

1: The Mongol Invasions of Japan and the Origin of the Word "Kamikaze"

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The invaders from the east had already attacked Lublin and sacked Sandomir. As he rode through the city, a stone fell from the roof of St. The people rightly took it for an omen of misfortune. He now waited anxiously for the assistance of his brother-in-law, King Wenceslas I of Bohemia, who was marching to join him with 50,000 men. But Henry did not know when they would come, and he wondered if he should have waited behind the walls of Liegnitz for his Bohemian allies. His army of about 30,000, consisted of Polish knights, Teutonic Knights, French Knights Templar and a levy of foot soldiers, including German gold miners from the town of Goldberg. Opposing him was a host of about 20,000 Mongols, fresh from victories over the other Polish armies and commanded by Kaidu, a great-grandson of Genghis Khan. In overall command of the horde was Batu, a grandson of Genghis Khan. The real mastermind of the expedition, however, was Subotai, longtime lieutenant of Genghis Khan. During the Russian campaign, the Mongols drove some 500,000 Cumans, a nomadic steppe people who had opposed them, west of the Carpathian Mountains. His decision gave the Mongols an official excuse to make Hungary their next object for conquest. Word has come to me, he wrote, that you have taken the Cumans, our servants, under your protection. Cease harboring them, or you will make of me an enemy because of them. They, who have no houses and dwell in tents, will find it easy to escape. But you who dwell in houses within towns—how can you escape me? Nobles from Hungary and adjacent kingdoms responded to the call. The enraged Cumans left the country for Bulgaria, pillaging as they went, while Archduke Frederick returned to Austria to observe the coming war from the sidelines. In February 1241, the Mongol army left its base in southern Russia and crossed the frozen rivers into central Europe. The force consisted of about 120,000 men, two-thirds of whom were light cavalry and the rest heavy cavalry, though all were equipped with bows. They were nominally commanded by Batu, but once again he was guided by Subotai. Even while campaigning in Russia, Subotai had been sending spies westward into central Europe to determine the political, economic and social conditions, as well as the military capabilities, of the kingdoms and duchies in that adjacent region. The results rewarded his efforts. Prior to embarking on the Hungarian campaign, the Mongols had defeated every major Russian principality that threatened their presence in that region, then spent a year resting and regrouping in what is now the Ukraine before crossing into central Europe. Although Batu and Subotai were aware of the divisive rivalries between the European kings and nobles, they also understood that the European rulers were closely related by blood and marriage, and would likely support each other if they thought an outside threat was serious enough. Therefore, the Mongol army was divided into two unequal forces. The smaller force, 20,000 men jointly commanded by Baidar and Kaidu, the grandson of Ogadei, started off first at the beginning of March and went north into Poland to draw off any support for Hungary that might be found there. The principal invasion force of about 50,000 men, commanded by Batu and Subotai, advanced a few days later and was itself broken into two contingents—the main body passed through the Carpathians into Hungary on March 12, while a small force to screen its southern flank, commanded by Kadan, son of Ogadei, passed through the Carpathians about 100 miles to the southeast and entered Transylvania. In 1241, Poland had been divided into four states, each ruled by a different branch of the Piastow family. Breslau held out, and the Mongol commanders, knowing better than to embroil their small army in a long siege so deep in hostile territory, passed the city by and resumed their search for Duke Henry and his army. The Mongols were already somewhat outnumbered and could not risk allowing Henry and Wenceslas to join forces. Therefore, when Henry reached a plain surrounded by low hills not far from Liegnitz, called the Wahlstadt, or chosen place, he found the Tartars already there, waiting for him. Upon seeing the Tartars, Henry drew up his forces in four squadrons and placed one after the other on the Wahlstadt. The first group was made up of knights from various nations, supplemented by the miners from Goldberg under the command of Boleslav, son of the margrave of Moravia. Duke Henry led the fourth group, which was made up of men at arms from Silesia and Breslau, knights from Welkopole and Silesia, and French Knights Templar. The Teutonic Knights and Knights

Templars were religious military orders with origins in the Crusades. As a result of both their religious and military training, the knights submitted readily to discipline and were normally the best of the forces available to Duke Henry. Nonetheless, Baidar and Kadan expected to add another victory to their already considerable tally. Knights formed irregular battles of different sizes, composition, and national or local origin. A group of those battles formed the line. Command was assigned on the basis of birth, not "as in the Mongol armies" on the basis of proven competence. The Mongol army was organized into squads of 10 men, troops of , companies of 1, and divisions, or *toumans*, of 10, Each unit was highly disciplined and obeyed commands signaled by flags during battle. A Mongol commander might be anywhere in his formation, directing his troops as he saw fit. In contrast, the leader of a European army often fought alongside his men in the thick of battle where he was easily identified, in danger and unable to respond to developments in the fight. Such leadership by example made a certain amount of sense where battles were seen as opportunities for the display of personal bravery, where the object of the contest was honor as well as victory. But to the Mongols, victory was all that mattered. Consequently, their approach was to kill or defeat the enemy as efficiently as possible—that is, with the least cost to themselves. That was a logical approach for the Mongols, who campaigned thousands of miles from home against opponents who outnumbered them; they could not afford to lose either men or battles. Mongol tactics resembled those of the hunter, who uses speed, finesse and deception to herd his prey where he will, then kill it with as little risk to himself as possible. Both the European and Mongol armies depended upon the horse, but there the similarity ended. The knight was supported by a feudal lord, or by the king, for the purpose of fighting. He was trained for close contact with his enemy, and his chief weapons were the heavy lance and the broadsword. The lance was held with the hand and couched under the arm in order to transmit the weight and force of both horse and rider as they charged the enemy. Likewise, the heavy broadsword swung from the saddle could inflict awful cuts. To protect himself in hand-to-hand combat of this sort, the knight wore elaborate, heavy armor. A long-sleeved chain-mail coat, or *hauberk*, protected his body. The knight might also wear a mail coif or hood over his head, and he would certainly wear an iron helmet as well. He wore mail gloves and leggings and carried a shield on his left arm. The entire panoply might weigh 70 or more pounds, and the knight rode a horse specially bred to be strong enough to bear him and his armor. His weight was a weapon in itself—he hurtled through an enemy formation, then the foot soldiers ran up and dispatched those whom the knights had unhorsed, struck down, ridden over or brushed aside. Mongol armies were made up entirely of cavalry, but the Mongol, in contrast to the European knight, depended primarily on his bow, and usually did not favor close-quarters combat on horseback. His protection lay in speed and maneuverability, not in armor, and he often wore no armor aside from an open metal helmet with a leather drop behind the neck and a silk shirt under his coat that followed an arrowhead into a wound and allowed it to be withdrawn without tearing the flesh. There were more heavily armored Mongols, but even those heavy cavalymen generally wore relatively light and flexible lamellar armor, consisting of a multitude of overlapping leather or iron plates. The Mongol bow was a recurved composite bow, a lamination of wood, horn and sinew that could cast an arrow more than yards. The Mongols shot their arrows with great accuracy while riding at a fast pace and could even shoot accurately backward at a pursuer. Each warrior carried 60 arrows of different weights for shooting different distances and often carried more than one bow. The Mongol rode a pony that was considerably smaller than the war charger of the Western armies. The Asiatic animal, however, had superb endurance and survived by grazing in the wild. Each Mongol soldier had two, three or even four ponies so that he could spell them on a march and save them from exhaustion. That practice allowed Mongol armies to travel 50 or even 60 miles in a day, several times the distance that a Western army of the period could travel. It also gave the Mongol the edge in speed on the battlefield. They were, then, two utterly different armies that faced each other at the *Wahlstadt*. When the engagement at *Wahlstadt* began, the Europeans were disconcerted because the enemy moved without battle cries or trumpets; all signals were transmitted visually, by pennant and standard. A second charge by the second and third divisions was mounted under *Sulislav* and *Meshko* of *Opole*. Unlike the first, this assault seemed successful—the Mongols broke into what appeared to be a disorderly retreat. Encouraged, the knights pressed on their attack, eager to meet the Tartars with lance and broadsword. Their Asiatic adversaries

continued to flee before them, evidently unable to face the charge of the heavy horsemen. Then, an odd thing happened. A single rider from the Tartar lines rushed about the Polish lines shouting Byegaycze! The Polish chronicle is uncertain whether the man was a Tartar or one of the conquered Russians pressed into their service. Meshko did not take the outburst for a trick and began to retire from the battlefield with his knights. After a fierce fight, the Mongols again began to flee. Their yak-tailed standard with the crossed shoulder blades of a sheep fixed to it was seen to pull back—its bearer had joined the retreat, and the Polish knights pressed ahead. The riders of the steppes, unlike the knights, had been taught to retreat as a tactical move, and in so doing, they drew the knights away from their infantry. Once that was accomplished, the Mongols swept to either side of the knights, who had strung out and lost their own measure of order, and showered them with arrows. Other Mongols had lain in ambush, prepared to meet the knights as they fell into the trap. The dismounted knights were then easy prey for the Mongol heavy cavalrymen, who ran them down with lance or saber with little danger to themselves. The Knights Templar made a determined stand, only to be killed to a man. The Mongols employed one further trick—smoke drifted across the battlefield between the infantry and the knights who had charged ahead, so the foot soldiers and horsemen could not see each other as the Mongols fell upon the knights and virtually annihilated them. Duke Henry tried to gallop off the field, but he was run down by Mongols who killed him, cut off his head and paraded about Liegnitz with it on top of a spear as a trophy. In accordance with a Mongol custom used to count the dead, an ear was cut from each dead European. The Tartars filled nine sacks with ears. The Grand Master of the Templars wrote to King Louis IX of France, saying of the battle, The Tartars have destroyed and taken the land of Henry Duke of Poland, with many barons, six of our brothers, three knights, two sergeants and five hundred of our men dead. King Louis, preparing to go to central Europe to fight the Mongols, told his mother, Queen Blanche, that either they would send the Tartars back to hell, or the Tartars would send them to Paradise. That was no exaggeration. Upon learning of what had transpired at Liegnitz, Wenceslas and the Bohemians halted their approach and retreated to a defensive position. Meanwhile, to the south, Batu and Subotai had forced the passes into Hungary and come down the mountains, covering 40 miles a day in the snow. The Mongols then pulled back, past woods beyond the opposite bank, and disappeared. On April 10, however, the Hungarians charged the bridge, and the lightly armored Mongols, having little room to maneuver, took a beating.

