

# Renaissance Wars (c.1490-1600)

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## Period and Scope of Game

The scope of *Renaissance* is primarily the various Western European wars of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, in particular the Italian Wars and related Anglo-Scottish conflict during the first half of the century, and then, from the 1560s onwards, the French Wars of Religion and Dutch Revolt from Spanish rule. The game also includes some scenarios involving the Turks and Eastern Europe.

It is necessary to consider the political map of Europe at the close of the Middle Ages to perceive the relative power of the various states at this period. While France (apart from Calais, which still remained in English hands after the Hundred Years War) and Spain (Castile and Aragon had recently been united by the marriage of Isabella and Ferdinand in 1479, while Granada was finally wrestled from Muslim control in 1492) had more or less reached their modern shape, England and Scotland were to remain separate kingdoms – and occasionally at war - until 1603, while “Italy” and “Germany” would both remain divided up into a number of independent states until the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century. Meanwhile, the expanding Ottoman Turkish empire included – at the start of this period - not only present day Turkey, but also mainland Greece, Bulgaria, Moldavia-Wallachia (Rumania), Albania, Serbia & Bosnia and, during the course of the sixteenth century, was to remain a constant threat to its often insufficiently prepared neighbors, expanding in various directions at the expense of both other Muslim rulers and also Christendom, crushing Hungary, in 1526, and knocking, not for the last time, at the gates of Vienna, in 1529.

While political alliances might shift and change, even within a matter of months, the main European conflict in the first half of the period – from the invasion of Italy by Charles VIII of France in 1494 to the peace of Cateau-Cambresis in 1559 – was between France and Spain and is known as the “Italian Wars”. From 1519 to 1556, as a result of a series of dynastic marriages, the Hapsburg Charles V was ruler of an Empire including Spain (with its ongoing conquests in the New World), the Burgundian Netherlands (= present day Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg and small parts of present day France and Germany), Naples & Sicily, Austria and, as “Holy Roman Emperor”, titular overlord of the various German states. To counter this heterogeneous, but significant, power base, the French king hired Swiss mercenaries, renowned for their ferocity on the battlefield, and formed a secret alliance of convenience with the Turkish Sultan. Lesser powers, such as the various Italian states, attempted to maintain their neutrality or formed alliances with whichever side currently best suited their own territorial interests. England, eager to regain French territory lost in the previous century, normally sided with the Hapsburgs, while Scotland remained loyal to its traditional alliance with France.

After the peace of Cateau-Cambresis, France was ripped apart by religious conflict between Catholics and protestant Huguenots, while Charles V's son, Philip II of Spain, had to contend with revolt in the Netherlands. These two conflicts - both involving protestant revolts against Catholic regimes - sometimes effectively blended into a single conflict, with Huguenot auxiliaries aiding the Dutch and vice versa. Also England, now ruled by Elizabeth I (1559-1603), despite a reluctance to engage in open war against Spain, often sent military and financial aid to the Huguenots and Dutch, eventually resulting in an exasperated Philip II sending the "*Invincible*" Armada against England in 1588. In fact, the Spanish sent several more armadas against England during the 1590s, but none of these managed to land an army on English soil.

## **The Italian Wars (1494-1559)**

While the French Valois kings and Spanish/Imperialist Hapsburg rulers had various lengthy frontiers - along the Pyrenees and also along the borders of western Germany and the Netherlands - the main focus of the conflict between these two rival powers centred on Italy. It was relatively easy for the French to launch expeditions over the Alps and into Lombardy since, until 1536, Savoy was an ally, and from 1536-1559 the French maintained control of Torino (Turin) and the central passes.

The invasion of Italy by the French king Charles VIII in 1494 was the initial campaign that sparked off the Italian Wars. The French objective was the southern kingdom of Naples and, with Savoy and Milan French allies and Venice neutral, it was fairly easy to brush aside the weak Florentine and Papal opposition and march south to Naples, driving Ferdinand II of Naples into Sicily and securing the kingdom without even needing to fight a major battle. However, French success was short-lived, since the swift collapse of Naples terrified the remaining Italian states, so that Venice abandoned her neutrality, Milan switched sides, and an Italian league was formed to oppose the French. In addition, the German Emperor Maximilian and the Spanish monarchs Isabella & Ferdinand were drawn into the anti-French alliance. With control of the sea lost and most of Italy now hostile, the French position in Naples was untenable and, after leaving a garrison, the main French army was obliged to conduct a fighting retreat back up the peninsula. On 6 July 1495, the Italian League forces decided to risk a major encounter with the retreating French army in the Taro valley at **Fornova**, where, due to a variety of factors, the League failed to commit a large portion of its more numerous army and suffered heavier casualties. Nevertheless, the battle proved inconclusive and the French were able to continue their retreat. Meanwhile, on 10 July, the small French garrison at Rapello, isolated since the destruction of the French navy, was overwhelmed by Milanese and Genoese forces and French-held Novara was placed under blockade. But, rather than attempt to lift the siege, the French king was eager to get safely back over the Alps and into France before winter set in, so left Novara to its fate. A negotiated peace was reached on 24 September but, far from crushing French aspirations in Italy, this campaign was to prove just the first of many.

While Charles VIII with the main French army was retreating towards Fornova, the French troops remaining in Neapolitan territory managed to defeat the combined Neapolitan & Spanish armies at **Seminara** on 28<sup>th</sup> June 1495. However, while command of the sea and central Italy remained in enemy control, this victory could only postpone the inevitable French loss of Naples. Despite losing at Seminara, the Spanish general Gonsalvo de Cordova the "Great Captain" - a master of entrenchments - continued the fight to drive the French out of Naples. His first notable success was to invest Monpensier's French army at Atella in July 1496 and, though the use of entrenchments and minor actions, to compel the starving enemy to surrender without needing to risk a general engagement. After further campaigning in the south of Italy, Gonsalvo fought a defensive battle at **Cerignola**, 21st April 1503 where, to counter the strong French cavalry and

Swiss pikemen, he deployed his troops on a hilly vineyard in trenches strengthened with abattis and with *ginetes* (Spanish light cavalry) deployed in front to conceal his position from the enemy. Arriving on the battlefield late in the afternoon, with only limited time to defeat the enemy before dusk, the French launched a series of direct frontal assaults on the Spanish position, unaware of just how strong it was. With the French general, Nemours, killed by an arquebus shot and the assaults on the entrenchments unsuccessful, the Spanish counter-attacked and drove the enemy from the field with heavy losses. The defeated French army fled to the fortress of Gaeta and joined forces with some 4000 Italian infantry under the Marquis of Saluzzo. Following the French to Gaeta, Gonsalvo besieged the town but was unable to take it by assault.

Meanwhile, a fresh French army, including approximately 8000 Swiss, was marching southwards. Now outnumbered more than two to one, Gonsalvo was obliged to break off the blockade of Gaeta and fell back to the **Garigliano** river. The French attempted to assault across the river on 6<sup>th</sup> November, but were driven back with heavy losses. With the bad weather getting worse, the two armies remained on opposite sides of the river. But while the Spaniards – inspired by their leader's example - endured the conditions, the French army was becoming increasingly mutinous. On receiving reinforcements under Alviano – the Orsini faction had switched sides – Gonsalvo decided on a risky enterprise - to cross the river and attack the French, despite the fact that he was still heavily outnumbered. Rapidly constructing a pontoon bridge at Sujo, the Spanish launched a surprise attack on 29<sup>th</sup> December 1503 and defeated the various French contingents piecemeal, driving them back to Formia and then all the way to Gaeta, which soon surrendered. This was to be Gonsalvo's final campaign – after spending four more years in Naples as Viceroy, he was recalled to Spain, where he died in 1515 at the age of seventy-two. After the disaster at Garigliano and surrender of Gaeta on 1<sup>st</sup> January 1504, the French were obliged to relinquish any further attempts to control Neapolitan territory. This was officially ratified in the Treaty of Lyons 25<sup>th</sup> February 1504, which gave control of all Neapolitan territory to Spain. While the battle of Garigliano confirmed Hapsburg control over southern Italy and Sicily, the north of Italy, in particular Milano and the fertile Lombardy plain, was to remain hotly disputed for decades.

While France and Spain were still fighting over Naples, the Borgia Pope Alexander VI had attempted to consolidate Papal control over the *Romagna* (corresponding to the south-eastern portion of modern Emilia-Romagna), with the assistance of his son Cesare Borgia. However, the death of Alexander in August 1503 prevented Cesare from achieving his ambitions, and the Venetian Republic seized the opportunity of extending her influence into the region, taking control of various towns, such as Faenza and Rimini. The next Pope, the short-lived Pius III, was quickly succeeded by Julius II, who was determined to recover the lost territory. Lacking sufficient strength to fight Venice on his own, Julius enlisted the help of the recently elected emperor Maximilian I of Habsburg in February 1508, but the Imperial forces suffered two defeats at the hands of the Venetian general Alviano, who then seized Fiume (= Rijeka in Croatia) and Trieste and obliged the Imperialists to sue for peace.

Undeterred by this setback, on 10 December 1508 Julius formed the *League of Cambrai* – including France, Spain and the Emperor Maximilian, as well as various minor Italian powers - against Venice. Louis XII, who had retained control of Milano, remained eager to extend French influence across northern Italy, so was quick to move into Venetian territory before any of the other League members had time to act. On 14 May 1509, the French decisively defeated the Venetian rearguard under Alviano at **Agnadello** when the main Venetian army under Pitigliano refused to march to his assistance. This victory allowed the French to occupy Venetian territory as far as Brescia, meanwhile other towns surrendered to Imperialist or Papal forces and, despite the successful Venetian defence of **Padua** in September against combined Imperialist-French besiegers. and further minor successes against Imperialist and Papal forces in November, the

Venetian senate found it necessary to make peace with the Papacy in February 1510 in the hope that this would result in the dissolution of the anti-Venetian alliance.

Having recovered the Romagna from Venice, Julius II was now concerned about the expansion of French power in northern Italy. He also was eager to seize control of the Duchy of Ferrara – a French ally - and incorporate this territory into the Papal States. So, with the French still at war with the Venetian Republic, Julius quickly formed an alliance with his former enemy, Venice. Then, when the French started to gain the upper hand, Julius proclaimed a “Holy League” against France, with Spain, the Emperor and Henry VIII of England signing up to the new alliance in the hopes of furthering their own interests. With the French, under Louis’ competent nephew, Gaston de Foix, besieging the Papal city of **Ravenna**, the Leaguer forces were forced to risk a decisive engagement to break the siege. Despite adopting a strong defensive position – a typical Spanish tactic that had proved successful at Cerignola and elsewhere – the Papal/Imperialist army was outnumbered and outgunned by the French and their Ferrara ally, and decisively defeated. The battle of Ravenna was also marked by the vainglorious but totally unnecessary death of the French commander in the hour of victory. Despite this defeat, Julius was able to undermine the French position in Italy by hiring an army of Swiss mercenaries to restore Maximilian Sforza to Milano, thus threatening the French line of supply and forcing the French army to withdraw back over the Alps. However, when the League members met to divide up the spoils, they quickly fell out, resulting in the Venetians switching sides and forming an alliance with the French on 23 March 1513.

