise par le sang de tant de français, ils voulaient m'obliger à la placer sur la tête de nos plus cruels ennemis : projets téméraires et insensés que, le jour même de l'anniversaire du couronnement de votre Empereur, vous avez anéantis et confondus. Vous leur avez appris qu'il est plus facile de nous braver et de nous menacer que de nous vaincre.

Soldats, lorsque tout ce qui est nécessaire pour assurer le bonheur et la prospérité de notre patrie, sera accompli, je vous ramènerai en France ; là vous serez l'objet de mes plus tendres sollicitudes ; mon Peuple vous reverra avec des transports de joye ; il vous suffira de dire : j'étois à la bataille d'Austerlitz, pour que l'on réponde : voilà un Brave.

N a p o l e o n .

*De notre Camp Impérial d'Austerlitz
le 12 Frimaire an 14*

Par ordre de l'Empereur,
Le Major - Général
M^{al} BERTHIER.

3 GENERAL

Historical Orders

This simulation represents events as they were in history, therefore your generals will have been given the orders they were historically given when you begin play. Most players will want to start the battle from this point and then put their own strategies into play as the battle progresses. It is possible, however, that you may wish to attempt manoeuvres that involve changing the initial dispositions of your corps. By answering Y to CHANGE HISTORICAL ORDERS? you may enter up to 30 new orders for either side. Any Corps Commanders who do not receive new orders will stick to their historical ones, so you do not need to re-enter these. Your new orders, if any, will take effect immediately.

Aspects of Gameplay

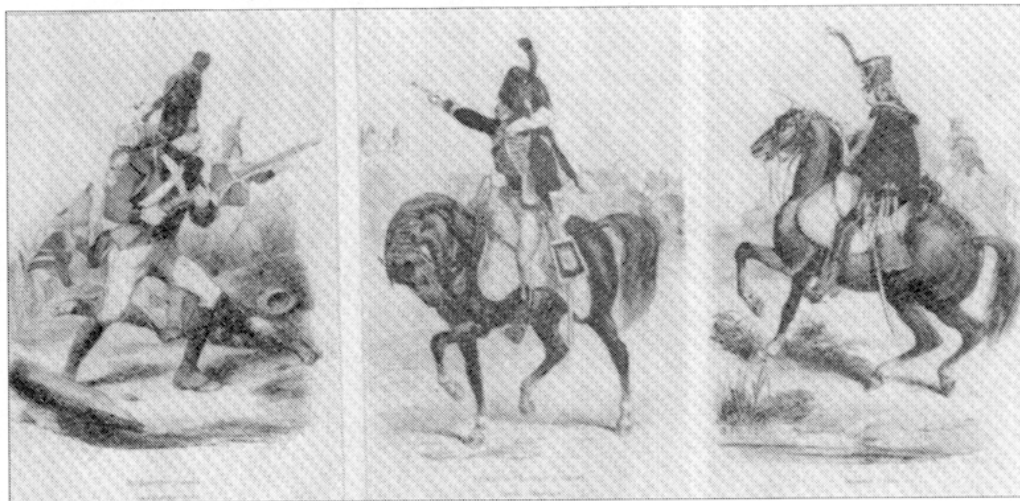
The game works on the principles of Napoleonic War. The various movement and combat results are calculated according to extremely detailed rules, similar to those found in the more complex Tabletop Wargames. The following paragraphs give an indication of the more important aspects of play represented within the simulation.

opposite

Napoleon's proclamation after the battle of Austerlitz

Troop Quality

The best units on either side are the guard units. Line and Light units are all regarded as professional soldiers with appropriate training, whereas Landwehr or Militia are hastily assembled forces, and not full time soldiers.



Units of Napoleon's troops. From left to right; a Grenadier, an officer from the Garde Imperiale, and a Hussar.

Artillery Ranges

Artillery Range is approximately 1/2 mile. A battery of guns can only fire at a target it can see. The artillery officers in the field select the most effective ammunition types according to the range and target.

Morale

Units may be forced into disorganized retreats or temporary routs, and a retreating unit can spark off several units into a major retreat. Militia and Landwehr units have a fairly brittle morale, while others can sustain more punishment before breaking. Some routed units will eventually reform, though their morale is likely to be shaky still.

Messenger Riders

The horsemen who carry messages are treated as units themselves. They can, therefore, get shot, or caught up in routs and lost.

Officer's Initiative

All Commanders interpret their orders according to their character and the prevailing conditions. There are three levels of 'Intelligence' below the Commander-in-Chief; at Corps; Divisional; and Regimental level. A Commander will attempt to use the terrain features to his advantage, and he may not obey an order if he considers it suicidal, out of date, or irrelevant to the local situation. Corps Commanders have a high degree of flexibility and can advance, retreat, support each other, and make similar decisions without consulting with the Commander-in-Chief. The regimental commanders will order infantry into the optimum formation for their relevant situation, that is, forming a square when faced by enemy cavalry, a line to maximize firepower, and a column for heavier impact when attacking.

Excluded Game Aspects

A few aspects of Napoleonic Warfare have been excluded, these are: Smoke blocking the line of sight, the breaking down of Regiments into long lines of skirmishers, and the promoting and demoting of staff.

End of the Game

When the battle ends, full battle reports will become available and the result assessed. You are also given the option of looking around the battlefield.

Hints on Play

Time

One very important aspect when issuing orders is to be aware of the time delay that ensues while riders carry your messages to the relevant commanders, and those commanders attempt to carry them out. If you see a crisis develop on the battlefield think twice before acting upon it. Be sure that what you are attempting can be achieved in time to be of some use. Perhaps the General in command will be able to sort it out anyway? Don't waste good troops sending them off on hopeless mercy dashes that will weaken your army's cohesion.

Issuing Orders

Make your orders clear; '*Langeron move to Pratzén*' is vague. Unless you want Langeron to make the decision you'd best be more specific:

Langeron order 2 infantry divisions and your cavalry to move to Pratzén

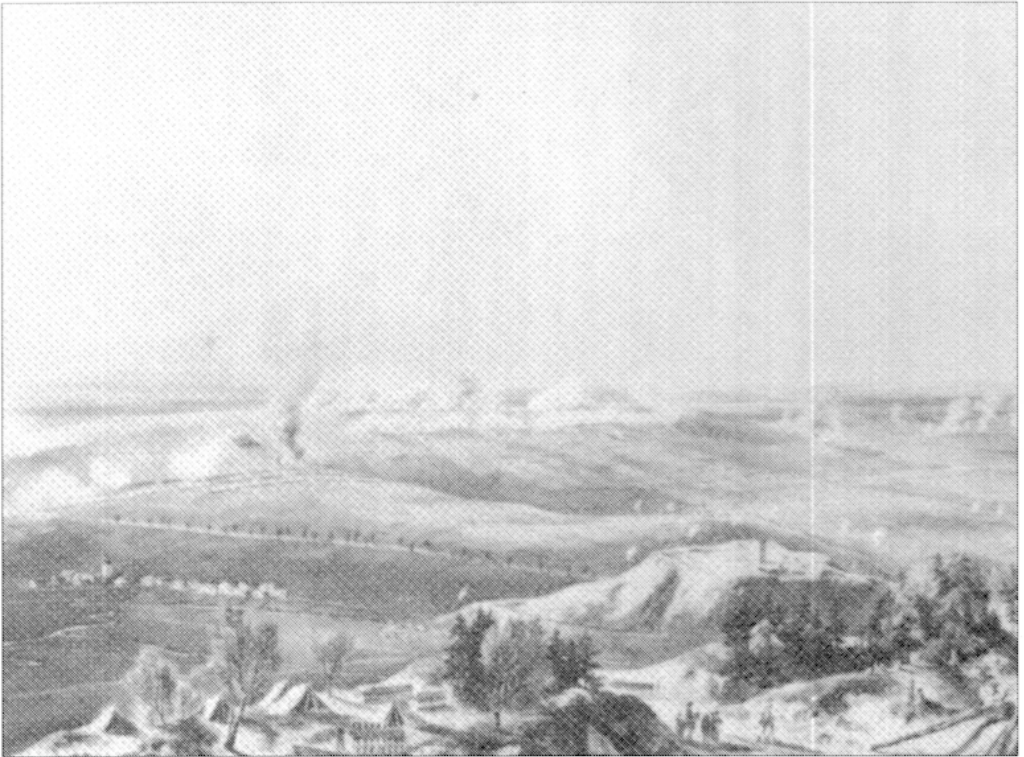
Don't use the Strategy or Attack & Defence Line orders until you are sure of what you're doing. These orders have a major effect on how the game is fought.

Set Up Options

When you are learning be sure that during the game set up you answer Y to option 5 in the game set-up that allows you to see a note on what the programme is doing.

Artillery

Be sure to fully exploit the Shell order. Units behind hard cover may be difficult to dislodge without an ini-



tial artillery barrage. Don't waste potential gunpower on targets that are on the edge of the 1/2 mile range. Make sure your firepower is as effective as possible. You may consider massing the fire of many batteries against 1 target. Try to ensure that your support infantry or cavalry attacks with artillery.

The Battle of Austerlitz, 10am

Reconnaissance

Keep 'Looking' at every opportunity, never forget that the battle is going on all around you, and in places you can't see. Make sure you ask for reports every hour or so.

All Corps send me your battle report is well worth giving a sensible schedule time, say halfway through the day.

Planning Ahead

Don't try to do too much at once. It's very easy to get in a muddle. Set yourself an objective and an overall strategy, and try not to let unexpected events distract you from your purpose. Included in the following pages is some background to Napoleon, and the methods employed in Napoleonic Warfare. This explains the composition of the armies, and the tactics they actually used in battle. The final section of this booklet is an account of the original battle of Austerlitz and the events leading up to it. You will find it easier to understand the game if you absorb some or all of this information.

4 NAPOLEON — the man and his military machine

“I used to say of him that his presence in the field made the difference of 40,000 men” — The Duke of Wellington commenting on the capabilities of his chief adversary, Napoleon.

When Letizia Bonaparte gave birth to her second surviving son at Ajaccio, Corsica on the 15th of August 1769 it is unlikely that either herself or her husband Charles had the remotest idea of the greatness that tiny baby was destined to inherit. Napoleon’s father was a lawyer, and although he came from a minor aristocratic family, he himself possessed no real wealth.

At the time it would have been easy to imagine Napoleon Bonaparte leading a reasonably comfortable but unremarkable life as a Corsican gentleman, unknown beyond the island’s shores. Fate, however, had other plans for little Napoleon, and by the time he was thirty-five there were few European citizens whose hearts were not stirred in some way at the mention of his name.

Despite his later greatness, Napoleon began his life in much the same way that many young Corsicans did. He was educated initially at Autun in Burgundy, but he was soon transferred for a year to the military academy in Brienne. The intelligent student soon showed particular skills in science and mathematics, but his real love



was for military history and theory, and he spent most of his spare time studying these subjects.

In 1785, at the age of fifteen, he was commissioned into the artillery, and by the time he had reached twenty he had been placed on garrison duty in Auxonne. He then spent four uneventful years in Corsica, but during this time he was greatly influenced by the renowned artilleryman Jean Pierre du Teil, who had been his commandant during this period.

He later witnessed the attack on the Tuileries and its defence

by the Swiss Guards on the 10th of August 1792, and this was his first opportunity to see current military tactics in action. His first real military expedition came in February of the following year. The mission in question was a raid on the Sardinian island of La Maddalena, and Napoleon was placed in command of a battery of three guns. Perhaps even he, ambitious as he was, was unaware at that time that within six years he was to have command not of an insignificant battery of field guns, but of a whole nation.

La Maddalena was not a success, mainly because of bad planning by the commanding officers. It is quite ironic that this was the case since, in their midst, was a junior officer whose potential led him to become one of the greatest military tacticians who ever lived. Bonaparte's promise did not go long unnoticed however, and at Toulon, later that year, his successful plan for

it's recapture brought him the recognition he deserved as well as a timely promotion to brigadier.

During the following summer, Napoleon fell out of political favour, and was incarcerated for a short period of time because of his friendship with Robespierre's brother. Soon after he arrived in Paris, on the 25th of May 1795, Napoleon gained the support of the devious politician Paul Barras (1755-1820). The tie with Barras was important for Napoleon because at the time, the former was the most influential member of the Directory (mainly owing to his immoral and devious scheming). It is probably for this reason that Napoleon was only too happy to assist Barras in his defence of the Vendémiaire Convention against the rioting Royalists. His infamous 'whiff of grapeshot' tactics were successful there, and added to his growing reputation.

It was only a few weeks after Vendémiaire that Napoleon met Josephine Beauharnais, the estranged former mistress of Paul Barras. Over the following months their relationship blossomed, and on the 9th of March 1796 they were married.

The marriage was perhaps overshadowed by another great event in Napoleon's life, for only a week before he had been placed in command of the Army of Italy. This sudden elevation assured Napoleon his future success, and was the springboard for his subsequent meteoric rise to fame. During the Italian campaigns his skill in the field became clearly apparent. In particular, the actions at Lodi and Arcole were high points during this early part of his military career.

From Italy, Napoleon went on to even more successful campaigns in Egypt and Palestine. The peace treaty of Campo Formio had removed any threat from Austria, leaving Napoleon with the resources to strike indirectly at Britain by taking control of important

routes through Egypt. It also provided him with a solid base for a possible advance into colonial India.

