



VMUN 2019

Cabinet of Napoleon I, 1812

CRISIS BACKGROUND GUIDE

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VANCOUVER MODEL UNITED NATIONS

The Eighteenth Annual Session | January 25–27, 2019

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To the loyal commanders, marshals, and good people of France,

The prosperity of the great nation of France is built on the principles of conquest and nationalistic pride. Join Napoleon's Cabinet; in a decisive period of France's national prosperity; the victor of the wars ahead of you shall reach a new level of worldly domination that Europe has yet to witness. For too long, the minions of the United Kingdom have dominated the battlefields of the Iberian Peninsula that rightfully belongs to the great Empire of France.

The importance of the upcoming war cannot be understated. Russia's blatant violation of the Continental System is a direct challenge of France's strength. Together, prove to the people of France and Europe, the diligence and prowess of the *Grand Armée*. The bright future of France is clear: defeat your enemies swiftly and conquer the rest of the British-backed states of Europe.

The Advanced Crisis Committee is intended for the most competitive of crisis delegates, and along with your Chair, Audrea Wang, and your Crisis Staff, Keely Aquilini, I look forward to meeting you in person at VMUN 2019. I am a senior at Fraser Heights Secondary, and since joining Model UN three years ago, I have developed a strong affection for the excitement of a crisis committee. This will be my first time attending VMUN, and I cannot wait for the hectic weekend of military strategy, back-alley deal-making, and devious backstabbing. Beyond the formality of committee sessions, I am a keen follower of American TV series, an Asian cuisine enthusiast, and a gnarly procrastinator. I wish you the best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Andy Jiang
ACC Director

Position Paper Policy

What is a Position Paper?

A position paper is a brief overview of a country's stance on the topics being discussed by a particular committee. Though there is no specific format the position paper must follow, it should include a description of your positions your country holds on the issues on the agenda, relevant actions that your country has taken, and potential solutions that your country would support.

At Vancouver Model United Nations, delegates should write a position paper for each of the committee's topics. Each position paper should not exceed one page, and should all be combined into a single document per delegate.

For the Advanced Crisis Committee, position papers are mandatory, especially for a delegate to be considered for an award.

Formatting

Position papers should:

- Include the name of the delegate, his/her country, and the committee
- Be in a standard font (e.g. Times New Roman) with a 12-point font size and 1-inch document margins
- Not include illustrations, diagrams, decorations, national symbols, watermarks, or page borders
- Include citations and a bibliography, in any format, giving due credit to the sources used in research (not included in the 1-page limit)

Due Dates and Submission Procedure

Position papers for this committee must be submitted by midnight on January 13, 2019.

Once your position paper is complete, please save the file as your last name, your first name and send it as an attachment in an email, to your committee's email address, with the subject heading as your last name, your first name — Position Paper. Please do not add any other attachments to the email or write anything else in the body.

Both your position papers should be combined into a single PDF or Word document file; position papers submitted in another format will not be accepted.

Each position paper will be manually reviewed and considered for the Best Position Paper award.

The email address for this committee is acc@vmun.com.

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Cabinet of Napoleon I, 1812

Overview

Welcome to the year 1812, a defining cornerstone of the French Empire. Up to this point in time, only a *pauci electi* have had such a terrifying and powerful effect on Europe, and foremost amongst them is Napoleon Bonaparte, Emperor of France. Through his conquests in continental Europe, his rampaging *Grande Armée* has effectively threatened to efface the very fundamentals of European power through its spread of the ideas first articulated in the French Revolution.

Of course, the seeds of war were sown long before Napoleon claimed his title of Emperor, as the geo-political ambitions of France's neighbours began to clash. The rise of Prussia and Russia in the East threatened to undermine the power held by long-standing states such as England, France, and Austria. The tenuous vestige of civility that European states were accustomed to show each other was severed by the upheaval of the French revolution, and the gears of Europe began churning for war once more. A succession of "coalitions" would be formed from 1792 onwards, but all attempted to contest France's new regime with little success.

In 1799, a well-known general by the name of Napoleon Bonaparte seized power, declaring himself First Consul, and then the Emperor of the French. His ambition and military genius were hailed as a saving force by the people of France, particularly given the number of failed republican governments they had left behind. Of course, Napoleon would go on to wage war against the coalition partners, and ultimately come to rule an expansive empire.

Delegates will partake in the most significant military campaign in history and lead the *Grande Armée* of France to victory. Over the span of 10 years, France has proved its supremacy in endless conflict and victorious battles; however, for the first time in the recent decade, France is no longer at its strongest. On the Northern front, the presence of Russia has proved increasingly problematic; continuous conflicts in the Iberian Peninsula yielded little territorial gain.¹ The continuous resistance from Spanish and British forces has rendered the numerous campaigns of the French moot, and as a direct result of the tired, drawn-out Peninsular Wars, the economy and army morale of France is at an all-time low. Domestic support for military campaigns has been drastically declining, with subjects of the empire beginning to question the leadership of Napoleon.