2: Mongols. A history of the Mongols (Monguls)

Description. The Return, the new album from Canadian folk metal group Mongol, is a concept album written about a Mongolian Prophecy that states that Genghis Khan will return from the grave to complete his conquest of the world.

Mongolian tribes during the Khitan Liao dynasty " Eurasia on the eve of the Mongol invasions, c. In , the Jin dynasty founded by the Jurchens overthrew the Liao dynasty and attempted to gain control over former Liao territory in Mongolia. In the s the Jin dynasty rulers, known as the Golden Kings, successfully resisted the Khamag Mongol confederation, ruled at the time by Khabul Khan , great-grandfather of Genghis Khan. The Jin emperors, following a policy of divide and rule , encouraged disputes among the tribes, especially between the Tatars and the Mongols, in order to keep the nomadic tribes distracted by their own battles and thereby away from the Jin. The Mongols retaliated by raiding the frontier, resulting in a failed Jurchen counter-attack in The Mongols then resumed attacks on the Tatars to avenge the death of their late khan, opening a long period of active hostilities. The Jin and Tatar armies defeated the Mongols in It is thought that this resulted in a rapid increase in the number of war horses and other livestock which significantly enhanced Mongol military strength. As a young man he rose very rapidly by working with Toghrul Khan of the Kerait. The most powerful Mongol leader at the time was Kurtait; he was given the Chinese title "Wang", which means Prince. He then enlarged his Mongol state under himself and his kin. The term Mongol came to be used to refer to all Mongolic speaking tribes under the control of Genghis Khan. This dissatisfaction spread to his generals and other associates, and some Mongols who had previously been allies broke their allegiance. It was there that he assumed the title of Genghis Khan universal leader instead of one of the old tribal titles such as Gur Khan or Tayang Khan, marking the start of the Mongol Empire. Genghis Khan introduced many innovative ways of organizing his army: The Kheshig , the imperial guard , was founded and divided into day khorchin torghuds and night khevtuul guards. He proclaimed a new code of law of the empire, Ikh Zasag or Yassa ; later he expanded it to cover much of the everyday life and political affairs of the nomads. He forbade the selling of women, theft, fighting among the Mongols, and the hunting of animals during the breeding season. In addition to laws regarding family, food, and the army, Genghis also decreed religious freedom and supported domestic and international trade. He exempted the poor and the clergy from taxation. He also had to deal with two other powers, Tibet and Qara Khitai. Muslims, including Hui , and Jews, were collectively referred to as Huihui. Muslims were forbidden from Halal or Zabihah butchering , while Jews were similarly forbidden from Kashrut or Shehita butchering. Muslims had to slaughter sheep in secret. Yet you do not eat our food or drink. How can this be right? Because the poor people are upset by this, from now on, Musuluman [Muslim] Huihui and Zhuhu [Jewish] Huihui, no matter who kills [the animal] will eat [it] and must cease slaughtering sheep themselves, and cease the rite of circumcision. By Rashid al-Din , early 14th century. According to Mongol tradition, Genghis Khan was buried in a secret location. In , the great khan personally led his army in the campaign against the Jin dynasty of China. With the assistance of the Song dynasty the Mongols finished off the Jin in The small kingdoms in southern Persia voluntarily accepted Mongol supremacy. Gojong , the king of Goryeo , surrendered but later revolted and massacred Mongol darughachis overseers ; he then moved his imperial court from Gaeseong to Ganghwa Island. Mongol invasions of India , Mongol invasions of Korea , and Mongol conquest of Tibet The sack of Suzdal by Batu Khan in , miniature from a 16th-century chronicle Meanwhile, in an offensive action against the Song dynasty , Mongol armies captured Siyang-yang, the Yangtze and Sichuan , but did not secure their control over the conquered areas. The Song generals were able to recapture Siyang-yang from the Mongols in After a three-day siege involving fierce fighting, the Mongols captured the city and massacred its inhabitants. Mongol troops under Chormaqan in Persia connecting his invasion of Transcaucasia with the invasion of Batu and Subutai, forced the Georgian and Armenian nobles to surrender as well. They [the Mongols] attacked Russia, where they made great havoc, destroying cities and fortresses and slaughtering men; and they laid siege to Kiev, the capital of Russia; after they had besieged the city for a long time, they took it and put the inhabitants to death. When we were journeying through that land we came across countless skulls and bones of dead men lying about on the

ground. Kiev had been a very large and thickly populated town, but now it has been reduced almost to nothing, for there are at the present time scarce two hundred houses there and the inhabitants are kept in complete slavery. He then reinforced his keshig with the Koreans through both diplomacy and military force.

Mongol invasion of Europe The battle of Liegnitz , From a medieval manuscript of the Hedwig legend. The advance into Europe continued with Mongol invasions of Poland and Hungary. When the western flank of the Mongols plundered Polish cities, a European alliance among the Poles , the Moravians , and the Christian military orders of the Hospitallers , Teutonic Knights and the Templars assembled sufficient forces to halt, although briefly, the Mongol advance at Legnica. Batu and his western Mongol army withdrew from Central Europe the next year. She built palaces, cathedrals, and social structures on an imperial scale, supporting religion and education. But Batu, ruler of the Golden Horde , refused to come to the kurultai, claiming that he was ill and that the Mongolian climate was too harsh for him. The resulting stalemate lasted more than four years and further destabilized the unity of the empire. The letter was written in Persian. He continued military operations in Korea, advanced into Song China in the south, and into Iraq in the west, and ordered an empire-wide census. Instead he murdered the Mongol generals in Persia. The reasoning was unclear. Some sources wrote that he sought to recuperate at his personal estate, Emyl; others suggested that he might have been moving to join Eljigidei to conduct a full-scale conquest of the Middle East, or possibly to make a surprise attack on his rival cousin Batu Khan in Russia. Batu had himself been traveling eastwards at the time, possibly to pay homage, or perhaps with other plans in mind. To decide on a new great khan, Batu called a kurultai on his own territory in The kurultai offered the throne to Batu, but he rejected it, claiming he had no interest in the position. As construction projects continued, Karakorum was adorned with Chinese, European, and Persian architecture.

gold, silver, pearls, silk, 20, otter skins and 10, horses was demanded. In addition thousands of hostages were released and Mongol officers and garrisons were to be stationed in all major cities. Korea seemed doomed but the stubborn resistance of Kuju had pointed out the difficulties posed by fortified cities to Mongol warfare. This of course was gradually overcome as later campaigns into Russia, China, the Middle East and Persia show but the Korean campaign would soon reveal a further weakness in Mongol warfare. In the Koryeo government slipped away from Kaesong and took refuge on the fortified island of Kanghwa. For the first time in the Mongols were faced with a sea barrier. The watery gap was only a kilometre wide but in spite of several attempts to overcome Kanghwa, the Mongols could not capture it. Frustrated by this the Mongols began ravaging Korea once more. This is the only known incident of the commander of a Mongol Army being killed in battle and it forced the Mongols to retreat. Further Mongol campaigns Korea was listed alongside Europe and Song China as the targets listed in the great Kuriltai held in In acknowledgement of the fierce resistance the Koreans had put up in the previous campaign the best Mongol troops were assigned to Korea. The only other place where elite troops were earmarked was for the Russian-European campaign. With their rear safeguarded the Mongols ignored the Korean court at Kanghwa, the armies continued south as far as Kyongju. Once again refusing to surrender, the Koreans led by Commander Song Munju responded to the Mongol opening with a barrage of missile fired from catapults. The Mongols responded by firing flaming bales of straw soaked in human fat. General Song however withstood the assault and earned a reputation alongside the great Pak-So. In , the Mongols began the fourth campaign against Koreans, demanding the Koryeo royal family as hostages. With the death of Guyuk Khan in , however, the Mongols withdrew again. Upon the ascension of Mongke Khan in , the Mongols again repeated their demands. When Koryeo refused, the Mongols began a large campaign in The civilian resistance was strong and the Koreans won several victories but the Korean military could not withstand the waves of invasions. Once again Yun-hu refused to surrender. The Mongols turned their attention to a nearby town. The Mongols created a blockade outside of the town and the people were forced to drink the blood of their livestock. Way back in , King Gojong had ordered the restoration of the Tripitaka Koreana, destroyed during the invasion. This collection of Buddhist scriptures which took 15 years to carve on some 81, wooden blocks was first carved in whilst repelling the Khitans. It was restored in the hope that the Mongols could be expelled through religious activity. The carvings can be seen today at the Haeinsa temple. The carving appeared to have worked when in the Mongols withdrew their armies after another attempt to take Kanghwa ended in disaster. The Final campaigns Only a few months passed before the Mongols invaded Korea in Korean resistance was immediate and as determined as ever. The Mongols still could not attack Kanghwa but they tightened their grip on the rest of Korea by constructing their own fortifications. This enabled them to launch widespread raids with greater security. It proved to be a decisive shift in the fortunes of war for the Mongols. Throughout all of the previous raids the Koryeo resistance from Kanghwa had been led not by the king but by the hard-line anti-Mongol Choe family who had slowly turned their leadership into a dictatorship. Since Choe Chung-heon, Koryeo had been under this military dictatorship, actually ruled by the private army of the powerful Choe family. When their leader Choe Ui was assassinated in , King Gosong assumed control of the government again and indicated his intention to negotiate a peace. Koreans sent hostages into the Mongol camp as a proof of his good will. A group of hard-line Korean rebels deposed the new Koryeo king Wongjong, determined to keep on fighting. Mongol troops were invited in by the Korean royal family to help crush the rebellion and by the last of the remaining rebels fled to Jeju island. Half of Jeju island was given over to the Mongols to graze their horses and Korea became a tributary ally to the Mongol Yuan dynasty. The Koryeo dynasty survived under Mongolian influence until King Gongmin began to push Mongolian forces back around The graphical images and content enclosed with this document are viewable for private use only. All other rights - including, but not limited to, distribution, duplication, and publish by any means - are retained by HeavenGames LLC. Federal law provides criminal and civil penalties for those found to be in violation. In addition, please read our Disclaimer and Privacy Statement.