Napoleon's success and political rise within the current military structure had not gone unnoticed by the Directory back in France. For the time being, however they were satisfied that Napoleon's absence from Paris was enough to prevent him from becoming a real threat to their power. At the same time they were not prepared to sacrifice a military tactician of Napoleon's obvious genius.

This complacency within the directory proved to be the first self-inflicted blow in the subsequent struggle for power. While it seems unlikely that a man of Napoleon's charisma and ambition could have been kept under control, it would have done the Directory more good to have him permanently back in France. If Napoleon had been denied the opportunity to lead subsequent campaigns the legend might have died as quickly as it had arisen. It is also likely that he would have been implicated in the low esteem of the Directory, and the consequent widespread disillusionment with it.

It seemed almost inevitable that the ailing Directory would eventually collapse and that a dictatorship would develop from its ashes. It is down to Napoleon's political skills as well as his ability as a soldier that allowed him to spearhead the dictatorship in favour of his rival Moreau.

On his return from Egypt it was a simple matter for Napoleon to execute his coup d'état, and at Brumaire on the 9th November 1799, he replaced the Directory with the Consulate. As the new 'First Consul for Life' he promised France an orderly government and a victorious peace. If 'order' and 'victory' were watchwords of Napoleon's reign, 'peace' was a concept that was to remain alien to him for the remaining twenty-one years



A drawing of
Napoleon's
coronation.
By *JL David*

of his life. But despite the fact that many loyal French men were soon to meet violent deaths fighting his campaigns, the radical reforms, and Civil Code that were introduced by Napoleon gave France a better and more stable government than she had seen for over a century.

The subsequent victory at Marengo, and the treaties of Amiens and Leoben gave France a brief rest from conflict. However, internal political strife continued and Napoleon had to deal with a number of plots from Royalist and Jacobin quarters. It was therefore of great comfort to him that he gained the security of a dynastic succession in 1804. On the 18th of May that year, at the

age of thirty-four, he was proclaimed Emperor of France. His coronation in the presence of the Pope took place in Paris on the 2nd of December that year. On the 26th of May 1805, at a coronation in Milan he added a second title — King of Italy.

By this time, Napoleon had, for the time being, abandoned his planned invasion of Britain, mainly because of the supremacy of the English navy in the channel. Nevertheless, this setback was occluded by his greatest victories — those of the War of the Third Coalition at Austerlitz (1805), Jena and Auerstedt (1806), and Friedland (1807). He had also been successful at Eylau (1807), although at the cost of many French lives. These successful campaigns allowed Napoleon to establish a French Empire that stretched from Adriatic sea to the edge of the Baltic, including confederated states in Warsaw, Germany, and Italy.

It was during the subsequent campaigns that Napoleon's ambition began to 'o'erleap itself and fall upon the other'. His attempt to annexe Spain proved to be indecisive and left the Anglo-Spanish armies in too strong a position for Napoleon to complete his manoeuvres successfully.

The battles of Eckmühl, Appern-Essling, and Wagram during 1809 were Napoleon's last great military triumphs in Europe. With Austria shattered, Napoleon took the Archduchess Marie Louise as a second wife, and she later gave birth to his only child, Napoleon François Charles Joseph, born in 1811.

The following year saw the largest military operation ever mounted by Napoleon — the invasion of Russia. As well as being Napoleon's largest campaign, the invasion was also his largest error. Napoleon had mustered somewhere in the order of 675,000 men for the campaign, but this apparent strength also proved to be a weakness. In their previous campaign's, the Grande



Armée had managed to successfully live off the land as they marched. This was not possible during the long haul across Russia's frozen wastes towards Moscow.

Napoleon on the retreat from Moscow

Despite having suffered a huge depletion in troops, Napoleon managed to overcome the Russian forces at Borodino, and subsequently took Moscow. His intention to force the Russians into an attack on the capital did not succeed, however, and he soon realized that his army could not survive the winter in the devastated city.

On the 19th of October 1812 the 100,000 remaining French troops began the long retreat to the river Neimen on Russia's border. It is thanks to the steadfast

rearguard action of Marshal Michel Ney ‘the bravest of the brave’ that the Grande Armée reached the border at all. As it was just 20,000 hungry and demoralized men returned to French soil.

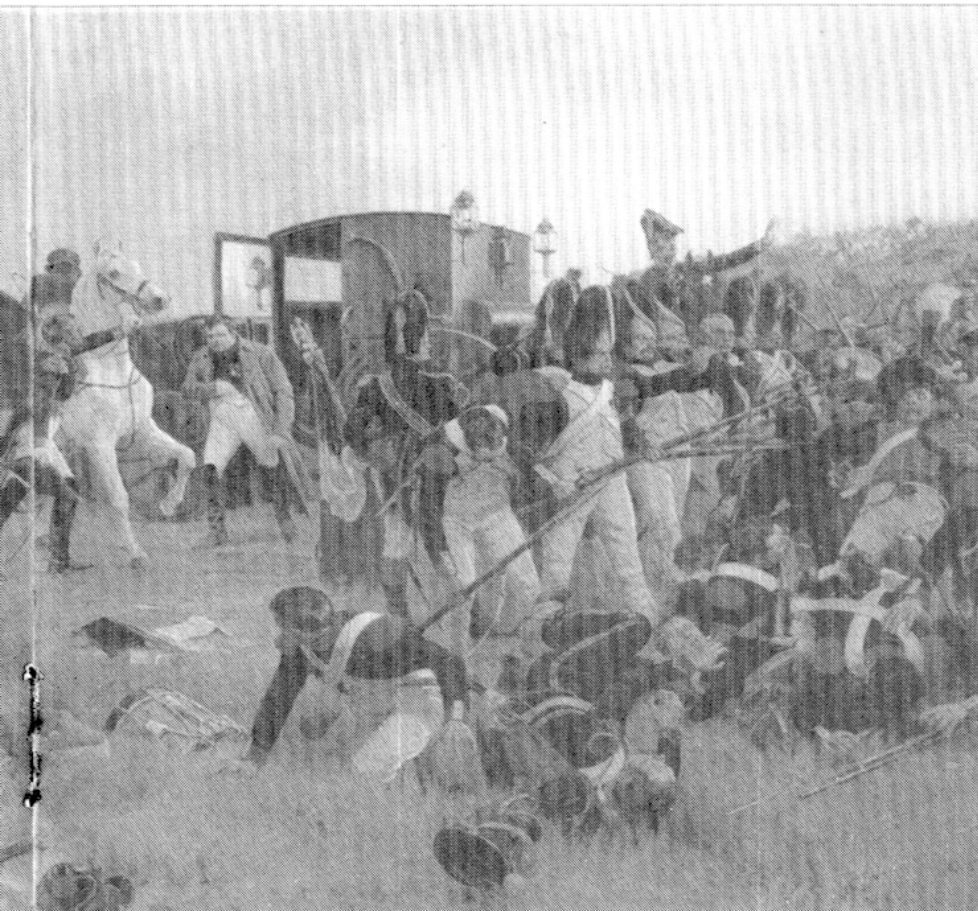
It was only because Napoleon had left the retreating line early to return to Paris and assemble a new army that he managed to defeat the Sixth Coalition which marched against him in 1813. But despite this unexpected victory, Napoleon’s forces were too weak and too raw to allow any consolidation of the allied defeat.



