

G U R P S[®]

AGE OF NAPOLEON[™]

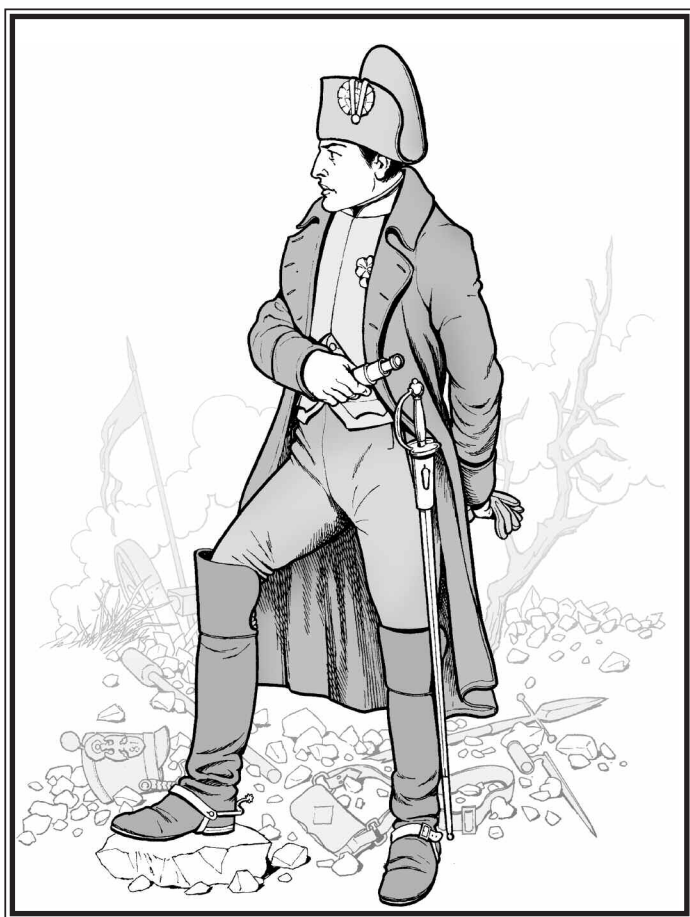


By NICHOLAS CALDWELL

STEVE JACKSON GAMES

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AGE OF NAPOLEON[™]



Written by Nicholas H. M. Caldwell
Additional material by Loren Wiseman

Edited by William H. Stoddard

Cover based on art by
Sir William Quiller Orchardson

Page design by Alex Fernandez
Cartography by J. Scott Reeves

GURPS System Design ● Steve Jackson

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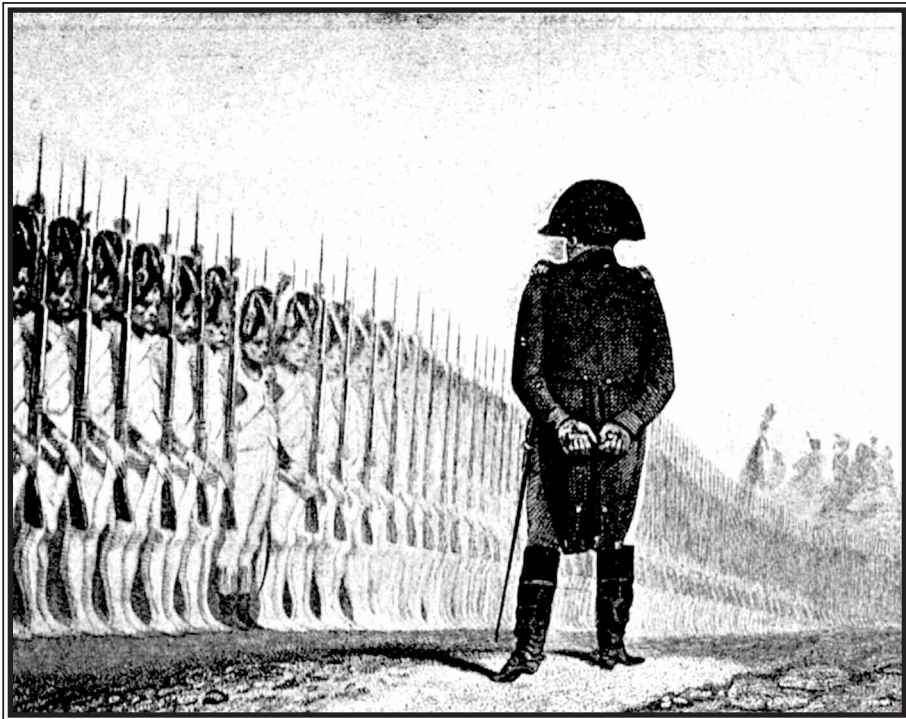
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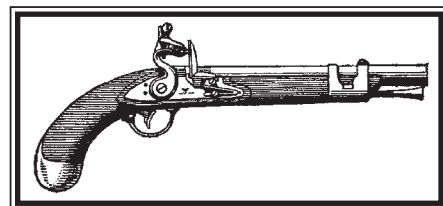
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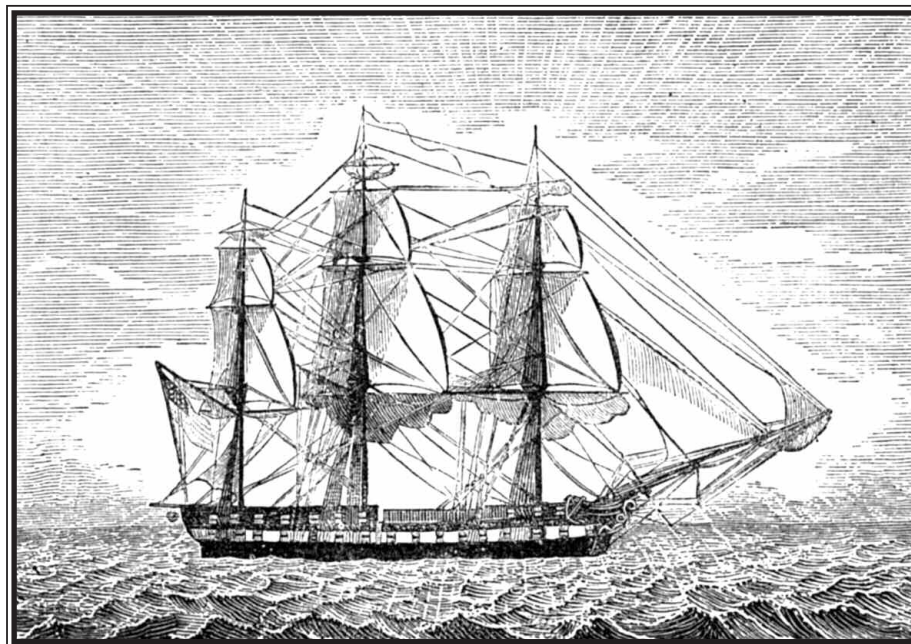
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INTRODUCTION

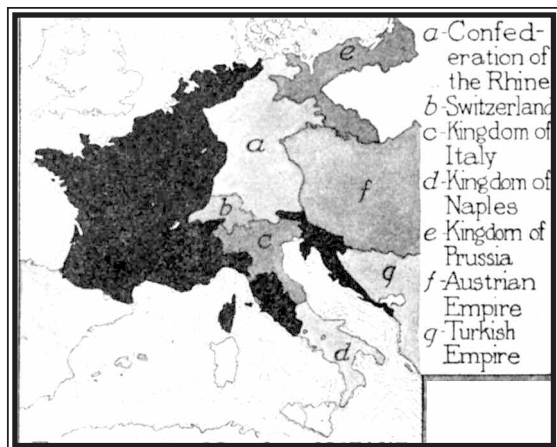
Welcome to the Age of Napoleon.

It is an age of conflict, of revolution, and of war. In America, a rebellion will liberate the New World from the control of the Old World. In France, the middle classes and the mob will challenge the power and privileges of the aristocracy and the monarchy, overthrowing both. And in the maelstrom of violence, Napoleon Bonaparte, an obscure artillery officer from Corsica, will both save and destroy the French Revolution, crowning himself Emperor.

Napoleon's dreams of empire – in Europe, in India, and in the Americas – will engulf the entire world in war.

Into this crucible of revolution and war will be swept aristocrat and commoner alike. Politicians seek high office, power, and an opportunity to enrich themselves. Merchants, slavers, and smugglers profit from trading ventures, legal and otherwise. Explorers and scientists expand the bounds of what is known. Rebels and revolutionaries plot to oust corrupt governments. Royalists rescue aristocrats from the guillotine and seek to restore the old order. Informers and spies at every level of society report to their masters, while secret police agents seek to infiltrate and unmask the intriguers. Soldiers and sailors fight for ideals and glory in battles whose fame endures to the present day, and their generals and admirals decide the fate of nations and colonial empires. Behind the scenes, secret societies are formed to pursue the hidden agendas of their founders.

Welcome to the high adventure of the Age of Napoleon.



About the Author

Born in Northern Ireland, Nicholas H. M. Caldwell now lives and works in Cambridge, England. He has been roleplaying since he was 12, and was immersed in science fiction, fantasy, and historical fiction at an equally early age. He holds a B.A. (in computer science) and a Ph.D. (in engineering) from the University of Cambridge. Along with gaming and reading, his current major hobby is editing and managing a gaming magazine (see www.guildcompanion.com).

ABOUT GURPS

Steve Jackson Games is committed to full support of the **GURPS** system. Our address is SJ Games, Box 18957, Austin, TX 78760. Please include a self-addressed, stamped envelope (SASE) any time you write us! Resources include:

Pyramid (www.sjgames.com/pyramid/). Our online magazine includes new **GURPS** rules and articles. It also covers *Dungeons and Dragons*, *Traveller*, *World of Darkness*, *Call of Cthulhu*, and many more top games – and other Steve Jackson Games releases like *In Nomine*, *Illuminati*, *Car Wars*, *Toon*, *Ogre Miniatures*, and more. *Pyramid* subscribers also have access to playtest files online!

New supplements and adventures. **GURPS** continues to grow, and we'll be happy to let you know what's new. For a current catalog, send us a legal-sized or 9"x12" SASE – please use two stamps! – or just visit www.warehouse23.com.

Errata. Everyone makes mistakes, including us – but we do our best to fix our errors. Up-to-date errata sheets for all **GURPS** releases, including this book, are available on our website – see below.

Gamer input. We value your comments, for new products as well as updated printings of existing titles!

Internet. Visit us on the World Wide Web at www.sjgames.com for errata, updates, Q&A, and much more. **GURPS** has its own Usenet group, too: rec.games.frp.gurps.

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The **GURPS Age of Napoleon** web page is at www.sjgames.com/gurps/books/napoleon/.

Page References

Rules and statistics in this book are specifically for the **GURPS Basic Set, Third Edition**. Any page reference that begins with a B refers to the **GURPS Basic Set** – e.g., p. B102 means p. 102 of the **GURPS Basic Set, Third Edition**. Page references that begin with CI indicate **GURPS Compendium I**. Other references are CII for **Compendium II**, STE for **Steam-Tech**, STM for **Steampunk**, WA for **Warriors**, and WWi for **Who's Who 1**. The abbreviation for *this book* is AON. For a full list of abbreviations, see p. CI181 or the updated web list at www.sjgames.com/gurps/abbrevs.html.



HISTORY

As the smoke cleared from the final broad-side, Lieutenant Miller felt a brief moment of triumph as the American privateer struck her flag to HMS Nemesis.

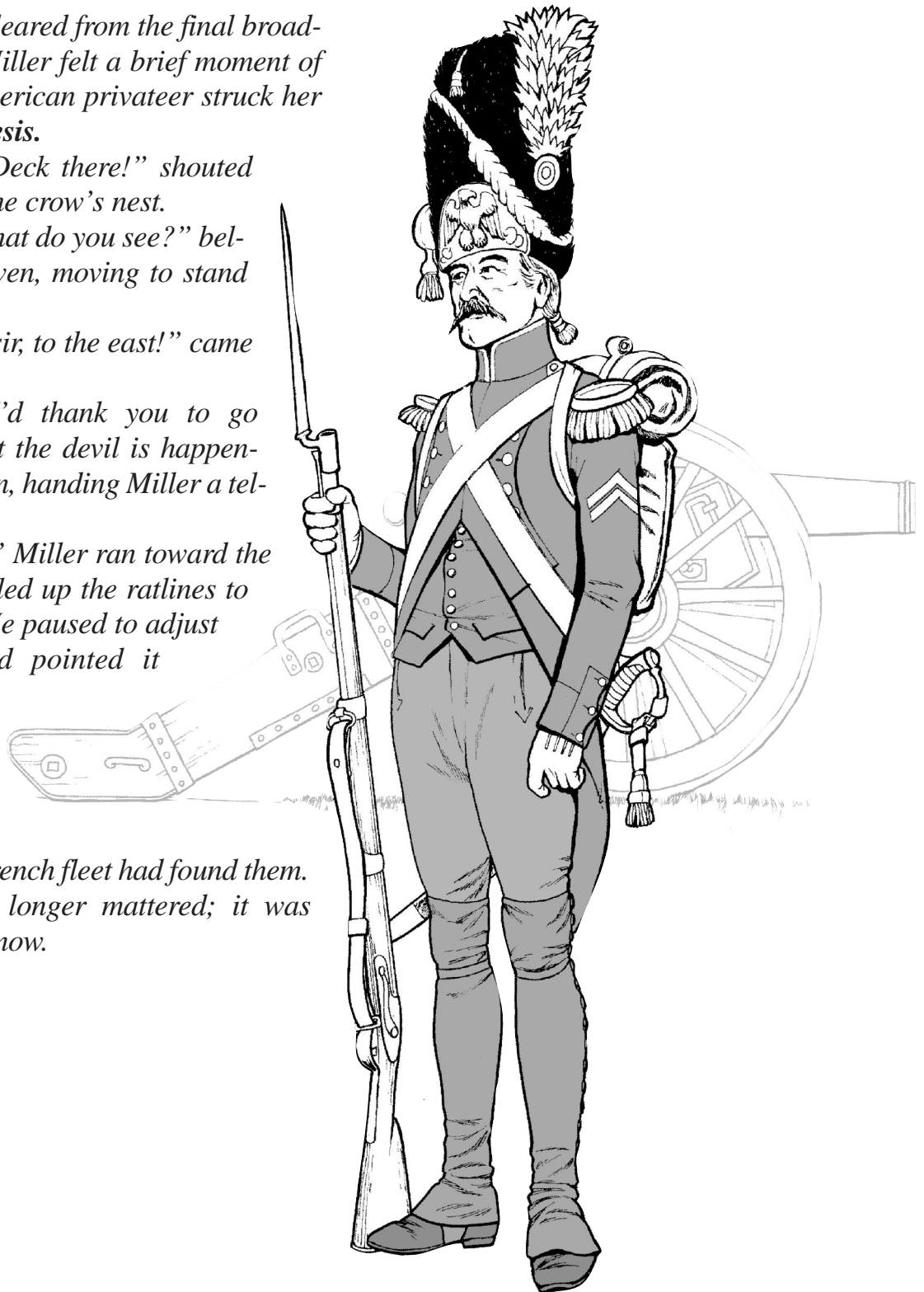
“Deck there! Deck there!” shouted the lookout from the crow’s nest.

“Deck here. What do you see?” bel-lowed Captain Owen, moving to stand beside Miller.

“Strange sail, sir, to the east!” came the fearful reply.

“Mr. Miller, I’d thank you to go aloft and see what the devil is happen-ing,” ordered Owen, handing Miller a tel-escope.

“Aye, aye, sir!” Miller ran toward the masts and scrambled up the ratlines to join the lookout. He paused to adjust the telescope and pointed it eastwards. Two frigates, and three, no, four, no, five ships of the line, all flying the fleur-de-lis. The French fleet had found them. The privateer no longer mattered; it was their ship in peril now.





Knowing what actually happened is essential to running historical campaigns. Knowing what might have happened can be just as useful. This chapter outlines the great events that shaped the world from 1769 to 1821 and highlights key turning points in history.

THE STATE OF THE WORLD

In 1769, the European states were still recovering from the convulsions of the Seven Years War (known then in Britain as “The Great War for the Empire”), which had raged from 1756 to 1763. The Treaty of Paris had ended the conflict and redrawn the borders of the colonial empires.

Britain retained most of its conquests. In North America, the existing British colonies were augmented by the acquisition of Canada from France and Florida from Spain. Holdings in the West Indies, British Honduras (now called Belize), and British Guiana (now called Guyana) were preserved. The new territories in India provided increased security for trade from both coasts of the subcontinent.

The French empire was reduced to a handful of trading posts in India and Africa, French Guyana in South America, and a number of islands in the West Indies and the Indian Ocean. Louis XV gave the vast Louisiana Territory to Charles III as compensation for the loss of Florida. Cuba and the Philippines were restored to the Spanish crown. Their mainland empire, consisting of the western seaboard of North America and all of Central and South America (except Belize, Brazil, and the Guianas), was untouched by the settlement.

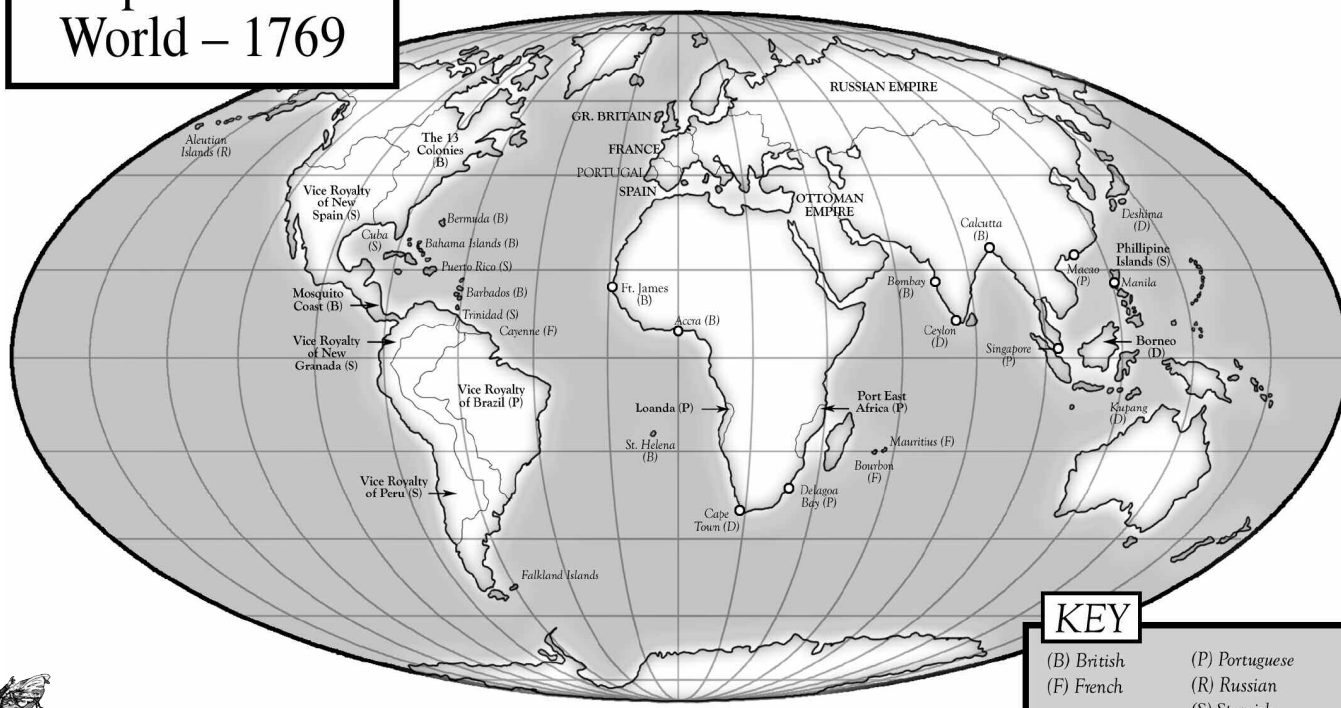
Although thwarted in India, the Dutch retained Ceylon, Java, and other profitable island territories in the East Indies. The Cape of Good Hope colony and Dutch Guyana continued to increase the wealth of Amsterdam’s merchants. Portugal had remained neutral in the war; its empire in Brazil and trading posts in India, Africa, and China were unaffected by the war and the peace.

Britain had certainly won the Seven Years War. The Royal Navy had become adept at the strategic application of its squadrons and in supporting amphibious offensives. The army had learned valuable lessons in wilderness combat, though the best generals had died in North America and 10,000 soldiers had succumbed to disease in the prolonged Cuban campaign.

But Britain had not won the peace. In their haste to end the war, the British abandoned their Prussian allies, leaving Frederick the Great to resolve his own disputes. This desertion was long remembered by Prussia. Moreover, the British government feared that their newly increased empire was too large to govern and would only produce continual envy from the other colonial powers. So the British negotiators offered generous terms to their erstwhile enemies in an attempt to address these fears.

The scheme backfired. Rather than reducing the threat, the Treaty of Paris allowed the French and Spanish to recover their possessions in the West Indies, Africa, and the East Indies for future attacks on British colonies and shipping. The most valuable and hard-won conquests, such as Guadeloupe and Cuba, were returned to their former masters. The envy remained and Britain found itself isolated from the politics of continental Europe for 30 years.

Empires of the World – 1769



KEY

- | | |
|-------------|----------------|
| (B) British | (P) Portuguese |
| (F) French | (R) Russian |
| | (S) Spanish |





TIMELINE

1769 – *Europe*: French conquer Corsica. Birth of Napoleon on Corsica (August 15).
1770 – *America*: Boston Massacre (March).
1771 – *Europe*: Accession of Gustavus III (Sweden).
1772 – *Europe*: First Partition of Poland.
1773 – *America*: Boston Tea Party.
1774 – *France*: Death of Louis XV and accession of Louis XVI.
America: Creation of First Continental Congress in America.
1775 – *America*: War of Independence begins.
1776 – *America*: Declaration of Independence (July).
1777 – *America*: British surrender at Saratoga (October).
1778 – *America*: France enters American War. *England*: Gordon Riots in London.
1779 – *America*: Spain enters American War.
1780 – *America*: Holland enters American War. *Austria*: Death of Maria Theresa and succession of Joseph II.
1781 – *America*: British surrender at Yorktown (October).
1782 – *England*: Resignation of Lord North. *America*: Battle of the Saintes (April).
1783 – Peace of Paris between Britain, America, and allies.
1784 – *Holland*: William V deposed. *England*: Pitt becomes prime minister.
1785 – *England*: Failure of Pitt's parliamentary reforms.
1786 – *Prussia*: Death of Frederick the Great.
1787 – *France*: Assembly of Notables meets, rejects reforms, and is dissolved.
1788 – *France*: Paris *parlement* rejects reforms. Provincial unrest follows. *Spain*: Charles IV succeeds Charles III.
1789 – *France*: Estates General meets and becomes National Assembly. Bastille is stormed (July). The Great Fear grips France. *America*: Constitutional Convention.
1790 – *France*: Constituent Assembly ratifies Civil Constitution of the Clergy (July). *Austria*: Leopold II becomes Emperor.
1791 – *France*: Louis XVI's flight to Varennes fails. Legislative Assembly replaces Constituent Assembly.
1792 – *Europe*: France declares war against Austria and Prussia. *France*: Abolition of the monarchy (September). *Austria*: Francis II becomes Emperor. *Europe*: Second Partition of Poland. Battles of Valmy (September) and Jemappes (November).
1793 – *France*: Trial and execution of Louis XVI (January). War with Britain. Arrest of Girondin leadership. Trials and executions of Marie Antoinette, Brissotins, Girondins, and Orleanists during the Terror. *Europe*: Battles of Neerwinden and Louvain (March).
1794 – *France*: Terror continues against Dantonists (April). Fall of Robespierre in Thermidor coup (July). *Europe*: Battles of Tourcoing (April) and Fleurus (June). *Atlantic*: British victory of the Glorious First of June.
1795 – *France*: Coups of Germinal (April) and Prairial (May) resisted. Convention replaced by the Directory (October). *Holland*: United Provinces become Batavian Republic (May). *Europe*: France makes peace with Prussia, Holland, and Spain, ending First Coalition. Third Partition of Poland.
1796 – *Europe*: Napoleon's invasion of Italy.
1797 – *Europe*: Battle of Cape St. Vincent (February). Napoleon's reorganization of Italy and Treaty of Campo-Formio with Austria (October). *Holland*: Battle of Camperdown (October).
1798 – *Europe*: Switzerland becomes Helvetic Republic (March). Napoleon invades Egypt (July). Battles of the Pyramids (July) and the Nile (August). *Ireland*: Revolt of United Irishmen.
1799 – *Egypt*: Napoleon thwarted at siege of Acre (May). Napoleon returns to France (October) and assists in Brumaire coup against Directory (November). Napoleon becomes First Consul.
1800 – *Europe*: Battles of Marengo (June) and Hohenlinden (December). Formation of League of Armed Neutrality (December).
1801 – *Ireland*: Act of Union with Britain. *Russia*: Assassination of Paul I and accession of Alexander (March). *Denmark*: Battle of Copenhagen (April). *Europe*: League of Armed Neutrality collapses. War of the Oranges between Spain and Portugal. Preliminary Peace of London (October).
1802 – *Europe*: Treaty of Amiens ratifies peace between Britain and France (March). *France*: Concordat with the Papacy confirmed. Napoleon becomes Life Consul. Negotiation of Louisiana Purchase.

1803 – *Europe*: End of Peace of Amiens (March). Preparations for invasion of England begin.

1804 – *France*: Napoleon proclaimed Emperor (May) and crowned (December).

1805 – *Europe*: War of the Third Coalition. Battles of Trafalgar (October) and Austerlitz (December).

1806 – *Europe*: Kingdom of Italy created. Battles of Jena and Auerstädt (October).

1807 – *Europe*: Battles of Eylau and Friedland. Treaty of Tilsit (June).



Napoleon as Emperor, by Gerald (1804)

1808 – *Europe*: Invasion of Portugal and Spain. Peninsular War begins.

1809 – *Europe*: Second invasion of Portugal. Battles of Wagram and Talavera (July).

1810 – *Europe*: Third invasion of Portugal. *South America*: Rebellions against Spain begin.

1811 – *Europe*: Battle of Fuentes de Oñoro.

1812 – *America* declares war on Britain. *Europe*: Invasion of Russia. Battles of Salamanca (July) and Borodino (September). Retreat from Moscow.

1813 – *Europe*: German War of Liberation begins. Wellington invades France. Battle of Leipzig (October).

1814 – *Europe*: Abdication of Napoleon and exile to Elba (April). Congress of Vienna begins. End of War of 1812 (December).

1815 – *America*: Battle of New Orleans (January). *Europe*: Napoleon returns. Battle of Waterloo (June). Second abdication of Napoleon and exile to St. Helena.

1816 – *Portugal*: Accession of John VI.

1817 – *South America*: Chile becomes independent.

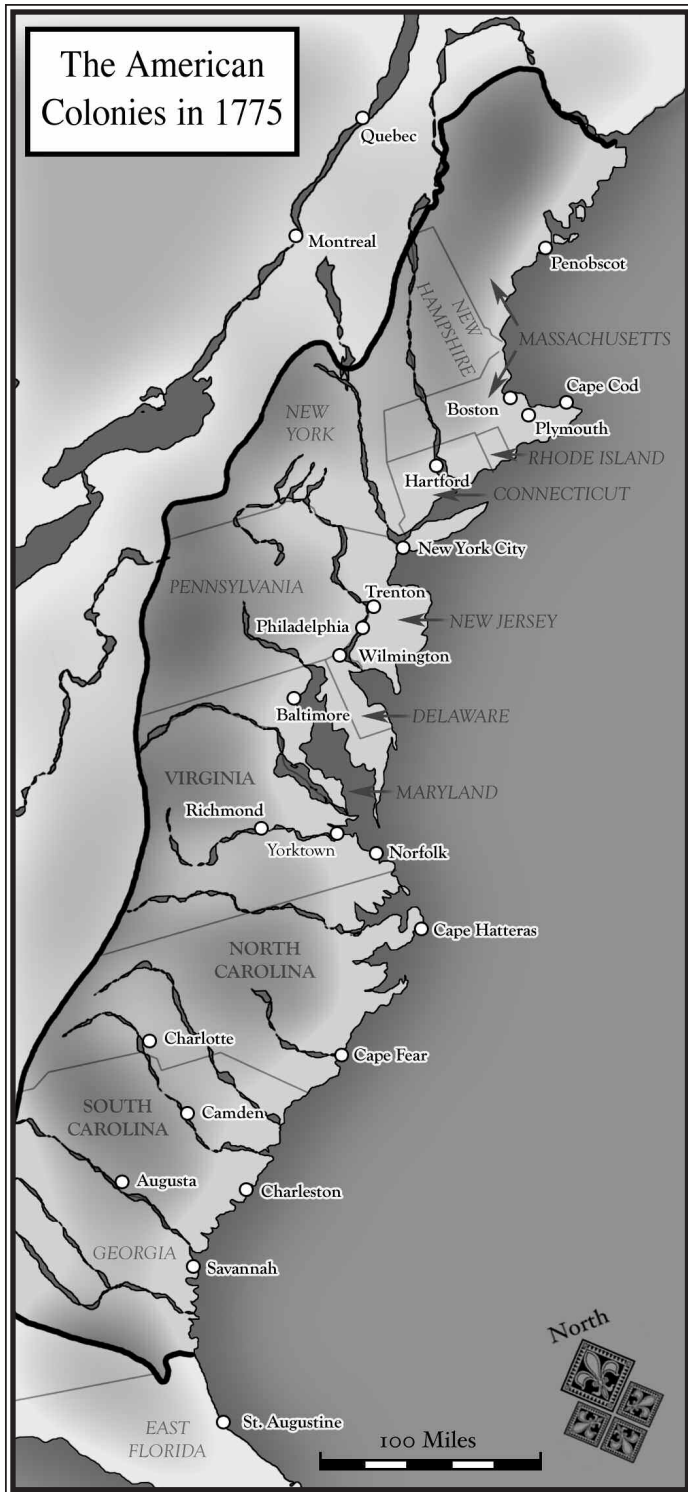
1818 – *France*: Allied army of occupation leaves.

