

between Edward's son Athelstan and Rognvald's grandson Olaf. The Norse Vikings of Ireland joined with the Scots to fight Athelstan's English forces at Brunanburh (actual site unknown) in 937. It was a decisive English victory, but not a lasting one. Athelstan ruled well and in nominal peace with the Danes, but after his death in 939, fighting began again. Until 954, northern England was alternately under English, Danish, or Norwegian rule, but none could rule for more than a year or two because of outside pressure or internal struggles.

England remained English through the reigns of several kings, until the young and weak-willed king Ethelred the Unready (978–1016) had to stand against a second great outpouring of Danish Vikings. Ethelred paid for a peace treaty with the raiding Olaf Tryggvason after the battle of Maldon in 991. Olaf returned a few years later, allied with the king of the Danes, Svein Forkbeard. In 994 the two were paid for peace; Olaf soon converted to Christianity and left England for good, but Svein left only temporarily. His return in 1001 brought another huge ransom. The following year, Ethelred ordered the massacre of all Danes in England. Some killing took place, including that of Svein's sister. Svein invaded in 1003 to avenge her death and succeeded in pillaging as much as he liked; only famine, in 1005, forced his withdrawal. He was back looting the next year and took yet another massive bribe from Ethelred. He finally came to stay in 1012; he was received in the north by the descendants of the first Vikings, and from that base he pillaged the entire country save London, which he could not capture. It did not matter, for the country surrendered to him, and Ethelred went with his family to Normandy.

Svein's victory was short-lived, for he died five weeks later. His son Canute succeeded him and maintained Danish rule over England. This also proved relatively short, for other Viking descendants conquered England under William of Normandy in 1066. The Vikings in England were both conquerors and conquered, as so often happens. They adapted themselves to a countryside that provided much more fertile farmland than the one they had left. The area of Danelaw inherited influences of law,

language, personal and place names, and social custom from the invaders. In the long run, however, more change came from the Norman conquest than from the Danes.

See also Britain, Norman Invasion of; Carolingian Dynasty; Ireland, Viking Invasions of; Russia, Establishment and Expansion of.

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EUROPE, MONGOL INVASION OF

As the middle of the thirteenth century approached, the Mongols had established themselves along the Volga River, assuming the title "the Golden Horde." As they consolidated their hold on Russia, reconnaissance forces penetrated eastern Europe, returning with the news that, like the Russian principalities, the Europeans were divided and quarreling. They reported that the mightiest king, Frederick of the Holy Roman Empire, was feuding with Pope Gregory, so a Mongol advance should meet no consolidated resistance. The leader of the Golden Horde was Batu, son of Genghis Khan's illegitimate son Juchi. He preferred to settle into the steppes of Russia and enjoy his conquest, but Genghis's chief general, Subotai, under orders from Genghis's successor, Ogadai, convinced him that they must invade Europe.

Subotai commanded the invasion force, which went into motion in December 1240. Subotai chose this time because the rivers would be frozen, allowing his horsemen to cross more easily, and the poor weather would hamper the gathering of defensive forces. Their first stop was Kiev, and Subotai offered the citizens peace in return for submission. When the Mongol envoys were slaughtered, so was the population of Kiev, and the most beautiful city east of Europe was destroyed. The remainder of the Slavs inhabiting the area were driven westward until Subotai halted his men before the Carpathian Mountains. They and the nomadic Kipchaks of the south, whom the Mongols had already defeated, spread the news of

the Mongols' advance and Kiev's fate. The Kipchaks fled to the court of King Bela of Hungary, offering themselves for baptism in return for his protection. Bela accepted them until Subotai wrote to him that the Kipchaks were Mongol servants who should be returned to him. Bela became convinced that his new converts were spies, so he drove them into the hills, where they became bandits.

On the eastern slopes of the Carpathians, Batu again counseled against entering Europe, and again Subotai overrode him. Subotai ordered his force to divide into four parts. The northernmost, under Kaidu, was to swing around the Carpathians into Poland and then ride southward to Pest on the Danube. A second column was to perform the opposite task, riding southward, then upriver. A third column was detailed to cross the mountain passes on Kaidu's left flank, while Subotai and Batu led the center column through the pass known as the Russian Gates. The four columns were to meet in one month, 17 March, in front of Pest.