Napoleon Escaping from the battlefield after his defeat at Waterloo

Another army was mustered to face the Allied forces early in 1814, and although Napoleon achieved some tactical victories during the winter, his rejection of peace terms during the negotiations at Châtillon was to bring about his downfall. He was soon cut off from Paris which fell on the 31st March 1814. One week later, at Fontainebleau, Napoleon was forced to abdicate. He left France and became ruler of the tiny island of Elba.

For a more ordinary man, such a crushing blow would have been the end. With Louis XVIII on the



French throne, and only a small army of die-hard soldiers surrounding him, it seemed that Napoleon's career as a great military commander was over. It says something for the pride, determination, and sheer arrogance of the man that Napoleon refused to lie down, even at that juncture.

On the 26th February 1815 Napoleon and his Elba Battalion embarked from Elba, landing at Golfe de Juan on the 1st of March. He then began his triumphant return to Paris. Such was the charisma of Napoleon and the loyalty of his people that his forces soon swelled to a considerable size. Even the force led by Marshal Ney, which was sent to arrest the former Emperor joined him in his march on the capital.

Once installed in Paris, Napoleon began to reassemble his old army, most of which had been left intact by the brief Royalist regime, and began to make plans for the recovery of France's natural borders. His reign was to last only one hundred days. Then on the 18th of June 1815 the Grande Armée fought its most famous, and last battle — Waterloo.

Following Napoleon's final defeat by Wellington, on the 16th of October he was exiled to to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic. There he spent the remaining five years of his life under the humiliating watch of the island's governor, Hudson Lowe. At nine minutes to six, at Longwood, on the evening of the 5th of May 1821, Napoleon finally died at the age of Fifty-One.

The remains of France's greatest emperor were interred in the chapel of the Invalides on the 15th of December 1840, and finally laid to rest in a stone sarcophagus under the dome of the Invalides on the 2nd of April 1861, in the presence of his nephew, Napoleon III.

5 NAPOLEON'S MODEL ARMY

There can be little doubt that Napoleon was one of the greatest generals that ever lived. His skills as a military tactician rank alongside those of Cæsar and Frederick the Great, while the fear, loathing and in some due respect, which the rulers of other European dominions viewed him could only be matched by that inspired by the likes of Tamburlaine or Ghengis Khan.

But to say that Napoleon was merely a great soldier would be to do the man a great injustice. He was also a first class politician, and many of the administrative reforms that he introduced to France are still in existence today. It is probably this fact that explains in part how he managed to gain and keep power, despite many plots to oust him. There had been other French military geniuses before, but none with the broad political skills and abilities possessed by Napoleon.

Combining and linking these two traits was an extremely strong character and personality. From his earliest days Napoleon was very ambitious, and although, during his early years, he probably never foresaw the heights he would rise to, he always had a sense that he was 'a superior man'. It was this self-assurance that led Napoleon to never accept second best. He was not satisfied until he had outranked the entire French nation, and even then his burning ambition drove him to want more. In fact, it was his continual thirst for power that ultimately brought about his downfall.

At no stage in his career did Napoleon ever consider sharing his power. The very idea of joint leadership was unthinkable. His inability or unwillingness to share command can be seen at several stages in his life. When it was suggested by some members of the Directory that Kellerman be allowed to take on some of the responsibility of the Italian command, Napoleon replied: 'Better one bad general than two good ones'.



General Kutusov

Napoleon's single-mindedness on this subject was perhaps reinforced when he witnessed the mistakes made by his opponents. Napoleon had modelled the French army to his own exact requirements. He therefore understood its mechanics perfectly, and there was also a consistency in the command and execution of military manoeuvres. The various allied coalitions that fought him could not have been more different. The allied forces comprised armies of several nationalities, each with different commanders. Not only were the military philosophies of each commander different, but the very structure and disciplinary code of each force was often radically opposed. The lack of communication, consistency, and coordination within the allied forces often led either directly or indirectly to their defeat.

A further advantage held by Napoleon in this respect was that he was the sovereign head of state as well as the Commander-in-Chief of the Army. This allowed him to have complete control over every aspect that might affect his success in the field. Because he was answerable to no-one, Napoleon was able to effectively manage the enormous resources he required to maintain his campaigns. It is for this reason that he was able to keep up the scale of offensive and defensive military actions that he initiated.

His counterparts, heading the allied forces were not so fortunate. All of them had to contend with political strife, lack of resources, and interference from heads of state. Perhaps the best example of this is at the battle of Austerlitz itself. Here, the Austro-Russian forces were supposedly led by General Kutuzov, but he was continually overruled by the Russian Tsar, Alexander I. Had it not been for that, the allied forces may have stood a greater chance of defeating Napoleon.

At the time of Napoleon's reign, conscription was a harsh but regular aspect of French life. It was hated by the populous, and led to the loss of many thousands of French lives in the field. A loss that Napoleon himself was content to dismiss with the comment: 'a man like me troubles himself little about the lives of a million men.'

But despite this, he was adored by the majority of the people, and especially so by his soldiers. Indeed, one of the aspects of the French army of that time that made it so terrifying was the sheer limits of physical and mental endurance that ordinary soldiers were prepared to go to for their emperor.

That Napoleon was a man of great charismatic quality is undeniable, and yet there was another side to him which enabled him to keep the loyalty of his army and his nation, and that was his ability to manipulate people psychologically.

His most obvious use of psychology in maintaining the morale and devotion of men of all ranks was a cleverly calculated system of punishment and reward. Although nepotism played a large part in the system of promotion (as it did in all armies), there was also substantial opportunity for men to rise through the ranks by showing ability and special skills.

Napoleon was probably inspired in this by his own fortune. He himself had risen from an insignificant junior officer to become commander-in-chief of the whole of the French forces. The possibility of gaining a higher office undoubtedly inspired many ordinary soldiers to deeds of great valour, and an unflinching effort to overcome the enemy. Napoleon, it must be said, made no attempt to disguise the purpose of his system, commenting: 'It is with baubles that men are led.'