The committee's crisis will begin on June 24, 1812, as the French army begins its invasion of Russia. Ground troops will mobilize towards the heart of Moscow in hopes of striking down Russia once and for all. In the best case, should the Russian campaign succeed, the military strength of 600,000 men may be pulled back to Spain to settle things in the Peninsula.²

This committee will function as a standard crisis, following VMUN's 2019's Official Rules of Procedure for Crisis Committees. Delegates are expected to research thoroughly their characters and the overall setting of the Napoleonic Wars. In addition to furthering the overall goal of the committee, cabinet members are encouraged to advance their own personal agendas as well.

¹ "Peninsular War, European History," <https://www.britannica.com/event/Peninsular-War>

² "Napoleon's Great Army," <https://www.geni.com/projects/Napoleon-s-Great-Army-La-Grande-Arm%25C3%25A9e-de-Napoleon/4452>

The three critical issues in this war are the battlegrounds of Russia and Spain respectively, as well as wavering domestic support for the empire. Together, the actions of the cabinet may reinforce another great decade of French domination—or lead to its total demise.

Timeline

May 5, 1789 — The French Revolution begins, marking the overthrow of the estate system.

July 14, 1789 — The Bastille, a Parisian state prison serving as a symbol of the French monarch's dictatorial rule, is stormed by an aggressive mob.

June 1791 — The royal family is captured during the unsuccessful royal flight to Varennes. Consequently, public sentiments towards the king increase in hostility; Louis XVI's attempted escape is seen by many as an act of treason.

September 21, 1792 — The National Assembly, comprising representatives of the Third Estate of the Estates-General, declares the abolition of the monarchy.

January 21, 1793 — Louis XVI, King of France, is executed for conspiracy with foreign powers.

October 16, 1793 — Marie Antoinette, Queen of France, is executed for high treason.

September 1793 – August 1794 — The Reign of Terror of Maximilien Robespierre, who legally instituted terror as a legal policy and guillotined countless political opponents.

March 2, 1796 — Napoleon's campaign in Italy begins. Appointed to command the French Army in Italy, Napoleon is tasked with conquering the north in hopes of driving Austrian forces to the south.

January 15, 1797 — **Napoleon** defeats the Austrians in Italy, leading to the French occupation of northern Italy.

September 4, 1797 — Members of the French Directory execute the Coup of 18 Fructidor when their political opponents, the royalists, were poised to win the election for control of the Directory.

July 1, 1798 — Napoleon invades Egypt.

October 16, 1799 — Napoleon returns to France. The Coup of 18 Brumaire brings Napoleon and his supporters control of the French government upon overthrowing the Directory.

November 10, 1799 — Napoleon is installed as the First Consul; the French Revolution officially ends.

June 14, 1800 — At the Battle of Marengo, Napoleon is able to successfully drive Austria out of Italy.

August 4, 1802 — New French constitution is installed; Napoleon is officially made the First Consul.

May 18, 1803 — Britain declares war on France, ending the truce of the *Treaty of Amiens* in response to Napoleon's growing power in Western Europe. The War of the Third Coalition begins as Britain allies with the Holy Roman Empire, Russia, and other European powers.

December 2, 1804 — Napoleon is crowned the Emperor of France.

October 19, 1805 — Napoleon wins a decisive victory at the Battle of Ulm over the Austrian Army in Bavaria, turning the tide in the War of the Third Coalition.

October 9, 1806 — War of the Fourth Coalition begins. Prussia, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and the British Empire wage war against France.

June 14, 1807 — At the Battle of Friedland, Napoleon's French forces crushes the Russian army, prompting the establishment of the *Treaties of Tilsit* and marking the end of the War of the Fourth Coalition.

May 2, 1808 — The Peninsular War begins between France and Spain for control of the Iberian Peninsula, where Spanish is backed by the British Empire.

April 10 – October 14, 1809 — The War of the Fifth Coalition ensues between Napoleon's empire and a coalition formed by the Austrian Empire and the British Empire.

March 11, 1810 — Napoleon marries Marie Louise of Austria, resulting in a brief period of peace and friendship between the two empires.

June 24, 1812 — The *Grande Armée* advances towards Russia.