4: The Mongol Empire - All Empires

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His approach is different from western military leadership practices, but it is not unique in history. He seems to have borrowed some elements of the warfighting styles of the Prophet Mohammed and Genghis Khan as well as the some political-strategic approaches of Lenin and Hitler. Whether these were adopted from a study of history or the serendipitous outcome of pure talent is somewhat irrelevant. To date, al-Baghdadi has achieved significant results. These are discussed below I am usually quite wary of historical metaphors of the sort Mr. Their use is certainly is not a new; parallel biographies have been used as a powerful analytical tool since the days of Plutarch and Sima Qian. Comparisons like this can be valuable if they are fully explored and carefully constructed. The danger of historical metaphors, however, is that they threaten to reduce complex events that require thorough study and reflection to understand into a set of superficial symbols that demand no thought at all. By their nature, symbolic metaphors of this sort make communication easier and critical thought more difficult. As I argued in an earlier post: Every metaphor is an attempt to apply the logic of one situation to the problems of another. The utility of metaphorical devices is easy to grasp: As a labor saving device, metaphors have no peers. If the logic of one situation can be applied to the other, no one need waste time learning the intricacies of both. The statement "Conflict X would be another Vietnam " should launch a wide ranging discussion about the parallels between the international context, domestic perceptions, campaign aims, and military tactics of Conflict X and the Vietnam War. This does not happen. In American political discourse the word Vietnam is not an invitation to reflect but a signal that discussion has ended and polemic has begun. Anderson avoids most of these problems by focusing on a set of historical figures that are not referenced enough in American foreign policy discussions to become established short-hand for anything. His juxtaposition of al-Baghdadi and Chinggis Khan is the most fascinating of these comparisons. On the one hand the comparison is complete nonsense: He massacred the populations of the first cities of any region that he attacked, and the word got around that resistance was futile. The great Khan conquered many cities, but based on his reputation, he had to lay siege to very few. This moral and morale superiority has allowed fast moving jihadist flying columns traveling in light trucks that can mix with civilian traffic to strike their enemies where his forces are weak or non-existent. ISIS forces seemed "to be much larger than they were and to be everywhere at once" because that is what victorious maneuver armies do. I am unconvinced that explicit comparisons to the Mongol experience add any marginal value to this observation. He sets up this comparison in his discussion of the ISIS command structure: Telling subordinates what to do, not how to do it, is a basic tenant of maneuver warfare; but it also allows Baghdadi to command and control his forces with an absolute minimum of cell phone and radio communications that are subject to American intercepts which can be provided to Iraqi security forces. Baghdadi makes extensive use of runners and motorcycle messengers to keep his opponents in the dark. American commanders talk a good game about Maneuver Warfare, but many take advantage of technology and secure communications to micromanage. It is not unusual for an American Colonel to be tracking squad sized units on his computer; worse still, it is not unusual to require American squad and platoon sized units to submit detailed patrol plans three days in advance so they can be plotted into computers. Contrast this with Maliki and Karzai who will move or fire a commander who appears so competent or popular that he might become a competitor for power emphasis added [9]. And here is where things get interesting. But if I was forced to try and boil down the secret of the Mongol Empire to a sentence or two it would sound a lot like the one Anderson has written here. In contrast to both the kingdoms the Mongols destroyed and every other nomadic confederation that preceded or followed his empire, Chinggis Khan possessed the complete loyalty of his troops and his generals. The men under his command were absolutely, and to their enemies, terrifyingly, united. Chinggis Khan could wage simultaneous wars on opposite sides of the known world, erode the internal cohesion of every kingdom his envoys visited, and

paralyze enemy defenses with a flood of independently commanded units only because of the fearsome unity and loyalty of his forces. The Khwarezm era was the golden age of Central Asia when historians talk about the contributions of Islamic civilization to science, mathematics, poetry, philosophy, and art, they are almost always talking about men who were from this region or lived there before the Mongols took over. What army in the whole world can equal the Mongol army? In times of action, when attacking and assaulting, they are like trained wild beasts out after game, and in the days of peace and security they are like sheep, yielding milk and wool and many other useful things. In misfortune and adversity they are free from dissension and opposition— their obedience and submissiveness is such that if there be a commander of a hundred thousand between whom and the Khan there is some fault, the Khan dispatches a single horseman to punish him after the manner prescribed: How different it is with other kings who must speak cautiously to their own slave, bought with their own money, as soon as he has ten horses in his stable, to say nothing of when they place an army under his command and he attains wealth and power; then they cannot displace him, and more often than not he actually rises in rebellion and insurrection! Whenever these kings prepare to attack an enemy or are themselves attacked by an enemy, months and years are required to equip an army and it takes a brimful treasury to meet the expenses of salaries and allotments of land. When they draw their pay and allowances the soldiers numbers increase by hundreds and thousands, but one the day of combat their ranks are everywhere vague and uncertain, and none presents himself on the battlefield [9]. It is probable that he developed it while reflecting on the ill fate of the house of Khwarezm, where his grand-father served as a court minister. Many in the court argued that the Shah should mobilize the entire armed forces of the empire—who would have outnumbered the Mongol forces at least 3: The Shah shied away from such an approach, aware that he did not have the tactical genius needed to command such a force and afraid of giving so much power to any subordinate of his who did. Even after this process was well under way and the outlines of the Mongol strategy were clear to the Shah his court was too divided to commit themselves to a clear counter strategy. These divisions extended out into the hinterlands of the empire. The court watched with horror as first nomadic tribes, then cities, then entire regions of the Khwarazmia were isolated from the court and then declared for the Mongols. In less than two years the entire empire had disintegrated. Whether they were fighting Hungarian monarchs on Pannonian plains or Song Dynasty navies on the Yangtze, the Mongols were masters at turning their enemies against each other. No one ever managed to turn a Mongol. For the first three generation of the empire there were no secession crises, no infighting, and few traitors. Powerful commanders deferred to their leaders, even when, as Juvainyi hints, doing so meant to demotion or punishment. Consider the case of Muqali , one of the greatest but least known of the Mongol generals. While Chinggis was off fighting the Khwarezm Empire and other enemies in the West, Muqali was placed in charge of the war effort in Northern China. For six years he controlled all of Mongolia, Manchuria, and the North China plain and for six years he fought the Jin Empire without losing a single battle. He was a powerful and popular commander. There is no evidence that Chinggis ever feared that they would. Earlier this year I wrote up a popular series of posts on the wars fought by the Chinese Han Dynasty against the first of these empires, the Xiongnu tribal confederacy. One of the striking things about that conflict is how common mass defections from one side to the other were. Over the entire course of Han-Xiongnu relations the Han actively recruited and provided for Xiongnu turn coats. They also occurred on massive scales—more than 70, men and women at a time if Han records are to be believed. Likewise, it was Xiongnu disunity that allowed the Han to emerge victorious—only after the Xiongnu had descended into a civil war were the Han able to coerce the largest faction into a formal surrender. The leadership class was deeply committed to the Mongol cause. Perhaps just as significantly, so were the front line troops. Though they came from different tribes, spoke different languages, and in many cases worshiped different gods, the Mongol campaign forces displayed a level of unity and discipline none of their contemporaries could match. The loyalty these troops displayed was significant for an empire created entirely out of whole cloth just a few decades earlier. The unity and obedience they displayed in their maneuvers was hardly less astounding. Contemporary observers marveled at the ease with which Mongol commanders were able to order their men and discipline those who broke these orders. Because units adhered to similar standards, responded immediately to orders from above, and were led by men whose loyalty was