There were other bonuses to be had in addition to promotion. Plundering on enemy soil was, if not active-

ly encouraged, far from being seen as a disgraceful offence. Pensions and other financial incentives were also bestowed on men who had shown courage throughout several campaigns.

Reward did not always come in the form of financial or social gain. Napoleon would often address his army personally, and was liberal with his praise if they had done well. But such addresses could often be harsh and censorious if Napoleon was less than pleased with a corps conduct. The stigma of being on the receiving end of one of the great man's tirades was often enough to chivy the guilty units into renewed effort.

Although other commanders regularly addressed their troops in a similar manner, none managed to capture Napoleon's apparent ability to personally favour or chastise individual soldiers. When necessary he could be quite cutting in his remarks upon a soldier's performance, and would often reinforce his meaning by physically assaulting the disgraced man. Even hardened veterans were often reduced to tears at the onslaught.

Perhaps the most effective ploy used by Napoleon to win the trust and appreciation of his men was the manner in which he forged individual links with ordinary soldiers. He would often surreptitiously ask his officers about the service records of a particular man. Then, at an opportune moment, he would approach the man in question and with surprise and delight, and an affectionate tweak of the cheek, claim to remember them from such and such a campaign. The two would then be plunged in conversation during which Napoleon would reveal details that implied he had a special place for the man in his memories. Of course the amazed soldier would soon relate with pride how the great Napoleon had actually remembered him, and thus the mystique and appeal of the man grew among his soldiers.

The ultimate accolade for an ordinary soldier in the

French army was to receive entry into the Légion d'Honneur. This was theoretically a legion of approximately five thousand strong made up of men who were considered to be the most deserving members of the French empire. Each received a cross on a scarlet ribbon to distinguish him. The award, however, was distributed lavishly, and some fifty-thousand are believed to have been bestowed during the course of Napoleon's reign.

These were all, of course, psychological tricks used by Napoleon to win over his men, but the devotion and loyalty he commanded are witness to the effectiveness of these techniques.

Although the efforts of ordinary soldiers did much in the way of making France a force to be reckoned with, it must not be forgotten that it was Napoleon's skill as a tactician and commander that made that same force so effective.

6 THE ART AND SCIENCE OF NAPOLEONIC WARFARE

The manner in which Napoleon fought his battles was, in essence, not dissimilar to the method that had been used for several hundred years previously. The prime factor was the effective movement and disposition of large numbers of infantry wielding bayoneted muskets, light and heavy cavalry, and supporting artillery. Because of the lack of both reliable and quick methods of communication, and the inadequacy of much of the weaponry at the time, the battles were fought at close quarters over a small area of ground (usually never more than five or six miles in any direction), and the outcome could depend as much on sheer weight of numbers, and prevailing local conditions as anything else.

Where Napoleon was superior to many other commanders of the day was in his ability to overcome the constraints and difficulties of close-quarter battles by organizing his army in a unique and highly effective way. In addition to this factor, his aggressive and often inspired tactics combined with a dedicated, if somewhat undisciplined, army made a fighting force more formidable and successful than any during that time or for many decades after Napoleon's demise.

Perhaps the most important aspect of Napoleon's forces was the 'Corps d'Armee' system. The idea behind this was that each corps should be a self-supporting unit in its own right. Each would have divisions

of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, together with engineering and medical support units. There would also be an administrative staff for each corps, in addition to the main administration for the whole army.

These 'miniature armies' were able to move rapidly, living off the land as they marched. Although Napoleon often used one or more corps to fight satellite battles, they never marched more than a day and a half distant from each other, so rapid support was always possible.

Commanding each corps would be a marshal who was answerable directly to Napoleon. Marshals were often required to make important decisions based on local events and requirements, but, in accordance with Napoleon's desire to keep overall control of the whole force, none of them made important broad tactical decisions.

Napoleon was at the centre of the Grand-Quartier-General, which was his Imperial Headquarters. This comprised of three departments: the Maison (Napoleon's personal staff), the general staff of the Grande Armée, and the General Commissary of Army Stores (which handled the provision and distribution of stores, and transportation).

The Maison was an essential element of Napoleon's system of warfare, since it was from here that orders were distributed. Heading the whole operation was the Quartier-General de la Grande Armée, Marshal Louis-Alexandre Berthier, whose efforts during many campaigns were undoubtedly a great contribution to their success. Beneath him was the Cabinet, headed by the Muster-Master-General, Le Duc.

The cabinet was responsible for the issue of all orders to individual corps: a task not to be underestimated, since it involved the complicated organization and coordination of a team of vulnerable couriers. The



Marshal Berthier.
Quatier-General de
la Grand Armee

distribution of orders on the pre-radio battlefield was fraught with difficulties. Riders were subject to sniper fire, or could be caught up in routs. Often, even if the rider was not killed or missing, the delivered order would be incomplete or misunderstood. The problems were much the same for reports from the battlefield, which were, of course, essential for retrospective analysis and future planning.

A sign of Napoleon's attention to detail is the presence in his administration of comprehensive topo-

graphical and record-keeping departments. He made much use of having a superior knowledge of the terrain and surrounding features. This would often be decisive in the advantage it gave him over the enemy commanders. It is probably more than just a coincidence that it was Wellington's superior use of the terrain that finally defeated Napoleon.

It is important to realize of Napoleon that at no stage did he adopt what could be termed a 'defensive strategy'. His system of campaign and battle was always offensive, even when war was not initiated by himself, as in his final campaign of 1814. But, despite this, a tactic he often employed was to give the appearance of utilizing a defensive action which seemed both weak and indecisive.

This would often cause his opponents to make rash and disastrous attacks, leaving their armies in a weak position which could be exploited by Napoleon. It is most noticeable that those commanders who were sensible enough to maintain a strong defensive position always fared better against Napoleon and consequently suffered smaller losses.

Other than his deceptive appearance of weakness, Napoleon's tactics can be reduced to three fundamental types of attack. The least used and least effective was a Frontal Attack. This involved the two armies facing each other in a rigid and tight line, and employing a succession of cavalry charges, bombardment from artillery, and close infantry combat until one side fell or retreated. It was a costly and wasteful form of battle, although one which had been employed frequently during previous centuries. Napoleon would never employ this method of attack unless there were no viable alternatives. It was a last resort to be used if weight of numbers was in his favour.

A tactic that Napoleon often used, especially in conjunction with his 'weakness' deceit, was the double battle. The basis of this method of attack was that two separate battles would be fought. Often there was a need to do this because the armies were large, or a geographical feature prevented a single battle from being fought, as at Borodino in 1812. But often Napoleon would force a double battle for tactical reasons. It was particularly useful when he was opposed by two allied armies. If both the opposing armies began the battle apart, Napoleon would send one or more corps to intercept the smaller army, while he advanced on the larger force. This way the two opposing armies were prevented from joining and coordinating their efforts.