Historical Analysis

Director's Note

This guide will not be expounding on the chronology of the many different events, battles, and treaty negotiations that occurred during the Napoleonic era. Instead, the focus will be placed on the political, social, and strategic implications of trends across a number of years. Furthermore, delegates must understand the underlying implications of the ACC's alternate timeline; that is, events of the committee are not guaranteed to play out in the same manner as they did in recorded history. This applies to not only the outcomes of battles, but also significant factors such as Russian tactics, domestic affairs, and even the climate. That being said, the committee is also cautioned to observe proper contextualization, and not to introduce anachronistic elements that will disturb the flow of debate.

Geopolitical Context

Before commencing the exciting investigation into the Napoleonic Wars, one must sufficiently examine the geopolitical situation of Europe that precipitated the conflict. To begin, European relations at the time were fraught by a system of "deep mistrust, expediency, opportunism, and self interest" described by history professor Phillip Dwyer. The common belief at the time was that a "balance of power" between states was achieved when states focused on self gain. Hence, polities and rulers therein thought that their primary responsibility was to the development of their own state and territory, and not to their nation or people.

More likely than not, their intentions were to expand their lands (and thus their wealth) and enhance their dynasty's power, physical conceptions far removed from abstract concepts such as 'national self-determination' and multilateralism. As a matter of fact, when a state was perceived to grow excessively powerful, and thereby threatening to the balance of power, alliances against the state were formed to restore the balance of power. Understandably, such a doctrine of power and conquest reduced diplomacy to nothing more than a simple *quid pro quo* in which a state received what it was able to offer, and alliances were broken almost immediately after.

In addition, the aftermath of the Seven Years War, which had depleted the resources and will of many of the great European powers, led to an era of what historian Paul Kennedy calls "introspection and reform." State leaders were reluctant to pursue anything ambitious or risky in terms of foreign policy, for fear of inciting another

costly conflict at a level comparable to the Seven Years War, and instead engrossed themselves in more important problems nearer home. Most significantly, the outbreak of a two-decade long war was entirely unexpected and unpredicted—no state wanted a large-scale war, nor did they think any state was fit to start one.

One of the most important features of European geography is the Northern European Plain, which is a stretch of low, flat ground ranging from the northwest of France to the heart of Russia. The lack of natural land boundaries, such as mountains and plateaus, make this entire region susceptible to attack and difficult to consolidate politically. In particular, Rapport considers the Low Countries (present day Belgium and the Netherlands) and northern Germany to be “the ‘soft core’ of Europe,” one that is “littered... with battlefields.” The multiple partitions of Poland in the late 18th century are a further example of the circumstances of the Northern European Plain.

Another consideration is the lack of unity or a broader nationalism that was prevalent in the German-speaking region of the Plain. The Holy Roman Empire, an entity in the early Napoleonic era that is most similar to today’s Germany, was a very loose confederation of a whopping 365 German states, some of which were as small as a single town. Many of the larger countries in the Holy Roman Empire also had extremely diverse populations, such as Austria, which boasted Austrians, Hungarians, Italians, Czechs, Slovaks, Serbs, and a host of other ethnicities within its borders.

As a result, strong military power and alliances are necessary to both maintain and defend countries in this exposed and central region. Historically, this guarantor of security has been the Austrian (Habsburg) emperor, since Austria had the strongest military compared to most other German states. He was also usually the Holy Roman Emperor. However, the emergence of Prussia in the 1700s, manifested in their success against France and Austria in the Seven Years War, challenged the Habsburg hegemony over Central Europe. Prussia in the Napoleonic era had a formidable military, one that rivalled the forces of Austria. Both Prussia and Austria attempted to use their military strength and diplomacy to win over territory and support from German states.

On either edge of the Northern European Plain dwell two formidable European powers: France, perhaps the oldest and historically most powerful country in continental Europe, and Russia, an empire that had gained immense prestige since Tsar Peter the Great’s modernization policy and the conquests of the 18th century. Russia has always been a primarily land-based power, and a relatively exposed one. Over the course of history, the Russian plain has been continually invaded by neighbouring powers, the most recent being the Mongol horde of the 13th century. Geography professor H. J. Mackinder contends that as a result of this vulnerability, one of Russia’s pre-eminent strategies is to secure territory to protect her core from foreign invasion in the absence of many natural boundaries.

By the late 18th century, Russia had done just that—Ivan the Terrible and Peter the Great had expanded the Empire enormously, and Catherine the Great’s supreme plan was to “penetrate the entire area [west of Russia], Polish and Turkish alike.” Russia’s connections to the oceans lay in its coastline with the Baltic Sea, control over which was won from Sweden during the Great Northern War, and also with the Black Sea.