Determined to recover Milano from the unpopular Sforza, in May 1513 a French army crossed the Alps and advanced on the city, while Alviano with an allied Venetian army marched westwards from Padua. Milano quickly fell to the French, who then besieged the Swiss in **Novara**. However, a Swiss relief force, accompanied by Sforza, launched a surprise attack on the French on 6 June and, despite being outnumbered, achieved a decisive victory, pursuing the defeated French back over the Alps and as far as Dijon before being bribed to go away. The French alliance suffered several further defeats in 1513, including at **Guingate**, or the “Battle of the Spurs” on 16 August, where the French cavalry, lacking infantry support, was quickly routed by an English army and at **Flodden** on 9 September, where the Scottish army, persuaded to invade England in support of their French ally, was crushed by a traditional English army of longbows and bills. Meanwhile, in Italy, the Venetians, deprived of French support, were driven back into the Veneto by the Spanish, but managed to hold onto Padua and frustrated Spanish attempts to capture Venice itself. On 7 October, the Venetians risked battle near Vicenza at **Scio**. This battle, in which the Venetians suffered a crushing defeat, is known by various names – La Motte, Scio, Vicenza or Creazzo.

However, the Holy League forces failed to take advantage of these victories in the following year (1514) and the strategic situation was altered by various political developments - Henry VIII made a separate peace with France, Pope Julius II died and was replaced by the less warlike Leo X, and Francis I succeeded Louis XII on 1 January 1515. Francis I was eager to assert his influence on northern Italy and so marched into Lombardy, via the difficult Col d’Argentiere pass to avoid the Swiss, to secure Milano. The French vanguard under La Palisse surprised and captured Colonna’s 700 Papal heavy cavalry in a skirmish at Villafranca and, in September, the French encountered a Swiss army at **Marignano**. Despite losing almost half their army when some 12,000 Swiss confederates were bribed to go home, the remaining Swiss, although outnumbered approximately 2:1, decided to attack the French. Not only did the French have numerical superiority, they also had a combined arms army – strong in cavalry and artillery – whereas the Swiss were primarily an army of pikemen, with only a few light guns and a small force of Milanese cavalry in support. Nevertheless, the Swiss launched attack after attack with ferocity, despite being charged by French gendarmes and blasted by artillery. It was only once the Venetian army started arriving in support of the French, having successfully avoided Cardona's Spanish army at Verona, that the Swiss

decided it was time to retreat. Having failed to extort payment for their services from Maximilian Sforza, Duke of Milano, the Swiss marched back to Switzerland, enabling the French to recapture the city in October. The first major defeat for the Swiss, Marignano dented their myth of invincibility and demonstrated that however formidable their pikemen, they could be defeated by a combined arms army. Nevertheless, despite this defeat, the Swiss pike tactic of launching headlong assaults persisted for some years. Strategically, Marignano effectively concluded this “Holy League” war, with a peace treaty between France and the new king of Spain, Charles V, being signed in August 1516. This treaty, effectively restored the pre-war status quo of 1508, with Milano back in French hands, and most of the rest of Lombardy (apart from Cremona) controlled by Venice. However, this peace would only last for four years, with war rekindled by the election of Charles V as Holy Roman Emperor following the death of his grandfather Maximilian I in 1519.

War resumed in 1521 with, once again France and Venice allied against the Spanish/Imperialists, England and the Papacy. Initially, operations centered on the Low Countries and the Pyrenees kingdom of Navarre, the bulk of which had recently been incorporated into Spain, rather than northern Italy. A French army under Flourance crossed the Meuse, but was driven back by Count Henry of Nassau, who then invaded northern France, sacking several towns and besieging Tournai. A direct confrontation between Francis I and Charles V almost occurred at Valenciennes in October, but the French king hesitated to attack and then heavy rains prevented an effective pursuit of the retreating Imperialists. Also in 1521, a French army under Lesparre (brother of another French general, Lautrec) had invaded Navarre, prompting a Navarrese revolt against Spanish rule; but despite liberating Pamplona, the heavily outnumbered Franco-Navarrese army was crushed at **Noain** on 30 June 1521. From January to May 1521, Charles V had been preoccupied with religious matters, holding the *Reichstag zu Worms* (the “Diet of Worms”) to deal with Martin Luther’s heresy and to try to prevent the various Imperial territories from fracturing politically on religious grounds. However, as the century progressed, religious conflict was to afflict not merely Germany, but the whole of Western Europe, plunging France into civil war and the Dutch into revolt from Spanish rule from the 1560s onwards.

In Italy, the French governor of Milano, Lautrec, had been outmanoeuvred by Colonna and driven out of the city. By January 1522, the French had also lost control of Pavia, Alessandria and Como. However the arrival of fresh Swiss mercenaries gave him the opportunity to counter-attack the Imperialists. Unable to pay the Swiss, Lautrec was obliged to attack the strong Imperialist position at **Bicocca**, just north of Milano, on 27 April 1522. The French nobleman Anne de Montmorency was placed in command of the Swiss contingent, but despite his orders to wait for the artillery to soften up the defenses, the Swiss launched a headlong assault, without waiting for the French and Venetian contingents, which remained in reserve. Blasted by artillery and arquebus fire, the Swiss were driven back with heavy losses, and Lautrec decided that it was pointless to continue the battle. After Bicocca, the Swiss would no longer display their customary audacity and prowess and, several years later at Pavia, would astonish observers by their lack of fighting spirit. Without the support of the remaining Swiss, who had gone home, the French position in northern Italy quickly collapsed. Genoa fell after a brief siege, Milano capitulated and the Venetians, under a new Doge, signed a peace treaty.

In addition to the immediate impact on the French strategic position in Lombardy, Lautrec’s defeat at Bicocca also led to England declaring war on France. By the *Treaty of Windsor* 16 June 1522, Henry VIII and Charles V agreed to launch a coordinated Anglo-Imperialist assault on France, with each ruler promising at least 40,000 men for the campaign. In July, English raids from Calais against Brittany and Picardy met with little resistance, since the French king was short of cash to raise an army. In desperation, Francis I used a lawsuit against a prominent nobleman, Charles de Bourbon, to raise funds, thereby alienating Bourbon, who consequently switched sides and entered

Imperial service. While Charles V invaded France across the Pyrenees, but failing to capture Bayonne, an English army under the Duke of Suffolk, invaded northern France in September 1523 and marched to within fifty miles of Paris. However, failing to secure adequate Imperialist support, Suffolk decided not to risk attacking the French capital and, with supplies scarce in winter, instead fell back to Calais in December. In 1524, a French attempt to regain Lombardy was stymied by Bonnivet's defeat at **Sesia** on 30 April, a battle in which the famous Bayard fell and arquebusiers proved their worth against French gendarmes. Then, in July, an Imperialist army crossed the Alps and invaded Provence and besieged Marseilles, although were driven off when a relief force under Francis I arrived and pursued them back over the Alps into Italy.

In October 1524, the strategic situation in northern Italy clearly favored the French, who outnumbered the available Imperialist forces two to one. The main French army (with Swiss and Italian elements) of some 24,000 men under Francis I was advancing from Torino (Turin) towards Milano, while the 9,000 strong French vanguard under La Palice was pursuing a slightly smaller Imperialist force to Alba. Meanwhile, Montmorency, with some 5,000 light cavalry and landsknechts was marching northwards to cut off their retreat. After a minor encounter at Binasco, the Imperialists reached Milano, but decided to abandon the city – the walls were in an inadequate state of repair, there were insufficient supplies for a siege, and the city was plague-ridden. Pursued by French cavalry as far as Marignano, the Imperialists fell back to Lodi. While the more experienced French leaders advised Francis to attack Pescara's numerically inferior army at Lodi before it could be reinforced, the king instead took Bonnivet's advice to besiege the Imperialist garrison at Pavia. With French attempts to take Pavia by assault unsuccessful, the siege continued into the new year. Meanwhile, in January 1525, the Imperialists at Lodi received some 15,000 landsknecht and 500 Austrian gendarme reinforcements, prompting Lannoy to go onto the offensive and attempt to break the siege. On 24 February 1525 the decisive battle of **Pavia** was fought. Considering a direct attack on the French position too risky, Lannoy decided to quietly break a hole in the park wall, and launch a dawn raid to capture the castello Mirabello, where it was believed the French king had his HQ. Meanwhile, at a pre-arranged signal, the garrison would make a sortie northwards in support. The advance guard, a force of arquebusiers under De Vasto, reached Mirabello undetected and stormed the castle at around 6.30am, only to find that the French king was elsewhere. Meanwhile, French and Imperialist cavalry skirmished in the dense early morning mist and the French also captured a dozen or more Imperialist guns. At about this time, the Pavia garrison sortied out of the north-east gate and caught Montmorency's Swiss contingent by surprise, cutting them off from the main French army. By 7am at the latest, the Imperialist landsknechts had entered the park and, with visibility still very poor, would soon be fighting a confused melee against Flourance's outnumbered Swiss. Further Imperialist forces under Pescara followed the landsknechts into the park and then advanced southwards towards Mirabello. Catching sight of the advancing enemy, the French artillery opened fire, and then Francis launched a cavalry charge and scattered the outnumbered Imperialist horse. But, despite this minor success, the overall situation was rapidly deteriorating for the French. Unable to penetrate the woods, and with the supporting French infantry routed, the gendarmes were soon surrounded and cut to pieces and the French king taken prisoner. Meanwhile, elsewhere on the battlefield, the outnumbered Swiss contingents under Flourance and Montmorency were overcome. Alencon's contingent, the only French force that remained uncommitted, when it became aware of just how hopeless the situation was, quickly retreated towards Milano.

The decisive French defeat at Pavia shocked Pope Clement VII into forming an anti-Imperialist alliance – the Papacy, Venice, France, the Sforza of Milano, and the Republic of Firenze (Florence) - in an attempt to drive the Hapsburgs out of Italy. This conflict, lasting from 1526-30, was known as *The War of the League of Cognac*. The League seized Lodi, but the arrival of an Imperialist army quickly drove Sforza from Milano. Then, in 1527, Rome was sacked, ending Papal involvement in the conflict. Although Francis managed to persuade Henry VIII to join the

League in April 1527, there was effectively no direct English involvement. French attempts to secure control of Genoa and Naples ended in failure and a French force under St Pol was defeated at **Landriano** in 1528. When France and Venice concluded peace treaties with the Imperialists, the Florentine Republic, reluctant to accept the return of the Medici to power, continued the fight alone. Firenze was placed under siege by an Imperialist army in October 1529 and held out until August 1530, surrendering after a Florentine army was crushed by a numerically superior Imperialist force on 3 August 1530 at **Gavinana**.

Although it was now clear that all of Italy was now firmly under Hapsburg hegemony, the French king continued to pursue hopes of securing influence south of the Alps. Further French incursions occurred during the 1530s, 1540s and, under a new king, Henri II, into the 1550s, until by the peace of Cateau-Cambresis, 3 April 1559, he was obliged to renounce any further territorial claims to Italy.