1819 – *Europe*: Carlsbad Decrees repress reform in German Confederation. *England*: Peterloo Massacre.

1820 – *Europe*: Revolts in Spain and Portugal. *England*: Death of George III. Cato Street Conspiracy foiled.

1821 – Death of Napoleon on St. Helena (May 5).





The weakness of the British and the incursion of land-hungry American settlers in the wake of the retreating French spurred the American Indian revolt of Pontiac in 1763. Fresh troops from England were required to suppress the rebellion, which lasted until 1765. In return for peace, all of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains was reserved for the Indian tribes. This prohibition on westward expansion provoked the hostility of the American colonists and was a cause of the American Revolution (see below, *The American Quarrel*).

The Conquest of Corsica

While the major European powers prepared for the Seven Years War, a rebellion in Corsica was ending. In 1755, Pasquale Paoli drove the Genoese rulers out of central Corsica.

Paoli now governed as chief executive of an independent democratic nation. For 14 years, Paoli suppressed banditry and the vendetta, built roads, founded schools, and established a navy. His desire for a completely free Corsica was his undoing. Attacks on the coastal towns and Capraia persuaded the Genoese that defeat was inevitable. They sold the *entire* island to Louis XV of France in May 1768.

The Corsicans held mass meetings and voted to resist the French. The first invaders landed in August and 10,000 soldiers attempted to conquer Corsica. Paoli and his guerrillas forced the French to retreat. A second army of 22,000 troops arrived in the spring of 1769. The outnumbered Corsicans were defeated and Paoli was forced into exile in England. Corsica became a French province.

Among Paoli's supporters had been the Buonaparte family. Carlo Buonaparte, a prominent lawyer with Italian ancestry, had been one of Paoli's trusted lieutenants and had organized resistance from the mountains. Following Paoli's defeat, the Buonapartes were faced with the choice between exile and living under French rule. Practicality overcame idealism, and the family remained in Corsica.

Thus, on August 15, 1769, Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio as a French subject rather than as a free Corsican in exile.

THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

The American Quarrel

America had been relatively lightly taxed and governed owing to Britain's preoccupation with European and domestic concerns. However, this "salutary neglect" masked a deeper constitutional problem in terms of the status of the American colonies in the British Empire. Founded by royal charters, the colonies were administered by a combination of governors (with appointed councils) and elected legislatures. Usage and custom had gained the legislatures considerable authority in the colonies' internal affairs. A desire to guarantee this self-governance and individual rights was implicit in the maneuverings of colonial politicians; some proposed that the colonies should become autonomous political units within the Empire, their legislatures equal to Britain's Parliament, and giving their allegiance solely to the British monarch. Mainstream British political thought held that the "King-in-Parliament" was the sole authority in the Empire – and feared that other nonsubordinate parliaments would provide the King with the resources to make himself independent of the British parliament.





Although proud of the colonies, some British officials and wealthy Tories were jealous of their rapid economic growth. Adherents of mercantilism (see p. 87) feared that the loss of America would irretrievably damage Britain's economy. Both groupings favored tighter control of America, leading to various interventions in colonial affairs, including anti-smuggling measures and attempts to increase the authority of governors, limit the tenure of judges, and so on. In turn, the colonists saw these measures as infringing on their rights (as "Englishmen" in the broadest sense) and threatening to reduce them to "second-class citizens," forever subordinate to a distant parliament, which was believed (correctly) to be corrupt.

The difficulties of communication served to maintain and magnify misunderstandings between America and Britain.

The Seven Years War (also known as the French and Indian War) showed that increased governance was necessary to preserve the empire; the war had also doubled the annual British treasury expenditure. Parliament believed that the colonists should share the tax burden for defending the enlarged empire. To the colonial elite, "no taxation without representation" was a familiar slogan, and was considered to be one of the inalienable rights of all "Englishmen." The imperial expansion actually lessened foreign threats to America and hence their desire to pay for protection. Moreover, the prohibition on settlement in American Indian territories (necessary to prevent the tribes going to war and a stipulation of the peace treaties) limited their profitable land speculation. American politicians saw the new policies as renewed attempts by the British Parliament to establish its authority over the colonies.

In 1765, the British prime minister, George Grenville, imposed two new taxes: the Sugar Act on imported molasses, and the Stamp Act, requiring legal documents, newspapers, etc., to bear official stamps which had to be purchased. This affected every American. However, the hardest hit were the merchants, planters, lawyers, and printers. They used their influence to create opposition to the new Act in all classes of colonial society. The activities of the "Sons of Liberty" (see above) forced the Act's repeal in 1766.

Alternative customs duties were applied under the Townshend Acts of 1767. These were also withdrawn following the Boston Massacre in March 1770. The East India Company was excused the remaining tea duty to prevent its bankruptcy and allowed to sell directly to America. Smuggler and colonial tea merchants combined to prevent the imports. In 1773, a group disguised as Mohawks boarded a ship in Boston and cast its tea cargo into the harbor.

This attack on property hardened English attitudes. Boston's harbor was closed and its elective legislature replaced by an appointed council. The colonies united at the First Continental Congress in 1774 to apply economic sanctions against Britain in retaliation.

THE SONS OF LIBERTY

Throughout America from 1765 onward, secret organizations styling themselves "Sons of Liberty" appeared. Their membership included intellectuals, merchants, and artisans, united to foment unrest and violence against the new laws. Stamp distributors were attacked, tarred, and feathered; their homes were looted and burned. Officials responsible for the collection of duties under the Townshend Acts were equally persecuted. Everywhere the "Sons" and like-minded adherents pursued the political agenda found in the pamphlets and speeches of the radical demagogues.

The Boston Massacre occurred after several days of brawling between gangs of youths and the soldiers. On the night of the massacre, a large crowd taunted a detachment of armed soldiers guarding the Customs House, daring them to fire. An injured soldier did open fire and was immediately supported by his comrades. Four people were killed. At the soldiers' trial, the judge emphasized the presence in the mob of a man dressed in a red cloak, similar to that worn by Samuel Adams, a vehement opponent of British rule. Their American lawyers did not allow the soldiers to suggest that the mob had been manipulated. However, the soldiers were acquitted of murder.

Adams used the massacre to ensure the withdrawal of troops from Boston. Paul Revere, a noted silversmith and a link between the politicians and the artisans, advanced the cause further by producing engravings of the massacre, suitably embellished.

Committees of Correspondence in Boston and elsewhere were established to ensure easy communication between the various dissident groups. The rebels began to prepare for armed resistance. They organized special militias, known as "minutemen" owing to their willingness to bear arms immediately, messengers to carry news from town to town, and workshops to manufacture gunpowder. Supplies of weapons and ammunition were cached for future use. A host of spies observed the British military and their civilian officials, and hidden sympathizers within loyalist circles collected intelligence for the rebels. Quietly, steadily, the rebellion was gathering pace.

First Blood

Hastily gathered militiamen at Lexington and Concord thwarted the British troops from seizing a rebel arms cache (April 19, 1775). Exaggerated tales of atrocities roused the local people, who besieged Boston.

In May, 6,000 troops under Generals William Howe, Henry Clinton, and John Burgoyne arrived in Boston. Meanwhile Fort Ticonderoga fell to militiamen and backwoodsmen led by Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen. The rebels entrenched around Boston, forestalling British occupation of strategic positions. Alarmed, Gage ordered an assault on the stronghold of Breed's Hill on June 17, routing them in a Pyrrhic victory – the British suffered 40% casualties. Shock at their losses dissuaded the generals from further action, frustrating their hungry troops.

Two weeks later, George Washington, the new American commander-in-chief, assumed leadership of the besiegers. Dismayed by the poor quality of the colonial forces, he spent the rest of the year replacing the temporary militia with newly raised regular soldiers.

American units under Arnold and Montgomery pressed northward into Canada. Montreal fell to Montgomery, and Canada's governor, Sir Guy Carleton, escaped to Quebec in a whaling boat. Arnold's men, having survived a march from Maine, joined forces with Montgomery to assail Quebec. The December 31 attack failed and smallpox ravaged the besieging Americans. A British squadron breached the ice blocking the Gulf of St Lawrence and relieved the siege in April 1776. Another squadron arrived with reinforcements under Burgoyne (May) and the Americans fled to Lake Champlain.





WHAT IF . . . A BRITISH AMERICA

A British America would require a British victory in the war. There were several opportunities in the early years when decisive blows could have ended the rebellion. For example, Howe should have followed up his initial victories in New York by bringing Washington to battle, rather than cautiously capturing each outpost. Had Carleton begun his advance on Ticonderoga a month earlier, the fort would have fallen in 1776, enabling him to attack Washington from the rear in concert with Howe. An assault on Washington's army at its winter quarters in 1777 would have wiped out the Continental Army's regular troops, leaving only the militia to continue the struggle. Washington himself came close to being killed by a British sharpshooter in the Philadelphia campaign. He was already idolized by the American public; his death would have shaken popular support for the rebellion to its core.

The solidity and permanence of renewed British government in the 13 colonies would depend on the harshness of any punitive measures pursued after the failure of the rebellion. Domination of the patriot majority by triumphalist loyalists would quickly lead to a sullen America simmering in discontent. A second rebellion would be inevitable, but might not occur until the Napoleonic Wars. A revolt incited and supported by Napoleon's agents would fatally divide Britain's forces at the height of its life and death struggle with France.

The Whig Opposition might have tempered the restoration of control over America with actions to assuage the colonists' grievances. Even Lord North, in his final peace overture to the Americans after Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga, was willing to recognize Congress, to repeal laws deemed offensive by the Americans, and to give American representatives seats in the House of Commons. If such compromises were implemented, the majority of Americans might have been reconciled to King and Parliament. Democratic representation of America would have set a precedent for other British colonies and perhaps advanced the cause of electoral reform in Britain itself. Strengthened by a united North American empire, Britain might have shortened the Napoleonic Wars, slavery would have been abolished in America without a bloody civil war, and the Dominion of North America would have taken a preeminent position in the world when the Empire was transformed into a Commonwealth.



Washington's Surrender (1780)

Elsewhere the Americans were victorious. Patriots fought and defeated Loyalists in North Carolina. A sea-borne invasion of Charleston by Clinton foundered. The British were forced to evacuate Boston in March 1776 when cannon brought from Ticonderoga bombarded their positions.

The Declaration of Independence

Thomas Paine's pamphlet *Common Sense*, published in January 1776, transformed political debate. The Second Continental Congress now favored a complete break with Britain, commissioning Thomas Jefferson to write a Declaration of Independence. Congress approved this on July 4.

A fleet under Admiral Howe with 30,000 British and German soldiers sailed from Britain. Combining these forces with Clinton and Howe's armies, the British captured Long Island on August 27. While Howe gathered his forces, Washington moved his men to Manhattan, retreating further to Harlem when lower Manhattan fell on September 15. The British were prevented from quartering their troops in New York as a mysterious fire burned 500 buildings to ashes.

During October and November, the British stormed the remaining American forts. Rhode Island fell to Clinton without resistance. Cornwallis pursued Washington's army across New Jersey and over the Delaware River. Reduced by desertion, the rebel forces withdrew to their winter base in Valley Forge.

Burgoyne and Carleton reached Lake Champlain and started building flat-bottomed boats to counter the American flotilla being assembled at the south. (Admiralty bureaucrats had thwarted suitable craft being constructed in England and transported to Canada.) The two fleets engaged on October 11 with the rebels retreating to Ticonderoga. Fearing the winter, Carleton returned to Canada.

The British high command sent dispatches to England outlining plans and requesting reinforcements. Carleton was censured for tardiness while Burgoyne and Clinton jockeyed to replace him.

Washington led a winter sortie against Trenton's garrison of Hessian mercenaries. The town fell in street fighting on Christmas Day. Leaving troops at Princeton, Cornwallis advanced on Trenton, but Washington eluded him by a nocturnal retreat and attacked Princeton, before leaving for Valley Forge with his morale-raising mission accomplished.

The Surrender at Saratoga

Burgoyne returned from England in early 1777, replacing Carleton as Canadian commander. He was to advance from Canada, joining with Howe at the Hudson, conquering Albany, and then driving south. These instructions were not copied to Howe.

In July, Howe decided to capture the American capital, Philadelphia. Rather than navigate the Delaware or the Hudson, and so support Burgoyne, Howe sailed via Chesapeake Bay. Delayed by bad weather, the vast fleet reached Maryland





Attack on Hessian Redoubt, Battle of Saratoga (1777)

on August 25. Howe's army disembarked and bested Washington's at Brandywine Creek on September 11, entering Philadelphia two weeks later. Congress escaped to New York and Washington retired to winter in Valley Forge.

By June 30, Burgoyne's 8,000 soldiers landed near Ticonderoga and ingeniously dragged some cannon up Sugarloaf Hill, overlooking the fort. The defenders departed immediately. Vainly hoping for Loyalist reinforcements, Burgoyne chose to travel overland. Terrain and tree barricades slowed his detachments, while rebel marksmen picked off stragglers. Two detachments were destroyed by American infiltrators and Arnold's agents frightened off Burgoyne's Native American allies.

Eventually Burgoyne reached the Hudson. Battle ensued at Freeman's Farm (September 19) and at Bemis Heights (October 7). Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga, pursued by an American army under Gates and Arnold. Concealed by fog, Burgoyne prepared a cannonade upon the Americans but, warned by British deserters, they remained beyond range. Cut off from Clinton in New York, Burgoyne surrendered on October 17. His soldiers were imprisoned near Boston, where many defected.

In England, the Opposition lambasted Lord North's government, with Charles Fox's oratory stunning the ministers into silence. The government survived only due to the French threat.

ALL THE WORLD AGAINST THEM

The struggle for American independence was not confined to the North American continent. Although the Continental Navy could only muster an ineffectual 27 ships, a tenth the size of Britain's fleet at the war's outset, American privateers threatened merchant shipping around the British Isles, in the Atlantic, and in the Caribbean. John Paul Jones, commanding the *Bonhomme Richard* and four smaller ships, captured two British warships escorting the Baltic merchant fleet in September 1779, having made many captures of merchantmen on previous voyages. From 1777 to 1781, privateers captured 200 vessels every year, leading to loud demands for peace from British merchants.

France's entry into the fray in 1778 was followed by Spain's in 1779 and Holland's in 1780. All had previously secretly supported the American rebellion, the Dutch, in particular, through gun running. Their new status limited the number of British squadrons available for overseas offensives. Indeed the Earl of Sandwich, then First Lord of the Admiralty, was resolute that the home waters must be protected and hampered efforts to reinforce Admiral Howe against d'Estaing's Toulon fleet.

The Channel Fleet under Admiral Keppel clashed with the Brest Fleet under the Comte d'Orvilliers in July 1778. This inconclusive battle off Ushant enabled the French to increase their support to the Americans.

By 1779, there was a very real danger of an invasion of Britain. A fleet of 66 French and Spanish ships commanded the English Channel. An army of 50,000 soldiers was encamped on the French coast waiting to embark on transport ships. Only a sudden storm and sickness in the crews prevented Plymouth being taken. Changes in plans by the French lifted the invasion menace. Meanwhile the Spanish besieged Gibraltar, which was not relieved until 1781.

Sandwich's harassment of Keppel led to a number of capable naval officers with Whig sympathies refusing to serve while Sandwich remained First Lord. Despite the political troubles and the many threats, the Royal Navy was still able to support the southern campaigns in America and to retaliate against the other colonial powers, with Admiral Rodney capturing seven Spanish ships off Cape St Vincent and taking the island of Saint Eustatius in the West Indies from Holland in 1780. Rodney further restored British fortunes in the West Indies by conclusively defeating and capturing de Grasse at the Battle of the Saintes off Dominica on April 12, 1782.





Enter the French

America had been receiving covert assistance from France since 1776. Following Saratoga, the French began assembling military forces for American service. War with Britain was not declared until June 1778.

A final British peace mission foundered owing to Congress's refusal to withdraw the Declaration of Independence. In February 1778, Clinton replaced Howe as commander-in-chief.

Washington's troops at Valley Forge endured a harsh winter, while their generals schemed to replace Washington. Baron von Steuben, a Prussian mercenary, drilled the men intensively and instructed the officers in tactics. Howe, though encamped 20 miles away, ignored this activity.

Fearing French intervention, Clinton withdrew from Philadelphia to New York. Traveling overland to protect the Loyalist families and supplies, the army was harried by the Americans, with the rearguard being severely mangled at Monmouth Court House on June 28.

The Toulon fleet under the Comte d'Estaing reached New York too late to prevent Clinton's redeployment. Admiral Howe had anchored a squadron in the shallower harbor waters, safe from the heavier French ships. D'Estaing realized the situation was hopeless and sailed to Rhode Island to cover the landing of an army under the Marquis de Lafayette. Howe's fleet appeared off Newport (August 8) and the enemies circled for two days before a gale enabled the smaller British vessels to attack. French damage was so severe that d'Estaing left for Boston. The assault on Newport was abandoned.

The northern war became a stalemate of British raids on American settlements and American counterattacks on British-held outposts.

DIVIDED LOYALTIES

The American War of Independence was more than just a rebellion against colonial rule. It divided the entire nation into patriotic Whig rebels and Tory loyalists. The strife assumed the characteristics of a very bloody civil war, with each side committing atrocities against the other. Cruelties were perpetrated against men, women, and children. "Outliers" took advantage of the chaos to raid patriots and loyalists alike for personal profit.

The number of Americans with loyalist sympathies was somewhere between a fifth and a quarter of the population. Loyalists, like their patriot brethren, could be found throughout society from laborers to shopkeepers to the professional classes. Forty loyalist regiments were raised during the war, some of which were assimilated into the regular British army afterward. Loyalist officers were considered one rank inferior to their regular army counterparts in the first half of the war, owing to their lack of formal training.

In the government and even among the British high command, there was a naive complacency concerning the numbers of loyalists and their willingness to openly combat the rebellion. Intimidation by the Sons of Liberty and other patriot organizations ensured the silence of many loyalists. As the fortunes of war shifted, declared loyalists had to leave with the redcoats or face reprisals.

At the peace negotiations, the British inserted clauses into the Treaty of Paris concerning the payment of debts to British citizens and an appeal to Congress for fair treatment of loyalists remaining in America. These provisions were not honored. Up to a hundred thousand "United Empire Loyalists" and their families, including many who had served in the British forces, left America to resettle in Canada, the West Indies, and England.

The loyalists who remained were frequently treated harshly by the states, being fined and deprived of rights and property. However, those who had been careful about declaring their sympathies blended into the new Republic's society, accepted the new status quo, and were fully reintegrated within a generation.

The Southern Campaigns

The British believed that seapower and loyalist support would conquer the South. Georgia was occupied by the end of January 1779, with Savannah and Augusta becoming British bases. Campaigning ceased during the hot summer. Congress asked Estaing to support an American assault on Savannah. His fleet sailed from the Caribbean and bombarded Savannah ineffectively for four days from October 4. A hasty infantry attack was repulsed decisively, and the squabbling allies dispersed.

Clinton struck in South Carolina, leading 7,600 soldiers to Charleston, which surrendered quickly in May 1780. Clinton garrisoned the town with 4,000 troops under Cornwallis, believing that his subordinate could adequately defend Charleston. Clinton and the remainder returned to New York.

However, Cornwallis took the offensive, sending three detachments inland. He also failed to suppress atrocities committed by loyalists and patriots, attempting conciliation instead.

The Americans (under Gates) tried to dislodge Cornwallis but his army was broken at Camden on August 16. The slaughter of loyalists on King's Mountain (October 7) and rampant fever demoralized the British through the winter.

Cornwallis defeated Greene's army at Guildford Court House (March 15), sustaining heavy casualties. Cornwallis entered Virginia while Greene marched to South Carolina. The British proceeded to defeat Greene at Hobkirk's Hill in April, at Ninety-Six in June, and at Eutaw Springs in September, but Greene regrouped each time. Partisan activity forced the British to withdraw, becoming besieged in Savannah and Charleston.

Cornwallis established himself in Yorktown. Washington was in desperate straits with a mutinous army and dwindling resources, and resolved on a final sally against Cornwallis.

From Yorktown to the Peace of Paris

On August 31, a French fleet under the Comte de Grasse took possession of Chesapeake Bay. Admiral Graves' squadrons engaged the French indecisively on September 5. The French retained control and Graves returned to New York. The British commanders now dithered on how to rescue Cornwallis.

Meanwhile a Franco-American army besieged Yorktown in mid-September, Washington himself arriving in early October. Cornwallis was outnumbered four to one, as half his men were invalids. Yorktown was heavily bombarded from October 9 onward. A nocturnal evacuation across the York River by boat was foiled by a storm.

On October 19, 1781, Clinton and Graves sailed from New York. The same day Cornwallis surrendered. On learning this five days later, the fleet returned to New York.





FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI

Louis XVI ascended the throne on May 10, 1774, at the age of 19, following the death of his grandfather, Louis XV. Although he was not unpopular with the people, his wife, Marie Antoinette, was disliked because of her Austrian origin.

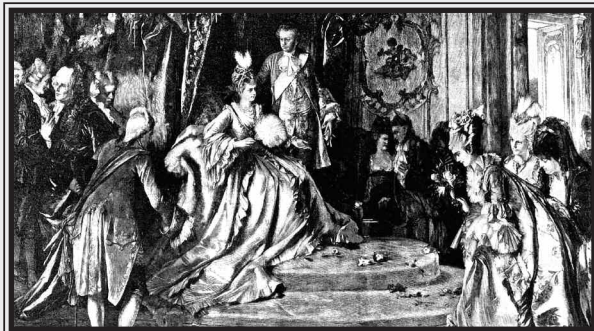
His grandfather had suppressed the *parlements* as a threat to royal authority. Louis XVI restored them in 1774, allowing the magistrates to hinder his ministers, while posing as the champions of the people. Had they remained suspended, the ministries of the 1770s and 1780s might have succeeded in reforming French finances and society, saving the monarchy.

Excluded from power since the previous century, the nobility were intent on breaking the Bourbon dynasty's "absolute" power. The aristocrats' privileges were many and varied, including exemption from a number of taxes, ancient feudal rights, and virtually exclusive access to diplomatic, army, and church positions. Many aristocrats employed lawyers to resurrect new feudal obligations, much to the distress of the peasantry.

The French Roman Catholic Church was effectively a state within a state. Immune from taxation, except for such funds as it donated to the government, it controlled education, censorship, hospitals, and social welfare. Its aristocratic bishops also helped govern the provinces. Despite the poverty and humility of the lower clergy, the privileges of the prelates helped encourage antipathy toward traditional religion in the towns.

The prosperous urban middle class forming the French bourgeoisie sought to acquire entry into the aristocracy, just as wealthy magnates in the 17th century had purchased their status as *noblesse de robe*. Richer than many nobles, the bourgeois were scrupulous in maintaining social distinctions among their own ranks. Their upward progress was thwarted by aristocratic privilege and refusal to assimilate the commoners by marriage.

For the urban poor, lack of money was the principal grievance. Wages, while rising, fell behind the increased cost of living, and industrial unrest was becoming common. In the countryside, only a quarter of the peasantry owned land outright. More than half were *métayers* (sharecroppers) who shared their produce with their landlords. The rest were landless laborers who worked for wages. All paid many direct and indirect taxes plus a tithe to the church and were subject to onerous feudal duties.



Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette (1785)

In England, Lord North resigned on March 20, 1782. Lord Shelburne's new government entered negotiations with the Americans to agree on a preliminary peace in 1782, with the Peace of Paris being signed in 1783. Britain recognized American independence, returned East and West Florida to Spain, but retained Canada. The British quitted New York on November 25, 1783, and Washington entered in triumph, before retiring to his estate.

The American War was finished.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Countdown to Revolution

The *ancien régime* of France was beset with troubles by 1786. Louis XVI, although absolute in theory, was in practice a weak and vacillating monarch. The wealthy aristocracy, excluded from power for decades, were intent on defending their privileges and eclipsing the monarchy's authority. The prosperous bourgeoisie seethed with discontent at being denied status and participation in government. The despised peasantry and urban poor were overtaxed and often hungry owing to poor harvests. Finally, France was nearly bankrupt as a consequence of financing wars from Louis XIV to the American War of Independence.

Finance Minister Calonne presented an ambitious program of administrative and economic reforms to Louis XVI in August 1786, and an Assembly of Notables was summoned to discuss the proposals in February 1787. The Notables, comprising nobles, prelates, state councilors, and magistrates, condemned the plans, as they threatened their privileges. Calonne was replaced by the Archbishop Brienne, and the king made a number of concessions to the privileged classes. The Notables rejected the revised plan and the Assembly dissolved in May.

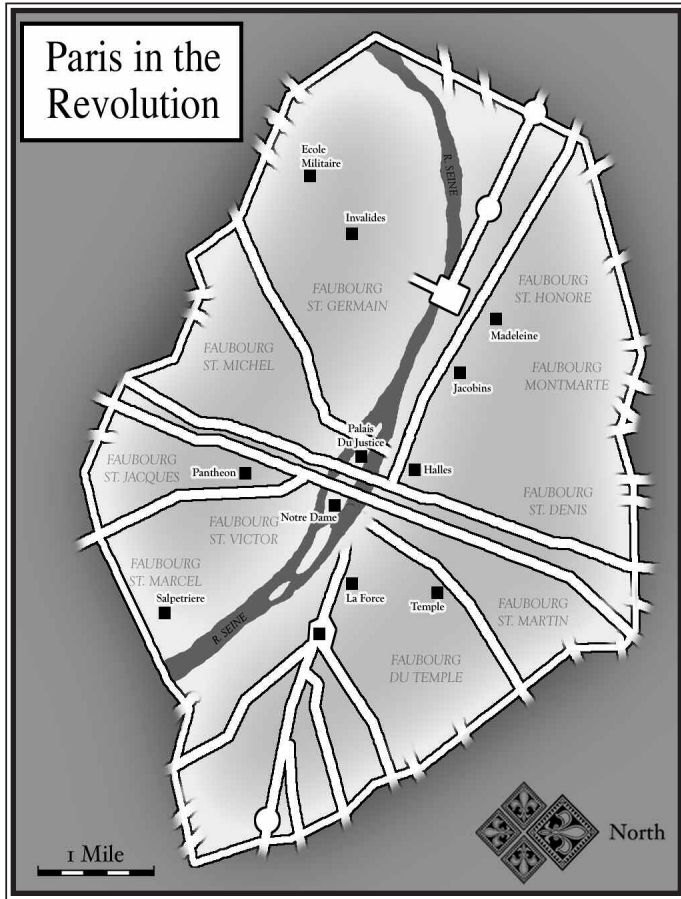
Brienne now presented the plan to the *parlement* of Paris. These magistrates rejected it piecemeal, and the king was forced to exile the *parlement*. However, they were recalled in September and consented to temporary tax measures in return for a summons of the Estates General. In May 1788, the king removed the fiscal powers and limited the judicial powers of the *parlements*.

The magistrates decried these reforms as an attack on provincial liberties and a maneuver to delay the summons of the Estates General. The local aristocracy were also dissatisfied by the inroads into their legal powers. Political agitators stirred up a nationwide revolt in the provinces. Though the summer bloodshed was minimal, an actual civil war seemed a real possibility, compelling Brienne in July to announce the summoning of the Estates General for May 1, 1789.

The Bourgeois Revolution

Politics now became fashionable, with meetings being held in the salons and coffeehouses. The Masonic lodges discussed the writings of the *philosophes*; the bourgeoisie joined the reopened political clubs. The liberal leaders formed the secretive Committee of Thirty in November 1788; it financed political pamphlets, corresponded with the provincial middle class, and coached potential deputies. The pamphlets of the Abbé Sieyès were influential in formulating the political demands of the Third Estate and identifying the people with the nation.





The forthcoming meeting of the Estates General compelled the contending parties to define their aims in *cahiers de doléances*. All three orders agreed to some degree of reform; however, the nobility wished to preserve their privileges and the clergy to retain their independence, while the third estate sought the removal of feudal dues.

The Estates General (see above) opened on May 5, 1789 with Brienne's replacement Necker outlining the reforms to be discussed. The division of the orders into separate meeting chambers induced a month of procedural wrangling. Sieyès broke the deadlock by initiating a verification of the elections on June 10 and instigated the reconstitution of the Commons as the self-styled National Assembly on June 17. Two days later, the clergy voted to join this body.

The king, who had been in secluded mourning for his dead son, was persuaded to hold a royal session of the Estates General. In preparation, the main assembly hall was closed. The deputies misunderstood this as a preliminary to dissolution and assembled in a nearby tennis court, where they swore an oath not to separate until a constitution was established.

Louis XVI used the royal session of June 23 to annul the decrees of June 17. He presented a program of financial control, taxation and judicial reforms, and maintenance of privileges. After he had quit the assembly, the Third Estate deputies refused to leave. Strengthened by liberal nobles and clergy, they defied an attempt at dissolution. On June 27, Louis XVI ordered joint meetings of the estates to forestall incipient revolt in Paris.

The Estates General

The Estates General was a representative assembly of the three "estates" or "orders" of French society: the clergy, the nobility, and the Third Estate of the commoners. It was only called in emergencies to provide the Kings of France with political or financial support. The last summons, in 1614, had failed to reach any conclusion owing to the inability of the orders to agree.

Two issues dominated the preparations for the 1789 summons: the demand for "double representation" of the third estate, and whether the method of voting should be by order or by head. Voting by order would enable the privileged orders to nullify any majority of the commons. Voting by head would allow liberal clergy and nobility to support commons majorities. Popular indignation ensured that the third estate could elect as many representatives as the other two orders combined. The voting procedure was not clarified in advance.

There was a system of elections for each order. The nobility elected their delegates by direct and universal suffrage. Of their 291 deputies, most were conservative provincial landowners. Ninety, however, were liberals, including the Marquis de Lafayette, whose American exploits had given him an enthusiasm for republicanism, and the Duc d'Orléans, a cousin of Louis XVI, who was suspected of having designs on the throne. The clergy elected their 300 representatives by direct vote. Only 42 of the clerical delegates were prelates; the vast majority were ordinary parish priests.