France, on the other hand, had no need to contend with its own geographical situation for survival. After all, France, for all intents and purposes, is a country “that belongs both to the Mediterranean and to Europe,” dealing with land and sea at the same time. Unlike Russia, France has clearly defined natural defences, from its earliest accounts in *De Bello Gallico* of Julius Caesar to the records of modern day. Of its defences, most notable include the Pyrenees and the Alps, and the English Channel.

Defences aside, France was not without competition during its existence. For much of France's written history, it has been engaged in a series of protracted conflicts across the channel and in Central Europe. Hence, a common strategy for France to maintain political stability is to create a series of *alliances de revers*, or "alliances from behind" with an Eastern or overseas country to contain the power of its rivals. For example, France was in a controversial alliance with the Ottoman empire that dated back to the 16th century, one that many thought was in order to place pressure against the Holy Roman Empire.

At sea, France faced a much more difficult problem. Having created a significant colonial empire in earlier centuries, 18th-century France's overseas imperialism was hindered by the naval superiority of Britain. Part of this can be attributed to the dual nature of France's ambitions, as the demands of both land and sea left the budget significantly constrained.

French Revolution

The historical context of the Napoleonic Wars is derived from an unsettling European political theatre, a direct product of the French Revolution. In the span of a few years, one of the largest and most established monarchies has fallen to a wave of dissatisfaction from the common people. Outlandish spending and military campaigns by the monarchy has depleted the fiscal resources of the government, leading to economic hardship for many citizens. This wave of dissatisfaction spread like wildfire off of the momentous movement of the enlightenment; people have begun to question the authority and interest of the government.³

To further disrupt a dire situation, Louis XVI was a young and foolish king without the proper mindset of leadership. His lavish spending and poor treatment of the Third Estate (France's working class) propelled citizens dissatisfaction to an extreme level.⁴ Besides, the Third Estate, unlike the noble and clergies were the only class that was required to pay taxes. This, in addition to the harvest failures of 1787 made food a scarcity. French families starved, creating physical ailments on top of political dissatisfaction.

The primary stage of the revolution took shape in the progressive reform of the National Assembly, designed to offer lower class citizens representation in the government.⁵ Initially declared in June 1789, the National Assembly comprised of the vocal citizen in the third estate. It sought to push the hand of the government to grant improved rights and food for the working class. However, the other estates refused to meet equally with the National Assembly, initiating the conflict of interest that would break the camel's back.

A notable leader of the Assembly, Maximilien Robespierre, established a new, more radical political party known as the Jacobin Club.⁶ At the helm of the movement, Robespierre and the Jacobins would lead the French Revolution to a violent direction to eventually make it one of the bloodiest in the history of revolutions. Radical leaders gained power and respect through passionate speeches of the atrocity of the throne and through controlling the influential press at the time.

The French monarchy, which has been in power for nearly ten centuries had been overthrown to form France's First Republic government. However, very soon, the revolution took a radical turn, with Robespierre taking over the country as a populist cult of personality. Following the bloody execution of King Louis XVI, the Jacobins sought to uproot all political opposition, regardless if they were allies of the monarchy.

³ "The Impact of the Enlightenment on The French Revolution," <https://en.historylapse.org/influence-of-the-enlightenment-on-the-french-revolution>

⁴ "Estates of The Realm," https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Estates_of_the_realm

⁵ "National Assembly," <https://www.britannica.com/topic/National-Assembly-historical-French-parliament>

⁶ "Jacobins," <https://www.encyclopedia.com/history/modern-europe/french-history/jacobins>

France would endure a period known as “The Terror,” during which tens of thousands were victim to the guillotine, which has become the preferred method of public execution.⁷ While domestic turmoil challenged the people’s belief in the new Republic government, other European monarchy saw the new France as a threatening force to their aristocracy. Categorically unlike the American Revolution, the French Revolution brought one of the most established monarchies to its knees.

Furious at the Jacobins’ radicalization of France, the Directory would stage a coup to take power in 1795.⁸ This would mark the end of the Terror. At the same time, Napoleon would garner political support through his successful military campaigns in Austria and Egypt. He would return to France in 1799 to stage another coup, positioning himself as the First Consul and head of Government of France. This marks the end of the French Revolution.⁹

The influence of the Revolution was profound, more so because it managed to practically invert ever social structure in the *Ancien Regime*, only to replace it with a poor facsimile. Firstly, the Enlightenment, the spark that lit the revolution, fundamentally revolutionized thought in Europe. Launched by scientific thinkers and social and political philosophers in 1700s, this movement brought an overwhelming message of freedom to the European consciousness. In particular, the ideas of intellectual freedom, religious freedom and political freedom began to circulate. The Enlightenment also led to the development of a literate, educated middle class, and the rise of ‘enlightened despots,’ such as Frederick the Great of Prussia and Joseph II of Austria, who believed in and carried out reforms that enforced religious toleration and brought more transparency and equality to the governmental system.