Another use for the double battle was as a diversionary tactic. By bluffing an attack with a single corps at the far end of the battlefield, he could often provoke the enemy commander into committing a sizeable proportion of the enemy troops. Once this had been achieved, Napoleon would attack the weakened remaining units with his main force. By the time the enemy had reacted to the new situation it was often too late - the battle was lost.

The favoured method of attack, however, was the enveloping manoeuvre. The effect that this action, if successful, had on enemy troops was devastating. The principle behind the enveloping attack was to hold the enemy in position by attacking from the front with a large force. Meanwhile, one or more Corps would flank the enemy and cut off their line of communication and retreat. Part of the enemy line now had to re-manoeuvre to face the secondary attacking force. This created a weak point in the line which could then be exploited by Napoleon's cavalry. The confusion and losses caused by such an effect was nearly always enough to cause the enemy to rout en masse, at which point Napoleon's

light cavalry would pursue the fleeing troops and reinforce the victory.

The Organization and Use of Army Units

The fighting elements of most armies during the Napoleonic period consisted of three broad types: Infantry; Cavalry; and Artillery.

Infantry

Infantry were the mainstay of armies at the time. The lot of the average infantryman was harsh and brutal, and his success and survival in the field depended on a weapon which was extremely unreliable. The musket had developed little over the previous half-century, and was therefore, still very crude.

Each time the musket was fired the soldier had to go through a lengthy reloading procedure before another shot could be released. This involved feeding powder from a paper cartridge into the pan, then placing the musket upright on the ground, loading the lead ball via the muzzle, followed by the remaining powder from the cartridge. The cartridge itself was then folded and rammed down the muzzle with a ramrod. Once this had been achieved, the musket was raised to the shoulder and fired, usually with a flash and violent recoil. Estimated rate of fire was one to two shots per minute, and the musket would misfire approximately once every six shots. The accuracy of the musket at anything more than 100 yards was practically nil, and even within this range, only half a percent of bullets were effective.

The purpose of the infantry, however, was not to fire at individuals with any great accuracy, but to repeatedly

fire volleys into the opposing masses. At the point blank range that fighting took place at, the effect could often be horrific.

In addition, infantry muskets were also equipped with bayonets. These were not well-tempered blades, as modern bayonets are, but 15 inch triangular lengths of soft steel. Although bayonet charges were frequently employed, they rarely resulted in many injuries since it was usual for one side to break and flee before the two could meet.

For tactical purposes, Infantry were grouped together as battalions, which in turn made larger regiments. These then were grouped into brigades, and brigades into divisions.

There were two types of infantry: Line and Light. The line infantry bore the brunt of the attack, and came into close contact with enemy infantry. Light Infantry, on the other hand, tended to be better marksmen and were used most frequently as skirmishers and agile support units.

There were three main tactical formations employed by Napoleonic Infantry. These were the column, line, and square.

The column was used when speed was required. If a unit was forced to march to a specific destination it was easier to do so if this formation was used.. It was also sensible for an infantry unit to revert to a column if moving through difficult terrain, such as heavily wooded areas.

The line formation was used when confronting the enemy in the open, it's purpose being to maximize firepower. Originally the men stood in three ranks, and one rank fired while the other two reloaded, or alternatively, the third rank would reload for the other two. This soon proved to be both unnecessary and confusing, so one rank was dropped.

The square formation was employed as a defensive measure when faced by cavalry charges. A tight square protected by raised bayonets was almost impenetrable, even for heavy cavalry.

Cavalry

There were two main types of Cavalry: Heavy and Light; although these subdivided into Lancers, Hussars, Dragoons, and Cuirassiers and Horse Guards.

Dragoons made up a large portion of any armies cavalry. They were used like mounted infantry, and thus were armed with sabres and musketoons. They could operate as heavy or light cavalry, but also saw reconnaissance use. If necessary Dragoons were also used dismounted, but this was not common.

The largest group in the cavalry were the Light Cavalry. These were subdivided into Hussars, renowned for their flamboyance and dashing bravado, Lancers, who were armed with lances and used for shock attacks against infantry lines. Lancers were less numerous than Hussars because of the special training required for the correct handling of the lance.

Light Cavalry were most often used for support actions, such as pursuit troops, and reconnaissance. The heavy cavalry on the other hand were used as shock troops. Their main use was to penetrate enemy lines, and as such, they were usually held in reserve until their success in doing so was more likely.

Cavalry was normally divided into Regiments, Brigades or Divisions, each of which was possibly assigned to a Corps. There were two to four squadrons of one hundred men in each Regiment.

Artillery

Artillery at the time of the Napoleonic wars was divided into three main groups: Foot, Horse, and Reserve.

opposite
Napoleon on the
eve of Austerlitz



A Foot Artillery Battery consisted of at least six guns. The guns were classed according to the approximate weight of the shot they fired. Obviously the heavier the shot, the more damage it was capable of doing. The trade off here was that heavier shot had a shorter range and required larger and heavier guns, thus creating transport problems. Foot artillery normally carried medium weight guns of between 6 and 9 pounds, and occasionally shell firing howitzers.

The Horse Artillery carried smaller 3 to 6 pounders. Although Horse Artillery had less destructive power, its main advantage was in keeping pace with swift troop movements and cavalry advances.

Reserve Artillery was mainly used for concentrated shelling on a particular area of the battle field, before an infantry or cavalry assault. As such the Reserve Artillery used weapons of greater destructive power - mainly 12 pounder and 8 inch cannons. These were grouped into large, slower moving batteries.

7 BACKGROUND

Victory at Ulm

After a decade of fighting, peace finally came to war-torn Europe in March 1802, when France and England signed the Peace of Amiens. It was little more than a year later, in May 1803, that hostilities between the two countries were renewed. Napoleon's intention was to invade southern England, although the supremacy of the British navy in the English Channel prevented this plan from reaching fruition.

By 1805, in preparation for a possible invasion, Napoleon's entire military force, bar 50,000 men under Massena in Italy, was stationed in France at the western end of the empire. Austria, Russian, and Sweden, the countries which, with Britain, formed the Third Coalition, saw this as an opportunity to finally overcome Napoleon. Their plan was to defeat Massena's smaller force, and then advance toward France and challenge Napoleon's unprepared army.

When Napoleon learned of this, he wisely abandoned his planned invasion of Britain. Instead the force was split into its component corps, and began the steady march eastward to confront the Austro-Russian army. By September, Archduke Ferdinand d'Este and General Mack, with a 50,000 strong Austrian army had begun an invasion of Bavaria. Meanwhile another Austrian army of twice the size, under Archduke

Charles were preparing to attack Massena in Italy, and General Kutuzov was leading the 120,000 strong Russian army to join combine with Mack's forces in Bavaria.