Kaidu's column proved fabulously successful. He captured Szydlow, but that was on 18 March; he was well behind schedule. Cracow fell to him on 24 March. He burned the city and marched for Breslau, capturing it a week later. Before Liegnitz, he met a combined force of Moravians, Poles, Silesians, and Teutonic Knights. Kaidu's more mobile cavalry made short work of both the infantry and the heavy cavalry on 9 April. Outmaneuvering a Bohemian force marching to the battlefield, the Mongols captured and burned Moravia. Kaidu was almost a month late, but the northern flank was secure.

The southern column rode through Galicia but was slowed by the heavily wooded terrain, and it failed to reach Pest on the appointed day. Subotai had to force his way past a stout defense in the Russian Gates, but he arrived on 15 March with his advance patrols, while Batu arrived with the bulk of the force two days later. When the second column arrived, notifying Subotai of Kaidu's progress, the Mongol general was prepared to fight with only half his army. King Bela marched his force out of Pest on 4 April. Having collected almost 100,000 men, he was not surprised when the Mongols with-

drew. He followed, not realizing that Subotai was not retreating but leading him on. On 9 April the Mongols turned and attacked, and again their mobility was superior to the Europeans' heavy armor. An opening in their lines allowed the Hungarians to escape, but that too was a ruse. The road back to Pest was five days long, and the retreating men were slaughtered; some reports claim as many as 70,000 died.

The Mongols occupied Pest and sent out more patrols to scout their next operation. Through the summer of 1241, they consolidated their hold on Hungary while sending patrols toward Germany, Austria, and Italy. Europe was horrified. The defeated peoples had run west, spreading the details of the massacres, but the rivalry between Frederick and Pope Gregory was still too intense to overcome, each accusing the other of openly or tacitly supporting the Mongol invasion. Only after Gregory's death in August 1241 did the feud end. In the meantime, the Mongols settled into Hungary, and peace, if not security, returned to the land. Trade flowed once again, and the Mongols proved to be less harsh masters than enemies.

Once winter approached in 1241, however, the Mongols again prepared to move. Following their strategy of a year earlier, Batu crossed frozen rivers with a portion of the army. In late December, they captured and burned the city of Gran, having defeated the force of French and Lombards defending it. Passing Vienna, Batu turned southward and campaigned down the Adriatic coast, pillaging and searching for King Bela, who had escaped the slaughter outside Pest. Batu met little resistance, while Subotai waited on the eastern bank of the Danube for the German attack he was sure would come. Before it could, however, word arrived from Karakorum that Ogadai had died. All Mongol chieftains had to return for the election and installation of a new Great Khan. Subotai marched home, and although now Batu was in favor of staying in Europe, he was obliged to follow.

The death of Ogadai was all that saved Europe from the fate of Hungary. The Europeans had not shown any ability to defeat the tactics of the Mongol horsemen, and there is no reason to believe that any power farther west could have

done so. Though the withdrawing Mongols left no doubt that this was a voluntary leave-taking, the Europeans breathed a sigh of relief; they would have time to prepare for the return of the nomads. As it turned out, the Mongols did not return; Batu settled into comfort along the Volga and did not want to leave Russia again. A rivalry among the possible heirs created a division of the Mongol Empire into four khanates, so no concerted effort to return to Europe ever materialized. Other than waste and death, the Mongols left little of their culture behind. The children they fathered went home with them, so no permanent racial infusion resulted. Their campaign had serious effects on the region, however, because the Slavs and Magyars of the region were slain by the invaders or by the resulting famine and disease after the Mongols' withdrawal. The Teutonic peoples, who had not suffered as greatly, therefore filled the power vacuum in eastern Europe. The surviving Bulgars and Magyars were pushed into the Balkan Mountains, to be dominated by Germans and Austrians for centuries.

See also Genghis Khan; Magyars; Russia, Mongol Conquest of.

References: Chambers, James, *The Devil's Horsemen* (New York: Atheneum, 1979); Kwanten, Luc, *Imperial Nomads* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1979); Lamb, Harold, *The March of the Barbarians* (New York: Literary Guild, 1940).