Secondly, France and England were both elevated as centres of intellectual thought during this period. Philosophes like Voltaire travelled around the Continent, sharing their ideas with royal courts and town salons, and French became the choice language for academics and the upper class. Britain was lauded by most Europeans for its progressive parliamentary system, its religious toleration and the freedom of speech and press that people enjoyed there. Continental Europeans started to think more and more of Britain, now no longer at the periphery of European thought.

Thirdly, the American Revolution astounded Europeans. Though limited government and constitutionalism were not new ideas, the Americans were the first ones to successfully implement them. Their impact on European thinkers “made the thought of the later Enlightenment more democratic.” Through their Revolution, the Americans inspired Europeans to put less trust in their formal leaders and more trust in themselves, the people. Although the American revolution is very much outside the scope of this background, one must bear in mind the significant costs incurred by France in attempting to support the revolutionaries, and the lessons learned from attempting to supply a fight halfway around the world.

The French Revolution then reinforced and made even more real those ideas of freedom and self-government throughout Europe. People sympathetic to the French ideals “appeared immediately in many quarters.” The Revolution especially appealed to the marginalized classes; workers from Prussia all the way to Irish peasants clamoured for change, using France as a beacon of hope. A few instances of this unrest, like that in Ireland in 1798 (coupled with a French invasion of the isle), actually led to revolts. A huge intellectual division emerged

⁷ "The Reign of Terror," <https://alphahistory.com/frenchrevolution/reign-of-terror/>

⁸ "French Revolutionary Wars," http://www.emersonkent.com/wars_and_battles_in_history/french_revolutionary_wars.htm

⁹ "The Third Coalition," <http://www.historyhome.co.uk/c-eight/france/coalit3.htm>

between these pro-French radicals, and conservatives who increasingly sided with the slow, gradual evolution of the British model of reform.

The Revolutionary Wars led to inclusion of Belgium and the German states west of the Rhine into the French Republic by 1801 and created republics across the Austrian Netherlands and much of Switzerland and Italy that were dependent on the French. The justification for the expansion was first exemplified by the “Edict of Fraternity” issued in 1792, in which France announced its intent to help “all peoples who wish to recover their liberty.” But the rhetoric soon changed, as the French Republican army became the new masters, not the liberators, of these lands, and now the establishment of France at her “natural,” enlarged land borders for security was being championed.

At the end of the Wars in 1802, Britain, Prussia, Russia, Austria, the Ottoman Empire, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain all contributed in the effort against revolutionary France, and all ultimately failed to bring it to its knees. Sweden and Denmark-Norway remained neutral throughout the Wars. Spain herself even joined the side of France after the defeat of the First Coalition in 1795, seeing an alliance with France as a good way to counterbalance Britain’s increasingly worrying naval and economic influence in the western Mediterranean and on the Spanish colonies in the Americas. The French now had the support of the Batavian Republic (Netherlands) and Spain, with navies that, combined with France, could effectively rival the British. Also, Napoleon’s successes in Italy, and his unsuccessful but ambitious campaign in Egypt, allowed France’s influence to be felt in the central and eastern Mediterranean, deeply troubling Russia and the Ottomans.

In the immediate aftermath of the peace garnered by the *Treaty of Lunéville* in 1801, German princes, who had been deposed because of the French annexation, now eagerly absorbed lands throughout the rest of Germany to create new states. In this “shame of the princes,” the German states were reorganized according to princely interests, and now became largely dependent on France for their legitimacy. The French Republic could not have emerged from this decade of conflict in a better strategic position.

Why were the French, having recently undergone an onerous Revolution, so successful in routing the armies of the established powers of the day? In addition to what was mentioned earlier about increasing ‘introspection’ and lack of spending on war, part of the reason was motivation. Despite the setbacks at the onset of the Wars, the cause of rebellion against foreign powers attempting to crush the Revolution, as well as the successes of the Revolutionary generals, generated a kind of “revolutionary zeal” within the French soldiers. A “*levée en masse*,” or a huge, general conscription of men and resources, greatly added to the French odds and introduced the idea of “total war.”

The sweeping changes of the Revolution encouraged military reformers to implement their ideas in the French army, greatly increasing its capabilities and audacity. In contrast, there was no unifying ideal around which for Coalition states to rally. Organization and strategy within their armies were antiquated and cautious compared to the efficiency and modernity of the French army. Their soldiers were not attached or involved in the political system which thrust them into battle, and they were sometimes even sympathetic to the Revolution’s ideals, as a British diplomat remarked upon observing Prussian soldiers.