The delegates for the third estate were determined by a complex system of indirect elections. To be eligible, voters had to be at least 25 years old and registered taxpayers. The consequence of the indirect system was to eliminate most peasant delegates in the final stage. The 610 deputies of the third estate were predominantly middle-class professionals. One-fourth were lawyers, one-seventh were industrialists and bankers, and less than one-tenth were prosperous farmers. Some deputies were actually members of other orders, such as the Abbé Sieyès and the Comte de Mirabeau.

The Popular Revolution

The dismissal of Necker and troop movements outside Paris in early July convinced the Parisians that invasion was imminent. On July 14, the municipal authorities united with the electoral assembly to form the Paris Commune to rule the city and created a citizen guard of 1,200.

The frantic search for weapons led to an attack upon the Bastille, a prison, arms depot, and citadel, on July 14. The garrison commander, De Launay, was frightened into opening fire on the besiegers, killing almost a hundred. The besiegers were soon reinforced by 300 incensed citizen guards. De Launay threatened to explode the magazine, but unexpectedly surrendered. The mob stormed the citadel and De Launay was killed.

The fall of the Bastille transferred effective authority to the National Assembly, encouraged revolution in the provinces, and freed France from press censorship, leading to an upsurge in radical journalism. It also marked the start of the exodus of conservative noble émigrés. Louis XVI visited Paris and sanctioned the tricolor's adoption as the national flag.





The provinces followed Paris by replacing the *intendants* with decentralized municipal committees. The Great Fear, a form of mass hysteria, swept across France from July 20 to August 6, as the provinces ascribed army movements to the incursion of armed bandits and interpreted the émigré exodus as a prelude to foreign invasion.

The Great Fear intensified the rural revolts. Rumors spread about “brigands” working as counter-revolutionaries on behalf of the nobles, with troop movements and large numbers of unemployed mendicants providing “evidence.” Frightened magistrates and clergy warned their neighbors,

with minor incidents becoming magnified by distance. Skeptics were assumed to be aristocratic sympathizers. The absence of provincial newspapers prevented more objective reporting of the facts.

To restore order, the Assembly authorized concessions to the peasants, staged a surrender of feudal rights and fiscal immunities by liberal nobles, and drafted a declaration of rights in August. Louis XVI refused to acquiesce in the new decrees and ordered the Flanders regiment to march on Versailles.

GIRONDINS AND JACOBINS

Revolutionary politics was dominated by personalities and factions, mostly organized around political clubs.

The Jacobins were the oldest political club, becoming identified with extreme violence and egalitarianism. Drawing their support from Paris and the urban poor, their deputies became known as Montagnards and “the Mountain,” because they occupied the higher benches of the assemblies.

The Feuillants were moderate Jacobins, formed following Louis XVI’s failed escape, with the aim of upholding the monarchy and limiting the progress of the Revolution. Although well represented in the Legislative Assembly, they disintegrated with the deposing of the king in August 1792.

The Girondins, initially known as Brissotins (after Jacques-Pierre Brissot) during the Legislative Assembly, drew their support from the provinces. The Girondin name was due to their later leaders coming from the department of the Gironde. Moderate republicans, this Jacobin faction advocated stern measures against émigrés and anti-revolutionary clergy, proposed war on foreign powers to unite the people, and favored liberal economic policies. Their provincial backing and efforts to limit Parisian political dominance left them open to allegations of supporting “federalism” – the dismemberment of France into a federation.

The Cordeliers were founded in 1790, ostensibly to prevent the abuse of power and defend the “rights of man.” Led by Danton, this club demanded the dethronement of Louis XVI after his attempted flight. It was temporarily disbanded following the massacre (July 17, 1791) of the Champ-de-Mars, where they had presented their petition to remove the king. Danton and his allies left the Club in August 1792. The Cordeliers became more radical under Jacques-René Hébert. The Hébertist faction demanded direct democracy, favored harsh measures against speculators and rebels, and advocated the suppression of organized Christianity. The Cordelier Club disappeared after Hébert’s execution.

In the assemblies, the middle ground was occupied by the “Plain,” independent deputies without links to the factions.

Outside the Clubs were the Enragés, “Wild Men,” who supported price and currency controls to assist the poor. Robespierre arrested their leaders, the former priest Jacques Roux and the postal official Varlet, but Hébert adopted their radical agenda.

VICTIMS OF THE GUILLOTINE

The guillotine was introduced as the Revolutionary means of execution so that the privilege of decapitation would no longer be limited to the aristocracy, and so that death would be as painless as possible.

During Robespierre’s Reign of Terror, 300,000 suspects were arrested. In Paris, 2,600 people were executed, while 14,000 were guillotined in the provinces. Most of the victims were commoners; only 9% were nobility and 6% were clergy. Defeated generals, failed politicians, counter-revolutionaries, currency manipulators, food hoarders, and the well to do were all dispatched in the “red Mass.” Relatives and friends were condemned for showing affection for previous victims.

In the provinces, even greater cruelty was demonstrated by some *représentants en mission*. Joseph Fouché at Lyons had 300 prisoners executed by cannon fire. At Toulon, several hundred suspected royalists were shot after the British evacuation. Three thousand died of disease in the prisons of Nantes, with a further 2,000 being drowned in the Loire.

Denounced, perhaps unjustly, the victim would be arrested in the middle of the night and imprisoned to await a meeting of the Revolutionary Tribunal. A brief hearing, without defense lawyers or defense witnesses, would yield a guilty verdict. In Paris, a batch of prisoners would be taken by cart to the Place de la Révolution, where thousands regularly gathered to witness the executions, drinking wine and laying bets on the order of death. Their hair shorn, the victims would be thrown onto the plank and clamped in place at the neck, and the blade released to sever their heads. The bodies would be thrown into bloody tumbrils.

Not everyone delighted in the spectacle. Many in Paris wearied of the endless processions of death; others, including those on the route to the scaffold, were disgusted by it.

Following Robespierre’s downfall, the revolutionaries became the victims of the White Terror. Members of the Revolutionary Tribunal were guillotined. In the southern provinces, officials were lynched or murdered by associates of their victims. Assassins, known as the *Compagnie du Soleil*, conducted campaigns of retribution.

LET THEM EAT CAKE

Political agitators attributed the callous reply, “Let them eat cake!” on hearing that the people had no bread to Marie Antoinette as part of their ongoing campaign to discredit her. For the urban poor and the peasantry, the availability and price of bread was a matter of life and death. Half the income of the poor was usually spent on bread. While full-scale famines had virtually disappeared during the 18th century in France, bad harvests and food shortages still provoked local peasants’ revolts or *jacqueries*. The price of the four-pound loaf was a useful indicator of potential unrest. Normally selling at eight or nine sous, it soared to 14 1/2 sous in the week before the storming of the Bastille. Two weeks later, its price had subsided to 12 sous.

The rural unrest of the winter of 1788 was triggered by a poor harvest. Lacking government control, bread could be twice as expensive in the country as in the towns. By the spring, the insurrections had developed into revolts against game laws and feudal rights. Châteaux were invaded and the manorial rent rolls were destroyed. Enclosed fields (see p. 65) were restored to common land status. There was no indiscriminate disorder; only a handful of nobles were killed in the conflicts. To the court of Louis XVI, it appeared as if the peasantry had made common cause with the urban working classes, suggesting that a nationwide rebellion was a real possibility.





Unemployment and a food crisis in Paris enabled agitators to encourage the working class to believe that the king could solve these crises, if he was in Paris. The welcoming banquet for the Flanders regiment provided the necessary provocation. On October 5, 6,000 Parisian women (and some disguised male *agents provocateurs* in the pay of the Duc d'Orléans) marched to Versailles, followed by the National Guard, led by an unwilling Lafayette. The precincts were invaded but the king was able to calm a deputation of the women. Violence flared the next morning when a mob invaded the palace, slaughtering the royal guard. The queen barely escaped to the safety of her husband's presence. When Lafayette had restored order, the royal family were taken to Paris as effective hostages of the crowd.

A New Constitution

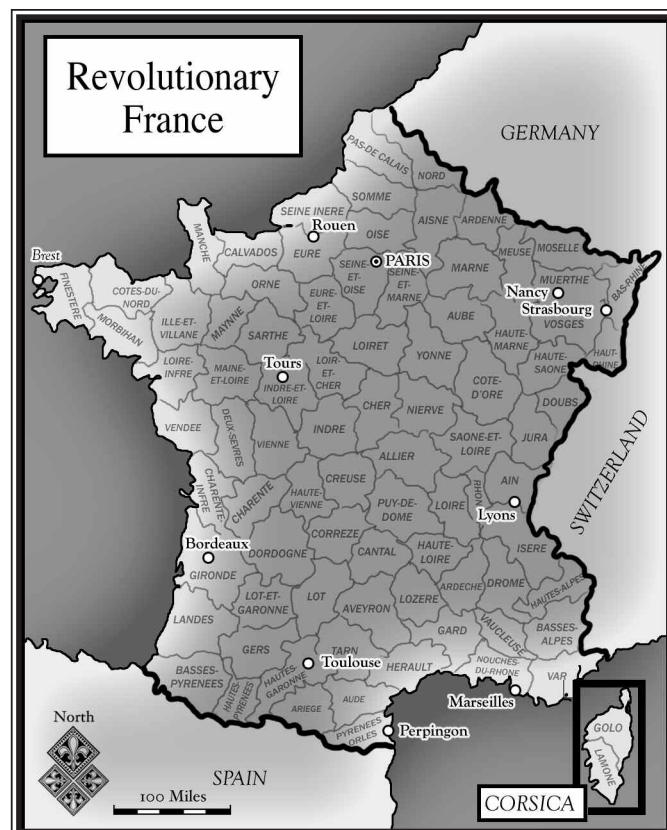
The Constituent Assembly now embarked on creating a constitution. Guided by Sieyès, this made distinctions between "active" and "passive" citizens, the former having political as well as civil rights. Local government was remodeled, with the provinces replaced by departments subdivided into districts, cantons, and communes. The king was given a "suspensive" veto on laws (allowing him to delay their final ratification), but no power to dissolve the Assembly. The new France would be a federation of autonomous departments, with a weak executive and strong legislature.

The reforms extended to the Catholic Church with nationalization of ecclesiastical property, reduction in bishoprics, and popular election of prelates and priests. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy was ratified in July 1790. The church split on the issue. In March 1791, Pope Pius VI condemned the reforms, shattering Louis XVI's hopes that the Assembly would now adopt a conciliatory policy to the monarchy.

Finally, the king was persuaded to flee for his safety and to allow armed intervention by Spain and Austria. Hans Axel von Fersen, a Swedish count, and the Marquis de Bouillé planned and financed his escape from the heavily guarded Tuileries palace on June 20. The queen's insistence that the family travel together prevented the use of a fast coach. Failure to maintain the prearranged schedule kept the royal family from meeting their military escort, and a postmaster recognized the king from his portrait on a banknote. The National Guard recaptured the party at Varennes on June 21 and returned them to Paris.

Louis XVI accepted the new Constitution on September 14. The Constituent Assembly dissolved itself and was replaced in October by the Legislative Assembly, elected by "active" property-owning citizens. While the queen continued to intrigue with Austria and émigrés, envoys were sent to Prussia and England in vain attempts to ensure their neutrality. The Brissotin faction in the Assembly preached an ideological war of peoples versus monarchs and was opposed by Robespierre's Jacobins. The impetuous Francis II ascended the Austrian throne, while the Brissotin administration essayed further secret diplomacy. War with Austria and Prussia was declared on April 20, 1792.

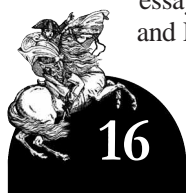
The war began disastrously with immediate French defeats. In France, the court was suspected of supporting the Austrians. To prevent counter-revolution, the Assembly decreed the disbanding of the royal guard and summoned 20,000 provincial National Guardsmen. The king's vetoing of the summons and dismissal of the Brissotin ministry stirred radical discontent in the Parisian administrative sections. The king eventually conceded. The *fédéré* soldiers arrived in the capital during July and, under Jacobin influence, began demanding the king's dethronement.



Death of a King

Counter-revolutionary fears led to a mob invasion of the Tuileries and the massacre of the Swiss Guards on August 10. While Lafayette made overtures to Louis XVI for a military coup to save the monarchy, the Revolutionary Paris Commune insisted on imprisoning the royal family in the Temple. Vigilance committees were organized to interrogate and arrest suspected reactionaries. News of revolts in La Vendée and the worsening war, coupled with the fear of a "prison plot" where escaped prisoners would lead a counter-revolution, triggered a series of massacres in the Paris prisons during the first week of September.

The National Convention assembled on September 20, abolished the monarchy the next day, and decreed that the first year of the Republic should be dated from September 22. During January 1793, the delegates debated the future of Louis XVI. The Girondins tried to spare him a judicial trial, and later execution, but Robespierre and his allies were adamant that death was the only punishment for treason. On January 21, Louis XVI was guillotined.





WHAT IF . . . ENDING THE REVOLUTION

It was possible for the Revolution to have been avoided completely. Calonne's reforms would have reduced the feudal characteristics of France, limited the powers of the provincial assemblies, and provided permanent stable finances. The Bourbons would have become an enlightened autocracy, giving France the opportunity to overtake Britain's progress. Had Brienne forced the reforms through the Paris *parlement en bloc*, a similar outcome would have resulted.

Once the Estates-General met, Louis XVI could have transformed France into a limited constitutional monarchy by seizing the initiative on May 5, 1789 with a program of reforms and ensuring voting "by head." The Third Estate and liberal nobles and clergy would have backed him, and France's political structures would have resembled Britain's.

Mirabeau's activities from October 1789 to April 1791 were also aimed at achieving a constitutional monarchy and a ministerial position for himself. If he had been able to block the decree (November 7, 1789) preventing Assembly deputies from becoming ministers, his plans would likely have succeeded. A limited stable monarchy would have allowed France to rebuild its colonial empire and forestalled the political chaos that encouraged Napoleon's ambitions.

If the flight to Varennes had succeeded, perhaps by division of the royal party, ruthless adherence to the schedule, or Louis XVI's

not being recognized, a Bourbon restoration could have been effected through Austrian and Prussian armies. Maintaining the monarchy without political concessions would demand a police state and transform France into a subservient ally of its imperial neighbors. French colonies might become rewards for the protectors. At worst, further rebellions might trigger long-term occupation and eventual partition to erstwhile protectors. Perhaps a World War might occur in the 19th century?

A Franco-British alliance in 1792 might have occurred had Talleyrand ignored the Opposition and conducted his secret diplomacy only with the government. The offer included giving Tobago to Britain, new commercial treaties, and uniting to acquire South America from Spain. While Austria, Prussia, and Russia might threaten the balance of power, the conflict would uncover brilliant generals such as Napoleon. Backed rather than stymied by British fleets, Napoleon's armies would be invincible. France would dominate continental Europe and Britain would be supreme overseas.

Had Louis XVI's son, the uncrowned Louis XVII, not died in captivity from tuberculosis (June 8, 1795) – which made his uncle, the reactionary Comte de Provence, Louis XVIII – he might have been restored peacefully to the throne as a constitutional monarch. See also *A Lost Dauphin* (pp. 120) for other possibilities.

Days of Terror

Victory at Valmy and the occupation of Savoy and Nice in the previous year emboldened Danton to advocate that France should expand to its "natural frontiers." On January 31, the occupation of Holland was ordered, and war was declared against Britain the next day. Perceived food hoarding and war profiteering precipitated insurrections by the Enragés.

The desertion of General Dumouriez to Austria after he failed to induce his troops to restore Louis XVII implicated the Girondins, whose attempts to attack their opponents during April and May backfired. The Committee of Public Safety arrested the Girondin leaders on June 2.

A federalist revolt continued from May to July, despite a proposed new constitution and the sale of émigré lands to impoverished peasants. The rebellions disintegrated owing to poor leadership, tainted association with royalists, and the danger of Austrian and Spanish invasion.

The Committee of Public Safety came under Robespierre's leadership in late July, facing opposition from Enragés, Dantonists, and Hébertists. The Enragés pressed for price controls, while Danton urged the conversion of the committee into a provisional government with the long-term aim of replacing Robespierre as its head.

On August 27, Toulon surrendered itself and its fleet to the British under Lord Hood. This and other news of the war created pressure to incarcerate suspects and reorganize the Revolutionary Tribunal.

During the autumn and winter of 1793, the Terror was threefold: a political terror against counter-revolutionaries and federalists, an economic terror against food monopolists and currency manipulators, and a religious terror against organized Christianity. October and November occasioned the great state trials of the queen, the Brissotins, the Girondins, and the Orléanists. All were found guilty and guillotined.

Danton, who had been convalescing in the country, returned in late November. Strengthened by the young Napoleon Bonaparte's ousting of the British from Toulon, he proposed a policy of clemency, attacking the atheist Hébertists.

Recognizing Danton's intentions to assume power, Robespierre determined to eliminate all his rivals. The foreign origins of several leading Hébertists made them easy targets for allegations of participation in a "foreign" plot. An abortive Hébertist insurrection in March 1794 was foiled by the preemptive arrests of the faction, who were summarily tried and executed on March 25.

Financial corruption of a Dantonist clique provided an excuse to widen the indictment to encompass Danton and his principal allies (March 30). The brief trials were abruptly ended when Danton's eloquent defense became too troublesome for the judges and the Jacobins. The Dantonists were guillotined on April 5.



French Musket





INTERLUDE: HOLLAND

The United Provinces (as Holland was named) had been governed since 1759 by Stadtholder William V of the House of Orange. His aristocratic regime had stirred resistance in many classes of society, which had taken shape as the Patriot movement. Although friendly to England, Dutch interference in the American struggle for independence nevertheless precipitated the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War (1780-1784). Dutch defeats increased support for the Patriots, who took over the government and ousted William V, who fled.

Prussian intervention in 1789 returned William V to power. Repression followed, with many Patriots fleeing into foreign exile. Encouraged by expected French support, the Patriots revenged themselves in 1795, deposing William V again, before the revolutionary armies could cross into Holland.

The Batavian Republic replaced the United Provinces. The potpourri of provinces with unequal wealth and political rights was transformed into a unitary republic modeled on the French Directory. All citizens were now equal in law with all religions being tolerated. The effective French takeover induced the British to blockade Holland and seize Dutch colonies in the Caribbean, the East Indies, and Africa in the name of William V (now in England). Shorn of its maritime trade and fishing and heavily taxed by France, the Republic turned inward, concentrating on farming.

In 1806, William V died, and his son, William VI, encouraged the Dutch to cooperate with their conquerors. Meanwhile, Napoleon reconstructed the Batavian Republic as the Kingdom of Holland with his brother Louis as king. Louis gained his subjects' respect by supporting Dutch interests rather than obeying Napoleon's orders. Consequently, Napoleon removed Louis and incorporated Holland into the French Empire in 1810 to increase the efficacy of the Continental System against Britain.

As the French Empire began to disintegrate, Dutch leaders resolved to restore the hereditary Stadtholder on their own terms, as opposed to any that might be dictated by the Allies. The retreat of the French in 1813 permitted a peaceful coup and William VI was invited to return as a constitutional monarch. At the Congress of Vienna, the Allies added Belgium and Luxembourg to his domains to create a single Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Revolutionary Days

Robespierre now ruled supreme. However, problems began to emerge, with a rift in the Committee of Public Safety over the free distribution of suspects' land to poor peasants. Friction between the Committees of Public Safety and General Safety increased due to intersection of powers and responsibilities. The public festivals of the Cult of the Supreme Being (see p. 67) in June alienated the Convention deputies, some deeming them a repudiation of freedom of religion, and others a rejection of freedom from religion. General Jourdan's victory over Austria at Fleurus (June 26) and the subsequent reconquest of Belgium made the ongoing Terror seem unnecessary to the frightened deputies.

On July 26, Robespierre angered the National Convention with a speech filled with accusations and threats. The next day (9 Thermidor by the Revolutionary calendar; see p. 67), Robespierre and his henchmen were arrested in the Convention. The gendarmes took him to the Luxembourg prison, but the gatekeeper, following orders from the Commune, refused to admit him; he ended up at the Hôtel de Ville, where the Commune had been meeting. Released on orders from the Commune, his colleagues joined him. Hanriot, commander of the Parisian National Guard, ordered his troops to surround the Convention,

but he was too drunk to lead an effective resistance and his units dispersed during the night. Forces loyal to the Convention were thus able to recapture Robespierre in the morning. Condemned by the Revolutionary Tribunal, he was executed that afternoon.

The severity of the winter accentuated the resentment of the disenfranchised *sans-culottes* (see p. 67), who revolted on April 1 (12 Germinal) and May 20 (1 Prairial), 1795. Both insurrections were easily suppressed. In June, a royalist incursion into Brittany was swiftly defeated. However, worsening conditions for the poor encouraged the royalists to intrigue with Breton rebels and the disaffected. In early October, revolt erupted in Paris. The Convention appointed Paul Barras to defend the Republic. In turn, he persuaded Napoleon Bonaparte to command the Convention's forces. Rather than win by attrition, the rebels attempted to storm the Tuileries in column and were routed by disciplined artillery.

The Convention dissolved and its successor, the Directory, became the new government of France.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WARS

Defending the Republic

The Revolutionary Wars began with the French declaration of war against Austria and Prussia on April 20, 1792. The revolutionary army was initially unable to withstand the Allied forces under the Duke of Brunswick. Heavy summer rain and poor collaboration between the allied units slowed their advance into France. Brunswick's army encountered a French force under General Dumouriez encamped at a hill at Valmy on September 20. The French held their position under heavy artillery fire until Brunswick disengaged and retreated.

Over the next six weeks, the French capitalized on the Valmy victory, pursuing the Prussians into the Rhineland, invading Belgium following Dumouriez's triumph over the Austrians at Jemappes, and seizing Nice and Savoy from the Sardinians. The French offensive slackened after Britain, Holland, and Spain joined the war in spring 1793. Dumouriez's invasion of Holland faltered with his forces retreating into Belgium. Defeated by the Austrians at Neerwinden (March 18) and Louvain (March 21), Dumouriez signed an armistice with the Austrians and tried to persuade his troops to march on Paris to overthrow the government, but his troops deserted instead.

France was gripped by the federalist revolt during the summer of 1793. Royalist envoys invited the British, in the shape of Vice-Admiral Hood's squadron, to preserve Toulon for the uncrowned Louis XVII. Supported by Spanish and Neapolitan reinforcements, Hood's fleet entered Toulon on August 22, capturing a third of the French fleet. Hood garrisoned Toulon but failed to occupy all the strategic headlands. By August 31, Toulon was besieged by French Republicans led by the ineffective General Carteaux. From mid-September onward, the French artillery was commanded by Captain





Napoleon Bonaparte. Several months of skirmishing followed until General Dugommier assumed command. Advised by Bonaparte, Dugommier led night attacks on December 17, capturing the headlands and imperiling the British fleet. Hood immediately evacuated Toulon. The destruction of the French fleet was bungled, with 18 ships of the line recaptured by Dugommier. Fifteen thousand inhabitants fled with the British – the rest were left to Republican justice.

Fortified by new conscripts drafted in the *levée en masse*, French armies under Pichegru routed British forces at Tourcoing in April 1794, while Jourdan accepted heavy losses to defeat a smaller Austrian-Dutch army at Fleurus in June and annex Belgium.

At sea, Admiral Earl Howe intercepted a French fleet escorting a grain convoy from America. Admiral Villaret detached the convoy and drew Howe north. On June 1, the two fleets engaged, with Howe capturing six French ships of the line and destroying a seventh. However, the convoy escaped to Brest.

In 1795, the First Coalition against France collapsed. Pichegru entered Amsterdam in January while Jourdan swept through the German city-states to the Rhine. Peace was signed in April with Prussia and in May with Holland, which became the French-dominated Batavian Republic. The British-supported émigré landing at Quiberon Bay in June was annihilated a month later. After Catalonian defeats, Spain made peace in July.

The Italian Campaign

In 1796, Austria and Britain remained at war with France. Against Britain, the Directors encouraged commerce raiding and supported Irish rebels. Against Austria, the Directors sent two armies under Jourdan and Moreau to attack via Germany and appointed General Bonaparte to command the Army of Italy. The Austrian Archduke Charles thwarted the German offensive. The French retreated home in October.

INTERLUDE: ITALY

Both Lombardy and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies experienced programs of modest reform from 1769 until the advent of the French Revolution. In Lombardy, the measures were orchestrated from Austria; in the Two Sicilies, the impetus came from Ferdinand IV's ministers. Opposition from the privileged classes eliminated any lasting effects.

Peter Leopold (later Leopold II of Austria) masterminded more extensive legal and land reforms in Tuscany. His accession to the Austrian throne prevented implementation of his final goal: a constitutional monarchy supported by representative assemblies. His policies were forcibly opposed after his departure.

The other Italian states (Venice, Genoa, Savoy, and the Papacy) simply ignored the Enlightenment.

For the ordinary Italian, the French Revolution (as described in pamphlets and newspapers) was a struggle against monarchy. Widespread Freemasonry and secret societies (see p. 88) promoted radical politics. Revolutionary plots in Naples and Piedmont were uncovered and squashed. With Napoleon's invasion in 1796, the first republics were created in northern Italy. Aristocrats governed the Ligurian Republic, while moderate bureaucrats controlled the Cisalpine Republic despite the opposition of anti-French radicals. The Roman Republic, founded in 1798, excluded both the pontiff and Italian Jacobins from power in the erstwhile Papal States. The short-lived Parthenopean Republic was carved in January 1799 from Ferdinand IV's Neapolitan domains following the repulse of his two-year campaign to restore the pope. Ferdinand fled to Sicily.

With the French distracted by the armies of the Second Coalition, Cardinal Ruffo's peasant rebels shattered the Parthenopean militias (and avenged themselves on disliked aristocrats), restoring Naples to Ferdinand in June 1799. Clerically led peasants, angered at French taxes, similarly freed Tuscany.

The return of Napoleon in 1801 witnessed the recreation of the republics and the annexation of Italian territory to France. By 1806, "President" Napoleon of the Italian Republic was King of Italy with his stepson (Eugène de Beauharnais) as viceroy. Naples was reconquered, being ruled by Joseph Bonaparte until 1808, and then by ex-marshal Joachim Murat. Only Sicily and Sardinia remained outside the Napoleonic dominions.

As the Empire fragmented during 1814, Austrian and Neapolitan forces restored the old order in Italy. Beauharnais' resistance earned him a Bavarian retirement. Murat counted on Italian nationalists for support in his last-ditch attempt to recover his throne and was executed in 1815 it failed.

INTERLUDE: IRELAND

The American War required the British to reduce their forces in Ireland. The Irish volunteer corps became both a defense against French invasion and an outlet for the reforms espoused by the orators Flood and Grattan. The British yielded, returning legislative independence to the Irish Parliament.

The French Revolution inspired Presbyterians and Catholics to indulge in radical politics. Wolfe Tone organized them into societies known as the United Irishmen. Their goals were full Catholic emancipation and parliamentary reform. Once war with Revolutionary France started, these clubs were suppressed and went underground. In 1793 the British government granted Irish Catholics the right to vote to bolster their loyalty.

The United Irishmen enlisted the support of Revolutionary France in 1794. A large expeditionary fleet and 14,000 troops under General Hoche and Tone set out in December 1796. Storms dispersed the fleet, sinking many ships, and the survivors made no attempt to land at Bantry Bay.

Unrest continued to rise throughout 1797. Despite some of its leaders being arrested in early 1798, the United Irishmen's rebellion erupted in May, mainly in Wexford and eastern Ulster. The northern rebels were crushed at Antrim and Ballinahinch. The Wexford rebels lasted longer. Having failed to capture the towns of Arklow and New Ross, they were overwhelmed by General Lake at Vinegar Hill on June 21.

Although Tone had been unable to persuade Bonaparte to lead an expedition to Ireland, Generals Hardy and Humbert accepted the commission. A thousand soldiers under Humbert sailed first, arriving on August 23 in Killala Bay rather than Donegal owing to contrary winds. Humbert captured Killala and Ballina with ease and then advanced on Castlebar, supported by several hundred Irish volunteers, routing a 4,000-strong army under Lake on August 27. Spontaneous uprisings among the Irish failed, and an army of 30,000 captured Humbert's force on September 7. Delayed until mid-September by weather and logistics, Hardy's expedition was intercepted by the Royal Navy in October.

In reaction to the rebellion, Pitt implemented the Act of Union in 1801, eliminating the Irish Parliament and giving Ireland direct representation at Westminster. However, Pitt's goal of permitting Catholics to become MPs was prevented by George III. Nevertheless, Ireland was united with Britain.





INTERLUDE: AUSTRIA

Ensuring Austria's recovery from the Seven Years War became Empress Maria Theresa's principal concern. She introduced laws to limit exploitation of serfs by the nobility, with the dual aims of minimizing revolts and ensuring that the serfs could meet her taxes. Skilled workers from the periphery of and beyond the Empire were encouraged to resettle in crown lands.

Potential conflict with Prussia and Russia over expansion into the Ottoman Empire was averted in 1772 through the expedient of dismembering Poland instead. Although Maria Theresa found the First Partition of Poland distasteful, pragmatism demanded it. An attempt to swap the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria did lead to war with Prussia in 1778, but Maria Theresa avoided actual conflict by direct intervention with Frederick II of Prussia.

Her son, Joseph II, succeeded her in 1780. During the 1780s, he gradually abolished serfdom throughout the empire, dissolved some monasteries, and extended religious toleration to non-Catholics. In 1789, he proposed an egalitarian tax regime for all subjects, but these measures died with him in 1790.

Joseph's brother, Leopold II, returned from Tuscany to become Emperor. Leopold quickly ended another border war with the Ottoman Empire and then turned his attention to domestic affairs. His proposals included giving commoners representation in government as a counterbalance to the nobility; they would have strengthened the fractious empire. He died prematurely in 1792 and was succeeded by his son, Francis II.

Austria now considered Revolutionary France a threat to all the monarchies of Europe. The inevitable war resulted in unexpected defeats and significant territorial losses. The period of peace between 1801 and 1805 gave Archduke Charles (Francis II's brother) the opportunity to reorganize the army. Nevertheless Austria was defeated again by Napoleon and Francis II was compelled to renounce his title as Holy Roman Emperor, becoming Francis I of Austria.

From 1806 to 1809, Austrian ministers attempted to create new armies by recruiting militia forces and appealing to nationalist sympathies in imperial territories. Renewed war brought further defeat. Count Metternich took charge of foreign policy, aiming to achieve coexistence with France by the marriage of Princess Marie-Louise to Napoleon.