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FRANCE, VIKING INVASION OF

The Vikings sailed their longships throughout the known world between the ninth and eleventh centuries, establishing both a fearsome reputation and a number of colonies. Their conquest of territory in France, however, became a pivotal event in both Scandinavian and European history, for it turned a raiding, seafaring population into a land-based military society affecting Europe and the Middle East.

As long as Charlemagne ruled the Holy Roman Empire, his military prowess kept the Norsemen at bay. After his death, however, his sons had little success in stopping Viking raids. The Vikings captured Paris in 849, holding it

until Charles the Bald ransomed the city. They returned in 885 with 700 ships and 30,000 men, and besieged Paris for 13 months; again they left after receiving a ransom of 700 pounds of silver. Duke Odo and Charles the Simple protected the area around Paris and acted as something of a buffer for the inland provinces, but they did little to actively defend anything other than their own neighborhoods.

Charles the Simple of Paris finally attempted to assuage the Vikings with land of their own, which could then be a buffer between the European interior and the defenseless coastline. In 911 the Treaty of St.-Clair-sur-Epte ceded land at the mouth of the Seine and the city of Rouen to Hrolf (or Rollo), leader of a group of Danish Vikings. Over the next few decades, the Norsemen stretched their borders eastward and westward along the coast, though how much was through conquest and how much through cession by Frankish leaders remains the subject of some debate. Over the next century and a half, Scandinavian and Frankish cultures mixed, with the conquered exerting a mighty influence on the conquerors.

As more emigrants moved to this territory, the Norsemen became Normans and the province Normandy, with French becoming the predominant language. As part of the 911 treaty, the Vikings accepted Christianity. In time, the Norse religions were completely replaced, and the converts became militantly Christian. In viewing the construction of buildings dating from this period, some of the oldest are monasteries and churches because the new Christians set about repairing what their pagan fathers had looted. The Normans soon embraced Christianity with a fervor, not only rebuilding but joining the monasteries in large numbers. When Norman soldiers went out into the world, they went as soldiers of God, often with papal blessing or cooperation.

The sailors soon forsook the ship for the horse; they maintained their warlike heritage, but transformed their naval prowess into cavalry power. The Normans slipped easily into the feudal system of Frankish Europe, and one of the prerequisites of nobility was leadership in battle. The Normans perfected the heavy cavalry of knighthood and developed the code of chivalry

surrounding it. This development dominated the military tactics of Europe for three centuries and often ran roughshod over the lightly armed soldiers of Islam and Constantinople.

See also Carolingian Dynasty; Crusades; England, Viking Conquest of; Franks; Ireland, Viking Invasions of; Italy and Sicily, Norman Conquest of; Russia, Establishment and Expansion of.

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FRANKS

This group of tribes living in the Rhine River area was first recorded during the later part of the Roman Empire. The earliest history of the Franks was written by Gregory of Tours, a contemporary of Clovis, one of the early great chieftains. Prior to Clovis's time, the history of the Franks is sketchy. The first recorded leader was Chlodio, who led the tribes into northern Gaul in the early fifth century. Chlodio was succeeded by Merovech, who fought alongside the Roman forces against Attila the Hun at Mauriac Plain in eastern Gaul in 451. The first recorded Frankish dynasty, the Merovingian, was named after Merovech. His son Childeric was on the throne by 457 and apparently remained a friend of the declining Roman Empire; he had perhaps been a captive of the Huns as a child. His Frankish forces again fought alongside Roman soldiers against Visigoths at Orleans in 463 or 464, then kept later Gothic and Saxon invaders away from Roman Gaul.

In 481, Clovis became the Frankish king, though sources indicate that he was merely the chief of other Frankish chieftains, a first among equals. He made war against the remaining Roman leadership under Syagrius, defeating him at Soissons in 486. Soon thereafter, Clovis defeated rival chieftains and claimed supreme authority among the major Frankish tribes, the Salians; Clovis can thus be named as the first real king of the Franks. He extended his

authority to the Seine River with his victory at Soissons and later reached the Eoire. A decade later, Clovis went to the aid of the Ripaurian Franks around modern-day Bonn and defeated the Allemanni, thus extending Frankish power into Germany.

Clovis converted to Catholicism, possibly influenced by his wife, Clotilda of Burgundy. Some sources suggest that he was a Christian when he won at Soissons, but many claim that he embraced the faith in 496. He chose Catholicism over the Arian version of Christianity, though both were practiced among the Franks. This choice had profound effects, because it started the Franks on the road to becoming protectors of the Church of Rome.