The Revolutionary Wars also revealed differences and tensions between the different Coalition states. The War of the First Coalition showed that Austria, Prussia and Russia still considered each other and Russia as more serious threats than the French. Troubled with the partitioning of Poland, they kept most of their forces in Eastern Europe, instead of striking more aggressively against France.

In the War of the Second Coalition, Britain and Russia expressed opinions on strategy so different, and heightened their own competition of influence over the Eastern Mediterranean so much, that in 1800 Russia angrily split off from the Coalition and formed the League of Armed Neutrality with Denmark–Norway, Prussia and Sweden, cutting off British trade from the timber-rich Baltics in the process. The British would pursue actions against this League to the point where Denmark–Norway, enraged at British bombardments of Copenhagen, warmed up to the French.

Britain would be successful as the League capitulated in 1802 (largely as a result of Tsar Paul I's assassination in 1801, and the ascension of his more liberal son Alexander I), but by then the Second Coalition had fallen apart.

But France also displayed that it was not entirely united throughout the Wars. *Émigrés* (nobility who had escaped) from without and royalists from within contributed to uprisings and tensions. In certain regions and cities of France, such as the Vendée in the West, Lyon and Toulouse, royalist and clerical rebels, sometimes even supported by peasants (who were not as relevant to the Revolution as urbanites), formed many insurrections that lasted for months before being put down. The mob that Napoleon famously dispersed with a "whiff of grapeshot" in 1795 was also part of the counter-revolutionaries. Most of these incidents died down with the end of the Terror and the acclamation of the Directory and later First Consul Napoleon.

War of the Third Coalition

Preluded by Napoleon's defeat of the Second Coalition, the series of wars known as The Napoleonic Wars are defining to European history and this committee. After a short-lived period of peace following the *Amiens Treaty* which guaranteed peace and reduced efforts of imperialism, Britain declared war once again on France. This was primarily an effect of Napoleon's interference in the Revolution of Switzerland in 1802. Alarmed by French effort to establish control on continental Europe, Britain formed "The Third Coalition of nations," including the Russian Empire, the Holy Roman Empire, Sweden, the Naples, and Sicily.

The principal objective of the Third Coalition was to remove the French occupation of Switzerland and Netherland territory, which was seen as an act of aggression. At this time, Napoleon's government has just pushed for large-scale political reforms and was not entirely ready for war. War initiated when Napoleon crowned himself as King of Italy.

While Britain attempted to blockade France on the seas, the primary battlefield was fought on land. Well experienced in battle and commanding a loyal and experienced army, Napoleon took the Coalition by storm. Starting off by winning many small battles on the Austrian-Russian front, Napoleon boosted soldier morale, creating a snowballing effect that hugely benefited the French army spirit. In a series of flanking strategies known as the Ulm Campaign, Napoleon out flanked an entire Austrian army to capture it eventually. Notably, one of Napoleon's significant defeats in the war of the Third Coalition was at sea. The British fleet engaged a collective French-Spanish navy to secure a significant victory. This would establish Britain's control of the seas to prevent multiple attempts of the French invasion to come.

Ultimately, victory was secured for France in the battle of Austerlitz, in which Napoleon defeated a joint army of Russia and the Holy Roman Empire, killing 25,000 enemy soldiers¹⁰. This would spell the end of the Third Coalition, which officially collapsed after the signing of the *Treaty of Pressburg* (1805). As a direct consequence of the treaty, the Holy Roman Empire would be dissolved into multiple pseudo states. Once again, Napoleon and the French army has demonstrated its strengths to the rest of Europe.

¹⁰ "Battle of Austerlitz," <https://www.britannica.com/event/Battle-of-Austerlitz>

War of the Fourth Coalition

Unfortunately, the peace of Pressburg was short-lived, as Europe erupted into war once more. The core point of conflict can be traced to a regional dispute of the Prussian city of Hanover, which has been under French occupation since 1803. Along with British's hopes of curbing France's military strength, war is imminent. The Fourth Coalition is lead primarily by Prussia, Russia, Britain, and Sweden and begun on October 9, 1806.¹¹

As quickly as the war had begun, Prussia was crushed by French troops on a decisive victory. French armies occupied half of Prussia and proceeded to fight numerous battles against Russia. Eventually, Russia was defeated at the battle of Friedland, leading to a truce between the two nations. Up until 1807, Napoleon managed to establish French influence throughout Germany and Poland firmly.

