After uniting the tribes of Mongolia, the foreign campaigns begin. In 1207, Chingis sends Jochi to defeat the Oirat, Buriyat, Turkish Kirghiz and Tumets. The next battle is against the kingdom of Si-hia in the Ordos desert. This is a stronghold of Buddhism and Chinese culture with an army of 150,000. Jochi lays siege until 1210, when the capital of Chungsing surrenders. Meanwhile, Chingis takes the kingdom of Karakhitai, of which most subjects are Turks. In 1209 Barchuk, the ruler of the Uighur Turks, joins Chingis.

In 1211, Jaghatai, Jochi, Ogodei and Chingis lead three forces totaling 120,000 men across the Gobi desert against the Chin army of 500,000, and defeat them in 1217.

In 1215 Turkistan is invaded and absorbed.

In 1219 Chingis leads an army of 150,000 cavalry, including 10,000 Chinese siege engineers and Moslem interpreters who acted as spies, against Muhammed of Khwarazmshah and his army of 300,000, who were scattered in garrisons in several cities. Muhammed flees and dies in 1220, and is succeeded by Gelal-ad-Din. Chingis returns home in 1223.

In February of 1221, reconnaissance into Europe begins. Jebe and Subedei, while pursuing Muhammed, overrun Iran and winter on the steppe of Mughan in Azerbaijan. Under Jebe and Subedei, 20,000 Mongols are attacked by 70,000 men under George IV of Armenia on the Khuman plain. The Mongols wait for the Georgian cavalry to charge and exhaust their horses, then scatter their forces under a barrage of arrows. The Mongols then mount fresh horses, advance under a screen of arrows and drive a wedge into the Georgian army. King George withdraws with his fastest horsemen and returns to their capital to prepare for a siege.

The Mongols sack Maragha and Ramadan for horses and treasure, then return to their camp on the delta of Kura. At the beginning of winter they return to Georgia to Derbend—the fortress which protects the pass of Bab al-Abwab which leads to the steppes. George IV rides to Tiflis where he is ambushed and defeated. He later dies. After the attack on Tiflis, the Mongols sack Astrakhan on the Sea of Azov. It is during this sacking that Subedei first comes in contact with Europeans.

Jebe and Subedei prepare to invade Russia with Jochi who is to meet them, but he becomes ill. They overtake the Ukraine and the Crimea and winter there 1222-23. They are attacked by Mstislav of Galich and 100,000 men who cross the Dnieper river, then retreat to Kalka and are destroyed there. Jebe and Subedei are then recalled upon hearing that Chingis has fallen ill. They are joined by Jochi, who dies on the way home. He is replaced by Batu.
Chingis appoints Ogodei his successor. Chingis' wife Bortei is appointed regent until the Khuriltai, and Toului, other son, is appointed regent between the time the Khuriltai is held until the coronation. Chinghis dies on August 24, 1227 and is taken back to Mongolia to be buried.

Ogodei is chosen as Great Khan in 1229 in Karakorum.

In 1236, Subedei and Batu lead 50,000 Mongols and 70,000 Turks against the kingdom of Bular, which becomes a vassal state of Mongolia the next year. In 1237, the Mongols attack the Cumans on the Volga and Don rivers. During the winter of 1237-38, the Mongols take Moscow, Suzdal, Tver, and other cities. They destroy the army of the Grand Duke Yuri, but the spring thaw prevents them from entering Novgorod and the Baltic coast. Subedei turns south and camps on the Don river.

In 1240, the Mongols advance on the city under the command of Mongke. The city is taken in December and Prince Dmitri is captured.

After the defeat of Kiev, Batu splits his army into three branches. One branch, under Kaidu and Bairdar, enters Poland. After defeating the Poles at Chmielnik they proceed to Breslau in four columns while the fifth column overruns Lithuania and East Prussia. At Wahlstatt, Archduke Henry of Silesia is ambushed and killed by Kaidu. Kaidu goes south to join Batu.

Kadan leads another branch into southern Hungary through the Carpathian Mountains. Batu and Subedei lead the final branch into central Hungary against King Bela, to punish him for having given asylum to 200,000 Cumans in 1238. Beta's army finds Batu's camp at the junction of the Tisza and Theiss rivers, but are surrounded by Batu's army at night and defeated. Batu reaches Pesth by mid-March, cutting Hungary in half and cutting communications between the two sides. Batu occupies Hungary until 1242, when news of the death of Ogodei reaches him, saving Austria, Bohemia and the rest of Europe from attack. Batu returns to Karakorum, ravaging Albania, Dalmatia and Serbia on his way home.

