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HISTORY



HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Italian Wars, often referred to as the Great Italian Wars or the Great Wars of Italy and sometimes as the Habsburg-Valois Wars or the Renaissance Wars, were a series of conflicts from 1494 to 1559 that involved, at various times, most of the citystates of Italy, the Papal States, most of the major states of Western Europe (France, Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, England, and Scotland) as well as the Ottoman Empire. Originally arising from dynastic disputes over the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples, the wars rapidly became a general struggle for power and territory among their various participants, and were marked with an increasing number of alliances, counter-alliances, and betrayals.



Prelude

Following the Wars in Lombardy between Venice and Milan, which ended in 1454, Northern Italy had been largely at peace during the reigns of Cosimo de' Medici and Lorenzo de' Medici in Florence, with the notable exception of the War of Ferrara in 1482-1484.

Spain had promised not to interfere with France's adventures in Italy in return for Roussillon and Cerdagne, which were ceded to Spain under the Treaty of Barcelona of 1492.

ITALIAN WAR OF 1494-98

Pope Innocent VIII, in conflict with King Ferdinand I of Naples over Ferdinand's refusal to pay feudal dues to the papacy, excommunicated and deposed Ferdinand by a bull of 11 September 1489. Innocent then offered the Kingdom of Naples to King Charles VIII of France, who had a remote claim to Naples through the Angevin line. Innocent later settled his quarrel with Ferdinand and revoked the bans before dying in 1492, but the offer remained an apple of Discord in Italian politics. Ferdinand died in January 1494, and was succeeded by his son Alfonso II.



French Invasion

In October 1494, Ludovico Sforza, who had long controlled the Duchy of Milan, finally procured the ducal title after providing a hitherto unheard-of dowry to his niece, who was marrying the Holy Roman Emperor, Maximilian. He was immediately challenged by Alfonso II, who also had a claim on Milan. Ludovico decided to remove this threat by inciting Charles to take up Innocent's offer. Charles was also being encouraged by his favorite, Étienne de Vesc as well as Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere, the future Pope Julius II, who hoped to settle a score with Pope Alexander VI.

Charles gathered a large army of 25,000 men (including 8,000 Swiss mercenaries), including the first siege train to include artillery, and invaded Italy. The arrival of his army outside Florence and the fears of rape and pillage incited the Florentines to exile Piero de' Medici and establish a republican government. Bernardo Rucellai and other members of the Florentine oligarchy acted as ambassadors to negotiate a peaceful accord.

The French reached Naples in February 1495 and captured it without a siege or pitched battle. They left Naples on 20 May 1495, leaving Gilbert, Count of Montpensier, as viceroy, with some troops.



The Italian states, however, quickly realized the danger of foreign monarchy to their autonomy and collaborated to create the League of Venice. After Ferdinand of Aragon recovered Naples (with help from his Spanish relatives with whom he sought asylum in Sicily), the Italian army followed Charles VIII's retreat north through Rome, recently abandoned to the army notorious for its plundering by Pope Alexander VI.

League of Venice

The speed of the French advance, together with the brutality of their attacks on cities, left the other states of Italy in shock. Ludovico, realizing that Charles had a claim to Milan as well, and would likely not be sated with the annexation of Naples alone, turned to the Papacy. Pope Alexander VI was embroiled in a power game with France and various Italian states over his attempts to secure secular fiefdoms for his children. The Pope formed an alliance of several opponents of French hegemony in

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Italy: himself; Ferdinand of Aragon, who was also King of Sicily; Emperor Maximilian I; Ludovico in Milan; and the Republic of Venice. (Venice's ostensible purpose in joining the League was to oppose the Ottoman Empire, while its actual objective was to expel the French from Italy.) This alliance was known as the Holy League of 1495 or the League of Venice, and was proclaimed on 31 March 1495. England joined in 1496. The League was the first of its kind; there was no medieval precedent for such divergent European states uniting against a common enemy, although many such alliances would be forged in the future.



The League gathered an army under the condottiero Francesco II Gonzaga, Marquess of Mantua. Charles, not wanting to be trapped in Naples, marched north to Lombardy. There he met the League in the Battle of Fornovo, 6 July 1495. Charles successfully retreated with most of his army, but had to abandon nearly all of the booty from his campaign and return to France. He died before he could regroup his forces and return to Italy.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1494%E2%80%93 1498

ITALIAN WAR OF 1499-1504

The Second Italian War (1499–1504), sometimes known as Louis XII's Italian War or the War over Naples, was the second of the Italian Wars; it was fought primarily by Louis XII of France and Ferdinand II of Aragon, with the participation of several Italian powers. In the aftermath of the First Italian War, Louis was determined to press his claim on the thrones of Milan and Naples. In 1499 Louis XII invaded Lombardy and seized Milan, to which he had a claim in right of his paternal grandmother Valentina Visconti, Duchess of Orléans.



The War

In 1499, Louis concluded an alliance with the Republic of Venice and Swiss mercenaries and invaded the Duchy of Milan under the condition that the Lombardian territories be split between Venice and France. Papal support was for the campaign in exchange for Louis XII's millitary support for Cesare Borgia's Romagna campaigns. Ludovico Sforza, having hired an army of Swiss mercenaries himself, returned to the city to find it occupied by Gian Giacomo Trivulzio, who had joined the French; Ludovico's army was soon scattered, and he himself imprisoned in France.

Fearful of the new rapprochement between Louis XII and the Italian powers, Ferdinand II of Aragon offered an alliance against Frederick IV of Naples whom Ferdinand II of Aragon considered an illegitimate inheritor of the Neapolitan title upon the death, without direct male heirs, of his nephew Ferdinand II of Naples. Louis XII and Ferdinand II agreed to these terms on 11 November 1500 and Alexander VI, nominal overlord of the Kingdom of Naples, provided his approval on 25 June 1501.

In 1501, French and Aragonese armies seized Naples. The two kings now quarreled over the division of the spoils; Ferdinand's insistence that he be recognized as king of both Naples and Sicily soon led to war between France and Spain.

When the conflict broke out again in the second half of 1502, Don Gonzalo de Cordoba lacked numeric superiority, but was able to apply the lessons learned in 1495 against the Helvetic infantry and the Spanish terceros, accustomed to close combat after the Reconquista addressed some of this imbalance. Cordoba avoided encounter with the enemy at first, hoping to lure the French into complacency. Later, the conflict was characterized by short skirmishes. During this campaign, a French knight, il La Motte, was captured by Spanish forces and later used this time as a hostage to declare his famous Challenge of Barletta on 13 February 1503. Chronic in-fighting between the Italian and French knights as well as a better supply-line guaranteed by the Spanish navy gave Cordoba the upper-hand against the French who were defeated at Cerignola and Garigliano. Louis XII was forced to abandon Naples and withdraw to Lombardy.

Treaties

The Treaty of Granada was a secret pact, agreed to on 11 November 1500, by Louis XII of France and Ferdinand II of Aragon, in which the two parties agreed to divide the Mezzogiorno between themselves after removing Frederick IV of Naples from the Neapolitan throne. Their plans were realized on 25 June 1501 when they were both invested by Pope Alexander VI. On the 25 July 1501, Frederick IV of Naples, hoping to avoid another military conflict between the two national monarchies on Italian soil, abdicated Naples and Campania in favour of the French King. It is worth noting that, as Francesco Guicciardini points out in the Discorso di Logrogno, the partition of the Mezzogiorno between the houses of Aragon and Orléans neglected to take into account the economic system of a region dominated by sheep-rearing and its concomittant transhumance

The Treaty of Lyon was signed on January 31, 1504 between Louis XII of France and Ferdinand II of Aragon. Based on the terms of the treaty, France ceded Naples to Spain. Moreover, France and Spain defined their respective control of Italian territories. France controlled northern Italy from Milan and Spain controlled Sicily and southern Italy.

The Treaty of Blois of September 22, 1504 concerned the proposed marriage between Charles of the House of Habsburg, the future Charles V, and Claude of France, daughter of Louis XII and Anne of Brittany.

If the King Louis XII were to die without producing a male heir, Charles of the House of Habsburg would receive as dowry the Duchy of Milan, Genoa and its dependencies, the Duchy of Brittany, the counties of Asti and Blois, the Duchy of Burgundy, the Viceroyalty of Auxonne, Auxerrois, Mâconnais and Bar-sur-Seine.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1499%E2%80%93 1504



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LEAGUE OF CAMBRAI

The War of the League of Cambrai, sometimes known as the War of the Holy League and by several other names, was a major conflict in the Italian Wars. The principal participants of the war, which was fought from 1508 to 1516, were France, the Papal States and the Republic of Venice; they were joined, at various times, by nearly every significant power in Western Europe, including Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, England, Scotland, the Duchy of Milan, Florence, the Duchy of Ferrara, and Swiss mercenaries.

Pope Julius II, intending to curb Venetian influence in northern Italy, had created the League of Cambrai, an anti-Venetian alliance that included, besides himself, Louis XII of France, Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I and Ferdinand II of Aragon. Although the League was initially successful, friction between Julius and Louis caused it to collapse by 1510; Julius then allied himself with Venice against France.

The Veneto–Papal alliance eventually expanded into the Holy League, which drove the French from Italy in 1512; disagreements about the division of the spoils, however, led Venice to abandon the alliance in favor of one with France. Under the leadership of Francis I, who had succeeded Louis to the throne, the French and Venetians would, through their victory at Marignano in 1515, regain the territory they had lost; the treaties of Noyon and Brussels, which ended the war the next year, would essentially return the map of Italy to the status quo of 1508.

Prelude

In the aftermath of the First Italian War, Pope Alexander VI had moved to consolidate Papal control over central Italy by seizing the Romagna. Cesare Borgia, acting as Gonfalonier of the Papal armies, had expelled the Bentivoglio family from Bologna, which they had ruled as a fief, and was well on his way towards establishing a permanent Borgia state in the region when Alexander died on 18 August 1503. Although Cesare managed to seize the remnants of the Papal treasury for his own use, he was unable to secure Rome itself, as French and Spanish armies converged on the city in an attempt to influence the Papal conclave; the election of Pius III (who soon died, to be replaced by Julius II) stripped Cesare of his titles and relegated him to commanding a company of men-at-arms. Sensing Cesare's weakness, the dispossessed lords of the Romagna offered to submit to the Republic of Venice in exchange for aid in regaining their dominions; the Venetian Senate accepted and had taken possession of Rimini, Faenza and a number of other cities by the end of 1503.

Julius II, having secured his own control of the Papal armies by arresting and imprisoning Cesare, first in Rome and later in Madrid, quickly moved to re-establish Papal control over the Romagna by demanding that Venice return the cities she had seized; the Republic, although willing to acknowledge Papal sovereignty over them and pay Julius an annual tribute, refused to surrender the cities themselves. In response, Julius concluded an alliance with France and the Holy Roman Empire against Venice; the death of Isabella I of Castile and the resulting collapse of relations between the parties soon dissolved the alliance, but not before Venice had been induced to abandon several of the cities. Julius, although unsatisfied with his gains, did not himself possess sufficient forces to fight the Republic; for the next two years he instead occupied himself with the reconquest of Bologna and Perugia, which, located between Papal and Venetian territory, had in the meantime assumed a status of quasi-independence.

In 1507, Julius returned to the question of the cities in Venetian hands; once again rebuffed by the Senate, he encouraged the recently elected Emperor Maximilian I to attack the Republic. Maximilian, using his journey to Rome for the Imperial coronation as a pretext, entered Venetian territory with a large army in February 1508 and advanced on Vicenza, but was defeated by a Venetian army under Bartolomeo d'Alviano. A second assault by a Tyrolean force several weeks later was an even greater failure; Alviano not only routed the Imperial army but also proceeded to seize Trieste and Fiume, forcing Maximilian to conclude a truce with Venice.

League of Cambrai

Julius, humiliated by the failure of the Imperial invasion, turned to Louis XII of France (who, having been left in possession of Milan after the Second Italian War, was interested in further expansion into Italy) with an offer of alliance. In mid-March, the Republic provided a pretext for an attack on itself by appointing her own candidate to the vacant bishopric of Vicenza (an act in keeping with prevailing custom, though Julius considered it a personal provocation); the Pope proceeded to call for all Christian nations to join him in an expedition to subdue Venice. On 10 December 1508, representatives of the Papacy, France, the Holy Roman Empire and Ferdinand I of Spain concluded the League of Cambrai against the Republic. The agreement provided for the complete dismemberment of Venice's territory in Italy and for its partition among the signatories: Maximilian, in addition to regaining Istria, would receive Verona, Vicenza, Padua and the Friuli; France would annex Brescia, Crema, Bergamo and Cremona to its Milanese possessions; Ferdinand would seize Otranto; and the remainder, including Rimini and Ravenna, would be added to the Papal States.

On 15 April 1509, Louis left Milan at the head of a French army and moved rapidly into Venetian territory. To oppose him, Venice had hired a condottiere army under the command of the Orsini cousins - Bartolomeo d'Alviano and Nicolo di Pitigliano but had failed to account for the fact that the two disagreed on how best to stop the French advance. Consequently, when Louis crossed the Adda River in early May and Alviano advanced to meet him, Pitigliano, believing it best to avoid a pitched battle, moved away to the south. On 14 May, Alviano confronted the French at the Battle of Agnadello; outnumbered, he sent requests for reinforcements to his cousin, who replied with orders to break off the battle and continued on his way. Alviano, disregarding the new orders, continued the engagement; his army was eventually surrounded and destroyed. Pitigliano managed to avoid encountering Louis; but his mercenary troops, hearing of Alviano's defeat, had deserted in large numbers by the next morning, forcing him to retreat to Treviso with the remnants of the Venetian army.



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The Venetian collapse was complete; Louis proceeded to occupy Venetian territory as far east as Brescia without encountering any significant resistance. The major cities that had not been occupied by the French—Padua, Verona and Vicenza were left undefended by Pitigliano's withdrawal, and quickly surrendered to Maximilian when Imperial emissaries arrived in the Veneto. Julius, having in the meantime issued an interdict against Venice that excommunicated every citizen of the Republic, invaded the Romagna and seized Ravenna with the assistance of Alfonso d'Este, Duke of Ferrara. D'Este, having joined the League and been appointed Gonfalonier on 19 April, proceeded to seize the Polesine for himself.

The newly arrived Imperial governors, however, quickly proved to be unpopular. In mid-July, the citizens of Padua, aided by detachments of Venetian cavalry under the command of the proveditor Andrea Gritti, revolted; the landsknechts garrisoning the city were too few in number to mount effective resistance and Padua was restored to Venetian control on 17 July. The success of the revolt finally pushed Maximilian into action. In early August, a massive Imperial army, accompanied by bodies of French and Spanish troops, set out from Trento into the Veneto. Because of a lack of horses, as well as general disorganization, Maximilian's forces would not reach Padua until September, giving Pitigliano the time to concentrate such troops as were still available to him in the city. The Siege of Padua began on 15 September; although French and Imperial artillery successfully breached Padua's walls, the defenders managed to hold the city until Maximilian, growing impatient, lifted the siege on 30 September and withdrew to Tyrol with the main part of his army.

In mid-November, Pitigliano returned to the offensive; Venetian troops easily defeated the remaining Imperial forces, capturing Vicenza, Este, Feltre and Belluno. Although a subsequent attack on Verona failed, Pitigliano managed to destroy a Papal army under Francesco II of Gonzaga in the process. The Battle of Polesella, a river attack on Ferrara by the Venetian galley fleet under Angelo Trevisan failed, however, when the Venetian ships anchored in the Po River were sunk by Ferrarese artillery. Francesco Guicciardini credited the decisive victory to Alfonso himself. A new French advance soon forced Pitigliano to withdraw to Padua once again.

Faced with a shortage of both funds and men, the Senate decided to send an embassy to Julius in order to negotiate a settlement. The terms insisted on by the Pope were harsh: the Republic lost her traditional power to appoint clergy in her territory, as well as all jurisdiction over Papal subjects in Venice, the Romagnan cities that had prompted the war were to be returned to Julius, and reparations were to be paid to cover his expenses in capturing them. The Senate argued over the terms for two months, but finally accepted them on February 24, 1510. Even before the Venetian ambassadors had presented themselves to Julius for absolution, however, the Council of Ten had privately resolved that the terms had been accepted under duress and were therefore invalid; and that Venice should violate them at the earliest opportunity.

This apparent reconciliation between Venice and the Pope did not stop the French from again invading the Veneto in March. Pitigliano's death in January had left Andrea Gritti in command of the Venetian forces; although Maximilian failed to reinforce Louis, the French army was nonetheless sufficient to drive the Venetians from Vicenza by May. Gritti garrisoned Padua for an expected attack by a combined Franco-Imperial army; but Louis, more concerned by the death of his advisor, the Cardinal d'Amboise, abandoned his plans for a siege.

Veneto-Papal Alliance

Julius, meanwhile, had become increasingly concerned by the growing French presence in Italy; more significantly, alienated from Alfonso d'Este by friction over a licence for a salt monopoly in the Papal states and Alfonso's continued forays against Venetian forces to secure his recently reacquired Polesine, he had formulated plans to seize the Duchy of Ferrara, a French ally, and to add its territory to the Papal States. His own forces being inadequate for the venture, the Pope hired an army of Swiss mercenaries, ordering them to attack the French in Milan; he also invited Venice to ally with him against Louis. The Republic, facing a renewed French onslaught, readily accepted the offer.

By July 1510, the new Veneto-Papal alliance was on the offensive. An initial attack on French-occupied Genoa failed, but Venetian troops under Lucio Malvezzo finally drove the French from Vicenza in early August; and a joint force commanded by Francesco Maria della Rovere, the Duke of Urbino, captured Modena on 17 August. Julius now excommunicated Alfonso d'Este, thus justifying an attack on the Duchy itself; in anticipation of his coming victory, the Pope traveled to Bologna, so as to be nearby when Ferrara was taken.

The French army, however, had been left unopposed by the Swiss (who, having arrived in Lombardy, had been bribed into leaving by Louis) and was free to march south into the heart of Italy. In early October, Charles II d'Amboise advanced on Bologna, splitting the Papal forces; by 18 October, he was only a few miles from the city. Julius now realized that the Bolognese were openly hostile to the Papacy and would not offer any resistance to the French; left with only a detachment of Venetian cavalry, he resorted to excommunicating d'Amboise, who had in the meantime been convinced by the English ambassador to avoid attacking the person of the Pope and had thus withdrawn to Ferrara.



Alfonso I d'Este, Duke of Ferrara; excommunicated by Julius, he inflicted a number of defeats on the Papal forces

In December, a newly assembled Papal army conquered Concordia and, in December, besieged the fortress of Mirandola; d'Amboise, marching to relieve the latter, fell ill and died, briefly leaving the French in disarray. Mirandola fell in January 1511, the pope having taken personal command of the assault; but d'Amboise had been replaced by Gian Giacomo Trivulzio, who took back Concordia and Castelfranco, while the Papal army retreated to Casalecchio. Alfonso d'Este, meanwhile, confronted and destroyed the Venetian forces on the Po River, leaving Bologna isolated once more. Julius, afraid of being trapped by the French, departed the city for Ravenna. Cardinal Alidosi, whom he left behind to command the defense of the city, was no better liked by the Bolognese than Julius himself had been; and when, on 23 May 1511, a French army commanded by Trivulzio arrived at the gates, they quickly surrendered. Julius blamed this defeat on the Duke of Urbino, who, finding this quite unfair, proceeded to murder Alidosi in full view of the Papal guard

Holy League

By June 1511, most of the Romagna was in French hands; the Papal army, disorganized and underpaid, was in no condition to prevent Trivulzio from advancing on Ravenna. In response to this debacle, Julius proclaimed a Holy League against France. The new alliance rapidly grew to include not only Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, who abandoned any pretense of adhering to the League of Cambrai in hopes of seizing Navarre and Lombardy from Louis, but also Henry VIII of England (who, having decided to use the occasion as an excuse to expand his holdings in northern France, concluded the Treaty of Westminster—a pledge of mutual aid against the French—with Ferdinand in November 1511).

In February 1512, Louis appointed his nephew, Gaston de Foix, to command the French forces in Italy. Foix proved more energetic than Amboise had been; having checked the advance of Ramón de Cardona's Spanish troops on Bologna, he returned to Lombardy to sack Brescia, which had rebelled against the French and garrisoned itself with Venetian troops. Aware that much of the French army would be diverted to deal with the impending English invasion, Foix and Alfonso d'Este besieged Ravenna, the last Papal stronghold in the Romagna, in hopes of forcing the Holy League into a decisive engagement. Cardona marched to relieve the city in early April, and was decisively beaten in the resulting Battle of Ravenna, fought on Easter Sunday; the death of Foix during the fighting, however, left the French under the command of Jacques de la Palice, who, unwilling to continue the campaign without direct orders from Louis, contented himself with thoroughly sacking Ravenna.



By May 1512, the French position had deteriorated considerably. Julius had hired another army of Swiss mercenaries; they descended on Milan, bringing with them Maximilian Sforza, who was determined to regain control of the Duchy for his family. The French garrisons abandoned the Romagna (where the Duke of Urbino quickly captured Bologna and Parma) and retreated to Lombardy, attempting to intercept the invasion. By August, the Swiss had combined with the Venetian army and forced Trivulzio out of Milan, allowing Sforza to be proclaimed Duke with their support; La Palice was then forced to withdraw across the Alps.

In late August, the members of the League met at Mantua to discuss the situation in Italy (particularly the partition of territory acquired from the French). They quickly came to an agreement regarding Florence, which had angered Julius by allowing Louis to convene the Council of Pisa in its territory. At the Pope's request, Ramon de Cardona marched into Tuscany, smashed Florentine resistance, overthrew the Republic, and installed Giuliano de' Medici as ruler of the city.

On the subject of territory, however, fundamental disagreements quickly arose. Julius and the Venetians insisted that Maximilian Sforza be permitted to keep the Duchy of Milan; Emperor Maximilian and Ferdinand conspired instead to have one of their cousins installed as duke. The Pope demanded the immediate annexation of Ferrara to the Papal States; Ferdinand objected to this arrangement, desiring the existence of an independent Ferrara to counter growing Papal power. Most problematic, however, was the attitude of Maximilian towards Venice. The Emperor refused to surrender any Imperial territory, which in his eyes included most of the Veneto, to the Republic; to this end, he signed an agreement with the Pope to exclude Venice entirely from the final partition. When the Republic objected, Julius threatened to reform the League of Cambrai against her. In response, Venice turned to Louis; on 23 March 1513, a treaty pledging to divide all of northern Italy between France and the Republic was signed at Blois.

Franco-Venetian alliance

In late May 1513, a French army commanded by Louis de la Trémoille crossed the Alps and advanced on Milan; at the same time, Bartolomeo d'Alviano and the Venetian army marched west from Padua. The unpopularity of Maximilian Sforza, who was seen by the Milanese as a puppet of his Swiss mercenaries, enabled the French to move through Lombardy with little resistance; Trémoille, having seized Milan, besieged the remaining Swiss in Novara. On 6 June, the French were attacked by a Swiss relief army at the Battle of Novara, and were routed despite having superior numbers. Detachments of the Swiss army pursued the fleeing French over the Alps and had reached Dijon before being bribed into withdrawing.

The rout at Novara inaugurated a period of continuous defeats for the French alliance. English troops under Henry VIII attacked La Palice at the Battle of Guinegate, scattered the French forces, and proceeded to sack Thérouanne. In Navarre, resistance to Ferdinand's invasion collapsed; he rapidly consolidated his hold over the entire region and moved to support another English offensive in the Guyenne. James IV of Scotland invaded England at the behest of Louis; but he failed to draw Henry's attention from France, and his death—and the Scots' catastrophic defeat—at the Battle of Flodden Field on 9 September 1513, ended Scotland's brief involvement in the war.

Meanwhile, Alviano, unexpectedly left without French support, retreated into the Veneto, pursued closely by the Spanish army under Cardona. While the Spanish were unable to capture Padua in the face of determined Venetian resistance, they penetrated deep into Venetian territory and by late September were in sight of Venice itself. Cardona attempted a bombardment of the city that proved largely ineffective; then, having no boats with which to cross the lagoon, turned back for Lombardy. Alviano, having been reinforced by hundreds of volunteers from the Venetian nobility, pursued Cardona and confronted him outside Vicenza on 7 October. In the resulting Battle of La Motta, the Venetian army was decisively defeated, with many prominent noblemen cut down outside the city walls as they attempted to flee.



In 1515, the Franco-Venetian alliance decisively defeated the Holy League at the Battle of Marignano

However, the Holy League failed to follow up on these victories. Cardona and Alviano continued to skirmish in the Friuli for the rest of 1513 and through 1514, fighting several inconclusive battles, but Cardona was unable to make any real progress. Henry VIII, having failed to gain any significant territory,

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concluded a separate peace with France. Finally, the death of Julius left the League without a leader; Julius' successor to the Papacy, Leo X, was rather less concerned with military matters.

The death of Louis XII on 1 January 1515 brought Francis I to the throne. Having assumed the title of Duke of Milan at his coronation, Francis immediately moved to reclaim his holdings in Italy. By July, Francis had assembled an army in the Dauphiné. A combined Swiss and Papal force moved north from Milan to block the Alpine passes against him, but Francis, following the advice of Gian Giacomo Trivulzio, avoided the main passes and marched instead through the valley of the Stura.[36] The French vanguard surprised the Milanese cavalry at Villafranca, capturing Prospero Colonna; meanwhile, Francis and the main body of the French confronted the Swiss at the Battle of Marignano on 13 September. The Swiss advance initially made headway; however, Francis's superiority in cavalry and artillery, together with the timely arrival of Alviano (who had successfully avoided Cardona's army at Verona) on the morning of 14 September, led to a strategically decisive victory for Francis and the Venetians.

Aftermath

After the defeat at Marignano, the League no longer possessed the ability or the will to continue the war. Francis advanced on Milan, capturing the city on 4 October and removing Sforza from the throne. In December, he met with Leo at Bologna; the pope, who had in the meantime been deserted by the remainder of his Swiss mercenaries, surrendered Parma and Piacenza to Francis and Modena to the Duke of Ferrara. In return, Leo received guarantees of French noninterference in his proposed attack on the Duchy of Urbino. Finally, the Treaty of Noyon, signed by Francis and Charles V in August 1516, recognized French claims to Milan and Spanish claims to Naples, removing Spain from the war.

Maximilian held out, making another attempt to invade Lombardy; his army failed to reach Milan before turning back, and by December 1516, he had entered into negotiations with Francis. The resulting Treaty of Brussels not only accepted French occupation of Milan, but also confirmed Venetian claims to the remainder of the Imperial possessions in Lombardy (except for Cremona), effectively ending the war with a return to the status quo of 1508. The peace, however, would last only four years; the election of Charles V as Holy Roman Emperor in 1519 caused Francis, who had desired the position for himself, to begin the Italian War of 1521–26. The Italian Wars, thus reignited, would then continue until 1530 without significant interruption.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/War of the League of Cambrai

ITALIAN WAR OF 1521-26



By 1518, the peace that had prevailed in Europe after the Battle of Marignano was beginning to crumble. The major powers (France, England, Spain, and the Holy Roman Empire) were

outwardly friendly, pledging by the Treaty of London to come to the aid of any of the signatories that was attacked and to combine against any nation that broke the peace. They were divided, however, on the question of the Imperial succession. The Holy Roman Emperor, Maximilian I, intending for a Habsburg to succeed him, began to campaign on behalf of Charles of Spain, while Francis put himself forward as an alternate candidate. At the same time, the Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire were forced to deal with the rising influence of Martin Luther, who found support among some Imperial nobles, while Francis was faced with Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who interposed himself into the quarrels of the continent in an attempt to increase both England's influence and his own.

Maximilian's death in 1519 brought the Imperial election to the forefront of European politics. Pope Leo X, threatened by the presence of Spanish troops a mere forty miles from the Vatican, supported the French candidacy. The prince-electors themselves, with the exception of Frederick of Saxony, who refused to countenance the campaigning, promised their support to both candidates at once. Before his death, Maximilian had already promised sums of 500,000 florins to the Electors in exchange for their votes, but Francis offered up to three million, and Charles retaliated by borrowing vast sums from the Fuggers. The final outcome, however, was not determined by the exorbitant bribes, which included Leo promising to make the Archbishop of Mainz his permanent legate. The general outrage of the populace at the idea of a French Emperor gave the Electors pause, and when Charles put an army in the field near Frankfurt, where they were meeting, the Electors obligingly voted for him. He was crowned Holy Roman Emperor on 23 October 1520, by which point he already controlled both the Spanish crown and the hereditary Burgundian lands in the Low Countries.



The territories controlled by Charles V in 1519

Cardinal Wolsey, hoping to increase Henry VIII's influence on the continent, offered the services of England as a mediator for the various disputes between Francis and Charles. Henry and Francis staged an extravagant meeting at the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Immediately afterwards, Wolsey entertained Charles in Calais. Following the meetings, Wolsey, concerned mainly with improving his own stature in preparation for the next papal conclave, proceeded to stage a hollow arbitration conference at Calais, which lasted until April 1522 to no practical effect.

In December, the French began to plan for war. Francis did not wish to openly attack Charles because Henry had announced his intention to intervene against the first party to break the tenuous peace. Instead, he turned to more covert support for incursions into Imperial and Spanish territory. One attack would be made on the Meuse River, under the leadership of Robert de la Marck. Simultaneously, another army would invade Navarre; nominally conducted by Henry d'Albret, who had lost the principality to Ferdinand II of Aragon in 1512, the invasion was effectively commanded by Lesparre (the brother of Odet de Foix, Vicomte de Lautrec). The operations were to be funded and equipped by

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the French, who denied all responsibility. The French designs quickly proved flawed as the intervention of Henry of Nassau drove back the Meuse offensive; and although Lesparre was initially successful in seizing Pamplona, he was driven from Navarre after being defeated at the Battle of Esquiroz on 30 June 1521.



Francis I of France, painted by Jean Clouet. Francis, stymied in his ambition to become Holy Roman Emperor, pushed Europe into war.

Charles was meanwhile preoccupied with the issue of Martin Luther, whom he confronted at the Diet of Worms in March 1521. The Emperor, who did not know German, viewed Catholicism as a natural way of binding the diverse principalities of the Holy Roman Empire to him. Since Pope Leo X, for his part, was unwilling to tolerate such open defiance of his own authority, he and the Emperor were forced to support one another against Luther, who was now backed by Frederick of Saxony and Franz von Sickingen. On 25 May 1521, Charles and Cardinal Girolamo Aleandro, the Papal nuncio, proclaimed the Edict of Worms against Luther. Simultaneously, the Emperor promised the Pope the restoration of Parma and Piacenza to the Medici and of Milan to the Sforza. Leo, needing the Imperial mandate for his campaign against what he viewed as a dangerous heresy, promised to assist in expelling the French from Lombardy, leaving Francis with only the Republic of Venice for an ally.

Initial Moves

In June, Imperial armies under Henry of Nassau invaded the north of France, razing the cities of Ardres and Mouzon and besieging Tournai. They were delayed by the dogged resistance of the French, led by Pierre Terrail, Seigneur de Bayard and Anne de Montmorency, during the Siege of Mezieres, which gave Francis time to gather an army to confront the attack. On 22 October 1521, Francis encountered the main Imperial army, which was commanded by Charles V himself, near Valenciennes. Despite the urging of Charles de Bourbon, Francis hesitated to attack, which allowed Charles time to retreat. When the French were finally ready to advance, the start of heavy rains prevented an effective pursuit and the Imperial forces were able to escape without a battle. Shortly afterwards, French troops under Bonnivet and Claude of Lorraine seized the key city of Fuenterrabia, at the mouth of the Bidasoa River on the Franco-Spanish border, following a protracted series of maneuvers,

providing the French with an advantageous foothold in northern Spain that would remain in their hands for the next two years.



Battles in Lombardy (1521–25). The engagements at Bicocca, the Sesia, and Pavia are labeled.

By November, the French situation had deteriorated considerably. Charles, Henry VIII, and the Pope signed an alliance against Francis on 28 November. Odet de Foix, Vicomte de Lautrec, the French governor of Milan, was tasked with resisting the Imperial and Papal forces; he was outmatched by Prospero Colonna, however, and by late November had been forced out of Milan and had retreated to a ring of towns around the Adda River. There, Lautrec was reinforced by the arrival of fresh Swiss mercenaries; but, having no money available to pay them, he gave in to their demands to engage the Imperial forces immediately. On 27 April 1522, he attacked Colonna's combined Imperial and Papal army near Milan at the Battle of Bicocca. Lautrec had planned to use his superiority in artillery to his advantage, but the Swiss, impatient to engage the enemy, masked his guns and charged against the entrenched Spanish arquebusiers. In the resulting melee, the Swiss were badly mauled by the Spanish under Fernando d'Avalos, Marquess of Pescara, and by a force of landsknechts commanded by Georg Frundsberg. Their morale broken, the Swiss returned to their cantons; Lautrec, left with too few troops to continue the campaign, abandoned Lombardy entirely. Colonna and d'Avalos, left unopposed, proceeded to besiege Genoa, capturing the city on 30 May.

France at bay

Lautrec's defeat brought England openly into the conflict. In late May 1522, the English ambassador presented Francis with an ultimatum enumerating accusations against France, notably that of supporting the Duke of Albany in Scotland, all of which were denied by the king. Henry VIII and Charles signed the Treaty of Windsor on 16 June 1522. The treaty outlined a joint English-Imperial attack against France, with each party providing at least 40,000 men. Charles agreed to compensate England for the pensions that would be lost because of conflict with France and to pay the past debts that would be forfeit; to seal the alliance, he also agreed to marry Henry's only daughter, Mary. In July, the English attacked Brittany and Picardy from Calais. Francis was unable to raise funds to sustain significant resistance, and the English army burned and looted the countryside.

Francis tried a variety of methods to raise money, but concentrated on a lawsuit against Charles III, Duke of Bourbon. The Duke of Bourbon had received the majority of his holdings through his marriage to Suzanne, Duchess of Bourbon, who had died shortly before the start of the war. Louise of Savoy, Suzanne's sister and the king's mother, insisted that the territories in question should pass to her because of her closer kinship to the deceased. Francis was confident that seizing the disputed lands would improve his own financial position sufficiently to continue the war and began to confiscate portions of them in Louise's name. Bourbon, angered by this treatment and increasingly isolated at court, began to make overtures to Charles V to betray the French king.

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By 1523, the French situation had entirely collapsed. The death of Doge Antonio Grimani brought Andrea Gritti, a veteran of the War of the League of Cambrai, to power in Venice. He quickly began negotiations with the Emperor and on 29 July concluded the Treaty of Worms, which removed the Republic from the war. Bourbon continued his scheming with Charles, offering to begin a rebellion against Francis in exchange for money and German troops. When Francis, who was aware of the plot, summoned him to Lyon in October, he feigned illness and fled to the Imperial city of Besançon. Enraged, Francis ordered the execution of as many of Bourbon's associates as he could capture, but the Duke himself, having rejected a final offer of reconciliation, openly entered the Emperor's service.



Imaginative portrait of Charles III, Duke of Bourbon, by Bernard Gaillot (1835). Alienated from Francis, Bourbon betrayed him and allied himself with Charles V.

Charles then invaded southern France over the Pyrenees. Lautrec successfully defended Bayonne against the Spanish, but Charles was able to recapture Fuenterrabia in February 1524. On 18 September 1523, meanwhile, a massive English army under the Duke of Suffolk advanced into French territory from Calais in conjunction with a Flemish-Imperial force. The French, stretched thin by the Imperial attack, were unable to resist, and Suffolk soon advanced past the Somme, devastating the countryside in his wake and stopping only fifty miles from Paris. When Charles failed to support the English offensive, however, Suffolk—unwilling to risk an attack on the French capital—turned away from Paris on 30 October, returning to Calais by mid-December.

Francis now turned his attention to Lombardy. In October 1523, a French army of 18,000 under Bonnivet advanced through the Piedmont to Novara, where it was joined by a similarly sized force of Swiss mercenaries. Prospero Colonna, who had only 9,000 men to oppose the French advance, retreated to Milan. Bonnivet, however, overestimated the size of the Imperial army and moved into winter quarters rather than attacking the city; and the Imperial commanders were able to summon 15,000 landsknechts and a large force under Bourbon's command by 28 December, when Charles de Lannoy replaced the dying Colonna. Many of the Swiss now abandoned the French army, and

Bonnivet began his withdrawal. The French defeat at the Battle of the Sesia, where Bayard was killed while commanding the French rearguard, again demonstrated the power of massed arquebusiers against more traditional troops; the French army then retreated over the Alps in disarray.

D'Avalos and Bourbon crossed the Alps with nearly 11,000 men and invaded Provence in early July 1524. Sweeping through most of the smaller towns unopposed, Bourbon entered the provincial capital of Aix-en-Provence on 9 August 1524, taking the title of Count of Provence and pledging his allegiance to Henry VIII in return for the latter's support against Francis. By mid-August, Bourbon and d'Avalos had besieged Marseille, the only stronghold in Provence that remained in French hands. Their assaults on the city failed, however, and when the French army commanded by Francis himself arrived at Avignon at the end of September 1524, they were forced to retreat back to Italy.



Guillaume Gouffier, Seigneur de Bonnivet, pencil and chalk drawing by Jean Clouet (c. 1516). Bonnivet commanded a number of French armies during the war.

Pavia

In mid-October 1524, Francis himself crossed the Alps and advanced on Milan at the head of an army numbering more than 40,000. Bourbon and d'Avalos, their troops not yet recovered from the campaign in Provence, were in no position to offer serious resistance. The French army moved in several columns, brushing aside Imperial attempts to hold its advance, but failed to bring the main body of Imperial troops to battle. Nevertheless, Charles de Lannoy, who had concentrated some 16,000 men to resist the 33,000 French troops closing on Milan, decided that the city could not be defended and withdrew to Lodi on 26 October. Having entered Milan and installed Louis II de la Trémoille as the governor, Francis (at the urging of Bonnivet and against the advice of his other senior commanders, who favored a more vigorous pursuit of the retreating Lannoy) advanced on Pavia, where Antonio de Leyva remained with a sizable Imperial garrison.

The main mass of French troops arrived at Pavia in the last days of October 1524. By 2 November, Montmorency had crossed the Ticino River and invested the city from the south, completing its encirclement. Inside were about 9,000 men, mainly mercenaries whom Antonio de Leyva was able to pay only by melting the church plate. A period of skirmishing and artillery bombardments followed, and several breaches had been made in the walls by mid-November. On 21 November, Francis attempted an assault on the city through two of the breaches, but was beaten back with heavy casualties; hampered by rainy weather and a lack of gunpowder, the French decided to wait for the defenders to starve.