Fortunately for Napoleon, Mack was unaware of the approach of the French army, believing them to be still massed on the Northern coast of France. This and the fact that the French forces moved with incredible speed, resulted in Mack becoming isolated from the remainder of the Austro-Russian army.

While Napoleon's cavalry kept Mack occupied, the remainder of the army moved north of him, and swept round in an arc cutting off Mack's line of retreat, and eventually completely enveloping him. Despite two attempts by Mack to break out of the French line (at



Haslach and Elchingen) he failed to regain his line of communication and retreat. Realizing the futility of his situation Mack began negotiations with Napoleon.

Meanwhile Archduke Ferdinand managed to break out with 6000 cavalry, but only 1900 men actually managed to escape. It was only three days after Mack began negotiations with Napoleon that he surrendered.

Napoleon had won a near perfect strategic victory. His envelopment of Mack's forces was so complete that it was not necessary to fight any major battles to resolve the outcome.

Back in Italy the forces under Archduke Charles were facing increasing pressure from Massena. He retreated and joined Archduke John's troops who were removing from the Tyrol. The two forces had intended to return

The Battle of
Austerlitz at 4pm



directly to Austria, but continued action from Massena forced them to retreat via Hungary.

Having disabled Mack's units at Ulm, Napoleon marched on Eastward, except for units under Ney and Marmont which marched south to cut-off Archduke Charles, and about 50000 troops who were left to maintain Napoleon's line of communication. Kutuzov's



A Russian artillery unit falls through the frozen lakes on the retreat from Austerlitz

Russian forces had reached Austria by this time, but were unable to prevent Napoleon from occupying Vienna.

In the middle of November, Napoleon moved approximately 73000 men forward to Brunn, leaving 20000 to hold Vienna. Napoleon emphasized this

apparent weakness by conceding some ground to the Russian forces. Kutuzov was not taken in by this, however, and recommended that the army withdrew eastwards to reassess the situation. Czar Alexander I and Emperor Francis I, considered that Napoleon had overstretched himself, and therefore overruled Kutuzov's decision. This was precisely what Napoleon had been hoping for.

Although the Russian forces began by heading south in an attempt to sever Napoleon's line of communication, the French Commander diverted their attention by withdrawing from the dominating Pratzen heights. The Russians promptly headed west to take up position on what they saw as superior ground. The battle of the Three Emperors was about to begin.

The Battle of Austerlitz

Late on December the 1st the allied forces had massed on the Pratzen Heights and down towards the village of Aujest Markt. A smaller force, headed by Bagration, occupied the Brunn-Olnutz highway to the north. Napoleon's forces were spread from Santon Hill, near Bosenitz, across the Brunn-Olnitz highway, and south along the Goldbach river to Telnitz.

Napoleon's aim was to once again trick the allied armies by letting them think that his only line of retreat was to Vienna. In fact he had already planned an alternative line of retreat via Brunn. The allies, being unaware of this, were more likely to attack his weaker right flank, towards the Vienna high road. Late on December the 1st the allied forces had massed on the Pratzen Heights and down towards the village of Aujest Markt. A smaller force, headed by Bagration, occupied the Brunn-Olnutz highway to the north. Napoleon's

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Le Grand's orders were to hold fast in this defensive position. He was to withdraw northwards only if absolutely necessary, but was promised support from a division under Friant at a later stage of the battle. At this time, Friant's units were marching towards the rear of Le Grand's position. The French left flank, on the Brunn-Olnitz highway, was to be held by Marshall Lannes, backed up by reserve cavalry units under Prince Murat.

Napoleon's offensive force, ranged around the Zurlan Hill to the village of Puntowitz, consisted of Marshal Soult's Corps, under Generals St.Hilaire and Vandamme, a grenadier division under Oudinot, Bernadotte's Corps, the remainder of Murat's cavalry, and Napoleon's Imperial Guard. This force was, in theory, to attack the weakened centre of the allied line on the Pratzen Heights, once most of the allies' left flank and centre had been committed to attacking Napoleon's right flank.

The allied commanders, taking into account Napoleon's submissive withdrawal from the Pratzen Heights, believed that he was already a beaten man. Just as Napoleon had hoped, they planned to storm his weak right flank in an attempt to cut off his apparent

line of retreat to Vienna. Only Kutuzov recommended caution, but once again he was overruled by his superiors.

Their plan of attack was to have Buxhowden's units storm the French troops spread along the Goldbach, and then turn north and work upwards along the French line. Prince Lichtenstein and General Bagration were to keep the French left flank occupied, while General Kollowrath's units charged off the Pratzen Heights to break the French line at the village of Puntowitz.

Towards seven o' clock on the misty morning of the 2nd of December, the allied attack began. Buxhowden attacked the French at the villages of Telnitz and Zokolnitz, and had soon managed to capture them. Shortly after this, however, Le Grand was joined by Friant's division, and managed to hold his line. Buxhowden, realizing that the French would be harder to push back now, had Kollowrath's units begin to move off the Pratzen heights towards him.

Meanwhile, on Zurlan Hill, Napoleon bided his time, waiting for the allied centre to become sufficiently weak. Then, at 9 o' clock, Vandamme and St.Hilaire charged and won the Pratzen Heights. By the time the allies realized what was happening, Napoleon had firmly lodged himself between their left and right flanks, and Bernadotte's units had occupied the central and important village of Blaswitz.

While the allies had lost the centre of the field, battle was still raging fiercely towards the north and the south. Bagration was making much headway against Lannes on the Brunn-Olnutz highway, but a massed cavalry action soon changed fortunes by almost eliminating Lichtenstein's troops. To the south, neither side was making much progress, so Napoleon dispatched Oudinot's grenadiers that way to swing the main battle in his favour.

At about half past ten, the French centre came under pressure again from forces that Kutuzov had recalled from his left flank. The presence of heavy artillery under Marshal Soult ensured that the French nevertheless kept control of the Pratzen Heights. The position was nearly lost again, however, at one o' clock when the Russian Imperial guard charged the tiring centre line and caused two battalions to rout.

Napoleon's Guard Cavalry went forward to meet the intruding units and forced them to retreat. Meanwhile Bernadotte had fortunately realized that the French centre was becoming weak, and moved a division up to reinforce them.

Now it was time for Napoleon to convert his strong position into victory. While Davout and Le Grand pinned the allied centre and right flank with frontal attacks, Soult and the Imperial Guard moved south to envelop Buxhowden's now isolated units.