Napoleon's intransigence compelled Metternich to rejoin the Allies in 1813. Metternich was instrumental in restoring Austria's power at the Congress of Vienna.

Meanwhile, Bonaparte achieved a series of spectacular victories. In April, his forces shattered the Austrian and Piedmontese defense of the Maritime Alps. The threat to the Piedmontese capital of Turin induced Piedmont's surrender. Bonaparte then pursued the Austrians, breaking their rear guard at the bridge of Lodi on May 10, and capturing Milan five days later. The Directors then ordered Bonaparte to subjugate northern Italy, rather than continue against Austria. During October 1796, Lombardy was reorganized into French-dominated satellite republics. A stream of art treasures and tax revenues from Italy helped to finance the Directory. After a prolonged siege with several victories over numerically superior Austrian forces at Castiglione (August), Rovereto (September), Arcole (November), and Rivoli (January), Bonaparte captured Mantua in February 1797.

Plans to combine the French, Spanish, and Dutch fleets suffered a severe setback when Admiral Sir John Jervis defeated the Spanish fleet in battle off Cape St. Vincent (February 14); the fleet then fled to Cadiz. The Dutch fleet remained penned in the Texel by Admiral Duncan's blockade.

In February, Bonaparte invaded the Papal States, acquiring Bologna, Romagna, and other territories from the terrified Pope Pius VI. Then he turned his army against Austria, advancing to within a hundred miles of Vienna, before Emperor Francis II sued for peace on April 7. Between the preliminary truce and the Treaty of Campo-Formio in October, Bonaparte occupied the independent state of Venetia and rebuilt northern Italy into the Ligurian Republic (Genoa) and the Cisalpine Republic (Lombardy, Bologna, and Romagna). In return for Venice, Austria recognized the French annexation of Belgium and its expansion to the Rhine, enabling Bonaparte to present the Directors with a *fait accompli*.

Despite the naval mutinies at Spithead and the Nore during 1797 over pay and conditions, the Royal Navy maintained its watch of the Texel. At French insistence, the Dutch fleet under Admiral De Winter was ordered to break the blockade and neutralize Duncan's squadron. Instead, it was the Dutch fleet that was destroyed by Duncan at the battle of Camperdown (October 11).

The Egyptian Campaign

1798 opened with the occupation of Rome and the establishment of the Roman Republic. Pope Pius VI was imprisoned in France. French agents and arms instigated a revolution in Switzerland and the Helvetic Republic was created in March. Bonaparte, having decided that an invasion of England was impossible, pressed the Directors to approve a military expedition to Egypt that would open the way to British India. The Directors saw in Bonaparte's dreams of oriental conquest the opportunity to prevent his organizing a coup d'état. The fleet of warships and transports, carrying 30,000 troops and numerous scientists and thinkers, sailed from Toulon in May.

The Knights of St. John surrendered Malta to Bonaparte without resistance on June 10. Bonaparte garrisoned the island and then sailed to Alexandria, arriving and capturing it on July 2. Disciplined French troops routed the numerically superior Mameluke army at the Battle of the Pyramids on July 21. Bonaparte entered Cairo the next day.

Ordered to intercept the French armada, Rear Admiral Nelson located de Bruey's fleet in Aboukir Bay (August 1) after weeks of fruitless searching. Nelson noticed that the French had misjudged their anchorage, and so his squadron was able to attack them on their landward as well as seaward sides. The result was the capture or destruction of 11 out of the 15 French ships.

Stranded, Bonaparte governed Egypt and suppressed occasional revolts. A small detachment under General Desaix chased Mameluke troops up and down the Nile valley for the next year. In February 1799, Bonaparte led a larger force into Greater Syria, easily defeating the Ottoman forces. A small British squadron under Sir Sydney Smith reached Acre on the Red Sea in time to capture a flotilla carrying Bonaparte's artillery before the general's eyes on March 17. While French forces won numerous engagements with the Turks during April, Acre, bolstered by British support, did not fall. The siege was lifted on May 20 and the French returned to Cairo.





In Europe, forces of the Second Coalition of Britain, Russia, Austria, the Ottoman Empire, Naples, and Portugal (created December 1798) were threatening France on many fronts. Archduke Charles defeated Jourdan and Masséna in the Rhineland, Suvorov's Russians drove the French out of northern Italy, Neapolitan rule was reasserted in southern Italy, and a combined British-Russian army invaded Holland.

The French recovery began with Masséna's triumph over the Russians at Zurich (September 1799), followed by his capture of Constance in Germany, preventing Archduke Charles from crossing the Rhine or assisting the British in Holland. The allies withdrew by November and Czar Paul I left the coalition in disgust.

The Directory

Since October 1795, France had been ruled by the Directory, a government possessing a weak five-man executive (the Directors) and a bicameral legislature, divided into the 250-strong Council of the Elders who accepted or vetoed legislation and the Council of the Five Hundred who proposed legislation. To ensure political continuity with the Convention, two-thirds of the original members were selected from the Convention. Thereafter, partial elections were held annually beginning in April 1797 to replace one-third of the deputies. Similarly, one Director was annually chosen by lot and replaced. The Directors were responsible for appointing commissioners to oversee all levels of local government.

Criticism of the regime began almost immediately, with vitriolic attacks from "Gracchus Babeuf," a "professional" revolutionary promoting communist ideals. The Babeuf conspiracy to overthrow the Directory was uncovered by the secret police in May 1796, with Babeuf being imprisoned and executed a year later.

Assisted by British agents such as Wickham in Switzerland and French constitutional monarchists, the 1797 election returned many moderate deputies. A royalist plot came to nothing, but provided an excuse for the Directors' coup of 18 Fructidor (September 4) to wrest their independence from the Councils and eliminate monarchist deputies.

The royalist suppression encouraged a Jacobin revival. Despite Directorial interference in the 1798 elections, including creating competing electoral assemblies, many Jacobin deputies were elected. However, the Directors, in concert with the existing Council members, selectively annulled unpalatable results in the "coup" of 22 Floréal (May 11). Repression of royalists, refractory clergy, and Jacobins continued.

In 1799, more Jacobin deputies were elected, and Sieyès became a Director. Through repression, repudiation of two-thirds of the national debt (owed to prosperous citizens), enforcement of the Revolutionary calendar, and mass conscription, the regime had alienated every segment of society. By June, Sieyès replaced the other Directors with his supporters and began to prepare a coup to replace the unstable Directory with a more secure government.

INTERLUDE: SPAIN

The reign of Charles III was distinguished by his appointment of a succession of reforming ministers influenced by various strands of Enlightenment thought. Although all were impeded by various traditional privileges, their efforts improved colonial administration, increasing revenue and providing a captive market for Spanish exports. The new colonial governors tripled revenues but were notoriously ruthless and self-serving. Revolts against royal decrees were common during the 1780s, though fear of the American natives limited the rebellions.

Charles III was succeeded in 1788 by his son, the weak Charles IV, who was dominated by his wife. The reforming ministers were discredited by policy failures with regard to Revolutionary France and replaced in 1792 by Manuel de Godoy, the queen's favorite and lover. War with France in 1793 led to a French invasion and republican stirrings in Catalonia and the north. Fearing revolution and distrusting Britain, Godoy allied Spain to France in 1796. The resulting isolation from the colonies due to British hostility nearly bankrupted Spain.

The War of the Oranges – the short joint invasion of Portugal with France in 1801 – gained Spain the province of Olivenza but failed to raise Godoy's popularity. Spanish naval losses at Trafalgar (1805) increased discontent with pro-French policies. However, Napoleon's continued continental successes dissuaded Godoy from leaving the alliance.

Godoy's plan to restore his prestige by dismantling Portugal in concert with France backfired when Napoleon made demands for Spanish territory and Prince Ferdinand's partisans staged a coup against Charles IV in 1808. Napoleon installed his brother Joseph as King of Spain. Joseph's rule was supported by the *afrancesados*, who believed that French rule was irresistible and would modernize Spain, but was opposed in the provinces. The provincial juntas organized military resistance to the French. The French easily defeated Spanish regular troops. The liberation of Spain was accomplished from 1809 to 1813 by British forces under the Duke of Wellington and Spanish guerrillas.

Although the juntas issued a constitution in 1812 providing for a limited monarchy and a representative parliament, conservatives and the army ensured that Ferdinand VII returned to Spain as an absolute monarch in 1814.



Spanish Officers (1801)





INTERLUDE: ENGLAND

British attitudes to the American conflict were mixed. Protestant Dissenters and commercial interests opposed it; King George III thought rebellion “sinful.” By the late 1770s, it had encouraged the formation of several groups pressing for varying degrees of parliamentary reform. Some minor concessions were passed as the Catholic Relief Act of 1778. The crazy Lord Gordon founded the Protestant Association to coerce the Act’s repeal and incited the Gordon Riots (1780) in London, which lasted eight days and cost over 300 lives. Reform disappeared from the political agenda for a decade.

The end of the American war was followed by several short-lived administrations (called “ministries”) before William Pitt was elected as prime minister in 1784. Undaunted by the expanded national debt, Pitt raised additional revenue through higher taxes. By reducing import duties, he made legal trade more profitable than smuggling. The quickening pace of the Industrial Revolution also assisted Britain’s recovery. He sought allies in Europe, forming the Triple Alliance with Prussia and Holland in 1788.

British views on the French Revolution were divided. The Romantic poets supported it, Thomas Paine advocated similar changes in Britain, and Edmund Burke denounced it. Corresponding societies with reform and occasional French agendas appeared. Public opinion became hostile to France after Louis XVI’s execution and attacks on Holland. Pitt suppressed the corresponding societies, all of which were eliminated or underground by 1795.

The expansion of the navy, army, and home militias, plus subsidies to continental allies (“Pitt’s Gold”), strained the nation, requiring the introduction of an income tax in 1798 and large government loans. Home and colonial defense became the mainstay of British strategy, while Napoleon remained supreme on land.

Pitt resigned over Catholic emancipation in Ireland and was replaced by Addington, who succumbed to commercial pressures for peace with France. After the failure of Amiens, Pitt returned briefly, dying in office in 1806. He was succeeded in turn by Grenville (1806-1807), Bentinck (1807-1809), and Perceval (1809-1812).

Commercial demands for peace waned and waxed according to the markets made available or denied by the shifting coalitions of allies and foes. Political popularity rose or fell in proportion to military success abroad. After Perceval’s assassination, Lord Liverpool became prime minister, strengthening Allied unity against Napoleon and promoting the abolition of the slave trade.

First Consul

Meanwhile Bonaparte had left Egypt and his army on August 23, evading the British blockade, and arriving in Paris on October 16. Sieyès required a successful general to ensure the conspiracy’s success. His original choice, General Joubert, had been killed fighting the Austrians. Using Talleyrand as a go-between, Sieyès secured Bonaparte’s support.

On 18 Brumaire (November 9), the plotters acted. The Council of Elders was summoned for an emergency 7 a.m. meeting and informed of a supposed Jacobin plot. Emergency powers were granted, Bonaparte was made responsible for security, and both Councils were requested to meet the next day. The uncommitted Directors were forced to resign. The Councilors realized at their meeting that the Jacobin danger was imaginary and started protesting against the intrigue. An address to them by Bonaparte inflamed the situation further. His brother, Lucien, first distracted the deputies and then persuaded the Council’s guards to support Bonaparte in clearing the hall. Bonaparte, Sieyès, and the former Director Ducos formed a Provisional Consulate to govern France.

The Provisional Consuls set to work with financial and constitutional reforms. Bonaparte disagreed with the elaborate system of checks and balances on consular powers proposed by Sieyès and instigated his own structure, which he bullied the remaining deputies into acclaiming – with himself as First Consul. Legislation would be proposed by the Consuls and the Council of State, debated by the 100-man Tribunate, and either accepted or rejected by the 300-strong Legislative Body. An appointed Senate “guarded” the constitution and appointed the Tribunes and Legislators. The new regime received popular support in a referendum in January 1800 (despite vote-rigging and millions of abstentions.)

Local administrators, from the prefects of the departments to the mayors of the commune, were also appointed. All local matters were referred to the prefects; important prefecture decisions were similarly sanctioned by the ministry of the interior.

From Marengo to the Treaty of Amiens

With France secure, Bonaparte turned his attention to the war. Masséna was now besieged in Genoa, while an army of 100,000 Austrians controlled northern Italy. Bonaparte with an army of 65,000 quickly crossed the Great St. Bernard Pass during May and reoccupied Milan, blocking the Austrian retreat. At the ensuing Battle of Marengo on June 14, Bonaparte’s army was almost overwhelmed owing to his poor deployment of forces. Unexpectedly supported by Desaix’s division, Bonaparte concentrated his cavalry and artillery on the Austrian center – which broke. The Austrians accepted a temporary armistice.



Vibrand, Toussaint L'Ouverture (ca. 1800)



INTERLUDE: THE WEST INDIES

The West Indies quickly became embroiled in the global conflict of the Revolutionary Wars. In 1793, Britain seized Tobago and achieved a tentative hold on Haiti, which was already gripped by multisided racial warfare. Admiral Jervis and General Grey captured the islands of Martinique, St. Lucia, and Guadeloupe in a three-month campaign in early 1794.

The abolition of slavery in Haiti increased resistance to the British presence, with ex-slaves such as Toussaint L'Ouverture becoming military leaders. The Spanish ceded the remainder of Hispaniola to France in 1795 and the British were driven out.

During the summer of 1794, Victor Hugues (and his portable guillotine) arrived in Guadeloupe, retaking it after six months of fighting. Hugues freed the slaves and liberally executed Royalists and other opposition. From 1795 to 1797, he encouraged privateers to prey on merchant shipping, especially neutral American vessels. By instigating slave uprisings, Hugues recaptured the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent from the British, as well as St. Eustatius and St. Martin from the Dutch.

General Abercromby brought reinforcements from England in 1796, recovering St. Lucia, Grenada, and St. Vincent that year. British expansion in the West Indies continued with the conquest of Trinidad, Curaçao, and St. Eustatius among others, at the expense of France's allies, until the Peace of Amiens. Although the battle casualties were extremely low, annual outbreaks of yellow fever killed 40,000 British troops in this period. The French were equally ravaged by disease.

In 1798, the Directory removed Hugues from Guadeloupe to prevent his activities from causing outright war with the United States. Despite this, the Americans conducted an undeclared war against French shipping for four years.

Bonaparte decided to reassert French authority in the islands in 1801 with the aim of restoring slavery. After a bloody and brutal struggle, L'Ouverture (who had been Haiti's governor since 1798) was imprisoned and transported to Europe. News of these events triggered uprisings in Guadeloupe, which were vigorously suppressed by the French. The Haitian rebellion proved unstoppable and the French evacuated in 1803. After their departure, racially motivated civil war continued in Haiti.

Back in Paris, Bonaparte proclaimed Marengo as a great victory to strengthen his credibility, initiated negotiations with the Pope, and commenced the creation of the Civil Code (later called the Code Napoleon). French armies under Moreau, Brune, Murat, and Macdonald were poised to attack the Austrians following the armistice's end. On December 3, Moreau decisively defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden, later compelling a second armistice. In mid-December, Czar Paul, angered by British occupation of Malta, instigated the League of Armed Neutrality with Denmark, Sweden, and Prussia, excluding British trade from the Baltic.

On 24 December, a bomb hidden on a cart exploded as Bonaparte's carriage passed en route to the opera. Bonaparte was unharmed, but 60 Parisians were killed or injured. In response to this and other assassination plots, over a hundred Jacobin sympathizers were exiled to colonies in early January 1801. Fouché, the police minister, investigated further and discovered that the Opera Plot was the work of *chouan* rebels from Brittany. A hundred suspected royalists were imprisoned.

War with Austria was concluded in February 1801 with the Treaty of Lunéville, which required Austria to recognize the terms of Campo-Formio under threat of invasion. Only Britain remained at war with France.

WHAT IF . . . FRENCH VICTORY AT TRAFALGAR

Napoleon was largely responsible for defeat at Trafalgar. If he had not provoked the British into ending the Peace of Amiens, a mere three years of peace would have given him numerical naval superiority, time for his sailors to gain sea experience after years imprisoned in harbors by the British blockades, and time to scatter the squadrons so that blockading their home ports did not nullify the French Navy.

If Napoleon had made simpler invasion plans accounting for weather, rather than changing and convoluted plans, then the window of opportunity would have been longer, and his intent to draw off the Channel Fleet would have remained secret. The French squadrons would have escaped earlier, the Channel would have been unguarded, and Britain would have been conquered before the Austro-Russian alliance threatened the Empire's rear.

Villeneuve had survived the Battle of the Nile; he was sure Nelson would defeat him. Perhaps if Napoleon's initial choices, Admirals Latouche-Tréville or de Bruix, had lived, or if Villeneuve had not been shamed into leaving port before being replaced by Rosily, the fleet would have been confident in facing Nelson.

Villeneuve predicted Nelson's plan of attacking from windward, breaking the Franco-Spanish line, and concentrating his ships to annihilate whole squadrons. Villeneuve intended to keep a squadron to windward of his battle line, able to reinforce wherever Nelson's attack occurred and be itself reinforced from the other squadrons. If his captains and crews had been skilful enough to achieve this configuration, Trafalgar would not have meant French annihilation. If Rear-Admiral Dumanoir had obeyed Villeneuve's orders to engage the British, his ships might have prevented defeat.

If the French had controlled the English Channel long enough for the army to cross, then victory over the British home forces was certain. Irish uprisings would have prevented the garrisons there from intervening. Britain's overseas armies and fleets would be hard to concentrate for a war of liberation and more vulnerable to piecemeal destruction.

Ireland would have become an independent republic under the survivors of the United Irishmen. Napoleon had sufficient English admirers to ensure a puppet regime in England, while France acquired its colonies. Without English subsidies and defiance, Austria and Russia would appease Napoleon from fear. The 19th century would have witnessed the Pax Napoleon in Europe and across the world.

Britain resolved to break the League of Armed Neutrality, sending a fleet to Copenhagen under the cautious Admiral Hyde Parker with Nelson as second in command. The Danes refused to submit, so Nelson led his squadron through a shallow channel, bypassing the shore batteries, to bombard the Danish fleet and the city on April 2, disregarding orders to disengage. Denmark surrendered. The need to follow this success with attacks on the Swedish and Russian fleets was avoided when the new Czar Alexander (succeeding his murdered father on March 23) sought agreement with Britain.

In Egypt, a British army initially under Abercromby defeated the French remnant under Menou at Alexandria on March 21. After his death, his successors, abetted by the Turks, harried the French further until the end of August. In September, the French force agreed to leave Egypt in return for an unmolested journey to France.

The Addington ministry in Britain, which had succeeded Pitt in February, was eager for peace. On October 1, Britain and France concluded the Preliminary Peace of London, which became the definitive Treaty of Amiens on March 27, 1802.





THE PEACE OF AMIENS

The Addington administration in Britain was war-weary and weak, willing to experiment with peaceful coexistence with Consular France. Bonaparte needed peace to reopen routes to overseas colonies, restore trade, and rebuild the French navy. By exploiting the feeble British government, Bonaparte achieved an advantageous settlement, with Britain returning most of its territorial gains. The Ottoman Empire recovered Egypt, Holland the Cape of Good Hope, and France Martinique. Britain retained Ceylon and Trinidad, but was to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John. France agreed to depart from Naples and the Papal States.

While English visitors flocked to visit France, Bonaparte continued with his diplomacy with the Vatican, supplementing the original Concordat (agreed to in July 1801) with a series of "Organic Articles" in April 1802. These additions had the effect of drastically limiting papal authority in France, subordinating the episcopate to the government, and regulating religious life in detail. The revised agreement removed the revolutionary persecutions and encouraged the ordinary clergy to seek guidance from Rome.

In addition to ensuring the ratification of the peace treaties and the Concordat, Bonaparte had many other reforms requiring parliamentary assent. In education, the republican secondary schools proposed in 1795 by the Directory were to be supplanted by the *lycées*, which would train candidates for civil and military careers. In law, the Civil Code was now complete. To honor meritorious service, the *Légion d'Honneur* was created. Despite opposition, Bonaparte forced through his program.

Bonaparte's supporters manipulated the Senate into suggesting a ten-year extension of his consulship as a reward. This became a life consulship and was duly affirmed by parliament and a popular referendum in August.

Abroad, Bonaparte's plans for a new French empire in North America were coming to fruition. Charles IV of Spain ceded the Louisiana Territory back to France in return for the wealthy Duchy of Parma and Etruria in Italy in October 1802. The Americans were frightened by the possible loss of access to the Mississippi River and New Orleans for their western settlers. President Jefferson instructed his ministers to either prevent the Territory's return to France or acquire Louisiana from France. The American threat that a French Louisiana would produce an American alliance with Britain, coupled with Bonaparte's realization that the Territory was indefensible, persuaded Talleyrand to discuss terms. American settlers were already pouring into the area around St. Louis, war with Britain was looming, and Bonaparte was short of funds. France sold Louisiana to the United States for \$27,000,000.

French interventions in Italy, Switzerland, and Holland persuaded the British that Bonaparte intended to adhere (at most) to the letter of the treaty. Britain delayed relinquishing Malta in retaliation. The British declared war on May 17, 1803.

INTERLUDE: THE BALTIC

Gustav III became Sweden's king in 1771, increasing his power with a coup against the Swedish parliament a year later. The Ottoman Empire's war with Russia provided an opportunity to recover lost Finnish domains in 1788. Aristocratic officers betrayed the plans and the war foundered. Gustav retaliated by calling a Diet at which he assumed absolute power and the other estates stripped the nobility of their privileges. A disgruntled nobleman murdered him in 1792.

His son, the pious Gustav IV, succeeded him. Hostile to the French Revolution, he censored French literature and pursued financial economies to avoid a Swedish rebellion. Sweden joined the Third Coalition in 1805 and remained hostile to France despite Russia's defection at Tilsit. The next year, Sweden battled both Denmark and Russia, losing Finland to Russia.

In 1809, the generals and ministers deposed Gustav, who went to Switzerland, and replaced him with the senile Charles XIII and a new constitution. Initially Christian August, Danish commander of the Norwegian forces, was proposed as heir. After his death, Swedish officers sought a Napoleonic marshal as replacement. Napoleon offered Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte, who renamed himself Charles John and became Sweden's de facto ruler in 1810.

Bernadotte allied himself with Russia in 1812, confirming the loss of Finland in return for permission to seize Norway from Denmark. Swedish forces cautiously assisted the Allies at the Battle of Leipzig and then advanced against Denmark, forcing it to surrender Norway under the Treaty of Kiel.

Denmark-Norway was officially ruled by the insane Christian VII from 1766 to 1808. Christian's stepmother effectively governed until 1784, when the 16-year-old crown prince Frederick asserted his authority. Denmark's period of peace and prosperity continued to the century's end. The creation of the League of Armed Neutrality incurred Britain's hostility. A British squadron under Nelson bombarded Copenhagen and devastated the Danish fleet in 1801.

Nevertheless, Denmark survived and prospered until the Tilsit treaty. Occupation by either France or Russia looked likely. Instead the British attacked, hijacking the Danish fleet to prevent its use by France. Denmark joined the Napoleonic alliance, suffering war with Sweden and enduring famine in Norway. Frederick VI failed to benefit from Sweden's dynastic troubles and lost Norway through supporting Napoleon too long.

THE NAPOLEONIC WARS

The Emperor and Trafalgar

British tourists caught in France at the renewal of hostilities were imprisoned *en masse*. The Royal Navy seized French shipping, with the Channel Fleet under Vice-Admiral Cornwallis recommencing its blockade of French ports.

Bonaparte initiated preparations to invade England. Harbors were improved, flotillas of flat-bottomed armed transports were constructed, and the Army of England was assembled and trained at Boulogne. Over the next two years, Bonaparte developed multiple plans, requiring fleets to break the blockades, rendezvous at various locations, and shield the invasion force until it landed in England. France and Spain secretly agreed on a military alliance in October 1803.

Royalists led by Cadoudal tried to persuade the republican General Moreau to overthrow Bonaparte, but the conspiracy was unmasked by Fouché in February 1804. The plotters were exiled or executed. Bonaparte became convinced that the



Bourbon prince, the Duc d'Enghien, intended to lead an invasion. He was kidnapped from neutral Strasbourg and summarily executed, to the horror of royal Europe.

Through political maneuverings in the Senate, Bonaparte's agents were able to propose further changes to the Life Consulate to ensure its permanency. On May 18, 1804, Bonaparte was proclaimed Napoleon I, Emperor of the French. On the same day, William Pitt replaced Addington as British prime minister.

The British continued to strengthen their coastal defenses and raise militia regiments. Cornwallis maintained his successful blockade, detaching a small squadron to intercept the Spanish treasure fleet in September, which provoked open war with Spain in December.

Napoleon's coronation took place in the cathedral of Notre Dame on December 2, 1804. Anointed by Pope Pius VII, Napoleon then crowned *himself* Emperor.

In March 1805, Napoleon announced his intention to reconstitute the Italian Republic as a monarchy with himself as king, precipitating the hostility of the continental powers. Russia renewed its alliance with England in April, with Austria and Sweden joining the Third Coalition by August. In response, Napoleon ordered the Army of England to march east toward Austria.

Meanwhile Admiral Villeneuve's fleet had escaped from Toulon, joined with Admiral Gravina's squadron at Cadiz, and sailed to Martinique in April. Pursued by Nelson, Villeneuve recrossed the Atlantic to the safety of Cadiz, clashing with Calder off El Ferrol on July 22. In September, Nelson's new Mediterranean Fleet replaced Calder's squadron blockading Cadiz. On October 18, Villeneuve ordered the Combined Fleet to sail for Gibraltar. Three days later, the two fleets fought at Trafalgar in a "pell-mell" battle planned by Nelson. The British triumphed, with 19 French and Spanish ships taken or destroyed. The Royal Navy mourned Nelson, killed by a sniper's bullet.

From Austerlitz to Tilsit

Napoleon's enemies were dispersed, with the Archduke Charles in Italy, Archduke Ferdinand heading for Bavaria, and Kutuzov's Russians lagging far behind. Napoleon advanced his army through neutral Prussia and surrounded the Austrians under Ferdinand and Mack at Ulm. Mack was compelled to capitulate on October 20. Kutuzov began a scorched-earth retreat. Prussia joined the coalition in retaliation for the violation of its neutrality. Napoleon entered defenseless Vienna in November.

Disturbed by potential national bankruptcy at home and alarmed that his army was potentially overextended, Napoleon resolved to entice the Russians and the Austrian remnants into a decisive battle near Brno before their numbers became overwhelming. The two armies met at Austerlitz. Using his knowledge of the terrain and exploiting the early morning fog to cloak his maneuvers, Napoleon confounded the ill-led Allies, resulting in a crushing victory on December 2. Emperor Francis and Czar Alexander fled.

Hasty treaties followed. Austria surrendered Venetia, Dalmatia, and German territories. Prussia ceded western German lands in return for British Hanover.

Napoleon spent the early half of 1806 reorganizing the former republics as kingdoms with his brothers as sovereigns. Next he created the French-sponsored Confederation of the Rhine from city-states and German provinces. This prompted the Prussians to issue an ultimatum demanding a French withdrawal west of the Rhine in September.

Napoleon's answer was invasion. On October 14, Napoleon shattered the Prussians at Jena while General Davout defeated a second army at Auerstädt. Further victories followed, with the French holding Berlin, Magdeburg, and Warsaw by the end of November. Frederick William III fled into East Prussia.

During a pause in the conflict, Napoleon issued the Decree of Berlin, inaugurating the Continental System, which closed all European ports to British commerce. The British retaliated in January 1807 with the Orders-in-Council restricting neutral nations' trade with France and its allies.

Napoleon prosecuted the war against Prussia and its Russian allies with vigor in 1807. Although stalemated at Eylau in February, the Grand Army regrouped and captured Gdansk in May. Eventually the Russian army under Bennigsen was trapped and broken at Friedland on June 14. Bennigsen persuaded the Czar to make peace with Napoleon.

On June 25, the two sovereigns met on a raft in the Niemen River, with Napoleon captivating the impressionable Czar. Napoleon promised to support Alexander against the Ottoman Empire, while Alexander agreed to declare war against Britain. Prussia's Polish territories were ceded to Russia and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. Napoleon and Alexander parted as friends.