never under question, Mongol khans were free to create a decentralized command structure that allowed individual tumen latitude for independent action. Unfortunately, it is only tangentially related to the topic at hand. A full investigation of that question must be reserved for a later post. For the purposes of this discussion what matters is that the conquests of the Mongol empire, the type of warfare it waged, and the methods it used to incorporate new peoples into its domains would not have been possible except for the unshakable unity of its commanders and warriors. In this the Mongols are very much like Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi and the warriors under his command. The short answer is yes--the vast majority of successful military campaigns have been won by unified armies commanded by leaders committed to the cause. In the pre-modern world internal cohesion and loyalty were often the deciding factor in many, if not the vast majority, of military campaigns. This has not been the case in the modern age. The rise of mass politics and nationalism, as well as the creation of formal, bureaucratized offices and institutions for waging war and governing territory allowed old worries over loyalty and identity to recede in importance. The possibility of ships, fleets, battalions, field armies, or even individual commanders switching sides, or of a general disintegration of unified military command where each would leave to defend his home was not considered a real possibility. If disunity is what you sought, the best one could hope for in a modern war was to raise the costs the enemy must pay to continue waging it to the point where domestic opposition to the war forced them to cede for peace. In places like Syria and Iraq this is no longer the case. Commanders or entire units abandoning the field to protect their home tribe or city, or even mass defections to the other side are well within the range of possible outcomes of any operation. Unsurprisingly, the kaleidoscope of shifting alliances and identities at play in the modern Near East have a very medieval feel to them. It has become something of cliché to note that we are in a "post-Westphalian" world where national identities and state control are weakening and that the shape of conflict in the future will not be anything like what we are accustomed to. However, the parallels discussed in this post suggest that we are not departing into uncharted territory so much as we are returning to lands but recently abandoned. The warriors who fought over the Near East in the 13th century share the same strategic concerns as the warriors fighting over it today--in both eras those who can use violence to bind together disparate tribes and peoples into one cohesive, unified, and loyal whole are those who have the advantage. The introduction to that essay where serves as a fitting conclusion to this one: We analyze international relations through the lens of modern history, and as a result we remain puzzled in front of current strategic realities that have no apparent historical equivalents. Instead of well-demarcated states jousting for influence and power by waging wars and engaging in diplomacy, we see fierce groups rising in ungoverned areas, revelling in violence and eschewing negotiated settlements. Modern history does not offer many analogies for such security conditions. We have to move farther back in time and study ancient history to find more appropriate parallels. The security landscape we face is, in fact, acquiring tints of ancient times, characterized by proliferation of lethality, the pursuit of violence as a social glue, and the existence of unstable frontiers. The length, the place, and the purpose of violence were different in ancient times, and we ought to start looking at current and future strategic challenges through the lens of ancient, rather than exclusively modern, history.

5: Mongol Empire - Wikipedia

Mix - Mongol // The Return [Official Video] YouTube; Keeping Māori Culture Alive with Thrash Metal: Alien Weaponry - Duration: Noisy 29, views.

From the first explosion of Mongol military might from the steppes of central Asia in the early decades of the 13th century to the death of Timur in , the nomads of central Asia made a last, stunning return to center stage in world history. Mongol invasions ended or interrupted many of the great empires of the postclassical period, while also extending the world network that had increasingly defined the period. Under Chinggis Khan - who united his own Mongol tribesmen and numerous nomadic neighbors into the mightiest war machine the world had seen to that time - central Asia, northern China, and eastern Persia were brought under Mongol rule. The Mongol conquests and the empires they produced represented the most formidable nomadic challenge to the growing global dominance of the sedentary peoples of the civilized cores since the great nomadic migrations in the first centuries A. In most histories, the Mongol conquests have been depicted as a savage assault by backward and barbaric peoples on many of the most ancient and developed centers of human civilization. Much is made of the ferocity of Mongol warriors in battle, their destruction of great cities, such as Baghdad, in reprisal for resistance to Mongol armies, and their mass slaughters of defeated enemies. Depending on the civilization from whose city walls a historian recorded the coming of the Mongol "hordes," they were depicted as the scourge of Islam, devils bent on the destruction of Christianity, persecutors of the Buddhists, or defilers of the Confucian traditions of China. At the peak of their power, the domains of the Mongol khans, or rulers, made up a vast realm in which once-hostile peoples lived together in peace and virtually all religions were tolerated. From the Khanate of Persia in the west to the empire of the fabled Kubilai Khan in the east, the law code first promulgated by Chinggis Khan ordered human interaction. The result was an important new stage in international contact. From eastern Europe to southern China, merchants and travelers could move across the well-policed Mongol domains without fear for their lives or property. The great swath of Mongol territory that covered or connected most of Europe, Asia, and the Middle East served as a bridge between the civilizations of the Eastern Hemisphere. The caravans and embassies that crossed the Mongol lands transmitted new foods, inventions, and ideas from one civilized pool to the others and from civilized pools to the nomadic peoples who served as intermediaries. Like the Islamic expansion that preceded it, the Mongol explosion did much to lay the foundations for more human interaction on a global scale, extending and intensifying the world network that had been building since the classical age. This section will explore the sources of the Mongol drive for a world empire and the course of Mongol expansion. Particular attention will be given to the nomadic basis of the Mongol war machine and the long-standing patterns of nomadic-sedentary interaction that shaped the character, direction, and impact of Mongol expansion. After a discussion of the career and campaigns of Chinggis Khan, separate sections of this chapter will deal with Mongol conquest and rule in Russia and eastern Europe, the Middle East, and China. The chapter will conclude with an assessment of the meaning of the Mongol interlude for the development of civilization and the growth of cross-cultural interaction on a global scale. In both their destructive and constructive roles, the Mongols generated major changes within the framework of global history. The Mongol Empire Of Chinggis Khan Mongol legends suggest that the ancient ancestors of the Mongols were forest-dwelling hunters, and the hunt persisted as a central element in Mongol culture. By the time the Mongols are first mentioned in the accounts of the sedentary peoples, who traded with them and periodically felt the fury of their lightning raids, most of them had adopted the life-style of the herding, horse-riding nomads of the central Asian steppes. In fact, in most ways the Mongols epitomized nomadic society and culture. Their survival depended on the well-being of the herds of goats and sheep they drove from one pasture area to another according to the cycle of the seasons. Their staple foods were the meat and milk products provided by their herds, supplemented in most cases by grain and vegetables gained through trade with sedentary farming peoples. They also traded hides and dairy products for jewelry, weapons, and cloth manufactured in urban centers. They dressed in sheepskins, made boots from tanned sheep hides, and lived in round felt tents that were processed from wool sheared from their

animals. The tough little ponies they rode to round up their herds, hunt wild animals, and make war, were equally essential to their way of life. Both male and female Mongol children could ride as soon as they were able to walk. Mongol warriors could literally ride for days on end, sleeping and eating in the saddle. Deprived of their horses on the harsh and vast steppes, tribespeople could not survive long. Thus, horse stealing became a major object of interclan and tribal raids and an offense that brought instant death if the original owners caught up with the thieves. Like the Arabs and other nomadic peoples we have encountered, the basic unit of Mongol society was the tribe, which was divided into kin-related clans whose members camped and herded together on a regular basis. When threatened by external enemies or in preparation for raids on other nomads or invasions of sedentary areas, clans and tribes could be combined in great confederations. Depending on the skills of their leaders, these confederations could be held together for months or even years. But when the threat had passed or the raiding was done, clans and tribes invariably drifted back to their own pasturelands and campsites. At all organizational levels leaders were elected by the free males of the group. Though women exercised considerable influence within the family and had the right to be heard in tribal councils, males dominated positions of leadership. Courage in battle, usually evidenced from youth by bravery in the hunt, and the capacity to forge alliances and attract dependents were vital leadership skills. A strong leader could quickly build up a large following of chiefs from other clans and tribal groups. Some of these subordinates might be defeated rivals who had been enslaved by the victorious chief, though often the life-style of master and slave differed little. Should the leader grow old and feeble or suffer severe reverses, his once-loyal subordinates would quickly abandon him. He expected this to happen, and the subordinates felt no remorse. Their survival and that of their dependents hinged on attaching themselves to a strong tribal leader. The Early Career Of Chinggis Khan Indo-European and then Turkic-speaking nomads had dominated the steppes and posed the principal threat to Asian and European sedentary civilizations in the early millennia of recorded history. But peoples speaking Mongolian languages had enjoyed moments of power and actually carved out regional kingdoms in north China in the 4th and 10th centuries A. Soon after this victory, Kabul Khan became ill and died, and his successors could neither defeat their nomadic enemies nor hold the Mongol alliance together. Divided and beaten, the Mongols fell on hard times. Chinggis Khan, who as a youth was named Temujin, was born in the s into one of the splinter clans that fought for survival in the decades after the death of Kabul Khan. Suddenly, Temujin, who was still a teenager, was thrust into a position of leadership. But most of the chiefs who had attached themselves to his father refused to follow a mere boy, whose prospects of survival appeared to be slim. In the months that followed, his much-reduced encampment was threatened and finally attacked by a rival tribe. Temujin was taken prisoner in , locked into a wooden collar, and led in humiliation to the camp of his enemies. After a daring midnight escape, Temujin rejoined his mother and brothers and found refuge for his tiny band of followers deep in the mountains. Facing extermination, Temujin did what any sensible nomad leader would have done: With the support of this powerful leader, Temujin revenged the insults of the clan that had enslaved him and another that had taken advantage of his weakness to raid his camp for horses and women. Within a decade, the youthful Temujin had defeated his Mongol rivals and routed the forces sent to crush him by the Tartars and other nomadic peoples. In , at a kuriltai, or meeting of all of the Mongol chieftains, Temujin -renamed Chinggis Khan -was elected the khaghan, or supreme ruler, of the Mongol tribes. United under a strong leader, the Mongols prepared to launch a massive assault on an unsuspecting world. Trained from youth not only to ride but also to hunt and fight, they were physically tough, mobile, and accustomed to killing and death. They wielded a variety of weapons, including lances, hatchets, and iron maces. None of their weapons was as demoralizing for enemy forces as their powerful short bows. A Mongol warrior could fire a quiver of arrows with stunning accuracy without breaking the stride of his horse. The fact that the Mongol armies were entirely cavalry meant that they possessed speed and a mobility that were demoralizing to enemy forces. Leading two or three horses to use as remounts, Mongol warriors could spend more than one week in the saddle and, when pressed, cover 80 or 90 miles per day. They could strike before their enemies had prepared their defenses, hit unanticipated targets, retreat back to the steppes after suffering temporary reverses, and then suddenly reappear in force. To a people whose very life-style bred mobility, physical courage, and a love of combat, Chinggis Khan and his many able subordinate commanders