The French advance into Lombardy and the Pavia campaign of 1524–25. French movements are indicated in blue and Imperial movements in red.

In early December, a Spanish force commanded by Hugo of Moncada landed near Genoa, intending to interfere in a conflict between pro-Valois and pro-Habsburg factions in the city. Francis dispatched a larger force under Michele Antonio I of Saluzzo to intercept them. Confronted by the more numerous French and left without naval support by the arrival of a pro-Valois fleet commanded by Andrea Doria, the Spanish troops surrendered. Francis then signed a secret agreement with Pope Clement VII, who pledged not to assist Charles in exchange for Francis's assistance with the conquest of Naples. Against the advice of his senior commanders, Francis detached a portion of his forces under the Duke of Albany and sent them south to aid the Pope.[38] Lannoy attempted to intercept the expedition near Fiorenzuola, but suffered heavy casualties and was forced to return to Lodi by the intervention of the infamous Black Bands of Giovanni de' Medici, which had just entered French service. Medici then returned to Pavia with a supply train of gunpowder and shot gathered by the Duke of Ferrara; but the French position was simultaneously weakened by the departure of nearly 5,000 Grisons Swiss mercenaries, who returned to their cantons in order to defend them against marauding landsknechts.



Part of The Pavia Tapestry, woven from a cartoon by Bernard van Orley (c. 1531)

In January 1525, Lannoy was reinforced by the arrival of Georg Frundsberg with 15,000 fresh landsknechts and renewed the offensive. D'Avalos captured the French outpost at San Angelo, cutting the lines of communication between Pavia and Milan, while a separate column of landsknechts advanced on Belgiojoso and, despite being briefly pushed back by a raid led by Medici and Bonnivet, occupied the town. By 2 February, Lannoy was only a few miles from Pavia. Francis had encamped the majority of his forces in the great walled park of Mirabello outside the city walls, placing them between Leyva's garrison and the approaching relief army. Skirmishing and sallies by the garrison continued through the month of February. Medici was seriously wounded and withdrew to Piacenza to recuperate, forcing Francis to recall much of the Milan garrison to offset the departure of the Black Band; but the fighting had little overall effect. On 21 February, the Imperial commanders, running low on supplies and mistakenly believing that the French forces were more numerous than their own, decided to launch an attack on Mirabello Castle in order to save face and demoralize the French sufficiently to ensure a safe withdrawal.

In the early morning of 24 February 1525, Imperial engineers opened breaches in the walls of Mirabello, allowing Lannoy's forces to enter the park. At the same time, Leyva sortied from Pavia with what remained of the garrison. In the ensuing fourhour battle, the French heavy cavalry, which had proven so effective against the Swiss at Marignano ten years prior, masked its own artillery by a rapid advance and was surrounded and cut apart by landsknechts and d'Avalos's massed Spanish arquebusiers. Meanwhile, a series of protracted infantry engagements resulted in the rout of the Swiss and French infantry. The French suffered massive casualties, losing the majority of their army. Bonnivet, Jacques de la Palice, La Trémoille, and Richard de la Pole were killed, while Anne de Montmorency, Robert de la Marck, and Francis himself were taken prisoner along with a host of lesser nobles. The night following the battle, Francis gave Lannoy a letter to be delivered to his mother in Paris, in which he related what had befallen him: "To inform you of how the rest of my ill-fortune is proceeding, all is lost to me save honour and life, which is safe." Soon afterwards, he finally learned that the Duke of Albany had lost the larger part of his army to attrition and desertion, and had returned to France without ever having reached Naples. The broken remnants of the French forces, aside from a small garrison left to hold the Castel Sforzesco in Milan, retreated across the Alps under the nominal command of Charles IV of Alençon, reaching Lyon by March 1525.



Madrid

After Pavia, the fate of the French king, and of France herself, became the subject of furious diplomatic manoeuvring. Charles

V, lacking funds to pay for the war, decided to forgo the marriage into the House of Tudor which he had promised Henry VIII and sought instead to marry Isabella of Portugal, who would bring with her a more substantial dowry. Bourbon, meanwhile, plotted with Henry to invade and partition France, and at the same time encouraged d'Avalos to seize Naples and declare himself King of Italy.

Louise of Savoy, who had remained as regent in France during her son's absence, attempted to gather troops and funds to defend against an expected invasion of Artois by English troops. She also sent a first French mission to Suleiman the Magnificent requesting assistance, but the mission was lost on its way in Bosnia. In December 1525 a second mission was sent, led by John Frangipani, which managed to reach Constantinople, the Ottoman capital, with secret letters asking for the deliverance of king Francis I and an attack on the Habsburg. Frangipani returned with an answer from Suleiman, on 6 February 1526, initiating the first steps of a Franco-Ottoman alliance. Suleiman eventually wrote an ultimatum to Charles, asking for the immediate release of Francis-and demanding a yearly tax from the Holy Roman Empire; when this was not forthcoming, the Ottomans launched an invasion of Hungary in the summer of 1526, aiming to reach Vienna.

Francis, convinced that he would regain his freedom if he could obtain a personal audience with Charles, pressed d'Avalos and Lannoy, who had intended to transport the king to the Castel Nuovo in Naples, to send him to Spain instead. Concerned by Bourbon's scheming, they agreed and Francis arrived in Barcelona on 12 June.



The final frontiers of France after the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis in 1559. Despite more than three decades of further warfare, the French failed to regain any of their former possessions in Lombardy.

Francis was initially held in a villa in Benisanó, near Valencia, but Charles, urged to negotiate a settlement by Montmorency and Lannoy, who suggested that the Italians would soon prove unfaithful to their Imperial alliance, ordered the king brought to Madrid and imprisoned in the citadel there. He adamantly refused, however, to receive Francis personally until the latter had accepted an agreement. Charles demanded not only the surrender of Lombardy, but also of Burgundy and Provence, forcing Francis to argue that French law prevented him from surrendering any lands possessed by the crown without the approval of Parlement, which would not be forthcoming.

In September, Francis fell gravely ill, and his sister, Marguerite de Navarre, rode from Paris to join him in Spain. The Imperial doctors examining the king believed that his illness was caused by his sorrow at not being received by the Emperor, and urged Charles to visit him. Charles, against the advice of his Grand Chancellor, Mercurino Gattinara, who argued that seeing Francis on his deathbed was an action motivated by mercenary concerns rather than by compassion, and was thus unworthy of the Emperor, consented; and Francis soon made a complete recovery. An attempt to escape, however, proved fruitless, and succeeded only in getting Marguerite sent back to France.

By the beginning of 1526, Charles was faced with demands from Venice and the Pope to restore Francesco II Sforza to the throne of the Duchy of Milan, and had become anxious to achieve a settlement with the French before another war began. Francis, having argued to retain Burgundy without result, was prepared to surrender it to achieve his own release. On 14 January 1526, Charles and Francis agreed to the Treaty of Madrid, by which the French king renounced all his claims in Italy, Flanders, and Artois, surrendered Burgundy to Charles, agreed to send two of his sons to be hostages at the Spanish court, and promised to marry Charles' sister Eleanor and to restore to Bourbon the territories that had been seized from him. Francis was released on 6 March and, escorted by Lannoy, journeyed north to Fuenterrabia. On 18 March, he crossed the Bidasoa north into France, while at the same time the Dauphin and his brother, who had been brought to Bayonne by Louise and Lautrec, crossed into Spain and into captivity. By this time, Francis had attained peace with England by the Treaty of Hampton Court; drafted by Thomas Wolsey and the French ambassador at the Hampton Court Palace, the treaty was signed in 1526, and was ratified by a French delegation in April 1527 at Greenwich.

Francis, however, had no intentions of complying with the remaining provisions of the Treaty of Madrid. On 22 March, with the Pope's blessing, he proclaimed that he would not be bound by the Treaty of Madrid because it had been signed under duress. Clement VII, who had meanwhile become convinced that the Emperor's growing power was a threat to his own position in Italy, sent envoys to Francis and Henry VIII suggesting an alliance against Charles. Henry, having received nothing from the Treaty of Madrid, was receptive to the offers. In May, Francis and the Pope launched the War of the League of Cognac in an attempt to reclaim the territory the French had lost; Henry, rebuffed in his attempt to have the alliance signed in England, would not join until 1527. The war would prove unsuccessful; but Francis and his successor, Henry II, would continue to assert their claims to Milan through the remainder of the Italian Wars, only relinquishing them after the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis in 1559.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1521%E2%80%93 26

LEAGUE OF COGNAC

The War of the League of Cognac (1526–30) was fought between the Habsburg dominions of Charles V—primarily Spain and the Holy Roman Empire—and the League of Cognac, an alliance including France, Pope Clement VII, the Republic of Venice, England, the Duchy of Milan and Republic of Florence.

Prelude

Shocked by the defeat of the French in the Italian War of 1521, Pope Clement VII, together with the Republic of Venice, began to organize an alliance to drive Charles V from Italy. Francis, having signed the Treaty of Madrid, was released and returned to France, where he quickly announced his intention to assist Clement. Thus, in 1526, the League of Cognac was signed by

Francis, Clement, Venice, Florence, and the Sforza of Milan, who desired to throw off the Imperial hegemony over them. Henry VIII of England, thwarted in his desire to have the treaty signed in England, refused to join.



Initial Moves

The League quickly seized Lodi, but Imperial troops marched into Lombardy and soon forced Sforza to abandon Milan. The Colonna, meanwhile, organized an attack on Rome, defeating the Papal forces and briefly seizing control of the city; they were soon paid off and departed, however.

Rome

Charles V now gathered a force of landsknechts under Georg Frundsberg and a Spanish army under Charles of Bourbon; the two forces combined at Piacenza and advanced on Rome. Francesco Guicciardini, now in command of the Papal armies, proved unable to resist them; and when the Duke of Bourbon was killed, his underpaid army sacked the city, forcing the Pope to flee.

Naples

The destruction of Rome, and the consequent removal of Clement from any real role in the war, prompted frantic action on the part of the French. On 30 April 1527, Henry VIII and Francis signed the Treaty of Westminster, pledging to combine their forces against Charles. Francis, having finally drawn Henry VIII into the League, sent an army under Odet de Foix and Pedro Navarro, Count of Oliveto through Genoa—where Andrea Doria had quickly joined the French and seized much of the Genose fleet—to Naples, where it proceeded to dig itself in for an extended siege.

Genoa

Doria, however, soon deserted the French for Charles. The siege collapsed as plague broke out in the French camp, killing most of the army along with Foix and Navarro. Andrea Doria's offensive in Genoa (where he soon broke the blockade of the city and forced the surrender of the French at Savona), together with the decisive defeat of a French relief force under Francis de Bourbon, Comte de St. Pol at the Battle of Landriano, ended Francis's hopes of regaining his hold on Italy.

Barcelona, Cambrai and Bologna

Following the defeat of his armies, Francis sought peace with Charles. The negotiations began in July 1529 in the border city of Cambrai; they were conducted primarily between Francis's mother Louise of Savoy for the French and her sister-in-law, Margaret of Austria for her nephew the Emperor (leading to its being known as the Paix des Dames), Charles himself having sailed from Barcelona to Italy shortly before. The final tems largely mirrored those of the Treaty of Madrid three years earlier; Francis surrendered his rights to Artois, Flanders, and Tournai, and was obliged to pay a ransom of two million golden écus before his sons were to be released. Removed, however, were both the humiliating surrender of Burgundy itself and the various points dealing with Charles de Bourbon, who, having been killed two years prior, was no longer a candidate for leading an independent Kingdom of Provence. The final treaty, signed on 5 August, removed France from the war, leaving Venice, Florence, and the Pope alone against Charles.





Charles, having arrived in Genoa, proceeded to Bologna to meet with the Pope. Clement absolved the participants of the sack of Rome and promised to crown Charles. In return, he received

Ravenna and Cervia; cities which the Republic of Venice was forced to surrender—along with her remaining possessions in Apulia—to Charles in exchange for being permitted to retain the holdings she had won at Marignano. Finally, Francesco was permitted to return to Milan—Charles having abandoned his earlier plan to place Alessandro de' Medici on the throne, in part due to Venetian objections—for the sum of 900,000 scudi.

Florence



The Republic of Florence alone continued to resist the Imperial forces, which were led by the Prince of Orange. A Florentine army under Francesco Ferruccio engaged the armies of the Emperor at the Battle of Gavinana in 1530, and, although the Prince of Orange himself was killed, the Imperial army won a decisive victory and the Republic of Florence surrendered ten days later. Alessandro de' Medici was then installed as Duke of Florence.



Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/War_of_the_League_of_Cognac

ITALIAN WAR OF 1536-38

The Italian War of 1536–1538 between Charles V and Francis I of France began with the death of Francesco II Sforza, the duke of Milan. When Charles's son Philip inherited the duchy, Francis invaded Italy, capturing Turin, but failed to take Milan. In response, Charles invaded Provence, advancing to Aix-en-Provence, but withdrew to Spain rather than attacking the heavily-fortified Avignon. There is also a story that French troops deliberately left over-ripe fruit on the trees in an attempt

to give Charles's troops dysentery. France had secured an alliance with the Ottoman Empire in 1536 through the diplomatic efforts of Jean de La Forêt. A Franco-Turkish fleet was stationed in Marseille by the end of 1536, threatening Genoa. In 1537 Barbarossa raided the Italian coast and laid a siege at Corfu, although this provided only limited assistance to the French.

With Charles V unsuccessful in battle and squeezed between the French invasion and the Ottomans, kings Francis I and Charles V ultimately made peace with the Truce of Nice on 18 June 1538. The Truce of Nice ended the war, leaving Turin in French hands but effecting no significant change in the map of Italy. The Truce of Nice was notable because Charles and Francis refused to sit in the same room together, such was their hatred. The negotiations were carried out by Pope Paul III going from room to room, trying to reach an agreement.



Charles V would turn his efforts against the Ottomans, only to lose the Battle of Preveza on 28 September 1538.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1536%E2%80%93 38

ITALIAN WAR OF 1542-46

The Italian War of 1542–46 was a conflict late in the Italian Wars, pitting Francis I of France and Suleiman I of the Ottoman Empire against the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V and Henry VIII of England. The course of the war saw extensive fighting in Italy, France, and the Low Countries, as well as attempted invasions of Spain and England. The conflict was inconclusive and ruinously expensive for the major participants.

The war arose from the failure of the Truce of Nice, which ended the Italian War of 1536–1538, to resolve the long-standing conflict between Charles and Francis—particularly their conflicting claims to the Duchy of Milan. Having found a suitable pretext, Francis once again declared war against his perpetual enemy in 1542. Fighting began at once throughout the Low Countries; the following year saw the Franco-Ottoman alliance's attack on Nice, as well as a series of maneuvers in northern Italy which culminated in the bloody Battle of Ceresole. Charles and Henry then proceeded to invade France, but the long sieges of Boulogne-sur-Mer and Saint-Dizier prevented a decisive offensive against the French.

Charles came to terms with Francis by the Treaty of Crépy in late 1544, but the death of Francis's younger son, the Duke of Orléans—whose proposed marriage to a relative of the Emperor was the cornerstone of the treaty—made it moot less than a year afterwards. Henry, left alone but unwilling to return Boulogne to the French, continued to fight until 1546, when the Treaty of Ardres finally restored peace between France and England. The deaths of Francis and Henry in early 1547 left the resolution of the Italian Wars to their heirs.



Prelude

The Truce of Nice, which ended the Italian War of 1536–1538, provided little resolution to the long conflict between the Holy Roman Emperor and the King of France; although hostilities had ended, giving way to a cautious entente, neither monarch was satisfied with the war's outcome. Francis continued to harbor a desire for the Duchy of Milan, to which he held a dynastic claim; Charles, for his part, insisted that Francis comply at last with the terms of the Treaty of Madrid, which had been forced on the French king during his captivity in Spain after the Italian War of 1521–26. Other conflicting claims to various territories—Charles's to Burgundy and Francis's to Naples and Flanders, among others—remained a matter of contention as well.

Negotiations between the two powers continued through 1538 and into 1539. In 1539, Francis invited Charles—who faced a rebellion in the Low Countries—to travel through France on his way north from Spain. Charles accepted, and was richly received; but while he was willing to discuss religious matters with his host—the Protestant Reformation being underway—he delayed on the question of political differences, and nothing had been decided by the time he left French territory.

VON GOTTES GENADEN WILHELM HERTZOG ZV IVLICH GELRE CLEVE BERGE-GRAF ZVR MARCK ZV ZVTPHEZ VD BAVESPVRG HER ZV RAVENSTEVN



William, Duke of Jülich-Cleves-Berg (engraving by Heinrich Aldegrever, c. 1540). William allied himself with Francis I, marrying Jeanne d'Albret, but was defeated by Charles V.

In March 1540, Charles proposed to settle the matter by having Maria of Spain marry Francis's younger son, the Duke of Orléans; the two would then inherit the Netherlands, Burgundy, and Charolais after the Emperor's death. Francis, meanwhile, was to renounce his claims to the duchies of Milan and Savoy, ratify the treaties of Madrid and Cambrai, and join an alliance with Charles. Francis, considering the loss of Milan too large a price to pay for future possession of the Netherlands and unwilling to ratify the treaties in any case, made his own offer; on 24 April, he agreed to surrender the Milanese claim in exchange for immediate receipt of the Netherlands. The negotiations continued for weeks, but made no progress, and were abandoned in June 1540.

Francis soon began gathering new allies to his cause. William, Duke of Jülich-Cleves-Berg, who was engaged in the Guelderian Wars, a dispute with Charles over the succession in Guelders, sealed his alliance with Francis by marrying Francis's niece, Jeanne d'Albret. Francis sought an alliance with the Schmalkaldic League as well, but the League demurred; by 1542, the remaining potential French allies in northern Germany had reached their own understandings with the Emperor. French efforts farther east were more fruitful, leading to a renewed Franco-Ottoman alliance; Suleiman the Magnificent of the Ottoman Empire, seeking to distract Charles from Ottoman advances in Hungary, encouraged the Franco-Imperial rift.

On 4 July 1541, however, the French ambassador to the Ottoman court, Antoine de Rincon, was killed by Imperial troops as he was travelling near Pavia. In response to Francis's protests, Charles denied all responsibility, promising to conduct an inquiry with the assistance of the Pope; he had by now formed plans for a campaign in North Africa, and wished to avoid further entanglements in Europe.



Suleiman the Magnificent (painting by a member of the Venetian school, 16th century)

By the end of September 1541, Charles was in Majorca, preparing an attack on Algiers; Francis, considering it impolitic to attack a fellow Christian who was fighting the Muslims, promised not to declare war for as long as the Emperor was campaigning. The Imperial expedition, however, was entirely unsuccessful; storms scattered the invasion fleet soon after the initial landing, and Charles had returned to Spain with the remainder of his troops by November. On 8 March 1542, the THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

new French ambassador, Antoine Escalin des Eymars, returned from Constantinople with promises of Ottoman aid in a war against Charles. Francis declared war on 12 July, naming various injuries as the causes; among them was Rincon's murder, which he proclaimed "an injury so great, so detestable and so strange to those who bear the title and quality of prince that it cannot be in any way forgiven, suffered or endured".

Initial moves and the Treaty of Venlo

The French immediately launched a two-front offensive against Charles. In the north, the Duke of Orléans attacked Luxembourg, briefly capturing the city; in the south, a larger army under Claude d'Annebault and Francis's eldest son, the Dauphin Henry, unsuccessfully besieged the city of Perpignan in northern Spain. Francis himself was meanwhile in La Rochelle, dealing with a revolt caused by popular discontent with a proposed reform of the gabelle tax.



Battles and sieges in northern France and the Low Countries during the war

By this point, relations between Francis and Henry VIII were collapsing. Henry-already angered by the French refusal to pay the various pensions, which were owed to him under the terms of past treaties-was now faced with the potential of French interference in Scotland, where he was entangled in the midst of an attempt to marry his son to Mary, Queen of Scots, that would develop into the open warfare of the "Rough Wooing". He had intended to begin a war against Francis in the summer of 1543, but negotiating a treaty to that effect with the Emperor proved difficult; since Henry was, in Charles's eyes, a schismatic, the Emperor could not promise to defend him against attack, nor sign any treaty which referred to him as the head of the Church-both points upon which Henry insisted. Negotiations continued for weeks; finally, on 11 February 1543, Henry and Charles signed a treaty of offensive alliance, pledging to invade France within two years. In May 1543, Henry sent Francis an ultimatum threatening war within twenty days; and, on 22 June, at last declared war.

Hostilities now flared up across northern France. On Henry's orders, Sir John Wallop crossed the Channel to Calais with an army of 5,000 men, to be used in the defense of the Low Countries. The French, under Antoine de Bourbon, Duke of Vendôme, had captured Lillers in April; by June, d'Annebault had taken Landrecies as well. Wilhelm of Cleves openly joined the war on Francis's side, invading Brabant, and fighting began in Artois and Hainaut. Francis inexplicably halted with his army near Rheims; in the meantime, Charles attacked Wilhelm of Cleves, invading the Duchy of Jülich and capturing Düren.

Concerned about the fate of his ally, Francis ordered the Duke of Orléans and d'Annebault to attack Luxembourg, which they took on 10 September; but it was too late for Wilhelm, as he had already surrendered on 7 September, signing the Treaty of Venlo with Charles. By the terms of this treaty, Wilhelm was to concede the overlordship of the Duchy of Guelders and County of Zutphen to Charles, and to assist him in suppressing the Reformation. Charles now advanced to besiege Landrecies, seeking battle with Francis; but, after a brief standoff, Francis withdrew to Saint-Quentin on 4 November, leaving the Emperor free to march north and seize Cambrai.

Nice and Lombardy

On the Mediterranean, meanwhile, other engagements were underway. In April 1543, the Sultan had placed Hayreddin Barbarossa's fleet at the disposal of the French king. Barbarossa left the Dardanelles with more than a hundred galleys, raided his way up the Italian coast, and in July arrived in Marseilles, where he was welcomed by François de Bourbon, Count of Enghien, the commander of the French fleet. On 6 August, the joint Franco-Ottoman fleet anchored off the Imperial city of Nice and landed troops at Villefranche; a siege of the city followed. Nice fell on 22 August, although the citadel held out until the siege was lifted on 8 September.



Barbarossa was by this point becoming a liability; on 6 September, he had threatened to depart if he were not given the means with which to resupply his fleet. In response, Francis ordered that the population of Toulon—except for "heads of households"—be expelled, and that the city then be given to Barbarossa, who used it as a base for his army of 30,000 for the next eight months. Yet Francis, increasingly embarrassed by the Ottoman presence, was unwilling to help Barbarossa recapture Tunis; so the Ottoman fleet—accompanied by five French galleys under Antoine Escalin des Aimars—sailed for Istanbul in May 1544, pillaging the Neapolitan coast along the way.

In Piedmont, meanwhile, a stalemate had developed between the French, under the Sieur de Boutières, and the Imperial army, under Alfonso d'Avalos; d'Avalos had captured the fortress of Carignano, and the French had besieged it, hoping to force the Imperial army into a decisive battle. During the winter of 1543-44, Francis significantly reinforced his army, placing Enghien in command. D'Avalos, also heavily reinforced, advanced to relieve Carignano; and, on 11 April 1544, Enghien and d'Avalos fought one of the few pitched battles of the period at Ceresole. Although the French were victorious, the impending invasion of France itself by Charles and Henry forced Francis to recall much of his army from Piedmont, leaving Enghien without the troops he needed to take Milan. D'Avalos's victory over an Italian mercenary army in French service at the Battle of Serravalle in early June 1544 brought significant campaigning in Italy to an end

France invaded

On 31 December 1543, Henry and Charles had signed a treaty pledging to invade France in person by 20 June 1544; each was to provide an army of no less than 35,000 infantry and 7,000 cavalry for the venture. Against this Francis could muster about 70,000 men in his various armies. The campaign could not begin, however, until Henry and Charles had resolved their personal conflicts with Scotland and the German princes, respectively. On 15 May, Henry was informed by the Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, that, after his raids, Scotland was no longer in a position to threaten him; he then began to make preparations for a personal campaign in France—against the

advice of his council and the Emperor, who believed that his presence would be a hindrance. Charles had meanwhile reached an understanding with the princes at the Diet of Speyer, and the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg had agreed to join his invasion of France.



Portrait of Alfonso d'Avalos, Marchese del Vasto, in Armor with a Page (oil on canvas by Titian, c. 1533). D'Avalos was defeated by the French at the Battle of Ceresole, but won a later victory at the Battle of Serravalle.

By May 1544, two Imperial armies were massed to invade France: one, under Ferrante Gonzaga, Viceroy of Sicily, north of Luxemburg; the other, under Charles himself, in the Palatinate. On 25 May, Gonzaga captured Luxembourg and moved towards Commercy and Ligny, issuing a proclamation that the Emperor had come to overthrow "a tyrant allied to the Turks". On 8 July, Gonzaga besieged Saint-Dizier; Charles and the second Imperial army soon joined him.

Henry, meanwhile, had sent an army of some 40,000 men to Calais under the joint command of Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk, and Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. While Henry continued to squabble with the Emperor over the goals of the campaign and his own presence in France, this massive army moved slowly and aimlessly into French territory. Finally, Henry decided that the army was to be split. Norfolk, ordered to besiege Ardres or Montreuil, advanced towards the latter; but he proved unable to mount an effective siege, complaining of inadequate supplies and poor organization. Suffolk was ordered to attack Boulogne; on 14 July, Henry crossed to Calais and moved to join him. A siege of Boulogne began on 19 July—despite the protests of the Emperor, who insisted that Henry should advance towards Paris.

Charles himself, on the other hand, was still delayed at Saint-Dizier; the city, fortified by Girolamo Marini and defended by Louis IV de Bueil, Count of Sancerre, continued to hold out against the massive Imperial army. On 24 July, Charles captured Vitry-le-François, from which French forces had harassed his supply lines; finally, on 8 August, the defenders of Saint-Dizier, running low on supplies, sought terms. On 17 August, the French capitulated, and were permitted by the Emperor to leave the city with banners flying; their resistance for 41 days had broken the Imperial offensive. Some of Charles's advisers suggested withdrawing, but he was unwilling to lose face and continued to move towards Châlons, although the Imperial army was prevented from advancing across the Marne by a French force waiting at Jâlons. The Imperial troops marched rapidly through Champagne, capturing Épernay, Châtillon-sur-Marne, Château-Thierry, and Soissons.

The French made no attempts to intercept Charles. Troops under Jacques de Montgomery, Sieur de Lorges, sacked Lagny-sur-Marne, whose citizens had allegedly rebelled; but no attempt was made to engage the advancing Imperial army. Paris was gripped by panic, although Francis insisted that the population had nothing to fear. Charles finally halted his advance and turned back on 11 September. Henry, meanwhile, was personally directing the besiegers at Boulogne; the town fell in early September, and a breach was made into the castle on 11 September. The defenders finally surrendered a few days later.



Thomas Howard, 3rd Duke of Norfolk (oil on wood by Hans Holbein, 1539). Sent to France by Henry VIII, Norfolk commanded the English troops during the unsuccessful Siege of Montreuil.

Treaty of Crépy

Charles, short on funds and needing to deal with increasing religious unrest in Germany, asked Henry to continue his invasion or to allow him to make a separate peace. By the time Henry had received the Emperor's letter, however, Charles had already concluded a treaty with Francis-the Peace of Crépywhich was signed by representatives of the monarchs at Crépyen-Laonnais in Picardie on 18 September 1544. The treaty had been promoted at the French court by the Emperor's sister, Queen Eleanor, and by Francis's mistress, the Duchess of Étampes. By its terms, Francis and Charles would each abandon their various conflicting claims and restore the status quo of 1538; the Emperor would relinquish his claim to the Duchy of Burgundy and the King of France would do the same for the Kingdom of Naples, as well as renouncing his claims as suzerain of Flanders and Artois. The Duke of Orléans would marry either Charles's daughter Mary or his niece Anna; the choice was to be made by Charles. In the first case, the bride would receive the Netherlands and Franche-Comté as a dowry; in the second, Milan. Francis, meanwhile, was to grant the duchies of Bourbon, Châtellerault, and Angoulême to his son; he would also abandon his claims to the territories of the Duchy of Savoy, including Piedmont and Savoy itself. Finally, Francis would assist Charles against the Ottomans-but not, officially, against the heretics in his own domains. A second, secret accord was also signed; by its THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

terms, Francis would assist Charles with reforming the church, with calling a General Council, and with suppressing Protestantism—by force if necessary.

The treaty was poorly received by the Dauphin, who felt that his brother was being favored over him, by Henry VIII, who believed that Charles had betrayed him, and also by the Sultan. Francis would fulfill some of the terms; but the death of the Duke of Orléans in 1545 rendered the treaty moot.

Boulogne and England

The conflict between Francis and Henry continued. The Dauphin's army advanced on Montreuil, forcing Norfolk to raise the siege; Henry himself returned to England at the end of September 1544, ordering Norfolk and Suffolk to defend Boulogne. The two dukes quickly disobeyed this order and withdrew the bulk of the English army to Calais, leaving some 4,000 men to defend the captured city. The English army, outnumbered, was now trapped in Calais; the Dauphin, left unopposed, concentrated his efforts on besieging Boulogne. On 9 October, a French assault nearly captured the city, but was beaten back when the troops prematurely turned to looting. Peace talks were attempted at Calais without result; Henry refused to consider returning Boulogne, and insisted that Francis abandon his support of the Scots. Charles, who had been appointed as a mediator between Francis and Henry, was meanwhile drawn into his own disputes with the English king.



Francis now embarked on a more dramatic attempt to force Henry's hand-an attack on England itself. For this venture, an army of more than 30,000 men was assembled in Normandy, and a fleet of some 400 vessels prepared at Le Havre, all under the command of Claude d'Annebault. On 31 May 1545, a French expeditionary force landed in Scotland. In early July, the English under John Dudley, Viscount Lisle, mounted an attack on the French fleet, but had little success due to poor weather; nevertheless, the French suffered from a string of accidents: d'Annebault's first flagship burned, and his second ran aground. Finally leaving Le Havre on 16 July, the massive French fleet entered the Solent on 19 July and briefly engaged the English fleet, to no apparent effect; the major casualty of the skirmish, the Mary Rose, sank accidentally. The French landed on the Isle of Wight on 21 July, and again at Seaford on 25 July, but these operations were abortive, and the French fleet soon returned to blockading Boulogne. D'Annebault made a final sortie near Beachy Head on 15 August, but retired to port after a brief skirmish.

Treaty of Ardres

By September 1545, the war was a virtual stalemate; both sides, running low on funds and troops, unsuccessfully sought help from the German Protestants. Henry, Francis, and Charles attempted extensive diplomatic maneuvering to break the deadlock; but none of the three trusted the others, and this had little practical effect. In January 1546, Henry sent the Earl of Hertford to Calais, apparently preparing for an offensive; but one failed to materialize.

Francis could not afford to resume a large-scale war, and Henry was concerned only for the disposition of Boulogne. Negotiations between the two resumed on 6 May. On 7 June 1546, the Treaty of Ardres—also known as the Treaty of Camp—was signed by Claude d'Annebault, Pierre Ramon, and

Guillaume Bochetel on behalf of Francis, and Viscount Lisle, Baron Paget and Nicholas Wotton on behalf of Henry. By its terms, Henry would retain Boulogne until 1554, then return it in exchange for two million écus; in the meantime, neither side would construct fortifications in the region, and Francis would resume payment of Henry's pensions. Upon hearing the price demanded for Boulogne, the Imperial ambassador told Henry that the city would remain in English hands permanently.



During the treaty negotiations, two Protestant mediators—Han Bruno of Metz and Johannes Sturm—were concerned that Henry's war in Scotland was a stumbling block. The sixteenth article of the treaty made Scotland a party to the new peace, and

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Henry pledged not to attack the Scots again without cause. This gave Scotland a respite from the War of the Rough Wooing, but the fighting would recommence 18 months later.

Aftermath

Exorbitantly expensive, the war was the costliest conflict of both Francis's and Henry's reigns. In England, the need for funds led to what Elton terms "an unprecedented burden of taxation", as well as the systematic debasement of coinage. Francis also imposed a series of new taxes and instituted several financial reforms. He was not, therefore, in a position to assist the German Protestants, who were now engaged in the Schmalkaldic War against the Emperor; by the time any French aid was to be forthcoming, Charles had already won his victory at the Battle of Mühlberg. As for Suleiman, the conclusion of the Truce of Adrianople in 1547 brought his own struggle against the Habsburgs to a temporary halt.



Charles V enthroned over his defeated enemies (Giulio Clovio, mid-16th century). From left, the figures represent Suleiman the Magnificent, Pope Clement VII, Francis I, the Duke of Cleves, the Duke of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse.

Henry VIII died on 28 January 1547; on 31 March, Francis followed. Henry's successors continued his entanglements in Scotland. When, in 1548, friction with the Scots led to the resumption of hostilities around Boulogne, they decided to avoid a two-front war by returning the city four years early, in 1550. The causes of the war themselves—chiefly, the contested dynastic claims in Italy—remained unresolved until the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis ended the Italian War of 1551–1559 and six decades of conflict.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1542%E2%80%93 46

ITALIAN WAR OF 1551-59

The Italian War of 1551 (1551–1559), sometimes known as the Habsburg–Valois War, began when Henry II of France, who had succeeded Francis I to the throne, declared war against Charles V with the intent of recapturing Italy and ensuring French, rather than Habsburg, domination of European affairs.



Mediterranean campaigns

Henry II sealed a treaty with Suleiman the Magnificent in order to cooperate against the Habsburgs in the Mediterranean. This was triggered by the conquest of Mahdiya by the Genoese Admiral Andrea Doria on September 8, 1550, for the account of Charles V. The alliance allowed Henry II to push for French conquests towards the Rhine, while a Franco-Ottoman fleet defended southern France.

The 1551 Ottoman Siege of Tripoli was the first step of the allout Italian War of 1551–59 in the European theater, and in the Mediterranean the French galleys of Marseilles were ordered to join the Ottoman fleet. In 1552, when Henry II attacked Charles V, the Ottomans sent 100 galleys to the Western Mediterranean, which were accompanied by three French galleys under Gabriel de Luetz d'Aramon in their raids along the coast of Calabria in Southern Italy, capturing the city of Reggio. In the Battle of Ponza in front of the island of Ponza, the fleet met with 40 galleys of Andrea Doria, and managed to vanquish the Genoese and capture 7 galleys. This alliance would also lead to the combined Invasion of Corsica in 1553. The Ottomans continued harassing the Habsburg with various operations in the Mediterranean, such as the Ottoman invasion of the Balearic islands in 1558, following a request by Henry II.

Land campaigns

On the Continental front, Henry II allied with German Protestant princes at the Treaty of Chambord in 1552. An early offensive into Lorraine was successful, with Henry capturing the three episcopal cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and securing them by defeating the invading Habsburg army at the Battle of Renty in 1554. However, the French invasion of Tuscany in 1553, in support of Siena attacked by an imperial-Tuscany army, was defeated at the Battle of Marciano by Gian Giacomo Medici in 1554. Siena fell in 1555 and eventually became part of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany founded by Cosimo I de' Medici.



Henry II remitting the Order of Saint-Michel to Marshall de Tavannes after the Battle of Renty, on 13 August 1554.

After Charles' abdication in 1556 split the Habsburg empire between Philip II of Spain and Ferdinand I, the focus of the war shifted to Flanders, where Philip, in conjunction with Emmanuel Philibert of Savoy, defeated the French at St. Quentin. England's

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entry into the war later that year led to the French capture of Calais, and French armies plundered Spanish possessions in the Low Countries. Nonetheless, Henry was forced to accept a peace agreement in which he renounced any further claims to Italy.

The wars ended for other reasons, including the Double Default of 1557, when the Spanish Crown, followed quickly by the French, defaulted on their debts. In addition, both sides had to confront Protestantism at home, which they both hoped to crush.

Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis (1559)



The fatal tournament between Henry II and Montgomery (Lord of "Lorges").

The Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis was signed between Elizabeth I of England and Henry II of France and Carlos Gray de Africa on 2 April and between Henry II and Philip II of Spain on 3 April 1559, at Le Cateau-Cambrésis, around twenty kilometers southeast of Cambrai. Under its terms, France restored Piedmont and Savoy to the Duke of Savoy, and Corsica to the Republic of Genoa, but retained Saluzzo, Calais and the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. Spain retained Franche-Comté, but, more importantly, the treaty confirmed its direct control of Milan, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and the State of Presidi, and indirectly (through dominance of the rulers of Tuscany, Genoa, and other minor states) of northern Italy. The Pope was also their natural ally. The only truly independent entities on Italian soil were Savoy and the Republic of Venice. Spanish control of Italy lasted until the early eighteenth century. Ultimately, the treaty ended the 60 year, Habsburg Valois war.



The Peace of Cateau-Cambresis (1559). Henry II of France and Philip II of Spain were in reality absent, and the peace was signed by their ambassadors.

Emmanuel Philibert, Duke of Savoy married Margaret of France, Duchess of Berry, the sister of Henry II of France. Philip II of Spain married Elisabeth, the daughter of Henry II of France. Henry died during a tournament when a sliver from the shattered lance of Gabriel Montgomery, captain of the Scottish Guard at the French Court, pierced his eye and entered his brain.

The French had achieved mixed results : their situation had improved significantly when compared to the late 1520s, they had made some territorial gains and the treaty was considered an agreement between two equal powers. However, they had failed to change the balance of power in Italy, or breaking the Habsburg encirclement. Most importantly, their good position would soonly be jeopardized by the French Wars of Religion. For the Habsburgs as a whole, the result was mixed too, as the war had weakened their position in the Holy Roman Empire and led to the separation of Charles' realm. However, for the Kingdom of Spain, the results were much better, as it was left as the sole dominant power in Italy and had successfully withstood the French effort. England fared poorly during the war, and the loss of its last stronghold on the continent damaged its reputation.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_War_of_1551%E2%80%93 1559



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AFTERMATH AND IMPACT

By the end of the wars in 1559, Habsburg Spain had been established as the premier power of Europe, to the detriment of France. In France, Henry II was fatally wounded in a joust held during the celebrations of the peace. His death led to the accession of his 15-year-old son Francis II, who in turn soon died. The French monarchy was thrown into turmoil, which increased further with the outbreak of the French Wars of Religion in 1562. The states of Italy were reduced to second-rate powers and Milan and Naples were annexed directly to Spain.

The Italian Wars had a number of consequences for the work and workplace of Leonardo da Vinci; his plans for a "Gran Cavallo" horse statue in 1495 were dropped when the seventy tons of bronze intended for the statue were instead cast into weapons to save Milan. Later, following a chance encounter with Francis I after the Battle of Marignano, Leonardo agreed to move to France, where he spent his final years.