## **Anglo-Scottish Conflict in the 16<sup>th</sup> Century**

For centuries, hostility had existed between England and Scotland, sometimes leading to open war, with pitched battles such as Falkirk and Bannockburn, but most of the time consisting of low-level border warfare, with incessant cattle raids and minor plundering expeditions. The powerful Douglas and Percy families were able to raise small armies and effectively conduct private wars across the border – for instance on 23 October 1448, some 10,000 men fought at Sark - even if the two countries were still officially at peace.

In the 1490s, James IV had supported the English pretender, Perkin Warbeck, against Henry VII, launching several raids south of the border. However, in 1503, the marriage of James to Henry's daughter Margaret established a precarious peace between the two realms. But this dynastic alliance didn't deter James from invading England in support of France a decade later, although it did result – exactly a century later in 1603 – in their great-grandson, James VI, becoming king of England and finally uniting the two kingdoms under a single ruler.

When in 1513, Henry VIII invaded France as part of the anti-French “Holy League”, and with the hope of winning glory and recovering territory lost the previous century in the Hundred Years War, James IV seized the opportunity of launching a full scale invasion while Henry was absent and England “undefended”, despite the inauspicious fate of a large Scottish raiding party under the Earl of Home, which was ambushed at Milfield when returning northwards laden with plunder.

The two armies that fought at **Flodden** were largely equipped with their traditional arms – longbow & bill for the English and pikes for the Scots – although both sides fielded a few guns and a small number of troops with firearms. There was also a French contingent under the Count d'Aussi on the Scottish side, which had been attempting to train the Scots in the use of the long continental pike – the traditional Scottish pike was shorter. James' invading army crossed the river Tweed at Coldstream and, with his heavy siege guns, proceeded to capture the castles of Wark and Norham and then forced the surrender of Etal. In the meantime, the seventy-year-old English general Surrey, whom Henry VIII had appointed Lord Lieutenant of the North in his absence, was able to raise an army from the northern gentry and yeomanry and issued a challenge to the Scottish king “... *to gyve the sayde Kynge batayle by frydaye next at the furthest*”, which James accepted. However, while Surrey had hoped the Scots would remain on Milfield plain and fight the battle on a level playing field, he found that they'd withdrawn to higher ground – a strong defensive position on Flodden hill.

Rather than risk a direct assault, Surrey decided to outflank the enemy position; but, by the time the English had re-crossed the Till, the Scots had ample time to redeploy on Branxton hill. However, instead of waiting for the English to attack, the borderers and highlanders on the Scottish left flank impetuously descended the hill and attacked the English right flank then, observing the success of this attack, James ordered a general advance before the English left flank had moved into position. This should have resulted in a Scottish victory, if the victorious Scots on the left hadn't started looting and if the highlanders on the right, under Lennox and Argyll, had joined in the attack straightaway, instead of remaining on the hill. This allowed the English time to regroup and prevent their right wing from collapsing. In the subsequent fighting, it seems that the English bills proved more than a match for the Scottish pikes and this may have been due to a variety of factors – the Scots may well have been still inadequately accustomed to this longer continental style pike, also they were probably disordered during their advance due to the slippery ground and fire from the English guns and archers. On the other flank, the Scottish delay was crucial, allowing Stanley time to move up into position; it seems that the English archers made short work of the unarmored highlanders, permitting Stanley's wing to join in the fight against the Scottish centre and complete the victory.

After the death of James IV and much of the Scottish nobility at Flodden, Henry VIII attempted to force Scotland to abandon her traditional alliance with France. When the young Scottish king, James V, refused to be bullied into marrying Henry's daughter and instead took a French bride, Henry sent two invading forces into Scotland, one of which was defeated at **Haddon Rig** in August 1542, and the other burned Kelso and Roxburgh before running low on supplies and returning south. In retaliation, the Scots raised an army of 15-18,000 men and raided England. Although he only had some 3,000 men under his command, Sir Thomas Wharton, the Deputy Warden of the West March, decided to risk attacking the marauding Scots at **Solway Moss** on 24<sup>th</sup> November 1542. Effectively leaderless in the absence of James V – they were reluctant to accept the authority of Oliver Sinclair who claimed James had given him command – and more interested in plunder than fighting, the Scottish retreat quickly turned into a mass rout when they were deceived into thinking Wharton's small force was merely the advance guard of a much larger English army. Hundreds of Scots were taken prisoner and 24 guns captured. The English losses were reputedly just seven dead and one wounded!

English raids into southern Scotland continued in the years after Solway. In February 1545, an English raiding party led by Sir Ralph Evers encountered a smaller Scottish force under the Earl of Angus at **Ancrum Moor**. On this occasion, the bulk of the "English" army was comprised of 3,000 German & Spanish mercenary infantry, with the rest of the force some 1,500 border horse and 700 unreliable Scots. After launching a feint attack with a small body of Scottish cavalry to draw the English horse up the hill in pursuit, the main Scottish army suddenly appeared from the other side of the hill and drove them back in confusion into the continental infantry behind with the Scots in hot pursuit. The defeat of this minor raiding force, followed by the death of Henry VIII, gave the Scots a temporary respite from cross border incursions.

Unfortunately for Scotland, the death of Henry VIII didn't put a stop to English interference in Scottish affairs, since the Protector Somerset, ruling on behalf of his underage nephew Edward VI, was keen to arrange a marriage between Edward and the still infant Mary Queen of Scots. In September 1547, Somerset invaded Scotland with a 17,000 strong army, principally composed of traditional bows and bills, but supplemented by several hundred foreign mercenary arquebusiers. In addition, the cavalry – some 6,000 strong, or approximately a 1/3 of the entire army – and artillery were also far stronger arms than at Flodden. Finally, there was a fleet of thirty warships, which was to play an important role in the forthcoming battle at **Pinkie Cleugh**. The Scottish army, while perhaps some 10,000 men stronger than the English, was mostly pikemen, supported by some 3,000 highland bowmen and about 1,500 inferior border horse.

Aware that the weak Scottish artillery would be no match for the 80 English guns, the Scottish general Arran decided that it would be impractical to fight a defensive battle, and so ordered his army across the River Esk in the hope of defeating the English in close combat by weight of numbers. However, the highlanders on the Scottish left flank came under fire from the English ships and were effectively destroyed as a fighting force before they could reach the enemy line. Meanwhile, on the other flank, the weak Scottish cavalry, which had been badly cut up by the English cavalry in a skirmish the previous day, had little stomach for further action and so held back. However, the Scottish pikemen – who, even without the support of the highlanders and cavalry, still outnumbered the English army - having crossed the Esk, advanced towards the English position. To counter this threat, and to gain time for the English guns to be brought up, Somerset ordered a series of cavalry charges to halt the advancing Scots. Then, pounded at close range by the English guns, shot at by the archers and mercenary arquebusiers, and still under threat from cavalry, the helpless Scottish pikemen were shot to pieces until they broke and ran. Thus, by use of combined arms – naval, cavalry, gun, bow and shot – the English had utterly crushed a larger force comprised primarily of pikemen.

However, the decisive English victory at Pinkie failed to achieve Somerset's political objective. Despite securing and garrisoning a number of important Scottish castles and towns, he was unable to force the Scots to agree to his demands, and the infant queen Mary was safely conveyed to France and married to the dauphin, thus maintaining the "Auld Alliance" between Scotland and France. On the death of her husband, Mary returned to Scotland, married Darnley but was subsequently implicated in his murder and imprisoned by the Protestant Scottish lords. Escaping, she raised an army, but fell into a trap at **Langside**, near Glasgow, and was forced to flee to England, where she was imprisoned and eventually executed. On the death of the last Tudor monarch, Henry VIII's daughter Elizabeth, in 1603, the English throne would pass to Mary Queen of Scots' son (by her second marriage), James VI.

## **The Turkish threat**

The Ottoman Turks were undoubtedly the greatest threat to Europe in this period and, with the various Christian states too preoccupied with fighting each other to join forces against the eastern threat, it is perhaps largely due to sheer luck that the Turks failed to expand further into Western Europe. Italy, the favourite playground of French and Hapsburg territorial ambitions, was in particular danger from the Muslim threat – Otranto, in Apulia, had been captured and held by the Turks from 1480-81 and only the sudden death of Mahomet II on 3<sup>rd</sup> May 1481 had saved Italy from a full scale invasion. Nevertheless, the threat of an Ottoman naval invasion persisted well into the following century. In 1499, Sultan Bajazet II waged war against Venice, securing the remaining Venetian strongholds in Greece and also capturing a number of Adriatic coastal towns before agreeing to peace in 1503. Although Venice held onto Crete and recently-acquired Cyprus (until the island was seized by the Turks in 1571), Venetian naval power was on the decline, and the Ottomans went on to win further naval victories at Preveza 1538 and Djerba 1560, before finally being defeated by a combined Spanish-Venetian fleet at Lepanto in 1571.

Fortunately for the European states, the Ottoman danger was effectively postponed for decades. Sultan Bajazet II (1481-1512) was unwarlike and more interested in poetry and philosophy than in military conquest, while his successor, Selim I (1512-20), preferred to campaign in the east, defeating the firearm-scorning Shi'ite Safavid Persians (the Ottomans were Sunni Muslims) at **Chaldiran** in 1514 and destroying the Mamelukes in the battles of **Marj Dabiq** (1516) and **Raydaniyah** (1517). In these three battles, the Turks not only enjoyed numerical superiority but also made effective use of combined arms against largely cavalry-orientated opponents. These

victories extended the Ottoman Empire into Syria, Palestine and Egypt and significantly increased Turkish power.

On Selim's death in September 1520, he was succeeded by his son, Soliman (or Suleyman) soon to be given the epithet "the Magnificent". Turning Ottoman attention westwards again for the first time since 1481, Soliman systematically reduced the line of fortresses and fortified towns blocking invasion of Hungary from the south, culminating in the fall of Belgrade in August 1521. Despite the fact that the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia had been united since 1490, and should have been able to raise a relief force to fight the Turks, factional divisions in the fifteen-year-old King Louis' council of regents meant that no effective action was taken to prevent the loss of the fortresses. Hungary now lay wide open but, for various reasons, it would be five more years before Soliman was ready to press home the attack. In the meantime, his attention was focused on capturing **Rhodes**, the Knight Hospitaller stronghold that lay on the sea-route between Constantinople and Egypt. Rhodes had been besieged, unsuccessfully, by the Turks in 1480, and in 1522 Soliman made its capture his military priority. With no outside assistance forthcoming, the Hospitallers held out until December before capitulating on terms. Their new base would be **Malta**, where they'd successfully withstand an Ottoman siege in 1565.