INTERLUDE: PORTUGAL

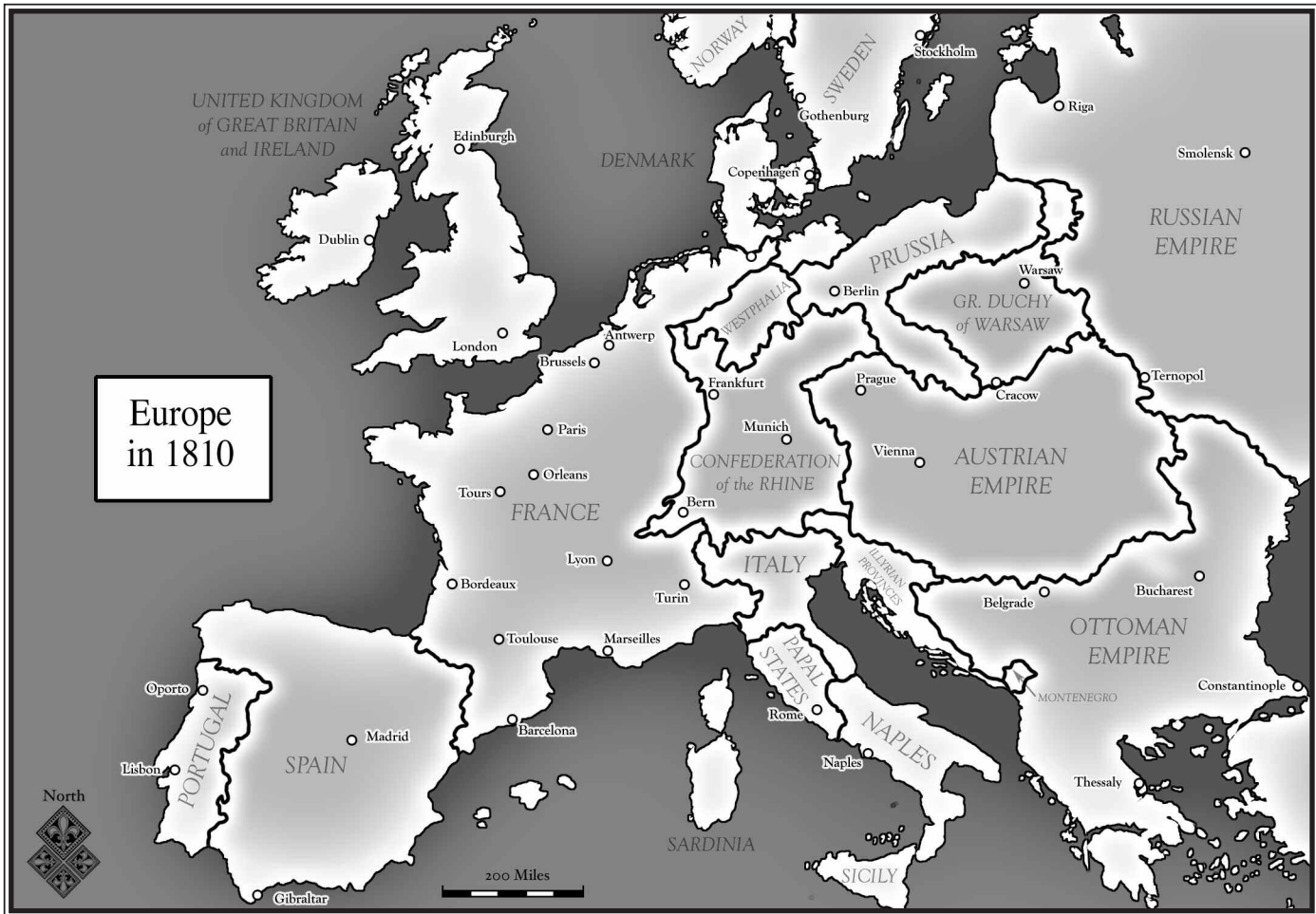
Until King Joseph's death in 1777, his chief minister, the Marquis de Pombal, governed Portugal. Although Pombal promulgated various progressive measures and secured new royal revenues, his methods created many enemies, including the Jesuits and a number of noble families. He was dismissed after Maria, Joseph's daughter, inherited the throne. Maria's melancholy disposition intensified following the death of her husband (1786) and eldest son (1788) and the events of the French Revolution until she was no longer willing to rule. Prince John ruled for Maria until the end of her reign in 1816.

Portugal joined the First Coalition in 1793 against Revolutionary France, remaining a belligerent even after Spain's defection (1795). During 1801, Spain briefly invaded in the "War of the Oranges." Portugal forfeited the town of Olivenza and paid the Spanish a war indemnity. From 1802 to 1807, Portugal was pressured to renounce its neutrality but refused.

The advance of the French under Junot through Spain in October 1807 prompted the wholesale evacuation of the Portuguese royal family in November. Escorted by the Royal Navy, the court escaped to Brazil.

During the Peninsular War, many British officers and non-commissioned officers transferred into the Portuguese army. This, coupled with the absence of the royal princes in the country's peril, led to jealousy and discontent, which manifested after the war in a forcible recall of John VI (see p. 30).





The Peninsular War

Despite Napoleon's threats, Portugal stubbornly resisted joining the Continental System. By the Treaty of Fontainebleau (1807), Napoleon and Godoy agreed to partition Portugal. General Junot's army marched through Spain and invaded Portugal. The British evacuated the Portuguese royal family and navy ahead of Junot's arrival. Napoleon reinforced Junot, occupying northern Spain in the process. Charles IV's attempt to flee was foiled by a coup d'état in favor of his son. In the confusion, Napoleon intervened, imprisoned the entire family, and placed his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne (1808). Madrid rebelled and was only retaken in December; the juntas relocated to the provinces and Cadiz.

Britain sent a small expeditionary force under Arthur Wellesley into Portugal (August 1808), which quickly defeated the French at Rolicca and Vimeiro. Wellesley's over-cautious superiors negotiated the Convention of Cintra, whereby Junot's army was repatriated. Wellington quit in disgust; the generals were replaced by Sir John Moore.

Napoleon personally led a second Iberian invasion (October 1808), shattering the unready armies of the juntas by November. The French learned of Moore's position at Salamanca and closed in. Moore began the winter retreat to Corunna, pursued by Soult and Ney, Napoleon having returned to Paris. Though Moore died, the British force mostly escaped.

Wellesley returned with a second army to Lisbon in April 1809, defeating Soult at Oporto by ferrying troops across the Douro. He advanced on Victor's army, defeating them in a defensive battle at Talavera (July). Wellesley, now Viscount Wellington, withdrew to Portugal and began the secret construction of the Lines of Torres Vedras, north of Lisbon.

Soult and Masséna led new French armies into the peninsula during 1810. Wellington inflicted further defeats on them, but gradually withdrew into Portugal and behind the Lines of Torres Vedras. Masséna halted at the fortifications (October) and suffered greatly during the winter, departing Portugal in March. Barely triumphing over Masséna at Fuentes de Oñoro (May), Wellington had to retreat to Portugal to preserve his troops.

During 1812, Wellington began his offensive, besieging and storming the Spanish border fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo (January) and Badajoz (April). Marmont retreated before Wellington, maneuvering around Salamanca, where the armies engaged on July 22 and the French withdrew. Wellington entered Madrid. A drawn-out siege of Burgos and French consolidation near Madrid necessitated a final withdrawal to Portugal.

Wellington advanced into Spain next year, outflanking the French. As French rule collapsed, Joseph and Marshal Jourdan marched north, but were intercepted at Vitoria on June 21 and routed. The discarded booty distracted the allied soldiery and the French escaped across the Pyrenees. Wellington began the invasion of France.





INTERLUDE: INDIA

When Warren Hastings became governor of Bengal in 1772, Britain's Indian territories were still the fiefs of the East India Company. Hamstrung by foes in his own councils, bound to a nonaggression policy, Hastings still had to intervene to preserve the peace and Company control. A coalition led by Hyder Ali almost overwhelmed the Carnatic region (the eastern coastal area of India) in 1780, but Hastings persuaded Hyder's allies to quit and Company troops defeated him in 1781 and 1782.

Hastings' successor from 1786, Lord Cornwallis, was forced to battle Hyder's son, Tipu Sultan, who sought revenge for his father's defeats. After the end of the bloody and prolonged Third Mysore War (1790-1792), Cornwallis annexed half of Tipu's kingdom.

During his governorship (1798-1805), Richard Wellesley (the brother of the Duke of Wellington) was ordered to defend India against French depredations. He started by attacking potential French allies first. The first blow fell on Mysore, where Tipu was known to be receiving French envoys. The British stormed his capital (Seringapatam) in May 1799 and Tipu died in the assault. The Mysore lands were granted to allied native rulers.

Wellesley peacefully annexed a number of Carnatic territories by buying off the new legal rulers with pensions. Force was used to seize half of Avadh in northern India when the previous ruler objected to this treatment of his heir.

Strife among the Maratha Confederacy compelled the peshwa (the de facto native ruler) to appeal for British support. This took the form of troops stationed at Pune, making Baji Rao II dependent on his British allies. The Sindhia and Bhonsle clans objected and initiated the Second Maratha War. The British won four major battles with the clans at Assaye (1803) and Argaon under Wellington and at Laswari and Delhi under Lake. The Holkar clan organized a Maratha resurgence, besieging the British forces in Delhi. Although the Holkars were finally defeated, this reverse provoked the recall to England of Wellesley.

The next governor-general, Lord Minto, consolidated British power and sought alliances with the Afghans, Persia, and the Punjab against French attacks after Napoleon's Tilsit treaty with Russia.



INTERLUDE: RUSSIA

Catherine II, having succeeded her murdered husband in 1762, presided over the expansion of Russia. New lands by the Black Sea, in the Crimea, and on the steppes were acquired in the Russian-Turkish wars of 1768-1774 and 1787-1792.

As a diversion from involvement in the Ottoman Empire's seething Balkan provinces, Catherine assented to the First Partition of Poland (1772-1773), gaining Belorussia from the arrangement. A later political renaissance in Poland alarmed Russia, Austria, and Prussia sufficiently for them to agree to the Second and Third Partitions in 1792 and 1795.

Catherine reorganized the empire into provinces according to strategic military requirements, with governors appointed to each district and narrow franchises supplying elected administrators. Attempts to persuade the nobility to modernize agricultural and other production on their estates worsened the conditions of the serfs, leading to revolts such as Pugachov's peasant and Cossack rebellion, which captured a number of cities during 1773-1774 before being suppressed.

Catherine died in 1796 and was succeeded by her son Paul I, who replaced the enlightened autocratic rule of his mother with a militaristic regime. He ignored the administrative structures created

by Catherine in favor of direct governance by himself and his coterie of supporters. He angered the provincial nobility by regulating the conditions of their serfs. Then he provoked the court through his attempts to protect Russian society from the influences of the French Revolution, which he detested, by restricting foreign travel and outlawing all cultural imports from abroad. A joint conspiracy of the court and the military murdered him in March 1801.

His son, Alexander I, made peace immediately with France, Britain and Austria. The War of the Third Coalition witnessed Russian defeat at Austerlitz and the Napoleonic advance through the Russian-ruled territories of former Poland to the borders of Russia. Persuaded to treat with Napoleon, the impressionable Alexander initially agreed to a number of joint ventures at Tilsit, but reneged once away from Napoleon's charisma.

Between Tilsit and Napoleon's invasion in 1812, Alexander contented himself with acquiring Finland and reforming the empire's internal administration. The repulse of the invasion and Russian involvement in Napoleon's defeat led Alexander to promote ideas of a "Holy Alliance" to defend international peace from 1815 onward.





INTERLUDE: PRUSSIA

The victories of Frederick the Great in the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years War raised Prussia to a "Great Power" in Europe, while participation in the First Partition of Poland added West Prussia to his dominions. Domestically, Frederick improved education, promoted learning, and extended religious toleration to all his subjects. However, Frederick's triumphs blinded Prussia to the need for further progress, to its detriment in the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars.

Although his nephew, Frederick William II (1786-1797), expanded Prussia at the expense of Poland in the later partitions, he was forced to accept France's annexation of German lands west of the Rhine during the War of the First Coalition. His son, Frederick William III, succeeded him in 1797 and pursued a policy of neutrality toward France. His anger at Napoleon's violation of that neutrality during 1805 brought Prussia into the Third Coalition, too late to help but in time to be overwhelmed by the French at Jena and Auerstädt.

Prussia was dismembered at Tilsit in 1807, losing most of its Polish acquisitions and the lands west of the Elbe, accepting French occupation, limiting its regular army to 42,000 troops, and paying a high war indemnity. Only Napoleon's desire to seem magnanimous to Alexander prevented the settlement from being much worse.

With Prussia temporarily eliminated as a continental power, Karl vom Stein, the chief minister, introduced reforms to renew the citizenry's allegiance to the kingdom. Serfdom was abolished, local and national administration were restructured, and the military was reconstructed as professional cadres supported by large reserves of trained "citizen-soldiers."

Napoleon compelled Stein's removal in 1808, but his successors, including the chancellor Karl von Hardenberg, proceeded undeterred with the reforms, tapping into the nationalism aroused in the German lands in reaction to Napoleonic control.

Although Prussia had been coerced into supporting Napoleon's Russian campaign, Napoleon's retreat from Moscow emboldened Prussian patriots against France and persuaded the hesitant Frederick William to heed the advice of his generals. Prussia joined the new alliance, sending 80,000 soldiers to fight in the German War of Liberation. In return, Prussia received new lands in Saxony, the Rhineland, and Pomerania at the Congress of Vienna.

The Ongoing War at Sea

Trafalgar was the last great sea battle of the Napoleonic Wars, but it was not the end of naval warfare. The conflict continued in the West Indies and the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. French privateers continued to exact a heavy toll on British shipping in all these arenas. Occasionally French national frigates and even whole squadrons escaped from their Atlantic ports to indulge in wide-ranging and successful commerce raiding cruises.

Nevertheless, the national fleet was less effective against the Royal Navy. Admiral Duckworth eliminated Admiral de Leissègues' squadron off Santo Domingo (1806); it had just completed reinforcing the garrison. Three ships of the line were captured, two were destroyed, and two frigates and a corvette escaped. The capture of Dutch Curaçao and Danish St. Croix by the British and the closure of New Orleans by the Americans to privateers (1807) limited the danger to merchantmen.

Admiral Popham and General Baird, leading a relatively small expedition of seven ships and 7,000 soldiers, captured the weakly defended Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope in January 1806. The easy success of the Battle of Blueberg inspired Popham to cross the South Atlantic and attack the Spanish Viceroyalty of La Plata. Finding Montevideo strongly held, Popham and General Beresford captured Buenos Aires in June. A Creole insurgency recovered Buenos Aires by August and imprisoned the British army. General Auchmuty's reinforcements made possible the seizure of Montevideo in February 1807, but an attempt to retake Buenos Aires through street-fighting ended in defeat (July). The British departed.

One of Napoleon's aims after Tilsit was to attain naval supremacy over the British by acquiring the fleets of Portugal, Denmark, and Sweden. Britain ordered a preemptive strike with Admiral Gambier's squadron descending on Copenhagen, bombarding the city, and seizing all 16 Danish ships of the line and numerous smaller vessels in September 1807. These ships were incorporated into the Royal Navy for the rest of the war. The Danish crews were not captured; instead they manned Denmark's remaining ships.

French Guiana became the next colonial target. A joint British and Portuguese expedition in December 1808 began the assault that culminated in January with the fall of Cayenne. Admiral Cochrane and General Beckwith overwhelmed Martinique in February. A year later, they repeated their success in Guadeloupe.

From 1803 to 1810, over a hundred British ships were captured by French frigates and privateers based in Mauritius and Réunion. A small British squadron from India took Réunion in July 1810. The British attack on Mauritius ended in disaster with the Battle of Grand Port. Two frigates ran aground and were blown up; two were captured. The French won several single-ship frigate actions before a British fleet ended the Mauritian threat in November.

The Retreat from Moscow

Napoleon's return to Paris in January 1809 halted the treacherous plotting of Fouché and Talleyrand, but did not forestall an Austrian declaration of war. April saw Napoleon engage the Austrians inconclusively in Bavaria, entering Vienna in mid-May. A pontoon bridge enabled his troops to cross the Danube, only to be checked by Archduke Charles at Aspern-Essling (May). Rather than pressing the attack, Charles regrouped at Wagram. Napoleon summoned reinforcements and pounced on Charles (July 5-6), winning with heavy casualties. The Austrians made peace, paid a huge indemnity, and surrendered much territory.

Desperate to found a dynasty and rebuffed by the Czar's sisters, Napoleon sought out Marie-Louise, daughter of Francis II, as a new wife. Assisted by the Austrian ambassador, Metternich, his suit was successful. Empress Josephine was divorced, and Napoleon married Marie-Louise in March 1810. Distracted by his new consort and his son Napoleon II (born 1811), the Emperor concentrated on pleasure and internal affairs, leaving the Peninsular War to his marshals.





INTERLUDE: THE INFANT REPUBLIC

By 1786, the unity of the American states, forged in war, was disintegrating. The independent states seemed set to coalesce into several republics with divergent interests, which could only lead to an all-American war. The Philadelphia Convention of 1787 proposed a national solution: a confederation of states united as a single nation and governed by an executive president and two legislative assemblies – the Senate and the House of Representatives. A year later, this “Virginia Plan” and its constitution had been accepted by all the states.

George Washington was the unanimous choice of the electoral college for the nation’s first president. His two terms in office saw regional and political differences emerge over the national and international crises of the period. His Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, created a national debt to pay off the war loans and bind the nation to the federal authority. The southern states opposed this, having cancelled their outstanding debts, and were only mollified by moving the proposed new capital to a more southerly location! The armed suppression of the Whiskey Rebellion against liquor taxes augured a dictatorship to some. Democratic-Republicans supported France after its revolution; Federalists supported Britain for the economy’s sake. The Jay Treaty of 1794 acknowledged British naval supremacy in return for land concessions and trading privileges.

John Adams became President in 1796. Despite French hostility at the Jay Treaty leading to Hugues’s encouragement of commerce raiding on American shipping, Adams prevented outright war against France. Although Thomas Jefferson was elected president with an anti-Federalist mandate in 1800, his two terms witnessed the expansion of the United States by the opportunistic Louisiana Purchase in 1803 and the preservation of the nation against separatist movements in New England and the West.

French and British regulations on maritime trade sorely tried Jefferson’s attempts to maintain American neutrality during the Napoleonic Wars. In retaliation, he imposed an embargo in 1807 on all exports to both belligerents in the hope of restoring free trade. The result was financial disaster in mercantile New England. James Madison, who was elected president in 1808, repealed the law in 1809.

Alexander’s war against Britain following Tilsit had been singularly ineffective and inactive; by 1811 his flouting of the Continental System was blatant. Against advice, Napoleon began preparing his Grand Army of over 600,000 troops from November. The vast army crossed the frontier in June 1812, taking Vilna and Vitebsk, while the Russians retreated to Smolensk. Napoleon refused the opportunity to make peace with Alexander, pressing on, despite extreme cavalry horse losses reducing the quality of reconnaissance. The Russians retreated further. Napoleon’s depleted army of over 100,000 eventually caught them at Borodino on September 7. Napoleon’s tactics were lackluster, refusing to commit the Imperial Guard to finish off the Russians. Thus, Borodino was inconclusive and the Russian army withdrew to safety. Napoleon entered unguarded Moscow on September 14.

While Napoleon waited for Alexander to send envoys to make peace, Moscow was razed, by accident or by Russian agents. The Czar waited while the Grand Army began to suffer from lack of shelter and supplies. On October 18, Napoleon decided to evacuate Moscow. Harried by Cossack cavalry who almost captured Napoleon, the Grand Army was prevented by Kutuzov’s Russians from retreating via the fertile Kaluga region. Instead Napoleon had to return via the Smolensk route, while the Russians captured supply depots at Vitebsk and Minsk. Kutuzov’s attempt to crush the French at the still unfrozen Beresina River was foiled by French engineers constructing pontoon bridges. The remnant hastened westward in the harsh November and December weather. Napoleon himself fled for Paris incognito on December 5.

Downfall of the Emperor

Napoleon’s return forced opponents of his regime underground, but it was clear to France that the Emperor was no longer invincible. While Napoleon ordered the raising of a

third of a million new troops, the Russian army moved west and former foes and neutrals started rearming. Sweden and Prussia declared war on France. Austria proclaimed neutrality.

Napoleon commenced the counteroffensive, winning modest hard-fought victories over the squabbling allies in Germany in April and May 1813. British subsidies encouraged a dozen minor states to declare against the French. Austria itself declared war in August. The Allies agreed to the Trachtenberg Plan where all Allied armies would refuse direct battle with Napoleon, withdrawing instead to allow the others to attack Napoleon’s flanks.

Although Napoleon captured Dresden, his marshals suffered reversals elsewhere, and he was unable to advance in force on Berlin (September). Abandoning Dresden on October 7, he tried to withdraw to Leipzig

but was cornered by Allied troops outside the city. The fighting lasted from October 16 to 19 with Allied reinforcements arriving each day. Napoleon retreated, yielding Germany east of the Rhine to the Allies, whose exhaustion prevented an immediate invasion of France. Meanwhile Wellington crossed the Pyrenees, defeating Soult at the river Nivelle and Bayonne. Holland rose against the French, expelling the imperial administration. Napoleon’s treaty restoring Ferdinand VII was contemptuously ignored by the Spanish juntas.

Metternich, desiring to prevent Russian dominance in Europe, offered Napoleon peace based on France’s “natural” frontiers (the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Rhine). Napoleon refused. As the Allies crossed the Rhine in 1813, Napoleon raised a new army of conscripts and won a series of swift victories over the divided Allied units as they converged on Paris. Again he was offered peace, this time based on the 1792 borders; again he refused.

The Allied monarchs (Alexander, Francis, and Frederick William), with Castlereagh acting for Britain, agreed that the war should be prosecuted until Napoleon’s overthrow. In a last victory, Napoleon swept the Allies out of Rheims in March.

Learning that Paris was undefended and unfortified, combined Prussian and Russian forces dashed for the capital. Napoleon’s generals demanded that the Emperor defend Paris rather than attack the Allied rear. Marmont surrendered Paris on March 31 after a day of bombardment, while Napoleon returned to Fontainebleau.

Talleyrand manipulated the Senate, reduced in numbers by the flight of many members, to call for the restoration of Louis XVIII. On April 4, Napoleon attempted to abdicate in favor of his son; two days later he abdicated unconditionally. Under the Treaty of Fontainebleau, Napoleon accepted exile as Emperor of Elba.





INTERLUDE: COLONIES IN REVOLT

Spain's reforms of its American colonies prior to the Revolutionary Wars threatened the Creole elite. The later alliance with France opened the colonies to Anglo-American trade and ideas. However, the overthrow of the Bourbons by Napoleon proved to be the final straw. Initially, juntas were organized to govern the various Spanish territories in 1808, but tensions between Creoles and Peninsular Spaniards encouraged and transformed the desire for autonomy into independence movements.

In Mexico, the popular revolt of 1810 led by Hidalgo, a radical priest, almost became a race war before being partially suppressed in 1811. Morelos, another priest, reorganized the remnants and the insurgency continued until his death in 1815.

In 1810, Creoles in Buenos Aires ousted the governor from the Viceroyalty of the Río de la Plata, creating an unstable government of triumvirates and directorates which eventually proclaimed independence in 1816. The former viceregal provinces resisted their rule, with the Estado Oriental (later Uruguay), Paraguay, and Upper Peru (later Bolivia) all repulsing military expeditions. Chilean independence was restored during 1817 after an invasion across the Andes.

The Viceroyalty of New Grenada (later Venezuela) declared independence in 1811. Treachery and an armistice restored Spanish rule in 1812. An invasion led by Simón Bolívar in 1813 vanquished the counter-revolution, only to be defeated by the irregular cowboy cavalry the year after. Bolívar escaped to exile, regrouped his forces, and defeated the royalist army near Bogotá in 1819. Proclaimed dictator of Gran Colombia, Bolívar freed Venezuela in 1821.

In Brazil, the transition to independence was peaceful. The flight of the Portuguese monarchy from Lisbon to Rio de Janeiro in 1808 immediately altered the actual status of Brazil. With 15,000 officials, courtiers, and hangers-on accompanying Prince John, Rio became the center of a new administration. The legalization of trade with all friendly nations increased Brazilian prosperity. The elevation of Brazil to equal status with Portugal in 1815 merely recognized an accomplished fact. Nevertheless, the *Cortes* in Portugal became highly antagonistic to the new Brazilian freedoms and restive at the monarchy's absence. John VI was compelled to return to Lisbon to preserve his rule in 1821; his son Pedro was forced to declare Brazil's independence in 1822 to maintain Braganças rule.

On April 20, 1814, Napoleon and 600 members of his elite Old Guard departed France for the Isle of Elba, arriving on May 4. On the previous day, Louis XVIII had entered Paris.

In France, the uncharismatic and obese Louis XVIII quickly disenchanted his subjects. The army was reduced in size, with thousands of officers immediately discharged. The remaining commands were given to Royalist courtiers. The Legion d'Honneur was lavishly distributed to the undeserving. The peasantry became anxious that the returning émigrés would reclaim lands and feudal rights lost in the Revolution.

Across Europe, the armies demobilized and the politicians met in Vienna under the chairmanship of Metternich to determine Europe's future. British attention turned to the American war.

THE WAR OF 1812

President Madison threatened both Britain and France with war if they failed to end their harassment of American ships bound to the other country. Napoleon, lacking sea power, acquiesced. Britain continued to enforce its Orders in Council and impress American sailors. Tension mounted further after the battle of Tippecanoe (1811) between Western settlers and Shawnee American Indians armed by British Canada. Southerners and Westerners added the conquest of Canada to the aims of free trade and sailors' rights. New England opposed the conflict.

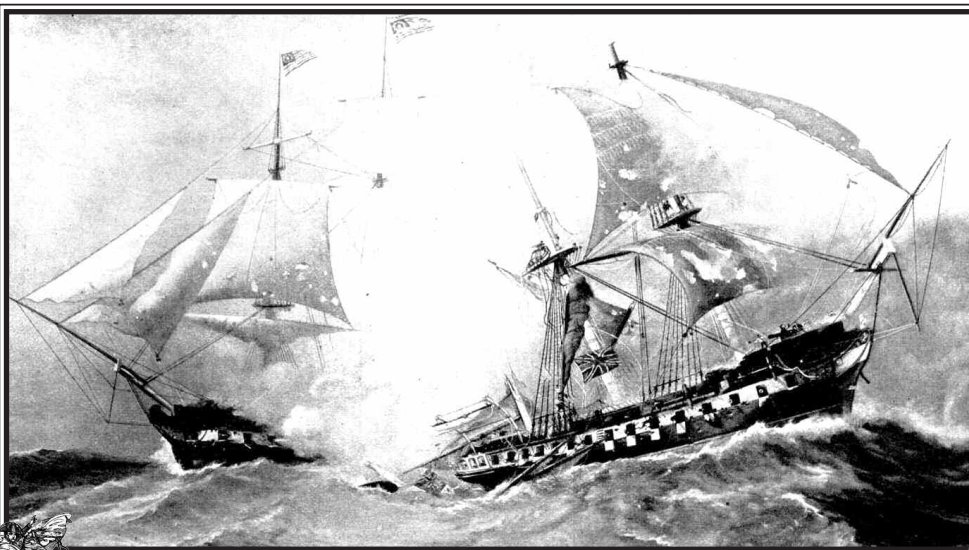
On May 11, 1812, the British prime minister, Spencer Perceval, was murdered by a lunatic. The disruption prevented the revocation of the Orders in Council from occurring in time for the news to reach America before Madison's declaration of war on June 18.

The Defense of Canada

Three attempts to invade Canada during 1812 failed miserably owing to weak generalship and the unreliability of the American militia. The British retaliated, capturing Fort Dearborn and Detroit. Generals Dearborn and Scott seized York (later Toronto) and Fort George, respectively, from the British.

At sea, American frigates won several single-ship actions against British frigates and privateers hunted British merchantmen even in the English Channel. The British blockaded the American coast.

Both sides strove for control of the Great Lakes. A British naval victory by Commodore Yeo on Lake Ontario in May 1813 was lost when General Prevost signaled an early recall. The American Captain Perry's victory on Lake Erie in



USS *United States* vs. HMS *Macedonian* (1812)



WHAT IF . . . A CLOSE RUN THING

In Wellington's words, Waterloo was "the nearest run thing you ever saw in your life."

If Ney had broken the British at Quatre Bras quickly, he could have reinforced Napoleon at Ligny, defeating the Prussians in detail. If he had sent d'Erlon's corps to Ligny, rather than not holding them at Quatre Bras, the Prussians would have been eliminated and Grouchy's corps would not have been pursuing the Prussians. Napoleon's superior numbers would have shattered Wellington's army at Waterloo.

If Napoleon had taken control of tactics at the start of Waterloo, rather permitting Ney to attack "in the old way" and be "driven off in the old way," then Napoleon's brilliance at flanking maneuvers would have undone Wellington's defensive tactics.

If the Château de Hougomont had fallen early or had been "masked," then Napoleon's reserves would have been intact for later in the battle. Similarly, if Ney had recognized the British withdrawal over the ridge as Wellington's standard reverse slopes defense against artillery rather than mistaking it for a general retreat, then Ney's cavalry would have been saved from annihilation.

If Grouchy had listened to his subordinate's suggestion that he should follow the "sound of the guns" to Waterloo, then his 33,000 troops could have stopped Blücher from reinforcing Wellington. Napoleon's would have been free to send the Guard immediately to break the British line, rather than reinforcing Lobau against the Prussian.

Wellington said of Waterloo: "By God! I don't think it would have done if I had not been there." Had Wellington accepted command of British forces in North America (to avoid assassins in Paris and break the stalemate), his ingenuity might have achieved a victory in the War of 1812, but lesser commanders would have been faced with Napoleon. A stray cannonball killing Wellington rather than his aides would have demoralized the British and ensured the defeat of his merely competent replacements. Had Blücher been killed at Ligny, the Prussians would not have hurried to Waterloo. The Napoleonic legend would have died at Waterloo if Wellington had not forbidden a British gunner from firing at Napoleon directly.

If Napoleon had won Waterloo, his next task would be to defeat the second British army returning from America, the Austrians, and the Russians in three further battles of annihilation before any of them reached Paris. Alexander would have retreated. Metternich would have made peace. Britain would have fought until war weariness ended the struggle or Napoleon's unpopularity at home produced a successful coup.

INTERLUDE: THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

The Ottoman Empire's incursion into the heart of Europe during the 17th century was avenged by Austria, Russia, and Venice during the 18th century in a series of intermittent wars. The Empire lost Hungary to Austria and Black Sea territories to Russia. It experienced rebellious stirrings among its non-Muslim European subjects.

Initial attempts to restore imperial power began with Sultan Abdülhamid I, who ruled from 1774 to 1789. He ordered the construction of a modern navy to replace the fleet annihilated by the Russians during the 1768-1774 war. His successor, Selim III, continued Abdülhamid's policy of forming special army units trained by Westerners, taking advantage of the European nations' desires to form alliances with Constantinople. However, janissary opposition limited the total number of soldiers who received modern instruction.

Trouble simmered throughout the Ottoman dominions as the powerful appropriated more of the sultan's authority. Meanwhile, traditional forces proved unable to defeat Napoleon's Egyptian invasion in 1798 and Selim was forced to rely on British and Russian assistance to expel the French. Agitators from France, Austria, and Russia incited uprisings in the Balkans, leading to the Serbian rebellion of Karageorge in 1804 against their janissary overlords. This quickly became a war of independence, with Serbia remaining largely autonomous until Russia hastily made peace with the Empire in 1812 and Serbia was overwhelmed.

Selim III was overthrown in a palace revolution in 1807 in reaction to his francophile policies. Initially imprisoned, he was strangled by the orders of his successor Mustafa IV to forestall a restoration by the reformers (1808). Mustafa's brother deposed him on the same day to become Sultan Mahmud II.