ARMS AND ARMIES

The wars saw the introduction of many significant advances in military technology and tactics, including field artillery, muskets, and combined arms tactics.

Infantry

Infantry underwent profound developments during the Italian Wars, evolving from a primarily pike- and halberd-wielding force to a more flexible arrangement of arquebusiers, pikemen, and other troops. While the early part of the Wars continued to see landsknechts and Swiss mercenaries dominate, the Italian War of 1521 demonstrated the power of massed firearms, leading to their increasingly widespread adoption as the basis of all infantry formations.

Cavalry

Heavy cavalry—the final evolution of the fully armored medieval knight—remained major players on the battlefields of the Italian Wars. Here, the French gendarmes were generally successful against other nations' mounted troops, owing significantly to their excellent horses. The Spanish used light cavalry called Jinete extensively during the Italian Wars, led by Gonzalo de Cordoba.

Artillery

The Italian Wars saw artillery—particularly field artillery become an indispensable part of any first-rate army. Charles VIII, during his invasion of Italy, brought with him the first truly mobile siege train: culverins and bombards mounted on wheeled carriages, which could be deployed against an enemy stronghold immediately after arrival.

Military leadership

The armies of the Italian Wars were commanded by a wide variety of different leaders, from mercenaries and condottieri to nobles and kings.

Fortification

Much of the fighting during the Italian Wars took place during sieges. Successive invasions forced Italy to adopt increasing levels of fortification, using such new developments as detached bastions, that could withstand sustained artillery fire.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_Wars



SWISS MERCENARIES



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SWISS MERCENARIES

Ascendancy

During the Late Middle Ages, mercenary forces grew in importance in Europe, as veterans from the Hundred Years War and other conflicts came to see soldiering as a profession rather than a temporary activity, and commanders sought long-term professionals rather than temporary feudal levies to fight their wars. Swiss mercenaries (Reisläufer) were valued throughout Late Medieval Europe for the power of their determined mass attack in deep columns with the pike and halberd. Hiring them was made even more attractive because entire ready-made Swiss mercenary contingents could be obtained by simply contracting with their local governments, the various Swiss cantons—the cantons had a form of militia system in which the soldiers were bound to serve and were trained and equipped to do so. Some Swiss also hired themselves out individually or in small bands.

The warriors of the Swiss cantons had gradually developed a reputation throughout Europe as skilled soldiers, due to their successful defense of their liberties against their Austrian Habsburg overlords, starting as early as the late thirteenth century, including such remarkable upset victories over heavily armoured knights as Morgarten and Laupen. This was furthered by later successful campaigns of regional expansion (mainly into Italy). By the fifteenth century they were greatly valued as mercenary soldiers, particularly following their series of notable victories in the Burgundian Wars in the latter part of the century. The standing mercenary army of king Matthias Corvinus of Hungary (Black Army of Hungary 1458-1490) also contained Swiss pikemen units, who were held in high honour by the king. As a result, bands of men, sometime acting independently, other times under the banners of their cantons, marched off to foreign lands to fight in the causes of others, for pay. The native term Reisläufer literally means "one who goes to war" and is derived from Middle High German Reise, meaning "military campaign".

The Swiss, with their head-down attack in huge columns with the long pike, refusal to take prisoners, and consistent record of victory, were greatly feared and admired—for instance, Machiavelli addresses their system of combat at length in The Prince. The Valois Kings of France, in fact, considered it a virtual impossibility to take the field of battle without Swiss pikemen as the infantry core of their armies. (Although often referred to as "pikemen", the Swiss mercenary units also contained halberdiers as well until several decades into the sixteenth century, as well as a small number of skirmishers armed with crossbows or crude firearms to precede the rapid advance of the attack column.)



"Bad War". (Hans Holbein)

The young men who went off to fight, and sometimes die, in foreign service had several incentives—limited economic options in the still largely rural cantons; adventure; pride in the reputation of the Swiss as soldiers; and finally what military historian Sir Charles Oman describes as a pure love of combat and warfighting in and of itself, forged by two centuries of conflict.

Landsknechts and the Italian Wars

Until roughly 1490, the Swiss had a virtual monopoly on pikearmed mercenary service. However, after that date, the Swiss mercenaries were increasingly supplemented by imitators, chiefly the Landsknechts. Landsknechts were Germans (at first largely from Swabia) and became proficient at Swiss tactics to produce a force that filled the ranks of European armies with mercenary regiments for decades. Although the Landsknechts were never quite as redoubtable as the Swiss, they were much more readily available for hire, as after 1515 the Swiss pledged themselves to neutrality, other than regarding Swiss soldiers serving in the ranks of the Royal French army. The Landsknecht, however, would serve any paymaster, even, at times, enemies of the Holy Roman Emperor (and Landsknechts at times even fought each other on the battlefield, something the Swiss flatly refused to do in mercenary service). The Landsknecht assumed the bright, garish soldier's outfits of the Swiss, and in fact soon outdid the Swiss in the flamboyance of their military dress.



The Swiss (on the left) assault the Landsknecht mercenaries in the French lines at the Battle of Marignano

The Swiss were not flattered by the imitation, and the two bodies of mercenaries immediately became bitter rivals over employment and on the battlefield, where they were often opposed during the major European conflict of the early sixteenth century, the Great Italian Wars. Although the Swiss generally had a significant edge in a simple "push of pike", the resulting combat was nonetheless quite savage, and known to Italian onlookers as "bad war". Period artists such as Hans Holbein attest to the fact that two such huge pike columns crashing into each other could result in a maelstrom of battle, and ghastly casualties on both sides.

Despite the competition from the Landsknechts, and imitation by other armies (most notably the Spanish, which adopted pikehandling as one element of its tercios), the Swiss fighting reputation reached its zenith between 1480 and 1525, and indeed the Battle of Novara, fought by Swiss mercenaries, is seen by some as the perfect Swiss battle. Even the close defeat at the terrible Battle of Marignano in 1515, the "Battle of Giants", was seen as a victory of sorts for Swiss arms due to the ferocity of the fighting and the good order of their withdrawal.

Nonetheless, the repulse at Marignano presaged the decline of the Swiss form of pike warfare—eventually, the two-century run of Swiss victories ended in 1522 with complete disaster at the Battle of Bicocca when combined Spanish Tercios and Landsknecht forces decisively defeated them using fortifications THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

and new technology (i.e. arquebuss). It can be argued that it was arrogance-overconfidence their in own supposed invincibility—which defeated the Swiss as much as the armed forces of their enemies, for at Bicocca, the Swiss mercenaries, serving the French king, attempted repeatedly to frontally storm an impregnable defensive position, only to be mown down by small-arms and artillery fire. Never had the Swiss suffered such awful casualties while being unable to inflict much damage upon their foe. Arrogance and overconfidence were at play here, but another consideration was economic-many of the Swiss mercenaries were still farmers, and needed to return home from campaign quickly in order to work the fields. This meant they often rushed, unthinking, into ill-advised battles in the hopes they would crush the enemy of their employer, collect bounty, get paid, and march home to work their fields.

Organization and tactics

The early contingents of Swiss mercenary pikemen organized themselves rather differently than the cantonal forces. In the cantonal forces, their armies were usually divided into the Vorhut (vanguard), Gewalthut (center) and Nachhut (rearguard), generally of different sizes. In mercenary contingents, although they could conceivably draw up in three similar columns if their force was of sufficient size, more often they simply drew up in one or two huge columns which deployed side by side, forming the center of the army in which they served. Likewise, their tactics were not very similar to those used by the Swiss cantons in their brilliant tactical victories of the Burgundian Wars and Swabian War, in which they relied on maneuver at least as much as the brute force of the attack columns. In mercenary service they became much less likely to resort to outmaneuvering the enemy and relied more on a straightforward steamroller assault.

Such deep pike columns could crush lesser infantry in close combat and were invulnerable to the effects of a cavalry charge, but they were vulnerable to firearms if they could be immobilized (as seen in the Battle of Marignano). The Swiss mercenaries did deploy crossbows, arquebuss and artillery of their own, however these always remained very subsidiary to the pike and halberd square. Despite the proven armour-penetration capability of firearms, they were also very inaccurate, slowloading, and susceptible to damp conditions, and did not fit well with the fast-paced attack tactics used by the Swiss mercenary pike forces.

The Swiss remained primarily pikemen throughout the sixteenth century, but after that period they adopted similar infantry formations and tactics to other units in the armies in which they served. Accordingly, their tactics became less unique, and they took a normal place in the battle line amongst the other infantry units.

End of military ascendancy

In the end, as proven at Marignano and Bicocca, the pike attack of the Swiss mercenaries proved to be too vulnerable to firearms wielded by Spanish and Landsknecht arquebusiers and the earthworks and artillery of the French. These arquebusiers and heavy cannons scythed down the close-packed ranks of the Swiss squares in bloody heaps—at least, as long as the Swiss attack could be bogged down by earthworks or cavalry charges, and the shooters were backed up by Spanish and/or Landsknecht pikemen to defend them if necessary from the Swiss in close combat.

Other stratagems could also take the Swiss pikemen at a disadvantage. For instance, the Spanish rodeleros, also known as Sword and Buckler Men, armed with steel rodelas and side-swords, often wearing a helmet and a breastplate, were much better armed and armoured for man-to-man close combat than the Swiss. Accordingly, they could heavily defeat the Swiss if their pike column could be disorganized so that the rodeleros could dash under the unwieldy pikes of the Swiss and stab the lightly armoured, shieldless Swiss infantry. Landsknechts, using a formation similar to that of the Swiss, were defeated with terrible slaughter by the Spanish rodeleros at the Battle of Ravenna. It should be noted, however, that this required disorganization of the pike column, and Swiss pike columns

which retained good formation were able to heavily defeat Spanish rodeleros formations in battles such as at the Battle of Seminara.

After the Battle of Pavia

Despite the end of their supremacy circa 1525, the Swiss pikearmed mercenaries continued to be amongst the most capable close order infantry in Europe throughout the remainder of the sixteenth century. This was demonstrated by their battlefield performances in the service of the French monarchy during the French Wars of Religion, in particular at the Battle of Dreux, where a block of Swiss pikemen held the Huguenot army until the Catholic cavalry were able to counterattack.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Swiss_mercenaries



LANDSKNECHTE



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

LANDSKNECHTE

Maximilian I, Holy Roman Emperor from 1493 to 1519, formed the first mercenary Landsknecht regiments in 1487. He called upon Georg von Frundsberg (1473–1528), known by many[who?] as the Father of the Landsknechte, to assist him in their organization. Landsknechte later went on to fight in almost every 16th-century military campaign, sometimes on both sides of the engagement.

The Landsknechte, formed in conscious imitation of the Swiss mercenaries (and, initially, using Swiss instructors), eventually contributed to the defeat of the redoubtable Swiss, whose battle formations – over-dependent on hand-to-hand fighting – became vulnerable to the increased firepower of arquebus and artillery. French artillery or Spanish firepower dealt serious blows to the Swiss formations, and the Landsknecht pike blocks were there to fight off the depleted Swiss attack columns once this had occurred.

Standard bearer fighting against five Landsknechte, etching by Daniel HopferThe Landsknechte were always rather conservative in their usage of weapons and contained a large majority of pikemen. However, they inclined more to the tactical use of firearms than the Swiss because Landsknechte relied less on the precipitous rush to close combat. Also, as Imperial soldiers, they often fought in formations mixed with Spaniards during the reign of King of Spain and Holy Roman Emperor Charles V. These Spaniards made a good widespread use of the arquebus and later, of the musket.

Landsknechte typically came from Swabia, Alsace, Flanders, and the Rhineland, but ultimately the regiments were made up of men from all parts of Europe.



Landsknecht with his Wife. Etching by Daniel Hopfer. Note the huge Zweihänder sword over his shoulder, and the smaller Katzbalger sword at his hip, both emblematic of the Landsknecht.

Their battlefield behavior was highly variable. Sometimes, such as at the Battle of Pavia (1525), they performed exceptionally well, fighting to the death on both sides of the conflict, even after their allies fled the field, as was the case for the French employed Landsknechte. The Imperial Landsknechte were instrumental in the Emperor's victory. However, on many other occasions, (such as in the later Italian Wars, French Wars of Religion and the Eighty Years War) their bravery and discipline came under severe criticism, and the Spanish elements of the Imperial army regularly deprecated the battlefield usefulness of the Landsknechte—it was said that the Duke of Alba hired them only to deny their services to the Dutch enemy, and put them on display to swell his numbers, not intending to fight with them. The Huguenots scorned their Landsknecht mercenaries after these were immediately routed by the battered Swiss mercenary pike-block they had been sent to finish off at the Battle of Dreux (1562).



Ernst Friedrich, margrave of Baden-Durlach

Organization

The regiments often expanded from 4,000 to 10,000 men according to circumstances, or even larger, e.g. the 12,000 Landknechts raised by Frundsberg in 1526 for his campaign in Italy. It was this flexibility which allowed them to be used in various battle conditions. Oberste (colonels) were given recruiting commissions by the Emperor to form regiments, with a lieutenant-colonel and various regimental staff, and units divided into Fähnleins (companies) with a Hauptmann (captain) in charge, as well as lieutenants and Fähnriche (ensigns). Other ranks included majors of the court-martial and officers in charge of camp followers.

The Tross were the camp followers or "baggage train" who traveled with each Landsknecht unit, carrying the military necessities, the food and the belongings of each soldier and his family. Members of the Tross were made up of women, children and some craftsmen.

Weapons

Landsknechte were trained in the use of the famous long pikes and used the pike square formations developed by the Swiss. The majority of Landsknechte would use pikes, but others, meant to provide tactical assistance to the pikemen, accordingly used different weapons. For example an experienced Landsknecht could be designated a Doppelsöldner, an armoured soldier who served as the backbone for the formation and in addition to the pike as more recent recruits, they could also be alternatively employed wielding a 6-to-8-foot-long (1.8 to 2.4 m) halberd or

partisan, or, more famously, a Zweihänder (literally: "Twohander"), a two-handed sword as long as 180 cm (6 ft).[1] These great war swords could be used to hack off the heads of enemy pikes; or more likely to knock the pikes aside, creating disorder among the tightly arranged enemy pikemen in order to break through their lines. Other Doppelsöldner were armed with an early matchlock firearm called an "arquebus" or crossbow would lay ranged fire support by the flanks of the pike square.

However, the primary use of the two handed sword would be to serve as the guard for the standard bearer, as it is a weapon that allows for a few to oppose many. The Swiss adversaries to the Landsknechte had specifically prohibited the use of these swords during the late 15th century, as they deemed them unsuitable for the constricted manner of pike warfare, though they continued to use the shorter longswords into and throughout the 16th century. "Doppelsöldner" meant "double pay man", because they were paid double the wages of their less experienced counterparts. Landsknechte also used Kriegsmesser longswords (German for War knife) a long curved sword clasped to the belt, the blade shown naked without a scabbard in some woodcuts from (1500– 1520).



Design for a stained-glass window commemorating the Landsknecht Christoph von Eberstein, by Hans Holbein the Younger

Other Landsknechte would use the arquebus, the precursor to the musket. When the Landsknechte were first formed, arquebusiers composed up to an eighth of the total number of soldiers, but the number gradually grew to be about a quarter.

The universal Landsknecht weapon was a short sword called a Katzbalger, carried in addition to the Landsknecht's main weapon. Indeed, the Katzbalger was seen as the very symbol of the Landsknecht, Swiss illustrators being careful to depict it to indicate that a mercenary was a Landsknecht rather than a Reisläufer.

Landsknechte were a very powerful force due to powerful weaponry. Landsknecht Paul Dolstein wrote of the siege of Älfsborg in July 1502, fighting for the King of Denmark: "We were 1800 Germans, and we were attacked by 15000 Swedish farmers ... we struck most of them dead".



In this engraving by Hendrick Goltzius the massed pike formation is seen at the rear

Clothes

What made the Landsknechte so conspicuous was their elaborate dress, which they adopted from the Swiss, but later took to even more dramatic excess. Maximilian I exempted them from the prevalent sumptuary laws as an acknowledgement of their "...short and brutish" lives. Doublets (German: Wams), deliberately slashed at the front, back and sleeves with shirts and other wear pulled through to form puffs of different-colored fabric, so-called puffed and slashed; parti-colored hose (or Gesses); jerkins (German: Lederwams); ever-broader flat berettype hats (German: Tellerbarrets) with tall feathers; and broad flat shoes, made them bodies of men that could not be mistaken.

Camp

Landsknechte adopted the Hussite tactic of creating a ring of limbers and wagons, surrounded by cannon, with the encampment in the middle. While in strong positions like this, many Landsknechte lived in tents; however, in more makeshift situations, they would often build crude huts made of straw and mud supported by Pikes and Halberds. Commissioned officers would always sleep in tents on campaign. Quarrels and disease would go about the camp, and if the Landsknechte had been defeated in the battle the camp followers had little time to escape before rape and plunder took place. However, it was usually secure from the enemy.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Landsknecht



SPECIAL RULES



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

SPECIAL RULES

ALLIES & MERCENARIES

Do not benefit from the Army General and no SIP can be used for them except from a character that is within the unit.

ARQUEBUS

Range 18", KA3, move or shoot

CARACOLE

Second rank can fire too, if target in Frontal Attack Zone.

CARROCCIO (optional)

The armies of the italian city states had a special army standard which can be fielded instead of the normal battle standard bearer for the same points if the size of the army is 3000 points or more. Such war alter drawn by oxen movement rate of 4" and cannot march or flee. Whenever they are attacked successfully they are automatically destroyed and the army has to make a panic test similar to the one in case of the generals death. As long as it is within 4" of the Army General his Zone Of Command get a bonus of 10" instead of 5".

DITCHES (60 pts)

Ditches must be dug at the start of the battle as the formation is deployed. These should be represented by a 1" wide piece of Difficult Terrain covering the frontage of the formation. The rules for Difficult Terrain on page 58 and Terrain and Combat on page 61 apply. Additional 1" wide pieces of ditch can be 'bought'. Depending upon the enemy formation faced, this may provide additional benefits. Disordered formations lose their Impact Bonus- page 53. A formation fighting behind a ditch may add 1D6 when taking a Command test to avoid pursuing a fleeing foe or if subject to the Warband 'surge' rule on page 128. Elephants are not affected by ditches except their Combat Ability is reduced by 1. Unlike stakes, the ditch is a terrain feature and remains on the table should the unit leave it. We assume however that any benefits are only available when a unit is 'behind' the ditch as when the original unit was placed.

FEARSOME REPUTATION (Optional)

Swiss pikemen had a fearsome reputation early in the Italian wars. If charged by or charging a fearsome unit the enemy have to make a command test, if failed -1CA and Mo as long as they are in contact with.

FIELD GUN (75/100pts) 0-1 per 1000pts									
	CA	SA	KA	S	Mo	L			
Cannon&Crew	2	3	2	2	7	4			

Equipment: Hand weapon. Durability 8. Light or Heavy.

Range 48/60", in case of a hit one model per rank (up to five) get a KA 3/4 hit, D3 hits for skirmishers. No armor. Cannot be moved, but pivot and shoot (-1 to hit) **Special Rules:** *Cannon*

HATRED (optional)

Swiss and german Landsknecht pikemen hate each other and both the french Bandes Noire Landsknechts and vice versa. The winner always can re-roll the pursue roll if both are fighting each other and one of them flee from melee.

LANDSKNECHT ORDONNANCE (Gewalthaufen)

Is a combined formation of pikemen and Doppelsöldner (missile or halberd armed models). The standard formation is 24 pikemen (4x6) with 6 musketeers/arquebusiers and 6 halberdiers in front or last rank. If more models are used try to keep this shape as close as possible. Missile armed models are placed at in front and can change to the rear rank. Casualties are taken equally from pike and missile or halberd armed models. In case of a charge or being charged the missile armed models are placed in the rear. Armored pikemen charging get KA4 in the first round of combat.

MUSKET

Range 18", KA3, move&shoot

ORGAN GUN

	CA	SA	KA	S	Мо	L
Cannon&Crew	3	3	3	2	7	3

Equipment: Hand weapon. Crew of three men. Durability 8 Range 20", D6 KA4 hits, no armor, D3 for skirmishers. Cannot be moved, but pivot and shoot (-1 to hit) **Special Rules:** *Cannon*

PIKE

Cavalry may charge the front of an unarmored pike formation. The other pike rules on p121 of the rulesbook.remain the same.

PISTOLS

Range 6", KA3, Armor Piercing 1, move&shoot, no penalty

SPANISH ORDONNANCE (Tercio)

Is a combined formation of pike and missle armed models. The standard formation is 36 pikeman (6x6) with 2x2 musketeers or arquebusiers on each egde. If more models are used try to keep this shape as close as possible.

- a tercio with unarmored pikemen can drift
- armored pikemen cannot drift/turn, formation change needed
- no double pace, only the charge is at double rate
- can only charge targets in Frontal Attack Zone
- only the pikemen charge, the missile armed models will not get in touch with the enemy, only when charged from more than one side or in previous turns after ongoing melee, may flee as charge reaction
- the musketeers/arquebusiers can shoot straight forward or turn 90° and shoot with -1 for move&shoot
- enemy units never get the +1/+2 bonus for flank/rear as long as the pikeman are over half strength
- armored pikemen charging only at basic rate get KA4 in the first round of combat

STAKES (30pts)

Suitable stake models should be placed as the unit is deployed for battle at the start of the game. These are assumed to cover the front facing of the formation.Should the unit move or choose to not place the stakes as they deploy, they are lost. Likewise, troops that enter the battle after Turn 1, cannot use stakes, unless the scenario permits otherwise. A formation that charges a formation behind stakes will not gain any Impact Bonus. Cavalry fighting a unit behind stakes has its CA reduced by 1 until it wins or draws a combat. A formation fighting behind stakes may add 1D6 when taking a Command test to avoid pursuing a fleeing foe or if subject to the Warband 'surge' rule on page 128.

SWISS ORDONNANCE (Gevierthaufen)

Is a combined formation of pike and missle or halberd armed models. The standard formation is 36 pikemen (6x6) with 4 musketeers/arquebusiers or halberdierson each side. If more models are used try to keep this shape as close as possible.

All sides must be equally chosen. Casualties are taken equally from pike, halberd and missile armed models. Each side has its own arc of sight and those units cannot double pace. In case of a charge or being charged the missile armed models are placed in the rear (an unangaged side). Enemy units do not get a flank or rear bonus against those units as long as the pike models are over half strength. Armored pikemen charging get KA4 in the first round of combat

UNMOTIVATED

Units not allowed to use SIP for.

DEPLOYMENT



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

BELLIGERENTS

COMMANDERS

 Kingdom of France (Valois) Kingdoms of Spain (until 1518) Holy Roman Empire (until 1518) Empire of Charles V (Habsburg, 1519 onwards) Papal States Republic of Venice Kingdom of Naples (until 1518) Duchy of Milan Republic of Florence Duchy of Mantua Duchy of Ferrara Republic of Siena Duchy of Savoy Swiss mercenaries Kingdom of England Scotland Ottoman Empire Jülich-Cleves-Berg Saxony Brandenburg Ireland Hungary (until 1517) Knights of St. John Venetian Colonial





Charles VIII Gilbert, Count of Montpensier Louis XII of France Duke of Nemours Ludovico II of Saluzzo Bérault Stuart d'Aubigny Francis I Odet de Foix Guillaume Gouffier Comte de St. Pol Vicomte de Lautrec Dauphin Henry Duke of Orléans Count of Enghien Claude d'Annebault Francesco II, Marquess Cesare Borgia Prospero Colonna Francesco Maria I Ferdinand II of Naples Ferdinand the Catholic Gonzalo de Córdoba Fernando de Andrade Diego de Mendoza Philip II

Charles V

Charles de Lannoy

Fernando d'Avalos

Charles III de Bourbon

Georg Frundsberg

Antonio de Leyva

Philibert of Châlon

Alfonso d'Avalos

Ferrante Gonzaga Francesco Ferrucci Giovanni de' Medici Malatesta Baglioni Cosimo I de' Medici Henry VIII Duke of Norfolk Duke of Suffolk Viscount Lisle Piero Strozzi Hayreddin Barbarossa Suleiman I Emmanuel Philibert

ARMY LISTS



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

KINGDOM OF FRANCE

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 50% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: automatically pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General	-	-		8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

ORDONNANCE GENDARMES									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. **Special Rules:** *Drilled, Shock Charge* +2

ORDONNA	NCE A	RCHE	RS OR	CHEV	AUX L	ÉGERS	
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L	

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow. May have thrusting spear (+2) Only 0-1 per unit of gendarmes

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. **Special Rules:** Only until 1512AD

ITALIAN MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	6	15	S			

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. May have light armor (+2) Only after 1512AD: May have arquebus instead of light crossbow (+2)

ARGOULETS

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	18	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, javelins, shield, thrusting spear May have light armor (+2), light crossbow instead of bow (free) Only after 1522AD: May have arquebus instead of bow (+3) **Special Rules:** *Feign Flight*, Only after 1512AD

COUSTILIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	2	3	3	6	14	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear May have light armor (+2)

INFANTRY									
FRENCH P	IKEMI	EN							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Pikeman	2	3	3	6	7	R			
Only after 1: arquebus Special Rule			10	le up to	1/3 arm	ed with			
FRANCS A									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			

CA SA KA Mo Pts F Archer 2 2 3 5 4 L

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow. May have pike or halberd instead of bow (free). May have light (+1) or heavy (+3) armor. **Special Rules:** *Unmotivated, Undisciplined*

MERCENARIES

0-4 FIELD GUNS

SWISS PIR	KEMEN					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have heavy armour (+3). May be *Drilled* (+2) Special Rules: *Swiss Ordonnance*, Only 1500-1512 and 1522-1559AD

SWISS SKIRMISHERS

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Skirmisher	2	3	3	7	8	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. May have crossbow instead of arquebus (+2) Special Rules: Only 1500-1512 and 1522-1559AD

ITALIAN ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

NEAPOLIT	AN MI	EN-AT	-ARMS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge +1*

0-1 STRADIOTS

0-1 STRAD		SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	21	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, thrusting spear, javelins, shield. May have bow (+2) and light armour (+2) **Special Rules:** *May Skirmish, Feign Flight*
LANDSKNECHT PIKEMEN (Bandes Noire)										
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R				
Equipment: Hand weapon, pike or halberd.										
May have heavy armour (+3).										
Special Rul	es: Land.	sknecht	Ordonn	ance, C	only 151	13-21AD				
		DOLT	DUCIE	DC						
LANDSKN		~			D					
	CA		KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Arquebusie	er 2	3	3	7	8	R				
Entre										
Equipment: Special Rul										
Special Kul	es: Lana.	<i><i><i>к</i>песті</i></i>	Oraonn	unce						
AVENTUR	IER OR	ITAL	AN PI	KEMEN	V					
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F				
Pikeman	2	3	3	6	6	R				
Equipment		1 1								
May have he	-									
Special Rul	es: Only	after 15	512AD							
AVENTUR	IED CD	OCCDC		т						
AVENIUK	IEK CK C			Mo	Pts	F				
Constant				1.10	9					
Crossbown	nan 2	3	3	6	9	S				
Fariant Handaman and										
Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow.										
Only after 1.	Only after 1522AD: Have arquebus instead of crossbow (free)									

ALLIES

Only from 1515-1522AD: Venetian Allies



FRANCIS I OF FRANCE



Francis I (French: François Ier) (12 September 1494 – 31 March 1547) was King of France from 1515 until his death. During his reign, huge cultural changes took place in France and he has been called France's original Renaissance monarch. His permanent rivalry with the Emperor Charles V for hegemony in Europe was the origin of a long and ruinous military conflict that gave rise to the Protestant revolution.

Francis was an ally of Suleiman the Magnificent, with whom he formed the Franco-Ottoman alliance. His great rivals were King Henry VIII of England and Holy Roman Emperor Charles V.

Military action



Jeton of the Court of Accounts from King Francis I

Militarily and politically, Francis's reign was less successful; he tried and failed to become Holy Roman Emperor, and pursued a series of wars in Italy. Francis managed to defeat the Swiss at Marignano in 1515, which enabled him to capture the Italian city-state of Milan.

Much of the military activity of Francis's reign was focused on his sworn enemy, the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V. Francis and Charles had an intense personal rivalry and; Charles, in fact, brashly challenged Francis to single combat, multiple times. In addition to the Holy Roman Empire, Charles personally ruled Spain, Austria and a number of smaller possessions neighboring France, and was thus a threat to Francis's kingdom.

Francis attempted to arrange an alliance with Henry VIII of England with negotiations taking place at the famous Field of

Cloth of Gold on 7 June 1520 but, despite a lavish fortnight of diplomacy, they ultimately failed to reach agreement.

Francis' most devastating defeat occurred at the Battle of Pavia (24 February 1525), where he was captured by Charles: Cesare Hercolani hurt his horse and Francis was captured by Spaniards Juan de Urbieta, Diego Dávila and Alonso Pita. For this reason, Hercolani was named "victor of the battle of Pavia". The famous Zuppa alla Pavese, now a renowned recipe, was said to have been invented on the spot to feed the captive king right after the battle.

Francis was held captive in Madrid and in a letter to his mother he wrote, "Of all things, nothing remains to me but honour and life, which is safe." This line has come down in history famously as "All is lost save honour." In the Treaty of Madrid signed on 14 January 1526, Francis I was forced to make major concessions to Charles V before he was freed on 17 March 1526. Francis was allowed to return to France in exchange for his two sons, Francis and Henry, but once he was free he argued that his agreement with Charles was made under duress, and also claimed that the agreement was void, as his sons had been taken hostage suggesting his word alone was not trusted, and he repudiated it.



Grand culverin of Francis I, with royal salamander emblem and with the Latin motto Nutrisco et extinguo ("I nourish [the good] and extinguish [the bad]"). Caliber: 140mm, length: 307 cm, recovered in Algiers in 1830. Musée de l'Armée.

Francis persevered in his hatred of Charles V and desire to control Italy by conquest. The repudiation of the Treaty of Madrid led to the War of the League of Cognac, 1526-30. After the league failed, Francis concluded a secret alliance with the Landgrave of Hesse, on January 27, 1534. This was directed against Charles V on the pretext of assisting the Duke of Wurttemberg to regain his traditional seat, from which Charles had removed him in 1519. Francis also obtained the help of the Ottoman Empire and renewed the contest in Italy in the Italian War of 1536-1538, after the death of Francesco II Sforza, the ruler of Milan. This round of fighting, which had little result, was ended by the treaty of Nice. The Treaty of Nice, however, collapsed, and this led to Francis' final attempt on Italy in the Italian War of 1542–1546. This time, Francis managed to hold off the forces of Charles V and England's Henry VIII; Charles V was forced to sign the Treaty of Crepy because of financial problems and problems with the Schmalkaldic League.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francis_I_of_France

PIERRE TERRAIL



Pierre Terrail, seigneur de Bayard (Château Bayard 1473 -Romagnano Sesia 30 April 1524) was a French soldier, generally known as the Chevalier de Bayard. Throughout the centuries since his death, he has been known as "the knight without fear and beyond reproach" (le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche). He himself however, preferred the name given him by his contemporaries for his gaiety and kindness, "le bon chevalier", or "the good knight".

1490 - Service of King Charles VIII of France



Chevalier Bayard in a 16th century French school painting.

1490 - Man at arms of Louis de Luxembourg

In 1490 he took service as a man-at-arms in the household of Louis de Luxembourg, the seigneur de Ligny (November, 1490); a favorite of King Charles VIII of France. As a youth, Terrail was distinguished for his looks, charming manner, and skill in the tilt-yard.

1494 - Battle of Naples

In 1494, he accompanied King Charles VIII of France's expedition into Italy to seize the Kingdom of Naples. This campaign is now known as the Italian War of 1494-1498.

1495 - Battle of Fornovo

He was knighted after the 1495 Battle of Fornovo, in which he captured a standard. Shortly afterwards, entering Milan alone in pursuit of the enemy, he was taken prisoner, but was set free without a ransom by Ludovico Sforza.

1502 - Battle of Canossa

In 1502, he was wounded at Canossa.

1503 - Battle of Garigliano



The Battle of Garigliano (1503)

Bayard was the hero of a celebrated combat of thirteen French knights against an equal number of Spaniards, and his restless energy and valour were conspicuous throughout the Italian wars of this period. At the Battle of Garigliano it is said that he singlehandedly defended the bridge of the Garigliano against 200 Spaniards, an exploit that brought him such renown that Pope Julius II tried unsuccessfully to entice him into his service.

1508 - Service of King Louis XII of France

1508 found Bayard accompanying King Louis XII against rebellious Genoa. In the battle that broke the back of the rebellion, Bayard played the role of champion and spearhead in the French assault; a breakneck cavalry charge up a mountain slope against a seemingly impregnable barricade, defended by a pike-phalanx of Genoese militia. The Genoese shattered and fled before the furious charge of Bayard and the French gendarmes. Genoa subsequently fell, and Bayard entered the city in triumph behind his king.

In June of that year, King Louis played host to the Spanish king, Ferdinand. Weeks of festivities followed, including tourneys, banquets, and balls. Bayard was the champion of the first; and at the last became reacquainted with his former opponent at the Garigliano, Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba, El Gran Capitán ("The Great Captain") of Spain.

1509 - Battle of Agnadello

In 1509, the League of Cambrai was formed between France, the Empire, Spain, and the Papacy; in an effort to wrest from Venice its territorial empire in northeastern Italy.

For this campaign, the king commissioned Bayard to raise a company of horse and foot. Up until that time, French infantry had been a despised rabble. Bayard's company became a model for discipline, high morale, and battlefield effectiveness; and played a key role that year in rescuing the French vanguard at the Battle of Agnadello, on May 14, 1509; against the Venetian forces led by Bartolomeo d'Alviano.

THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

1509 - Siege of Padua

Later that year, Bayard was among the French forces under Jacques de La Palice sent to join their German ally, the Emperor Maximilian I at the Siege of Padua. Though the siege ultimately failed, what early success the allies enjoyed was largely due to the combination of cool-headed leadership and dashing bravado of Bayard.

1510 - Servicing of Lucrezia Borgia

In 1510 the Duchy of Ferrara joined the alliance. Bayard was cocommander of the French contingent sent to garrison and aid the city and its Duke, Alphonso d'Este. During his eight month stay, Bayard won the admiration of the duke and his infamous wife, the lady Lucrezia Borgia. According to his biographer, "The Loyal Servant," (likely Bayard's archer and lifelong secretary, Jacques de Mailles) the chevalier fully returned Lucrezia's admiration; considering her "a pearl" among women. Bayard would return to Ferrara on other occasions to pay his hommage to the lady; once in the company of Gaston de Foix, duc de Nemours, just months before the Battle of Ravenna, where the Duke lost his life.

1511 - Holy league

By 1511 the League of Cambrai had collapsed due to Papal fears of the growing power of France in Italy. To counter this, Pope Julius II declared the formation of the Holy League. This alliance put France at odds with not only the Papacy, but its erstwhile ally, the Holy Roman Empire; as well as Spain and ultimately the Swiss Confederation.

In various skirmishes with Papal troops around Ferrara, Bayard continued to win renown. In one instance, he very nearly captured the Pope himself. About this time, the Duke Alphonso and Bayard found themselves under Papal Interdict. How long Bayard's period of excommunication lasted is unclear.



Statue of Pierre Terrail LeVieux, Seigneur de Bayard, in Sainte-Anne-d'Auray, France. 1893 statue.

1512 - Siege of Brescia

At the Siege of Brescia in 1512, Bayard led a wedge of dismounted men-at-arms against the defenders, himself at its tip. Several times the French assault was thrown back. Each time Bayard rallied the French forces and led them in renewed attacks. His boldness at last resulted in a severe wound to the thigh, but not before the defenses were breached and the French had entered the town.

His soldiers carried Bayard into a neighbouring mansion, the residence of a nobleman, whose wife and daughters he protected from threatened insult. Bayard was charmed by the young daughters, who sang to him nightly. Before his wound was healed, he learned that battle was imminent at Ravenna, and he hurried to depart to rejoin his comrades. But not before endowing the two daughters with a thousand gold ducats each; the money paid originally to him by the lady of the house as ransom for her family.

1512 - Battle of Ravenna

Bayard joined his commander and friend, Gaston de Foix, duc de Nemours, in time for the fateful Battle of Ravenna (1512). Though the gallantry of Bayard and the French cavalry under de Foix carried the day, the duc was killed in the final hour; rendering the battle a strategic loss for the French; and a personal tragedy for Bayard.

1513 - Battle of the Spurs

In 1513, when Henry VIII of England routed the French at the Battle of the Spurs (Guinegate, where Bayard's father had received a lifelong injury in a battle of 1479), Bayard, trying to rally his countrymen, found his escape cut off. Unwilling to surrender, he rode suddenly up to an English officer who was resting unarmed, and summoned him to yield; the knight complying, Bayard in turn gave himself up to his prisoner. He was taken into the English camp, but his gallantry impressed Henry as it had impressed Ludovico, and the king released him without ransom, merely exacting his word not to serve for six weeks.

1515 - Service of King Francis I of France

On the accession of Francis I in 1515, Bayard was made lieutenant-general of Dauphiné; but soon accompanied the King and army into the territory of Milan, control of which was challenged by the Swiss. At the Battle of Marignano the opposing armies engaged in a protracted and bloody struggle; which the French won largely because of the valour of Bayard, King Francis, and the French gendarmes (armored lancers). After the battle, Bayard had the honour of conferring knighthood on his youthful sovereign.

1521 - Siege of Mézières

When war again broke out between Francis I and Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor, Bayard, with 1000 men, held Mézières, which had been declared untenable, against an army of 35,000, and after six weeks, compelled the imperial generals to raise the siege. This stubborn resistance saved central France from invasion, as the king had not then sufficient forces to withstand the Holy Roman Empire.

All France celebrated the achievement, and Francis gained time to collect the royal army which drove out the invaders (1521). The parlement thanked Bayard as the saviour of his country; the king made him a knight of the Order of Saint Michael, and commander in his own name of 100 gens d'armes, an honour until then reserved for princes of the blood.

1524 - Death in Italy

After allaying a revolt at Genoa, and striving with the greatest assiduity to check a pestilence in Dauphiné, Bayard was sent into Italy with Admiral Bonnivet, who, being defeated at Robecco and wounded in a combat during his retreat, implored Bayard to assume command and save the army. He repulsed the foremost pursuers, but in guarding the rear at the passage of the river Sesia, was mortally wounded by an arquebus ball (April 30, 1524). He died in the midst of the enemy, attended by Pescara, the Spanish commander, and by his old comrade, Charles, duc de Bourbon, who was now fighting on the opposite side. Charles is reported to have said "Ah! Monsieur de Bayard... I am very sad to see you in this state; you who were such a virtuous knight!" Bayard answered,

" "Sir, there is no need to pity me. I die as a man of honour ought, doing my duty; but I pity you, because you are fighting against your king, your country, and your oath."