After securing Rhodes, Soliman's campaign against Hungary was delayed, until 1526, by a revolt in Egypt and a Janissary mutiny. In the meantime, the faction-ridden Hungarians had failed to take advantage of this breathing space to strengthen their defenses or attempt to recapture any of the fortresses. The Sultan's army reached Belgrade on 9<sup>th</sup> July and Peterwardein on 12<sup>th</sup> July, where the only enemy troops facing them were around 3,000 levied horse and foot under Archbishop Tomori. Meanwhile, the Hungarian king was still at Buda with another 3,000 men waiting for reinforcements before marching to confront the Turks. Peterwardein fell after a brief siege of fifteen days and the Turkish advance continued. A pontoon bridge was constructed across the river Drave near Essek and the Turkish army permitted to cross unhindered whilst the Hungarians dithered at Mohacs, squabbling amongst themselves and waiting for a few more reinforcements to arrive. After burning Essek, the Turkish army, which probably outnumbered the enemy at least 2:1, took four days to march, in heavy rain, to **Mohacs**.

To counter the Hungarian cavalry, Soliman decided to deploy his army in depth, with his light cavalry in front to absorb the enemy's initial charge and his Janissaries and guns deployed behind to hold the line and, finally, his guard cavalry to counter-attack once the enemy were disrupted and fatigued. In addition, a force of Bosnian cavalry was placed about a mile away over on the left flank ready to attack the Hungarians in the flank once the battle got underway. The Hungarian army deployed, with the marshy Danube on the left, in a main front rank – of some 10,000 foot and 6,000 cavalry - and a double rear rank comprised of 3,000 foot and 6,000 horse. As anticipated, the Hungarian cavalry charge smashed through the Turkish irregular light horse, inflicting heavy losses, but then came up against the Janissaries and Turkish guns, which they failed to penetrate, since they were now disrupted. At this point the Bosnian horse charged into the flank of the Croatian contingent on the Hungarian right wing and forced them to fall back. Blasted by the Turkish guns at close range, the Hungarian centre also started to collapse, while the Hungarian left wing was also overwhelmed by superior numbers and driven back in disorder towards the marshes. Approximately half the Hungarian army was wiped out in the subsequent rout, including most of the infantry.

After the decisive victory at Mohacs, the Turks sacked and burned Buda, but instead of pressing on and securing further territory – there was no effective Christian force to prevent this – Soliman resolved to make Hungary a tributary state rather than annex it directly. With insurrections breaking out in Asia Minor, the Turkish army retreated southwards in late September. It was to be May 1529 before Soliman – now possessing a secret alliance with the French - was ready to

resume the Ottoman offensive against Western Europe, this time against Hapsburg **Vienna**. At war with France, the Emperor Charles V could spare few troops for the defense of the city, but his brother Ferdinand was nevertheless able to scrape together some 16,000 infantry and a few hundred cavalry. Protected mainly by its mediaeval walls in 1529, with only a few sections of modern Renaissance defenses designed to resist artillery, Vienna was nevertheless valiantly defended from late September to mid October, when lack of supplies and the approaching winter obliged the already hungry Turks to abandon the siege and begin a disastrous retreat, in which starvation and dreadful weather inflicted heavy losses on the demoralized Ottoman army. Nevertheless, by 1532, Soliman had amassed another army – larger and better organized than the unsuccessful 1529 expedition – for the conquest of Austria. However, this time Charles V was able to assemble a large army for the defense of Vienna and the Turks ended up being thwarted by the paltry fortress of **Guns**.

The failure of the 1532 expedition, resulted in Turkish attention focusing on the eastern frontier, where there was once again unrest. In the subsequent campaigns, despite some setbacks in the Kurdish and Armenian mountains, the Turks succeeded in capturing Tabriz and Bagdad (which they held until 1917) from the Persians. At this time, Ottoman power was also expanding rapidly across north Africa, with the assistance of the notorious Barbary pirate Khairaddin, better known as Barbarossa or “Redbeard”. For the rest of the century, conflict between the Turks and Christendom would be primarily naval. In 1534, Khairaddin seized Tunis for the Ottoman Empire, expelling the independent Sultan, Mulei-Hassan, who managed to recover the city the following year with Spanish assistance (although the Turks recaptured Tunis in 1574). After the success at Tunis, Charles V attempted to capture Turkish-held Algiers in 1541, but was forced to abandon the siege after a massive storm destroyed most of his supply vessels. The most famous siege was that of **Malta** in 1565, when the Hospitaller knights successfully withstood the might of the Ottoman Empire. Nevertheless, this setback didn’t put a stop to Turkish expansion for long, since they were able to capture Cyprus from Venetian control in 1571. There was to be one final major land battle between Turks and the Hapsburgs in Eastern Europe at the close of the century – the two day battle of Kerestes, near Erlau, which the Christians lost by plundering the Turkish camp and failing to take precautions against a counter-attack.

## **The French Wars of Religion**

After the conclusion of the Italian Wars with the treaty of Cateau-Cambresis, in April 1559, and the death of Henri II of France in a joust during the peace celebrations, Henri’s widow, now the queen mother and regent, Catherine de’ Medici, attempted to maintain a precarious balance of power on behalf of her sons. However, with her sons young, weak and incompetent, two rival factions – the Catholic Guise and the Protestant Huguenot Bourbons – would soon be at each other’s throats in a bitter power struggle. Beginning in 1562 and lasting until 1598, the French Wars of Religion were a series of conflicts, interspersed with short periods of uneasy “peace” - or rather temporary ceasefire - in which the Catholic faction was initially predominant, yet unable to completely crush the rival faction. Later, the Huguenots, under Henri de Navarre, won a series of victories that eventually enabled him – albeit on his conversion to Catholicism – to succeed to the throne and secure a compromise peace with the Edict of Nantes. Nevertheless, the Huguenots were to remain a persistent irritation to the government and Catholic majority during the following century until, in 1685, Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes, resulting in the emigration of many Huguenots.

When, by the edict of St Germain, Catherine permitted the Huguenots freedom to worship, publically outside of towns and privately in the towns, the Catholic Guise provoked open hostilities by massacring Huguenot worshippers at Wassy-sur-Blaise on 1<sup>st</sup> March 1562. The

Huguenots seized Orleans and Beaugency, while a Catholic triumvirate of Guise, Montmorency and Marshal St Andre gained control of the royal family and thus government policy. There followed a series of minor actions and atrocities across western and southern France, but the Huguenot leaders, Conde and Coligny, needed reinforcements - from Germany and/or England – before being in a position to face their opponents in open battle.

In early December 1562, the Huguenots were marching across Normandy to link up with an English expeditionary force at Le Havre; meanwhile, the aged Constable Montmorency, had shadowed the Huguenots undetected, despite their cavalry superiority, and had taken up a position to intercept their line of march between the Eure and Blaise rivers. The Catholic army at **Dreux** was perhaps almost 20,000 strong, including over 4000 Swiss, but with less than 3,000 cavalry. The Huguenots probably had less than 14,000 men, but their cavalry was more numerous – approximately 4000 strong - and of superior quality. Avoiding the barricades and guns of Catholic right flank resting on the village of Epinay, the Huguenot cavalry charged and routed the enemy cavalry and infantry on their left and captured Blainville. They then lost any remaining discipline and started plundering. Meanwhile, on the Huguenot left, Conde came up against the Swiss, who refused to break when attacked first by Huguenot cavalry and then landsknechts. Once the Swiss had absorbed the impetus of the Huguenot onslaught, the uncommitted Catholic right flank under Guise and St Andre, counter-attacked and quickly broke the raw Huguenot infantry. Although Coligny managed to regroup several hundred of the Huguenot cavalry from the right wing and launch another successful charge against the Catholic cavalry in the centre – in which St Andre was captured – it was now clear that the battle was effectively lost, so the remaining Huguenot cavalry withdrew unmolested to Neuville, leaving the Catholic infantry in control of the battlefield.

After the assassination of Guise in February 1563, Catherine de' Medici managed to mediate a truce with the unsatisfactory Edict of Ambroise. Consequently, it was only a matter of time before hostilities would erupt again. After four years of uneasy “peace”, the Huguenot leaders Conde and Coligny made an unsuccessful attempt to kidnap the royal family while, as part of the same plot, Huguenot forces seized control of Orleans and a number of other towns. Having pursued the royal family to Paris, Conde set up camp outside the walls at St Denis and waited for reinforcements. Meanwhile, expecting the Catholics bottled up in Paris to remain on the defensive, the Huguenots detached forces under Dandelot and Montgomery to encircle the city and secure nearby Pontoise. However, perceiving that the enemy had dispersed their forces, the aged Catholic leader Montmorency led his troops, accompanied by a large number of enthusiastic but inexperienced Parisian citizens, against the small Huguenot force remaining at **St Denis** on 10 November 1567. Although badly outnumbered, the extremely rash Huguenot commander Conde decided to stand and fight. On both flanks, Huguenot arquebusiers in trenches fired at close range at the Catholic cavalry attempting to outflank the Huguenot main position, throwing them back against their infantry in disorder. Then the Huguenot cavalry in the centre charged Montmorency's gendarmes, routing them and mortally wounding the Catholic general at the head of his troops. After a fierce cavalry melee, the outnumbered Huguenots were forced to retreat to avoid being surrounded. They rallied on their pike blocks in front of St Denis and with dusk falling and the Catholics now leaderless and disorganized, the battle ended without further fighting.

A brief six months of uneasy truce from March to September 1568 was followed by a fresh round of hostilities. From henceforth the religious civil war in France was to be linked to the Dutch revolt from Spanish, with Huguenot forces sometimes participating in the Netherlands and German mercenaries and English money fuelling both conflicts on behalf of the Protestant cause. In March 1569, the Catholic general Tavannes went onto the offensive with the intention of splitting the Huguenot forces and dealing with them piecemeal. Tavannes repaired a broken bridge at Chateaufort and, having deceived the enemy as to his intentions, crossed the river Charente

after dark and caught Coligny's Huguenots by surprise in the battle known as **Jarnac**. Sending a desperate message to Conde at Cognac to march to his assistance, Coligny formed up his troops along the Guirlande rivulet at right angles to the Charente in the hope of holding up the Catholic advance until Conde could arrive with reinforcements. Enjoying numerical superiority, the Catholics pressed forward with their attack, crossing the Guirlande and assaulting Coligny's position and forcing them back with weight of numbers. Conde arrived with his cavalry and fought furiously, routing the Catholic vanguard, but he was outflanked by the cavalry on the Catholic right wing, captured and subsequently shot. Coligny was forced to retreat with the remains of the Huguenot army, linking up with those troops that were too late to participate in the battle. He was not hotly pursued by the victorious Catholics, who may have lacked sufficient fresh cavalry for the purpose.