By half past three most of the units under Langeron and Przbysewski had surrendered, although Buxhowden managed to slip through the French ring. Doctorov's units began to flee over the frozen lakes around the village of Telnitz. Legend has it that Napoleon, on seeing this, commanded an artillery battery to fire into the ice causing 2000 Russians, complete with horse teams, and cannons, to sink and drown. Although it is possible that some men died this way, the story seems to have been much embroidered by French propaganda, and when the lake was later drained, only two bodies were recovered!

By this time Bagration was retreating rapidly from Santon, and Czar Alexander, General Kutuzov, and the unseated Austrian Emperor had evacuated Krenowitz and Austerlitz. At four o' clock the battle was over. Napoleon had had his greatest day. Only twelve per

cent of his Grande Armée had been lost compared to a third of the allied army. Europe had finally conceded that Napoleon was its true master.

Armies at Austerlitz

Unit strengths are as follows:

1 Infantry Regiment	700 men
1 Cavalry Brigade	500 men
1 Artillery Battery	8 guns
	200 crew

FRENCH — COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF: NAPOLEON

General/Division	Composition
	Imperial Guard — Bessieres
Guard-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Guard-infantry	6 guard battalions
Morland	1 guard cavalry regiment
Savary	1 guard cavalry regiment
	I Army Corps: — Bernadotte
I-Corps-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Rivaud	6 line infantry battalions
Drouet	2 light and 4 line infantry battalions
	III Army Corps: — Davout
III-Corps-artillery	2 foot artillery batteries
Friant	1 light and 4 line infantry battalions
Bourcier	5 light cavalry regiments
	IV Army Corps: — Soult
(Note: Soult's Corps had the task of defending from Kobelnitz down to the Menitz ponds with Legrand's division of Infantry and some of the cavalry brigades, so Legrand's division is represented at brigade level.)	
IV-Corps-artillery	4 foot artillery batteries
St-Hilaire	2 light and 4 line infantry battalions
Vandamme	2 light and 10 line infantry battalions
Merle	2 light infantry battalions
Fery	3 line infantry battalions

A3 APPENDIX

Levasseur	2 light and 3 line infantry battalions
Margaron	3 light cavalry regiments
Boye	3 light cavalry regiments
Scalfort	2 light cavalry regiments

V Army Corps: — Lannes

V-Corps-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Caffarelli	2 light and 6 line infantry battalions
Suchet	8 line infantry battalions
Treilhard	3 light cavalry regiments

Grenadier Division — Oudinot

(Note: Oudinot is treated as a Corps commander for the purposes of issuing orders.)

Mortieres	4 grenadier battalions
Dupas	4 grenadier battalions

Reserve Cavalry Corps — Murat

Doguereau	3 horse artillery batteries
Nansouty	6 heavy cavalry regiments
D-Hautpoul	3 heavy cavalry regiments
Walther	3 light cavalry regiments
Kellermann	1 light cavalry regiment
Milhaud	1 light cavalry regiment

THE COMBINED RUSSIAN AND AUSTRIAN ARMY

Although nominally commander-in-chief, Kutusov had practically abdicated his role, having been consistently over-ruled by Alexander, the Russian Emperor. Two other key figures that are not represented are Francis, the Austrian Emperor, who apparently did not even know the plan of battle till several weeks later, and Buxhowden, an incompetent, aristocratic drunkard who was supposed to be in overall command of the first three columns, but played no useful part in events.

Most of the army is Russian and those that are Austrian are marked with an (A). General Weyrother, the Austrian architect of the battle plan is assumed to be in the company of Alexander.

The organisation of this army was into Columns, similar to a French Corps in size. A brigade was roughly the size of a French division, and are referred to as divisions when giving orders. The number of men in a battalion or a regiment is the same as the French, and artillery batteries contain 8 cannon or howitzers, but have a less effective range than their French counterparts. A number of light cannon were dispersed throughout the brigades, and are not explicitly represented as artillery batteries.

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF: ALEXANDER

General/Division	Composition
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Advance guard of 1st Column — Keinmayer (A)

I-Artillery (A)	1 foot artillery battery
Carneville (A)	5 line infantry battalions
Stutterheim (A)	3 light cavalry regiments
M-Liechtenstein (A)	1 light cavalry regiment
I-Cossacks	2 Cossack regiments

1st Column — Dokhturov

I-Col-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Lewis	1 light and 6 line infantry battalions
Urusov	1 grenadier and 10 line infantry battalions
Denisov-Cossacks	1 Cossack regiment

2nd Column — Langeron

II-Col-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Olsuvev	2 light and 8 line infantry battalions
Kamensky	5 line infantry battalions
II-Col-cavalry	1 light cavalry regiment

3rd Column — Prschibitschewski

(Note: Alexander referred to this general as “the Pole with the unpronounceable name”, or simply “that Pole!”.)

III-Col-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Muller	2 light infantry battalions
Selekhov	4 line infantry battalions
Wimpfen	4 line infantry battalions

4th Column (Austrians) — Kollowrath (A)

(Note: Kollowrath and Miloradovich were in joint command of the 4th Column, but in practice tended to command the units from their respective countries. The Austrian brigades were hastily raised after the humiliating surrender of the Austrian army at Ulm, on the 20th Oct 1805. One source described them as being “drawn from the two extremes of military uselessness - namely invalids and totally untrained recruits”. However, in practice they fought with considerable gusto.)

Rottermund (A)	5 militia infantry battalions
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Jurczik (A) 8 militia infantry battalions

4th Column (Russians) — Miloradovich

IV-Col-artillery	3 foot artillery batteries
Monakhtin	3 line infantry battalions
Wodniansky	2 line infantry battalions
Berg	4 line infantry battalions

5th Column Cavalry — Liechtenstein (A)

(Note: Liechtenstein's position at the start of the battle is quite uncertain - especially to him, instead of being where he should be, near Blasowitz, he was camped too far south and barged his way north at dawn on the day of the battle. Frierenberger's battery was on its way to the battle, being in the area of Rausnitz.)

Ermolov	3 horse artillery batteries
Frierenberger (A)	1 foot artillery battery
Caramelli (A)	1 heavy cavalry regiment
Weber (A)	1 heavy cavalry regiment
Essen	2 light cavalry regiments
Gladkov	2 Cossack regiments
Uvarov	4 light cavalry regiments

Right Flank Guard: — Bagration

II-Artillery	4 foot artillery batteries
Ulanius	5 light infantry battalions
Dolgoruky	3 line infantry battalions
Markov	5 line infantry battalions
Wittgenstein	2 light and 1 heavy cavalry regiments
Chaplits	2 light cavalry regiments
Voropaitzki	3 Cossack regiments

Russian Imperial Guard: — Constantine

Imperial-artillery	4 foot artillery batteries
Depreradovich	6 guard infantry battalions
Lobanov	4 guard infantry battalions
Kologrivov	5 guard cavalry regiments



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