brought organization, discipline, and unity of command. The old quarrels and vendettas between clans and tribes were overridden by loyalty to the khaghan, and energies once devoted to infighting were now directed toward conquest and looting in the civilized centers that fringed the steppes on all sides. The Mongol forces were divided into armies made up of basic fighting units called tumens, consisting of 10,000 cavalrymen. Each tumen was further divided into units of 100, 1,000, and 10,000 warriors. Commanders at each level were responsible for the training, arming, and discipline of the cavalrymen under their charge. The tumens were also divided into heavy cavalry, which carried lances and wore some metal armor, and light cavalry, which relied primarily on the bow and arrow and leather helmets and body covering. Chinggis Khan also created a separate messenger force, whose bodies were tightly bandaged to allow them to remain in the saddle for days, switching from horse to horse to carry urgent messages between the khaghan and his commanders. Military discipline had long been secured by personal ties between commanders and ordinary soldiers. Mongol values, which made courage in battle a prerequisite for male self-esteem, were also buttressed by a formal code that dictated the immediate execution of a warrior who deserted his unit. His generosity to brave foes was also legendary. New weapons, including a variety of flaming and exploding arrows, gunpowder projectiles, and later bronze cannons, were also devised for the Mongol forces. At that point, he was the supreme ruler of nearly one-half million Mongol tribesmen and the overlord of one to two million more nomadic tribesmen who had been defeated by his armies or had voluntarily allied themselves with this promising young commander. But Chinggis Khan had much greater ambitions. He once remarked that his greatest pleasure in life was making war, defeating enemies, forcing ". In 1206, he set out to fulfill this ambition. His first campaigns humbled the Tangut kingdom of Xi-Xia in northwest China, whose ruler was forced to declare himself a vassal of the khaghan and pay a hefty tribute. Next the Mongol armies attacked the much more powerful Jin Empire, which the Manchu-related Jurchens had established a century earlier in north China. In these campaigns, the Mongol armies were confronted for the first time with large, fortified cities their adversaries assumed could easily withstand the assaults of these uncouth tribesmen from the steppes. Indeed, at first the Mongol invaders were thwarted by the intricate defensive works that the Chinese had perfected over the centuries to deter nomadic incursions. But the adaptive Mongols, with the help of captured Chinese artisans and military commanders, soon devised a whole arsenal of siege weapons. These included battering rams, catapults that hurled rocks and explosive balls, and bamboo rockets that spread fire and fear in besieged towns. Chinggis Khan and the early Mongol commanders had little regard for these towns, whose inhabitants they regarded as soft and effete. Therefore, when resistance was encountered, the Mongols adopted a policy of terrifying retribution. Though the Mongols often spared the lives of famed scholars -whom they employed as advisors -and artisans with particularly useful skills, towns that fought back were usually sacked once they had been taken. The townspeople were slaughtered or sold into slavery; their homes, palaces, mosques, and temples were reduced to rubble. Towns that surrendered without a fight were usually spared this fate, though they were required to pay tribute to their Mongol conquerors as the price of their deliverance. These insults, of course, meant war, a war in which the Khwarazm were overwhelmed. Their great cities fell to the new siege weapons and tactics the Mongols had perfected in their north China campaigns. Their armies were repeatedly routed in battles with the Mongol cavalry. Again and again, the Mongols used their favorite battle tactic in these encounters. Feigning defeat, the cavalry retreated, drawing the opposing forces out of formation in the hopes of a chance to slaughter the fleeing Mongols. Like the Russians, Hungarians, Chinese, and numerous other adversaries, the Khwarazm never seemed to catch on to these well-executed ruses, and many a proud and much larger army was destroyed in the Mongol trap. Within two years, his once flourishing cities in ruin, his kingdom in Mongol hands, Muhammad Shah II, having retreated across his empire, died on a desolate island near the Caspian Sea. With his forces greatly enlarged by these new recruits, he once again turned eastward, where in the last years of his life his armies destroyed the Xi-Xia kingdom and overran the Jin Empire of north China.

6: Wrecking Machine: When the Pagan Mongols Nearly Wiped Out Islam | IndiaFactsIndiaFacts

The Ming tacitly accepted the return of Mongol military power and started building the Wall as we see it today during Dayan Khan's reign as Great Khan. Dayan Khan's successors maintained Mongol independence until , when they were conquered by the Qing, who then turned south against the Ming and conquered them as well in , finally.

History of Mongolia In various times Mongolic peoples have been equated with the Scythians , the Magog and the Tungusic peoples. Based on Chinese historical texts the ancestry of the Mongolic peoples can be traced back to the Donghu , a nomadic confederation occupying eastern Mongolia and Manchuria. Although some scholars maintain that they were proto-Mongols , they were more likely a multi-ethnic group of Mongolic and Turkic tribes. The Xianbei chieftain was appointed joint guardian of the ritual torch along with Xiong Yi. After the Donghu were defeated by Xiongnu king Modu Chanyu , the Xianbei and Wuhuan survived as the main remnants of the confederation. The Xianbei, however, were of the lateral Donghu line and had a somewhat separate identity, although they shared the same language with the Wuhuan. The Xianbei reached their peak under Tanshihuai Khan reigned " who expanded the vast, but short lived, Xianbei state 93" Three prominent groups split from the Xianbei state as recorded by the Chinese histories: Their culture was nomadic, their religion shamanism or Buddhism and their military strength formidable. There is still no direct evidence that the Rouran spoke Mongolic languages , although most scholars agree that they were Proto-Mongolic. These tribes and kingdoms were soon overshadowed by the rise of the Turkic Khaganate in , the Uyghur Khaganate in and the Yenisei Kirghiz states in The Tuoba were eventually absorbed into China. Some Rouran under Tatar Khan migrated east, founding the Tatar confederation , who became part of the Shiwei. The Khitan, who were independent after their separation from the Kumo Xi of Wuhuan origin in , continued as a minor power in Manchuria until one of them, Ambagai " , established the Liao dynasty " as Emperor Taizu of Liao. According to historians, Kirghiz were not interested in assimilating newly acquired lands; instead, they controlled local tribes through various manaps tribal leader. The Khitans occupied the areas vacated by the Turkic Uyghurs bringing them under their control. The Yenisei Kirghiz state was centered on Khakassia and they were expelled from Mongolia by the Khitans in With the expansion of the Mongol Empire, the Mongolic peoples settled over almost all Eurasia and carried on military campaigns from the Adriatic Sea to Indonesian Java island and from Japan to Palestine Gaza. The Mongolic peoples of the Golden Horde established themselves to govern Russia by However, most of the Yuan Mongols returned to Mongolia in , retaining their language and culture. There were , Mongols in Southern China and many Mongols were massacred by the rebel army. The survivors were trapped in southern china and eventually assimilated. After the fall of the Yuan dynasty in , the Mongols continued to rule the Northern Yuan dynasty in Mongolia homeland. However, the Oirads began to challenge the Eastern Mongolic peoples under the Borjigin monarchs in the late 14th century and Mongolia was divided into two parts: The earliest written references to the plough in Middle Mongolian language sources appear towards the end of the 14th c. Togoon died in and his son Esen Taish became prime minister. Esen carried out successful policy for Mongolian unification and independence. Within eighteen months of his defeat of the titular Khan Taisun, in , Esen himself took the title of Great Khan " of the Great Yuan. They quickly became the dominant Mongolic clan in Mongolia proper. Eastern Mongolia was divided into three parts in the 17th century: The last Mongol khagan was Ligdan in the early 17th century. He got into conflicts with the Manchus over the looting of Chinese cities, and managed to alienate most Mongol tribes. In , Ligdan signed a treaty with the Ming dynasty to protect their northern border from the Manchus attack in exchange for thousands of taels of silver. By the s, only the Chahars remained under his rule. Qing-era Mongols See also: The Qing forces secured their control over Inner Mongolia by , and the army of the last khan Ligdan moved to battle against Tibetan Gelugpa sect Yellow Hat sect forces. Ligden died in on his way to Tibet. By , most Inner Mongolian nobles had submitted to the Qing dynasty founded by the Manchus. Inner Mongolian Tengis noyan revolted against the Qing in the s and the Khalkha battled to protect Sunud. Western Mongolian Oirats and Eastern Mongolian Khalkhas vied for domination in Mongolia since the 15th century and this conflict weakened Mongolian strength. Many