As is custom, Ogodei's widow Ardedais serves as regent until the new Khan can be elected. Although Ogodei appointed his grandson Kublai as Khan, Ardedais succeeds in putting her own son Kuyuk on the throne in 1246; Kuyuk dies two years later. Mongke, nominated by Batu, becomes Khan in 1251. Batu establishes his headquarters at Sarai (65 miles north of Astrakhan on the lower Volga) and holds his own council, where he is proclaimed Khan. He breaks allegiance with Karakorum and rules independently as the head of the Golden Horde (from the Mongol altun ardu), but remains a province of the Mongol Empire.

In 1255 Batu dies at old Sarai. Berke succeeds him in 1257 and dies in 1266. Mongke Temur becomes Khan in 1266, but Nogai is the hand of power. Nogai urges the Russian princes to fight against Poland and Lithuania, while he advances on south Poland and Hungary. Mongke Temur dies in 1280 and is succeeded by Tuda Mongke, who later abdicates to Telebog, who is later seized and given to Tokhta whom Nogai later proclaims as Khan. Nogai takes dominion in the Crimea, and is later opposed by Tokhta, who sides against him in a war between Venice and Genoa. Nogai dies in 1299.

In 1312 Tokhta dies and is succeeded by Ozbeg. Ozbeg appoints Ivan Kalita of Moscow as Grand Duke. This office remains with the princes of Moscow until the end of Mongol rule.

Ozbeg dies in 1341; he is succeeded by Janibeg who dies in 1357 and is succeeded by Beribeg. The Horde loses interest in lands south of the Caucasus. Beribeg is murdered in 1359.

The Golden Horde is counter-attacked successfully in 1363, at the battle of Kulikovo by Dmitry Donskoj, prince of Moscow. This battle ends in the first major defeat of the Horde.

Civil wars break out between rivals for the khanate and Russian princes attempting to overthrow Moscow. The Lithuanian Grand Dukes extend their power as far as Kiev. The Golden Horde's territory is divided between the rulers of the Crimea, Astrakhan and Khwarazm. Timur Melik makes himself master of Khwarazm, and helps Tokhtamysh in his possession of Astrakhan and Sarai in 1378.

In 1382 Khan Tokhtamysh leads a siege on Moscow. After three days Tokhtamysh gains entry into the city by offering to discuss peace terms—once inside, his armies slaughter the entire city. Tokhtamysh also invades Caucasie and Transoxiana. He appoints Vassili of Moscow as ruler of Novgorod, and invades Caucasie in 1391 and 1394. He is defeated both times by Timur, who destroys Tokhtamysh's power base of nomads at Astrakhan, Sarai, Bulgar and the Crimea. Tokhtamysh is later killed by a local khan.

Tokhtamysh is succeeded by Edigui, who continues to rule the Golden Horde as an independent state. Moscow continues to be attacked unsuccessfully by Edigui, Tamerlane and others. The Horde begins breaking up in about 1430.

In 1462, Vassili dies and bequeaths his duchi to Ivan III. After ascensiong the throne, Ivan plots against the khanate of Kazan, one of four independent states once held by
the Golden Horde. Ivan invades the khanate in 1467 and several times after that. Though he fails to capture the khanate, the repeated raids take the taste of battle away from the Mongols. In 1479, Ahmed, the new khan of the Golden Horde, sends envoys to Moscow, who are spat upon in public by Ivan. Threats by Ahmed on Moscow in 1465 and 1472 are undermined by internal struggles between the khanates of Ahmed and the Mongols of the Crimea and Lithuania. Ahmed is murdered by Siberian and Nogai Mongols at Sarai in 1480, leaving the Horde without a leader. Ivan III of Moscow formally renounces Russia's allegiance with the Mongols. The Mongol rule over Russia declines.

The Crimean Mongols ally with Moscow against Lithuania by 1499.

Ivan III is succeeded by his son Ivan IV in 1505. The Golden Horde has come to an end. The khanates of Kazan and the Crimea prepare to act together against Moscow, but are defeated outside of Crimea by the armies of Ivan, whose cannon and hand guns are unknown on the steppes. The Girai khanate continues in the Crimea until Peter the Great comes to power in 1689.