Unlike previous continental conflicts, the War of the Fourth Coalition would be defined by long, economic wars between Britain and France. Fueled by its endless military success, France sought to challenge Britain's position of wealth and prosperity. This led to the creation of the Continental Trade System (CTS), designed to exclude Britain from the rest of European trade.¹²

The CTS of 1806 took shape mainly in the form of collective trade embargoes against Britain and lasted for nearly a decade. The trade wars were initiated in hopes of crippling Britain's economic prosperity, which served as the backbone of the various coalition wars. Unable to defeat the British fleet at seas, Napoleon attempted to strike down British export to the rest of Europe. Riding off of his momentous defeat of Prussia, Napoleon utilized his alliance with much of Europe and issued the Berlin Decree, which forbade trade with Britain to all of his allies. Considering the geographic condition of Britain as an island nation, its ability to trade was vital to economic prosperity.

Notably, Napoleon held an iron stance in his enforcement of the CTS. Almost all European trade ships must go through the French ports to ensure that there is no trade with Britain. France even threatened to militarily punish Russia for trading with Britain, a decision that would later lead to the French invasion of Russia, the core focus of this committee.

Current Situation

War of the Fifth Coalition

As the curtains closed on the War of the Fourth Coalition, a new conflict arose, and the Austrian Empire formed the Fifth Coalition. The war was fought from April to July of 1809 and was won by France after the bloody Battle of Wagram. The resulting *Treaty of Schonbrunn* caused Austria to lose much land to France, who set up many satellite states. Concurrently, the Peninsular War has developed into a chaotic guerrilla war zone, costing the French army significant resources on the southern front.

Russian Winter

Although the initiating date of ACC is set for June 24, in the midst of the summer season, the conquest of Russia will certainly extend for the duration of many months. Thus, the infamous climatic conditions of Russia must be carefully examined and understood in hopes of leveling tactical playing field with its defenders.

¹¹ "War of the Fourth Coalition (1806 – 1807)," http://www.historyofwar.org/articles/wars_fourth_coalition.html

¹² "A History of Napoleon's Continental System," <https://www.thoughtco.com/the-continental-system-1221698>

The harsh winter conditions of Russia will undoubtedly serve as a crippling obstacle when attempting to mobilize the gargantuan size of the *Grande Armée*. In addition to basic demands such as winter clothing to preserve body heat, effective and efficient shelter must be readied to shield troops against snowstorms and the freezing temperatures at night. Another pivotal issue surrounding such low temperatures lies in its effects on weapons and vehicles, all of which will require special care and lubrication to operate in cold conditions.

From a military standpoint, Russia's wintry conditions naturally favour defensive positions due to the relative ease of upholding defensive positions over that of the offensive. Infantry movement in snow is greatly fatiguing, and the injured are quick to perish if left in the cold. Furthermore, the marching of infantry is more easily heard due to the sound-conducting properties of crusted snow, thereby complicating covert strategies.

Grande Armée

In 1812, the *Grande Armée* reached the peak of its size, standing with a staggering 1 million men, of which 680,000 were deployed to Russia. However, a large portion of this force was composed of non-French conscripts from allied states such as Poland and Austria.

The army was split into three major combat divisions: the infantry, the cavalry, and the artillery. The majority of the army was comprised of infantry troops—men who fought on foot with rifles; the cavalry were men mounted on horseback with lances, sabres, swords, and even guns; the artillery were men who operated cannons. Soldiers of this army were comprised of young, able-bodied French men between the ages of 20–25.¹³

Napoleon's army was accompanied by two supportive corps of engineers and doctors. The former was tasked with constructing bridges, installing fortifications, and erecting camps or outposts. The latter were surgeons and doctors who tended to the injured or the sick.

Domestic Situation

Napoleon's flaws in addressing foreign adversaries grew increasingly evident, and the French emperor's list of political opponents within France steadily increased over the course of the years leading up to 1812. As aforementioned, the failure of the CTS to exclude Britain from the European trade system led Napoleon to invade Portugal and Spain, where the Spanish rebelled with support from Britain. Indeed, his failures to adequately resolve France's conflict with Britain and the Spanish uprising resulted numerous internal rebellions.

Furthermore, many of Napoleon's subjects began to desire sovereign power following years of conquest, leading to treachery within his very cabinet. In fact, many of the very individuals Napoleon had placed in power were failing to rule or even betrayed him, including many of his own siblings such as Caroline Bonaparte.

Domestically, conscription was greatly unpopular in the country, resulting in civil unrest and protests against the imperial government while turning many of Napoleon's subjects against him. Even the bourgeoisie—those of the middle and upper classes—began to oppose their emperor due to the failure of the CTS; France was unable to provide the same quality of goods as Britain to the European market for a reasonable price.

In ACC, delegates of Napoleon's cabinet are expected to mitigate domestic and political unrest within France while reinforcing the emperor's campaign in Russia.