Even as the provinces ignored the Sultan's decrees, Selim's alliance with Napoleon provoked the Russian invasion of Moldavia and Wallachia in 1806 and the unsuccessful British assaults on the Dardanelles and Egypt in 1807. Napoleon's repudiation of his Ottoman allies in favor of cooperation with Russia left the Empire dangerously isolated.

The changing coalitions against Napoleon restored peace with Britain in 1809 and Russia in 1812, allowing the Sultan to concentrate on the internal problems of the Empire.



September allowed the Americans to recapture Detroit and defeat a joint British-American Indian army at the Thames in October. A British invasion via Lake Champlain was defeated by an American nautical victory and the precipitate retreat of Prevost.

The end of European conflict in 1814 allowed the British to open new fronts in Maine, the Chesapeake, and the Gulf coast. General Ross landed at Benedict, defeated an American army at Bladensburg, and then entered an undefended Washington on August 24. Washington was then burned in revenge for the firing of Toronto. (Madison barely escaped.)

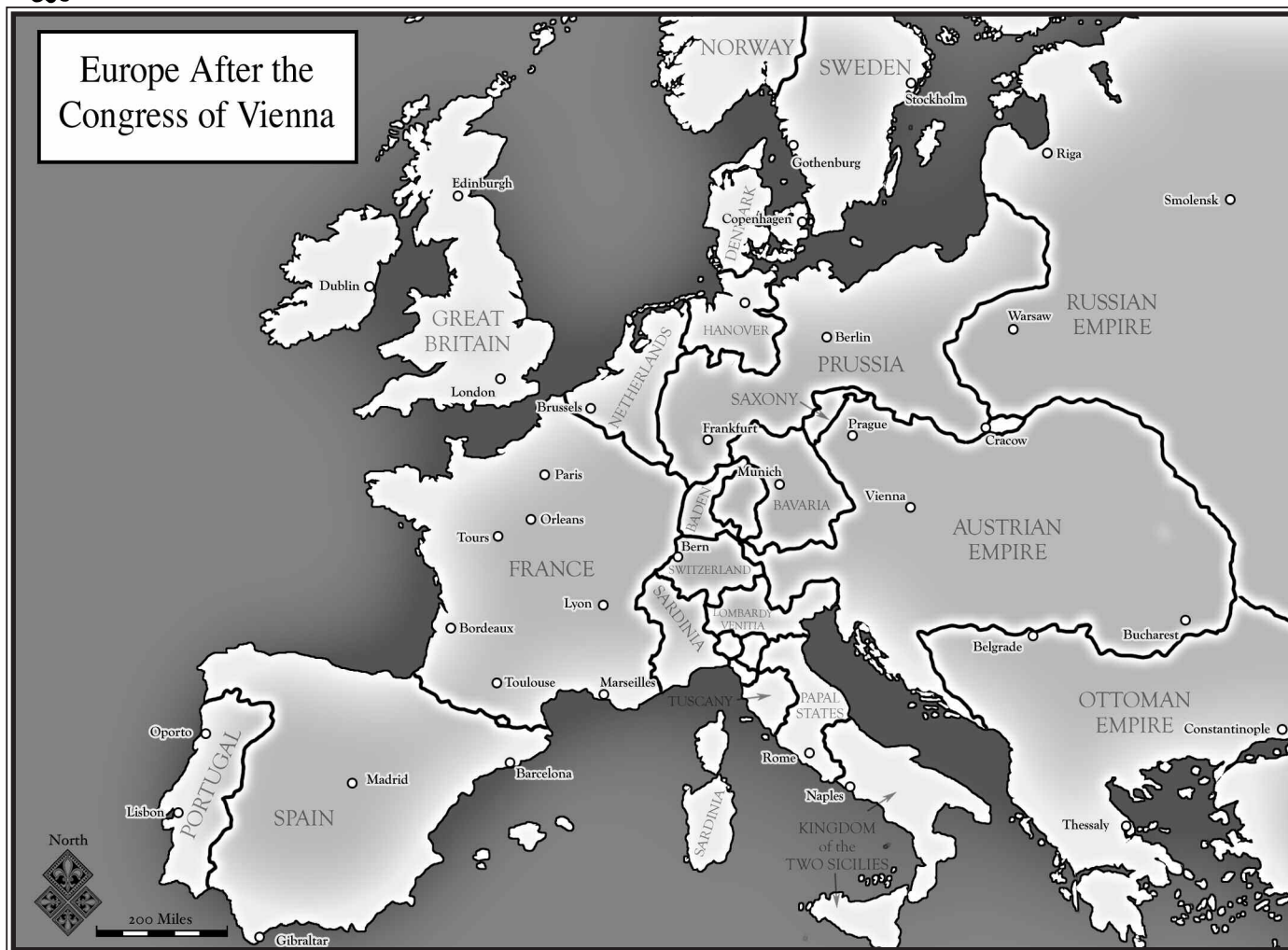
The Battle of New Orleans

America and Britain made peace at Ghent on December 24, 1814. However, the news did not reach America in time to prevent the Battle of New Orleans. A fleet under Admiral Cochrane had landed a British army in Louisiana during early December. American militiamen resisted the British advance on New Orleans while General Andrew Jackson fortified the city. On January 8, 1815, General Pakenham ordered a frontal assault on the American defenses. Thirty minutes and 3,000 casualties later, the British withdrew. The Americans felt they had won a second war of independence.





Europe After the Congress of Vienna



THE HUNDRED DAYS

Escape from Elba

On Elba, Napoleon explored the island and drew up various plans for its improvement. He was joined by his mother and his sister Pauline, and temporarily by his Polish mistress, Marie Waleska, and their illegitimate son, Alexandre. Empress Josephine died in Paris in May. Marie-Louise was created Duchess of Parma by her father and seduced by Count Neipperg on Metternich's orders. Despite Napoleon's pleas, Marie-Louise and his son refused to visit him.

Rumors reached Napoleon that there were plots to relocate him to St. Helena or the Azores and to withdraw his pension. Then a message from Maret, his former foreign minister, indicated that an uprising against the Bourbons was likely and that if Napoleon did not return, the Duc d'Orléans would be its leader.

Colonel Campbell, British Commissioner for Elba and Napoleon's jailer, sailed for Italy to visit his mistress on February 16, 1815. Ten days later, Napoleon embarked on the brig *Inconstant*, which was disguised as a British man-of-war. With 1,000 Old Guard, Polish lancers, and volunteers, Napoleon sailed for France in a flotilla of seven ships, evading Campbell in

HMS *Partridge* and deceiving the French brig *Zéphyr* as to his intentions. On March 1, Napoleon and his force landed near Cannes.

Royal troops rallied to his cause as Napoleon hastened to Paris. Sent to capture him, Marshal Ney changed sides. Louis XVIII and his court decamped and fled for Ghent on March 19. Napoleon entered Paris the next day and the Hundred Days began.

On March 7, the "Great Powers" meeting in Vienna learned that Napoleon was free and decreed a new coalition against him. The Allies placed Wellington in supreme command. Wellington left to lead a motley host of British, Dutch, Hanoverian, and Brunswicker troops in Belgium, reaching Brussels on April 4, where a Prussian army under Blücher joined them.

Waterloo

The public enthusiasm for Napoleon quickly evaporated as it became clear that he had nothing new to offer France. The army remained supportive. Of his marshals, only Ney, Soult, Mortier, Suchet, and Davout were willing to follow him. The others had defected, were ill, or were dead.

On June 12, Napoleon departed Paris to take command of the five corps making up the *Armée du Nord*. Soult became Chief of Staff, Grouchy received the Reserve Cavalry, and Ney was given two corps.





Wellington remained unsure whether Napoleon was aiming for Brussels via Charleroi or Mons, and merely ordered his troops to assemble on June 15. Later messengers informed him that the main French thrust was at Charleroi. The British concentrated at Nivelles and Quatre Bras.

On June 16, Napoleon engaged Blücher's Prussians at Ligny, mauling his army badly but not annihilating it. The British rearguard at Quatre Bras had delayed Ney from reinforcing Napoleon in time. The Prussians retreated to Wavre; the British withdrew to Mont St. Jean, near Waterloo.

The weather now prevented Napoleon from pursuing the British, as a thunderstorm turned the land into a muddy quagmire on June 17.

Wellington deployed his troops behind the crest of a ridge and garrisoned the farms of La Haye Sainte and Château de Hougomont to reinforce his line. Receiving a promise from Blücher that he would march in support, Wellington awaited the assault on June 18.

At 11 a.m., the French attacked, trying persistently and unsuccessfully to capture Hougomont, which was held by Coldstream and Scots Guards. The barrage of artillery on both sides continued all day. At 1 p.m., d'Erlon attacked the British center, but was stopped by Picton's counteroffensive. The British cavalry

WHAT IF . . . ESCAPE FROM ST. HELENA

When Napoleon fled to Rochefort, two French frigates were ready to take him to safety. If Napoleon had succeeded in running the British blockade, he could have found sanctuary in the United States so soon after the War of 1812. No European power would have attacked the United States to capture one prisoner. Secure in America, his ambitions might have led him into politics. Alternatively, he might have allied with Aaron Burr (see pp. WWi94-95), who had previously attempted to discuss plans to conquer Florida with Napoleon. Perhaps the two might resurrect Burr's scheme to invade Mexico; together they might create a new empire encompassing Louisiana, Mexico, Texas, California, and Oregon.

If Napoleon had met the Prince Regent, the two would have become friends owing to the former's charisma and the latter's affability. While Napoleon might have lived quietly, Irish rebels, unrepentant Scottish Jacobites, and admirers such as Byron could have persuaded him to interfere in the social unrest of England to further their own ends. The general public would have been charmed. With Imperial Guard veterans and British allies supporting Napoleon, the Hanoverian dynasty and the government would have fallen to a "whiff of grapeshot." Even if Napoleon was overthrown later, the distraction of recovering Ireland or Scotland might have cost England its overseas empire to other powers.

At St. Helena, Longwood was guarded by 125 sentries in the day and 75 at night. In total, 2,280 soldiers (including 500 officers) guarded the island and two brigs patrolled the offshore waters. Nevertheless Admiral Lord Cochrane, now serving with the Chilean navy, was ready to liberate him in 1820 to lead the South American rebellions against Spain. When his subordinate arrived in 1821, Napoleon was already dying. If Napoleon had taken more exercise, rather than refusing to walk accompanied by a British officer, perhaps his health would have been better.

Freed by Cochrane, Napoleon would have befriended the leaders of the revolution. With marshals such as Bolivar, O'Higgins, and San Martin to advise him of local conditions and finally an effective admiral in Cochrane, Spanish South America would fall, Mexico would succumb to Napoleonic veterans from Louisiana, and a new superstate would be created – perhaps a United States of South America, perhaps Napoleon's American Empire.



Napoleon defeated (1815)

shattered d'Erlon's corps but were themselves broken after galloping into range of fresh French cavalry. From 4 p.m. to 6 p.m., Ney led desperate unsupported cavalry charges against the British, whose infantry squares and artillery repulsed them. Ney then took la Haye and the British line seemed ready to break. Napoleon refused to reinforce Ney as the Prussians arrived and were slowed by Lobau. Wellington strengthened his line with his reserves. At 7 p.m., Napoleon hurled the Imperial Guard at the British. The sustained infantry fire drove the Guard back. The Prussians now entered the battlefield and Wellington ordered a full advance at 7:30 p.m. The French fragments retreated and Napoleon fled to Paris.

On June 22, Napoleon abdicated again and tried to escape France. On July 8, Louis XVIII was restored, ending the Hundred Days. Two days later, Napoleon surrendered at Rochefort to the British and was exiled to St. Helena.





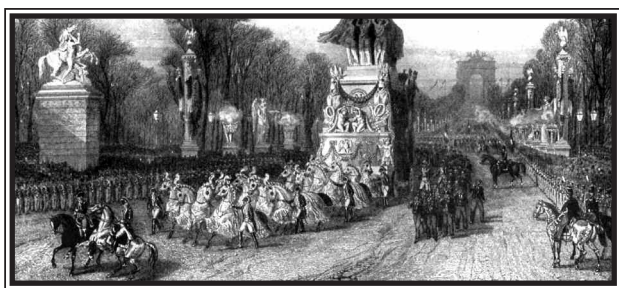
AFTERMATH

The New World Order

The Treaties of Paris

After secret negotiations prior to Napoleon's first abdication, Talleyrand persuaded the delegates of the soon-to-be victorious Austria, Britain, Prussia, and Russia that a Bourbon restoration was essential to the peace of Europe. By the first Treaty of Paris (May 1814), France was granted the borders of 1792, but compelled to cede Saint Lucia, Tobago, Malta, and Mauritius to Britain and recognize the independence of the Low Countries and the German, Swiss, and Italian states. The European states were required to send representatives to a peace congress to be held in Vienna.

Following Napoleon's second abdication, an amended Treaty of Paris (November 1815) stripped France of territories in Flanders, Alsace, and Savoy and required the payment of a 700,000,000 franc war indemnity. An army of occupation was to remain on French soil for up to five years at French expense. (In 1818, Wellington was instrumental in persuading the other powers to disband this army early.)



The Congress of Vienna

The Congress itself met in Vienna from September 1814 to June 1815. Every European state, both major and minor, sent representatives, but it was the big four, Austria, Britain, Prussia, and Russia, who dominated the proceedings. Talleyrand's manipulations added Bourbon France to the big four. Thus the five Great Powers redrew the map of Europe.

Russian and Prussian demands for Polish and Saxon territory, respectively, almost ended the congress in acrimony in December, as neither Austria nor Britain could stomach them. Talleyrand intervened on January 3, suggesting a "secret" defensive alliance of Austria, Bourbon France, and Britain to resist Russian and Prussian policies by force. Prussia and Russia suddenly compromised and continental war was averted.

Poland was dismantled again, with Galicia restored to Austria and Thorn granted to Prussia. The remainder of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw became a separate kingdom within the Russian empire. Lombardy, Tirol, Venice, and Dalmatia were ceded to Austria. Prussia gained large chunks of Saxony, Westphalia, and the Rhineland.

In the German lands of the vanished Holy Roman Empire, Baden, Bavaria, Hanover, and Württemberg expanded. A loose confederation under Austrian chairmanship was created to administer the patchwork of German states.

Elsewhere, Norway was ceded to Sweden, the Swiss confederation was restored, and a new United Kingdom of the Netherlands was formed, comprising Holland, Belgium, and Luxembourg. In Italy, Genoa was added to Piedmont; Modena, Parma, and Tuscany became Austrian satellites. The Papal States were restored to the Pope. After Murat's attempt at returning to the Napoleonic fold during the Hundred Days, Ferdinand I of Sicily regained Naples.

The British surrendered many of their colonial captures at Vienna to their original possessors, including Guadeloupe, Martinique, Réunion, and parts of French Guiana to France, and Java to Holland. However, Britain retained ownership of Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, as well as the territories ceded under the first treaty of Paris. The British Empire had doubled in size since 1792 and was ready for its role as a superpower during the later 19th century.

On June 9, 1815, the "Final Act" of the Congress of Vienna was signed in advance of Napoleon's defeat, instituting the new world order.

Death of an Emperor

Although Napoleon had appealed to the Prince Regent for refuge in England when he surrendered to the Royal Navy, the Allies were intent on ensuring that the deposed Emperor would be unable to threaten the peace of the world again. Louis XVIII was unwilling to execute Napoleon; the other Powers desired Britain to secure him. The British feared the mischief that Napoleon might achieve through the effect of his charisma on the Prince Regent and the compassion he might arouse in the populace at large. It was resolved to exile him to the remote British-held island of St. Helena, traveling as a prisoner on board HMS *Northumberland*.

From his arrival on St. Helena to his death, Napoleon lived in the colonial villa of Longwood in the company of four friends, three of whom were former generals, who had agreed to accompany him into exile. He spent his captivity looking out to sea, reading, writing his memoirs, learning English, and holding formal evening gatherings with his friends. Occasionally ships would call at St. Helena and the curious might gain an audience with the Emperor, if he so willed and Napoleon's jailer consented.

Admiral Cockburn was Napoleon's first jailer. He was initially unsympathetic, but Napoleon's patience and reluctance to make trouble softened him. Cockburn was replaced by the tactless Colonel Hudson Lowe, who scrupulously enforced his captivity, increased the guard on Longwood, and imposed new petty restrictions on Napoleon and his entourage. He also annoyed Napoleon by never looking him in the eye.

At the end of 1817, Napoleon first became ill with what was diagnosed as a stomach ulcer or cancer. (Some evidence suggests that Napoleon may have been suffering from arsenic poisoning, administered deliberately or emanating from the wallpaper.) From the beginning of 1821, the illness worsened swiftly. From March, he was confined to his bed.

On May 5, 1821, Napoleon died. His body was dressed in the uniform of the Chasseurs, placed in a series of coffins, and buried in the Rupert Valley of St. Helena on May 7.

Thus ended the Age of Napoleon.



CHAPTER TWO



Etienne Croix, formerly of the royal army, now a lieutenant in the National Guard, spoke to the sentries. "Citizen Deschamps and I have been instructed by the Committee for Public Safety to inspect the conditions of the prisoners. Here are our papers."

Marcel Roques, the senior guardsman, looked intently at the documents, making a pretense of reading them carefully. "Another inspection? Everyone seems concerned about their welfare today," he muttered.



"What do you mean?" said Deschamps sharply.

"These seem in order, citizen. Three officials came not twenty minutes ago to check on the former queen and the boy."

Croix and Deschamps exchanged glances. "Close the gates, and make sure no one leaves the Temple," ordered Croix. Deschamps was already running toward the Tower.

As adventurers seek fame and fortune, they may encounter some of the leading people of the era at court, on the field of battle, or elsewhere. This chapter fleshes out the lives and personalities of some of these, and provides **GURPS** stats for the most important.

GMs should consult **GURPS Who's Who 1** for details on Benjamin Franklin, Robert Clive, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, Aaron Burr Jr., Shaka Zulu, and Lord Byron. Le Comte de Saint-Germain, James Cook, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte, and Cheng Shih, as well as Napoleon and Nelson, are in **GURPS Who's Who 2**.

RULERS

Napoleon Bonaparte

Napoleon was born in Corsica on August 15, 1769, the second surviving son of Carlo Buonaparte. His father's influence and the family's noble lineage gained Napoleon entry to the French Collège d'Autun at age nine. Transferring to the military college of Brienne (for five years) and the Parisian military academy (1784), he was commissioned as an artillery second lieutenant (1785). He was variously in Corsica and France between 1786 and 1792, supporting Pasquale Paoli's return to the island (1789), being promoted to artillery first lieutenant (1791), becoming a Jacobin leader in Valence, and serving briefly as a lieutenant colonel of the Corsican national guard (1791). Promoted to captain, Napoleon joined the Jacobin faction in Corsica (1792) and was active in the eventual civil war against Paoli (1793). The Bonaparte family was forced to flee to France.

After returning to his regiment, Napoleon was active in the capture of Marseilles, and via influence, was appointed artillery commander for the Toulon siege and promoted to major (September) and adjutant-general (October). Though he was slightly injured, Napoleon's artillery maneuvering forced the British to evacuate Toulon. Rewarded with promotion to brigadier-general (December) and appointment as artillery commander for the Army of Italy, Napoleon was arrested on suspicion of extreme Jacobin sympathies (August 1794), released a month later, but denied restoration to his former command. Refusing a similar command against the Vendéan counter-revolutionaries, he was in Paris from March 1795, lobbying for a better posting and having an affair with Désirée Clary.

Barras, acting to defend the Convention against a royalist revolt, appointed Napoleon his second-in-command. Napoleon ordered the

NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE 312 1/2 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; **DX** 10 [0]; **IQ** 14 [45]; **HT** 10 [0].

Speed 5; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 6 (Fencing).

Advantages: Acute Taste and Smell +3 (Limitation: Smell Only, -50%) [3]; Ally Group (Imperial bodyguard, 15 or less) [60]; Charisma +3 [15]; Filthy Rich [50]; Military Rank 8 [40]; Multimillionaire 2 [50]; Reputation +2 (Savior of France, to the French People) [5]; Single-Minded [5]; Status 8* [10]; Strong Will +2 [8].

* Includes +3 from Military Rank and +3 from Filthy Rich and Multimillionaire.

Disadvantages: Fanaticism (Self and France, which are the same thing to him) [-15]; Megalomania [-10]; Reputation -2 (Power-mad despot, to the British people) [-5]; Self-Centered [-10]; Sense of Duty (Family) [-5]; Stubbornness [-5]; Workaholic [-5].

Quirks: Dislikes rich food; Fascinated by antiquity; Nepotistic; Prefers to dictate rather than write; Wants to found a dynasty. [-5]

Skills: Administration-17 [8]; Area Knowledge (Corsica)-15 [2]; Area Knowledge (Europe)-14 [1]; Area Knowledge (France)-15 [2]; Area Knowledge (Germany)-14 [1]; Bard-15* [1/2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-11** [1/2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-11** [1/2]; Carousing-9 [1]; Chemistry-11 [1/2]; Dancing-11 [4]; Detect Lies-12 [1]; Diplomacy-12 [1]; Fast-Talk-13 [1]; Fencing-9 [1]; Gambling-13 [1]; Gunner (Cannon)-14** [8]; History-13 [2]; Law-13 [2]; Leadership-19* [6]; Mathematics-11 [1/2]; Physics-11 [1/2]; Politics-15 [4]; Riding (Horse)-12 [8]; Savoir-Faire-14† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-16 [4]; Strategy (Land)-19 [14]; Tactics (Land)-15 [4].

* Includes +3 from Charisma.

** Includes +2 from IQ 14.

† Free from Status.

Languages: French-14 [2]; Italian (native)-14 [0]; Latin-12 [1/2].

artillery to fire on rebel formations, saving the republic with "a whiff of grapeshot" (October 15, 1795). Created commander of the Army of the Interior and advisor to the new Directory, Napoleon divided his time between courting the widow Joséphine de Beauharnais and influencing the Directors' plans for an invasion. Marrying Joséphine on March 9, 1796, he left to join the Army of Italy as commander-in-chief on March 11. Napoleon's life from this point to his death on May 5, 1821, is covered in Chapter 1.

Short (at 5'6½"), thin and broad-chested, Napoleon gained a pot-belly in middle age. His bluish-gray eyes were set in a pale sallow face with a clear complexion framed by fine, light chestnut-colored hair. Extremely ambitious for himself and his family, Napoleon was a scion of the Enlightenment rather than a revolutionary. Impatient, hot-tempered, and prone to verbally abusing subordinates, Napoleon was charismatic, industrious, and single-minded. His interest in the arts was partially aimed at self-aggrandizement, though he was fascinated by antiquity and science. Napoleon was very physically affectionate to his wives and mistresses.





Catherine the Great

Born on May 2, 1729, Sophie Friederike Auguste von Anhalt-Zerbst, the daughter of a minor Prussian prince, was betrothed at 14 to Grand Duke Peter, heir to the Russian throne. In 1744, she journeyed to Russia, became Grand Duchess Catherine, and married Peter the following year. Peter was adolescent in behavior, drunken, neurotic, and pro-Prussian in his sympathies, hating Russia. Their marriage was long unconsummated, Catherine eventually having three lovers. She gave birth to Paul, probably Peter's son, in September 1754. From 1758, she began planning to eliminate Peter.

Peter ascended the throne following Czarina Elisabeth's death on January 5, 1762. His withdrawal from the Seven Years' War, alliance with Prussia, and antagonizing of army and clergy emboldened Catherine's supporters to support her coup. Leading loyal regiments, she proclaimed herself empress in St Petersburg on July 8, 1762. Peter surrendered, abdicated, and was imprisoned. Catherine's lover, Grigory Orlov, arranged his murder eight days later. Catherine was crowned Empress in September.

By seizing church lands and converting the clergy into salaried officials, Catherine restored Russia's finances (1762). She also connived at the murder of "Infant Ivan," imprisoned for 24 years, the great-nephew of Peter the Great and rightful Czar (1764). That year, she installed her ex-lover Stanislas Poniatowski as Poland's ruler; her love for Orlov prevented Poniatowski from proposing marriage to Catherine. Though she was a reader of the *philosophes* and acclaimed by Voltaire, Catherine's internal reforms foundered. Pugachev's rebellion of 1773-1775 steeled her to impose serfdom (which she abhorred) more harshly on the peasants.



Empress Catherine II,
Europe from the Renaissance to Waterloo

CATHERINE THE GREAT 250 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; DX 12 [20]; IQ 12 [20]; HT 11 [10].

Speed 5.75; Move 5.

Dodge 5.

Advantages: Attractive [5]; Charisma +2 [10]; Filthy Rich [50]; Literacy [5]; Multimillionaire 2 [50]; Reputation +2 ("Enlightened" monarch, to upper European classes) [5]; Reputation +2 ("Mother of all the Russias," to the Russian people) [5]; Status 8* [25]; Strong Will +2 [8].

* Includes +3 from Filthy Rich and Multimillionaire.

Disadvantages: Compulsive Carousing (Need for lovers) [-5]; Reputation -2 (Nymphomaniac, to Russians and European aristocrats) [-5]; Selfish [-5]; Social Stigma (Second-Class Citizen) [-5].

Quirks: Dislikes being reminded of her age; Dislikes black (associating it with mourning); Dislikes medical practitioners, preferring to rely on natural healing; Fears disease, especially smallpox and the plague; Likes wearing male attire. [-5]

Skills: Administration-15 [8]; Area Knowledge (Russia)-13 [2]; Area Knowledge (Europe)-12 [1]; Bard-12* [1/2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-13** [1/2]; Carousing-11 [2]; Dancing-13 [4]; Diplomacy-12 [4]; History-9 [1/2]; Law-13 [6]; Leadership-14* [2]; Literature-12 [4]; Politics-15 [8]; Riding (Horse)-14 [8]; Savoir-Faire-14† [1]; Sex Appeal-11 [2]; Theology-11 [2]; Writing-12 [2].

* Includes +2 from Charisma.

** Includes +2 from IQ 12.

† Bought up from free level granted by Status.

Languages: English-10 [1/2]; French-12 [2]; German (native)-12 [0]; Russian-12 [2].

The ambitious Grigory Potemkin became her lover in 1774 and soon her minister. Catherine interceded in the Bavarian succession, preventing war between Prussia and Austria, and befriended Emperor Joseph II of Austria. Potemkin conquered the Crimea from the Turks during the 1780s. Nevertheless Catherine avoided an offensive and defensive pact with England in 1782, which would have given Russia Minorca – and Mediterranean sea power – because Russia's short-term interests were continental. Threatened by the French Revolution and agitation in Poland, she collaborated in the partitions of Poland (1792, 1795). On November 17, 1796, Catherine died from a stroke.

Of medium height and slender build (tending to plumpness in later life) and dark-haired, Catherine had a long face redeemed by blue eyes and a perfect mouth, making her pretty if not beautiful. Sensual and sexually demanding, Catherine was ambitious, energetic, charming, egotistical, and vain. Her reign witnessed the expansion of Russian territory and trade and the full entrance of Russia into European politics. Had she allied with England, her successors might have triumphed over the Turks, recovering Constantinople. Had she married Poniatowski, Poland's future would have been happier. Without Catherine, Russia would have fought pointless wars against its neighbors, drifting outside European concerns. Napoleon might have felt no need to march on Russia's reduced empire.





George III

The grandson of King George II of England, George III was born on June 4, 1738, becoming Prince of Wales in 1750 and King in 1760. He engineered the early retirement of William Pitt the Elder and the Duke of Newcastle from office, replacing them with his former teacher, the Earl of Bute, who arranged George's marriage to Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz in 1761. George's desire for peace led to the unfortunate Treaty of Paris. Bute resigned and England endured short-lived governments until 1770, when George was able to create an agreeable administration under Lord North. His contention that the American colonies should be obedient to King and Parliament encouraged the slide into war and prolonged the conflict after Saratoga. His popularity declined steadily, recovering only with his adroit replacement of Fox and North with Pitt the Younger in 1783. Contentment with Pitt allowed George to concentrate on his family and hobbies. From October 1788 to March 1789, he suffered his first major bout of insanity and was terrified thereafter of its return and the medical treatments for it. In 1801, George vetoed Pitt's proposals for Catholic emancipation, replacing him with Addington. Pitt's brief return in 1804-6 was conditional on his forswearing radical policies. The succeeding coalition ministry was ousted for suggesting that Catholics should be permitted to hold army and navy commissions. Losing his eyesight from 1805 onward, he succumbed to madness in October 1810, remaining insane, blind, and deaf to his death on January 29, 1820. His insanity was probably caused by hereditary porphyria.

Tall with auburn hair, George was trusting, good-natured, conscientious, and obstinate. Immoral conduct revolted him and he believed (initially) in ruling rather than merely reigning. A horror of obesity and a careful diet kept him slim. A patron of the arts, George was also interested in botany and agriculture. Devoutly Protestant, he vetoed Catholic Emancipation because he considered failing to defend Protestantism tantamount to conceding the moral right of the House of Stuart to rule England.

George IV

Nicknamed "Prinny," George IV was born on August 12, 1762, the eldest son of George III. Rebelling against his father's strict morality, George became a hard-drinking womanizer, keeping the company of dissolute Opposition politicians and earning royal rebukes. In 1785, he secretly and illegally married his mistress, Maria Fitzherbert, and considered eloping to America. He was thwarted from becoming Regent and replacing Pitt's government with his Whig cronies by George III's swift recovery in 1789. The plight of the French émigrés moved him deeply. His request to fight abroad was vetoed; instead he was appointed Colonel of a cavalry regiment.

He was legally married to Caroline of Brunswick in 1795; his only child (Charlotte) was born in 1796. Caroline and he soon separated. George's attempts afterward, and later in 1820, to divorce Caroline for lewd and adulterous behavior foundered on limited evidence

and minimal parliamentary support. His plans for Catholic Emancipation in Ireland with himself as Governor were ignored by Pitt in 1798. Frustrated politically and refused military promotion, George devoted himself to pleasure and patronage of the arts.

He became Regent on February 5, 1811, retaining the existing administration a year later, to the dismay of his former Whig allies, who were intent on making peace with Napoleon if they came to power. George's decision denied Napoleon the respite he required to reestablish and cement his continental hegemony. On January 29, 1820, George became King. His efforts to become involved in European politics during his reign were channeled into state visits to Ireland and Scotland. He died on June 26, 1820.