The hierarchy of the army was broken down into units as follows:

Khan: Commander-in-chief of the army; leader of the patriarchal clans which form the ordu, or camp.

Noyan: Mongolian counterpart to the European prince; commanders of the tumen and minghan units.

Bahadur: Corresponds to the European rank of knight, and were the personal guards to the Khan.

Yurtchis: Quartermaster of the ordu. They were responsible for choosing camp sites, laying out and running the camp, organizing supplies and communications. Chief yurtchis were responsible for camp administration, reconnaissance and intelligence.

The body of the army was broken down into units as follows:

Tumen: 10,000 men divided into 10 minghan.

Minghan: 1,000 men divided into 10 jagun, or squadrons. Commanders of both the minghan and the tumen were selected by the Khan.

Jagun: 100 men divided into 10 arban, or troops. The commander of the jagun was selected by the commanders of the arban.

Arban: 10 men, who selected their commander from among themselves.

The Kashik, or Imperial Guard, was made up of the Day Guard, Night Guard, and Quiver Bearers; each segment had three minghans.

The Old Elite Life Guard always accompanied the Khan; each man in this guard had the rank of bahadur. The Old Elite Life Guard made u,
the Khan's household and served as
the officer's college; no man could
command without first having served
his group. Sons of noyans were
automatically admitted; others were
selected through competitions that
were held on a yearly basis. In battle,
this guard surrounded the Khan and
rose only at the decisive moment. In
peacetime, they trained constantly
and attended council to learn the
business of command.

The Mongolian army had at least
three tumens of cavalry, and sev-
eral mighans of artillery and engi-
near, as well as interpreters and
merchants who acted as spies, and
an officer of the lost and found.
Chinese served as mapmakers, doc-
tors, diplomats, scientists and civil
administrators in captured territo-
ries. They conducted censuses, sur-
veyed crops and climate, and hired
the interpreters and spies. The army
was commanded by the Khan
Jugh his generals.

White was a sacred color,
and was reserved for
the Khan.

The bahadur wore black armor, a
black tunic with red facings, and rode
a black horse with a red leather saddle.

The basic uniform for all others
was either a blue tunic with facings,
or a brown tunic with light blue fac-
ings, which was lined with fur for
winter use. Officers had gold and sil-
ver threads in their facings. Trousers
were blue or grey, and also lined with
fur in the winter. Boots were leather
with no heels, and laced up the front.
All men wore silk undershirts.

Light cavalry wore in addition to
this a quilted tunic, or a cuirass of lac-
quered leather strips, and a leather
helmet. Heavy cavalry wore a coat of
mail with a cuirass of ox hide, or iron

Provisions were carried in
saddlebags and included a
change of clothing, sheepskin
cloth, cook pot, yogurt, millet, dried
meat, kumiss, leather water bottle, a
fish line, hatchet, files for sharpening
arrows, needle, thread and other re-
pair equipment. Saddlebags were wa-
terproof and could be inflated to act
as life jackets. Every so many men
also carried a tent and a circular hide
for ground cover.

Each man carried with him a
wicker shield covered with thick
leather, 2 bows, 2 quivers with 30 arrows each, a lasso, and a dagger which was strapped to the inside of his left forearm. Light cavalry also carried a small sword and 2-3 javelins. Heavy cavalry carried a scimitar a battle ax or mace, and a 12 foot lance with a horsehair pennant and a hook below the blade.

The bow was the most important weapon. The Mongolian composite bow was made from layers of horn and sinew on a wood frame and lacquered. Arrows were of various types: long range, short range, armor piercers with tempered tips, whistling signal arrows, incendiary, and grenade-tipped.

The horse was the most prized possession the Mongol had. They were generally 13-14 hands high, some were as large as 16 hands high. For the first 2 years of the pony’s life, they were ridden hard and broken in. After 3 years of pasturing they were then trained for battle.

Each man had 3 horses so they could travel non-stop. Mares were preferred because both the milk and blood could be drunk, and the flesh could be eaten.

Harnesses and saddles were decorated with silver. Horses ridden by heavy cavalry were armored. Battle horses were never used for food. When one went lame, it was put out to pasture and was only killed if it was the favorite horse of a soldier. If he died, the two spirits would continue to be together. Herds were divided by color and were used as another definition of rank.