His body was restored to his friends and interred at Saint-Martind'Hères. In 1822, his remains were finally buried in the collegiate church Saint-André of Grenoble.

Legacy

As a soldier, Bayard was considered the epitome of chivalry and one of the most skillful commanders of the age. He was noted for the exactitude and completeness of his information on the enemy's movements, which he obtained by careful reconnaissance and a well-arranged system of espionage. In the long history of mounted warfare, he rates highly as one of the greatest cavalry leaders of all time.

In the midst of mercenary armies, Bayard remained absolutely disinterested, and to his contemporaries and his successors, he was, with his romantic heroism, piety, and magnanimity, the fearless and faultless knight (le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche). His gaiety and kindness won him, even more frequently, another name bestowed by his contemporaries, le bon chevalier.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pierre Terrail, Seigneur de Bayar d



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

ANDREA DORIA



Andrea Doria (or D'Oria) (30 November 1466 – 25 November 1560) was an Italian condottiero and admiral from Genoa.

Wars between France and the Holy Roman Empire

In the meanwhile Genoa had been recaptured by the French, and in 1522 by the armies of the Holy Roman Emperor.

But Doria joined the French or popular faction and entered the service of King Francis I of France, who made him captaingeneral; in 1524 he relieved Marseille, which was besieged by the Imperialists, and later helped to place his native city once more under French domination.

Dissatisfied with his treatment at the hands of Francis, who was mean about payment, he resented the king's behavior in connection with Savona, which he delayed handing back to the Genoese as he had promised.

Consequently, on the expiration of Doria's contract he entered the service of Emperor Charles V (1528).

Re-establishment of the Genoese Republic

Doria ordered his nephew Filippino, who was then blockading Naples in alliance with a French army, to withdraw; Doria then sailed for Genoa where, with the help of some leading citizens, he expelled the French and re-established the republic under imperial protection.

He reformed the constitution in an aristocratic sense, most of the nobility being Imperialists, and put an end to the factions which divided the city, by creating 28 Alberghi or "clans". The 28 Alberghi that formed this new ruling class included the Cybo, Doria, Fieschi, Giustiniani, Grimaldi, Imperiale, Pallavicino, and Spinola families.

He refused offers to take the lordship of Genoa and even the dogeship, but accepted the position of "perpetual censor", and exercised predominant influence in the councils of the republic until his death. The title "censor" in this context was modeled on its meaning in the Roman Republic, i.e., a highly respected senior public official (see Roman censor), rather than its modern meaning having to do with censorship. He was given two palaces, many privileges, and the title of Liberator et Pater Patriae (Liberator and Father of his Country).

Doria as imperial admiral

As imperial admiral he commanded several expeditions against the Ottoman Empire, capturing Koroni and Patras, and cooperating with the emperor himself in the capture of Tunis (1535). Charles found him an invaluable ally in the wars with Francis I, and through him extended his domination over the whole of Italy.

In February 1538, Pope Paul III succeeded in assembling a Holy League (comprising the Papacy, Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, the Republic of Venice and the Maltese Knights) against the Ottomans, but Hayreddin Barbarossa defeated its combined fleet, commanded by Andrea Doria, at the Battle of Preveza in September 1538. This victory secured Turkish dominance over the Mediterranean for the next 33 years, until the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

He accompanied Charles V on the ill-fated Algiers expedition of 1541, of which he disapproved, and which ended in disaster. For the next five years he continued to serve the emperor in various wars, in which he was generally successful and always active, although now over seventy years old.

Later years

After the Peace of Crépy between Francis and Charles in 1544, Doria hoped to end his days in quiet. However, his great wealth and power, as well as the arrogance of his nephew and heir Giannettino Doria, had made him many enemies, and in 1547 the Fieschi conspiracy to dislodge his family from power took place. Giannettino was killed, but the conspirators were defeated, and Doria showed great vindictiveness in punishing them, seizing many of their fiefs for himself. He was also implicated in the murder of Pier Luigi Farnese, duke of Parma and Piacenza, who had helped Fieschi.

Other conspiracies followed, of which the most important was that of Giulio Cybo (1548), but all failed. Although Doria was ambitious and harsh, he was a patriot and successfully opposed Emperor Charles's repeated attempts to have a citadel built in Genoa and garrisoned by Spaniards; neither blandishments nor threats could win him over to the scheme.

Nor did age lessen his energy, for in 1550, aged 84, he again put to sea to confront the Barbary pirates, but with no great success. In 1552 the Ottoman fleet under the command of Turgut Reis defeated the Spanish-Italian fleet of Charles V under the command of Andrea Doria in the Battle of Ponza (1552). War between France and the Empire having broken out once more, the French seized Corsica in the Invasion of Corsica (1553), then administered by the Genoese Bank of St George. Doria was again summoned, and he spent two years (1553–1555) on the island fighting the French with varying fortune.

He returned to Genoa for good in 1555, and being very old and infirm, he gave over the command of the galleys to his greatnephew Giovanni Andrea Doria, the son of Giannettino Doria, who conducted an expedition against Tripoli, but proved even more unsuccessful than his great-uncle had been at Algiers, barely escaping with his life after losing the Battle of Djerba against the Turkish fleet of Piyale Pasha and Turgut Reis. Andrea Doria left his estates to Giovanni Andrea. The family of Doria-Pamphili-Landi is descended from Giovanni Andrea Doria and bears his title of Prince of Melfi. Judged by the standards of his day, Doria was an outstanding leader.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Andrea_Doria

France (1526-27) and Spain (1528-29)

FRANCIS, DUKE OF GUISE



Born at Bar-le-Duc (Lorraine), Guise was the son of Claude, Duke of Guise (created Duke of Guise in 1527), and his wife Antoinette de Bourbon. His sister, Mary of Guise, was the wife of James V of Scotland and mother of Mary, Queen of Scots. His younger brother was Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine. He was the youthful cousin of Henry II of France, with whom he was raised and by birth a prominent individual in France, though his detractors emphasised his "foreign" origin, namely the Duchy of Lorraine.

In 1545, he was seriously wounded at the Second Siege of Boulogne, but recovered. In 1548 he was magnificently wedded to Anna d'Este, daughter of the duke of Ferrara, Ercole II d'Este and French princess, Renée, the daughter of Louis XII.

Military career



An engraving of the Duke of Guise

In 1551, he was created Grand Chamberlain of France. He won international renown in 1552 when he successfully defended the city of Metz from the forces of Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor, and defeated the imperial troops again at the Battle of Renty in 1554, but the Truce of Vaucelles temporarily curtailed his military activity.

He led an army into Italy in 1557 to aid Pope Paul IV (and probably to further his family's pretensions to the Angevin inheritance), but was recalled to France and made Lieutenant-General of France after the defeat of the Constable de Montmorency at the Battle of St. Quentin. Taking the field, he captured Calais from the English on 7 January 1558— an enormous propaganda victory for France— then Thionville and Arlon that summer, and was preparing to advance into Luxembourg when the Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis was signed. Throughout the reign of Henry II Guise was the premier military figure of France, courteous, affable and frank, and universally popular, the "grand duc de Guise" as his contemporary Brantôme called him.

The accession of Francis's niece Mary, Queen of Scots, and her husband, Francis II of France (10 July 1559), however, was a triumph for the Guise family, and the Grand Master of France Montmorency was disgraced and sent from court. The Duke of Guise and his brother, Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine were supreme in the royal council. "My advice", he would say, "is soand-so; we must act thus." Occasionally he signed public acts in the royal manner, with his baptismal name only.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francis, Duke_of_Guise



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

GIAN GIACOMO TRIVULZIO



Gian Giacomo Trivulzio (1440 or 1441 – December 5, 1518) was an Italian aristocrat and condottiero who held several military commands during the Italian Wars.

Trivulzio was born in Milan, where he studied, among the others, with Galeazzo Maria Sforza. In 1465 he followed the latter's army in France to help King Louis XI. He also took part in the Milanese campaigns against Bartolomeo Colleoni and fought alongside Federico III da Montefeltro in the wars in Romagna.

In 1478 he supported the Florentines against Pope Sixtus IV's expansionism. Two years later he acquired the castle of Mesocco. In 1483 he abandoned Ludovico Sforza and switched his allegiance to Charles VIII of France. In 1484 he defeated the Venetians army at Martinengo.

In 1488 he married Beatrice d'Avalos, after his first wife (Margherita Colleoni) had died. In June of the same year he moved to southern Italy, at the service of the Kingdom of Naples and its ruler Ferdinand of Aragon. As Isabella of Aragon had married the young Gian Galeazzo Visconti, heir of the family who had held Milan before the Sforzas, Ludovico asked Charles VIII of France to invade Naples. Charles swept away any resistance in Italy and soon forced the Neapolitans to sign a treaty of peace; the latter was dealt by Trivulzio, who in the meantime had been named commander-in-chief of the Neapolitan army. Impressed by Trivulzio's capabilities, Charles decided to engage him, with Ferdinand's permission, for a wage of 10,000 ducats a year.

Trivulzio then followed Charles' army in its return to France, and fought in the victorious battle of Fornovo (1495) against the Italian league. On June 15, 1495 he was appointed governor of Asti and was given noble titles and territories in France. After Charles' death, his successor Louis XII mustered a large army under Trivulzio to conquer the Duchy of Milan. After the latter's defeat, Trivulzio was in fact created governor of Milan and, on September 29, 1499, Marshal of France.

He also took part in the victorious Battle of Agnadello against the Republic of Venice, and commanded contingents of the French army at Novara and (this time allied with the Venetians against the Swiss) Marignano. In 1516 he successfully defended Milan from the assault of Emperor Maximilian I.

However, voices about his behaviour as governor had him fall in disgrace soon afterwards. He moved to France to support his position with King Francis I of France, but in vain. He died at Arpajon (France) in 1518.

His nephew Teodoro Trivulzio was also a military commander under France, who was shortly governor of Milan, Genoa and Lyon.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gian_Giacomo_Trivulzio



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

GASTON OF FOIX



Gaston de Foix was born on 10 December 1489 in Mazères, County of Foix. He was a son of John of Foix, Viscount of Narbonne and Marie d'Orléans. His paternal grandparents were Gaston IV of Foix-Grailly and Queen regnant Eleanor of Navarre. His maternal grandparents were Charles, Duke of Orléans and Marie of Cleves. His only maternal uncle was Louis XII of France.

Gaston's campaigns

In 1511, Gaston arrived in Italy as a new commander at the age of 21. His presence and energy shifted the conflict into much higher levels of activity.

French forces had captured Bologna on 13 May 1511 and were under siege from a combined Papal-Spanish army commanded by Ramón de Cardona, the Viceroy of Naples. Gaston marched his army to Bologna and scattered the armies of the Holy League. He then went north and defeated the Venetians at Brescia, which the French later captured (February 1512) after a furious assault.

Gaston had established firm control over northern Italy by March 1512. He then force marched his troops south, intending to besiege Ravenna and dupe the Spanish into battle. Cardona led the Papal-Spanish forces cautiously near the French lines in order to form a strong defensive position. Gaston had about 23,000 soldiers, 8,500 of which were German landsknechte, and 54 artillery pieces. Cardona had roughly 16,000 troops and 30 artillery pieces; the garrison of Ravenna could count about 5,000 men. Gaston sent a formal invitation for battle to Cardona, who readily accepted.

The decisive Battle of Ravenna would be fought on 11 April 1512. The Spanish had their backs to the Ronco River and maintained a relatively secure front thanks to the strong entrenchments and obstacles prepared by the famous engineer Pedro Navarro. Gaston left 2,000 men to watch Ravenna and moved the rest of his force against Cardona. The French army crossed the stream between Ravenna and the Spanish camp

without interference, formed in a semicircle around the enemy entrenchments, and started firing from the flanks into the Spanish position. The heavy bombardment did not trouble the well-protected Spanish infantry, but the cavalry could take no more and assaulted the French without orders. These charges were easily beaten back and the French counter-attacked. A bloody one-hour struggle ensued between the landsknechts and the Spanish in the entrenchments. At this moment, two cannons that Gaston had sent behind the Spanish lines opened fire and wrought havoc on the enemy rear. The Spanish withdrew and suffered tremendous casualties. During the pursuit, Gaston led a cavalry charge against a recalcitrant Spanish infantry unit. He was shot and killed. French casualties ran up to 9,000 while the Spanish lost nearly their entire army, as well as Pedro Navarro, who was captured.

The death of Gaston de Foix was a huge blow to the French. The young and impetuous warrior had displayed an incredible talent for high command in the recent series of French victories. It is possible that the Italian Wars would have taken a very different course had he lived.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaston_de_Foix,_Duc_de_Nemours



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

KINGDOMS OF SPAIN

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 35% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General	-	-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". May ride a horse (AV3). General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		C	CAVAL	RY	* Tall					
GENTE D'A	RMAS									
	CA		KA	Мо	Pts	F				
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R				
May take par	Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) Special Rules: <i>Drilled, Shock Charge</i> +2									
GENITORS										
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F				
Horseman	3	3	3	7	20	L				
Equipment: May have sh	Hand v						d			
Equipment:	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free), light) and light	armor (- ght cross	+2), thru sbow (+	isting sp		d			
Equipment: May have sh throwing spe	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free s: May	2), light) and lig <i>Skirmi</i> :	armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr	+2), thru sbow (+ 1 Flight	isting sj 2)	pear instea	ıd			
Equipment: May have sh throwing spe Special Rule LANCER	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free s: May CA	2), light) and lig <i>Skirmi</i> : SA	armor (- ght cross sh, Feign KA	+2), thru sbow (+ <i>i Flight</i> Mo	isting sj 2) Pts	pear instea F	ıd			
Equipment: May have sh throwing spe Special Rule	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free s: May	2), light) and lig <i>Skirmi</i> :	armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr	+2), thru sbow (+ 1 Flight	isting sj 2)	pear instea	ıd			
Equipment: May have sh throwing spe Special Rule LANCER	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free s: <i>May</i> CA 3 Hand v tial or f ge thrus s: <i>Shoc</i>	 b), light c), light c) and light c) Skirmin c) SA <lic) li="" sa<=""> c) SA c) SA c) SA c) SA<td>armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr KA 3 thrustin e armou ear for la</td><td>+2), thru sbow (+ <i>n Flight</i> Mo 7 ng spear, r (+2/+3</td><td>Pts 20 , heavy 3)</td><td>pear instea F L</td><td>ıd</td></lic)>	armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr KA 3 thrustin e armou ear for la	+2), thru sbow (+ <i>n Flight</i> Mo 7 ng spear, r (+2/+3	Pts 20 , heavy 3)	pear instea F L	ıd			
Equipment: May have sh throwing spe Special Rule LANCER Horseman Equipment: May take pan May exchang Special Rule	Hand v ield (+2 ar (free s: <i>May</i> CA 3 Hand v tial or f ge thrus s: <i>Shoc</i>	 b), light c), light c) and light c) Skirmin c) SA <lic) li="" sa<=""> c) SA c) SA c) SA c) SA<td>armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr KA 3 thrustin e armou ear for la</td><td>+2), thru sbow (+ <i>n Flight</i> Mo 7 ng spear, r (+2/+3</td><td>Pts 20 , heavy 3)</td><td>pear instea F L</td><td>ıd</td></lic)>	armor (- ght cross sh, Feigr KA 3 thrustin e armou ear for la	+2), thru sbow (+ <i>n Flight</i> Mo 7 ng spear, r (+2/+3	Pts 20 , heavy 3)	pear instea F L	ıd			

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus, light armor May have heavy armor (+2) or partial plate (+3)

INFANTRY

0-1 ALBARDEROS										
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Halberdier	4	3	3	8	14	R				

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd, light armor May have heavy armour (+2). May have *Ditches* (+60) **Special Rules:** *Drilled*

PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	6	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have heavy armor (+3). Only after 1508AD: Have Mo7 (+1). May have *Ditches* (+60) **Special Rules:** *Spanish Ordonnance*, Only from 1503AD

ESCOPETERO

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	L	

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. May have light (+1) or heavy (+3) armor. May have *Ditches* (+60) **Special Rules:** *Spanish Ordonnance*, Only from 1503AD

RODELEROS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armor, buckler May have heavy armour (+2) and may be *Drilled* (+2) May have *Ditches* (+60)

0-4 FIELD GUNS

0-4 WAR WAGONS Special Rules: Only in 1512AD

		MER	CENA	RIES						
BURGUNDIAN LANCES										
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F				
Gendarme	4	3	3	8	29	R				
Archer	3	3	3	7	19	R				
Equipment: F Gendarmes ma or full plate and Archers have t Up to half can Special Rules	ay have mour (4 hrustin be Arc	cloth (-2/+3) g spear hers pla	+4) or p instead	of lanc the rear	6) bardi e. rank.					
NEAPOLITA	N ME	N-AT-A	ARMS							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R				
Equipment: F May have clot May take parti Special Rules	h (+4) o al or fu	or plate ll plate	(+6 bai armour	rding. (+2/+3						

ALLIES

Holy Roman Empire Allies

of

GONZALO FERNÁNDEZ DE CÓRDOBA



Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba also known as The Great Captain (or Gran Capitán in Spanish), Duke of Terranova and Santangelo, Andria, Montalto and Sessa, or simply Gonzalo de Córdoba, Italian: Gonsalvo or Consalvo Ernandes di Cordova (September 1, 1453 – December 2, 1515) was a Spanish general fighting in the times of the Conquest of Granada and the Italian Wars. He reorganized the emerging Spanish army and its tactics and came to be known as "the Father of Trench Warfare". He was admired by the generation of conquistadors that followed and many influential men fought under him such as the father of Francisco Pizarro.

Gonzalo de Córdoba was an important military commander during the Italian Wars. He held command in Italy twice and won the title of the Great Captain.

First Italian War

The Italian Wars began when Charles VIII of France marched to Italy with 40,000 men to make make good an Angevin dynastic claim to the Neapolitan throne. When, in 1495, the Catholic Monarchs decided to support King Ferrandino against Charles VIII of France, Gonzalo, then in his mid-forties, was chosen by the Queen's preferment to command the Spanish expedition of a little more than five thousand men.

Ordered to pit his light infantry and cavalry against the heavy French forces, his first major battle in Italy, at Seminara in 1495, ended in defeat at the hands of Bernard Stewart d'Aubigny. The following year, he captured the rebel county of Alvito for the King and avoiding a major pitched battle, used his highly mobile forces to drive the French back to Calabria.

During his first command he was mostly employed in Calabria in mountain warfare which bore much resemblance to his former experience in Granada. There was, however, a material difference in the enemy. The French forces under d'Aubigny consisted largely of Swiss mercenary pikemen, and of their own men-at-arms, the heavily armoured professional cavalry, the gendarmes. With his veterans of the Granadine war, foot soldiers armed with sword and buckler, or arquebuses and crossbows,

and light cavalry, who possessed endurance unparalleled among the soldiers of the time, he could carry on a guerrilla-like warfare which wore down his opponents, who suffered far more than the Spaniards from the heat.

His experience at Seminara showed him that something more was wanted on the battlefield. The action was lost mainly because Ferdinand, disregarding the advice of Gonzalo, persisted in fighting a pitched battle with their more lightly equipped troops. In the open field, the loose formation and short swords of the Spanish infantry put them at a disadvantage against a charge of heavy cavalry and pikemen. Gonzalo therefore introduced a closer formation, and divided the Spanish infantry into the battle or main central body of pikemen, and the wings of shot, called a colunella - the original pike and shot formation.

The French were expelled by 1498 without another battle and he returned home.



Italy political map around 1494 when king Frederick IV of Naples took power as the second inheriting son of Royal bastard king Ferdinand I of Naples.

Second Italian War

When the Great Captain reappeared in Italy he had first to perform the congenial task of driving the Turks out of Kefalonia, together with such condottieri as Pedro Navarro, helping the Venetian navy to reconquer the Castle of Saint Georges, 25 December 1500, killing there over 300 people including the Albanian born leader of the garrison Gisdar, to aid in the campaign against Frederick IV of Naples.

Córdoba was again on Italian soil in 1501. Ferdinand II of Aragón had entered into his apparently iniquitous compact with Louis XII of France for the spoliation and division of the kingdom of Naples: The Secret Treaty of Granada. Córdoba was chosen to command the Spanish part of the coalition.

THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD



El Gran Capitán

After Ferrandino of Naples had abdicated, the French and Spaniards engaged in a guerilla war while they negotiated the partition of the kingdom. The Great Captain now found himself with a much outnumbered army besieged in Barletta by the French. The war was divided into two phases very similar to one another. During the end of 1502 and the early part of 1503 the Spaniards were besieged in Barletta near the Ofanto on the shores of the Adriatic. Córdoba resolutely refused to be tempted into battle either by the taunts of the French or the discontent of his own soldiers. Meanwhile he employed the Aragonese partisans in the country, and flying expeditions of his own men, to harass the enemy's communications and distracted his men with a tournament between Italian knights under Ettore Fieramosca and French prisoners.

When he was reinforced, and the French committed the mistake of spreading out their forces to forage for supplies, he took the offensive and pounced on his enemies' supply depot in the Cerignola. There he took up a strong defensive position (he was still outnumbered three to one), threw up hasty field works and strengthened them with wired entanglements. The French made a headlong front attack, were repulsed, assailed in the flank, and routed in only half an hour by the combination of firepower and defensive measures. Later operations on the Garigliano against Ludovico II of Saluzzo were very similar, and led to the total expulsion of the French from the Kingdom of Naples.

Later life

Statue of Gonzalo de Córdoba in Madrid (by Manuel Oms, 1883).Córdoba was appointed Viceroy of Naples in 1504. Córdoba's aroused the jealousy of Ferdinand II of Aragn and he incited condemnations for corruption with his profligate spending of the public treasury to reward his captains and soldiers. The death of Queen Isabel I of Castile in 1504 deprived him of a friend and protector. He was recalled in 1507. Ferdinand lauded him with titles and fine words, but left him unemployed till his death.

Legacy

Córdoba was first among the founders of modern warfare. As a field commander, Córdoba, like Napoleon three centuries later, saw his goal in the destruction of the enemy army. He systematically organized the pursuit of defeated armies after a victory in order to destroy the retreating enemy. Córdoba helped found the first modern standing army and the nearly invincible Spanish infantry that dominated the battlefields of Europe for most of the 16th and 17th centuries.

The best generals of Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor and Philip II of Spain were either the pupils of the Great Captain or were trained by them.

Córdoba's influence upon military tactics was profound. Wellington's Torres Vedras campaign has a distinct resemblance to Córdoba's campaign at Barletta and the Battle of Assaye is easily compared with that at Garigliano.

It is noted that Córdoba directed the first battle in history won by gunpowder small arms in the battle of Cerignola. Additionally at the end of the same battle of Cerignola occur for the first time a "call to prayer" (toque de oracion) adopted later for all western armies, when the Great Captain seeing the fields full of French bodies (Christian like the Spaniards) ordered to play three long tones and had his troops pray for all the fallen.

He left no sons, so he was succeeded in his dukedoms by his daughter, Elvira Fernández de Córdoba y Manrique.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gonzalo_Fern%C3%A1ndez_de_C %C3%B3rdoba



ALFONSO D'AVALOS



Alfonso d'Avalos d'Aquino, 4th Marchese di Pescara e del Vasto (1502 - March 31, 1546) was a condottiero of Spanish-Italian origin.

He was born in Ischia, the nephew of Francesco Ferdinando I d'Ávalos, inheriting his uncle titles after 1525, fighting the French and the Venetians by his side. During the period 1526 -1528, he fought under Hugo of Moncada, being captured in 1528 by the Genoese admiral Andrea Doria.

In July 1535 he was part of the naval troops reconquering the city of Tunis in North Africa. The failure on the third war against France trying to invade Provence, and the death of the first Governor of the Duchy of Milan, Antonio de Leyva, prompted him, in 1538, to accept the nomination as governor, replacing Marino Caracciolo, the second governor, becoming some sort of protector of literary and musical people. Wars with French and North Italians ended for a while with the Treaty of Crespy (1544). He also became a Knight in the Order of the Golden Fleece.

Having fought at the Battle of Pavia, he later represented Spain as Ambassador, in 1538, on the succession to the new Doge of the Republic of Venice, Pietro Lando.

He commanded the Imperial army in Italy during the Italian War of 1542 and was defeated by the French at the Battle of Ceresole. However, in the Battle of Serravalle, June 2, 1544, an aftermath of the Italian War of 1542, he managed to defeat a force of freshly raised Italian mercenaries in French service, commanded by Pietro Strozzi and Giovanni Francesco Orsini, Count of Pitigliano.

He married in 1523 with Maria d'Aragona and had 5 children including

Innico d'Avalos d'Aragona, (1536-1600), an Italian Cardinal. Francesco Ferdinando d'Ávalos (1537-1571), commander in chief of the Spanish army in Lombardy and Piedmont.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfonso_d%27Avalos,_Marquess_d el_Vasto



HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 50% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts		
Army General	1	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY									
BURGUNDL	AN LAI CA	NCES SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F			
Gendarme	4	3	3	8	29	R			
Archer	3	3	3	7	19	R			

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, lance Gendarmes may have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding and partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Archers have thrusting spear instead of lance.

Up to half can be Archers placed in the rear rank.

Special Rules: Combined Formation,, Shock Charge +1

0-1	IMPER	IAL MEN	-AT-ARMS
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	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	8	26	R
Dismounted	4	3	3	8	14	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, partial plate armour, lance May have plate barding (+6)

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Special Rules: Drilled if dismounted,, Shock Impact +2 if mounted

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	6	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. Light armor (+2) Every second unit may have arquebus instead of light crossbow (+1)

GERMAN CAVALRY

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Reiter	3	3	3	7	20	R
Arquebusier	3	3	3	6	18	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, thrusting spear Reiters may have partial plate armour (+2) and lance instead of thrusting spear (+2)

Mounted arquebusiers have arquebus, light armor, hand weapon and may have heavy armor (+2)

Special Rules: Reiters have Shock Charge +1

INFANTRY

1.0.0	1000	1.1	INFAINI	KI		
GERMAN I	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	2	2	3	5	7	R
Equipment: May have he				ight armo	or	
GERMAN I					Di	
	-		SA K		Pts	F
Crossbowm	en 2	2	2 3	5	7	R
Equipment: May exchan	ge cross	bow fo	or arquel	ous (-1)	armor	
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: May have lig		-	· •	armor.		

M Special Rules: Landsknecht Ordonnance

LANDSKNEC	CHT A	RQUE	BUSIE	RS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Special Rules: Landsknecht Ordonnance

ARQUEBUSI	ERS					
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-6 FIELD OR ORGAN GUNS

LANDSKNE	CHT "	VERL	ORENI	E HAU	FEN"
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts
Halberdier	3	3	3	7	8

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd

May have double handed weapon instead of halberd(+1) Special Rules: Landsknecht Ordonnance, Only before 1507AD

ALLIES

Spanish Allies **English Allies**



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

FRANZ VON SICKINGEN



Franz von Sickingen (2 March 1481 – 7 May 1523) was a German knight, one of the most notable figures of the first period of the Reformation.

He was born at Ebernburg (now Bad Münster am Stein-Ebernburg) near Bad Kreuznach. Having fought for the emperor Maximilian I against Venice in 1508, he inherited large estates on the Rhine, and increased his wealth and reputation by devious methods. In 1513 he took up the quarrel of Balthasar Schlör, a citizen who had been driven out of Worms, and attacked this city with 7000 men. In spite of the imperial ban, he devastated its lands, intercepted its commerce, and desisted only when his demands were granted. He made war on Antoine, Duke of Lorraine, and compelled Philip I, Landgrave of Hesse, to pay him 35,000 gulden. In 1518 he interfered in a civil conflict in Metz, ostensibly siding with the citizens against the governing oligarchy. He led an army of 20,000 against the city, compelled the magistrates to give him 20,000 gold gulden and a month's pay for his troops. In 1518 Maximilian released him from the ban, and he took part in the war carried on by the Swabian League against Ulrich, Duke of Württemberg.

In the contest for the imperial throne upon the death of Maximilian in 1519, Sickingen accepted bribes from King Francis I of France, but when the election took place he led his troops to Frankfurt, where their presence assisted to secure the election of Charles V. For this service he was made imperial chamberlain and councillor, and in 1521 he led an expedition into France, which ravaged Picardy, but was beaten back from Mézières and forced to retreat.

In about 1517 Sickingen became intimate with Ulrich von Hutten, and gave his support to Hutten's schemes. In 1519 a threat from him freed Johann Reuchlin from his enemies, the Dominicans, and his castles became (in Hutten's words) a refuge for righteousness. Here many of the reformers found shelter, and a retreat was offered to Martin Luther.

After the failure of the French expedition, Sickingen, aided by Hutten, formed, or revived, a large scheme to overthrow the spiritual princes and to elevate the order of knighthood, the Knights' Revolt. He hoped to secure this by the help of the towns and peasantry. A large army was soon collected, many nobles from the upper Rhineland joined the standard, and at Landau, in August 1522, Sickingen was formally named commander. He declared war against his old enemy, Richard Greiffenklau of Vollraths, archbishop of Trier, and marched against that city. Trier was loyal to the archbishop, and the landgrave of Hesse and Louis V, count palatine of the Rhine, hastened to his assistance. Sickingen, without the help he needed, was compelled to fall back on his castle, Burg Nanstein at Landstuhl, collecting much booty on the way.

On 22 October 1522 the council of regency placed him under the ban, to which he replied, in the spring of 1523, by plundering Kaiserslautern. The Archbishop Richard of Trier, Philip I, Landgrave of Hesse, and Louis V, Elector Palatine decided to move against him, and having obtained help from the Swabian League, marched on Burg Nanstein. Sickingen refused to negotiate, and during the siege was seriously wounded. This attack was one of the first occasions on which artillery was used, and breaches were soon made in an otherwise impregnable fortress. On May 6 1523 Sickingen was forced to capitulate, and on the following day he died. He was buried at Landstuhl, and in 1889 a splendid monument was raised at Ebernburg to his memory and to that of Hutten.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Franz_von_Sickingen



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

GEORG FRUNDSBERG



Georgius a fruntsperg imperfatorum decretts exercitus germanici dun preimat y ucinas aures detectionne accuencemum composite fra lionadat et recicionem transpisionami tradar undei formore reliais pridomum traditi eventas vicione accusifi exercitumede ad loca iniqua declasum composite que et que libriante vicione acpus municipatica estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave providente estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave unitat estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave unitat estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave unitat estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave estave unitat estave unitat estave es

Georg von Frundsberg (24 September 1473 – 20 August 1528) was a South German knight and Landsknecht leader in the service of the Imperial Habsburg dynasty of the Holy Roman Empire.

Frundsberg was born to Ulrich von Frundsberg and his wife Barbara von Rechberg at Mindelheim, into an old line of Tyrolean knights who had settled in Upper Swabia.

He fought for the Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I against the Swiss in the Swabian War of 1499, and in the same year was among the Imperial troops sent to assist Ludovico Sforza, Duke of Milan, against the French. Still serving Maximilian, he took part in 1504 in the war over the succession to the duchy of Bavaria-Landshut, fighting against the Pfalz-Counts Philipp and Ruprecht. He distinguished himself during the Battle of Regensburg. Maximilian I personally bestowed knighthood on him. Later, he also fought in the Netherlands.

Convinced of the necessity of a native body of trained infantry, Frundsberg assisted Maximilian in the organization of the Landsknechts. One year later, he became the commander of the Landsknechts in the low countries. Thereafter, Frundsberg lived an uninterrupted life of war, campaigning for the Empire and the Habsburgs. In 1509, Frundsberg became the "Highest Field Captain" of the Landsknecht Regiment (occupation force) and participated in the war against Venice, winning fame for himself and his men after defending the city of Verona against numerous attacks. In 1512 he was, together with Jakob von Ems, leading the Imperial contingent sent to aid Gaston de Foix to retake Brescia.

After a short visit to Germany, he returned to the Italian peninsula, where between 1513 and 1514 he gained fresh laurels by his enterprises against the Venetians and the French. He was heading the Landsknechts at the side of Fernando d'Avalos at the Battle of La Motta. Peace being made, he returned to Germany, and at the head of the infantry of the Swabian League assisted in driving Ulrich, Duke of Württemberg, from his duchy in 1519.

At the Diet of Worms in 1521, he spoke words of encouragement to Martin Luther, and during the Italian War of 1521-1526, Frundsberg helped lead the Imperial Army into Picardy. When King Francis I of France appeared on the battlefield with a force of approximately 40,000 men, the clever withdrawal of Emperor Charles V's army saved its existence. Frundsberg considered the withdrawal on Valenciennes as "the greatest luck and most appropriate measure during war."

After the French campaign in 1522 ended and Frundsberg resigned from the leadership of the Landesknechts, he returned to lead the march of 6,000 men on upper Italy. A difficult alpine crossing through deep snow led to the Battle of Bicocca near Milan in April. Swiss nationals on foot fought alongside Frundsberg, who led and fought from the front. The emperor's victory at Bicocca allowed the return of the old Kingdom's Parliamentary Cabinet Lands of Genoa and Milan and brought the greater part of Lombardy under the influence of Charles V.

In 1525, after a brief stop in Mindelheim as the "Highest Field Captain" of the entire German Nation (with a force consisting of 12,000 men and twenty-nine flag bearers), Frundsberg moved again towards upper Italy to relieve Pavia and to save the Empire's Duchy of Milan. Despite an additional 6,000 men, of whom some were Spanish, in battle against an enemy that was twice as strong, Frundsberg won his most famous victory at Pavia, with the capture of the French king.

Only one year later, when the war in Italy was renewed in 1526, Frundsberg received a call for help from the Emperor's Army in Lombardy, to help decide the war. Albeit an insufficient amount, he obtained 36,000 German Thaler to organize the new army. During his occupation of Mindelheim, Frundsberg borrowed money and sold off his silver table settings and his wife's jewelry, in order to acquire the remaining funds to raise the army. In less than three weeks, Frundsberg organized over 12,000 men and crossed the Alps during the middle of November. He joined the Constable de Bourbon near Piacenza and marched towards Rome. However, order and discipline broke down near Modena on 13 March 1527, when no decisive battle developed after months of campaigning in Italy. Payment for the mercenaries remained overdue and, in the end, even Frundsberg was unable to rally the Landsknechts and restore order. The matter shook the old commander to such an extent that he suffered a stroke. Unable to regain his physical strength, Frundsberg was moved to Germany after a long struggle in Italian hospitals. Tormented by great anxiety over the situation with his mercenaries or "beloved sons", the loss of his personal estate and death of one of his sons, Frundsberg died in his castle in Mindelheim. He was considered a capable and chivalrous soldier, and a devoted servant of the Habsburgs.