Tall, with a mass of unruly black hair, George became stout in middle age. An excellent mimic and competent linguist, the sly and extravagant youth mellowed to urbane civility in later years, but never lost his rakish reputation.

Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette

Louis XVI, grandson of Louis XV, was born on August 23, 1754. His wife, Marie Antoinette, youngest daughter of Empress Maria Theresa, was born on November 2, 1755. The two were married in 1770, and Louis became King of France on May 10, 1774. Both were executed during the French Revolution in 1793.

Louis' cold and brusque manner, marked by fits of pique, concealed a kind and generous nature. Physically extremely strong, the fair-haired and blue-eyed prince suffered from a lymphatic condition, which made him lethargic after indulging his voracious appetite. He was also impotent – this was cured by a later operation. Though his memory was excellent, he was weak-willed and indecisive, being easily dominated by court factions and Marie Antoinette. He readily retreated into his hobbies of hunting, lock-making, and masonry. Louis' unwillingness to shed the blood of his subjects and his later obsession with the example of England's Charles I prevented his allies from forcibly suppressing the Revolution.

As princess and queen, Marie Antoinette had the advantages of beauty, quick wits, and grace. She was also ill-educated, tactless, and unforgiving, making enemies of aristocrats and generals who could have saved the monarchy. In reaction to Louis' sexual dysfunction, she surrounded herself with a clique of favorites – her enemies accused her of immorality and promoting Austrian interests. Her reputation was unjustly destroyed by the Affair of the Diamond Necklace in 1786 (see p. 119). Her friends laid many plans to free Marie Antoinette, but these foundered on her unwillingness to be separated from her children and the vigilance of Revolutionary zealots.

Tipu Sultan

The son of Hyder Ali, adventurer and usurper of Mysore in India, Tipu was born on November 20, 1750. His education was initially left in the hands of Muslim zealots, who turned Tipu into a religious bigot. Later training with French officers





in Hyder's employ taught him European tactics but failed to instill open-mindedness. His first military command was against the Marathas in 1767. Thereafter he served Hyder as a loyal commander in battle against the Marathas (1776-1779) and the English (1780-1784), inflicting several defeats and a humiliating treaty on the latter. Following Hyder's death in 1782, Tipu styled himself sultan of Mysore. The 1780s saw Tipu gradually replace Hyder's generals with his own favorites (sometimes by execution) and order the forced conversion of his provincial subjects to Islam. His attack on Travancore triggered the Third Mysore War in 1789. Though Tipu withstood the English and their Indian allies until 1792, he lost half his kingdom. After his defeat, he concentrated on attempting to transform Mysore into an Islamic state, building its defenses, and seeking alliances with Muslims beyond India and with France (offering the Directory half the subcontinent). The English intercepted his diplomacy and preemptively attacked in 1799, with the future Wellington besieging and storming the Mysorean capital, Seringapatam, on May 4. Tipu attempted to flee but was killed in the confusion.

Vicious, cruel, and deceitful, Tipu ruled through fear. Always armed, Tipu was an excellent rider and competent general. His sobriquet, "Tiger of Mysore," stemmed from his love of tigers. He was fond of mechanical innovations, owning a life-size musical clockwork tiger gorging itself on a British soldier (the sounds were screams).

STATESMEN

Joseph Fouché

Fouché was born on May 21, 1758 near Nantes. His father was a sea captain and the family's wealth derived from West Indian plantations. Educated by the Oratorian order, Fouché was a lay science teacher until 1792. Already a Jacobin, Fouché was married and elected to the Convention, initially as a Girondin, serving in the committees. A sudden change of mind made him vote for Louis XVI's death, and he became a Montagnard. During 1793, Fouché was a *representative en mission*, ordering massacres in Lyon and engendering Robespierre's hostility. In 1794, he organized opposition to Robespierre, achieving his downfall. Reduced to detective work from 1795, Fouché was later appointed ambassador to Milan and The Hague (1797).

Created minister of police (1799), he judiciously suppressed royalists and Jacobins, supported the Brumaire coup by sealing Paris, and foiled numerous assassination attempts on Napoleon. Fouché's position was temporarily abolished in 1802, but his intelligence network remained intact and he was reinstated (1804). He was ennobled as count (1808) and Duc d'Otrante (1809) for swift action in thwarting Britain's Walcheren expedition. His intrigues with the British to forge a peace were discovered and he was dismissed. He was appointed Illyrian governor (1812) to hinder his continued plotting. Returning to France during the first restoration, he was ignored until Napoleon made him police minister in the Hundred Days. Fouché forestalled open revolt, forcing France's fate to be

decided at Waterloo, and demanded Napoleon's second abdication. Proscribed as a regicide by the royalist administration (1816), he died in exile on December 25, 1820.

Tall, thin, and pale-faced with a death's head visage, Fouché was cold, brutal, ill-dressed, and ill-washed. Calculating and far-sighted, he lusted for power. Unscrupulous, he never willingly lost a friend, cultivating allies among every faction. His reputation as a regicide haunted his later career.

Manuel de Godoy

Godoy was born on May 12, 1767 in Badajoz, Spain, into an impoverished noble family of ancient lineage. In 1784, he joined the royal bodyguard as a cadet and gained the confidence of Princess Maria Luisa, wife of the future Charles IV. Godoy was probably her lover (if briefly). Charles and Maria relied upon him to excess and rewarded him with military promotion (Colonel 1789, Field Marshal 1792), titles (such as Duke of Alcudia 1792), and the post of prime minister.

His diplomacy to save Louis XVI from execution failed; his negotiation of the Peace of Basel (1795) with France gained Spain a respite from war and earned him the title of "Prince of the Peace" as well as the jealousy of Prince Ferdinand. His later Treaty of San Ildefonso (1797) led to Spanish defeat by England in the Battle of St Vincent and his own dismissal (1798) – but without losing royal favor.

Reinstated in 1801, Godoy cooperated with Napoleon in the War of the Oranges (hoping for the Portuguese throne), and he profited (with Lucien Bonaparte) from Portugal's war indemnity. Opposition to Godoy swelled among the courtiers and the populace following renewed war against England and his abolition of bullfighting in 1805. Godoy's incautious communications with Napoleon over the Treaty of Fontainebleau to partition Portugal (and make him Prince of the Algarve) planted the seed for the Emperor's intervention. His failure to urge the monarchs to flee immediately gave French forces time to deploy and Ferdinand's supporters the opportunity to attack his house in Aranjuez (March 1808). Almost lynched, Godoy was imprisoned by Ferdinand while Charles abdicated. Unable to prevent Charles ceding Spain to Napoleon, Godoy joined Charles and Maria in exile until their deaths in 1819, remaining in Italy to 1832 and thereafter dwelling in obscure poverty in Paris to his death on October 4, 1851.

Godoy was tall, muscular, and agile in his prime, becoming overweight in middle age. Red-haired with brown eyes, a wide nose, large mouth, and fine teeth, he maintained a mistress and reputedly enjoyed the sexual favors of many aspiring noblewomen despite marrying a royal cousin. Elegant, indolent, fair-minded, intelligent, and ingratiating, Godoy was throughout devoted to Maria and Carlos.

Lord Frederick North

Born on April 13, 1732, North was the eldest son of Baron Guilford, later first Earl of Guilford. Educated at Eton and Oxford, he became Member of Parliament for Banbury in 1754. Preferring ministerial advancement, he turned down an Ambassadorship, becoming treasury minister (1759), paymaster general (1766), and chancellor (1767) under successive





administrations. Becoming prime minister in 1770, North remained in office despite frequent attempts to resign until 1782. George III's pleas and his own modest income (due to paltry allowances from his long-lived father) played a part in preventing his quitting the post. After a short stint in the Portland government (1783) and three years in opposition, he retired from Parliament due to imminent blindness, became Earl Guilford (in 1790), and died on August 5, 1792.

Plain-faced and slim in his youth, North grew corpulent and increasingly nearsighted with age. Witty, lethargic, and conservative, North combined excellent memory with a preoccupation with detail, a dislike of confrontation, and a reluctance to make unpleasant decisions. Always lacking in self-confidence, he became attracted and attached to power.



As Chancellor, his vote was decisive in retaining the tea duty in America in 1769; he later gave the East India Company an exemption in return for corporate reforms in 1773. In both cases, a different choice might have forestalled the American Revolution. Through astute diplomacy, North prevented war in 1770 with Spain and France over contested sovereignty of the Falklands. War might have been disastrous; alternatively it might have revitalized colonial loyalties through shared danger. His Quebec Bill of 1773 preserved Canada for Britain by reorganizing its government. Throughout the American conflict, North's inconsistent approach, lack of vision, and delegation of the war and diplomatic efforts to ill-informed colleagues earned him his infamy as "the prime minister who lost America."

William Pitt the Younger

The second son of William Pitt the Elder, Pitt was born on May 28, 1759. Educated at home in classics and mathematics, and trained in oratory by his father, he attended Pembroke Hall at Cambridge from age 14, graduating in 1776. He became a lawyer in 1780 and was elected to Parliament a year later. Appointed chancellor of the exchequer (1782), Pitt refused an opportunity to become prime minister after Shelburne's fall in 1783, preferring temporary opposition to an untenable government. A reform bill gained him support among liberal parliamentarians and George III was able to make him prime minister that December. Crown influence ensured a favorable general election result (1784), stabilizing his government.

New taxes, simplified and reduced customs duties, and careful budgeting served to improve finances, limit smuggling, and reduce the national debt. His East India Bill (1784) gave the government power over the East India Company. Reforms to replace corrupt boroughs with county and city constituencies and smooth commerce between England and Ireland were defeated by vested interests (1785). The Eden Treaty (1786) yielded trade benefits to England, while Pitt's diplomacy created the Triple Alliance of England, Prussia, and Holland (1788), gaining Britain continental allies who assisted in the peaceful resolution of the Nootka Sound dispute with Spain (1790).

He weathered George III's bout of madness (1788-1789) by careful adherence to precedent in creating a limited Regency Bill, giving the King time to recover and avoiding his own replacement by the Whigs. Preferring strict neutrality toward France and peace from 1789 onward, he reorganized Canadian administration to forestall rebellion by the French settlers (1791). Provoked into war (1793), Pitt waged a campaign to defend and extend British colonial and commercial interests, rather than supporting a Bourbon restoration. To staunch the influence of radical societies and spies, he invoked repressive legislation; to finance the war, he initiated income taxes (1798). Crown and cabinet opposition prevented an advantageous peace with Bonaparte (1799).

Pitt was convinced that union and Catholic emancipation were essential to safeguarding Ireland. Union was accomplished by buying out the Irish Parliament; emancipation was vetoed by George III. Pitt resigned on February 3, 1801. George accused him later of driving him insane. Frequently ill during 1802, Pitt supported Addington's ministry until 1804, criticizing its weaknesses in finance and national defense. Reappointed prime minister (May 1804), Pitt engineered the Third Coalition, but naval triumphs were countered by Napoleonic land victories. His health failed rapidly (1805), and he died on January 23, 1806.

Tall and lanky, Pitt had a full face with an aquiline nose, a high forehead, and neat hair. Restrained and aloof in public, he was witty and lively to intimates and relatives. Celibate and dutiful in religion, he was insensitive to music and romanticism and careless about personal finances. A superb orator, his style included devastating sarcasm. Pitt was bedeviled with a weak constitution, gout, and addiction to port; disturbances to regular daily routines caused him headaches and sickness and gradually reduced his working day.





WILLIAM PITT THE YOUNGER 196 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; **DX** 10 [0]; **IQ** 13 [30]; **HT** 9 [-10].

Speed 4.75; Move 4.

Dodge 4.

Advantages: Administrative Rank 7 (prime minister) [35]; Charisma +2 [10]; High Pain Threshold [10]; Literacy [5]; Patron (George III) [25]; Status 3* [10]; Strong Will +2 [8]; Very Wealthy [30]; Voice [10].

* Includes +1 from Very Wealthy.

Disadvantages: Alcoholism [-15]; Migraine (6 or less) [-5]; Sense of Duty (To King and country) [-10]; Shyness (Limitation: Only with women, -20%) [-4]; Workaholic [-5].

Quirks: Dislike of laziness in others; Insensitive to music and romanticism in the arts; Neglects his own financial affairs; Proud and arrogant; Suffers from occasional depression. [-5]

Skills: Accounting-16 [10]; Administration-17 [10]; Bard-18*† [8]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-11** [1/2]; Carousing-10 [4]; Detect Lies-14 [6]; Diplomacy-14† [2]; Fast-Talk-14 [4]; Gambling-11 [1/2]; History-13 [4]; Law-13 [4]; Leadership-15* [2]; Literature-13 [4]; Mathematics-13 [4]; Politics-17† [6]; Riding (Horse)-10 [2]; Savoir-Faire-15†‡ [0]; Strategy (Land)-11 [1]; Theology-11 [1].

* Includes +2 from Charisma.

** Includes +2 from IQ 13.

† Includes +2 from Voice.

‡ Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-15 [2]; French-11 [1/2]; Greek-11 [1/2]; Latin-12 [1].

Though Pitt's reliance on colonial campaigns and continental allies lengthened the war, his policies weathered the revolutionary storm and set in motion the path to Empire. He reshaped the prime ministry office into an office coordinating the various departments. With greater support from king and parliamentarians, Pitt would have achieved parliamentary reform, the abolition of the slave trade, and ensured Catholic Ireland's loyalty to the Empire. Without Pitt, revolution or invasion would have been England's fate.

Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord

Talleyrand was born on February 2, 1754. His childhood clubfoot prevented an army career; his family compelled him into the church to disinherit him from his title. After ten years' study, he was ordained in 1779 and made an abbot, spending most of his time in Parisian salons and as liaison between church and state. He was consecrated bishop of Autun in 1788 and elected clerical deputy to the Estates General with a reform agenda. He persuaded the Comte d'Artois that force or emigration were the only options after the storming of the Bastille. Talleyrand urged church land nationalization, adopted the Civil Constitution, left holy orders, and was excommunicated (1791). Peace missions to England failed due to his notoriety (1792). Emigrating to

England and later America (1793-1796), he returned to France, becoming foreign minister in 1797, resigning after U.S. envoys exposed his corruption two years later.

Talleyrand's quiet manipulation of the Brumaire coup secured his reinstatement, enabling him to pursue France's best interests through a European peace and the papal concordat. He married his mistress to forestall Napoleon's creating him cardinal. Unable to prevent Napoleon from ending the Peace of Amiens, Talleyrand advised Austrian alliance after Austerlitz to check Prussia and the creation of a strong Poland to contain Russia. Talleyrand foresaw disaster in Napoleon's Spanish intervention and thereafter worked against Napoleon, intriguing with Czar Alexander and Fouché. He was dismissed in 1810.

He convinced Alexander to restore Louis XVIII rather than support a Napoleonic regency in 1814. At Vienna, Talleyrand ensured Bourbon France's re-entry to great power status. Briefly prime minister, he was swiftly ousted by the ultraroyalists and lived in retirement until 1829. He funded antigovernment newspapers and persuaded Louis-Philippe to depose Charles X in 1830. As French ambassador to Britain, he negotiated the creation of Belgium. Finally reconciled to the church, he died on May 17, 1838.

Of middle height with a haughty face and obvious limp, Talleyrand was worldly, ambitious, cunning, suave, and courteous. Naturally lazy and comfort-loving, he had total self-control.



Talleyrand,
Europe From the Renaissance to Waterloo





George Washington

Washington was born on February 22, 1732, the son of Virginian planters. He gained an education in practical surveying and farming. From 1748 to 1751, Washington was employed as a land surveyor, survived smallpox (1752), and inherited the Mount Vernon plantation in 1753, whereupon he focused on improving his farm and outdoor pursuits.

A desire for military glory led him to seek a colonial commission in 1753. He nearly died while returning from his first mission – delivering an ultimatum to the French to cease encroachments in the Ohio Valley. Appointed lieutenant colonel and colonel (1754), Washington fought the first engagements of the French and Indian War. Resigning his commission owing to inequities in status between regular and colonial commissions, he was appointed aide-de-camp to General Braddock. His advice contributed to British defeat at Fort Duquesne, though his heroism prevented disaster. Appointed commander-in-chief of Virginia's militias, he survived dysentery and managed to hold the border with his inexperienced troops. Failure to gain a regular commission embittered him and he resigned (1759), married, and returned to Mount Vernon and a career in the Virginian legislature.

By the early 1770s, his political views were hostile to British ministerial policies, and he was a delegate to the first and second Continental Congresses. His military reputation, common sense, and some complex maneuvering resulted in his appointment as American commander-in-chief (1775). He immediately organized the disparate militias into an army and prosecuted the Boston siege. His military blunders led to a precipitated retreat from New York (1776). Washington's bold winter assault on Trenton and Princeton restored morale. He was fortunate to escape from his defeat at Brandywine Creek (1777), but lost Philadelphia. His endurance and leadership were tested to their limits in the Valley Forge redoubt; he also thwarted a cabal to relieve him of command. He was denied a comprehensive victory over the British at Monmouth (1778) due to the mistakes of the American General Lee. Careful collaboration with the French gained Washington his triumph at Yorktown. Thereafter Washington campaigned for the prompt payment of his army and rejected a call to crown himself king. He retired from active service in 1783.

Though initially hesitant, Washington supported federalist solutions to strengthen the union of the independent colonies at the Constitutional Convention and was elected President in 1789. His administration balanced pro- and antifederalist factions, established a national bank, and sought to unite the nation. Re-elected in 1792, he pursued strict neutrality in foreign policy and suppressed the Whisky Rebellion (1794). Failing health and increasing factionalism led him to refuse a third term. He retired, dying on December 14, 1799.

Washington was tall (6'2"), strong, and muscular with graying, receding hair. He was slightly scarred from smallpox; his false teeth gave the impression of a permanently swollen mouth. Washington mistrusted his own abilities and often deferred to others' opinions. However, he learned from his inexperience, becoming America's best general and leader. Without him, the war might have been lost; certainly America would have fragmented into disunited states afterward.

GEORGE WASHINGTON 299 POINTS

ST 13 [30]; **DX** 12 [20]; **IQ** 12; [20] **HT** 12 [20].

Speed 6; Move 6.

Dodge 7; Parry 10 (Fencing).

Advantages: Charisma +2 [10]; Claim to Hospitality (Freemasons) [5]; Claim to Hospitality (U.S. government) [5]; Combat Reflexes [10]; Fit [5]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 8 (Commander-in-chief of American forces) [40]; Reputation +3 (Father of his country, to all Americans) [7]; Status 4* [0]; Very Wealthy [30].

* Includes +3 from Military Rank and +1 from Very Wealthy.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Compulsive Generosity (With his own and other people's money) [-5]; Duty (To the American army) [-15]; Incompetence (Musical Instrument) [-1]; Incompetence (Singing) [-1]; Sense of Duty (To the American people) [-10].

Quirks: Dislikes flattery (both giving and receiving) and flatterers; Hates lateness in others; Loathes disputation and caviling over the meaning of words; Prefers the ministrations of doctors to herbal remedies; Uses Masonic formulations (Ruler of the Universe, the Supreme Being, etc.) when speaking of God. [-5]

Skills: Accounting-10 [1]; Administration-15 [8]; Agronomy-14 [4]; Animal Handling-11 [2]; Area Knowledge (North America)-14 [4]; Bard-13* [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-15** [2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-13** [1/2]; Carousing-10 [1/2]; Chemistry-9 [1/2]; Dancing-12 [2]; Diplomacy-13 [6]; Fencing-14 [8]; Fishing-11 [1/2]; Gambling-12 [2]; Gardening-11 [1/2]; Hiking-10 [1/2]; History-10 [1]; Law-12 [4]; Leadership-18 [10]; Mathematics-15 [10]; Physics-9 [1/2]; Politics-14 [6]; Riding (Horse)-15 [16]; Savoir-Faire-12† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-13 [2]; Stealth-10 [1/2]; Strategy (Land)-15 [10]; Surveying-15 [8]; Survival (Woodlands)-10 [1/2]; Tactics (Land)-15 [10]; Throwing-14 [16].

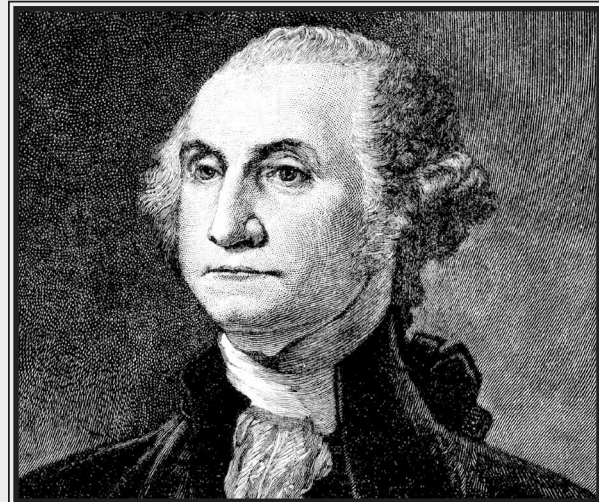
* Includes +2 from Charisma.

** Includes +2 from IQ 12.

† Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-12 [0]; French-10 [1/2]; Greek-10 [1/2]; Latin-10 [1/2].

Customization Notes: The above represents Washington at the close of the American War of Independence. Strategy and Tactics should be lowered for earlier periods and Status should be 2 prior to the Revolution.



George Washington, Collier,
Life of George Washington (ca. 1780)



ADMIRALS

Thomas Cochrane

Lord Thomas Cochrane was born on December 14, 1775, heir to the Scottish Earldom of Dundonald. His father's attempts to restore the family wealth through scientific invention backfired, so Cochrane entered the Royal Navy as a midshipman in 1793. Commissioned lieutenant (1796), Cochrane preserved a captured French 74, earning him promotion as commander of HMS *Speedy*, a 14-gun sloop (1800). A series of successful single-ship actions against enemy merchantmen, privateers, and frigates ended with *Speedy's* capture by three French ships of the line (1801). Temporarily a prisoner of war, Cochrane was exchanged and promoted to captain.

From 1805 to 1810, Cochrane served as a frigate captain and as a Member of Parliament, attacking the French and naval corruption with equal vigor. He commanded a fireship attack on a French fleet anchored at the Basque Roads (1809), but Admiral Gambier declined to follow up his success. Nevertheless, Cochrane was knighted. Gambier was court-martialed, but acquitted.

Denied naval employment by Admiralty enemies, Cochrane concentrated on poison gas weapons and plans to destroy the French fleet by close bombardment. He secretly married in 1812. He was accused of assisting his uncle's stock exchange fraud in February 1814, found guilty on flimsy evidence, imprisoned, stripped of his knighthood, and dismissed from the Navy.

Released in 1815, Cochrane went to Chile to lead their navy against Spain in 1818 with plans to free Napoleon to lead the armies of independence. His successes against the strongholds of Valdivia and Callao destroyed Spanish naval power in the region (1820-1821). Disagreements over owed pay led to his move to the Brazilian Navy (1823-1825). Cochrane was instrumental in preventing the Portuguese from reinforcing their garrisons and capturing several provinces. His attempts to further Greek independence foundered on factional infighting.

Returning home, he became Earl of Dundonald in 1831. A year later, he was reinstated in the Royal Navy as rear admiral, being promoted to vice admiral in 1841, and admiral of the fleet in 1855 (too senior for operational command in the Crimean War, forestalling the use of his secret weapons). Cochrane died on October 31, 1860.

Tall (6'2") and broad, the red-haired Cochrane was fearless, honest, generous, outspoken, and amiable. Easily offended, he made many enemies. A flying squadron under Cochrane, the supreme frigate captain, could have shortened the Peninsular War by decisive attacks on French ports and morale; the American navy would have been annihilated in the War of 1812.

THOMAS COCHRANE

206 POINTS

ST 12 [20]; DX 11 [10]; IQ 14 [45]; HT 10 [0].

Speed 5.25; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 6 (Broadsword).

Advantages: Ally Group (Crew, 9 or less) [40]; Composed [5]; Fit [5]; Heir [5]; Military Rank 6 (Post-Captain) [30]; Reputation +1 (Among French and Spanish opposite numbers, as Le Loup des Mers and El Diablo) [1]; Reputation +1 (Among British public, as skilled tactician) [1]; Status 5* [10]; Wealthy [10].

* Includes +2 from Military Rank and +1 from Wealthy.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Duty [-15]; Reputation -1 (Among the Admiralty, as a troublemaker) [-1]; Sense of Duty (To his crew) [-5].

Quirks: Concerned about money; Hot-headed nature easily annoys people; Impatient with authority; Supports Radical politics; Technophile who is willing to experiment with novel ideas for weaponry. [-5]

Skills: Administration-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Azores and Spanish Coast)-14 [1]; Area Knowledge (Mediterranean)-14 [1]; Area Knowledge (North Atlantic)-14 [1]; Area Knowledge (North Sea)-14 [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-14* [2]; Boating-11 [2]; Broadsword-12 [4]; Chemistry-12 [1]; Climbing-10 [1]; Demolition-13 [1]; Engineer (Weapons)-12 [1]; Gunner (Naval Cannon)-12* [1]; Leadership-15 [4]; Mathematics-12 [1]; Meteorology-14 [2]; Navigation-13 [2]; Philosophy-11 [1/2]; Sailor-14 [2]; Savoir-Faire-14** [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-14 [1]; Seamanship-16 [4]; Shipbuilding-12 [1]; Shiphandling-15 [6]; Shortsword-9 [1/2]; Strategy (Naval)-14 [4]; Tactics (Naval)-18 [12].

* Includes +2 from IQ 14.

** Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-14 [0]; French-13 [1]; Latin-12 [1/2]; Spanish-12 [1/2].

Customization Notes: The above represents Cochrane in 1803. Later, his Reputation and his Tactics (Naval), Area Knowledge (Azores and Spanish Coast), Shiphandling, and Spanish skills should be higher. Politics and Tactics (Guerrilla) should be added. He will forfeit the Heir advantage after his marriage in 1812 as his uncle disowns him.

Stephen Decatur

Born on January 5, 1779, into a seafaring family, Stephen Decatur was raised in Philadelphia. He was educated at Pennsylvania University, but, unsuited to a religious vocation, left after a year to become a clerk. He entered the United States Navy as a midshipman (1798), aboard the USS *United States* and served on the USS *Norfolk* during the Quasi-War with France (1798-1800). He was promoted to lieutenant in 1799.

In the Tripolitan War (1801-1805), Decatur fought against the Barbary pirates of Tripoli, receiving the command of the brig USS *Argus* in September 1802. He led an expedition into Tripoli harbor, destroying the captured USS *Philadelphia* with no casualties, and was promoted to captain of the USS *Enterprise*. Decatur later participated in gunboat actions against Tripoli's shipping and harbor.

He married Susan Wheeler in 1806, after a brief courtship. From 1809 to 1812, Decatur commanded the "Southern Squadron" and USS *United States*, protecting American shipping from British and French warships and conducting anti-slavery patrols.

Initially hunting British convoys during the War of 1812, Decatur advised that the American navy be dispersed to raid British commerce and naval patrols singly or in pairs. The strategy





STEPHEN DECATUR

211 POINTS

ST 11 [10]; **DX** 12 [20]; **IQ** 12 [20]; **HT** 10 [0].

Speed 5.5; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 7.

Advantages: Charisma +2 [10]; Disease-Resistant [5]; Fit [5]; Handsome [15]; Language Talent +1 [2]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 6 [30]; Reputation +1 (Extraordinarily brave sailor, to all sailors) [2]; Status 3* [5]; Voice [10].

* Includes +2 from Military Rank.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Duty (To the U.S. Navy) [-15]; Sense of Duty (To the United States) [-10].

Quirks: Concerned for well-being of his sailors; Finds extravagance distasteful; Habitually speaks in a low voice; Intolerant of corruption, dishonesty, and anyone without honor; Well-mannered, especially polite and deferential to all women. [-5]

Skills: Administration-12 [2]; Area Knowledge (Atlantic Seaboard)-14 [4]; Area Knowledge (Mediterranean)-14 [4]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-14* [1]; Boating-11 [1]; Broadsword-12 [2]; Climbing-12 [2]; Diplomacy-14** [4]; Fast-Talk-14 [6]; Fencing-10 [1/2]; Gunner (Naval Cannon)-14* [2]; History-9 [1/2]; Intimidation-14 [6]; Leadership-17† [8]; Literature-9 [1/2]; Mathematics-12 [4]; Meteorology-14 [6]; Navigation-14 [8]; Sailor-14 [6]; Savoir-Faire-14**‡ [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-12 [1]; Seamanship-15 [6]; Shiphhandling-15 [10]; Singing-12** [1]; Strategy (Naval)-13 [6]; Swimming-14 [4]; Tactics (Naval)-16 [12]; Theology-10 [1]; Zoology-9 [1/2].

* Includes +2 from IQ 12.

** Includes +2 from Voice.

† Includes +2 from Charisma.

‡ Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-13 [0]; French-12 [1]; Italian-12 [1]; Spanish-12 [1].

succeeded, with Decatur himself capturing HMS *Macedonian* in a frigate duel (October 1812). Blockaded in New London throughout 1813, he was appointed commodore of the New York squadron (April 1814), but ambitious plans for raids against British commerce in the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, and the Indian Ocean were forestalled by close blockade. Decatur's attempt in January 1815 to escape led to his flagship, the USS *President*, being overwhelmed and captured by a British squadron.

From March to October 1815, he commanded a squadron against the Barbary Pirates of Algiers, defeating them and overawing the corsairs of Tunis and Tripoli. In November, Decatur was appointed a Commissioner of the Navy Board. A longstanding dispute with the former Commodore Barron, who believed that Decatur was responsible for Barron's continued exclusion from naval service, led to a duel in which Decatur was mortally wounded. Decatur died on March 22, 1820.

Of above-average height and broad-shouldered, Decatur had brown eyes, brown curly hair, and a swarthy complexion that gave him a handsome, dashing appearance, enhanced by his chivalrous manners. Brave, honorable, and extremely patriotic, Decatur inspired the young American navy by his deeds. His strategy of dispersal, rather than concentrating the navy into a single fleet (and hence target), ensured that the American navy was an effective threat to Britain during the War of 1812. His successes against the corsairs eliminated their threat to American commerce.