First, however, there were other lands to capture and other enemies to fight. Clovis's expansion to the Loire River brought him into contact with the Visigoths, who controlled southern France and northern Spain. The Ostrogoth king, Theodoric, an Arian and related to Clovis by marriage, had long striven to maintain peace in southern Gaul, but Clovis went to war as the champion of Catholicism. He defeated the Visigothic forces under Alaric at Poitiers in 507 and sent his son to conquer as far as Burgundy. Frankish authority extended over all of France, with the exception of a southern coastal strip and the Breton peninsula. Clovis moved his capital to Paris and established a church to commemorate his victory over Alaric. Rumor has it that despite his Christianity, Clovis plotted to murder the ruling family of the Ripaurian Franks. The truth remains conjectural, but he was elected their king after his war against Alaric. With his power solidified, Clovis was recognized as king of the Franks by the Byzantine emperor Anastasius. He was made a consul under the emperor's authority and treated as if he ruled in the emperor's name, which was hardly the case.

Clovis's four sons inherited parts of his kingdom and regularly made war against their neighbors. Under the leadership of Theudibert, the Germanic tribes were placed under tribute and the Burgunds were destroyed, which gave the Franks control over the Rhone River valley

and the port city of Marseilles. Theudibert's expeditions into Italy weakened the Ostrogothic regime there to the extent that Byzantine forces came to control the peninsula.

The next great leader was Dagobert, who defeated the Avars, a Hunnish tribe threatening to expand past the Danube. He also raided into Spain and received tribute (or bribes) from Constantinople. Dagobert's reign also saw an expansion of Frankish trading power and the widespread coinage of gold and silver. He established a mint at the mouth of the Rhine and carried on extensive trade, mainly in the cloth of Frisia, in modern Belgium. He also supported the Church's efforts to convert the Frisians. Dagobert, the last great king of the Merovingian dynasty, died in 639. His sons fought among themselves, and the eastern (Austrasian) and western (Neustrian) factions of the kingdom struggled for dominance.

The real power in Frankish politics was not the king but the mayor of the palace, who represented the tribal leaders before the king. Pepin II, one of the mayors, gave birth to the next Frankish ruling clan. He led Austrasian forces to victory over the Neustrians at the battle of Tertry in 687, which made him the dominant figure in Frankish politics. He assumed the role of military leader, the defender of the Frankish lands from outside attack. Pepin's conquest of Frisia brought him into close cooperation with the Irish Catholic monks who were trying to convert the Frisians, and the connection between Pepin's family and the Catholic Church began to solidify. Pepin led campaigns against the Allemanni, Franconians, and Bavarians, and the missionaries followed his conquests. Pepin died in 714 as the most powerful man in Frankish politics, but still mayor of the palace.

Pepin's illegitimate son, Charles Martel, inherited the position of mayor. (His Latin name, Carolus, gave his heirs the title Carolingians.) He led campaigns against the Saxons and Bavarians to secure the northern and eastern frontiers. Like his father, he worked closely with the Church to extend Christianity. Charles developed a well-disciplined military based strongly on cavalry; that army won for

him his most recognizable victory. In 732 the Franks defeated a force of marauding Muslims from Spain at Poitiers in a battle widely regarded as saving Europe from Islamic influence. The battle was one of a series in which the Franks forced the Muslims to settle south of the Pyrenees. In 737, the last Merovingian king died, but Charles remained mayor of the palace with no king to whom he could represent the chieftains. He died in 741, dividing his extensive landholdings between his two sons—Carloman, to whom he granted his eastern holdings, and Pepin III, who inherited land in the west.

Carloman became increasingly interested in affairs of the soul, so much so that in 747 he ceded his lands to his brother and went to Monte Cassino to become a monk. With tacit papal approval, Pepin removed the last pretenders to the Merovingian throne and made himself king of the Franks. His successful defense of Rome against Lombard invaders endeared him to the Catholic Church, which named Pepin III "King by the Grace of God." The Franks now became the official defenders of the Catholic Church. Pepin spent the 750s challenging the Muslims in Spain and reasserting Frankish claims on southern France. At his death, the greatest of the Carolingian monarchs, Charlemagne, came to the throne.