His son Caspar (1500–1536) and his grandson Georg (died 1586) were both soldiers of some distinction. With the latter's death, the family became extinct.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Georg_Frundsberg



EMPIRE OF CHARLES V

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% **INFANTRY:** At least 50% **MERCENARIES:** Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

	CI	IARA	CTERS				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". May ride a horse (AV3). General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		C	AVAL	RY	a air	1.66					
SPANISH G				М.	D4-	F					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F					
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R					
Emineratio	Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance										
May take par											
Special Rule											
Special Rule	s. Druc	<i>a</i> , <i>sno</i>	ck Chui	ge 12 (Julige						
BURGUNDI	AN ME	N-AT-	ARMS								
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F					
Horseman	4	3	3	7	24	R					
Equipment:	Hand we	eapon.	heavy a	rmour.	shield, l	ance					
May have clo		. .	-								
May take par	tial or fu	Il plate	armou	r (+2/+3	5)						
Special Rule	s: Shock	Charg	e + 1								
GERMAN M			IS								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F					
Horseman	4	3	3	7	24	R					
Dismounted	4	3	3	7	14	R					
Equipment:					lance						
May have clo		-		0							
May take par											
Dismounted -		ke halb	erd (+2)) or dou	ble-han	ded wea	apon				
(+3) no lance			C 12								
Up to half ma (-6 mounted/-							spear				
Special Rule											
dismounted	s. Shock	. Churg	e +1 II	mounte	u, Driit	eu n					
uismounted											
ITALIAN E	LMETI										
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F					
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R					
	-				1						
Equipment:	Hand w	eapon.	heavy a	rmour.	lance						
May take par											
May have shi						arding					

May have shield (+2) and cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

SPANISH GINETES

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	20	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, throwing spear, javelins May have light armour (+2) and shield (+2) Special Rules: May Skirmish, Feign Flight, Only before

1534AD						
ITALIAN H	IORSE	ARQUI	BUSIEI	RS		
	CA		KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L
Equipment:				is.		
Special Rule	es: Only	from 1:	503AD			
GERMAN N	MOUNT	ED CH	ROSSB	OWME	EN	
Horseman	CA 3	SA 3	KA 3	Mo 7	Pts 16	F
Horseman	3	3	3	/	10	S
Equipment:						
Special Rule	es: Only	before	1534AI)		
HERGULE						
Horseman	CA 3	SA 3	KA 3	Мо 7	Pts 16	F S
norseman	5	3	3	'	10	3
Equipment:						
Special Rule	es: Feign	Flight	, Only a	fter 153	34AD	
GERMAN I						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	19	L
Equipment: Special Rule						
		IN	FANT	RY		
UNDECIM	ENTED	ADOL	FDUG		MDAN	ITES
UNREGIM	ENTED CA	ARQU SA			OMPAN Pts	NIES F
UNREGIMI Arquebusier	CA					
Arquebusie	CA r 2	SA 3	KA 3	Mo 6	Pts	F
	CA r 2	SA 3	KA 3	Mo 6	Pts	F
Arquebusie	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP	SA 3 eapon, ANISH	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH	Mo 6 15. KETEE	Pts 7 CRS	F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH	CA r 2 Hand w	SA 3 eapon,	KA 3 arquebu	Mo 6 15.	Pts 7	F S F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3	Mo 6 IS. KETEE Mo 7	Pts 7 CRS Pts	F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3	Mo 6 IS. KETEE Mo 7	Pts 7 CRS Pts	F S F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon,	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket.	Mo 6 IS. KETEE Mo 7	Pts 7 CRS Pts	F S F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment:	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon,	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket.	Mo 6 IS. KETEE Mo 7	Pts 7 CRS Pts	F S F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment:	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket.	Mo 6 IS. KETEE Mo 7	Pts 7 CRS Pts 8	F S F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: "INDIFFER	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3	Mo 6 IIS. KETEEE Mo 7 7 DT Mo 5	Pts 7 CRS Pts 8 Pts 3	F S F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: "INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Rule	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w 2 Hand w cs: Undis	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALLA SA 2 eapon scipline	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3	Mo 6 IIS. KETEEE Mo 7 7 DT Mo 5	Pts 7 CRS Pts 8 Pts 3	F S F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: "INDIFFER Levy Equipment:	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w 2 Hand w cs: Undis	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALLA SA 2 eapon scipline	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3	Mo 6 IIS. KETEEE Mo 7 7 DT Mo 5	Pts 7 CRS Pts 8 Pts 3	F S F S
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Rule	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w ss: Undis	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALLA SA 2 eapon scipline EN	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unma	Mo 6 IS. XETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5	Pts 7 CRS Pts 8 Pts 3	F S F R
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFEF Levy Equipment: Special Ruke SPANISH I	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w s: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALLA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unma KA 3	Mo 6 IS. ETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5 otivatea Mo	Pts 7 2RS Pts 8 Pts 3 2 2 2 2	F S F R F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFEF Levy Equipment: Special Ruk SPANISH 1 Pikeman Equipment:	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon,	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unma KA 3 pike.	Mo 6 IS. ETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5 otivatea Mo	Pts 7 2RS Pts 8 Pts 3 2 2 2 2	F S F R F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Ruk SPANISH I	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undis PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon, our (+3	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unmu KA 3 pike.).	Mo 6 is. KETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5 otivatea Mo 7	Pts 7 2RS Pts 8 Pts 3 2 2 2 2	F S F R F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Rud SPANISH I Pikeman	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w avy arm.	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon, our (+3 sh Ord	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unmu KA 3 pike.). onnance	Mo 6 is. KETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5 otivatea Mo 7	Pts 7 2RS Pts 8 Pts 3 2 2 2 2	F S F R F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: "INDIFFER Levy Equipment: SPANISH I Pikeman Equipment: May have he	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w avy arm.	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon, our (+3 sh Ord	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unmu KA 3 pike.). onnance	Mo 6 is. KETEE Mo 7 OT Mo 5 otivatea Mo 7	Pts 7 2RS Pts 8 Pts 3 2 2 2 2	F S F R F
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Rud SPANISH I Pikeman	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w avy arm s: Spani RQUEL CA	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon, our (+3 ish Ord BUSIE)	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. AN FOO KA 3 d, Unmu KA 3 pike.). onnance RS	Mo 6 is. XETEE Mo 7 DT Mo 5 otivatea Mo 7	Pts 7 Pts 8 Pts 3 Pts 8	F S F R F R
Arquebusier Equipment: SKIRMISH Musketeer Equipment: 'INDIFFER Levy Equipment: Special Ruke SPANISH I Pikeman Equipment: May have he Special Ruke	CA r 2 Hand w ING SP CA 2 Hand w RENT" I CA 2 Hand w es: Undi: PIKEMI CA 3 Hand w avy arm es: Spani RQUEL CA r 2	SA 3 eapon, ANISH SA 3 eapon, TALIA SA 2 eapon scipline EN SA 3 eapon, our (+3 sh Ord BUSIEI SA 3	KA 3 arquebu I MUSH KA 3 musket. 3 d, Unmu KA 3 pike.). onnanco RS KA 3	Mo 6 is. XETEE Mo 7 DT Mo 5 otivatea Mo 7	Pts 7 Pts 8 Pts 3 Pts 8 Pts	F S F R F R F

Special Rules: Spanish Ordonnance

SPANISH COLUNELA FOOT SWORD-AND-BUCKLER MEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler May have heavy armour (+2). May be *Drilled* (+2) **Special Rules:** Only before 1534AD and 0-1 per two spanish pikemen units

MERCENARIES

0-4 FIELD GUNS

LANDSKNI	ECHT	PIKEM	EN			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: May have he Special Rule	avy arm s: <i>Land</i> E CHT A	nour (+3 Isknecht ARQUI	3). t Ordon E BUSII	ERS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	11	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.	
Special Rules: Landsknecht Ordonnance	

ALLIES

Venetian Allies English Allies



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CHARLES V



Charles V (Spanish: Carlos I; Dutch: Karel V; German: Karl V.; Italian: Carlo V; French: Charles V; 24 February 1500, Ghent, Belgium – 21 September 1558, Monastery of Yuste, Spain) was ruler of the Holy Roman Empire from 1519 and, as Charles I, of the Spanish Empire from 1516 until his voluntary retirement and abdication in favor of his younger brother Ferdinand I and his son Philip II in 1556.

Charles was the eldest son of Philip the Handsome and Joanna the Mad. His grandmother was Isabella I of Castile. As the heir of three of Europe's leading dynasties—the House of Habsburg of the Habsburg Monarchy; the House of Valois-Burgundy of the Burgundian Netherlands; and the House of Trastámara of the Crowns of Castile and Aragon—he ruled over extensive domains in Central, Western, and Southern Europe; and the Spanish colonies in the Americas and Asia. As Charles was the first king to rule Castile, León, and Aragon simultaneously in his own right, he became the first King of Spain. In 1519, Charles became Holy Roman Emperor and Archduke of Austria. From that point forward, his empire spanned nearly four million square kilometers across Europe, the Far East, and the Americas.

Much of Charles' reign was devoted to the Italian Wars against France which, although enormously expensive, were militarily successful. Charles' forces re-captured both Milan and Franche-Comté from France after the decisive Habsburg victory at the Battle of Pavia in 1525, which pushed Francis to form the Franco-Ottoman alliance. Charles' rival Suleiman the Magnificent conquered the central part of the Hungarian Kingdom in 1526 after defeating the Christians at the Battle of Mohács. However, the Ottoman advance was halted after they failed to capture Vienna in 1529.

Aside from this, Charles is best known for his role in opposing the Protestant Reformation. Several German princes abandoned the Catholic Church and formed the Schmalkaldic League in order to challenge Charles' authority with military force. Unwilling to allow the same religious wars to come to his other domains, Charles pushed for the convocation of the Council of Trent, which began the Counter-Reformation. The Society of Jesus was established by St. Ignacio de Loyola during Charles' reign in order to peacefully and intellectually combat Protestantism, and continental Spain was spared from religious conflict largely by Charles' nonviolent measures.

In the New World, Spain conquered Mexico and Peru, and extended its control across much of South and Central America. Charles oversaw the Spanish colonization of the Americas. Charles provided 5 ships to Ferdinand Magellan whose voyage the first circumnavigation of the Earth- laid the foundation for the Pacific oceanic empire of Spain and began Spanish colonization of the Philippines.

Though always at war, Charles was a lover of peace. "Not greedy of territory", wrote Marcantonio Contarini in 1536, "but most greedy of peace and quiet." Charles retired in 1556. The Habsburg Monarchy passed to Charles' younger brother Ferdinand, whereas the Spanish Empire was inherited by his son Philip II. The two empires would remain allies until the 18th century.

Heritage and early life

Charles was born in the Flemish city of Ghent in 1500. The culture and courtly life of the Burgundian Low Countries were an important influence in his early life. He was tutored by William de Croÿ (who would later become his first prime minister), and also by Adrian of Utrecht (later Pope Adrian VI). It is said that Charles spoke several vernacular languages: he was fluent in French, Flemish, later adding an acceptable Spanish which was required by the Castilian Cortes Generales as a condition for becoming King of Castile. An anecdote sometimes attributed to Charles is: "I speak Spanish to God, Italian to women, French to men and German to my horse." But this quote has many variants and is often attributed instead to Frederick the Great.



A young Charles V, by Bernard van Orley, Louvre Museum, Paris, France

From his Burgundian ancestors he inherited an ambiguous relationship with the Kings of France. Charles shared with France his mother tongue and many cultural forms. In his youth he made frequent visits to Paris, then the largest city of Western Europe. In his words: "Paris is not a city, but a universe" (Lutetia non urbs, sed orbis). He was betrothed to both Louise and Charlotte of Valois, daughters of King Francis I of France, but they both died in childhood. Charles also inherited the tradition of political and dynastic enmity between the Royal and the Burgundian Ducal lines of the Valois Dynasty.

Though Spain was the core of his possessions, he was never totally assimilated and especially in his earlier years felt as if he were viewed as a foreign prince. He could not speak Spanish very well, as it was not his primary language. Nonetheless, he spent most of his life in Spain, including his final years in a Spanish monastery. Indeed, Charles' motto, Plus Ultra ('Further Beyond'), became the national motto of Spain.

Reign

Burgundy and the Low Countries



Charles V, 1533, by Titian. Museo del Prado, Madrid, Spain

In 1506, Charles inherited his father's Burgundian territories, most notably the Low Countries and Franche-Comté, most of which were fiefs of the German empire, except his birthplace of Flanders which was still a French fief, a last remnant of what had been a powerful player in the Hundred Years' War. As he was a minor, his aunt Margaret of Parma[citation needed] born as Archduchess of Austria acted as regent as appointed by Emperor Maximilian until 1515 and soon she found herself at war with France over the question of Charles' requirement to pay homage to the French king for Flanders, as his father had done. The outcome was that France relinquished its ancient claim on Flanders in 1528.

From 1515 to 1523, Charles' government in the Netherlands also had to contend with the rebellion of Frisian peasants (led by Pier Gerlofs Donia and Wijard Jelckama). The rebels were initially successful but after a series of defeats, the remaining leaders were captured and decapitated in 1523.

Charles extended the Burgundian territory with the annexation of Tournai, Artois, Utrecht, Groningen and Guelders. The Seventeen Provinces had been unified by Charles' Burgundian ancestors, but nominally were fiefs of either France or the Holy Roman Empire. In 1549, Charles issued a Pragmatic Sanction, declaring the Low Countries to be a unified entity of which his family would be the heirs.

The Low Countries held an important place in the Empire. For Charles V personally they were his home, the region where he was born and spent his childhood. Because of trade and industry and the rich cities, they also represented an important income for the treasury.



Emperor Charles V

In the Castilian Cortes of Valladolid of 1506, and of Madrid of 1510 he was sworn as prince of Asturias, heir-apparent of his mother the queen Joanna. On the other hand, in 1502, the Aragonese Cortes gathered in Saragossa, pledged an oath to his mother Joanna as heiress-presumptive, but the Archbishop of Saragossa expressed firmly that this oath could not establish jurisprudence, that is to say, without modifying the right of the succession, but by virtue of a formal agreement between the Cortes and the King. So, with the death of his grandfather, King Ferdinand II of Aragon on 23 January 1516, his mother Joanna inherited the Crown of Aragon, which consisted of Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Naples, Sicily and Sardinia; while Charles became Governor General. Nevertheless, the Flemings wished that Charles assume the royal title[citation needed], and this was supported by his grandfather the emperor Maximilian I and the Pope Leo X. This way, after the celebration of Ferdinand II's obsequies on 14 March 1516, he was proclaimed as king of Castile and of Aragon jointly with his mother. Finally, when the Castilian regent Cardinal Jiménez de Cisneros accepted the fait accompli, he acceded to Charles's desire to be proclaimed king and he imposed his statement throughout the kingdom. Thus, the cities were recognizing Charles as king jointly with his mother.

Charles arrived in his new kingdoms in autumn of 1517. His regent Jiménez de Cisneros came to meet him, but fell ill along

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the way, not without a suspicion of poison, and died before meeting the King.

Due to the irregularity of assuming the royal title, when his mother, the legitimate queen, was alive, the negotiations with the Castilian Cortes in Valladolid (1518) proved difficult,[17] and in the end Charles was accepted under the following conditions: he would learn to speak Castilian; he would not appoint foreigners; he was prohibited from taking precious metals from Castile; and he would respect the rights of his mother, Queen Joanna. The Cortes paid homage to him in Valladolid in February 1518. After this, Charles departed to the kingdom of Aragon. He managed to overcome the resistance of the Aragonese Cortes and Catalan Corts also, and finally he was recognized as king of Aragon jointly with his mother.

Charles was accepted as sovereign, even though the Spanish felt uneasy with the Imperial style. Spanish monarchs until then had been bound by the laws; the monarchy was a contract with the people. With Charles it would become more absolute, even though until his mother's death in 1555 Charles did not hold the full kingship of the country.

Soon resistance against the Emperor rose because of the heavy taxation (the money was used to fight wars abroad, most of which Castilians had no interest in) and because Charles tended to select Flemings for high offices in Spain and America, ignoring Castilian candidates. The resistance culminated in the Revolt of the Comuneros, which was suppressed by Charles. After this, Castile became integrated into the Habsburg empire, and provided the bulk of the empire's military and financial resources. The enormous budget deficit accumulated during Charles' reign resulted in Spain declaring bankruptcy during the reign of Philip II.

Italy

The Crown of Aragon inherited by Charles included the Kingdom of Naples, the Kingdom of Sicily and the Kingdom of Sardinia. Aragon also previously controlled the Duchy of Milan, but a year before Charles ascended to the throne, it was annexed by France after the Battle of Marignano in 1515. Charles succeeded in re-capturing Milan in 1522 when Imperial troops defeated the Franco-Swiss army at Bicocca. Yet in 1524 Francis I of France retook the initiative, crossing into Lombardy where Milan, along with a number of other cities, once again fell to his attack. Pavia alone held out and it was here that on 24 February 1525 (Charles' twenty-fifth birthday), Charles' Imperial forces captured Francis and crushed his army, yet again retaking Milan and Lombardy. Spain successfully held on to all of its Italian territories, though they were invaded again on multiple occasions during the Italian Wars. In addition to this, Habsburg trade in the Mediterranean was consistently disrupted by the Ottoman Empire. A Holy League, which consisted of all the Italian states and Spain, was formed in 1538 to drive the Ottomans back, but was defeated at the Battle of Preveza. Decisive naval victory eluded Charles; it would not be achieved until after Charles' death, at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

America

During Charles' reign, the territories in New Spain were considerably extended by conquistadores like Hernán Cortés and Francisco Pizarro, who caused the Aztec and Inca empires to fall in little more than a decade. Combined with the Magellan expedition's circumnavigation of the globe in 1522, these successes convinced Charles of his divine mission to become the leader of Christendom that still perceived a significant threat from Islam. The conquests also helped solidify Charles' rule by providing the state treasury with enormous amounts of bullion. As the conquistador Bernal Díaz del Castillo observed, "We came to serve God and his Majesty, to give light to those in darkness, and also to acquire that wealth which most men covet."

In 1528 Charles assigned a concession in Venezuela Province to Bartholomeus V. Welser, in compensation for his inability to repay debts owed. The concession, known as Klein-Venedig (little Venice), was revoked in 1546. In 1550, Charles convened a conference at Valladolid in order to consider the morality of the force used against the indigenous populations of the New World, which included figures such as Bartolomé de las Casas.

Charles V is credited with the first idea of constructing an American Isthmus canal in Panama as early as 1520.

Holy Roman Empire

After the death of his paternal grandfather, Maximilian, in 1519, he inherited the Habsburg Monarchy. He was also the natural candidate of the electors to succeed his grandfather as Holy Roman Emperor. He defeated the candidacies of Frederick III, Elector of Saxony, Francis I of France, and Henry VIII of England. The unanimous[contradictory] decision of the electors gave Charles the crown on 28 June 1519. In 1530, he was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by Pope Clement VII in Bologna, the last Emperor to receive a papal coronation.[23][24]

Despite holding the imperial throne, Charles' real authority was limited by the German princes. They gained a strong foothold in the Empire's territories, and Charles was determined not to let this happen in the Netherlands. An inquisition was established as early as 1522. In 1550, the death penalty was introduced for all cases of unrepentant heresy. Political dissent was also firmly controlled, most notably in his place of birth, where Charles, assisted by the Duke of Alva, personally suppressed the Revolt of Ghent in mid-February 1540.



Charles V by Titian, 1548. Museo del Prado, Madrid, Spain

Charles abdicated as Emperor in 1556 in favor of his brother Ferdinand; however, due to lengthy debate and bureaucratic procedure, the Imperial Diet did not accept the abdication (and thus make it legally valid) until 24 February 1558. Up to that date, Charles continued to use the title of Emperor.

France

Much of Charles's reign was taken up by conflicts with France, which found itself encircled by Charles's empire while it still maintained ambitions in Italy. In 1520, Charles visited England, where his aunt, Catherine of Aragon, urged her husband, Henry VIII, to ally himself with the emperor. The first war with

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Charles's great nemesis Francis I of France began in 1521. Charles allied with England and Pope Leo X against the French and the Venetians, and was highly successful, driving the French out of Milan and defeating and capturing Francis at the Battle of Pavia in 1525. To gain his freedom, the French king was forced to cede Burgundy to Charles in the Treaty of Madrid (1526).



Charles V with Armor by Juan Pantoja de la Cruz, acording to Titian. El Escorial. Madrid, Spain

When he was released, however, Francis had the Parliament of Paris denounce the treaty because it had been signed under duress. France then joined the League of Cognac that Pope Clement VII had formed with Henry VIII of England, the Venetians, the Florentines, and the Milanese to resist imperial domination of Italy. In the ensuing war, Charles's sack of Rome (1527) and virtual imprisonment of Pope Clement VII in 1527 prevented the Pope from annulling the marriage of Henry VIII of England and Charles's aunt Catherine of Aragon, with important consequences. In other respects, the war was inconclusive. In the Treaty of Cambrai (1529), called the "Ladies' Peace" because it was negotiated between Charles's aunt and Francis' mother, Francis renounced his claims in Italy but retained control of Burgundy.

A third war erupted in 1535, when, following the death of the last Sforza Duke of Milan, Charles installed his own son, Philip, in the duchy, despite Francis's claims on it. This war too was inconclusive. Francis failed to conquer Milan, but succeeded in conquering most of the lands of Charles's ally the Duke of Savoy, including his capital, Turin. A truce at Nice in 1538 on the basis of uti possidetis ended the war, but lasted only a short time. War resumed in 1542, with Francis now allied with

Ottoman Sultan Suleiman I and Charles once again allied with Henry VIII. Despite the conquest of Nice by a Franco-Ottoman fleet, the French remained unable to advance into Juarez, while a joint Anglo-Imperial invasion of northern France, led by Charles himself, won some successes but was ultimately abandoned, leading to another peace and restoration of the status quo ante in 1544.

A final war erupted with Francis' son and successor, Henry II, in 1551. This war saw early successes by Henry in Lorraine, where he captured Metz, but continued failure of French offensives in Italy. Charles abdicated midway through this conflict, leaving further conduct of the war to his son, Philip II and his brother, Ferdinand I, Holy Roman Emperor.

Conflicts with the Ottoman Empire

Charles fought continually with the Ottoman Empire and its sultan, Suleiman the Magnificent. The great Hungarian defeat at the 1526 Battle of Mohács "sent a wave of terror over Europe." However, the Muslim advance in Central Europe, was halted at Vienna in 1529.



Charles V on Horseback in Mühlberg. Titian. 1548. Museo del Prado, Madrid, Spain

On the other hand, the contest between Charles and Suleiman for the mastery of the Mediterranean was decided in favour of the Sultan, in spite of Spanish victories such as the Conquest of Tunis in 1535. The regular Ottoman fleet came to dominate the Eastern Mediterranean after its victory at Preveza in 1538 and the loss of Djerba in 1560 (shortly after Charles' death) which severely decimated the Spanish marine arm. At the same time, the Muslim Barbary corsairs, acting under the general authority and supervision of the Sultan, regularly devastated the Spanish and Italian coasts, crippling Spanish trade and chipping at the foundations of Habsburg power.

In 1536 Francis I of France allied himself with Suleiman against Charles. While Francis was persuaded to sign a peace treaty in 1538, he again allied himself with the Ottomans in 1542 in a Franco-Ottoman alliance. In 1543 Charles allied himself with Henry VIII and forced Francis to sign the Truce of Crépy-en-Laonnois. Later, in 1547, Charles signed a humiliating treaty with the Ottomans to gain him some respite from the huge expenses of their war, in which he was seen as the equivalent of the Grand Vizier of the Ottoman Empire -Ibrahim Pasha at the time - and was referred to as only the King of Spain since there could only be one Emperor in the world and it was Suleiman. However, the Protestant powers in the Imperial Diet often voted

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against money for his Turkish wars, as many Protestants saw the Muslim advance as a counterweight to the Catholic powers.

Charles V made overtures to the Safavid Empire to open a second front against the Ottomans, in an attempt at creating a Habsburg-Persian alliance. Contacts were positive, but rendered difficult by enormous distances. In effect however, the Safavids entered in conflict with the Ottoman Empire in the Ottoman-Safavid War (1532–1555), forcing it to split its military resources.

Protestant Reformation



An elderly Charles V

As Holy Roman Emperor, Charles called Martin Luther to the Diet of Worms in 1521, promising him safe conduct if he would appear. Initially dismissing Luther's theses as "an argument between monks", he later outlawed Luther and his followers in that same year but was tied up with other concerns and unable to take action against Protestantism.

1524 to 1526 saw the Peasants' Revolt in Germany and in 1531 the formation of the Lutheran Schmalkaldic League. Charles delegated increasing responsibility for Germany to his brother Ferdinand while he concentrated on problems elsewhere.

In 1545, the opening of the Council of Trent began the Counter-Reformation, and Charles won to the Catholic cause some of the princes of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1546 (the year of Luther's natural death), he outlawed the Schmalkaldic League (which had occupied the territory of another prince). He drove the League's troops out of southern Germany and at the Battle of Mühlberg defeated John Frederick, Elector of Saxony and imprisoned Philip of Hesse in 1547. At the Augsburg Interim in 1548 he created an interim solution giving certain allowances to Protestants until the Council of Trent would restore unity. However, Protestants mostly resented the Interim and some actively opposed it. Protestant princes, in alliance with Henry II of France, rebelled against Charles in 1552, which caused Charles to retreat to the Netherlands.

Health

Charles suffered from an enlarged lower jaw, a deformity that became considerably worse in later Habsburg generations, giving rise to the term Habsburg jaw. This deformity was caused by the family's long history of inbreeding, which was commonly practiced in royal families of that era to maintain dynastic control of territory. He struggled to chew his food properly and consequently experienced bad indigestion for much of his life. As a result, he usually ate alone. He suffered from epilepsy and was seriously afflicted with gout, presumably caused by a diet consisting mainly of red meat. As he aged, his gout progressed from painful to crippling. In his retirement, he was carried around the monastery of St. Yuste in a sedan chair. A ramp was specially constructed to allow him easy access to his rooms.

Abdication and later life

On 25 October 1555, Charles abdicated all his titles except the county of Charolais, giving his Spanish Empire (continental Spain, the Netherlands, Naples–Sicily, Lombardy and Spain's possessions in the Americas) to his son, Philipe. His brother Ferdinand, already in possession of the dynastic Habsburg lands, succeeded as Holy Roman Emperor. Charles retired to the monastery of Yuste in Extremadura, but continued to correspond widely and kept an interest in the situation of the empire. He suffered from severe gout and some scholars think Charles decided to abdicate after a gout attack in 1552 forced him to postpone an attempt to recapture the city of Metz, where he was later defeated. He lived alone in a secluded monastery, with clocks lining every wall, which some historians believe symbolizes his reign and his lack of time.

Charles died on 21 September 1558 from malaria. Twenty-six years later, his remains were transferred to the Royal Pantheon of The Monastery of San Lorenzo de El Escorial.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles_V, Holy_Roman_Emperor



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PAPAL STATES

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: At least 25% INFANTRY: Up to 50% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS										
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts			
Army General	1		-	9	3	+2	170			
Ally-General	-	-	-	8	2	+2	140			
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90			
Army Standard	- 1	-	-	8	2	+1	90			

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTTIERI OR LANZE SPEZZATE ELMETI									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	4	3	3	8	30	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, full plate armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. 0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, *Drilled*) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +1

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN										
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Horseman	3	3	3	6	14	S				

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. Light armor (+2)

INFANTRY

0-1 PAPAL GUARD										
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Swiss	4	3	3	9	15	R				
Italian	4	3	3	8	14	R				

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armor, halberd or doublehanded sword. Swiss guards may have pikes (+2) **Special Rules:** *Drilled*

0-1 PROVISIONATI

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Provisionati	3	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbows, heavy armor May exchange crossbow for arquebus, pike or halberd (-2)

MILITIA SPEARMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Spearman	2	2	3	6	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, light armor, large shield.

May have pike instead of thrusting spear&large shield (-2). **Special Rules:** *Combined Formation*

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Crossbowman	2	2	3	6	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow, light armor Special Rules: Combined Formation

MILITIA SCHIOPPETTO

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	2	3	6	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus, light armor

MERCENARIES

0-3 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY SPEARMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Spearman	3	3	3	7	8	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, large shield, light armor, thrusting spear. May exchange thrusting spear&large shield for pike (-2)

MERCENARY CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	11	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow, light armor Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (free, became *Light Formation*).

SKIRMISHERS

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Skirmisher	3	3	3	6	8	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow or arquebus.

ALLIES

Italian Allies Spanish Allies



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PROSPERO COLONNA



Prospero Colonna (1452–1523), sometimes referred to as Prosper Colonna, was an Italian condottiero in the service of the Papal States and the Holy Roman Empire during the Italian Wars.

A member of the ancient noble family of the Colonna, he was born in Civita Lavinia, near Velletri (Lazio), in 1452. He was a cousin of Fabrizio Colonna.

His first notable action as a military leader was in 1484, when he defended the family castle of Paliano against an assault by the rival Orsini and Riario families. After some other battle deeds, Prospero, who had joined Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere's party, was imprisoned in Castel Sant'Angelo (Rome) by Pope Alexander VI. Once freed, he was soon imprisoned again for his allegiance to Charles VIII of France during his invasion of Italy. In the end, the King of France was victorious against the Pope and entered Rome, backed by Prospero and Fabrizio Colonna, in 1495.

During the brief French rule over the Kingdom of Naples, Prospero obtained the duchy of Traetto and the county of Forli. However, when Charles returned beyond the Alps, Prospero helped King Ferdinand II of Naples to evict the French viceroy from Naples.

The situation changed again with the new French invasion of Louis XII. While the Neapolitan king Frederick IV fled to the island of Ischia, Fabrizio and Prospero Colonna tried to defend the kingdom. They were defeated and imprisoned in the Castel Nuovo of Naples. They were also excommunicated by Alexander VI, who took their castles in the Lazio. Eventually ransomed, both cousins then entered the service of the Spanish general Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba, viceroy of Naples.

Prospero Colonna had an important role in the Spanish victory at Cerignola (1503), which gave Spain the keys to Naples. After Alexander VI's death, he was also able to take back his territories in the Lazio. He commanded the light cavalry at the Battle of Garigliano.

Prospero then added Itri, Sperlonga, Ceccano and Sonnino to his fiefs, becoming once again a great feudal lord in southern Italy. He married Covella di Sanseverino, who gave him an heir, Vespasiano.

"Confident in the constancy of the lady of his affections, Prospero took for his companion a gentleman of low degree, to whom she unfortunately transferred the love he thought was his own. Feeling that he had been the author of his own ruin, Prospero took for device the bull of Perillus, which had proved the death of its inventor, with the motto, Ingenio experior funera digna meo, "I suffer a death befitting my invention."

In 1515, he was commander of the forces of Pope Leo X in north-western Italy near Villafranc when the army of Francis I, King of France, crossed the Alps preparatory to the Battle of Marignano. In a surprising and humiliating raid, Colonna and his staff were captured by a French cavalry force led by the Chevalier Bayard. As he was taken, he said of France, "It is a country I have always wanted to visit."

Continuing in the service of the Pope, Colonna gained a decisive victory against France in northern Italy in 1522 (Battle of Bicocca).

His health was declining, however, and he died in 1523 in l'Hôtel Clemenceau at Milan.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prospero_Colonna



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REPUBLIC OF VENICE

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% **INFANTRY:** At least 25% **MERCENARIES:** Up to 50% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-		-	9	3	+2	170		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		CA	VALRY			
ELMETI						
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	28	R
Equipment:					, lance	
May have clo				ing.		
May take ful Special Rule						
opecial Run	.s. Shock	churge	12			
UTILI						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R
May take par May upgrade	to Lanze	armour Spezza	(+2) ta (+2, <i>L</i>		ce	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i>	(+2) ta (+2, <i>L</i> +1	Drilled)		
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED	tial plate to Lanze es: <i>Shock</i> CROSS	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i> BOWM SA	(+2) ta (+2, <i>L</i> +1 IEN KA N	Drilled) Mo P	ts F	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i>	(+2) ta (+2, <i>L</i> +1	Drilled) Mo P		
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock CROSS CA 3	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i> BOWM SA 3	(+2) ta (+2, <i>L</i> +1 (EN KA M 3	Drilled) Mo P 7 1	ts F	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock CROSS CA 3 Hand we	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i> BOWM SA 3 apon, lig (+2), thi	(+2) ta (+2, <i>E</i> +1 EN KA N 3 ght cross rowing s	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2	ts F 4 S	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock CROSS CA 3 Hand we	armour Spezza <i>Charge</i> BOWM SA 3 apon, lig (+2), thi	(+2) ta (+2, <i>E</i> +1 EN KA N 3 ght cross rowing s	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2	ts F 4 S	
May take pai May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock CROSS CA 3 Hand we that armor avy armo	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, lig (+2), thir r (+3, bo	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA M 3 ght cross rowing s ecame L	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2	ts F 4 S	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig	tial plate to Lanze es: Shock CROSS CA 3 Hand we that armor avy armo	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, lin (+2), thir r (+3, bo SUSIER	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA M 3 ght cross rowing s ecame La S	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2	ts F 4 S). nation)	
May take pai May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he	tial plate to Lanze s: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, lig (+2), thir r (+3, bo	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA M 3 ght cross rowing s ecame La S	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P	ts F 4 S). nation)	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he MOUNTED Horseman	tial plate to Lanze s: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo ARQUE CA 3	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, li (+2), thi r (+3, bo CUSIER SA 3	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA N 3 ght crosss rowing s ecame Li S KA N 3	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P	ts F 4 S). nation) ts F	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he MOUNTED Horseman Equipment:	tial plate e to Lanze es: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo ARQUE CA 3 Hand we	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, li (+2), thi r (+3, bo USIER SA 3 apon, an	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA N 3 ght cross rowing s eccame Li S KA N 3 rquebus.	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P 7 1	ts F 4 S). nation) ts F	
May take pai May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he MOUNTED Horseman Equipment:	tial plate e to Lanze es: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo ARQUE CA 3 Hand we	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, li (+2), thi r (+3, bo USIER SA 3 apon, an	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA N 3 ght cross rowing s eccame Li S KA N 3 rquebus.	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P 7 1	ts F 4 S). nation) ts F	
May take par May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: 0-1 per unit o	tial plate to Lanze ss: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo ARQUE CA 3 Hand we of mounte	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, li (+2), the r (+3, be USIER SA 3 apon, ard d crossb	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA N 3 ght cross rowing s ecame Li S KA N 3 rquebus. sowmen.	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P 7 1	ts F 4 S). nation) ts F	
May take pai May upgrade Special Rule MOUNTED Horseman Equipment: May have lig May have he MOUNTED	tial plate to Lanze ss: Shock CROSS: CA 3 Hand we ht armor avy armo ARQUE CA 3 Hand we of mounte	armour Spezza Charge BOWM SA 3 apon, li (+2), thi r (+3, bo USIER SA 3 apon, ar d crosst	(+2) ta (+2, L +1 EN KA M 3 ght cross rowing s ecame La S KA M 3 rquebus. powmen.	Drilled) Mo P 7 1 bow. pear (+2 ght Forn Mo P 7 1 7 1	ts F 4 S). nation) ts F 6 L	

ng sp May have lance instead of thrusting spear (+2). May take partial plate armour (+2)

STRADIOTS

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	21	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, thrusting spear, javelins, shield. May have bow (+2) and light armour (+2) Special Rules: May Skirmish, Feign Flight

INFANTRY									
2+ CERN	ITE								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Milita	2	2	3	6	8	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, large shield. May have light armor (+1). May have pike instead of thrusting spear&large shield (-2) Special Rules: Combined Formation

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Crossbowman	2	2	3	6	7	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow, light armor Special Rules: Combined Formation

MILITIA SCH	HOPP	етто					
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F	
Arquebusier	2	2	3	6	8	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus, light armor 0-1 may be upgraded to Friullian Schioppeteri with CA3, SA3 and Mo7 (+4)

0-1 ARSENOLOTTO								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Arsenolotti	3	3	3	7	11	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armor. May have pikes (+1) or arquebus (+1, became Light Formation) Special Rules: Drilled

> F **Pts**

> > R

PROVISIONATI								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts			
Provisionati	3	3	3	7	10			

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbows, heavy armor May exchange crossbow for arquebus (-2) or halberd (-2) 0-1 unit may be upgraded to Provisionati di San Marco (+1, Mo8)

ARCHERS

0-4

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Archer	2	3	2	6	6	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow.

	MERCENARIES
FIELD GUNS	

OMANDIOLE PIKEMEN					
CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
3	3	3	7	11	R
	CA	CA SA	CA SA KA	CA SA KA Mo	CA SA KA Mo Pts333711

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike, light armor. May have heavy armour (+2). Special Rules: Drilled

MERCENARY	RY SPEARMEN							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Spearman	3	3	3	7	10	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, light armor, large shield.

May have pike instead of thrusting spear&large shield (-2)

SKIRMISHERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Skirmisher	3	3	3	6	8	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow or arquebus

MERCENARY	FOOT	CRO	SSBO	WMEN	I	
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	3	4	3	7	14	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow May have pavise (+2).

0-1 MERCENARY SWORD-AND-BUCKLER-MEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	11	L			

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler, light armor May have heavy armour (+2) and javelins (+1)

CAPPELLATI

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	6	18	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, bow, thrusting spear May have light armor (+2)

SFAKIOTI

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Archer	2	3	3	6	6	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow, light armor May have heavy armor (+2)

GREEK MILITIA

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Archer	2	3	3	6	6	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow, light armor May have arquebus instead of bow (+2)



FRANCESCO II GONZAGA



Gonzaga was born in Mantua, the son of Marquess Federico I Gonzaga. He had a career as a condottiero acting as Venice's commander from 1489 to 1498. He was the commander-in-chief of the army of the Italian league in the battle of Fornovo, although under the tutorage of his more experienced uncle Ridolfo Gonzaga: although inconclusive, the battle had at least the effect to push Charles VIII of France's army back to the Alps. He was described as "short, pop-eyed, snub-nosed and exceptionally brave, and was regarded as the finest knight in Italy".

Later he was rival of the Venetians, as leader of the Holy League formed by Pope Julius II against them. In that occasion he was captured by the Venetians, who held him as hostage for several months and humiliated him: this caused his perpetual hostility towards that city, and he refused any subsequent request to return to command its army.

During his absences, Mantua was governed by his wife Isabella d'Este, whom he had married on 12 February 1490. Under their reign, Mantua knew a great age of cultural splendour, with the presence in the city of artists such as Andrea Mantegna and Jacopo Bonacolsi. Francesco had the Palace of St. Sebastian built, were later Mantegna's Triumph of Caesar were placed.

Beginning in 1503, he started a long relationship with Lucrezia Borgia.

On his death from syphilis contracted from prostitutes, he was succeeded by his son Federico, with Isabella acting as regent. His other son Ferrante Gonzaga originated the branch of the Counts of Guastalla. His disease prevented him from recognizing that his wife had eclipsed him.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francesco_II_Gonzaga, Marquess_ of_Mantua



BARTOLOMEO D'ALVIANO



Bartolomeo d'Alviano (1455-1515) was an Italian condottiero and captain who distinguished himself in the defence of the Venetian Republic against the Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian.

Born at Todi, the son of Francesco d'Alviano and Isabella degli Atti, Bartolomeo fought very early in his life in Central Italy, serving in the Papal States and, in 1496, the Orsini family against Pope Alexander VI and the Colonna.

In 1503, hired by Ferdinand II of Spain, he was determinant in the victory at the Battle of Garigliano over the French army, which started the Spanish domination over southern Italy. In 1507, together with Nicolò Orsini, Bartolomeo was hired by the Republic of Venice. The following year he defeated the Imperial Army of Maximilian I, Holy Roman Emperor in Cadore, at Mauria and Pontebba, conquering Gorizia and Trieste. In the same year Pordenone also fell and the Serenissima assigned its signory to Alviano himself.

In 1509 (the year he began the construction of new city walls at Padua), however, he was crushingly defeated at the Battle of Agnadello, being also wounded in the fray. Alviano was charged of the result, as he allegedly attacked the enemy without the authorisation of Orsini, then commander-in-chief. Captured by the French, he remained a prisoner until 1513. In 1513, after the alliance between France and Venice against the Duchy of Milan, he was freed, and later fought under the French commander Louis de la Trémoille. He was defeated at the Battle of Vicenza by the Spanish Viceroy of Naples Ramón de Cardona.

Later Alviano again conquered, and sacked, Pordenone, which in the meantime had fallen again to the House of Habsburg. He was subsequently a protagonist of the French victory at Marignano (September 1515), in which he attacked the Swiss mercenaries with a corps of only 300 knights. Later he managed to conquer also Bergamo, but died in the October of the same year during the siege of Brescia.

He was buried in the church of Santo Stefano in Venice.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bartolomeo_d%27Alviano

KINGDOM OF NAPLES

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: At least 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts		
Army General	1	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". May ride a horse (AV3). General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		C	AVAL	RY			
SPANISH G	ENTE	D'ARN	AS				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F	
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R	
Equipment:	Hand w	veapon,	heavy a	armour,	lance		
May take par					3)		
Special Rule	es: Drill	ed, Sho	ock Cha	rge +2			
SPANISH J	INFTE	G					
SI ANISH J.	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	3	3	3	7	20	L	
						-	
Equipment:	Hand w	veapon,	throwir	ng spear	, javelir	IS	
May have shi							
Special Rule	es: May	Skirmis	h, Feig	n Flight			
ITALIAN E	IMET	r					
IIALIANE		SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R	
Horseman				-			
Equipment:	Hand w	veapon,	heavy a	armour,	lance		
May have clo							
May take par		1			,		
Special Rule	s: Shoc	k Impac	t+1 if	mounte	d, Only	from 1	503AI
ITALIAN H	ODSE	ADOL	DUCIE	DC			
IIALIAN H	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L	
norseman	5	5	5	,	10	Ľ	
Equipment:	TT1						

Special Rules: Only from 1503AD

INFANTRY

SWORD-AN	D-BUC	KLER	MEN			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler May have heavy armour (+2) and may be *Drilled* (+2)

SPANISH CRO	SSBO	WME	N			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	2	3	3	7	10	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow.