The Huguenot defeat at Jarnac had not be decisive and, until the siege train could arrive from Paris, the Catholics were only able to capture a handful of minor Huguenot strongholds. Meanwhile, the cautious Coligny reorganized his troops and awaited the arrival of a large force of reinforcements from Germany which, having avoided the Catholic army, linked up with Coligny at Chaluz on 10 June. Rather than seizing the initiative against the now rather demoralized Catholics, the Huguenots wasted time in besieging Poitiers without adequate siege artillery. Then, in early September, the Catholic general Tavannes felt the time was right to resume the offensive by moving against the Huguenot supply base at Chatelherault and forcing the enemy to abandon the siege of Poitiers. The two armies now conducted a series of manoeuvres, attempting to catch the enemy at a disadvantage and each side reluctant to fight a formal pitched battle on equal terms. Finally, due to a pay dispute with his German mercenaries which delayed a march, Coligny found himself facing the Catholic army at **Moncontour** on 3 October 1569. As at Dreux, both armies were divided into two corps, rather than the traditional three. Also both armies deployed in several lines, rather than a single battle line. Assuming command on the Huguenot left wing himself, Coligny entrusted the right wing to Louis of Nassau. A force of Huguenot arquebusiers – "*enfants perdus*" - were placed in a forward position to garrison a grange, or large farm and some guns were deployed on the Huguenot left flank at the village of Douson. After a lengthy delay, Tavannes decided to attack, ordering the right flank under Montpensier forward, clearing the Huguenot arquebusiers from the grange and driving back the Huguenot first line. Then the Huguenot second and third lines charged and Coligny wounded. Meanwhile, the fighting spread along the entire line, with the Catholic cavalry getting the worst until the Swiss foot in the Catholic centre moved forward and secured victory. Apart from the decisive contribution of the Swiss, Moncontour was essentially a cavalry battle, although about half the Huguenot infantry were massacred in the subsequent retreat. This decisive Catholic victory should really have ended the conflict, but political intrigue and religious fanaticism would result in continued unrest until the Huguenots, now under a new leader, Henri de Navarre, were able to resume open hostilities.

Despite the defeats at Jarnac and Moncontour, the Huguenots managed to secure a favorable settlement the following year (1570) at the Peace of Saint-Germain, securing limited rights of worship and four "security" towns – La Rochelle, Montauban, La Charite and Cognac – for a two year period. This was probably mainly due to the influence of Coligny on the young king, Charles IX, who was eager to free himself from his mother's tutelage and reduce the power of the Catholic Guise faction. Meanwhile, the Queen mother, Catherine de' Medici, arranged a marriage between her daughter Marguerite and the young Henri de Navarre, presumably with the intention of securing a lasting peace between the rival factions. However, the Guise faction and staunch Catholics – including the Parisians – were determined to undermine the peace and so engineered the St Bartholomew's Day Massacre, which started in Paris on 24 August 1572 and then subsequently spread to other towns over the next few months. It was clearly an attempt to resolve the Huguenot "problem" once and for all. The Admiral Coligny and many other Huguenot leaders were killed and many Huguenots were forced to convert (including Henri de Navarre himself) or

leave the country, but the faction survived and Huguenot plots and uprisings continued, with much of southern France and a large area around La Rochelle (which the king's brother Anjou unsuccessfully besieged from 1572-3) remaining solidly committed to the Huguenot cause.

The last, and finally decisive, phase of the French Religious Wars (the eighth war) was ignited by the Treaty of Nemours of 18 July 1585, which banned Protestant worship completely. Instead of converting or emigrating, the Huguenots flew to arms and once again sought military assistance from the Protestant German states. A Catholic army under the royal favorite Joyeuse was sent into the south of France – the Huguenot heartland – with orders to join forces with another Catholic force from Bordeaux and to cut communications between the western and southern Huguenot strongholds. Meanwhile, Henri de Navarre was planning to link up with the Protestant reinforcements expected from Germany. Cavalry detachments from the two armies encountered each other at **Coutras** at dusk on 19 October, but Navarre's main force was nearby, giving him the opportunity to choose his ground before the Catholic army arrived. The Huguenots deployed in a defensive position with the village of Coutras and a river on one flank and a wooded "warren" on the other, but it was also a dangerous position because they had their back to the river and, if defeated, it would be difficult to retreat. Navarre also sent 200 light cavalry further up the road to observe enemy movements, thus alerting him to Joyeuse's nocturnal march, which had hoped to catch the Huguenots by surprise. The battle commenced at 9am, with the Huguenot battery of artillery, placed on a small mound on the left flank, inflicting some losses on the Catholic cavalry and infantry and provoking them into launching an attack. The Catholic cavalry under Layardin and Montigny managed to rout Tremouille's and Turenne's forces, but the Huguenot heavy pistoliers quickly crushed Joyeuse's inexperienced gendarmes and captured and shot Joyeuse himself. Then the victorious Huguenot cavalry swung round and attacked the regiment of Picardie in the flank, as it attempted to assault the warren. This effectively secured victory for the Huguenots, but Henri de Navarre failed to exploit this success and, after a disagreement with the other Huguenot leaders, actually allowed the army to break up and went off to Bearn to visit his mistress instead of marching to link up with his German allies as originally planned! As a result, the Catholics were able to raise a force to harass and drive off the German army before it could link up with Henri's Huguenots.

The assassination of Henri III on 2<sup>nd</sup> August 1589 resulted in many of Henri de Navarre's former Catholic opponents, including Montpensier, commander of the Catholic avant garde at Moncontour, and Marshal Biron, recognizing him as king of France. Nevertheless, the Catholic League, enjoying continued Spanish support, remained a powerful force. Expecting assistance from England's Queen Elizabeth, Navarre decided to secure Rouen, rather than retire to the Huguenot stronghold in the south of France and thus lose support in the north, which would be vital to his chances of securing his position as King of France. Meanwhile, Mayenne, Guise's brother and the new head of the Catholic faction, was able to assemble a much larger army than Henri's and followed him to Dieppe. Heavily outnumbered, Navarre's small army, assumed a strong defensive position south of Dieppe at **Arques** on 21<sup>st</sup> September 1589. With a marshy river on the right flank and a thick wood on the left, there was only a narrow defile left, which Navarre had sufficient time to fortify with a double line of entrenchments before the Catholic League army arrived. However, the first line of defense was outflanked and negated when the Catholic landsknechts tricked their enemy into believing that they'd change sides. But there was still the second line and meanwhile Navarre's troops counter-attacked ferociously before the Catholics could exploit their initial success or take advantage of their numerical superiority. The early morning mist prevented the guns in Arques castle from participating in the battle until it was almost over, although they did make a useful contribution at a critical moment when Navarre's exhausted men were about to be assaulted by fresh Catholic troops. The casualties inflicted on either side at Arques were light, but Mayenne's superior force had been repulsed and, rather than attempt to force the defile a second time, made a long twenty mile detour and approached Dieppe

from the other side on 26 September. Meanwhile, Navarre remained at Dieppe until he had received his expected money (£22,000 in gold) and reinforcements – five English regiments and a Scottish regiment. Having failed to take Arques castle by assault, and with a fresh enemy force threatening his lines of communication with Paris, Mayenne fell back to Amiens and linked up with some reinforcements arriving from Parma's army in Flanders.

With Mayenne at Amiens, on 19 October Henri de Navarre decided on a rash plan of action – a dash for Paris – hoping to reach the capital before the enemy, despite the fact that Mayenne was actually closer to Paris! Although Navarre managed to reach Paris first, his troops were repelled by the fanatically Catholic Parisian militia and he was forced to withdraw by the prompt arrival of Mayenne's army. During the winter of 1589-90, Navarre secured most of Normandy by a series of sieges and in March 1590 was besieging Dreux when Mayenne decided to march against him and bring him to battle. Having crossed the river Eure unopposed, Mayenne's army encountered Navarre's smaller force on an open plain between Nonancourt and **Ivry** on 14th March 1590. This would prove the decisive battle. Navarre drew up his army in a line, with his cavalry interspersed with infantry regiments and with only a small force held in reserve behind the centre. Mayenne's army was also deployed with the cavalry and infantry intermingled and without a significant force held in reserve. The battle opened with the usual short artillery duel, in which the Leaguer guns proved far less effective, before the cavalry charged each other. The Leaguer light cavalry on the right flank were quickly broken by an inferior force, Nemour's troops held against Montpensier, and Egmont's cavalry smashed through Augouleme's force in the centre, but were then charged in the flank by Biron's 300 pistoliers and routed. The Catholic reiters in the centre, disordered by de Guiche's guns, were then driven back into the path of Mayenne's advancing lancers by a volley of arquebus fire. The lancers, having lost their impetus, were then charged by Huguenot cavalry and driven back. By now all the Leaguer cavalry had been routed, leaving their infantry unsupported, or sweeping them away in the rout. The Leaguer Swiss held their ground, but surrendered once it was clear that the battle was lost.

## **The Dutch revolt from Spanish rule**

In 1568 the heavily taxed, and increasingly Protestant, Netherlands rose in revolt against Spanish rule. The conflict, which at times overlapped with the *French Wars of Religion*, was to last for eighty years until 1648 (with a twelve year truce from 1609-21), but actual battles were few and often years apart and those that did occur tended to be small scale actions involving a few thousand men, rather than decisive full scale battles between tens of thousands. Instead, this was largely a war of sieges and manoeuvre, with either one side or the other often reluctant or unable to risk open battle.

The opening campaign of the war commenced in the spring of 1568, when William of Orange and his brothers raised various forces of German mercenaries and French Huguenots with the intention of inciting a general Dutch revolt against the unpopular Spanish. William's own force quickly disintegrated when he ran out of money, but his brothers Louis and Adolf lured a smaller Spanish force into an ambush at **Heiligerlee** on 23 May 1568. Despite this victory, Louis failed to capture Groningen and, with the other rebel forces crushed in Artois and Guelders, Louis fell back to a defensive position at **Jemmingen** when a Spanish army under Alva forced him to abandon the siege of Groningen. Judging the Dutch position too strong to take by direct assault, the experienced general Alva decided to use a small force to trick them out of their defences, while the main Spanish army remained concealed nearby and ready to strike at the unsuspecting enemy. The ruse succeeded brilliantly and the Dutch panicked and routed away, resulting in an easy victory for Alva. His brother's crushing defeat at Jemmingen on 21 July failed to deter William of Orange from raising a formidable army of around 30,000 men, almost a third cavalry, and marching

against Alva in October. However, Alva carefully avoided a general action against the larger Dutch army, preferring to wait for a suitable opportunity arose to deal with just part of the enemy army in isolation, which occurred when the Dutch were crossing the river Gheet, near **Jodoigne** on 20 October, when Alva seized his chance and crushed the enemy rearguard. Shortly after this setback for the Dutch, bad weather set in and his German mercenaries started deserting in droves, obliging him to abandon the campaign.

Alva's harsh administration of the Netherlands in the following years, with his fanatical persecution of heretics and heavy financial exactions, resulted in a fresh rebellion against Spanish rule in 1572, with a series of popular risings. During 1572-3, the Spanish besieged and recaptured many of the rebellious Dutch towns, including Haarlem, which was besieged from December 1572 to July 1573, when it was finally starved into submission and some 2,300 prisoners massacred in cold blood. However, Alkmaar and a number of other towns continued to hold out. At this point Alva requested a termination of his viceroyalty and he returned to Spain and subsequently commanded the Spanish army that conquered Portugal in 1580.