Khalkha nobles and folks fled to Inner Mongolia because of the war. Few Khalkhas fled to the Buryat region and Russia threatened to exterminate them if they did not submit, but many of them submitted to Galdan Boshugtu. While his general Rabtan took Taraz, and his main force forced the Kazakhs to migrate westwards. Zanabazar struggled to bring together the Oirats and Khalkhas before the war. Tsetsen Khan Eastern Khalkha leader did not engage in this conflict. While Galdan was fighting in Eastern Mongolia, his nephew Tseveenravdan seized the Dzungarian throne in and this event made Galdan impossible to fight against the Qing Empire. The Russian and Qing Empires supported his action because this coup weakened Western Mongolian strength. The Mongols who fled to the Buryat region and Inner Mongolia returned after the war. Some Khalkhas mixed with the Buryats. A soldier from the late Qing era, by William Alexander, The Buryats fought against Russian invasion since the s and thousands of Buryats were massacred. The Buryat region was formally annexed to Russia by treaties in and, when the territories on both the sides of Lake Baikal were separated from Mongolia. In the Treaty of Nerchinsk established the northern border of Manchuria north of the present line. The Treaty of Kyakhta, along with the Treaty of Nerchinsk, regulated the relations between Imperial Russia and the Qing Empire until the mid-nineteenth century. It established the northern border of Mongolia. Oka Buryats revolted in and Russia completely conquered the Buryat region in the late 18th century. Russia and Qing were rival empires until the early 20th century, however, both empires carried out united policy against Central Asians. The Dzungar Khanate conquered by the Qing dynasty in " because of their leaders and military commanders conflicts. Russia was concerned about their attack but the Kalmyks became Russian ally and a treaty to protect Southern Russian border was signed between the Kalmyk Khanate and Russia. In the Kalmyks came under control of Russia. By the early 18th century, there were approximately " , Kalmyks and 15, , Russians. These policies, for instance, encouraged the establishment of Russian and German settlements on pastures the Kalmyks used to roam and feed their livestock. In addition, the Tsarist government imposed a council on the Kalmyk Khan, thereby diluting his authority, while continuing to expect the Kalmyk Khan to provide cavalry units to fight on behalf of Russia. In January, approximately, , [34] Kalmyks began the migration from their pastures on the left bank of the Volga River to Dzungaria Western Mongolia, through the territories of their Bashkir and Kazakh enemies. The last Kalmyk khan Ubashi led the migration to restore Mongolian independence. Ubashi Khan sent his 30, cavalries to the Russo-Turkish War in " to gain weapon before the migration. About, " , Kalmyks who settled on the west bank of the Volga River could not cross the river because the river did not freeze in the winter of and Catherine the Great executed influential nobles of them. After seven months of travel, only one-third 66, [34] of the original group reached Dzungaria Balkhash Lake, western border of the Qing Empire. Russia states that Buryatia voluntarily merged with Russia in due to Mongolian oppression and the Kalmyks voluntarily accepted Russian rule in but only Georgia voluntarily accepted Russian rule. As a result, some Mongol leaders especially those of Outer Mongolia decided to seek Mongolian independence. Additionally, the United Kingdom urged Russia to abolish Mongolian independence as it was concerned that "if Mongolians gain independence, then Central Asians will revolt". In reality however, most of them were too prudent or irresolute to attempt joining the Bogd Khan regime. In October, the Republic of China occupied Mongolia after the suspicious deaths of Mongolian patriotic nobles. On 3 February the White Russian army"led by Baron Ungern and mainly consisting of Mongolian volunteer cavalries, and Buryat and Tatar cossacks "liberated the Mongolian capital. The Statement of Reunification of Mongolia was adopted by Mongolian revolutionist leaders in The Soviet, however, considered Mongolia to be Chinese territory in during secret meeting with the Republic of China. However, the Soviets officially recognized Mongolian independence in but carried out various policies political, economic and cultural against Mongolia until its fall in to prevent Pan-Mongolism and other irredentist movements. The government and Soviet soldiers defeated the rebels in October. The Buryats started to migrate to Mongolia in the s due to Russian oppression. By, Soviet said "We repressed too many people, the population of Mongolia is only hundred thousands". Proportion of victims in relation to the population of the country is much higher than the corresponding figures of the Great Purge in the Soviet Union. The Manchukuo " , puppet state of the Empire of Japan " invaded Barga and some part of Inner Mongolia with Japanese help. Liberation War of Japan forced Inner Mongolian and Barga people to fight

against Mongolians but they surrendered to Mongolians and started to fight against their Japanese and Manchu allies. Inner Mongolian leaders carried out active policy to merge Inner Mongolia with Mongolia since The Japanese Empire supported Pan-Mongolism since the s but there have never been active relations between Mongolia and Imperial Japan due to Russian resistance. Inner Mongolian nominally independent Mengjiang state " was established with support of Japan in also some Buryat and Inner Mongol nobles founded Pan-Mongolist government with support of Japan in By , Soviet refused to support them after its alliance with the Communist Party of China and Mongolia interrupted its relations with the separatists under pressure. On February 2, the Treaty of friendship and alliance between the Government of Mongolia and Tibet was signed. Mongolian agents and Bogd Khan disrupted Soviet secret operations in Tibet to change its regime in the s. On October 27, , the United Nations recognized Mongolian independence and granted the nation full membership in the organization. The Tsardom of Russia , Russian Empire , Soviet Union, capitalist and communist China performed many genocide actions against the Mongols assimilate, reduce the population, extinguish the language, culture, tradition, history, religion and ethnic identity. Peter the Great said: In , Nicholas II , tsar of Russia, said: But the Kalmyks are more dangerous than them because they are the Mongols so send them to war to reduce the population". Our policy is too peaceful". Kalmykian nationalists and Pan-Mongolists attempted to migrate Kalmyks to Mongolia in the s. Stalin deported all Kalmyks to Siberia in and around half of 97"98, Kalmyk people deported to Siberia died before being allowed to return home in Marshal Khorloogiin Choibalsan attempted to migrate the deportees to Mongolia and he met with them in Siberia during his visit to Russia. Under the Law of the Russian Federation of April 26, "On Rehabilitation of Exiled Peoples" repressions against Kalmyks and other peoples were qualified as an act of genocide.

7: China from Mongol rule to the Ming, to

Merchants brought clothing, food, information, and other provisions to the imperial palaces, and in return the great khans gave the merchants tax exemptions and allowed them to use the official relay stations of the Mongol Empire.

Nisa 70, Hulagu Khan: Hulagu, who would later go on to establish the Mongol Il-Khanate or subordinate khanate, led the attack. The official reason for the invasion was that the Nisari Ismailis, Shiite Assassins based in mountain castles, were giving the Mongols too much trouble, and the Caliphate of Baghdad, the official head of the Muslim world, refused to help. In the 13th century, the Mongols faced a series of provocations from the Assassins. For years the Assassins unleashed their terror in the Middle East, killing numerous rulers and two Caliphs. But then they made a fatal mistake – they sent a member peace delegation to Mongolia but in fact many members of this delegation were killers tasked with eliminating key Mongol khans. When the wily Mongols discovered the plot, the obituaries of the Ismailies were well and truly written. Hulagu Khan decided to go for the final solution. He just refused to bow to Islam or to any belief system other than his own. Hulagu felt that Islam was an affront to monotheistic Mongol beliefs about an omnipotent god of nature that was present in all things. It comprised soldiers, spies, conspirators, astrologers, a thousand Chinese engineers, agents to construct bridges and clear roads, and was reinforced with Christian and Sunni contingents. His trebuchets could hurl huge rocks, and smaller stones covered in flaming naphtha, and his arbalesters could shoot bolts dipped in burning pitch a distance of twenty-five hundred paces. The Imam himself was allowed to beg for mercy. Historians unanimously agree that the Mongols did the world a favour by eliminating the Assassin scourge. The Mongols rolled on to Baghdad – the city that represented the surge of Islam. While Europe still moiled in its Dark Ages, Baghdad was a city of booksellers, bathhouses, gardens, game parks, libraries. The palaces of the caliphs were of marble, rare woods, jade, and alabaster, with fountains and interior gardens, and carpets and wall hangings by the thousand. Servants sprinkled guests with sprinklers of rosewater and powdered musk and ambergris. Arts and sciences flourished – literature, music, calligraphy, philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, history. More than 20, soldiers who sallied out were drowned or cut down by Mongol arrows. Only their commander was able to stagger back into the city. The Tigris was blocked with check points and pontoon bridges upon which were placed siege machines. From all points, Chinese auxiliaries, experts at artillery, proceeded to pound the ancient walls with heavy stones and ballista. No city in the world could have survived the fierce bombardment. Section by section, street by street, the ancient city was claimed by the tenacious invader. Once the Mongols controlled the city, they started an orgy of violence that lasted seven days. Persian historian Abdullah Wassaf narrates: Those hiding behind the veils of the great Harem were dragged through the streets and alleys, each of them becoming a plaything as the population died at the hands of the invaders. The caliph Mustasim was captured and forced to watch as his citizens were murdered and his treasury was plundered. The Mongols looted and then destroyed mosques, palaces and hospitals. Grand buildings that had been the work of generations were burned to the ground. The massive library, which housed three million books, was ruined. It is rumoured that when all the books were thrown into the Tigris River, it ran black with ink for days. Depending on the source, the Mongol warriors killed, to one million people. When Mustasim was brought before him, Hulagu had the caliph wrapped in a carpet and then trodden to death by horses. The daughter was shipped off to Mongolia to be a slave in the harem of Mongke Khan. In the end it took less than two months for the mighty capital of the Abbasid Caliphate to fall to the Mongol onslaught. Syria was quickly overrun and the Mongols next planned to move on to the Mamluks in Egypt. But just when it seemed like Islam was in mortal danger, news arrived that Mongke Khan had died. As swiftly as they had arrived, in mid Hulagu and the majority of the Mongol army withdrew to Mongolia to elect a new khan. The remaining force engaged the Mamluks at Ayn Jalut, in Israel. The Mongols were decisively defeated. Had the Mongols won, it would have placed them in a position from they would have gone on to take Egypt and then control Mecca and Medina. If the Mongols had controlled the two most important religious cities of Islam, it would have boxed-in the Muslim resistance. Epic disaster For the Islamic world, the Mongol invasions proved to be a disaster on an unparalleled scale. It broke