SPANISH AR	QUEB	USIEF	RS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-4 FIELD GUNS

ITALIAN FOOT CROSSBOWMEN AND ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. May have crossbow instead of arquebus (+2) Special Rules: Only from 1503AD

SPANISH PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have heavy armor (+3). Only after 1508AD: Have Mo7 (+1) Special Rules: Spanish Ordonnance, Only from 1503AD

0-4 WAR WAGONS Special Rules: Only in 1512AD

ALLIES

Only in 1512AD: Papal Allies



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

DUCHY OF MILAN

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: Up to 50% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

	CI	IARA	CTERS				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170
Ally-General	-	-		8	2	+2	140
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		(CAVAL	RY		
CONDOTT	IERI O	R LAN	ZE SP	EZZAT	E ELN	IETI
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have shield (+2) and cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) 0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, *Drilled*) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge +1*

FAMIGLIA	DUCAI	E ELI	METI			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance, May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) **Special Rules:** *Drilled*, *Shock Charge* +2

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	3	3	3	6	14	S		

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. Light armor (+2)

MOUNTED	ARQU	JBUSH	ERS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	6	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. May have light armor (+2). 0-1 unit may be guard (+2, Mo7)

INFANTRY									
MILITIA	SPEAR	MEN							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Militia	2	2	3	6	8	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, large shield.

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Militia	2	2	3	6	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow, light armor Special Rules: May Skirmish

MILITIA SCHIOPPETTO

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	2	3	6	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus, light armor May have *Ditches* (+60). May be *Light Formation* (free)

PROVISION	ATI					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Provisionati	3	3	3	7	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, leight armor and thrusting spear& large shield or crossbow/arquebus. Provisionati with an arquebus may have halberd (+1)

NS SWOI CA 4 and wea armou SPEA	SA 3 pon, bi r (+2)	KA 3 uckler	CKLE Mo 7	R-MEI Pts 10	N F R				
CA 4 and wea armou	SA 3 pon, bi r (+2)	KA 3 uckler	Мо	Pts	F				
4 and wea armou	3 pon, bi r (+2)	3 uckler			_				
ind wea	pon, bi r (+2)	uckler	7	10	R				
/ armou	r (+2)								
CA 3	SA 3	KA 3	Mo 7	Pts 10	F				
3	3	3	7	10	R				
Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, large shield May have pike instead of thrusting spear&shield. SKIRMISHERS									
			1.10		F				
3	3	3	6	6	S				
	3 and weat instead of S CA 3	3 3 and weapon, th instead of thru S CA SA 3 3	3 3 3 and weapon, thrusting instead of thrusting sp CA SA KA 3 3 3	3 3 3 7 and weapon, thrusting spear, instead of thrusting spear&sh S CA SA KA Mo	3 3 3 7 10 and weapon, thrusting spear, large slipstead of thrusting spear&shield. S CA SA KA Mo Pts 3 3 3 6 6				

ALLIES



REPUBLIC OF FLORENCE

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 50% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

	CI	IARA	CTERS				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTT	IERI O	R LAN	ZE SPI	EZZAT	E ELN	ETI
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	8	28	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, Drilled) Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

MOUNTEI	CROS	SBOW	MEN			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. May have light armor (+2)May have arquebus instead of crossbow (free)

MILITIA L	ANCE	RS				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear May have light (+2) or heavy (+3, became Light Formation) armor

INFANTRY	

MILITIA CROS	SSBOV	WME	N			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	2	2	3	6	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

ITALIAN AR	QUEB	USIER	s			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

2+ MILITIA PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	2	2	3	6	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have light (+1) or heavy (+3) armour. Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance, Only after 1506AD

0-1 SWORDSMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Swordsman	3	3	3	7	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler. May have javelins (+1) May have light (+1) or heavy (+3) armour.

MERCENARIES

F

L

0-2 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts			
Crossbowman	2	3	3	7	11			

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow, light armor Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2).

Special Rules: May Skirmish

MERCENARY PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike.

May have large shield and thrusting spear instead of pike (+2)

MERCENA	ARY SWORD-AND-BUCKLER-M	EN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler. May have heavy armour (+2)

ALLIES

Italian Allies French Allies



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

FRANCESCO FERRUCIO



Francesco Ferruccio (or Ferrucci) (1489 – August 3, 1530) was an Italian captain from Florence who fought in the Italian Wars.

After spending a few years as a merchant's clerk he took to soldiering at an early age, and served his apprenticeship under Giovanni de' Medici, in the latter's Black Bands (Delle Bande Nere being Giovanni de' Medici's nickname, from the blackl stripes on his insignia) in various parts of Italy, earning a reputation as a daring fighter and somewhat of a swashbuckler. When Pope Clement VII and the emperor Charles V decided to reinstate the Medici in Florence, during the War of the League of Cognac, they attacked the Florentine republic, and Ferruccio was appointed Florentine military commissioner, where he showed great daring and resource by his rapid marches and sudden attacks on the Imperials.

Early in 1530 Volterra had thrown off Florentine allegiance and had been occupied by an Imperial garrison, but Ferruccio surprised and recaptured the city. During his absence, however, the Imperials captured Empoli by treachery, thus cutting off one of the chief avenues of approach to Florence. Ferruccio proposed to the government of the Republic that he should march on Rome and terrorize the Pope by the threat of a sack into making peace with Florence on favorable terms, but although the war committee appointed him commissioner-general for the operations outside the city, they rejected his scheme as too audacious.

Ferruccio then decided to attempt a diversion by attacking the Imperials in the rear and started from Volterra for the Apennines. But at Pisa he was laid up for a month with a fever, which enabled the enemy to get wind of his plan and to prepare for his attack. At the end of July Ferruccio left Pisa at the head of about 4,000 men. Although the besieged in Florence, knowing that a large part of the Imperialists under the Prince of Orange Philibert of Châlon, had gone to meet Ferruccio, wished to co-operate with the latter by means of a sortie, they were prevented from doing so by their own treacherous commander, Malatesta Baglioni.

Left alone, Ferruccio encountered a much larger force of the enemy on August 3 at Gavinana. In the desperate battle that

ensued, the Imperials were at first driven back by Ferruccio's onslaught and the Prince of Orange himself was killed. But when 2,000 Landsknecht reinforcements under Fabrizio Maramaldo arrived, the Florentines were almost annihilated, and Ferruccio was wounded and captured. Maramaldo out of personal spite dispatched Ferruccio with his own hand: "Vile, tu uccidi un uomo morto!" ("Coward, you kill a dead man!") were, according to popular accounts, Ferruccio's last words uttered to his murderer. This defeat sealed the fate of the Republic, and nine days later Florence surrendered. Maramaldo's deed earned him immortal infamy, even turning his own surname as a synonym for "villainous" in Italian.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francesco_Ferruccio



DUCHY OF MANTUA

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTTIERI OR LANZE SPEZZATE ELMETI								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, Drilled) Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L			

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow.

INFANTRY

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	10	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

0-1	PIO	NEE	RS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Levy	2	2	3	5	3	R

Equipment: Hand weapon Special Rules: Undisciplined, Unmotivated

ITALIAN AR	QUEB	USIEF	RS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F		
Crossbowman	3	4	3	7	14	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2). May have pavise (+2).

MERCENARY SWORD-AND-BUCKLER-MEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler May have heavy armour (+2)

ALLIES



DUCHY OF FERRARA

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General		-		8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTTIERI OR LANZE SPEZZATE ELMETI								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have and cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, Drilled) Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L			

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow.

INFANTRY

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	10	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

ITA	LIA	N A	RQ	UEB	USIER	s	
				~ .	C 1	** *	

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-1 PIONEERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Levy	2	2	3	5	3	R

Equipment: Hand weapon Special Rules: Undisciplined, Unmotivated

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY CROSSBOWMEN							
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Crossbowman	3	4	3	7	14	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2). May have pavise (+2).

MERCENARY SWORD-AND-BUCKLER-MEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler May have heavy armour (+2)

ALLIES



REPUBLIC OF SIENA

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General	-	-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

CULL DA CEEDO

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTTIERI OR LANZE SPEZZATE ELMETI								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, Drilled) Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L		

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow.

INFANTRY

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	10	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

ITALIAN	ARQUEB	USIE	RS	
	~ .	~ .		

	CA	SA	NА	IVIO	rts	r
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	11	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-1 PIONEERS

CA SA KA Mo Pts F Levy 2 2 3 5 3 R

Equipment: Hand weapon Special Rules: Undisciplined, Unmotivated

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

MERCENA						
	C	A SA	A KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowm	an 3	3 4	3	7	14	R
Equipment:						
Only after 15	521AD:	may ha	we arqu	ebus ins	tead of	crossbo
(-2). May ha	ve pavis	se (+2).				
					1	
MERCENA						
	CA			1.10	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R
Equipment: May have he LANDSKN	eavy arn	nour (+2	2)			
LANDORN	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
memun	5	5			U	
Equipment:	Hand v	veapon,	, pike.			
May have he	avy arn	nour (+:	3).			
Special Rule	es: Land	lsknech	t Ordon	nance, (Only fro	m 1552
1553AD						

LANDSKNECHT ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R		
Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.								
Special Rules:	Lands	knecht	Ordonn	nance				

ALLIES



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

DUCHY OF SAVOY

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS							
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170
Ally-General		-	-	8	2	+2	140
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY

CONDOTTIERI OR LANZE SPEZZATE ELMETI								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) 0-1 may be upgraded to Lanze Spezzate (+2, *Drilled*) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +1

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L			

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow.

INFANTRY

MILITIA CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	10	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

ITALIAN ARQUEBUSIERS

	-		KA			
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-1 PIONEERS

CASAKAMoPtsFLevy22353R

Equipment: Hand weapon Special Rules: Undisciplined, Unmotivated

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY CROSSBOWMEN								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Crossbowman	3	4	3	7	14	R		

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow Only after 1521AD: may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2). May have pavise (+2).

MERCENARY SWORD-AND-BUCKLER-MEN									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler May have heavy armour (+2)

ALLIES


SWISS CONFEDERACY

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 15% INFANTRY: At least 75% SIP: not pooled

SKIRMISHERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Skirmisher	2	3	3	6	9	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. 0-1 may have arquebus instead of crossbow (-2)

0-2 LIGHT CANNONS

	CI	IARA	CTERS			_	
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts
Army General	-			9	3	+2	170
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse if Milanese (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY										
MOUNTED CROSSBOWS										
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
Horseman	2	3	3	6	13	L				

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. May have arquebus instead of light crossbow (+2)

0-1 GENDAR	MES					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R
Dismounted	4	3	3	8	19	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance

May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Special Rules: Shock Charge +2 Charge if mounted, Drilled if dismounted

		I	NFANT	RY		
PIKEMEN						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: Every second May have CA Special Rule	1 unit m A4 (+2)	ay have and be	e light (- Drilled		eavy arı	nor (+3).
HALBERD	IERS					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Halberdier	3	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd May have heavy armor (+3). May have CA4 (+2) and be Drilled (+2) Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance

There must be more halberdiers than pikemen.



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

KINGDOM OF ENGLAND

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% ALLIES: Up to 50% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General	-	-		8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY											
ENGLISH MEN-AT-ARMS											
CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F						
4	3	3	7	26	R						
4	3	3	7	12	R						
	CA 4	EN-AT-ARM CA SA 4 3	EN-AT-ARMS CA SA KA 4 3 3	EN-AT-ARMS CA SA KA Mo 4 3 3 7	EN-AT-ARMS CA SA KA Mo Pts 4 3 3 7 26	EN-AT-ARMS CA SA KA Mo Pts F 4 3 3 7 26 R					

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance. May be *Drilled* (+2) Special Rules: *Shock Impact* +1 if mounted

ENGLISH DEMI-LANCERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	20	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armor, thrusting spear May have lance instead of thrusting spear (+2). May take partial plate armour (+2) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +1

BORDER I	HORSE					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	18	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armor, thrusting spear May have light crossbow (+2)

SCOURER

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	2	3	3	6	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armor, thrusting spear

INFANTRY

ENGLISH LONGBOWMEN CA SA KA Mo Pts F Longbowman 3 3 3 7 10 L

Equipment: Hand weapon, longbow. May have *Stakes* (+30) **Special Rules**: May be in *Combined Formation* with billmen or dismounted men-at-arms

ENGLISH BILLMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Billman	3	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd, heavy armour May have halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) **Special Rules:** 0-1 per two units of longbowmen

0-1 YEOMEN OF THE CROWN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Yeoman	3	3	3	8	13	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd, heavy armour Up to half may have longbow instead of halberd (free) **Special Rules**: *Drilled, Combined Formation,* May not outnumber any unit of billmen or pike.

0-1 ENGLISH PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have light (+1) or heavy armour (+3).

0-1 ENGLISH ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	10	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus., light armor May have heavy armor (+2). **Special Rules:** May be in *Combined Formation* with Longbowmen comprising the front rank.

0-1 WAGON LAAGER

MERCENARIES									
BURGUNDL	AN AN	D SIM	ILAR I	MEN-A	T-ARN	MS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	22	R			
Dismounted	3	3	3	7	10	R			
May have clot	h (+4)	or plate	(+6) ba	arding.		ance			
Equipment: H May have clot May take parti Dismounted - (+3) no lance. Special Rules	h (+4) al or fu may tal	or plate ill plate ke halbe	(+6) ba armoun erd (+2)	arding. r (+2/+3) or dou) ble-han				
May have clot May take parti Dismounted - (+3) no lance.	h (+4) o al or fu may tal : Shock	or plate ill plate ke halbe	(+6) ba armoun erd (+2)	arding. r (+2/+3) or dou) ble-han				
May have clot May take parti Dismounted - (+3) no lance. Special Rules	h (+4) o al or fu may tal : Shock	or plate ill plate ke halbe	$e^{(+6)}$ ba armound erd $(+2)$ e^{+1} if	arding. r (+2/+3) or dou) ble-han				

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike or halberd. May have heavy armour (+3). **Special Rules:** *Landsknecht Ordonnance*

LANDSKNEC	CHT A	RQUE	BUSIE	RS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	8	11	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Special Rules: Landsknecht Ordonnance

0-2 FLEMI	SH PIK	EMEN	1			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	6	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have heavy armour (+3).

BURGUNDL	AN LA	NCES				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Gendarme	4	3	3	8	29	R
Archer	3	3	3	7	19	R

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, lance Gendarmes may have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding and partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Archers have thrusting spear instead of lance. Up to half can be Archers placed in the rear rank.

Special Rules: Combined Formation, Shock Charge +1

GERMAN CAVALRY

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Reiter	3	3	3	7	20	R
Arquebusier	3	3	3	6	18	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, thrusting spear Reiters may have partial plate armour (+2) Mounted arquebusiers arquebus, light armor, hand weapon and may have heavy armor (+2)

Special Rules: Reiters have Shock Charge +1

IRISH KERN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Kern	2	3	3	5	4	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, javelins.

Only from 1525AD: May upgrade Mo6, arquebus (+4) Special Rules: Skirmishers

KRECKERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Krecker	3	3	3	6	4	R

Equipment: Hand weapon

May have halberd (+1), throwing or thrusting spear (+1) and light (+1) or heavy (+3) armor. Special Rules: Undisciplined, Warband

0-1 STRADIOTS

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	21	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, thrusting spear, javelins, shield. May have bow (+2) and light armour (+2)Special Rules: May Skirmish, Feign Flight

0-4 FIELD GUNS

ALLIES

Holy Roman Empire Kingdoms of Spain Empire of Charles V

V2

THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

SCOTLAND

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 50% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

	CI	IARA	CTERS				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts
Army General	1		-	9	3	+2	170
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". May ride a horse (AV3). General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY									
BORDERE	RS								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	15	S			
			č			-			
Equipment:				ng spear	, javelir	ıs			
May have lig	ht armo	our (+2))						

Special Rules: Skirmishers

		I	NFANT	RY		
LOWLAN	D PIKE	MEN				
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment May have li Special Rule	ght (+1)	or heav	y armo	ur (+3)		
IGHLAN	DERS	SA	KA	Mo	Pte	

3 3 Highlander 3 7 8 L

Equipment: Hand weapon, shield. May have double-handed weapon instead of shield (+free) Special Rules: Warband

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

ς

FREN	CH	NC	RI	\mathbf{F}

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29
Dismounted	4	3	3	8	19

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3) Dismounted – pike instead of shield and lance (-1). **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +2 if mounted, *Drilled* if dismounted, Only in 1513AD

FRENCH FOOT

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	6	7	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance, Only in 1513AD



IRELAND

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 50% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts		
Army General	1		-	9	3	+2	170		
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". May ride a horse (AV3). General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY									
IRISH HOR	RSE								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	S			

Equipment: Hand weapon, throwing spear May have light armour (+2) and shield (+2)

Contraction of the second							
		I	NFANT	RY	1950		
GALLOGLA	ICH						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Galloglaich	4	3	3	7	8	R	
Equipment:	Hand v	veapon,	throwin	ng spear			
May have shi	eld (+1). May	be Dril	led (+2)).		
BONNACHT	ſS						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Bonnacht	3	3	3	7	6	L	
Equipment:	Hand v	veapon,	throwin	ng spear			
May have shi	eld (+1)					
Special Rules	s: War	band					
KERN							
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F	
Kern	2	3	3	5	4	S	

Equipment: Hand weapon, javelins. Only from 1525AD: May upgrade Mo6, arquebus (+4) Special Rules: Skirmishers

MERCENARIES

0-1 LIGHT CANNON

Special Rules: Only from 1525AD

ENGLISH PALE SPEARM	IEN	
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	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	21	R

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, heavy armour, shield, thrusting spear Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

ENGLISH LOI	NGBO	WME	N			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Longbowman	3	3	3	7	10	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, longbow. May have *Stakes* (+30) Special Rules: May be in Combined Formation with billmen or dismounted men-at-arms

ENGLISH	BILLM	IEN				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Billman	3	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, halberd, heavy armour May have halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) Special Rules: 0-1 per two units of longbowmen



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

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A

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: At least 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts		
Army General	- I	-	-	9	3	+2	170		
Ally-General	-	-	-	8	2	+2	140		
Brigade Com.	-	-		8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		C	CAVAL	RY			
QAPUKUL	U CAV	ALRY					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	4	4	3	8	26	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, light armour, bow May have shield (+2), heavy armour (+2) and cloth (+4) or metal (+6) barding.Without barding may be *Nomad Cavalry* (+2) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +2

F

R

FEUDAL SIPAHIS CA SA KA Mo Pts Horseman 3 4 3 7 19

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear, light armour, bow May have shield (+2), heavy armour (+2) May have CA4 (+2) **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +1

AKINJIS						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	2	3	3	6	16	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, throwing spear May have light armour (+2) and bow (+2) **Special Rules:** *May Skirmish, Feign Flight*

DELIS, KU	RDS O	R BED	OUIN A	ARABS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, thrusting spear May have light armour (+2) and shield (+2)

DJANBAZAN, TURKOMANS, TARTARS OR SIMILAR HORSE ARCHERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F.
Horseman	3	4	3	7	24	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow

May have shield (+2), throwing spear (+2) and light armour (+2) Special Rules: Nomad Cavalry, Feign Flight

INFANTRY

IANISSARY	ARC	HERS					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Archer	3	4	3	8	15	L	

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armour, bow . May have arquebus (+1). May have *Stakes* (+20), *Tethered Camels* (+10).

AZABS						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Skirmisher	2	3	3	6	5	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, javelins May have sling instead of javelins (free) or bow (+1). With bow they may upgrade to *Light Infantry* (+1)

LEVENDAT	OR	EURO	PEAN I	LEVY II	NFANT	RY
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F

Levy 2 2 3 5 3 R

Equipment: Hand weapon. May have shield (+1) **Special Rules:** *Undisciplined, Unmotivated*

AYLARS						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
alvar	3	3	3	7	6	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, shield Special Rules: Warband, Fanatical

VOYNUKS

T

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	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Voynuk	4	3	3	8	17	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, light armour

May have shield (+2), heavy armour (+2) and halberd (+2) **Special Rules:** *Drilled*

JANISSARY SKIRMISHERS WITH LONG ARQUEBUS CA SA KA Mo Pts F

Arquebusier	3	4	3	7	12	S	

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-1 FIRE-LANCE FOOT								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Lancer	2	3	3	6	10	S		

Equipment: Hand weapon, fire lance (count as thrusting spear) Cause morale test if kill caused, no armour save allowed.

SLAV OR ANATOLIAN SHARPSHOOTERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F		
Arquebusner	2	3	3	7	8	S		

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

0-1 WAGON LAAGER

0-2 WAR WAGONS WITH LIGHT GUNS

THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

BARBAROSSA HAYREDDIN PASHA



Hayreddin Barbarossa, or Barbarossa Hayreddin Pasha (Turkish: Barbaros Hayreddin (Hayrettin) Paşa or Hızır Hayreddin (Hayrettin) Paşa; also Khizr Reis before being promoted to the rank of Pasha and becoming the Kapudan-i Derya, born Khizr or Khidr, Turkish: Hızır; c. 1478 – 4 July 1546), was an Ottoman Turkish admiral of the fleet who was born on the island of Lesbos/Mytilini and died in Constantinople, the Ottoman capital. Barbarossa's naval victories secured Ottoman dominance over the Mediterranean during the mid 16th century, from the Battle of Preveza in 1538 until the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

Hayreddin (Arabic: Khair ad-Din نوبكا دوب; which literally means "goodness" or "best of the religion" of Islam) was an honorary name given to him by Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent. He became known as "Barbarossa" ("Redbeard" in Italian) in Europe, a name he inherited from his elder brother Baba Oruç (Father Aruj) after Aruj was killed in a battle with the Spanish in Algeria. This name sounded like "Barbarossa" ("Redbeard") to the Europeans, and Aruj did have a red beard. The nickname then stuck also to Hayreddin's Turkish name, in the form Barbaros.

Khizr was born in the 1470s on the island of Lesbos in the village Palaiokipos to his father Yakup Ağa and to his mother Katerina. Sources refer to Khizr as a Greek, as a Turk, or as an Albanian by origin. His mother was referred as a local Christian Greek woman from Mytilene, the widow of an Orthodox priest. His father Yakup was referred as a Greek renegade from Mytilene or Turkish as well as a former Sipahi from Yenice-i Vardar (modern Yannitsa) and took part in the Ottoman conquest of Lesbos from the Genoese in 1462, and as a reward, was granted the fief of the Bonova village in the island. Yakup and Katerina were married and had two daughters and four sons: Ishak, Aruj, Khizr and Ilyas. Yakup became an established potter and purchased a boat to trade his products. The four sons helped their father with his business, but not much is known about the daughters. At first Aruj helped with the boat, while Khizr helped with pottery.

Early career



Castle of St. Peter of the Knights Hospitaller in Bodrum, where Aruj was held captive for nearly three years until he was saved by his younger brother Khizr.

All four brothers became seamen, engaged in marine affairs and international sea trade. The first brother to become involved in seamanship was Aruj, who was joined by his brother Ilyas. Later, obtaining his own ship, Khizr also began his career at sea. The brothers initially worked as sailors, but then turned privateers in the Mediterranean to counteract the privateering of the Knights Hospitaller (Knights of St. John) who were based in the island of Rhodes(until 1522). Aruj and Ilyas operated in the Levant, between Anatolia, Syria, and Egypt. Khizr operated in the Aegean Sea and based his operations mostly in Thessaloniki. Ishak, the eldest, remained on Mytilene and was involved with the financial affairs of the family business.



AROUDL, Aruj was Hayreddin Barbarossa's elder brother.

Death of Ilyas, captivity and liberation of Aruj

Aruj was a very successful seaman. He also learned to speak Italian, Spanish, French, Greek and Arabic in the early years of his career. While returning from a trading expedition in Tripoli, Lebanon, with his younger brother Ilyas, they were attacked by the Knights of St. John. Ilyas was killed in the fight, and Aruj was wounded. Their father's boat was captured, and Aruj was taken as a prisoner and detained in the Knights' castle at Bodrum

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for nearly three years. Upon learning the location of his brother, Khizr went to Bodrum and managed to help Aruj escape.

Aruj the corsair

Aruj later went to Antalya, where he was given 18 galleys by Shehzade Korkud, an Ottoman prince and governor of the city, and charged with fighting against the Knights of St. John, who were inflicting serious damage on Ottoman shipping and trade. In the following years, when Shehzade Korkud became governor of Manisa, he gave Aruj a larger fleet of 24 galleys at the port of İzmir and ordered him to participate in the Ottoman naval expedition to Apulia in Italy, where Aruj bombarded several coastal castles and captured two ships. On his way back to Lesbos, he stopped at Euboea and captured three galleons and another ship. Reaching Mytilene with these captured vessels, Aruj learned that Shehzade Korkud, brother of the new Ottoman sultan, had fled to Egypt in order to avoid being killed because of succession disputes - a common practice at that time. Fearing trouble due to his well-known association with the exiled Ottoman prince, Aruj sailed to Egypt, where he met Shehzade Korkud in Cairo and managed to get an audience with the Mamluk Sultan Qansuh al-Ghawri, who gave him another ship and appointed him with the task of raiding the coasts of Italy and the islands of the Mediterranean that were controlled by Christians. After passing the winter in Cairo, he set sail from Alexandria and frequently operated along the coasts of Liguria and Sicily.



Western depiction of Hayreddin Barbarossa

Khizr's career under Aruj

In 1503, Aruj managed to seize three more ships and made the island of Djerba his new base, thus moving his operations to the Western Mediterranean. Khizr joined Aruj at Djerba. In 1504, the brothers contacted Abu Abdullah Mohammed Hamis, Sultan of Tunisia from the Beni Hafs dynasty, and asked permission to use the strategically located port of La Goulette for their operations. They were granted this right with the condition of leaving one-third of their gains to the sultan. Aruj, in command of small galliots, captured two much larger Papal galleys near the island of Elba. Later, near Lipari, the two brothers captured a Sicilian warship, the Cavalleria, with 380 Spanish soldiers and 60 Spanish knights from Aragon on board, who were on their way from Spain to Naples. In 1505, they raided the coasts of Calabria. These accomplishments increased their fame, and they were joined by several other well-known Muslim corsairs.

including Kurtoğlu (known in the West as Curtogoli). In 1508, they raided the coasts of Liguria, particularly Diano Marina.

In 1509, Ishak also left Mytilene and joined his brothers at La Goulette. The fame of Aruj increased when, between 1504 and 1510, he transported Muslim Mudéjars from Christian Spain to North Africa. His efforts of helping the Muslims of Spain in need and transporting them to safer lands earned him the honorific name Baba Aruj (Father Aruj), which eventually – due the similarity in sound – evolved in Spain, France and Italy into Barbarossa (meaning "Redbeard" in Italian).

In 1510, the three brothers raided Cape Passero in Sicily and repulsed a Spanish attack on Bougie, Oran and Algiers. In August 1511, they raided the areas around Reggio Calabria in southern Italy. In August 1512, the exiled ruler of Bougie invited the brothers to drive out the Spaniards, and during the battle, Aruj lost his left arm. This incident earned him the nickname Gümüş Kol ("Silver Arm" in Turkish), in reference to the silver prosthetic device that he used in place of his missing limb. Later that year, the three brothers raided the coasts of Andalusia in Spain, capturing a galliot of the Lomellini family of Genoa, who owned the Tabarca island in that area. They subsequently landed on Minorca and captured a coastal castle and then headed towards Liguria, where they captured four Genoese galleys near Genoa. The Genoese sent a fleet to liberate their ships, but the brothers captured their flagship as well. After capturing a total of 23 ships in less than a month, the brothers sailed back to La Goulette.

There, they built three more galliots and a gunpowder production facility. In 1513, they captured four English ships on their way to France, raided Valencia, where they captured four more ships, and then headed for Alicante and captured a Spanish galley near Málaga. In 1513 and 1514, the three brothers engaged the Spanish fleet on several other occasions and moved to their new base in Cherchell, east of Algiers. In 1514, with 12 galliots and 1,000 Turks, they destroyed two Spanish fortresses at Bougie, and when the Spanish fleet under the command of Miguel de Gurrea, viceroy of Majorca, arrived for assistance, they headed towards Ceuta and raided that city before capturing Jijel in Algeria, which was under Genoese control. They later captured Mahdiya in Tunisia. Afterwards, they raided the coasts of Sicily, Sardinia, the Balearic Islands and the Spanish mainland, capturing three large ships there. In 1515, they captured several galleons, a galley and three barques at Majorca. Still in 1515, Aruj sent precious gifts to the Ottoman Sultan Selim I, who, in return, sent him two galleys and two swords embellished with diamonds. In 1516, joined by Kurtoğlu (Curtogoli), the brothers besieged the Castle of Elba, before heading once more towards Liguria, where they captured 12 ships and damaged 28 others.





Old Algiers in the 16th century, with the Spanish-built Peñón of Algiers in the forefront

In 1516, the three brothers succeeded in liberating Jijel and Algiers from the Spaniards but eventually assumed control over the city and surrounding region, forcing the previous ruler, Abu Hamo Musa III of the Beni Ziyad dynasty, to flee.[citation needed] The Spaniards in Algiers sought refuge on the island of Peñón off the Moroccan coast and asked Charles V, King of THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

Spain and Holy Roman Emperor, to intervene, but the Spanish fleet failed to force the brothers out of Algiers.

Algiers joins the Ottoman Empire

After consolidating his power and declaring himself Sultan of Algiers, Aruj sought to enhance his territory inlands and took Miliana, Medea and Ténès. He became known for attaching sails to cannons for transport through the deserts of North Africa. In 1517, the brothers raided Capo Limiti and later, the Island of Capo Rizzuto in Calabria.

For Aruj, the best protection against Spain was to join the Ottoman Empire, his homeland and Spain's main rival. For this, he had to relinquish his title of Sultan of Algiers to the Ottomans. He did this in 1517 and offered Algiers to the Ottoman Sultan. The Sultan accepted Algiers as an Ottoman sanjak ("province"), appointed Aruj Governor of Algiers and to support him with janissaries, galleys and cannons.



A depiction of Hayreddin Barbarossa

Final engagements and death of Aruj and Ishak

The Spaniards ordered Abu Zayan, whom they had appointed as the new ruler of Tlemcen and Oran, to attack Aruj Reis from land, but Aruj learned of the plan and pre-emptively struck against Tlemcen, capturing the city and executing Abu Zayan in the Fall of Tlemcen (1517). The only survivor of Abu Zayan's dynasty was Sheikh Buhammud, who escaped to Oran and called for Spain's assistance.

In May 1518, Emperor Charles V arrived at Oran and was received at the port by Sheikh Buhammud and the Spanish governor of the city, Diego de Córdoba, marquess of Comares, who commanded a force of 10,000 Spanish soldiers. Joined by thousands of local Bedouins, the Spaniards marched overland towards Tlemcen. Aruj and Ishak awaited them in the city with 1,500 Turkish and 5,000 Moorish soldiers. They defended Tlemcen for 20 days, but were eventually killed in combat by the forces of Garcia de Tineo.

Khizr Reis, now given the title of Beylerbey by Sultan Selim I, along with janissaries, galleys and cannons, inherited his brother's place, his name (Barbarossa) and his mission.

Later career

Statue of Hayreddin Barbarossa next to the Dey's Fort in AlgiersWith a fresh force of Turkish soldiers sent by the Ottoman sultan, Barbarossa recaptured Tlemcen in December 1518. He continued the policy of bringing Mudéjars from Spain to North Africa, thereby assuring himself of a sizable following of grateful and loyal Muslims, who harbored an intense hatred for Spain. He captured Bone, and in 1519, he defeated a Spanish-Italian army that tried to recapture Algiers. In a separate incident, he sank a Spanish ship and captured eight others. Still in 1519, he raided Provence, Toulon and the Îles d'Hyères in southern France. In 1521, he raided the Balearic Islands and later captured several Spanish ships returning from the New World off Cadiz. In 1522, he sent his ships, under the command of Kurtoğlu, to participate in the Ottoman conquest of Rhodes, which resulted in the departure of the Knights of St. John from that island on 1 January 1523.

In June 1525, he raided the coasts of Sardinia. In May 1526, he landed at Crotone in Calabria and sacked the city, sank a Spanish galley and a Spanish fusta in the harbor, assaulted Castignano in Marche on the Adriatic Sea and later landed at Cape Spartivento. In June 1526, he landed at Reggio Calabria and later destroyed the fort at the port of Messina. He then appeared on the coasts of Tuscany, but retreated after seeing the fleet of Andrea Doria and the Knights of St. John off the coast of Piombino. In July 1526, Barbarossa appeared once again in Messina and raided the coasts of Campania. In 1527, he raided many ports and castles on the coasts of Italy and Spain.

In May 1529, he captured the Spanish fort on the island of Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera that controlled the north Moroccan coast. In August 1529, he attacked the Mediterranean coasts of Spain and later helped 70,000 Moriscos to escape from Andalusia in seven consecutive journeys. In January 1530, he again raided the coasts of Sicily and, in March and June of that year, the Balearic Islands and Marseilles. In July 1530, he appeared along the coasts of the Provence and Liguria, capturing two Genoese ships. In August 1530, he raided the coasts of Sardinia and, in October, appeared at Piombino, capturing a barque from Viareggio and three French galleons before capturing two more ships off Calabria. In December 1530, he captured the Castle of Cabrera, in the Balearic Islands, and started to use the island as a logistic base for his operations in the area.

In 1531, he encountered Andrea Doria, who had been appointed by Charles V to recapture Jijel and Peñón de Vélez de la Gomera, and repulsed the Spanish-Genoese fleet of 40 galleys. Still in 1531, he raided the island of Favignana, where the flagship of the Maltese Knights under the command of Francesco Touchebeuf unsuccessfully attacked his fleet. Barbarossa then sailed eastwards and landed in Calabria and Apulia. On the way back to Algiers, he sank a ship of the Maltese Knights near Messina before assaulting Tripoli, which had been given to the Knights of St. John by Charles V in 1530. In October 1531, he again raided the coasts of Spain.

In 1532, during Suleiman I's expedition to Habsburg Austria, Andrea Doria captured Coron, Patras and Lepanto on the coasts of the Morea (Peloponnese). In response, Suleiman sent the

forces of Yahya Pashazade Mehmed Bey, who recaptured these cities, but the event made Suleiman realize the importance of having a powerful commander at sea. He summoned Barbarossa to Constantinople, who set sail in August 1532. Having raided Sardinia, Bonifacio in Corsica, and the islands of Montecristo, Elba and Lampedusa, he captured 18 galleys near Messina and learned from the captured prisoners that Doria was headed to Preveza. Barbarossa proceeded to raid the nearby coasts of Calabria and then sailed towards Preveza. Doria's forces fled after a short battle, but only after Barbarossa had captured seven of their galleys. He arrived at Preveza with a total of 44 galleys, but sent 25 of them back to Algiers and headed to Constantinople with 19 ships. There, he was received by Sultan Suleiman at Topkapı Palace. Suleiman appointed Barbarossa Kapudan-i Derya ("Grand Admiral") of the Ottoman Navy and Beylerbey ("Chief Governor") of North Africa. Barbarossa was also given the government of the Sanjak ("province") of Rhodes and those of Euboea and Chios in the Aegean Sea.

Diplomacy with France

In 1533, Barbarossa sent an embassy to the king of France, Francis I, the Ottoman embassy to France (1533). Francis I would in turn dispatch Antonio Rincon to Barbarossa in North Africa and then to Suleiman the Magnificent in Asia Minor.[12] Following a second embassy, the Ottoman embassy to France (1534), Francis I sent his ambassador Jehan de la Forest to Hayreddin Barbarossa, asking for his naval support against the Habsburg:

"Military instructions to Jean de La Forêt, by Chancelor Antoine Duprat (copy), 11 February 1535"Jean de la Forest, whom the King sends to meet with the Grand Signor [Suleiman the Magnificent], will first go from Marseilles to Tunis, in Barbary, to meet sir Haradin, king of Algiers, who will direct him to the Grand Signor. To this objective, next summer, he [the King of France] will send the military force he is preparing to recover what it unjustly occupied by the Duke of Savoy, and from there, to attack the Genoese. This king Francis I strongly prays sir Haradin, who has a powerful naval force as well as a convenient location [Tunisia], to attack the island of Corsica and other lands, locations, cities, ships and subjects of Genoa, and not to stop until they have accepted and recognized the king of France. The King, besides the above land force, will additionally help with his naval force, which will comprise at least 50 vessels, of which 30 galleys, and the rest galeasses and other vessels, accompanied by one of the largest and most beautiful carracks that ever was on the sea. This fleet will accompany and escort the army of sir Haradin, which will also be refreshed and supplied with food and ammunition by the King, who, by these actions, will be able to achieve his aims, for which he will be highly greatful to sir Haradin".

— Military instructions to Jean de La Forêt, by Chancelor Antoine Duprat, 11 February 1535.

Kapudan-i Derya of the Ottoman Navy

Barbarossa Hayreddin Pasha's force led by Sinan Reis defeats the Holy League of Charles V under the command of Andrea Doria at the Battle of Preveza in 1538.

Barbarossa Castle in Capri still carries the name of the Ottoman admiral who captured the island in 1535. The Turks eventually departed from Capri, but another famous Ottoman admiral, Turgut Reis, recaptured both the island and the castle in 1553.

Statue of Hayreddin Barbarossa near the Istanbul Naval Museum on the Bosphorus in Istanbulln 1534, Barbarossa set sail from Constantinople with 80 galleys, and in April, he recaptured Coron, Patras and Lepanto from the Spaniards. In July 1534, he crossed the Strait of Messina and raided the Calabrian coasts, capturing a substantial number of ships around Reggio Calabria as well as the Castle of San Lucido. He later destroyed the port of Cetraro and the ships harbored there. Still in July 1534, he appeared in Campania and sacked the islands of Capri and Procida before bombarding the ports in the Gulf of Naples. He then appeared in Lazio, shelled Gaeta and in August landed at Villa Santa Lucia, Sant'Isidoro, Sperlonga, Fondi, Terracina and Ostia on the River Tiber, causing the church bells in Rome to ring the alarm. He then sailed south, appearing at Ponza, Sicily and Sardinia, before capturing Tunis in August 1534 and sending the Hafsid Sultan Mulei Hassan fleeing. He also captured Tunis' strategic port of La Goulette.

Charles then dispatched an agent to offer Barbarossa "the lordship of North Africa" for his changed loyalty, or if that failed, to assassinate him in the eve when he was drunk. However, upon rejecting the offer, Barbarossa decapitated him with his scimitar.