In 1574, the Dutch leaders raised fresh forces of German mercenaries to march to the relief of Leyden. Louis of Nassau gathered 2000 reiters and 6000 foot and marched along the Meuse with the intention of linking forces with his brother William of Orange, who had assembled an army at Bommel, before attempting to relieve Leyden. However, the Spanish were determined to prevent the enemy from combining his forces, and a force of some 4000 infantry but probably less than 1000 cavalry under Sancho de Avila was sent to block Louis' advance at **Mookerheyde** on 14 April 1574. The Dutch, enjoying numerical superiority, strengthened their left flank with trenches next to the river, and planned to smash the enemy left flank with their much stronger cavalry force, and then roll up the entire line. However, the outnumbered Spanish lancers were able to charge and scatter the inferior quality German reiters whilst disordered and reloading their pistols after driving back the Spanish mounted arquebusiers. The rout of the reiters determined the outcome of the battle, since the Dutch infantry were now outflanked, fell back in disorder and then joined the rout. Nevertheless, despite this disastrous defeat of his brother Louis, William of Orange was still able to relieve Leyden by the desperate measure of cutting the dykes and flooding all the surrounding countryside.

There were important political developments in the Low Countries after the disastrous Dutch defeat at Mookerheyde in 1574, with the Catholic southern provinces now joining the anti-Spanish revolt alongside the Protestant northern provinces. The former leader of the revolt, William of Orange, a Protestant extremist, was now replaced by a less partisan general, the Sieur de Goignies, an old veteran of the Italian Wars, but not a particularly competent or inspiring leader. The States General (ie. Dutch) army raised to fight the Spanish was approximately 20,000 strong, and consisted of not only Dutch, but also German, French, English and Scottish troops, was deployed in a good position covering the Brussels road in preparation for the anticipated Spanish attack. However, on learning that the Spanish force at Namur under Don John of Austria had received reinforcements, the over-cautious de Goignies decided to retreat back up the Brussels road to a better defensive position. But this gave the advancing Spanish cavalry an excellent opportunity to catch the Dutch on the march and cut them to pieces at **Gemblours** on 31 January 1578.

Despite the decisive victory at Gemblours, King Philip of Spain's decision to divert military resources from the Netherlands into France to assist the Catholic faction there, weakened the Spanish position in the Low Countries and allowed the rebels to capture a number of key towns and fortresses. In January 1597, the Dutch general Maurice of Nassau decided to launch a surprise attack on an isolated Spanish force at **Tournhout** under Varas. Learning of this impending attack and imagining the enemy to be stronger than they actually were, Varas decided to evacuate Tournhout and make a hasty nocturnal march towards the walled town of Herenthals, some eleven

miles south. However, Spanish progress was slow, and the Dutch cavalry caught up with them on the march. Although the main body of Dutch infantry was still some distance off, and so unlikely to arrive in time to participate in the action, Maurice of Nassau decided to launch an attack with his cavalry - only some 800 strong - assisted by 300 English arquebusiers, against approximately 5,000 retreating Spaniards. Despite their numerical superiority, the Spanish were strung out along the road and demoralized, so the Dutch were able to deal with them piecemeal.

The Peace of Vervin in 1598 ended Spanish intervention in France and consequently thwarted Dutch hopes of securing further gains to the south. However, in 1600, the Dutch already in control of most of the coastline, determined to capture Nieuwpoort and Dunkirk, the two remaining ports by which the enemy could communicate with Spain. Nevertheless, with much of the inland area still firmly in Spanish control, including Brussels and Namur, this was a flawed strategy. Maurice of Nassau, recognized this, but the Dutch States General were determined to undertake the enterprise, especially since many of the Spanish troops were currently in a mutinous state due to months of outstanding pay. After some preliminary operations clearing minor Spanish garrisons in the vicinity of Ostend, the Dutch army laid siege to **Nieuwpoort**, anticipating that the Spanish would be unable to raise a field army to march to its relief. However, the Spanish mutineers were persuaded to fight and the Spanish general, Archduke Albert was able to scrape together sufficient forces to confront the enemy, marching quickly to seize Leffinghem bridge and thus cut the Dutch lines of communication. Discovering that the Spanish were approaching, Maurice dispatched a force to secure the bridge, but it arrived too late and was cut to pieces. With this key bridge in enemy hands, the Dutch army would now have to face the Spanish in open battle. The two armies, both of which deployed in multiple lines, were approximately equal in strength, but the Dutch also had naval support which, by firing into the flank of the Spanish army, obliged it to redeploy further inland. After hours of fierce fighting, in which now one side and now the other gained a localized advantage, the Dutch cavalry on the beach launched one last charge that finally broke the Spanish line and caused a general rout of the now exhausted troops. Nevertheless, this Dutch victory failed to achieve any strategic benefits and, by the following year, Archduke Albert was able to lay siege to Ostend. By this point in the war, after decades of conflict, it was clear that Spain was unable to subdue Holland and the Dutch were unable to conquer Catholic Belgium, so a truce was concluded in 1607 and ratified in 1609, although the conflict was to resume in 1621, merging with the wider Thirty Years War, and then drag on until 1648.

## Game Specifics

While based on the HPS Napoleonic engine, there are various additional elements that will distinguish this new series. The most important of these is a new style of OOB, with movement rates, melee factors & victory point values all modifiable on a unit by unit basis. Other new features include dragoon-type cavalry, gun capture, artillery that requires “set up” before being able to fire, and a modified square formation called “block” which is capable of offensive melee. The block formation is also capable of pushing back cavalry in a “melee” that doesn’t inflict losses on either side.

There are a variety of different armies in *Renaissance* – **Side A** includes France (and French Catholics in the *French Wars of Religion*), Scotland, Dutch, Ottoman Turks, and also Swiss and Italians. **Side B** includes Spanish/Imperialists, England, French Huguenots, Mamelukes and also the option of Swiss and Italians. In fact, there are many different armies covered in this title, some of which tend to switch sides, occasionally even mid-campaign.

While most scenarios use a standard pdt with similar settings to the Napoleonic series, there is also an *alternative* pdt which is used for a selection of variant scenarios. The *alternative* pdt has some

enhanced fire factors, notably for firearms, since formations were deep and the tendency was to fire at almost point-blank range at this period. It also imposes no movement penalty for disrupted troops, for a variety of reasons, in particular the fact that disrupted units seem already sufficiently penalized in combat. Also, as has been observed in other titles, a significant result of reduced movement is to make it harder for disrupted than routed units to retreat. Consequently, the alternative pdt will provide quite a difference gaming experience from the standard pdt and will appeal more to gamers who prefer firepower over melee.

## Troop Types

### Cavalry

There are various types of cavalry in *Renaissance*, some are heavily armoured and intended for shock combat, while others are lighter and more useful for scouting, raiding and skirmishing rather than meeleing.

**Gendarmes** – heavy, armoured chivalry cavalry armed with lance – excellent shock melee troops. The French invariably have the best quality gendarmes. Other armies, in particular Spanish, English and Scottish, tend to have few, if any, proper heavy cavalry.

**Demilancers/ Caballeros** – a less heavily armoured and more mobile, yet less effective, lancer type cavalry. Most English and Spanish “heavy” cavalry will fall into this category rather than the above.

**“Archers”** – less well-armed cavalry armed with lance and crossbow – intended to charge in support of the gendarmes, these troops can also shoot from a distance. Inferior to gendarmes in a melee and rather too slow and heavy to skirmish effectively, these double-armed troops are perhaps second best in both departments, although still pretty effective against most troops in melee.

**Reiters/Pistoliers** – cuirassier cavalry armed with pistols, appearing from the 1540s onwards and gradually, but never completely, replacing the heavier lancers as the standard heavy cavalry. In the later 16<sup>th</sup> century, most, if not all, Dutch and Huguenot heavy cavalry are this type, while Spanish and French Catholic forces also retain the lance. Some pistoliers are lighter cavalry without the cuirass.

**Stradiots/Ginetes/Coustilliers** – light, often irregular, cavalry armed with javelins & shield, good for skirmishing or scouting. Like any cavalry, can ride down infantry skirmishers caught in the open and effective at hunting down routers, but are no match for heavier opponents in a melee. However, their mobility can make them highly effective troops if handled well.

**Zagadari** – Italian, especially Venetian, cavalry armed with lance and sometimes also crossbow. Apparently a heavier version of the more common Stradiots, these cavalry are effectively the equivalent of the French “archers”.

**“Prickers” & Border Horse** – light cavalry armed with lance and often also crossbow or firearm. Used primarily as scouts or skirmishers, or for riding down unprotected skirmishers, these troops might also fight dismounted under certain circumstances.

**Argoulets/ Escopeteros** – these dragoon-type “cavalry”, armed with crossbows or later arquebus, are often really just mounted infantry. Their mobility will make them useful troops, but they should not be used as mounted shock troops.

## Infantry

*Renaissance* infantry falls into two basic types: melee and fire. Most, but not all melee infantry are pikemen, while in the early 16<sup>th</sup> century there are still a range of traditional missile weapons, such as the crossbow and longbow alongside the newer firearms. Only in the later 17<sup>th</sup> century will the invention of the bayonet effectively turn every infantryman into both a pikeman and a musketeer.

**Pike** – Pikemen, especially fanatical Swiss, are highly effective melee infantry. They move slower than other foot due to their lengthy weapon and armour. Swiss pikemen tend to be lighter and so are a bit more mobile. When deployed in **block** formation (the equivalent of Napoleonic square, but with the ability to melee attack), pikemen can hold even the heaviest cavalry at bay. But, lacking firepower, they are best used in combination with missile-armed infantry.

**Halberd / Bill** – The halberd, and also the English bill, was a heavy pole-arm originally derived from agricultural or hedging implements. There were various types of halberd, such as gisarme, fouchard, bardiche, glaive and corseque, often varying in shape and style from region to region, although all were variations on the combination of spear & axe. Most of these halberd family of weapons would have both a point for stabbing and a heavy blade for chopping, while some also have hammers for crushing or spikes or hooks for dragging cavalry from their saddles. By the early 16<sup>th</sup> century, most armies - apart from the English - had fewer halberdiers than pikemen and, as the century progressed, these became increasingly associated with guardsmen and sergeants rather than the ordinary rank and file.

**Sword & buckler** – The Spanish alternative to halberdiers as a means of exploiting the gaps in a disordered pike block, sword & buckler men could also be found in relatively small numbers in some Italian armies and also among the Scottish highlanders. Swordsmen may have been more effective than halberdiers against disordered pikemen, but they were also far more vulnerable to cavalry.

**Crossbow** – Almost as slow to load as an arquebus, the crossbow was arguably more accurate and may have had a longer effective range. However, it was less effective against armoured targets. Nevertheless, the main reason for the abandonment of the crossbow, may have been less a matter of relative battlefield effectiveness as the fact that the crossbow was, technically, a far more complex weapon requiring a number of carefully hand-crafted parts, and thus more expensive to produce than a firearm, which was basically just a metal tube mounted on a wooden stock.

**Arquebus** – The 16<sup>th</sup> century arquebus is in fact closer in calibre and weight to the 18<sup>th</sup> century musket than the heavier 16<sup>th</sup> century musket, which required a forked rest. Slow loading and inaccurate compared with the English longbow, the arquebus was more effective against armoured targets, as only the very best armour was reputedly “arquebus-proof”.

**Musket** – Appearing from about the 1540s onwards, the 16<sup>th</sup> century musket was heavier and more cumbersome than the arquebus, but with a longer range and greater velocity. Requiring a forked rest to fire, this is a significantly heavier weapon than the 18<sup>th</sup> century musket, which could afford to become lighter once armour was abandoned.