the spirit of the Muslims. Despite ultimately being unsuccessful in their attempt to destroy Islam, the Mongols left a deep political, economic and military scar in the heart of the Muslim world. The political institutions, such as the caliphate, that held the Muslim world together for centuries, were abolished. The Mongol armies devastated the agriculture of Persia and Central Asia, which was reliant on the qanat, a system of water management in which the water is brought from a mountain water source and then flows to feed multiple wells using only gravity. Without the qanat, Central Asia and much of Persia reverted to their natural desert state, inhospitable to agriculture. Many areas have not recovered to this day. One Persian chronicler described the parlous state of the country in these words: With the sack of Baghdad, the intellectual flowering of Islam was snuffed out. Imagining the Athens of Pericles and Aristotle obliterated by a nuclear weapon begins to suggest the enormity of the blow. The Mongols filled in the irrigation canals and left Iraq too depopulated to restore them. The Mongols, therefore, may have contributed to the rise of Islamic radicals, but that is debatable as religious fundamentalism has always been an integral element of life in the Middle East. Fighting fire with fire. In Western and Muslim imagination and literature, the Mongols " and in particular Genghis Khan " are depicted as barbarians, as the ultimate killing machine, as the scourge of god. No doubt the Mongols were fierce and brutal, and their way of fighting was total war. The Mongols knew that to defeat Islam they had to fight fire with fire. Above all, they fought for honour. The Mongols were extraordinarily tolerant of other religions and this was a tradition they maintained for most of the history of the empire " a rare quality in a world where Christians and Muslims had been at war with each other for nearly years. Genghis and Hulagu would have been scandalised at the pardon of Mohammad Ghori by the Rajput ruler Prithviraj Chauhan in only for Ghori to return in and kill Chauhan. No Mongol khan would have accepted a truce while he was winning as Lal Bahadur Shastri did in the war with Pakistan. No Mongol leader would do what an Indian prime minister did after the War, when Indira Gandhi fed, housed and secured 97, Pakistani prisoners of war in Indian camps and then let them go without trying them for war crimes in Bangladesh. Even Mongol women had remarkable killer instinct that would make a Maratha or Rajput envious. Women, children, infants, and even dogs and cats were all killed. Ten days later, the pyramids were complete. And yet they destroyed the political power of their two prime enemies " the Chinese and the Muslims. Making an example The Mongol invasion of the Middle East was conducted as a sort of forward policy. In this aspect, they again offer a stark contrast to the Indian kingdoms, the vast majority of which did not bother to destroy the enemy in his own lair. For the next six decades the Arabs launched a series of attacks but suffered huge losses before they tasted success against Raja Dahir in CE, opening the floodgates to the Islamic conquest of India. Had the powerful Hindu kings united and destroyed the Arabs in Iraq and Syria, caliphs like the tyrant Hajjaj could scarcely have been able to mount successive invasions against India. Again, the large scale killings were a defence mechanism for Mongol self-preservation. They did not have the numbers required to garrison the conquered cities. If their opponents were not sufficiently subdued, they could rise again and attack the Mongols when the Mongols left to deal with another city. This would have resulted in the Mongols endlessly returning to quell rebellions, preventing them from pursuing their final goals. Mongol attitude towards Hindus And finally, would the Mongols have visited the same level of destruction on India? The ifs and buts of history are merely an academic exercise, but the reality is that it never happened. Genghis and Hulagu did not invade India because they had no reason to. They launched wars with clear political objectives, and certainly not with the iconoclastic fervour of Muslims. Arabs, Afghans and Turks invaded India primarily for its wealth " a lot of which was in unguarded temples " but killing infidel Hindus in order to gain the favour of Allah was also one of the fringe benefits along with rape and slaves. But the sky worshiping Mongols shared a religious code like the Hindus. In Baghdad, the Mongols asked the Nestorian Christians to remain inside a church while they carried out the killings. The discipline of the Mongolian soldiers is ascertained by the fact that even during the frenzy of pillage, not one Christian was harmed. Similarly, the Shias of Baghdad were not touched either as they had helped the Mongols. In the prelude to the advance on Baghdad, in the first attack on Merv, the Mongols had killed 1. When it became repopulated in a few months, the city rose in revolt and the Mongols returned to kill ,, leaving only four survivors. Several months later, Merv again revolted. This time the Mongols returned with a massive force of , men and carried out widespread torture for 40 days. Melville of

Cambridge University says: Like the Nestorians of Central Asia, the Hindus posed no threat to them. Had the Mongols invaded India, they would have performed a surgical strike, taking out the Muslim elites, while sparing the Hindus, who would have welcomed the pluralistic Mongols as liberators. The opinions expressed within this article are the personal opinions of the author. IndiaFacts does not assume any responsibility or liability for the accuracy, completeness, suitability, or validity of any information in this article. Rakesh Krishnan Simha Rakesh is primarily a defence analyst. His articles have been quoted extensively by universities and in books on diplomacy, counter terrorism, warfare, and development of the global south; and by international defence journals.

8: Mongol - The Return - Encyclopaedia Metallum: The Metal Archives

Compelled to return to Mongolia for the Khuruldai, or council of Mongol-Turkic chiefs and khans, to elect a new great khan, Hã¼legã¼ withdrew the bulk of his forces east to his power base in Persia. He left Kitbuqa with only a token forceâ€” perhaps two 10,man units known as tumens â€”to maintain control of Syria.

Mongol armies had already met and defeated many a formidable army, from Asian warriors to heavily armored European knights. To throw the Mamluks off balance before they could make an advance, the Mongols launched an early morning offensive. Mounted archers charged the Mamluks, unleashing an initial barrage from their deadly composite horn-and-wood bows. As they turned and galloped away to prepare another charge, a second wave immediately moved forward and unleashed a salvo. As intended, the hailstorm of arrows threw back the Mamluks, softening up their formations to allow Mongol cavalymen, in tough boiled-leather armor, to charge in for the kill. The Mamluks were getting their first taste of the characteristic organization, speed and ferocity for which the Mongols were known, justifying their anxieties about standing up to the undefeated invaders. If the Mamluks failed to check them, Egypt would likely suffer a similar fate as Baghdad, which lay in ruins after being sacked and pillaged by the Mongols in February. Such was the fate of those who refused to submit. It was cause for alarm and dread in a country still in disarray after a turbulent decade of civil strife, intrigue and murder. He had the Mongol envoys cut in half, their heads displayed at the city gate. The sultan then rallied his people under the banner of holy war, putting together an army comprising his own regular forces, auxiliaries, refugee Syrian troops and others who had fled the Mongol onslaught, and readying everything from body armor and javelins to bows and arrows, lances and swords. He left Kitbuqa with only a token forceâ€” perhaps two 10,man units known as tumensâ€”to maintain control of Syria. The Mamluks may have had slight numerical superiority over the Mongols, though accounts of the size of the opposing forces and details on the course of battle differ considerably. Qutuz deferred command of the Mamluk vanguard to a political rival named Baybars, to either reward him for his support or put him in the line of danger. After crossing the Sinai, Baybars force encountered forward elements of the Mongol army at Gaza, which quickly withdrew to alert Kitbuqa. Along the way Qutuz bypassed entrenched Crusaders in coastal cities and inland fortresses. The sultan made it clear they would regret any attempt to ally with the Mongols. Trapped between two enemies and still smarting from past defeats at the hands of the Muslims, the Crusader leaders chose to watch from the sidelines, even allowing the Mamluk army to camp outside Crusader-held Acre for several days. Though the Mongols traveled light, carrying little equipment and making do with few provisions, they moved slowly to allow their thousands of warhorses to graze their fill in preparation for the coming battle. With their hardy horses and superior bows, the Mongols had perfected tactics of harassment, attack and evasion against counterattack, as well as pursuit and encirclement. Successful execution required a high degree of organization and cooperation, at which the disciplined and efficient Mongols excelled. When the Mamluks did muster a counterattack, the Mongol horsemen retreated to the safety of their rear ranks, where men on fresh horses waited to charge. Though better equipped and riding larger mounts, the Mamluks soon exhausted their horses in attempts to catch the Mongols and bring their heavy weaponry to bear. In a nearly overwhelming push, the Mongol right threatened to overpower the Mamluk left. The sight of their commander so courageously invoking their faith evidently inspired the Mamluks to hold their ground and fire steadily at the attacking Mongols. Shooting faster and straighter than the Mongols and unleashing deadly long-range fire from atop their stationary horses, the Mamluks exacted a heavy toll on their foe. When the Mongols halted, the Mamluks went on the offensive with their larger, stronger horses. Qutuz led the charge into the enemy ranks and was credited with killing a number of enemy riders. Some modern historians claim the bulk of the Mamluk army laid in wait while Baybars, leading a small detachment, alternately engaged the Mongols and feigned retreatâ€”drawing them into an ambush. But the false retreat was a known Mongol tactic, casting doubt on claims they would have fallen for their own trick. It was also Mongol practice to send out large scouting parties, so they were bound to have known the true size of the Mamluk force they would be facing. Whichever version of events is accurate, the results are not in dispute.