Mulei Hassan asked Emperor Charles V for assistance to recover his kingdom, and a Spanish-Italian force of 300 galleys and 24,000 soldiers recaptured Tunis as well as Bone and Mahdiya in 1535. Recognizing the futility of armed resistance, Barbarossa had abandoned Tunis well before the arrival of the invaders, sailing away into the Tyrrhenian Sea, where he bombarded ports, landed once again at Capri and reconstructed a fort (which still today carries his name) after largely destroying it during the siege of the island. He then sailed to Algiers, from where he raided the coastal towns of Spain, destroyed the ports of Majorca and Minorca, captured several Spanish and Genoese galleys and liberated their Muslim oar slaves. In September 1535, he repulsed another Spanish attack on Tlemcen.

In 1536, Barbarossa was called back to Constantinople to take command of 200 ships in a naval attack on the Habsburg Kingdom of Naples. In July 1537, he landed at Otranto and captured the city, as well as the Fortress of Castro and the city of Ugento in Apulia.

In August 1537, Lütfi Pasha and Barbarossa led a huge Ottoman force that captured the Aegean and Ionian islands belonging to the Republic of Venice, namely Syros, Aegina, Ios, Paros, Tinos, Karpathos, Kasos, Kythira, and Naxos. In the same year, Barbarossa raided Corfu and obliterated the agricultural cultivations of the island while enslaving nearly all the population of the countryside.[14] However, the Old Fortress of Corfu was well defended by a 4,000-strong Venetian garrison with 700 guns, and when several assaults failed to capture the fortifications, the Turks reluctantly re-embarked[15] and once again raided Calabria. These losses caused Venice to ask Pope Paul III to organize a "Holy League" against the Ottomans.

In February 1538, Pope Paul III succeeded in assembling a Holy League (composed of the Papacy, Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, the Republic of Venice and the Maltese Knights) against the Ottomans, but Barbarossa's forces led by Sinan Reis defeated its combined fleet, commanded by Andrea Doria, at the Battle of Preveza in September 1538. This victory secured Ottoman dominance over the Mediterranean for the next 33 years, until the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

In the summer of 1539, Barbarossa captured the islands of Skiathos, Skyros, Andros and Serifos and recaptured Castelnuovo from the Spanish, who had taken it from the Ottomans after the battle of Preveza. He also captured the nearby Castle of Risan, and with Sinan Reis, later assaulted the Venetian fortress of Cattaro and the Spanish fortress of Santa Veneranda near Pesaro. Barbarossa later took the remaining Christian outposts in the Ionian and Aegean Seas. Venice finally signed a peace treaty with Sultan Suleiman in October 1540, agreeing to recognize the Ottoman territorial gains and to pay 300,000 gold ducats.



Letter of praise from Barbarossa to Suleyman, 1541. Istanbul Naval Museum.

In September 1540, Emperor Charles V contacted Barbarossa and offered him to become his Admiral-in-Chief as well as the ruler of Spain's territories in North Africa, but he refused. Unable to persuade Barbarossa to switch sides, in October 1541, Charles himself laid siege to Algiers, seeking to end the corsair threat to the Spanish domains and Christian shipping in the western Mediterranean. The season was not ideal for such a campaign, and both Andrea Doria, who commanded the fleet, and the old Hernan Cortés, who had been asked by Charles to participate in the campaign, attempted to change the Emperor's mind but failed. Eventually, a violent storm disrupted Charles's landing operations. Andrea Doria took his fleet away into open waters to avoid being wrecked on the shore, but much of the Spanish fleet went aground. After some indecisive fighting on land, Charles had to abandon the effort and withdraw his severely battered force.

Franco-Ottoman alliance



In the Siege of Nice in 1543, Barbarossa's fleet combined with a French force to capture the city.



Barbarossa's fleet wintering in Toulon, 1543, during the Ottoman occupation of Toulon

In 1543, Barbarossa headed towards Marseilles to assist France, then an ally of the Ottoman Empire, and cruised the western Mediterranean with a fleet of 210 ships (70 galleys, 40 galliots and 100 other warships carrying 14,000 Turkish soldiers, thus an overall total of 30,000 Ottoman troops). On his way, while passing through the Strait of Messina, he asked Diego Gaetani, the governor of Reggio Calabria, to surrender his city. Gaetani responded with cannon fire, which killed three Turkish sailors. Barbarossa, angered by the response, besieged and captured the city. He then landed on the coasts of Campania and Lazio and, from the mouth of the Tiber, threatened Rome, but France intervened in favor of the pope's city. Barbarossa then raided several Italian and Spanish islands and coastal settlements before laying the Siege of Nice and capturing the city on 5 August 1543 on behalf of the French king, Francis I. The Ottoman captain later landed at Antibes and the Île Sainte-Marguerite near

Cannes before sacking the city of San Remo, other ports of Liguria, Monaco and La Turbie. He spent the winter with his fleet and 30,000 Turkish soldiers in Toulon, but occasionally sent his ships from there to bombard the coasts of Spain. The Christian population had been evacuated, and the Cathedral of St. Mary in Toulon was transformed into a mosque for the Turkish soldiers, while Ottoman money was accepted for transactions by the French tradesmen in the city.



Suleyman receiving Barbarossa in Constantinople

In the spring of 1544, after assaulting San Remo for the second time and landing at Borghetto Santo Spirito and Ceriale, Barbarossa defeated another Spanish-Italian fleet and raided deeply into the Kingdom of Naples. He then sailed to Genoa with his 210 ships and threatened to attack the city unless it freed Turgut Reis, who had been serving as a galley slave on a Genoese ship and then was imprisoned in the city since his capture in Corsica by Giannettino Doria in 1540. Barbarossa was invited by Andrea Doria to discuss the issue at his palace in the Fassolo district of Genoa, and the two admirals negotiated the release of Turgut Reis in exchange for 3,500 gold ducats. Barbarossa then successfully repulsed further Spanish attacks on southern France, but was recalled to Constantinople after Charles V and Suleiman had agreed to a truce in 1544.

After leaving Provence from the port of Île Sainte-Marguerite in May 1544, Barbarossa assaulted San Remo for the third time, and when he appeared before Vado Ligure, the Republic of Genoa sent him a substantial sum to save other Genoese cities from further attacks. In June 1544, Barbarossa appeared before Elba. Threatening to bombard Piombino unless the city's Lord released the son of Sinan Reis who had been captured and baptized 10 years earlier by the Spaniards in Tunis, he obtained his release. He then captured Castiglione della Pescaia, Talamone and Orbetello in the province of Grosseto in Tuscany. There, he destroyed the tomb and burned the remains of Bartolomeo Peretti, who had burned his father's house in Mytilene the previous year, in 1543. He then captured Montiano and occupied Porto Ercole and the Isle of Giglio. He later assaulted Civitavecchia, but Leone Strozzi, the French envoy, convinced Barbarossa to lift the siege.

The Ottoman fleet then assaulted the coasts of Sardinia before appearing at Ischia and landing there in July 1544, capturing the city as well as Forio and the Isle of Procida before threatening Pozzuoli. Encountering 30 galleys under Giannettino Doria, Barbarossa forced them to sail away towards Sicily and seek refuge in Messina. Due to strong winds, the Ottomans were unable to attack Salerno but managed to land at Cape Palinuro nearby. Barbarossa then entered the Strait of Messina and landed at Catona, Fiumara and Calanna near Reggio Calabria and later at Cariati and at Lipari, which was his final landing on the Italian peninsula. There, he bombarded the citadel for 15 days after the city refused to surrender and eventually captured it.

He finally returned to Constantinople and, in 1545, left the city for his final naval expeditions, during which he bombarded the ports of the Spanish mainland and landed at Majorca and Minorca for the last time. He then sailed back to Constantinople and built a palace on the Bosphorus, in the present-day quarter of Büyükdere in the Sariyer district.

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Barbarossa_(Ottoman_admiral)



JÜLICH-CLEVES-BERG

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% MERCENARIES: At least 50% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts	
Army General			-	9	3	+2	170	
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90	
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90	

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". Ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

	CAVALRY	Z
ERMAN MEN-A	T-ARMS	

GERMAN MEN-AT-ARMS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	4	3	3	7	24	R			
Dismounted	4	3	3	7	12	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Up to half may downgrade to CA3, light armour, thrusting spear (-3 mounted/-2 dismounted) placed in the rear ranks Special Rules: Shock Charge +1 if mounted, Only until 1544AD

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN	MOUNTED	CROSSBOWMEN
---------------------	---------	-------------

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	H
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow Special Rules: Feign Flight

0-1 PETRONELS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, pistols

May have Mo6 and arquebus instead of pistols (free)

GERMAN REITERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	19	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armor, pistols Special Rules: Caracole, Only from 1544AD

MERCENARIES

0-2 FIELD GUNS

0-2 LIGHT CANNONS

Special Rules: Only from 1555AD

LANDSKN	ECHT	PIKEN	IEN				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R	
Equipment	t: Hand v	veapon,	pike.				
May have li	ight(+1)	or heav	v (+3) a	rmor.			
Special Ru							
~							
LANDSKN	ECHT	ARQU	EBUSII	ERS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Arquebusi	er 2	3	3	7	8	R	
Equipment	t: Hand v	veapon,	arqueb	us.			
Special Ru	les: Land	lsknech	t Ordon	nance			
OTHER F	OOT AF	QUEB	USIER				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Arquebusi	er 2	3	3	7	8	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Only from 1555AD: Upgrade to SA4 (+3)



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

SAXONY

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% MERCENARIES: At least 50% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts	
Army General	-		-	9	3	+2	170	
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90	
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90	

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". Ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

		C	AVALI	RY			
GERMAN M	EN-AT	-ARM	S				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Horseman	4	3	3	7	24	R	
Dismounted	4	3	3	7	12	R	

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Up to half may downgrade to CA3, light armour, thrusting spear (-3 mounted/-2 dismounted) placed in the rear ranks **Special Rules:** *Shock Charge* +1 if mounted, Only until 1544AD

MOUNTED CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow Special Rules: *Feign Flight*

0-1 PETRONELS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, pistols

May have Mo6 and arquebus instead of pistols (free)

GERMAN REITERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	19	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armor, pistols Special Rules: *Caracole* Only from 1544AD

MERCENARIES

0-2 LIGHT CANNONS

0-2 FIELD GUNS Special Rules: Only from 1555AD

LANDSKNH	ECHT P	IKEM	EN			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment:	Hand w	eapon,	pike.			
May have lig	ht (+1) o	or heav	y (+3) a	rmor.		
Special Rule			• • •			
LANDSKNI	ECHT A	RQUI	EBUSIE	ERS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment:	Hand w	eapon.	arqueb	15.		
Special Rule		- ·	-			
~ 1						
OTHER FO	OT AR	OUEB	USIER			
States and	CA	~		Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R
quebublei			•			

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Only from 1555AD: Upgrade to SA4 (+3)



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

BRANDENBURG

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% MERCENARIES: At least 50% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	L	S	Pts		
Army General	-			9	3	+2	170		
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90		
Army Standard	-	-	-	8	2	+1	90		

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". Ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

GERMAN M	EN-AT	-ARM	S			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	24	R
Dismounted	4	3	3	7	12	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, shield, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Up to half may downgrade to CA3, light armour, thrusting spear (-3 mounted/-2 dismounted) placed in the rear ranks Special Rules: Shock Charge +1 if mounted, Only until 1544AD

MOUNTED	CROSSBOWMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow Special Rules: *Feign Flight*

0-1 PETRONELS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, pistols

May have Mo6 and arquebus instead of pistols (free)

GERMAN REITERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F.
Horseman	3	3	3	7	19	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armor, pistols **Special Rules:** *Caracole*, Only from 1544AD

MERCENARIES

0-2 LIGHT CANNONS

0-2 FIELD GUNS Special Rules: Only from 1555AD

LANDSKNEO	CHT P	IKEM	EN			
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: H	land w	eapon,	pike.			
May have light	t (+1) d	or heav	y (+3) a	armor.		
Special Rules:	Land	sknech	t Ordon	nance		
LANDSKNEO	CHT A	RQU	EBUSI	ERS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: H	land w	eapon,	arqueb	us.		
Special Rules:	Land	sknech	t Ordon	nance		
OTHER FOO	TAR	OUEB	USIER			
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F

Arquebusier23378Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

R

Only from 1555AD: Upgrade to SA4 (+3)



HUNGARY

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS												
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts					
Army General	-		-	9	3	+2	170					
Brigade Com.	-	-	-	8	1	+1	90					
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90					

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

	5	C	AVALI	RY	1.5	
ROYAL BAN	DERI	UM				
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R
Dismounted	4	3	3	8	19	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance

May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Special Rules: Drilled if dismounted,, Shock Charge +2 if mounted

HUNGARIAN NOBLES

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	4	3	3	7	22	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, thrusting spear May have shield (+2) and cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

H	U	S	S	A	R	S
**	-	\mathbf{r}	2			.

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	16	S

Equipment: Hand weapon May have bow (+2) and thrusting spear (+2) May upgrade to CA4 (+2) Special Rules: Feign Flight

INFANTRY

HUNGARIAN ARCHERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Archer	2	3	3	6	6	L			

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow. May have shield (+1)

0-1 WAGON LAAGER

MERCENARIES

0-4 LIGHT CANNONS

0-1 FIELD GUN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	8	R
Equipment: H		1 '				
May have light	t (+1) (or heav	/y (+3) a	rmor.		
Special Rules:	: Land.	sknech	t Ordoni	nance		
LANDSKNE	CHT A	RQU	EBUSIE	RS		
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
				7	8	R
Arquebusier	2	3	3	/	o	
Arquebusier	2	3	3	'	0	

ITALIAN AR	QUEB	USIER	RS			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

DOL ICIL DDA DC

I OLISII I		SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Drab	3	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, shield May have large shield (+2) Up to half may have bow (free) Special Rules: Combined Formation



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

KNIGHTS OF ST JOHN

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 50% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts	
Army General	1		-	9	3	+2	170	
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90	
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90	

Equipment and Armour Value: as unit

Special Rules: Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Ally General 1 SIP, may add up to 2 SIP for 20 points each Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY											
BROTHER K					The second se						
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F					
Horseman	4	3	3	8	29	R					
Dismounted	4	3	3	8	12	R					

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, lance

May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding. May take partial or full plate armour (+2/+3)

Dismouthed - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Special Rules: *Drilled* if dismounted, *Shock Charge* +2 if mounted

SERVING BRETHREN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	8	27	R
Dismounted	3	3	3	8	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, shield, lance May have cloth (+4) or plate (+6) barding.

Dismounted - may take halberd (+2) or double-handed weapon (+3) no lance.

Only after 1522AD: Downgrade dismounted to Mo7 (-2) **Special Rules:** *Drilled* if dismounted, *Shock Charge* +2 if mounted

TURCOPO	LES					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	20	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow, light armour May have shield (+2) **Special Rules:** *Feign Flight*, Only until 1522AD

INFANTRY

GREEK AND CRETAN ARCHERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F		
Archer	2	3	3	6	6	L		

Equipment: Hand weapon, bow. Special Rules: Only until 1522AD

GREEK, COLONIST AND MERCENARY

CROSSBOWM	EN					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	3	3	3	7	10	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow. May have pavise (+2)

INFANTRY

0-3 LIGHT AND ORGAN GUNS

MERCENARY HALBERDIERS									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Halberdier	4	3	3	8	14	R			

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, halberd May have double handed weapon (+1) Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance, Drilled, Only until 1522AD

MERCENARY ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	3	3	3	7	9	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance, Only until 1522AD

MERCENARY PIKEMEN

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Pikeman	3	3	3	7	11	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, pike. May have heavy armour (+3). **Special Rules:** *Swiss Ordonnance,* Only after 1522AD

MERCENARY ARQUEBUSIERS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus. Special Rules: Swiss Ordonnance, Only after 1522AD

MERCENA	ARY OA	RSME	N			
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	Pts	F
Oarsman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, heavy armour, buckler May be *Drilled* (+2) **Special Rules:** Only after 1522AD



VENETIAN COLONIAL

CHARACTERS: Up to 25% CAVALRY: Up to 25% INFANTRY: At least 25% MERCENARIES: Up to 25% SIP: not pooled

CHARACTERS								
	CA	SA	KA	Мо	L	S	Pts	
Army General	1		-	9	3	+2	170	
Brigade Com.		-	-	8	1	+1	90	
Army Standard		-	-	8	2	+1	90	

Equipment and Armor Value: as unit **Special Rules:** Zone of Command 10". General may be upgraded to Mo10 (+50). May ride a horse (AV3).

Army General 1 SIP (2 if upgraded), may add up to 2 SIP for 20. Brigade Commander 1 SIP, may add up to one SIP for 20 points.

CAVALRY									
ELMETI									
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F			
Horseman	4	3	3	7	23	R			
Equipment:									
May have sh		·		· •		arding.			
May take par	tial or f	ull plat	e armou	r (+2/+3	3)				

Special Rules: Shock Charge +1

0-1 MOUNT	ED AR	QUBU	SIERS	
	<i>a</i> .	a .	** *	

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	S

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

MOUNTED	CROS	SBOW	MEN			
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	14	L

Equipment: Hand weapon, light crossbow. Special Rules: Light Cavalry

STRADIOTS

	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Horseman	3	3	3	7	21	L

Equipment: Horse, hand weapon, thrusting spear, javelins, shield. May have bow (+2) and light armour (+2) Special Rules: May Skirmish, Feign Flight

INFANTRY MILITIA ARQUEBUSIERS							
Arquebusier	2	3	3	7	8	R	
Equipment: F May have pave ARCHERS		- ·					
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F	
Archer	2	3	3	6	6	S	
Equipment: Hand weapon, bow.							

Special Rules: Skirmishers

INFANTRY

0-3 FIELD GUNS

MERCENARY ARQUEBUSIERS								
SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F				
3	3	7	8	R				
	SA	SA KA	SA KA Mo	SA KA Mo Pts				

Equipment: Hand weapon, arquebus.

MERCENARY	FO01	CRO	SSBO	WMEN	1	
	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Crossbowman	3	4	3	7	14	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, crossbow

May have pavise (+2).

MERCENARY	SWORD-AND	-BUCKLER-MEN
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	CA	SA	KA	Mo	Pts	F
Swordsman	4	3	3	7	10	R

Equipment: Hand weapon, buckler. May have heavy armour (+3) Special Rules: Drilled



BATTLES



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

FORNOVO 1495

The Battle of Fornovo took place 30 km (19 miles) southwest of the city of Parma on 6 July 1495. The League of Venice was able to temporarily expel the French from the Italian Peninsula. It was the first major battle of the Italian Wars.



Antecedents

Charles VIII dreamed of his own crusade against the infidel and of recapturing Jerusalem for Christendom. This was to be preceded by the conquest of the Kingdom of Naples, to which he had a nebulous claim through his paternal grandmother, Marie of Anjou (1404–1463).

To have his hands free in Italy, Charles made ruinous pacts with all his neighbours, so they would not interfere. Henry VII was given cash, Ferdinand II of Aragon was given Roussillon and Maximillian was given Artois and Franche-Comté. This handing out of territory is symptomatic of Charles' lack of foresight. However, Charles was willing to do this in his attempt to establish his Neapolitan base for his crusade.

The fighting between the many independent towns of Italy was done by establishing a contract, condotta in Italian, between the town leaders and the leaders of mercenary bands, who came to be called Condottieri. This led to the developing of fighting tactics destined to establish field supremacy, gaining wealthy prisoners to be ransomed, and minimizing casualties, as it was basically a business. These tactics were going to be put to shame when the motivated armies of France and Spain descended upon the Italian peninsula.

Campaign

Charles VIII was on good terms with the two powers in northern Italy, Milan and Venice, and both had encouraged him to make good his claims over the Kingdom of Naples. Thus he assumed he would have their support when he moved against Alfonso II of Naples, especially as the rival claimant was Ferdinand II of Aragon, King of Spain. At the end of August 1494 Charles VIII led a powerful French army with a large contingent of Swiss mercenaries and the first train of artillery seen in history into Italy. He was granted free passage through Milan, but was vigorously opposed by Florence, Pope Alexander VI, and Naples.

On his way to Naples, Charles crushed every small army that the Pope and Naples could send against him and massacred any city that resisted him. This shocked the Italians, who were accustomed to the relatively bloodless wars of the Condottieri.

On 22 February 1495 Charles VIII, with his general Louis II de La Trémoille, entered Naples almost without opposition. The speed and violence of the campaign left the Italians stunned. Realization struck them, especially the Venetians and the new Duke of Milan, Ludovico Sforza, that unless Charles was stopped Italy would soon be another province of France. On 31 March in Venice the Holy League was proclaimed; the signatories were the Republic of Venice, the Duke of Milan, the Pope, the Spanish King, the English King, and Maximilian I, Holy Roman Emperor. The League engaged a veteran Condottiero, Francesco II of Gonzaga, Duke of Mantua to gather an army and expel the French from Italy. By 1 May this army was threatening the garrisons that Charles had left in a trail down Italy to guard his communications with France. On 20 May Charles left Naples leaving behind a garrison to hold the country and proclaiming that he only desired a safe return to France.

As a footnote, Charles' army had picked up a terrible malady while in Naples. While it is unclear whether it was imported from the New World or a more virulent strain of an Old World disease, the first known epidemic of syphilis had broken out in the city. As the French Army returned north this malady would be spread across Italy, and eventually all of Europe. Spread by the returning soldiers, it would be known through most of Europe as the "French disease".

Besides syphilis, Charles was taking with him both his large siege train and a baggage train that was loaded with the rich booty from Florence, Rome, and Naples. On 4 July the French reached the village of Fornovo and found their passage blocked by the main League army camped just north of the village.

Battle



Battle of Fornovo, 6 July 1495.

The battle was described by physician Alessandro Beneditti in his Diaria de Bello Carolino'

On 27 June the Venetians and their allies established camp near Fornovo di Taro, some 30 km southwest of Parma, to wait for the French. They would not have to wait long, but the Venetian Senate was not unanimous on fighting the French. Some members wanted to attack the rear guard of the French to try to seize the money, while others cautioned that Italy was risking too much in this battle, while for the French it was just one army. They had plenty more to draw upon.

On 4 July, Ercole d'Este, Duke of Ferrara, Charles' strongest ally in Italy, wrote to Charles to tell him that the Senate had not yet decided. But Charles was anxious, seeing the enemy numbers

growing, while he had no hope of reinforcements. When an effort to sway the undecided forces of Parma was thwarted by the Venetians, Charles instead sent a messenger to request free passage to return to France, but the Venetians replied that he would have to restore all his conquests before such could be considered. The messenger, having scouted the troops, reported back to Charles. The forty soldiers Charles subsequently sent to reconnoiter were quickly routed by the Stradioti (a mainly Albanian mercenary force), whose ranks consisted of many veterans from the Albanian-Turkish Wars (1443-1478).

Two days later, 6 July, Charles decided to offer battle because the French were short on provisions. The League armies, mostly Venetians, were at the right side of the Taro river, and the French decided to keep the left side of the river. The French position was deemed to be good for defense because the Venetians had not cleared the field, and the rain had made the river banks slippery and impassable for the cavalry. Charles organized his army in battle groups. The first group, a troop of about 2,500, was led by Gian Giacomo Trivulzio. The second, the largest, was led by Charles himself. The final group, of about 1,400, was led by Francesco Secco, who rode in conversation with prisoner Count Niccolò di Pitigliano. There was in addition a large phalanx of spear soldiers. Artillery ranged before the first line and protected the second line on the side of the Taro.

Melchiorre Trevisan promised the League soldiers the spoils of battle if they were victorious, igniting their combat ardor. Francesco Gonzaga divided his forces in nine lines. His battle plan was to distract the first and middle groups of the French by two lines while flanking the rear. Once the French groups were disorganized, the rest of the Italian troops would attack.

The light cavalry attack on the French front was impeded by the terrain conditions, as the French anticipated, and its result indecisive. While the battle was at its most delicate point, the Stradioti saw that the French guarding the baggage train were being driven out by the assigned Italian light cavalry, and they immediately left their positions to fell upon the rich baggage to plunder it. What had been a battle slowly evolving towards the Venetian advantage now turned into a bloody exchange. The French artillery did not play a role because the rain wetted the powder. The Venetian reserve entered battle. Niccolò di Pitigliano, managing to reach the Venetians, told them that the French were demoralized. A number of the Italians were fleeing the battle, but Pitigliano and the Venetian proveditors were instrumental in turning back many by convincing them that the battle was being won or that, even if it were not, it would be better to die in battle than be executed for the loss.

After over an hour of fighting, the French were forced back to a hilltop. Both sides took to camp. The French had lost about a thousand men, while the Venetians lost twice that many. Many nobles had died. The French had lost the booty of the Italian expedition. A day's truce was declared for burial of the dead. The dead and even the wounded were looted by the victorious League infantry and then the local peasantry.

The following evening, Doge Agostino Barbarigo and the Venetian Senate received a report in which they were told that the Venetian army had not been destroyed, but that the result of the battle was uncertain because they had many casualties and deserters, but they did not know the enemy casualties. Due to the lack of details in this and due to other private correspondences, the Italians first believed they were in worse position than before, but the next day's detailed report declared victory. Though expressing dismay at his financial losses, Charles also voiced pride at the conduct of his soldiers and in the limited loss of soldiers.

Consequences

Charles left Italy, without having gained anything. He attempted in the next few years to rebuild his army, but was hampered by the serious debts incurred by the previous one, and he never succeeded in recouping anything substantive. He died two-anda-half years after his retreat, of an accident — striking himself on the head while passing through a doorway, he succumbed to a sudden coma several hours later.

Charles bequeathed a meagre legacy: he left France in debt and in disarray as a result of an ambition most charitably characterized as unrealistic, and having lost several important provinces that would take centuries to recover. On a more positive side, his expedition did broaden contacts between French and Italian humanists, energizing French art and letters in the latter Renaissance.

Charles proved the last of the elder branch of the House of Valois, and upon his death at Amboise the throne passed to a cousin, the duc d'Orléans, who reigned as King Louis XII of France, who would try to make good his clearer claim to the Duchy of Milan.

However, for Italy the consequences were catastrophic. Europe knew now, from the French and German soldiers in Charles' expedition, of an incredibly rich land, divided into easily conquerable principalities, and defended only by mercenary armies that refused to fight at the slightest disadvantage. Italy was to be the scene of a dispute between the main continental powers, where the Italians were left with only a secondary role in their own destiny. Basically only Venice with its exemplary (for the time) system of government was going to survive the invasion of Italy as a completely independent state, but with the greatest difficulties, and at the cost of her strength and impulse.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Fornovo



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

MARIGNANO 1515

The Battle of Marignano was fought during the phase of the Italian Wars (1494–1559) called the War of the League of Cambrai, between France and the Old Swiss Confederacy. It took place on September 13 and 15, 1515, near the town today called Melegnano, 16 km southeast of Milan. It resulted in a victory for French forces.

It pitted the French army, composed of the best armored lancers and artillery in Europe and led by Francis I, newly crowned king of France and a day past his 21st birthday, against the Old Swiss Confederacy. With Francis were some German landsknechts, bitter rivals of the Swiss for fame and renown in war, and arriving late his Venetian allies.



Background

The campaign of Marignano followed years of Swiss successes, during which French fortunes in Northern Italy had suffered greatly. The Swiss had taken control of Milan (for France the gateway to Italy) after their victory at the Battle of Novara (1513), and returned to its ducal throne Massimiliano — son of Lodovico il Moro, the last duke of the House of Sforza to rule independent Milan, as their puppet.

The prologue to the battle was a remarkable Alpine passage, in which Francis hauled pieces of artillery (including 40 or 70 huge cannons) over new-made roads over the Col d'Argentière, a previously unknown route. This was, at the time, considered one of the foremost military exploits of the age and the equal of Hannibal's crossing of the Alps. At Villafranca the French, led by Jacques de la Palice, surprised and captured the Papal commander, Prospero Colonna, in a daring cavalry raid deep behind the allied lines (the Chevalier Bayard providing the impetus and expertise). Colonna and his staff aside, the French seized a great deal of booty on the raid, including 600 horses.

The capture of Colonna, along with the startling appearance of the French army on the plains of Piedmont, stunned the allies. The Pope and the Swiss both sought terms with Francis, while the Spanish allies en route from Naples halted to await developments. The main Swiss army retreated to Milan, while a large faction, tired of the war and eager to return home with the booty of years of successful campaigning, urged terms with the French.

Though the parties reached an agreement that gave Milan back to the French, the arrival of fresh and bellicose troops from the Swiss cantons annulled the agreement, as the newly arrived men had no desire to return home empty-handed and refused to abide by the treaty. Discord swept through the Swiss forces till Matthäus Schiner, cardinal of Sion and an arch-enemy of King Francis, inspired the Swiss with a fiery harangue on September 13, reminding them of what a smaller Swiss army had achieved against as powerful a French army at the Battle of Novara. Schiner pointed out the enormous profits of victory, appealed to national pride, and urged the Swiss to immediate battle. The effect was prodigious. The suddenly enthusiastic Swiss sprang to arms, issuing forth from Milan in disciplined but frenzied columns.

Battle

The Swiss encountered Francis's forces at the little burnt-out village of Marignano on a featureless plain. A treaty signed, the French were not expecting battle. Francis was in his tent, trying on a new suit of armor, when scouts reported the coming of the Swiss. The French army quickly jumped into action, forming up in three divisions: the vanguard, posted slightly forward and on the right under Charles III, Duke of Bourbon, the Constable of France; the central battle, commanded by the King, slightly trailing the right;and on the left and even further back, the "rearguard" commanded by the Duke of Alençon. Each division was a combined arms force of infantry, cavalry, and artillery.

Massed in front of Francis' center division was a grand battery of seventy-two field guns guarded by the infamous Black Legion, or Black Band. These were German landsknecht mercenaries who had refused to return home and instead served loyally under Francis. Also with the king's division was the Chevalier Bayard and his company, the foremost lancers in the French army (and perhaps Europe).

Close to sunset, the Swiss approached the French in three divisions of their own, each a dense mass of pikemen. They had no artillery or cavalry and had learned in past actions that a rapid advance into the enemy would sweep all before them. At Marignano, the battle began with a "forlorn hope" detaching from the Swiss vanguard phalanx, and with lowered pikes charging the grand battery in front of the King's position in the center. Their intent, justified by experience in other battles, was to quickly overrun the French cannon and then turn them upon their owners.

At first the Swiss attack succeeded in driving back the landsknecht defenders and capturing a few of the guns, the speed of the Swiss advance rendering their fire ineffective. But Bourbon's cavalry from the French right counter-attacked their flank, driving the forlorn hope back to the shelter of the Swiss vanguard. The pursuing French horse were themselves routed by the oncoming Swiss mainbody.



Swiss mercenaries and German Landsknechts fighting for glory, fame, and money at the battle of Marignan (1515). The bulk of the Renaissance armies was composed of mercenaries.

Smoke and the coming of night obscured the battle; in the moonlight and confusion, the outcome hung in the balance.

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Furious French cavalry charges, often led by the king himself, with Bayard at his side, succeeded time and again in throwing back temporary Swiss gains. Many of the foremost French commanders were wounded or killed in the desperate night fighting, including the Prince of Tallemont, son of Louis II de la Trémoille, who died with sixty-two wounds on his body. The Black Legion counter-attacked and threw back the Swiss, only to be repulsed in turn. Bayard had to cut his way through the Swiss phalanx to rescue the Duke of Lorraine, stranded in the dark amongst his enemies. In the darkest hours, the fighting stopped, and both armies extracted themselves and reorganized. At dawn the battle commenced again.



The battlefield of Marignano, drawing by Urs Graf, himself a Swiss mercenary who may have fought there.

In the French center, the grand battery had been reassembled. Opposing them, the Swiss had reformed their largest phalanx. Encouraged by the evening before, the Swiss once again lowered pikes and charged the French guns. This time the grand battery was ready for them. Massed cannon fire tore bloody furrows deep in their ranks, slowing the advance. But the undaunted Swiss continually closed ranks and pushed forward. Again, the defending German landsknechts were driven back; but the massed fire of the guns at point blank prevented the Swiss from pushing farther forward. Still another French cavalry charge, this time led by Bayard, forced the attacking Swiss to give ground.

Baffled by the artillery but as yet undaunted, the Swiss refocused their assault against Alençon's left-wing division. After making some headway, this attack too was thrown back. In his report later to his mother, King Francis would boast that "thirty brave charges" were hurled by the French gendarmerie against the stubborn Swiss.

Only the mid-morning arrival of allied Venetian forces commanded by the condottiero Bartolomeo d'Alviano turned the tide against the Swiss. Their attacks repulsed everywhere, their ranks in bloody shambles, they grudgingly gave ground and withdrew.

The battle was a decisive victory for Francis. This could be considered the expected outcome, seeing as the Swiss were heavily outnumbered and outgunned. But the Swiss during the preceding decades had almost habitually emerged victorious from such disadvantageous situations, and the French victory by no means came easy, the battle hanging in the balance until the arrival of the Venetian reinforcements.

The immediate cause of the Swiss defeat was their failure to capture the enemy artillery during the early phase of the battle, and the arrival of the Venetians. But also contributing to the Swiss defeat was their lack of discipline and their ineffective command structure. Earlier in the same year of 1515, the Swiss diet had granted to each captain the authority to decide whether their company would continue their campaign or retreat. This made it impossible for the Swiss forces to act as a unity. The system of command consisted two captains elected as commanders-in-chief, besides the captains of the individual companies, as well as one representative elected by the men-atarms of each canton. These commanders would vote on the policy of the Swiss army. In practice, this system broke down as soon as it was put to the test: the captains decided to honour the agreement not to attack, while the representatives of the troops, especially those of Uri, Schwyz and Glarus, decided to attack regardless, motivated by the prospect of rich spoils.

Results French side

Marshal Gian Giacomo Trivulzio, veteran of every war for the previous forty years, praised Marignano as the "battle of giants" and stated that compared to it, all previous battles in his lifetime had been "child's sport". King Francis considered the battle his most cherished triumph. "I have vanquished those whom only Caesar vanquished" was printed on the medal he ordered struck to commemorate the victory. On the battlefield following the victory, King Francis requested that he himself be knighted, in the ancient style, by the hand of none other than the Chevalier Bayard.



Marignano established the superiority of French cast bronze artillery and gendarme cavalry over the heretofore invincible phalanx tactics of the Swiss infantry. French success at Marignano, however, eventually galvanized opposition in the divided peninsula and turned the European balance of power against Francis I. In the meantime, however, Francis gained the city, and more importantly, the Castello Sforzesco within it, the strategic key to control of Lombardy. There Massimiliano Sforza and his Swiss mercenaries and the cardinal-bishop of Sion retreated, only submitting when French sappers had placed mines under the foundations. The French regained Milan, and Massimiliano went into luxurious exile with a French purse of 30.000 ducats.



Results Swiss side

The retreating Swiss army retained control of their upper-Lombardy provinces of Bellinzona and adjacent valleys, leaving a rearguard to preside over them.

The battle ended once and for all Swiss aspirations in Milan, and the Swiss Confederacy never again went to war against France or Milan. In fact, the Confederacy never went to war again at all after declaring neutrality in 1525, and (apart from the conquest of Vaud by the canton of Berne acting on its own in the 1530s) there never was any Swiss military offensive against an external enemy again. Swiss historiography has tended to attribute this to the "lesson learned" at Marignano, but at least as effective was the division created by the Swiss Reformation in the 1520s, dividing the Confederacy into two factions which would be occupied with internal hostilities throughout the period of the European Wars of Religion, as well as a number of painful defeats of Swiss mercenary regiments in the decade between 1515 and 1525 (at Bicocca, Sesia and Pavia).

Eternal Peace

After lengthy negotiations, an "Eternal Peace" between the Swiss cantons and Francis in both his roles as king of France and duke of Milan was signed in Fribourg on 29 November 1516. Both parties agreed not to ally themselves with opponents of the other party in any future military conflict, and to seek diplomatic or judicial resolution of all future conflicts. Switzerland renounced all claim to Milan, while France paid 400,000 gold crowns to compensate the Swiss for their Dijon and Milanese campaigns. France offered another 300,000 crowns if the Swiss were willing to yield their transmontane territories, but this offer was declined. Only the Ossola valley was passed back to Milan, while the other transmontane bailiwicks of the Swiss Confederacy remain part of Switzerland to this day, since 1803 as the canton Ticino. The treaty furthermore granted trade privileges to the Swiss, both in Milan and in Lyon.[5]

The "Eternal Peace" with France was indeed kept for the remainder of the lifetime of the Kingdom of France, and was broken only after the French Revolution, with the French invasion of Switzerland in 1798. It opens a period of close ties between the Swiss Confederacy with France over the next three centuries (while at the same time Switzerland moved away from its association with the Holy Roman Empire). A next step of rapprochemant to France was the service pact (Soldbündnis) with France, concluded in 1521, which made Swiss mercenary regiments a regular part of the French armed forces. This arrangement also outlasted three centuries, with four Swiss regiments participating in Napoleon's invasion of Russia in 1812, foreign military service of Swiss citizens being finally outlawed in 1848 with the formation of Switzerland as a federal state.

Other

Marignano was also the first battle in history in which the fife was used (in this case, by the Swiss infantry to relay commands throughout the army). Shortly after the battle, Francis met with Pope Leo X in Bologna to discuss the return of Milan to France – a meeting at which Leonardo da Vinci was present. There, Francis persuaded Leonardo to accompany him back to France, and granted him the Clos Lucé manor.

Also present at the battle was Huldrych Zwingli, who since 1506 had been church patron at Glarus. In Glarus, there was political controversy on which side the young men seeking employment as mercenaries should take service, the side of France or that of the Holy Roman Empire and the Papal States. The aim was to prevent that men of Glarus took service on both sides of the war, which would result in the unhappy constellation of "brothers fighting brothers" on the battlefield, as had been the case at Novara in 1500. Zwingli had supported the Pope before Marignano, and even after the battle, he opposed the peace with France and continued to support the side of the Papal States. Since public opinion Glarus in had shifted towards a clearly pro-French stance after the peace of 1516, Zwingli was forced to abandon his position in Glarus. He took employment at Einsiedeln, and from 1519 in Zürich. Based on his experience in the Italian War, Zwingli became an outspoken opponent of mercenary service, arguing with Erasmus of Rotterdam that "war is sweet only to those who have not experienced it" (dulce bellum inexpertis). He also blamed the warmongery on the part of cardinal Schiner for the disaster at Marignano and began to preach against the "red caps" (rote hüetlin, i.e. the high clergy), the first signs of his radicalization that would culminate in the Swiss Reformation during the decade following Marignano.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Marignano



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PAVIA 1525

The Battle of Pavia, fought on the morning of 24 February 1525, was the decisive engagement of the Italian War of 1521–26.