**Tercio** – A more abstract “combined arms” unit, which includes both pikes and shot elements, as well as a small group of halberdiers. Moving at the pace of the slowest element, it effectively

functions as a pike unit with limited firepower. The arquebusiers and halberdiers within the unit are unable to detach.

**Longbow** – English / Scottish armies only. Fast firing, and able to employ *indirect fire*, the longbow was particularly effective against horses and unarmoured infantry. However, it was significantly less effective than firearms against armoured targets. Also archers were liable to have ammo problems, partly due to their much greater rate of fire, but also because arrows are a lot bulkier than bullets & powder. Consequently, English and Scottish armies, neither of which had many units equipped with firearms, have a significantly higher ammo loss probability.

**Shortbow** – Irish Kern, rebels, militia, etc, - a less effective weapon than the longbow, with a shorter range. But it is still a useful weapon against unarmoured targets.

**Rifle** – Rifling is said to have originated in Augsburg around 1498. Some arquebuses and muskets were certainly rifled, but there is no clear evidence of entire units being armed with rifled firearms before c.1600.

**Non-Combatants** – Camp followers and other non-combatants are invariably present in Renaissance armies. In some cases they're fanatical and take an active part in the battle, although most of the time it's best to keep them safely in the rear, along with the baggage train, since they're liable to rout at the first shot and are quite likely to take other troops with them. They are usually armed with "javelins", which may represent a variety of other improvised missiles.

## Artillery

*Renaissance* artillery ranges in calibre from heavy siege guns down to ultra light pieces of barely greater calibre than the heavy fork-rest musket. The heavier guns are very slow moving, require "set up" before being able to fire, and are generally incapable of defensive fire.

### A Cannon

A heavy siege gun, this was a slow-loading, virtually immobile gun designed more for battering down walls than for effective use on the battlefield. In some scenarios, notably those involving oriental forces, they're only permitted to fire a single time due to their very slow reload rate.

### C Culverin

Ranging from about an 18pdr upwards, the culverin had limited mobility and would have been more useful in sieges. However, at this period, it was not uncommon to find culverins deployed on the battlefield.

### D Demi-Culverin

Approximately a 15pdr gun, the demi-culverin could be used in both sieges and on the battlefield, although perhaps too light to be really effective in the former and too heavy to have much mobility on the battlefield once a battle got under way.

### B Saker

A 6-8pdr gun – there was no real standardization of calibre at this period – the *saker* was intended for use on the battlefield. Despite having a smaller crew, often only one of whom was properly trained, this smoothbore muzzle-loading gun was little different in 1500 from those of two or three hundred years later.

## **E Falcon**

This light 3-4pdr gun was less effective and had a shorter range than the *saker*. With a well-trained crew and sufficient horses, this might have enjoyed the same mobility and effectiveness of Napoleonic era horse artillery, however, in the Renaissance period it is still normally classified as ordinary foot artillery.

## **F Falconette**

The 1-2pdr *falconette* is the lightest type of gun, but it's also the least effective. This gun type is so light that it's been counted as "horse" artillery, so it can turn and fire or unlimber and fire in the same turn.

## **G Organ Guns**

With five or more small barrels mounted on a single gun carriage, the organ gun was a short ranged infantry support gun intended to help break up a cavalry charge or disrupt the attack of an enemy pike block. It's the Renaissance equivalent of a *mitrailleuse* or machine gun.

## **Tactical Guide**

### **Cavalry**

Heavy cavalry (Gendarmes, Reiters, etc) - highly effective against any troops, except pike/halberd in block formation. However, worth lots of VPs, so try to avoid getting shot at by small arms or artillery!

Light cavalry (Demilancers, Zagadari, Pistoliers, etc) - Less effective than heavy cavalry, but more mobile and worth less VPs. Should have little trouble dealing with non-melee infantry.

Irregular cavalry (Stradiots, etc) - The equivalent of Napoleonic "cossacks", useful for scouting or riding down skirmishers/routers and capturing supplies, etc, but not very effective for meleeing other troops. However, worth significantly less points than ordinary cavalry.

Dragoons - Basically mounted infantry, useful for securing key positions such as bridges. Usually armed with just arquebus or crossbow and thus would melee at 1/3 strength, so avoid using as melee cavalry under most circumstances! Worth more points than the equivalent infantry, so don't use dragoons as ordinary infantry when other infantry are available.

Note: Some cavalry have firepower, but this isn't very effective. Can sometimes be useful in disrupting enemy cavalry or used against infantry (eg. a pike block) that lack firepower support. Dragoons can fire whilst mounted, but will of course fire more effectively when dismounted.

### **Infantry**

Pike - can form block (solid square) formation, which can melee attack and even push back enemy cavalry 1 hex per turn. Large pike blocks are excellent melee troops and are invulnerable to enemy cavalry, but they're slow moving, lack firepower and make a good target for artillery!

Tercio – This "weapon" type represents a more abstract unit, which combines pike, shot and a small force of halberdiers in a single entity. Moving at the pace of the slowest element, it effectively functions as a pike unit with limited firepower. The arquebusiers within the unit are unable to detach.

Halberd/Bill - In most armies (except English) these are elite/guard troops used to fight in support of the more numerous pikemen. They can usually form block formation and, like pikes, have no

fire ability and are great melee troops. Having shorter weapons than pikemen, they can also attack effectively in column or line, but will then lose the anti-cavalry defensive ability of block.

Sword & buckler - The pre-tercio Spanish alternative to halberdiers, also found in small numbers in other armies (eg. Italian). These lightly armed swordsmen have no fire ability and are unable to form block - so are vulnerable to cavalry - but are good melee troops, especially against infantry armed with arquebus or crossbow.

Crossbow - Best used as skirmishers or firing in line formation than in melee. As effective as the arquebus against unarmoured targets, but rather less effective against armoured troops. French infantry continued to use the crossbow for longer than the Spanish or most other armies. Like arquebusiers, crossbowmen have no bayonet (which hadn't yet been invented) and so must rely on an inferior quality short sword or dagger when obliged to melee. Thus crossbowmen melee at 1/3 strength.

Arquebus - Best used as skirmishers or firing in line formation than in melee, where they fight at 1/3 strength.

Musket - Best used for outranging fire, especially across a river or at static defenders. Appearing by the 1540s, the 16th century musket was heavier - it required a forked rest - and more cumbersome than the arquebus (or 18th century musket, which was closer in calibre to the 16th century arquebus), but with a longer range and greater velocity. Muskets have a range of 4 hexes compared to the arquebus' 2 hexes and higher fire-factors, but can't deploy skirmishers and are given no defensive fire ability, due to the weapon's weight and slow rate of fire.

Longbow - Quick firing and deadly against unarmoured targets, but far less effective against armoured troops. Longbowmen, like other archers, are likely to run low/out of ammo more quickly than arquebusiers/crossbowmen, so it's best to fire from close range, avoid firing at enemy skirmishers or armoured units, and make sure there are some supply wagons close by.

Shortbow - A less effective bow mainly used by Irish, oriental infantry and some militia, but still useful against unarmoured targets.

Rifles - Sniper weapons, very rare in this period. Rifling is said to have originated in Augsburg around 1498. Some arquebuses and muskets were certainly rifled, but there is no clear evidence of entire units being armed with rifled firearms before c.1600.

Non combatants - It's best to keep these safely in the rear with the baggage, as they will provide some protection from marauding enemy irregular cavalry. Under most circumstances avoid using them as combat troops, as they have very poor combat ability and very low morale and will tend to take other troops with them when they rout.

## **Artillery**

Heavy guns (Cannon, culverin) - These are more seige than battlefield guns, moving slowly, requiring "set up" and unable to fire defensively. It's best to deploy them in a good firing position but far enough away from the enemy that they don't need to redeploy, especially since they're worth more VPs than other guns.

Medium guns (Demi-calverin, Saker) - These also require "set up" but can fire defensively and are slightly more mobile. Again, it's best to put them in a good firing position where they don't need to redeploy.

Light guns (Falcon, Falconette) - These are relatively mobile, can fire defensively and don't require set up. However they're not very effective compared with other guns, especially the ultra-light falconettes which are so light they can unlimber or turn and fire in the same turn.

Organ guns - These are short-range infantry support guns.

## The “Encounter” scenarios

There are a number of hypothetical “encounter” scenarios included in the game, which pit two (or more) armies of equal value against each other. This is possible due to the new style OOB, which can assign different victory point values on a unit by unit basis, depending on troop quality, weaponry and other factors, such as whether the unit can deploy skirmishers. Gamers will be able to create their own encounter type scenarios using the scenario editor and either one of the purpose-built army list OOBs or else any other OOB of their choice.

Please see the Encounter.pdf file for a detailed breakdown of the units involved in each scenario.

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## **Guide to the Order of Battle files in the Musket & Pike Engine\***

It is recommended that you use Notepad to build an order of battle file. Any text editor that will not include special characters is ok as well.

The structure of the order of battle file is important. Its similar to C code in that there is a series of open and close statements many of which are embedded within other open and close statements.

The following guide will help you create an order of battle file.

### **Order of Battle file codes:**

Line one is the version number - currently this value is 1

The next line is for the first army (side A, choose from list below) followed by a formation designation which is always A.

France (Side A)

Scotland (Side A)

Dutch (Side A)

Swiss/Mercenary (Side A)

Italian\_States/Mercenary (Side A)  
Portugal (Side A)  
Ferran (Side A)  
Turks (Side A)

Imperialist/Spain (Side B)  
England (Side B)  
Swiss (Side B)  
Italian\_States (Side B)  
Hungry (Side B)  
Mamelukes (Side B)  
Huguenots (Side B)

Note: Current sides determined by the REN game which is the first in the series. Also note that each OOB file is limited to 5 armies at once, so 2 on 3 or 4 on 1, etc.

The formation designations are:

**A** - Army  
**W** - Wing  
**C** - Corps  
**D** - Division  
**B** - Brigade

Each designation follows the above hierarchy thus Brigades must be contained within any formation type above them on the above list. A Division would not be put under a Brigade nor a Wing under a Corps. Several Divisions may be under a Corps, Wing or Army.

This letter is followed by the **Formation Name (FN)** of each formation.

This is followed by a series of open and close formation statements:

**Begin** - signifies that what follows will be contained in the preceding **FN**.

**End** - terminates the current open **FN**.

In order to properly terminate all formations an End statement must appear.

Formations are encapsulated within their own **Begin** and **End** statements. Thus an Army has a **Begin** statement which begins that army and will not have an **End** statement until after all formations contained within its organization have been terminated with **End** statements.

After a **Begin** statement you may insert a leader (**L**) followed by any units (**U**) in the formation. Once all leaders and units have been inserted an **End** statement is needed to terminate the formation.

**Example:**

```
B Royal Guards  
Begin  
L 4 5 3 24 King James IV  
U 50 -7 G P 0 0 4 3 10 15 1 Royal Guardsmen
```

**U 775 -6 R P 0 0 4 2 10 14 3 Royal Pike**  
**End**

In the above example the **Royal Guards** formation has one leader and two units in its formation. A **Begin** and **End** statement both opens and ends the formation. This brigade is contained within a Division.