In disarray following the power transition in their capital, the Mongols were unable to stabilize the collapsing situation in Syria, and internal power struggles prevented them from seeking vengeance. The Mongols pulled back, creating a power vacuum that left the Mamluks masters of Palestine and Syria. Though not the first Mamluk sultan, by virtue of his extremely capable leadership and ability to govern Baybars is considered the true founder of the Mamluk sultanate. Ruling from 1250 to 1260, Baybars laid the groundwork that enabled the Mamluk state to become the center of Muslim power, wealth and learning for more than a century. He is the author of *Holy Wars: Mamluk Success or Mongol Failure?* Originally published in the March issue of *Military History*. To subscribe, [click here](#).

9: When the Mongols Met Their March | HistoryNet

The Mongols motorcycle club is back in Palm Springs for their annual event -- selling out all rooms at the Hilton in downtown Palm Springs. The Palm Springs police department has implemented.

Heavy Cavalry of the Imperial Guards Introduction Perhaps no empire in history has risen so spectacularly as that of the Mongols. In less than 80 years, a band of warriors originally comprised of several men grew to an empire that encompassed all from the Pacific Ocean to the Danube River. This story is about one of the most dramatic series conquests in history and how it was the Mongols themselves who shattered their own invincibility. In the 12th century, various Turkic and Mongol-Tungusic tribes roamed the steppes of Mongolia. One of these tribes was the Mongols. Around the , the Mongols emerged as a powerful tribe, defeating neighboring nomads and forcing the Jin Empire of Northern China to pay tribute. However, the glory was short lived. In , the Mongol Kingdom was shattered, having been defeated by the neighboring Tartars tribe. The Mongol clans divisions within a tribe became disunited and fought amongst themselves for what little there was. In , Yesguei and his wife had a son named Temujin, the one who would become Genghis Khan. When Temujin was nine years old, his father was poisoned by Tartar chiefs. Since he was much too young to rule, his clansmen deserted him. Temujin and his family 7 people total moved to the most desolate areas of the steppes, eating roots and rodents for living. He had many great adventures, ranging from chasing horse thieves to being captured by enemies. When Temujin was 16, the Merkid Tribe attacked his family and captured his wife. Together they defeated the Merkids and Temujin recovered his wife. Temujin quickly took advantage of his powerful allies, particularly Jamugha, who was also happened to be a Mongol and a childhood friend of his, and became a notable figure on the steppes. Temujin and Jamugha took control over most of the Mongol Clans, but that was not enough for Temujin. According to the Secret History of the Yuan Dynasty, one day while Temujin and Jamugha were riding at the front of the Mongols, Temujin decided to "keep going" while Jamugha stopped to pitch tent. Temujin broke up with Jamugha and the Mongols were split into two groups. Hostilities soon broke out between the two parties. In a clash over a minor event, Temujin was defeated and was forced into exile. However, Temujin returned ten years later and reestablished his position. From there, he embarked on a conquest of the Mongolia that lasted several years. Unfortunately, the details are too great to be perused in this article. In short, by Temujin had subjugated all that opposed him. There, he took the title Chingis Khan. The name Chingis Khan is commonly referred to as Genghis Khan. However, "Genghis" is actually a corrupted variation, and thus for accuracy reason, he will be referred to as "Chingis" Khan. During the Khuriltai of , Chingis Khan decreed the structure and laws for his new Empire. To ensure stability and cooperation between people of the tribes that he united, Chingis Khan installed a military superstructure to integrate all the peoples of his Empire. The population was divided into units responsible for maintaining a certain amount of warriors ready at any given time, thus overriding previous tribal organizations. Furthermore, he decreed many specific laws and created an efficient administrative hierarchy. Chingis Khan created the most advanced government of any steppe nation up to that time. His horde would soon prove to be the most disciplined, the most powerful and the most feared army to ride from the steppes. The Khuriltai of First, he led his men in a series of campaigns against the Xi Xia Empire in western China. In , the Xi Xia capital was threatened, but the Mongols were satisfied with tribute after their camp was unexpectedly flooded. It must be understood that the Mongols were still more interested in and tribute plunder rather than to capture cities. However, as the Empires in China discontinued to pay tribute once the Mongols withdraw, the raids soon turned into conquest. He continued a trail of plunder until he met a large force of around , men, which he defeated. Chingis split his army and launched a multiple pronged attack on the Jin. He and his generals dealt several blows against the Jin, including capturing the strategic Juyong pass. Unfortunately, Chingis was wounded during a siege and withdrew to Mongolia. Subsequently, Jin forces began to recapture territories lost to the Mongols. In , the Mongols returned after learning that the Jin had refortified their locations. Chingis divided his army into three parts, one under command by himself and the other two, under his sons. The three Mongol armies devastated the Jin Empire, and by , most of the area north of the Huang He Yellow river was in

Mongol hands. One exception was the city of Chungdu, capital of the Jin Empire. Chingis realized this weakness and was quick to capture Chinese siege engineers to learn siege tactics. Accounts describe that every tenth man was sacrificed to be fed to the others. But the siege went on for so long that Chingis had to personally abandon the campaign. He then placed his general Mukali in charge. The Mongols finally entered the city in , but by then, the Jin capital had already been moved south to Kai-feng. In , he sent his general Chepe westward and conquered the Kara Khitai Empire. But the real issue was with the huge Kwarazmian Empire in Perisa. Since Chingis sent the ambassadors for the purpose of making peace, he was outraged. Chingis prepared for the largest operation he had yet performed and assembled a force that totaled around , men. The main attack, however, was led by Chingis Khan himself, who along with general Subedei, marched through the Kizil Kum desert and outflanked the Kwarazmian forces. The plan was that the Kizil Kum desert was considered impractical to cross, which made it a great opportunity to surprise the enemy. Chingis and his army disappeared into the desert and suddenly, out of nowhere, he appeared at the city of Bokhara. The city garrison was stunned, and was quickly defeated. Next, Chingis marched towards Samarkand, capital of the Kwarazmian Empire. The city was expected to be able to hold out for months, but on March 19, its walls were breached in just ten days. After the fall of Samarkand, the Mongols overran much of the Empire. The destruction was profound. Cities were leveled and populations were massacred. At the city of Merv, accounts described an execution of , At Samarkand, women were raped and sold into slavery. Devastation was so great that the Kwarazmian Empire itself was nearly wiped away from history. The conquest of the Kwarazm also created another remarkable event. After his defeat, the Kwarazm Shah fled west and Subedei followed in pursue with a force of 20, men. The Kwarazm Shah died, however, but Subedei went further. He brought his army north and defeated a heavily outnumbering Russian and Cuman army at the Khalka River. He went further and attack the Volga Bulgars before returning back. During the entire campaign, the Kwarazm Shah failed to assemble an army to fight the Mongols on the battlefield. The Kwarazm strategy relied on its extensive city garrisons that outnumbered the besieging Mongol armies. This of course, failed in every way. The only well organized resistance against the Mongols came from Jalal ad-Din, who after the fall of Samarkand, organized a resistance force in modern day Afghanistan. Chingis chases after Jalal ad-Din and destroyed his army at the Indus River. The defeat of Jalal ad-Din meant the consolidation of rule of Transoxania. However, the southern parts of the Kwarazmian Empire were left unconquered and later turned into a collection of Independent states. It is said that the Mongols decided not to advance when the sight of a unicorn demoralized their vanguard. He sought the legendary Daoist monk Changchun for the exilir to Immortality. His wish did not come true, as Changchun had no magical exilir, but Chingis praised his wisdom and the two became good friends. Following the meeting with the Daoist monk, Chingis returned to the administration side of his objectives. Unlike Attila the Hun and Alexander the Great, Chingis Khan realized the importance of a smooth succession after his death. Before he completed his conquest of the Kwarazmian Empire, he had already carefully chosen his son Ogedei to be his successor. After Chingis returned to Mongolia to finish establish the administration structure of his empire, all the matters were in good order, except for the Tanguts. The Tangut Xi Xia Empire had long been defeated by the Mongols, but became more of a tributary rather than being annexed. However, the Tanguts had stopped complying with terms while Chingis was away. In , Chingis Khan led his army against Xi Xia and captured its capital. The reason remains unsolved, with theories ranging from internal injuries after a hunting accident, to malaria, to prophecies of the Tanguts. No other empire in history has seen such an extraordinary expansion in the lifetime of one man. Although Chingis Khan brought much destruction in his conquests, it is clear that he did not intend to commit mass genocide like that of Hitler, even though the death tolls far exceeded anything in history. He was exceptionally respectful to those who supported him, and it was not uncommon for him to befriend defected enemies. In any case, Chingis was a brilliant military strategist and an exceptionally gifted leader, making him one of the most intriguing figures in history. Although these ulus inheritances were politically united in the same empire, they would later serve as the basis of future khanates. As said before, Ogedei had already been chosen by Chingis to be his successor.

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