A Spanish-Imperial army under the nominal command of Charles de Lannoy (and working in conjunction with the garrison of Pavia, commanded by Antonio de Leyva) attacked the French army under the personal command of Francis I of France in the great hunting preserve of Mirabello outside the city walls. In the four-hour battle, the French army was split and defeated in detail. The French suffered massive casualties, including many of the chief nobles of France; Francis himself, captured by the Spanish troops, was imprisoned by Charles V and forced to sign the humiliating Treaty of Madrid, surrendering significant territory to his captor. The outcome of the battle cemented Spanish Habsburg ascendancy in Italy.



Prelude

The French, in possession of Lombardy at the start of the Italian War of 1521–26, had been forced to abandon it after their defeat at the Battle of Bicocca in 1522. Determined to regain it, Francis ordered an invasion of the region in late 1523, under the command of Guillaume Gouffier, Seigneur de Bonnivet; but Bonnivet was defeated by Imperial troops at the Battle of the Sesia and forced to withdraw to France.

Charles de Lannoy now launched an invasion of Provence under the command of Fernando d'Avalos, Marquess of Pescara, and Charles III, Duke of Bourbon (who had recently betrayed Francis and allied himself with the Emperor). While initially successful, the Imperial offensive lost valuable time during the Siege of Marseille and was forced to withdraw back to Italy by the arrival of Francis and the main French army at Avignon.

In mid-October 1524, Francis himself crossed the Alps and advanced on Milan at the head of an army numbering more than 40,000. Bourbon and d'Avalos, their troops not yet recovered from the campaign in Provence, were in no position to offer serious resistance. The French army moved in several columns, brushing aside Imperial attempts to hold its advance, but failed to bring the main body of Imperial troops to battle. Nevertheless, Charles de Lannoy, who had concentrated some 16,000 men to resist the 33,000 French troops closing on Milan, decided that the city could not be defended and withdrew to Lodi on 26 October. Having entered Milan and installed Louis II de la Trémoille as the governor, Francis (at the urging of Bonnivet and against the advice of his other senior commanders, who favored a more vigorous pursuit of the retreating Lannoy) advanced on Pavia, where Antonio de Leyva remained with a sizable Imperial garrison of about 9000.

The main mass of French troops arrived at Pavia in the last days of October. By 2 November, Anne de Montmorency had crossed

the Ticino River and invested the city from the south, completing its encirclement. Inside were about 9,000 men, mainly mercenaries whom Antonio de Leyva was able to pay only by melting the church plate. A period of skirmishing and artillery bombardments followed, and several breaches had been made in the walls by mid-November. On 21 November, Francis attempted an assault on the city through two of the breaches, but was beaten back with heavy casualties; hampered by rainy weather and a lack of gunpowder, the French decided to wait for the defenders to starve.



The French advance into Lombardy and the Pavia campaign of 1524–25. French movements are indicated in blue and Imperial movements in red.

In early December, a Spanish force commanded by Ugo de Moncada landed near Genoa, intending to interfere in a conflict between pro-Valois and pro-Habsburg factions in the city. Francis dispatched a larger force under the Marquis of Saluzzo to intercept them. Confronted by the more numerous French and left without naval support by the arrival of a pro-Valois fleet commanded by Andrea Doria, the Spanish troops surrendered. Francis then signed a secret agreement with Pope Clement VII, who pledged not to assist Charles in exchange for Francis's assistance with the conquest of Naples. Against the advice of his senior commanders, Francis detached a portion of his forces under the Duke of Albany and sent them south to aid the Pope. Lannoy attempted to intercept the expedition near Fiorenzuola, but suffered heavy casualties and was forced to return to Lodi by the intervention of the infamous Black Bands of Giovanni de' Medici, Italian mercenaries which had just entered French service. Medici then returned to Pavia with a supply train of gunpowder and shot gathered by the Duke of Ferrara; but the French position was simultaneously weakened by the departure of nearly 5,000 Grisons Swiss mercenaries, who returned to their cantons in order to defend them against marauding landsknechts.

In January 1525, Lannoy was reinforced by the arrival of Georg Frundsberg with 15,000 fresh landsknechts and renewed the offensive. D'Avalos captured the French outpost at Sant'Angelo, cutting the lines of communication between Pavia and Milan, while a separate column of landsknechts advanced on Belgiojoso and, despite being briefly pushed back by a raid led by Medici and Bonnivet, occupied the town. By 2 February, Lannoy was only a few miles from Pavia. Francis had encamped the majority of his forces in the great walled park of Mirabello outside the city walls, placing them between Leyva's garrison and the approaching relief army. Skirmishing and sallies by the garrison continued through the month of February. Medici was seriously wounded and withdrew to Piacenza to recuperate, forcing Francis to recall much of the Milan garrison to offset the departure of the Black Band; but the fighting had little overall effect. On 21 February, the Imperial commanders, running low on supplies and mistakenly believing that the French forces were more numerous than their own, decided to launch an attack on Mirabello Castle in order to save face and demoralize the French sufficiently to ensure a safe withdrawal.

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Movements in the dark

On the evening of 23 February, Lannoy's imperial troops, which had been encamped outside the east wall of the park, began their march north along the walls. At the same time, the Imperial artillery began a bombardment of the French siege lines—which had become routine during the extended siege—in order to conceal Lannoy's movement. Meanwhile, Imperial engineers quickly worked to create a breach in the park walls, at the Porta Pescarina near the village of San Genesio, through which the Imperial army could enter. By 5:00 in the morning, some 3,000 arquebusiers under the command of Alfonso d'Avalos had entered the park and were rapidly advancing on Mirabello Castle, where they believed the French headquarters to be; simultaneously, Imperial light cavalry spread out from the breach into the park, intending to intercept any French movements.

Meanwhile, a detachment of French cavalry under Charles Tiercelin encountered the Imperial cavalry and began a series of skirmishes with them. A mass of Swiss pikemen under Robert de la Marck, Seigneur de la Flourance moved up to assist them, overrunning a battery of Spanish artillery that had been dragged into the park. They missed De Vasto's arquebusiers—who had, by 6:30, emerged from the woods near the castle and swiftly overrun it—and blundered into 6,000 of Georg Frundsberg's landsknechts. By 7:00, a full-scale infantry battle had developed not far from the original breach.

Francis attacks



A third mass of troops—the Spanish and Imperial heavy cavalry under Lannoy himself, as well as d'Avalos' Spanish infantry had meanwhile been moving through the woods to the west, closer to where Francis was encamped. The French did not realize the magnitude of the Imperial attack for some time; but, by about 7:20, d'Avalos's advance had been spotted by a battery of French artillery, which commenced firing at the Spanish lines. This alerted Francis, who launched a charge against Lannoy's outnumbered cavalry with the entire force of French gendarmes, scattering the Spanish by 7:40.

Francis's precipitate advance, however, had not only masked the fire of the French artillery, but also pulled him away from the mass of French infantry, commanded by Richard de la Pole, and by Francois de Lorraine, who led the Black Band of renegade Landsknecht pikemen (not to be confused with the Italian mercenary company of arquebusiers by the same name), which was 4,000 to 5,000 men strong. D'Avalos, left in command of the Spanish forces after Lannoy had followed the retreating cavalry, formed his men up at the edge of the woods and sent messengers to Bourbon, Frundsberg, and De Vasto requesting assistance. Frundsberg had meanwhile mauled the heavily outnumbered Swiss infantry opposing him; Tiercelin and Flourance were unable to hold their troops together, and the French foot began to flee the field.

Endgame

By 8:00, a mass of Imperial pikemen and arquebusiers descended on the French cavalry from all sides. Lacking room to maneuver by the surrounding woods, the French gendarmes were surrounded and systematically killed. Richard de la Pole and Lorraine, advancing to assist Francis, were met by Frundsberg's arriving landsknechts; the French infantry was broken and routed, and de la Pole and Lorraine were both killed. In a particularly bitter contest between Imperial and renegade Landsknechts, the Black Band was surrounded by Frundsberg's pikemen and exterminated where it stood. The French king fought on as his horse was killed from under him by Cesare Hercolani, an Italian Condottiere.; surrounded by Spanish arquebusiers, he was taken prisoner and escorted from the field.

The exact nature of Francis's surrender-in particular, who exactly had taken him prisoner-is uncertain, with a variety of candidates ranging from Alonso Pita da Veiga, Juan de Urbieta and Diego Dávila to Lannoy himself being put forward by various historians. The fact of the matter was that, as documented in the article for Alonso Pita da Veiga, at the time, no single individual was given credit for the capture of Francis I. The decree granting a coat of arms to Alonso Pita da Veiga for his deeds at the Battle of Pavia, was archived at the General Archive of Simanca (Archivo general de Simancas, legajo 388, rotulado de "Mercedes y Privilegios.') and was issued by Emperor Charles V on 24 July 1529. In that decree, Charles V does not credit a single individual but, rather, a group of individuals that included Alonso Pita da Veiga: " and in the same battle, you (Alonso Pita da Veiga) accomplished so much that you reached the person of said King (Francis I of France) and captured him, jointly with the other persons that captured him." (" y en la misma batalla ficistes tanto que allegastes á la misma persona del dicho Rey, y fuistes en prenderle, juntamente con las otras personas que le prendieron")

Meanwhile, Antonio de Leyva had sortied with the garrison, overrunning the 3,000 Swiss under Montmorency that had been manning the siege lines. The remnants of the Swiss-both Montmorency's and Flourance's—tried to flee across the river, suffering massive casualties as they did. The French rearguard, under the Duke of Alençon, had taken no part in the battle; when the Duke realized what had occurred in the park, he quickly began to retreat towards Milan. By 9:00 in the morning, the battle was over.



Aftermath

The French defeat was decisive. Aside from Francis, a number of leading French nobles—including Montmorency and Flourance—had been captured; an even greater number—among them Bonnivet, Le Tremoille, La Palice, Richard de la Pole, and Lorraine—had been killed in the fighting. Francis was taken to the fortress of Pizzighettone, where he penned his famous letter to Louise of Savoy, his mother: "To inform you of how the rest of my ill-fortune is proceeding, all is lost to me save honour and life, which is safe..."

Soon afterwards, he finally learned that the Duke of Albany had lost the larger part of his army to attrition and desertion, and had returned to France without ever having reached Naples. The broken remnants of the French forces, aside from a small garrison left to hold the Castel Sforzesco in Milan, retreated across the Alps under the nominal command of Charles IV of Alençon, reaching Lyon by March.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Pavia

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CERESOLE 1544

The Battle of Ceresole (or Cérisoles) was an encounter between a French army and the combined forces of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire during the Italian War of 1542–46. The lengthy engagement took place on 11 April 1544, outside the village of Ceresole d'Alba in the Piedmont region of Italy; the French, under François de Bourbon, Count of Enghien, defeated the Spanish-Imperial army of Alfonso d'Avalos d'Aquino, Marquis del Vasto. Despite having inflicted substantial casualties on the Imperial troops, the French subsequently failed to exploit their victory by taking Milan.

Enghien and d'Avalos had arranged their armies along two parallel ridges; because of the topography of the battlefield, many of the individual actions of the battle were uncoordinated with one another. The battle opened with several hours of skirmishing between opposing bands of arquebusiers and an ineffectual artillery exchange, after which d'Avalos ordered a general advance. In the center, Imperial landsknechts clashed with French and Swiss infantry, with both sides suffering terrific casualties. In the southern part of the battlefield, Italian infantry in Imperial service were harried by French cavalry attacks and withdrew after learning that the Imperial troops of the center had been defeated. In the north, meanwhile, the French infantry line crumbled, and Enghien led a series of ineffectual and costly cavalry charges against Spanish and German infantry before the latter were forced to surrender by the arrival of the victorious Swiss and French infantry from the center.

Ceresole was one of the few pitched battles during the latter half of the Italian Wars. Known among military historians chiefly for the "great slaughter" that occurred when columns of intermingled arquebusiers and pikemen met in the center, it also demonstrates the continuing role of traditional heavy cavalry on a battlefield largely dominated by the emerging pike and shot infantry.



Prelude

The opening of the war in northern Italy had been marked by the fall of Nice to a combined Franco-Ottoman army in August 1543; meanwhile, Spanish-Imperial forces had advanced from Lombardy towards Turin, which had been left in French hands at the end of the previous war in 1538. By the winter of 1543-44, a stalemate had developed in the Piedmont between the French, under the Sieur de Boutières, and the Imperial army, under d'Avalos. The French position, centered on Turin, reached outward to a series of fortified towns: Pinerolo, Carmagnola, Savigliano, Susa, Moncalieri, Villanova, Chivasso, and a number of others; d'Avalos, meanwhile, controlled a group of fortresses on the periphery of the French territory: Mondovì, Asti, Casale Monferrato, Vercelli, and Ivrea. The two armies occupied themselves primarily with attacking each others' outlying strongholds. Boutières seized San Germano Vercellese, near Vercelli, and laid siege to Ivrea; d'Avalos, meanwhile, captured Carignano, only fifteen miles south of Turin, and proceeded to garrison and fortify it.

As the two armies returned to winter quarters, Francis I of France replaced Boutières with François de Vendôme, Count of Enghien, a prince with no experience commanding an army. Francis also sent additional troops to the Piedmont, including several hundred heavy cavalry, some companies of French infantry from Dauphiné and Languedoc, and a force of quasi-Swiss from Gruyères. In January 1544, Enghien laid siege to Carignano, which was defended by Imperial troops under the command of Pirro Colonna. The French were of the opinion that d'Avalos would be forced to attempt a relief of the besieged city, at which point he could be forced into a battle; but as such pitched battles were viewed as very risky undertakings, Enghien sent Blaise de Lasseran-Massencôme, seigneur de Montluc, to Paris to ask Francis for permission to fight one. Montluc apparently convinced Francis to give his assent-contingent on the agreement of Enghien's captains-over the objections of the Comte de St. Pol, who complained that a defeat would leave France exposed to an invasion by d'Avalos's troops at a time when Charles V and Henry VIII of England were expected to attack Picardy. Montluc, returning to Italy, brought with him nearly a hundred volunteers from among the young noblemen of the court, including the young Gaspard de Coligny.



Portrait of Alfonso d'Avalos, Marchese del Vasto, in Armor with a Page (oil on canvas by Titian, c. 1533)

D'Avalos, having waited for the arrival a large body of landsknechts dispatched by Holy Roman Emperor Charles V, set off from Asti towards Carignano. His total force included 12,500–18,000 infantry, of which perhaps 4,000 were arquebusiers or musketeers; he was only able to gather about 800–1,000 cavalry, of which less than 200 were gendarmes. D'Avalos recognized the relative weakness of his cavalry, but considered it to be compensated by the experience of his infantry and the large number of arquebusiers in its ranks.

Enghien, having learned of the Imperial advance, left a blocking force at Carignano and assembled the remainder of his army at Carmagnola, blocking d'Avalos's route to the besieged city. The French cavalry, shadowing d'Avalos's movements, discovered that the Imperial forces were headed directly for the French position; on 10 April, d'Avalos occupied the village of Ceresole d'Alba, about five miles (8 km) southeast of the French. Enghien's officers urged him to attack immediately, but he was determined to fight on ground of his own choosing; on the morning of 11 April 1544, the French marched from Carmagnola to a position some three miles (5 km) to the southeast and awaited d'Avalos's arrival. Enghien and Montluc felt that the open ground would give the French cavalry a significant tactical advantage. By this point, the French army consisted of around 11,000–13,000 infantry, 600 light cavalry, and 900–1,250 heavy cavalry; Enghien and d'Avalos each had about twenty pieces of artillery. The battle came at a fortunate time for Enghien, as his Swiss troops were—as they had before the Battle of Bicocca threatening to march home if they were not paid; the news of the impending battle restored some calm to their ranks.



The initial dispositions of the opposing armies; the French troops are shown in blue and the Imperial troops in red.

Enghien's troops were positioned along the crest of a ridge that was higher in the center than on either side, preventing the wings of the French army from seeing each other. The French army was divided into the traditional "battle", "vanward", and "rearward" corps, corresponding to the center and right and left wings of the French line. On the far right of the French position was a body of light cavalry, consisting of three companies under Des Thermes, Bernadino, and Mauré, with a total strength of around 450-500 men. To their left was the French infantry under De Tais, numbering around 4,000, and, farther to the left, a squadron of 80 gendarmes under Boutières, who was nominally the commander of the entire French right wing. The center of the French line was formed by thirteen companies of veteran Swiss, numbering about 4,000, under the joint command of William Frülich of Soleure and a captain named St. Julian. To their left was Enghien himself with three companies of heavy cavalry, a company of light horse, and the volunteers from Paris-in total, around 450 troopers. The left wing was composed of two columns of infantry, consisting of 3,000 of the recruits from Gruyères and 2,000 Italians, all under the command of Sieur Descroz. On the extreme left of the line were about 400 mounted archers deployed as light cavalry; they were commanded by Dampierre, who was also given command of the entire French left wing.

The Imperial line formed up on a similar ridge facing the French position. On the far left, facing Des Thermes, were 300 Florentine light cavalry under Rodolfo Baglioni; flanking them to the right were 6,000 Italian infantry under Ferrante Sanseverino, Prince of Salerno. In the center were the 7,000 landsknechts under the command of Eriprando Madruzzo. To their right was d'Avalos himself, together with the small force of about 200 heavy cavalry under Carlo Gonzaga. The Imperial right wing was composed of around 5,000 German and Spanish infantry under Ramón de Cardona; they were flanked, on the far right, by 300 Italian light cavalry under Philip de Lannoy, Prince of Sulmona.

Initial moves

As d'Avalos's troops, marching from Ceresole, began to arrive on the battlefield, both armies attempted to conceal their numbers and position from the other; Enghien had ordered the Swiss to lie on the ground behind the crest of the ridge, while only the left wing of the Imperial army was initially visible to the French. D'Avalos sent out parties of arquebusiers in an attempt to locate the French flanks; Enghien, in turn, detached about 800 arquebusiers under Montluc to delay the Imperial advance. The skirmishing between the arquebusiers continued for almost four hours; Martin Du Bellay, observing the engagement, described it as "a pretty sight for anyone who was in a safe place and unemployed, for they played off on each other all the ruses and stratagems of petty war." As the extent of each army's position was revealed, Enghien and d'Avalos both brought up their artillery. The ensuing cannonade continued for several hours, but had little effect because of the distance and the considerable cover available to the troops on both sides.



The first phase of the battle, including the Imperial advance, the rout of the Florentine cavalry, the division of the landsknechts, and the advance and retreat of the Spanish heavy cavalry.

The skirmishing finally came to an end when it seemed that Imperial cavalry would attack the French arquebusiers in the flank; Montluc then requested assistance from Des Thermes, who advanced with his entire force of light cavalry. D'Avalos, observing the French movement, ordered a general advance along the entire Imperial line. At the southern end of the battlefield, the French light cavalry drove Baglioni's Florentines back into Sanseverino's advancing infantry, and then proceeded to charge directly into the infantry column. The Italian formation held, and Des Thermes himself was wounded and captured; but by the time Sanseverino had dealt with the resulting disorder and was ready to advance again, the fight in the center had already been decided.

"A wholesale slaughter"

The French infantry—mostly Gascons—had meanwhile started down the slope towards Sanseverino. Montluc, noting that the disorder of the Italians had forced them to a standstill, suggested that De Tais attack Madruzzo's advancing column of landsknechts instead; this advice was accepted, and the French formation turned left in an attempt to strike the landsknechts in the flank. Madruzzo responded by splitting his column into two separate portions, one of which moved to intercept the French while the other continued up the slope towards the Swiss waiting at the crest.



Swiss mercenaries and landsknechts engaged in a push of pike (engraving by Hans Holbein the Younger, early 16th century) The pike and shot infantry had by this time adopted a system in which arquebusiers and pikemen were intermingled in combined

units; both the French and the Imperial infantry contained men with firearms interspersed in the larger columns of pikemen. This combination of pikes and small arms made close-quarters fighting extremely bloody. The mixed infantry was normally placed in separate clusters, with the arquebusiers on the flanks of a central column of pikemen; at Ceresole, however, the French infantry had been arranged with the first rank of pikemen followed immediately by a rank of arquebusiers, who were ordered to hold their fire until the two columns met. Montluc, who claimed to have devised the scheme, wrote that:

In this way we should kill all their captains in the front rank. But we found that they were as ingenious as ourselves, for behind their first line of pikes they had put pistoleers. Neither side fired till we were touching—and then there was a wholesale slaughter: every shot told: the whole front rank on each side went down.

The Swiss, seeing the French engage one of the two columns of landsknechts, finally descended to meet the other, which had been slowly moving up the hillside.[46] Both masses of infantry remained locked in a push of pike until the squadron of heavy cavalry under Boutières charged into the landsknechts' flank, shattering their formation and driving them down the slope. The Imperial heavy cavalry, which had been on the landsknechts' right, and which had been ordered by d'Avalos to attack the Swiss, recoiled from the pikes and fled to the rear, leaving Carlo Gonzaga to be taken prisoner.

The Swiss and Gascon infantry proceeded to slaughter the remaining landsknechts—whose tight order precluded a rapid retreat—as they attempted to withdraw from the battlefield. The road to Ceresole was littered with corpses; the Swiss, in particular, showed no mercy, as they wished to avenge the mistreatment of the Swiss garrison of Mondovì the previous November. Most of the landsknechts' officers were killed; and while contemporary accounts probably exaggerate the numbers of the dead, it is clear that the German infantry had ceased to exist as a fighting force. Seeing this, Sanseverino decided that the battle was lost and marched away to Asti with the bulk of the Italian infantry and the remnants of Baglioni's Florentine cavalry; the French light cavalry, meanwhile, joined in the pursuit of the landsknechts.

Engagements in the north

On the northern end of the battlefield, events had unfolded quite differently. Dampierre's cavalry routed Lannoy's company of light horse; the Italians and the contingent from Gruyères, meanwhile, broke and fled—leaving their officers to be killed without offering any real resistance to the advancing Imperial infantry. As Cardona's infantry moved past the original French line, Enghien descended on it with the entire body of heavy cavalry under his command; the subsequent engagement took place on the reverse slope of the ridge, out of sight of the rest of the battlefield.



On the first charge, Enghien's cavalry penetrated a corner of the Imperial formation, pushing through to the rear and losing some of the volunteers from Paris. As Cardona's ranks closed again, the French cavalry turned and made a second charge under heavy arquebus fire; this was far more costly, and again failed to break the Imperial column. Enghien, now joined by Dampierre's light cavalry, made a third charge, which again failed to achieve a decisive result; fewer than a hundred of the French gendarmes remained afterwards. Enghien believed the battle to be lost according to Montluc, he intended to stab himself, "which ancient Romans might do, but not good Christians"—when St. Julian, the Swiss commander, arrived from the center of the battlefield and reported that the Imperial forces there had been routed.

The news of the landsknechts' defeat reached Cardona's troops at about the same time that it had reached Enghien; the Imperial column turned and retreated back towards its original position. Enghien followed closely with the remainder of his cavalry; he was soon reinforced by a company of Italian mounted arquebusiers, which had been stationed at Racconigi and had started towards the battlefield after hearing the initial artillery exchange. These arquebusiers, dismounting to fire and then remounting, were able to harass the Imperial column sufficiently to slow its retreat. Meanwhile, the French and Swiss infantry of the center, having reached Ceresole, had turned about and returned to the battlefield; Montluc, who was with them, writes:

When we heard at Ceresole that M. d'Enghien wanted us, both the Swiss and we Gascons turned toward him—I never saw two battalions form up so quick—we got into rank again actually as we ran along, side by side. The enemy was going off at quick march, firing salvos of arquebuses, and keeping off our horse, when we saw them. And when they descried us only 400 paces away, and our cavalry making ready to charge, they threw down their pikes and surrendered to the horsemen. You might see fifteen or twenty of them round a man-at-arms, pressing about him and asking for quarter, for fear of us of the infantry, who were wanting to cut all their throats.

Perhaps as many as half of the Imperial infantry were killed as they were attempting to surrender; the remainder, about 3,150 men, were taken prisoner. A few, including the Baron of Seisneck, who had commanded the German infantry contingents, managed to escape.

Aftermath

The casualties of the battle were unusually high, even by the standards of the time, and are estimated at 28 percent of the total number of troops engaged. The smallest numbers given for the Imperial dead in contemporary accounts are between 5,000 and 6,000, although some French sources give figures as high as 12,000.A large number of officers were killed, particularly among the landsknechts; many of those who survived were taken prisoner, including Ramón de Cardona, Carlo Gonzaga, and Eriprando Madruzzo. The French casualties were smaller, but numbered at least 1,500 to 2,000 killed. These included many of the officers of the Gascon and Gruyères infantry contingents, as well as a large portion of the gendarmerie that had followed Enghien. The only French prisoner of note was Des Thermes, who had been carried along with Sanseverino's retreating Italians.

Despite the collapse of the Imperial army, the battle proved to be of little strategic significance. At the insistence of Francis I, the French army resumed the siege of Carignano, where Colonna held out for several weeks. Soon after the city's surrender, Enghien was forced to send twenty-three companies of Italian and Gascon infantry—and nearly half his heavy cavalry—to Picardy, which had been invaded by Charles V. Left without a real army, Enghien was unable to capture Milan. D'Avalos, meanwhile, routed a fresh force of Italian infantry under Pietro Strozzi and the Count of Pitigliano at the Battle of Serravalle. The end of the war saw a return to the status quo in northern Italy.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Ceresole

ORDERS OF BATTLE



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

FORNOVO 1495

Venetian

Line 1 600 Stradiots (Pietro Duodo)

Line 2 510 Italian Men-at-Arms (Ranuccio Farnese & Luigi Avogadro)

Line 3 (Reserve) 4000 Infantry (Gorlino of Ravenna)

Line 4 370 Men-at-Arms (Count Bernardino Fortebraccio) 2000 Infantry (between line 4 and 5)

Line 5 580 Men-at-Arms (Count Giovanni Francesco of Caiazzo)

Line 6 (Reserve) 255 Soldiers (Alessandro Colleoni & Taddeo dalla Motella)

Line 7 465 Men-at-Arms (Count Gianfrancesco of Gambara)

Line 8 (Camp Guard) 280 Men-at-Arms (Carlo of Pian di Meleto)

Line 9 400 Light horsemen Crossbowmen Handgunners (scorpion)

Artillery

French

First Battle (Gian Giacomo Trivulzio) 300 Horsemen (men-at-arms) 200 Light armed soldiers - not arrow bearers 2000 Germans 1750 Pikemen 250 Handgunners 21 Pieces of artillery

Main Battle (King Charles VIII of France) 600 Horsemen 2700 Mtd Crossbowmen (3400 ?) Germans 2975 Pikemen 425 Handgunners 21 Pieces of artillery

Third Battle (?) 400 Horsemen 1000 foot soldiers 400 Crossbowmen (?) (600 Germans ?) 525 Pikemen 75 Handgunners

RAVENNA 1512

Spanish

Vanguard (Fabrizio Colonna) 670 Papal Lances

Battle (Marquis della Padula) 575 Spanish Lances

Rearguard (Don Alfonso Caravajal) 490 Spanish Lances

Infantry (Pedro Navarro) 6600 Spanish 4000 Pikemen 1300 Swordsmen 1300 Arquebusiers

2000 Papal Italians (Ramassot) 1600 Pikemen 400 Arquebusiers

30 War carts Light Cavalry (Marquis de Pescara) 1500 Light Cavalry 500 Papal Arquebusiers 1000 Genitors

Artillery30 Guns

Ditch and bank

French

Rear (Yves d'Alègre) 1000 Infantry (unknown type and didn't participate) 400 French Men-at-Arms

Vanguard (Alfonso de'Este) 910 Italian Lances 24 guns

Battle (Thomas Bohier) 780 French Lances

Extreme left (Caraciolo) 2000 light cavalry Arqubusiers French Crossbowmen Stradiots 1000 Dismounted archers

Infantry 5000 Landsknecht (Jacob Empser) 4500 Pike and Halberdiers 500 Arquebusiers 8000 Gascons and Picards (Seigneur de Molart) Gascon Archers [Xbow] Picard Pikemen 3900 Italian foot (Federigo da Bozzolo)Pikemen Arquebusiers

Artillery (Ferrara) 24 Guns

Source: http://www.balagan.org.uk/war/italian-wars/battle-offornovo.htm Source: http://www.balagan.org.uk/war/italian-wars/battle-ofravenna.htm

PAVIA 1525

French

10,000 Swiss 5,000 other Pikemen, probably all Landsknecht under Richard de la Pole. 6,000 French and Italian arquebusiers 1,200 Men-at-Arms 2,000 light cavalry 53 guns

Imperialist

del Vasto 3,000 German and Spanish Handgunners 300 Light Horse

Pescara 5,000 Spanish 2,400 Men-at-Arms

Lannoy 6,000 German Landsknecht 2,400 Men-at-Arms 16 guns

Bourbon 5,000 German Landsknechts

Rearguard 3,000 Italians

Source: http://www.balagan.org.uk/war/italian-wars/battle-ofpavia.htm

CERESOLE 1544

French

Light cavalry ~400, Dampierre Italian infantry ~2,000 ,Descroz Gruyères infantry ~3,000, Descroz Heavy cavalry ~450, François de Vendôme, Count of Enghien Swiss ~4,000, William Frülich of Soleure and St. Julian Heavy cavalry ~80, Sieur de Boutières French (Gascon) infantry ~4,000 ,De Tais Light cavalry ~450–500, Des Thermes

Spanish-Imperial

Neapolitan light cavalry ~300, Philip de Lannoy, Prince of Sulmona Spanish and German infantry ~5,000, Ramón de Cardona Heavy cavalry ~200, Carlo Gonzaga Landsknechts ~7,000, Eriprando Madruzzo Italian infantry ~6,000 ,Ferrante Sanseverino, Prince of Salerno Florentine light cavalry ~300, Rodolfo Baglioni

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Ceresole



PAINTING TUTORIAL



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

Hello all together,

First miniature

I have finally finished the first tutorial on how to paint your Landskencht soldiers! I photographed several states so you can (of course) see the differences but you can always decide to stop at any point and already use them on the table. Especially the last detail steps are just adding more lights and small details like three o'clock shadows etc.

I only used Games Workshop Colours as I think those are the best out there and the easiest to get for all Wargamers. However, I still only have their old range (so pre 2012) and I do not know all their new colours. I think there are some reference converting plates out there. Maybe you will already know the equivalents or just try to find an alternative colour from another manufacture just by the pictures.

Step One – Cleaning and Priming.

This step is very important. I did not have to clean the miniatures because of their wonderful cast I just put them a bit under warm water and rubbed them so the moulding fat runs away. I then put them on 20mm x 20mm single plastic bases because I think this is the most known size for infantry models. It would also be senseful to put them on big unit bases of maybe 20mm x 80mm or on square 40mm x 40mm bases.

Now, decide on which primer you want to use: I normally use black so I do not have to make difficult black linings and to get dark colours I prefer for medievals. This time however, I used white. White primers will give you great bright colours which are just perfect for the Renaissance period! I will achieve a kindof black lining by washing later.

Also pay attention when you use your white primer. It has much more pigments than any black primers and you will get a thicker coat of paint if you spray in the same way like with the black primer. So really just 'pfft pfft' three to four times to get the biggest areas covered. If you missed big parts, just paint on any white with your brush.

Step Two – Applying the basecoats.

Now up to the basics – apply your base colours. Think of little colour combination: How should the miniature look like? Do these colours fit together? Which colours should I use? I decided on simple two-colour combinations which include metal-paints (like white and yellow) to stand out on the table.

For me it is very important to apply the base colours in one or two layers so the area is covered regularly. You do not have to be very tidy as the next step will negate some flaws.



Hat: Chardon Granite Flesh: Tallarn Flesh Red parts: Mechrite Red White parts: A mixture of Astronomican Grey and Skull White (1:1) Armour: Chaos Black Feather: Knarloc Green Belt: Chardon Granite scabbard: Chardon Granite, Dwarf Bronze with Burnished gold for the metal Shoes: Chaos Black



Second miniature

Third miniature





Hat: Chaos Black Flesh: Tallarn Flesh Blue parts: Regal Blue Yellow parts: Iyaden Darksun Belt: Chardon Granite scabbard: Chaos Black, Chainmail for the silver parts Shoes: Chardon Granite Undershirt: White

Helmet: Chainmail Flesh: Tallarn Flesh Black parts: Chaos Black (surprise!) Yellow parts: Iyaden Darksun Hair: Macharius Solar Orange Undershirt: Dheneb Stone Belt: Bleached Bone scabhard: Chaos Black scabbard: Chaos Black Shoes: Bestail Brown

Second miniature

Step Three – Washing!

This step is important to give your miniatures the needed depth. If you haven't been too tidy on the miniatures before, this step will also negate smaller mistakes and will add the so-called (kind-of) blacklining (meaning a dark colour which separates two areas).

I am a big fan of the GW washes and I add them directly and not watered down from their painting pot. Be sure that one area is completely dry before you add another wash.

First miniature



Hat: -

Flesh: Devlan Mud Blue parts: Badab Black and Asurmen Blue (1:1) Yellow parts: Casandora Yellow Belt: Badab Black scabbard: Badab Black Shoes: Badab Black Undershirt: Badab Black

Hat: Badab Black Flesh: Devlan Mud Red parts: Carroburg Crimson White parts: I used watered down codex Grey and only apply in the recesses! Armour: -Feather: Badab Black Belt: Badab Black scabbard: Devlan Mud Shoes: -

Third miniature



Helmet: Badab Black Flesh: Devlan Mud Black parts: -Yellow parts: Casandora Yellow Hair: Devlan Mud Undershirt: Devlan Mud Belt: Devlan Mud scabbard: Shoes: Devlan Mud

Step Four - Adding the first highlights

If you are not happy with the result from step three, go on and let's add some highlights. If you are happy however, feel free to use these miniatures on your gaming table. They won't win any painting-price but at least you play with painted miniatures and to be honest, they don't really look bad – do they? You should probably add a bit of a matt varnish and give them a nice base. Now for the painters (like me, I don't really play but I enjoy good painted miniatures in the cabinet to look at). I will now add the first highlights, mostly the basecoats which we have applied at step two. Again, I do this in several layers with watered down colour. You will firstly get a better cover and secondly you will automatically get nicer, smoother highlights.

First miniature



Hat: Chardon Granite with a little bit of any white Flesh: Tallarn Flesh with Elf Flesh (1:1) Red parts: Mechrite Red White parts: Skull White Armour: Black plus Boltgun Metal (4:1) Feather: Knarloc Green Belt: Chardon Granite with a little bit of any white scabbard: Bestial Brown Shoes: -

Second miniature

Third miniature





Hat: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (2:1) Flesh: Tallarn Flesh with Elf Flesh (1:1) Blue parts: Regal Blue Yellow parts: Yanden Darksun Belt: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (2:1) scabbard: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (2:1) Shoes: -Undershirt: Skull White

Helmet: Chainmail Flesh: Tallarn Flesh with Elf Flesh (1:1) Black parts: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (4:1) Yellow parts: Yanden Darksun Hair: Vomit Brown Undershirt: Dheneb Stone Palt: Blackhad Bana Belt: Bleached Bone scabbard: -Shoes: -

Step Fife – Adding further highlights

Now we will add just more highlights. I normally use my base colours plus either white, beige, ochre or other bright pastel tones. If you are not a fan of mixing colours and if you like to want to achieve colours in the same look, just use brighter colours from your normal paint palette. Here is how I painted the next highlights (and as always, use several watered down layers – your highlights will smooth together very softly then)

First miniature



Hat: Chardon Granite with more white than in step four Flesh: Elf Flesh Red parts: Blood Red White parts: Skull White (again) Armour: Black plus Boltgun Metal (2:1) Feather: Knarloc Green plus a bit of Iyanden Dark Sun (3:1) Belt: Chardon Granite with more white than in step three scabbard: Snakebite Leather Shoes: -

Second miniature



Hat: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (1:1) Flesh: Elf Flesh Blue parts: Ultramarines Blue Yellow parts: Golden Yellow (this colour was added in 3-5 layers as it's really a very very tricky colour) Belt: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (1:1) scabbard: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (1:1) Shoes: Undershirt: Skull White (again)

Third miniature



Helmet: Chainmail (again) Flesh: Elf Flesh Black parts: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (2:1) Yellow parts: Yanden Darksun plus Bleached Bone (2:1) Hair: Vomit Brown plus Bleached Bone (2:1) **Undershirt: -**Belt: scabbard: -Shoes: Snakebite Leather

Step Six - Adding last details

Now the last step – just adding details where you want them to be. It is good if you want to put some more life in to your miniatures, give them a brief story (veteran troops, battleworn, nationality etc.) and to let them stand out a bit more on your gaming table.

First miniature

Red parts: Firey orange. In two layers. Then I glazed the whole area with very much watered down Carroburg Crimson.

Armour: Black plus Chainmail (1:1) on the raised areas. Feather: Knarloc Green plus a bit of Iyanden Dark Sun (2:1) Scabberd: Snakebite Leather

Second miniature

Beard: I added a three o'clock shadow with slightly watered down Khemri Brown. I used two layers for that, the first much more watered down than the second. Blue parts: Ultramarines Blue plus a bit of white (3:1) Yellow parts: Golden Yellow plus Sunbrust Yellow (two layers)

Third miniature

Helmet: Mithril Silver Black parts: Chaos Black plus Adeptus Battlegrey (2:1) Yellow parts: Added a black cross to his leg, showing he's Swiss.

Hair: Glaze with Devlan Mud

Now you just need to base your miniatures, varnish them and give them their pikes (or any other weapon). I normally use Vallejo Flat Earth for the bases and then drybrush with Dessert Yellow. Adding some static grass, bigger rocks (Adeptus Battlegrey -> Drybrush with Codey Grey folowwed by Fortress Grey and Astronomican Grey) and then you are finished.

I hope you enjoyed this small tutorial as I did and I hope that it will help you with painting your miniatures. I will definitely do more tutorials soon!

Stephan

Source: http://progloria.com/



MISCELLANEOUS



THE ITALIAN WARS 1494-1559AD

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LINKS

Steven's Balagan site with very useful research <u>http://www.balagan.org.uk/war/italian-wars/index.htm</u> MyArmoury, with a lot of very good information <u>http://www.myarmoury.com/features.html</u>

SPECIAL THANKS

Many thanks to the community members, especially Stephan Huber and George Moraitis, and Rob Broom for their great support.

BOOKS





Italian Wars Campaign Lists 01/03/2011 version from George Moraitis.

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