Supply wagons may be placed after any End statement but before the last End statement for each army. In other words if you want to have a Supply Wagon for an entire Division you would place it after the last Brigade End statement but before the Division End statement.

Example:

B Argyll  
**Begin**  
L 3 4 21 24 Earl of Argyll  
U 325 3 M H 3 3 0 0 14 9 0 Highlanders  
U 350 3 V Y 3 3 0 0 18 9 0 Highlanders  
U 325 -5 M H 3 3 0 2 14 11 0 Highlanders  
U 275 4 V S 3 3 0 1 18 10 0 Highlanders  
U 300 -4 M H 3 3 0 1 14 11 0 Highlanders  
U 275 3 V S 3 3 0 1 18 9 0 Highlanders  
U 225 3 M T 3 3 0 0 16 10 0 Highlanders  
U 225 3 V Y 3 3 0 0 18 9 0 Highlanders  
U 200 2 M Y 3 3 0 0 16 8 0 Highlanders  
**End**  
**S 6 16 12 10 Scottish Supply**  
**End**

**End** - terminates the Division formation.

**The unit types:**

**Leader:**

Sample leader:

**L 3 4 21 24 Earl of Argyll**

**L** - Leader type

**3** - Command value (important for Disorder recovery)

**4** - Leadership value (important for Rallying units)

**21** - Icon number

**24** - Movement point allowance

**Earl of Argyll** - leader's name

Command and Leadership values are as follows:

A - 6

B - 5

C - 4

D - 3

E - 2

F - 1

In the above example Argyll has a Command rating of D and a Leadership rating of C.

See the User.hlp file for more information on how these values affect the game. The higher the better.

### Artillery:

Sample artillery unit:

**U 8 7 A B 23 0 0 0 8 44 0 Cannons**

U - Unit (not a leader or formation)

**8** - size in guns

**7** - morale

**A** = movement class

A = Heavy (typically anything like a 12lb gun/24lb how. or above)

B = Light (typically 9/8lb gun/howitzer and below)

C = Horse

**B** = Weapon Type

varies by PDT file but here are the usual ones:

A = French 12lb

B = French 8lb

C = French 6lb

After that it depends on the nationality

**23** - 2d icon found in the Units.bmp file

**0** - 3d icon found in the 3DUnits100a.bmp, 3DUnits50a.bmp (unlimbered icon) and 3DUnits100d.bmp, 3DUnits50d.bmp files (limbered icons).

**0** - armored value

**0** - melee bonus value

**8** - movement point allowance

**44** - victory point allowance

**0** - flag for square (included for uniformity sake in the OOB, always 0 for non-infantry units)

**Cannons** - unit name

### Cavalry:

Sample cavalry unit:

**U 165 8 L S 12 0 4 2 12 6 0 1 Sq/Chas. à Chev.**

U - Unit (not a leader or formation)

**165** - size in men

**8** - morale (from 0-9, 9 is best)

**L = troop type**

L = Light  
H = Heavy  
K = Cossack  
D = Dragoon

**S = Weapon type**

L = Lance  
S = Saber

**12** - 2d icon found in the Units.bmp file

**0** - 3d icon found in the 3DUnits100b.bmp, 3DUnits50b.bmp (squadrons) files

**4** – armored value

**2** – melee bonus value

**12** – movement point allowance

**6** – victory point allowance

**0** – flag for square set to 4 => Half assault value when assaulting into trenches or out of abates hexes. (This is the only valid setting for non-infantry units in this field).

**1 Sq/Chas. à Chev.** - unit name

**Infantry:**

Sample infantry unit:

**U 784 4 R P 0 0 4 2 12 6 3 Pike**

**U** - Unit (not a leader or formation)

**784** - size in men

**4** - morale (from 0-9, 9 is best) ( place a – before the number to give a fanatical rating (value defined in PDT file, normally +2)

**R** = Infantry type, the available types are:

**I** - three rank line infantry - can detach one company of skirmishers  
**M** - three rank irregulars - cannot detach skirmishers  
**V** - three rank light infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers  
**G** - three rank Guard infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers

**T** - two rank line infantry - can detach one company of skirmishers  
**R** - two rank irregulars - cannot detach skirmishers  
**U** - two rank light infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers

**F** - two rank Guard infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers

**Y** - four rank line infantry - can detach one company of skirmishers

**Z** - four rank irregulars - cannot detach skirmishers

**X** - four rank light infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers

**E** - four rank Guard infantry - can fully breakdown into skirmishers

**S** – skirmisher

**P** – Pioneer

Notes:

**V,G,U,F,X,E,S** skirmishers rally independently

The rest must be within 5 hexes of their parent unit

**P** = weapon type

M = musket

P = pike

R = rifle

(other codes as needed and available)

**0** - 2d icon found in the Units.bmp file

**0** - 3d icon found in the 3DUnits100c.bmp, 3DUnits50c.bmp (battalions) and 3DUnits100e.bmp, 3DUnits50e.bmp (skirmishers) files.

**4** – armored value

**2** – melee bonus value

**12** – movement point allowance

**6** – victory point allowance

**3** – flag for square/block – this is a binary value and handled as following for REN:

The “block” value is a binary bit value with these values:

1 => Can form Pike Block formation

2 => Cannot form Line formation

So 3 for pikes and 1 for halberds.

4 => Half assault value when assaulting into trenches or out of abates hexes.

**Pike** - unit name

**Supply Wagons:**

These can be inserted after **End** statements for formations but like all units must be list before the final **End** statement for their army. Thus a Supply Wagon listed after a Division's (which is part of a Corps) **End** statement will be a Corps wagon.

sample supply wagon:

**S 280 32 12 10 Supply Wagon**

S - supply wagon unit type

**280** - number of ammo rounds - each point can resupply 10 men thus this wagon can resupply 2800 men

32 - 2d icon found in the Units.bmp file

12 – Movement point allowance

10 – Victory point allowance

**Supply Wagon** - unit name

The final lines of an order of battle will have a supply wagon listed for each army in army order. Thus if the order of armies is French, Prussian, Russian than a supply wagon of each will be listed at the end as follows:

```
France S 280 32 12 10 Supply Wagon
Swiss S 300 92 12 10 Supply Wagon
Italian_States S 300 82 12 10 Supply Wagon
```

\* The Musket & Pike (M&P) engine is similar to the Napoleonic engine, so that base document was used for this. Thanks to Bill Peters for the original work in putting the OOB document together. I have just altered it to fit the new format for this engine. Rich Hamilton – 11/07/2008

## **Musket & Pike PDT File Info**

Line 1: Version number (1).

Line 2: Title.

Line 3: First side.

Line 4: Dawn hour, dawn minute, dusk hour, dusk minute, hours of twilight, twilight visibility.

Line 5: Turn length during day turns, turn length during night turns.

Line 6: Maximum stacking, stacking factor for artillery, stacking factor for cavalry, maximum counters per hex, counter factor for artillery, counter factor for cavalry, number of men per SP.

Line 7: Fractional strength for skirmishers, fractional strength for squadrons, men for extended line for 3-rank units, men for extended line of 2-rank units, men for extended line for 4-rank units, number for extended line for artillery.

Line 8: For each nation, brigade command radius, for each nation, division command radius.

Line 9: Maximum fatigue (in hundreds), percent probability of fatigue recovery during day, percent probability of fatigue recovery during night.

Lines: For each terrain type: (currently 11) Move cost for line infantry, move cost for column infantry, move cost for cavalry, move cost for artillery, move cost for supply wagons.

Lines: For each terrain hexside: (currently 12) Move cost for line infantry, move cost for column infantry, move cost for cavalry, move cost for artillery, move cost for supply wagons.

Line: Move cost for line infantry uphill, move cost for column infantry uphill, move cost for cavalry uphill, move cost for artillery up hill, move cost for supply wagons uphill.

Line: Infantry change facing cost, cavalry change facing cost, artillery change facing cost.

Line: Infantry about face cost, cavalry about face cost, artillery about face cost.

Line: Line formation rear movement penalty.

Line: Ammo loss base, for each nation, probability of ammo loss.

Line: For each nation, artillery ammo loss.

Lines: For each weapon until \$, fire effectiveness values.

Use Upper Case letter for "Soft target" fire values, use lower case for "hard target" values.

To flag a weapon as having "no bayonets" place "-" at the end of the weapon character, this will reduce the melee strength of that weapon to 1/3 normal value.

To give artillery indirect fire capability, put a '+' after the weapon character.

To flag a weapon as being "single use" place "\*" at the end of the weapon character.

To flag a weapon as needing "setup" place "!" at the end of the weapon character.

To flag a weapon as "no defensive fire" place "@" at the end of the weapon character,

Line: Enfilade modifier (in percentage), cavalry modifier (in percentage)

Line: For each terrain type, fire modifier (in percentage).

Line: For each terrain hexside, fire modifier (in percentage).

Line: Elevation modifier (in percentage).

Line: Leader loss base, for each nation, leader wound chance, leader kill chance, leader melee wound chance, leader melee kill chance, leader melee capture chance.

Line: For each terrain type, terrain height, height of man.

Line: Probability of breastwork construction, breastwork movement cost, breastwork combat modifier (in percentage), guts (fanaticism) value.

Line: artillery reinforcement ammo value, for each nation.

Line: fire factor for infantry in column, for each nation. I.E. 5 = 1/5, 4 = 1/4.

Line: artillery-melee and artillery-fire strengths.

Line: for each nation, line disruption value.

Line: bridge damage value. Entering a non-zero value here results in random bridge damage.

Line: weather values, 2 lines to effect change, each with following info: Routine, year, month, date, hour, minute, percentage, visibility effect, movement cost, artillery modifier, attack modifier, flag changes, condition name. (flags are: 1 = No cavalry charge)

Line: 0 (zero) - to end weather entries.

Line: Cavalry charge value (factor), default 3.

Line: Cavalry charge continuation (multiple), default 4.

Line: Disordered defender melee value, default 2 3 (for 2/3).

Line: abatis move, abatis fire.

Line: trench move, trench fire.

### **PDT Notes:**

Weather entries display like this in the PDT file:

```
1 1815 6 18 0 0 100 80 200 50 -50 1 Mud
1 1815 6 18 11 0 25 80 100 100 0 0 Clear
```

Weather entries display like this in the in-game PDT view:

#### Weather

```
Mud (100% at 00:00 06/18/1815)  Visibility: 80  Move Cost: 200%
  Attack Mod: -50%  Artillery Mod: 50%  Flags: No Charges
Clear (25% at 11:00 06/18/1815)  Visibility: 80  Move Cost: 100%
  Attack Mod: 0%  Artillery Mod: 100%  Flags: None
```

Current PDT version number = 1

Weapons can have multiple flags within the PDT file.

Weather entries should be limited to a short period, a few days or a couple of weeks at most. Keep the number of PDT files used for the game low, but don't use a single one for the entire game, which will cause extensive weather entries and as a result slow load (or not at all) times on some computers.