¹³ "Napoleon's 'grande Armée,'" <https://www.napoleon.org/en/young-historians/napodoc/napoleons-grande-armee-1/>

Initiating Crisis

The committee crisis begins on June 24, 1812, when Napoleon led his *Grande Armée* across the Neman River to invade Russia, initiated by Russia's violation of the CTS and regional disputes over the area of Poland. The *Grande Armée* has yet to cross the river; however, Napoleon has personally selected the area of Alexioten for the construction of crossing bridges by the engineer corps. The first committee session is to begin with extensive planning for the journey ahead.

Portfolio Overviews

Articulated below are general outlines and overviews of the positions in the Napoleon's cabinet. To gain a greater understanding of the powers and responsibilities in each position, delegates are encouraged to conduct further research into their chosen historical figures. Directives are to be written as feasible and realistic in accordance with respective positions and portfolio powers.

Jérôme I, King of Westphalia

Description: Served as the King of Westphalia and commands a corp of the *Grande Armée*.

Special powers: Commands the *Grande Armée* and Westphalia forces

Joachim I, King of Naples

Description: Brother-in-law of Napoleon and the head of government of Naples.

Special powers: Control over the Naples government and military strength of 50,000 men.

Prince Józef Poniatowski

Description: Commands a corp of the *Grande Armée*.

Special powers: Commands the *Grande Armée* and Polish forces.

Chief of Staff: Louis-Alexandre Berthier, Prince of Neuchâtel

Description: Oversees wartime logistics and manages army staff.

Special powers: Able to suspend military generals or modify military action with the approval of the Secretary of State.

Secretary of State: Pierre-Antoine, Count Daru

Description: The highest figure of authority on the Cabinet besides Napoleon himself. Carries out foreign policy with external nations.

Special powers: Can direct cabinet members to take portfolio-specific actions.

Minister of the Treasury: Nicolas François, Count Mollien

Description: Responsible for national tax collection and implementation of new tax laws in France and the colonies.

Special powers: Controls taxation.

Minister of Foreign Affairs: Hugues-Bernard Maret, Duke of Bassano

Description: Oversees foreign affairs with allied nations in the assistance of the Secretary of State.

Special powers: Can issue public press releases on behalf of France; can directly establish communication with other nations.

Minister of the Interior: Jean-Pierre de Montalivet

Description: Oversees the internal security and prosperity of France.

Special powers: None.

Minister of Manufacturing and Commerce: Jean-Baptiste Collin de Sussy

Description: Oversees the manufacturing of army supplies and domestic economic progress.

Special powers: Can invest in manufacturing projects and develop military weapons.

Minister of War: Henri-Jacques-Guillaume Clarke

Description: Oversees wartime strategic planning.

Special powers: Can mobilize any section of the French Army and all corps of the *Grande Armée*. Restricted to command over ground troops.

Minister of War Administration: Jean-Gérard Lacuée

Description: Oversees wartime planning, assisting the Minister of War.

Special powers: None.

Minister of Navy and Colonies: Denis Decrès

Description: Oversees rebuilding and strategic use of the French Navy; responsible for communication with French colonies.

Special powers: Commands and can mobilize the Navy and French colony troops.

Minister of Finance: Martin-Michel-Charles Gaudin, Duke of Gaeta

Description: Oversees national budgeting and wartime spending.

Special powers: Direct control over funding requests for portfolio-specific actions.

Minister of Religious Affairs: Félix-Julien-Jean Bigot de Préameneu

Description: Maintains the relationship with the church.

Special powers: Controls the practice of religion.

Minister of Justice: Claude Ambroise Régnier

Description: Oversees implementation and drafting of new laws; controls the French justice system.

Special powers: Can subject any cabinet member to legal investigation.

Minister of Police: Anne Jean Marie René Savary

Description: Assists the Minister of the Interior in domestic safety.

Special powers: Controls the domestic police force.

Marshal Davout, Prince of Eckmühl

Description: Marshal of Napoleon's Army.

Special powers: None.

Marshal Ney, Duke of Elchingen

Description: Marshal of Napoleon's Army.

Special powers: None.

Marshal MacDonald, Duke of Tarento

Description: Marshal of Napoleon's Army.

Special powers: None.

Marshal Oudinot, Duke of Reggio

Description: Marshal of Napoleon's Army.

Special powers: None.

Discussion Questions

1. How can the government balance domestic distrust and military success?
2. How can the cabinet stop the trend of endless Coalitions against France?
3. What is the best way to defeating Spain?
4. Based on historical events, what is the best approach to defeat Russia?
5. How can the French Empire establish longevity in Europe?
6. What role does nationalism play in the European atmosphere?

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