To a great extent, Charlemagne's reign ends the story of the Franks. His establishment of the Holy Roman Empire changed the nature of western Europe and laid the groundwork for the nation-states that arose in the following centuries. The greatest effects the Franks had on western Europe were to serve as a stabilizing influence in the wake of the fall of the Roman Empire and to be a force for Christian missionary work in west-central Europe. Though much of this time frame is taken up with warfare, the cooperation of the Frankish tribes, under the leadership of either kings or mayors of the palace, served to facilitate trade in western Europe and the exchange of goods and ideas. Little technological innovation took place, though the development of Frankish cavalry influenced warfare throughout Europe and the Middle East.

See also Avars; Byzantine Empire; Carolingian Dynasty; Huns; Ostrogoths; Visigoths.

References: Gregory of Tours, *History of the Franks*, trans. Ernest Brehaut (New York: Norton, 1969); James, Edward, *The Franks* (New York: Blackwell, 1988); Lasko, Peter, *The Kingdom of the Franks* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971).

GENGHIS KHAN

Certainly one of the best known and most successful conquerors was Genghis Khan, ruler of the Mongols and founder of the Mongol nation. Son of Yesugai, leader of the Borjigin tribe of Mongols, he was born probably in 1167 (though earlier dates are suspected) and named Temujin (Temuchin). Orphaned at age nine when his father was murdered, Temujin struggled to exist as an outcast in his own tribe. Stories abound as to his charismatic personality even as a youth, and he began to regain his position when an old friend of his father's gave him military support to regather his tribe and avenge himself on those who murdered his father. With the assistance of his childhood friend, Jemuka (now a prince), Temujin was immensely successful in defeating his enemies and from his earliest victories established a pattern for treating his foes: He killed the leaders and brought the commoners into his own tribe. By doing this, he crushed any remaining loyalty to previous clans and required fealty to himself alone.

His early victories were directed against the tribes of the steppes, and he gradually brought them under his control. He began to have some trouble, though, within his own camp when Jemuka started occasionally disagreeing with and gradually challenging Temujin's authority. Jemuka led rival clan leaders in a number of attacks against Temujin, but ultimately Temujin defeated and killed his former ally. By doing so, he brought all the steppe tribes under his control. This was confirmed in 1206 when he was named emperor of the steppes and given the title Genghis Khan, meaning Universal Ruler.

With central Asia in his hands, Genghis began to look outward. With only his sons and his closest advisors for generals, he began to attack China in 1211. He established a base northwest of the Great Wall and moved quickly

into Ch'in territory. By 1215, he occupied Peking. At this point, he left the Ch'in conquest in the hands of General Muqali and turned toward the southwest and the Muslim nation of Khwarezm. A dispute over their treatment of a caravan under Mongol protection brought Genghis to this nation east of the Caspian Sea. When representatives from Khwarezm refused to discuss compensation, the Mongols invaded. It is in this campaign in the Oxus River area that the Mongols established their fearsome reputation. Under Genghis's direction, the Mongols began destroying cities, fields, and irrigation systems.

It was also in this campaign that the Mongols began to employ new military methods. Mongol forces were made up totally of cavalry, which were unable to besiege cities. Therefore, Genghis adopted catapults and siege engines from the nations he conquered. He also learned that there was more to empire-building than owning sufficient territory to feed Mongol horses. Cities and towns were necessary to hold territory and establish trade. With this in mind, Genghis began to stop razing cities and only engaged in wholesale slaughter on rare occasions, though often enough to maintain a reputation that he could use as a negotiating tool.

With Khwarezm conquered and under his domination by 1223, Genghis remained relatively passive, though his troops raided far and wide into Russia, southeastern China, and toward India. He died while on campaign in Russia on 18 August 1227, leaving an empire stretching from the Caspian Sea to Peking. This was expanded further by his sons and grandsons, who took the Mongol empire to its heights.

Genghis was equally adept at conquest and administration. While extremely strong-willed, he was able to listen to opposing views and incorporate them into his own if he saw their merit. While believing himself divinely guided, he tolerated every religious belief his subjects practiced. Upon receiving his imperial title, he developed the Great Yasa, a code of civil, military, and economic laws that governed all Mongols, himself included. From his conquered subjects he took not only military tactics and