Training took the form of the Great Hunt. It was conducted like a campaign and was designed to teach discipline, strategy, and unity under command.

The favorite tactic was to strike suddenly and unexpectedly. Data was collected from spies, ‘merchants’ spread propaganda to lower enemy morale, maps were studied and strategies planned. Scouts rode in front of reconnaissance patrols, followed by army units riding in formation with a center, two wings, a vanguard and a rearguard. The most often used method of attack was the tulghma, or standard sweep. In this maneuver, the light cavalry were sent forward to attack at right angles, then the heavy cavalry swept around and charged the enemy from the rear.

Another favorite maneuver was the mangudai. This was where a light cavalry of suicide troops charged the enemy, broke ranks, then retreated, leading the enemy into an ambush of heavy cavalry.

If they were too heavily outnumbered the Mongols would turn aside, putting 1-2 days journey between themselves and the enemy and lay waste to what was around them. They might also retreat for 10-12 days until the opposing army had disbanded, then attack.

The artillery stayed behind with engineers, reserves and remounts. The Mongols learned about siege weapons and artillery from the Chinese, and improved upon them when they invaded Iran. Chinese engines used by the Mongols were:

Light catapult—operated by 40 slaves, it threw a 200 pound projectile 100 yards. It was easily dismantled and transported on pack animals.

Heavy catapult—operated by a crew of 100, it threw a 250 pound missle 150 yards. It was used to fire incendiary bombs at walls.

Balliste—looked like a giant crossbow and could shoot a heavy arrow the same distance as the heavy catapult but with more accuracy. It could be dismantled and transported like the light catapult.

Artillery was used to blitzkrieg the enemy if he had a strong defensive position. A prolonged barrage at several points was followed by archers who opened gaps in the wall, followed by the first wave of heavy cavalry under the cover of the archers. This procedure was mopped up by the artillery and the rest of the army. Another method of siege was to drive the enemy into their city with archers, which was then sealed off with a wooden palisade which took 9-10 days to build. This prevented messengers from escaping and protected the Mongolian archers.

Then the siege began, using catapults, rams, and javelin throwers. During the consequent storming of the city, some survivors were allowed to escape to spread stories of terror to other nearby towns. Prisoners were taken as needed for labor gangs.

The Mongols were regarded by the rest of the world as superhuman—the reputation that preceded them was one of their strongest weapons. As a fighting machine, the Mongols possessed great mobility, organization, discipline, and total dedication.

The Mongols were the last and most destructive invaders to come from the steppes. Even though Europe was saved from invasion by the deaths of Ogedei Khan and Mansu Khan, the Mongolian campaign had far reaching consequences:

In 1238, the British herring market becomes glutted when ships from the Baltic don’t arrive because of preparations they are making against the Mongols. Fifty herrings sell for one shilling.

Subedie signs a treaty with the Genoese, who act as spies in return for the Mongol destruction of all other trading posts in the Crimea, giving the Genoese a monopoly there.
Russia suffers a ruined economy and exploited peasantry, self-important stocrats.

Harsh customs are introduced to Eastern Europe, such as flogging, torture, seclusion of women, servility of inferiors and brutality of superiors towards them.

Isolation keeps Russia and surrounding countries socially and culturally backward. This is one of the longest lasting consequences.

But not all consequences were dire. Western Europe gains knowledge of Asia through missionaries and diplomats. Roads are reopened to China from the West and merchants, envoys and missionaries are guaranteed safe passage under the Mongol rule.

Under the rule of the Golden Horde, Russia is isolated from trade and contact with the West. The Eastern Orthodox Church becomes separated from Constantinople, and becomes self-sufficient and unchallenged by foreign ideas. Christians are guaranteed freedom of worship. Church lands are exempt from taxes, clergy is exempt from army recruitment. This aids in the strengthening of the church and the unification of its people against the invaders.

Novgorod becomes a center of trade. Baltic trade is stimulated because of the prosperity it brings to the Golden Horde.

Russians are allowed to collect taxes for the Mongols and become autonomous.

Forests are cut down and agriculture is expanded; population is spread out more evenly across the countryside.

The success of Chingis Khan lay in the strategies of General Subedei, as well as his own skill and organization in battle. The Mongol nation is eventually defeated by a drop in their discipline, and the introduction of firearms to Eastern Europe, which were unfamiliar to the peoples of the steppes.

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