Horatio Nelson

Born on December 29, 1758 in Norfolk, England, Nelson joined the Royal Navy at age 12, learning seamanship in the West Indies, on an unsuccessful Arctic expedition, and in the East Indies (where he caught malaria). Promoted to lieutenant in 1777, he fought in the West Indies during the American War of Independence. Promoted to post-captain in 1779, he participated in raids against Spain's Nicaraguan settlements.

From 1784 to 1787, his enforcement of the trade laws and friendship with Prince William annoyed the Caribbean merchants and Admiralty alike. He married Fanny Nisbet in 1787 and returned to England on half-pay. Recalled to active duty in 1793, Nelson served in the Mediterranean, losing his right eye during a shore action in Corsica. Appointed commodore in 1797, Nelson transformed potential disaster into victory against the Spanish off Cape St. Vincent by preventing the Spanish squadrons from combining until the British fleet (under Jervis) was in position. Knighted and promoted to rear admiral, he lost his right arm in an assault on Tenerife.

In 1799, Nelson pursued Napoleon's Egyptian expedition, virtually annihilating a French fleet at the Nile. His love affair with Lady Emma Hamilton, wife of the English ambassador to Naples, led him to disobey Admiralty orders to reinforce Minorca and to his subsequent recall to England. Returning overland, he arrived in 1800 and was estranged from Fanny.

In 1801, Nelson (now vice admiral) forced Denmark to withdraw from the League of Armed Neutrality by destroying their fleet at Copenhagen. He planned (but did not personally lead) an attack on the French base at Boulogne; the operation was a bloody failure. He lived with Emma, her dying husband Sir Gilbert Hamilton, and Horatia (his daughter by Emma) during the Peace of Amiens.

Nelson received command of the Mediterranean fleet in 1803 with orders to prevent the conjunction of the French and, later, Spanish squadrons. In 1805, Nelson chased Villeneuve's squadron from Toulon to the West Indies and back to Cadiz. The combined Franco-Spanish fleet attempted to break his blockade, leading to the decisive battle of Trafalgar (October 21, 1805), during which Nelson was killed by a French sniper.

Short and small-boned, with sandy hair and blue eyes, Nelson was vain, snobbish, obsessed with his health, and hostile to the French regimes. Though he was rash in battle, his successes ended Napoleon's hopes of Eastern conquest, prevented the seaborne invasion of Britain, and rewrote naval tactics. Without Nelson, the sea war would have been a "close run thing"; after Nelson, the Royal Navy appeared invincible for a century.

Sir Sidney Smith

William Sidney Smith was born in London on June 21, 1764, into a military family. Daring, talkative, vainglorious, and hyperactive, Smith was of middling stature with black eyes and curly black hair. A midshipman at age 13, he was commissioned lieutenant in 1780 and promoted to captain in 1784.

Between the wars, he traveled in France, Spain, and North Africa, engaging in amateur espionage. Smith served as a commodore with Sweden's navy in 1790 and was knighted by Gustavus III for defeating the Russian fleet at Viborg.



HORATIO NELSON

140 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; **DX** 10 [0]; **IQ** 13 [30]; **HT** 8 [-15].

Speed 4.5; Move 4.

Dodge 4; Parry 5 (Shortsword).

Advantages: Charisma +3 [15]; Military Rank 7 [35]; Reputation +1 (As a skilled commander, in the navy and among Britons who follow war news) [2]; Status 4* [5]; Wealthy [20].

* Includes +2 for Military Rank and +1 for Wealthy.

Disadvantages: Duty (To the Royal Navy) [-15]; One Eye [-15]; Sense of Duty (To King and country) [-10].

Quirks: Can be vain and snobbish about his accomplishments and acquaintances; Hates the French revolutionary regime and Napoleon; Obsessed with his failing health; Prefers action to inaction, and prone to rashness; Somewhat susceptible to the opposite sex. [-5]

Skills: Administration-12 [1]; Agronomy-11 [1/2]; Area Knowledge (Caribbean)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Mediterranean)-14 [2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-13* [2]; Boating-12 [8]; Climbing-10 [2]; Diplomacy-11 [1]; Gunner (Naval Cannon)-11* [1]; Law (Naval Law)-9/15 [1/2]; Leadership-18 [6]; Mathematics-11 [1]; Meteorology-12 [1]; Navigation-15 [6]; Politics-11 [1/2]; Sailor-15 [6]; Savoir-Faire-13** [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-15 [4]; Seamanship-17 [8]; Sex Appeal-7 [1]; Shiphandling-18 [14]; Shortsword-11 [4]; Strategy (Naval)-15 [2]; Tactics (Naval)-20 [18]; Teaching-12 [1]; Theology-11 [1].

* Includes +2 for IQ 13.

** Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-13 [0]; French-11 [1/2].

Customization Notes: The above represents Nelson in 1797. Later, he will have higher Military Rank, Status, and Reputation, but also the One Arm disadvantage.



Horatio Nelson,
Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia (ca. 1798)

In 1792, he joined his brother Spencer in a combined diplomatic and spying mission in Constantinople. With the onset of Revolutionary France, Smith sailed to Toulon, arriving in time to burn part of the French fleet – the Spanish failed to finish the rest. From 1795 until his capture in 1796 during a boat-action on the Seine, Smith commanded an inshore squadron to harry French coastal trade. Imprisoned in the Temple in Paris, he wrote a prophetic letter concerning the reverses of “Fortune’s wheel” to Napoleon. He escaped in 1798 thanks to royalist sympathizers.

Smith was sent to Constantinople in October 1798 to support the Ottoman Empire. Smith reached Acre ahead of Napoleon and fortified the city. British marines and sailors held the city and Smith countered Napoleon’s pamphlet warfare. (Napoleon later said of Smith: “That man made me miss my destiny.”) His diplomatic status (with Britain and the Sultan) made his naval superiors jealous.

Elected to Parliament in 1802, Smith busied himself with trials of experimental weapons, intending to use them against Napoleon’s invasion flotilla and combined fleet. Promoted to rear admiral (1805), he bolstered Sicilian defenses a year later. He was appointed third in command of Duckworth’s expedition against Constantinople (owing to continuing Admiralty disapproval), but his advice was ignored and the opportunity to prevent a Franco-Turkish alliance lost (1807). In 1808, Smith was sent to ensure Portugal’s exclusion from the Continental System (by destroying their fleet if necessary); instead he escorted the Portuguese fleet to Brazil.

Promoted to vice admiral (1810) and admiral (1818), Smith retired to a quiet, eccentric life in Paris in 1815, dying in May 26, 1840.

Pierre-André Suffren

Born into an aristocratic French family on July 13, 1729, Suffren as youngest son was early entered into the Knights of Malta and the French Navy. Experiences of sea battles such as Cape Finisterre (1744) and Lagos Bay (1759) taught him the deficiencies of “line of battle” tactics, the need to overwhelm the enemy, and anglophobia. Naval Maltese service against Muslim pirates during the 1760s aided his promotion to captain in 1778 under Admiral d’Estaing. In 1781, Suffren was promoted to commodore and sent with a small squadron to attack Britain’s Indian possessions, engaging the British en route at anchorage in Porto Praya – but uncomprehending subordinates prevented this from prefiguring Nelson’s Nile victory. From 1782 to 1783, Suffren engaged the squadron of Vice Admiral Hughes in five savage battles (at Sadras, Provedien, Negapatam, Trincomali, and Cuddalore) off India and Ceylon. His resentful captains’ failure to understand his tactics of breaking the line and concentrating attacks rendered the fights inconclusive. After the war’s end, Suffren retired to become Maltese Ambassador to France. He collapsed on December 7, 1788, and after unnecessary bleeding, died a day later.

Hugely fat, the balding Suffren eschewed elegant dress in favor of motley clothing, straw hats and slippers, and a bishop’s miter in battle. A glutton, he preferred spiced and hot foods and smoked cigars. Contemptuous of failure, intolerant of criticism, Suffren’s bullying behavior meant he was unable to communicate his methods effectively to his subordinates. Had he possessed the charisma of a Nelson, the French-Mysorean alliance would have swept Britain from India. Had he lived and survived the Terror (perhaps in Maltese exile), the Directory and Napoleon would have given him the opportunity to restore French naval power.





PIERRE-ANDRÉ SUFFREN

135 1/2 POINTS

ST 11 [10]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 12 [20]; HT 12 [20].

Speed 5.5; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 8.

Advantages: Charisma +1 [5]; Claim to Hospitality (Knights of Malta) [5]; Comfortable [5]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 7 [35]; Reputation +2 (Able naval commander, to native crews and junior officers) [3]; Status 5* [15].

* Includes +2 from Military Rank.

Disadvantages: Bully [-10]; Duty (To the navy) [-15]; Fat [-20]; Gluttony [-5]; Light Sleeper [-5]; Odious Personal Habit (Coarse manners) [-5]; Reputation -4 (As an unsuitable officer, to aristocratic officers due to his rapid promotion through Maltese service and ungentlemanly behavior) [-7]; Stubbornness [-5]; Vow (Chastity, poverty, and obedience to Knights of Malta) [-5].

Quirks: Anglophobia; Impatient and restless; Likes to experiment with new ideas (gunnery, crew hygiene, etc.); Prefers motley and eccentric attire to formal uniforms; Very critical of military failure and incompetence of subordinates and superior officers. [-5]

Skills: Administration-12 [2]; Area Knowledge (France)-12 [1]; Area Knowledge (Indian Ocean)-12 [1]; Area Knowledge (Mediterranean)-12 [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-12* [1]; Boating-10 [2]; Carousing-12 [2]; Dancing-10 [2]; Diplomacy-13 [6]; Fencing-12 [8]; Gunner (Naval Cannon)-12* [2]; History (Naval)-9/15 [1]; Leadership-14** [4]; Mathematics-14 [8]; Meteorology-12 [2]; Navigation-14 [8]; Sailor-14 [6]; Savoir-Faire-12† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-14 [4]; Seamanship-14 [4]; Shipbuilding-10 [1]; Shiphandling-14 [8]; Shortsword-8 [1/2]; Strategy (Naval)-14 [8]; Tactics (Naval)-16 [12].

* Includes +2 from IQ 12.

** Includes +1 from Charisma.

† Free from Status.

Customization Notes: The above represents Suffren from 1781 onward.

He chose to command the IV Corps on Napoleon's Russian campaign, rather than serve as Napoleon's Regent in France. Fighting bravely at Borodino, he was equally courageous in the retreat from Moscow, sharing the soldiers' hardships and leading several thousand to safety. During 1813 and 1814, he commanded new and inexperienced armies in Germany and Italy. He was successful against the forces of the Austrians and Neapolitans, who twice attempted to bribe him to desert Napoleon with an Italian kingdom. Following Napoleon's abdication, Eugène surrendered Italy to the Allies (April 16, 1814) and retired to his father-in-law's court in Munich. Eugène died on February 21, 1824, from a cerebral hemorrhage.

Of slim build with a gangling walk from much horse riding, Eugène had a tanned complexion, gray eyes, receding hair, and a neat moustache. Modest, tactful, and diligent, Eugène never lost his temper or his sense of humor. Although an unimaginative general and considered an "eternal apprentice" by Napoleon and his family, Eugène was popular with his men (and would make a useful Patron for aspiring soldiers and administrators). His desire to reclaim his father's sword caused Napoleon to visit their home – perhaps Napoleon might have married someone else otherwise? Later Eugène was responsible for

reconciling the pair after their early affairs. Had he accepted the Swedish crown, Napoleon would have enjoyed a firm ally rather than the treacherous Bernadotte, possibly prolonging the Empire. Had he accepted an Italian kingdom (and Eugène did desire to rule Italy as king), his enlightened governance might have made his realm the nucleus for a united independent kingdom of Italy.

GENERALS

Eugène de Beauharnais

Eugène de Beauharnais was born on September 3, 1781, in Paris. His father, Alexandre, Viscount de Beauharnais, was guillotined in 1794. His mother, Joséphine née Tascher de La Pagerie, married Napoleon on March 9, 1796.

After a brief military apprenticeship under General Hoche in 1795, Eugène de Beauharnais received a cavalry lieutenancy in Napoleon's Army of Italy (1797), distinguishing himself as an aide-de-camp in the Italian and Egyptian campaigns. Returning with Napoleon to France, he supported the Brumaire coup. Promoted to captain in the Consular Guard, he fought at Marengo, and was successively promoted to major (1801), colonel (1802), and general (1804).

Napoleon created him Prince Eugène and Vice-Archchancellor of State in 1804. Appointed viceroy of Napoleon's Italian domains (1805), Eugène implemented the Code Napoleon, constructed roads, and reorganized the civil service and public finances, becoming enamored of Italy. He fell in love with and married Princess Auguste-Amélie of Bavaria (1806).

Initially routed at Sacile (April 1809) by the Austrians under Archduke John, Eugène recovered quickly, forcing the Austrians out of Italy. He defeated Archduke John at Raab in Hungary in June, and then supported Napoleon at Wagram.

Unhappy with Napoleon's divorce of Joséphine (1810), Eugène sought first to leave Napoleon's service, and then refused offers of the Italian and Swedish crowns.

Louis-Nicolas Davout

Marshal Davout was born on May 10, 1770, into an aristocratic (though untitled) military family. Declaring for the Revolution, Davout served with distinction in Flanders in 1793, rising to brigadier general before being forced to resign as a former aristocrat. Reinstated, he joined the Egyptian campaign, initially hostile to Napoleon, but later modeling himself on his commander following a private interview. Promoted to divisional general and commanding the Third Corps, Davout assisted in Napoleonic victories from Austerlitz to Wagram, and won Auerstädt himself. As Military Police Chief, he discomfited spies and fellow marshals alike. Created Duke (1808) and Prince (1809) d'Eckmühl, Davout acquitted himself well in Russia and held Hamburg until Napoleon's first abdication. Serving as war minister during the Hundred Days, he surrendered Paris after Waterloo. He retired to rural seclusion, dying on June 1, 1823.

A stern, incorruptible disciplinarian, he cared for his soldiers and was severe to his officers, being detested by fellow generals. Davout was dogged, brave, and the only marshal to understand Napoleon's methods; Waterloo might have had a different outcome had he been present.





Colquhoun Grant

Born on October 20, 1780, in Lingieston, Scotland, Colquhoun Grant was the 10th of 12 children. His family were modest rural gentry, with a tradition of military service. Obtaining an ensigncy (1795) and lieutenantancy (1796) in the 11th Foot Regiment by purchase, Grant was involved in Captain Popham, R.N., and General Coote's unsuccessful attack on Ostend in 1798. Grant was captured, being exchanged in 1799.

Grant's regiment was transferred to the West Indies, garrisoning Martinique. In 1801, Grant served in Admiral Duckworth and General Trigge's expedition against the Danish and Swedish colonies. Promoted to captain (November 1801), Grant was stationed on Dominica during the Peace of Amiens. Brief forays to capture St. Lucia and Tobago (1803) were followed by garrison duties in Dominica, Barbados (June 1804), and St. Kitts until July 1806.

From October 1806 to November 1807, Grant recruited men to replenish the 11th's ranks. Dispatched secretly to Madeira, the regiment garrisoned it until they were transferred (August 1809) to Wellington's Peninsular army. Grant commanded the Light Company of the 11th at Busaco and distinguished himself by obtaining much-needed supplies from behind enemy lines. In October 1810, Grant began his military intelligence duties for Wellington, making contacts with natives and guerrillas, accompanied by his Spanish peasant guide, Leon. Grant was brevetted major in 1811.

On April 16, 1812, while shadowing Marmont's army, Grant was captured and Leon killed. Grant gave his parole and was imprisoned in Salamanca, making contact with British agents there. Taken to Bayonne (where he was to be handed to the French secret police), Grant escaped and went to Paris, via Orleans, claiming to be an American officer, and continued his espionage duties there. In June 1813, his position became untenable, and befriending an American sea captain in Nantes, he obtained documents and material to disguise himself as a sailor. Hiring a small boat, he was intercepted by a British blockading warship. He returned to the Peninsular army in September 1813, undertaking intelligence analysis duties, and was brevetted lieutenant colonel (1814).

Grant was recalled from the Royal Military College to serve as Wellington's Head of Intelligence during the Hundred Days. His information on Napoleon's movements failed to reach Wellington in time, owing to negligent couriers, and he carried the news himself to Quatre Bras. Had the news arrived punctually, Napoleon's defeat might not have been such "a close run thing."

Placed on half-pay owing to his lack of seniority, Grant was eventually promoted to major (1820) and lieutenant colonel (1821). From 1822, he served in India, fighting in the First Burmese War (1824-1826), where he contracted fever and dysentery. Invalided home in 1829, he died on September 28.

Of slender build, Grant had sharply defined features and thin, straight black hair. Quietly competent, the soft-spoken and well-mannered Grant had a genuine interest in the languages and peoples of other nations and a personal charm that enabled him to choose allies wisely.

EUGÈNE DE BEAUHARNAIS 215 1/2 POINTS

ST 11 [10]; **DX** 12 [20]; **IQ** 12 [20]; **HT** 10 [0].

Speed 5.5; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 8 (Fencing).

Advantages: Attractive [5]; Charisma +1 [5]; Filthy Rich [50]; Fit [5]; Language Talent +1 [2]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 7 [35]; Status 7* [20]; Voice [10].

* Includes +2 from Military Rank and +1 from Filthy Rich.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Compulsive Generosity [-5]; Duty [-15]; Sense of Duty (To mother and sister) [-5]; Sense of Duty (To Napoleon) [-5].

Quirks: Enjoys hunting and shooting; Loves gardens and plants trees wherever he travels; Loves music; Modest to a fault about his successes; Rarely complains about setbacks, and is especially careful not to worry his wife. [-5]

Skills: Accounting-10 [1]; Acting-10 [1/2]; Administration-14 [6]; Area Knowledge (France)-13 [2]; Area Knowledge (Italy)-13 [2]; Area Knowledge (Europe)-13 [2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-14* [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-14* [1]; Broadsword-13 [4]; Carousing-12 [8]; Diplomacy-13** [2]; Fast-Talk-10 [1/2]; Fencing-12 [2]; History-13 [6]; Law-12 [4]; Leadership-13† [2]; Mathematics-14 [6]; Politics-13** [1]; Riding (Horse)-13 [4]; Savoir-Faire-14**† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-14 [4]; Strategy (Land)-14 [6]; Tactics (Land)-14 [6].

* Includes +2 from IQ 12.

** Includes +2 from Voice.

† Includes +1 from Charisma.

‡ Free from Status.

Languages: English-12 [1]; German-11 [1/2]; French (native)-13 [0]; Italian-12 [1].

COLQUHOUN GRANT 168 1/2 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; **DX** 12 [20]; **IQ** 12 [20]; **HT** 11 [10].

Speed 5.75; Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 6 (Broadsword).

Advantages: Cultural Adaptability [25]; Disease-Resistant [5]; Fit [5]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 4 [20]; Reputation +3 ("Granto Bueno," to all Spanish partisans) [5]; Reputation +1 (Wellington's top intelligence officer, to all senior army officers) [2]; Status 2* [5]; Strong Will +1 [4].

* Includes +1 from Military Rank.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Duty (To Wellington's Army) [-15].

Quirks: Always wears his uniform on a mission; Proud of family and military traditions; Secretive about his military exploits; Soft-spoken with pleasant manners; Speaks little but means what he says. [-5]

Skills: Acting-14* [4]; Animal Handling-10 [1]; Area Knowledge (Iberian Peninsula)-14* [2]; Bard-12* [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-13** [1/2]; Broadsword-12 [2]; Carousing-12* [2]; Cartography-14 [6]; Dancing-12 [2]; Detect Lies-14 [8]; Diplomacy-14* [6]; Fast-Talk-14* [4]; Leadership-13* [2]; Literature-9 [1/2]; Mathematics-9 [1/2]; Riding (Horse)-14 [8]; Savoir-Faire-13*† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-13* [1]; Singing-12 [2]; Strategy (Land)-12* [2]; Tactics (Land)-14* [6].

* Includes +1 from Cultural Adaptability.

** Includes +2 from IQ 12.

† Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-14* [0]; French-15* [4]; Portuguese-15* [4]; Spanish-15* [4].

* Includes +2 from Language Talent, included in Cultural Adaptability.





Andre Masséna

Marshal Masséna was born on May 6, 1758 and soon orphaned. A brief career at sea was followed by enlistment as a soldier in 1775. He quit as a sergeant in 1789 owing to lack of promotion, but rejoined the revolutionary army, achieving divisional general rank (1793). Masséna's victory at Rivoli ensured Napoleon's triumph over Mantua in the Italian campaign. Appointed commander of the Army of Switzerland (March 1799), Masséna defeated the Russians under Korsakov at Zurich (September), preventing the immediate invasion of France. Similarly, his stubborn resistance under siege in Genoa (1800) gave Napoleon time to reach and defeat Austria at Marengo. His control of northern Italy earned him riches through the illegal sale of trade licenses in 1806. Created Duke of Rivoli (1808) and Prince d'Essling (1810), Masséna was removed from his 13-month command in the Iberian Peninsula (May 1811) following defeats by Wellington. In disgrace, Masséna pleaded illness during the Hundred Days and avoided service on either side. He died on April 4, 1817.

A dark, thin man, Masséna was dour and egotistical. His passions were money and women. He lost an eye following a hunting accident with Napoleon in 1808, and his health and resolution deteriorated thereafter. Without Masséna's tenacity in Zurich, Napoleon would have returned from Egypt to a dismembered France; his doggedness at Genoa saved the Consulate.

Joachim Murat

The Gascon Marshal Murat was born on March 25, 1767, the son of an innkeeper. Eschewing an ecclesiastical career, he joined the cavalry in 1787. Captain by 1795, Murat found the cannon required for Napoleon's Vendémiaire defense of the French Republic. As Napoleon's aide, Murat attained renown as a horse and camel cavalry leader in the Italian and Egyptian campaigns. His forcible ousting of the assembled deputies completed Napoleon's Brumaire coup. As reward, he was permitted to marry Caroline Bonaparte. He commanded cavalry units from Marengo to Eylau, preserving the Grand Army from destruction at the latter by charging unbroken Russian artillery and infantry. Ennobled as a grand duke, Murat desired a kingdom, conspiring first for Poland, then for Spain in 1808. Instead he replaced Joseph Bonaparte in Naples, instituting many administrative and economic reforms and supporting Italian secret societies in the hope of becoming king of a united Italy. After Napoleon's retreat from Russia, Murat intrigued with Metternich to save his Neapolitan crown, though he fought for the Emperor at Leipzig owing to delayed receipt of a deciphered message. His treaty with Austria survived Bourbon pressure until he declared for the Emperor during the Hundred Days. His Italian loyalists were swiftly defeated at Tolentino and Murat fled to Corsica. An ill-advised return to Naples ended in his capture and execution on October 13, 1815.

Vain, obsessed with designing grandiose uniforms, and of merely average intelligence, Murat was nevertheless the most courageous and effective cavalry commander among Napoleon's Marshals.

Michel Ney

Marshal Ney was born on January 10, 1769. His father had retired from the army to become a barrel cooper and Ney forsook an apprenticeship to join the cavalry in 1788. His bravery in the battles of the Revolutionary Wars in the Low Countries and Rhineland gained him a series of unwelcome promotions, culminating as divisional general by 1800.

Living quietly during the Consulate, he was appointed to command of the Sixth Corps of the Grand Army after the collapse of Amiens, and like Davout, Masséna, Murat, and Soult, became a Marshal of the Empire in 1804. Despite the bungling of Murat, Ney triumphed over the Austrians at Elchingen in 1805, leading the assault across the Danube personally. Impatient for battle, Ney misjudged his position in the fog at Jena and survived only by charging the Prussian lines. In 1807 a year later, Ney distinguished himself against the Russians at Friedland. He was created Duke of Elchingen in 1808.

Appointed a subordinate commander in Spain from 1808, Ney quarreled with his fellow Marshals from his Galician outposts until eventually Masséna dismissed him in 1811 for disobeying orders. He was restored to corps command in 1812 for Napoleon's Russian invasion, leading the advance guard until Smolensk. At Borodino, Ney implored the Emperor in vain to send the Imperial Guard against the broken Russians. Created Prince de la Moskowa, Ney commanded the desperate rearguard actions that preserved the Grand Army from complete destruction in the wintry retreat from Moscow, and was the last French soldier to quit Russian soil, earning his accolade as "the bravest of the brave."

MICHEL NEY

264 POINTS

ST 13 [30]; DX 12 [20]; IQ 12 [20]; HT 12 [20].

Speed 6; Move 6.

Dodge 7; Parry 10 (Fencing).

Advantages: Charisma +2 [10]; Combat Reflexes [10]; Filthy Rich [50]; Fit [5]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 8 [40]; Reputation +2 (As the bravest of the brave, to all Napoleonic soldiers) [5]; Status 6* [10]; Strong Will +1 [4]; Unusual Background (Grew up speaking both French and German) [10].

* Includes +3 from Military Rank and +1 from Filthy Rich.

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Duty (To Napoleon's army) [-15]; Intolerance (Politicians and courtiers) [-5]; Overconfident [-10]; Sense of Duty (To France) [-10].

Quirks: Dislikes wearing court dress; Fond of being praised; Has difficulty restraining his temper against incompetent officers; Impulsive in battle. [-4]

Skills: Administration-12 [2]; Animal Handling-10 [1]; Area Knowledge (Germany)-12 [1]; Area Knowledge (France)-12 [1]; Area Knowledge (Europe)-12 [1]; Bard-12* [1/2]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Musket)-14** [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-14** [1]; Broadsword-14 [8]; Carousing-12 [2]; Dancing-10 [1/2]; Diplomacy-13 [6]; Fencing-14 [8]; Gambling-10 [1/2]; History (Military)-9/14 [1]; Leadership-15* [4]; Mathematics-9 [1/2]; Musical Instrument (Flute)-11 [2]; Riding (Horse)-15 [16]; Savoir-Faire-12† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-15 [6]; Strategy (Land)-13 [6]; Tactics (Land)-15 [10].

* Includes +2 from Charisma.

** Includes +2 from IQ 12.

† Free from Status.

Languages: French (native)-12 [0]; German (native)-12 [0].

Customization Notes: This represents Ney during the Empire.





Serving with Napoleon at Leipzig, Ney was chosen by the remaining Marshals to persuade the Emperor to surrender in 1814. Initially loyal to Louis XVIII, Ney hurried to capture Napoleon on his return from exile, but instead rejoined his former leader, eventually receiving command of two corps in the days before Waterloo. Ney failed to win decisively at Quatre Bras, and despite wild courage in multiple attacks upon the British lines, failed to defeat Wellington. Ney was later captured (August 1815) and executed for treason by firing squad on December 7, 1815.

Tall and physically strong, the auburn-haired and blue-eyed Ney was a born swordsman and rider. Glory and victory in battle, rather than wealth or status, motivated him. A sound tactician, he was no strategist. Heroic impulse often overwhelmed cooler military judgment.

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington

Born in Dublin on May 1, 1769, Wellesley (Wesley until 1798) was the fifth son of the Earl of Mornington. Educated at Eton and in France to avoid an Irish accent, he received a lieutenancy at 18, advancing by purchase to lieutenant-colonel (1793). Rejected by the beauty Kitty Pakenham, he focused on his career, learning how not to fight in Flanders (1794-1795).

Sent to India (1796), Wellesley defeated Tipu Sultan, becoming Mysore's governor (1799), and was promoted to major general (1802). Further victories over the Marathas, including Assaye in 1803, increased and secured British territories in India. Knighted, he returned to England (1805), marrying the now-plain Kitty (1806) and serving in Ireland as chief secretary and briefly against Denmark (1807). Promoted to lieutenant general (1808), he was court-martialed (though acquitted) for participating in the Convention of Cintra. From 1809 to 1814, he fought cautiously in the Peninsular War, preserving his army and liberating Portugal and Spain, becoming Viscount (1809), Earl (1812), Marquess (1812), and Duke of Wellington (1814) as reward for his victories. Initially ambassador to France, he was appointed a British representative to the Congress of Vienna to avoid assassination and was ideally positioned to be commander-in-chief against Napoleon's Hundred Days, gaining his final victory at Waterloo (1815).

Wellington opposed punitive measures against France and ensured an early end to the occupation (1818). Back in England, he served in Cabinet as master-general of the ordinance and unsuccessfully as a diplomat to the Congresses of the 1820s. He resigned (1827) in opposition to unlimited Catholic emancipation. Next year, George IV requested that Wellington become prime minister. Despite misgivings and hostility from fellow Tories, he removed anti-Nonconformist legislation and reformed the Corn Laws. By persuasion and

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, DUKE OF WELLINGTON 221 POINTS

ST 11 [10]; DX 11 [10]; IQ 13 [30]; HT 11 [10].

Speed 5.5 Move 5.

Dodge 5; Parry 8.

Advantages: Charisma +3 [15]; Composed [5]; Fit [5]; Less Sleep 4 [12]; Literacy [5]; Military Rank 8 [40]; Reputation +3 (As a successful general, to all soldiers and allied governments) [7]; Status 6* [10]; Strong Will +2 [8]; Very Wealthy [30].

* Includes +3 from Military Rank and +1 from Very Wealthy.

Disadvantages: Chauvinistic [-1]; Code of Honor (Gentleman's) [-10]; Duty (To his army) [-15]; Reputation -2 (As an archconservative, to all reformers) [-3]; Sense of Duty (To King and country) [-10]; Stubbornness [-5].

Quirks: Always punctual, and demands punctuality of others; Completely uninterested in food; Keeps his own counsel, but likes gossip; Reserved, aristocratic manner and habits (never apologizes, likes hunting, etc.); Sees and studies Napoleon as a rival in *all* things. [-5]

Skills: Accounting-11 [1]; Administration-15 [6]; Area Knowledge (Europe)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Great Britain)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (India)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Portugal)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Spain)-13 [1]; Black Powder Weapons (Flintlock Pistol)-12* [1/2]; Carousing-13 [8]; Dancing-11 [2]; Diplomacy-13 [4]; Fencing-12 [4]; Gambling-11 [1/2]; History-12 [2]; Law-11 [1]; Leadership-16** [2]; Mathematics-12 [2]; Musical Instrument (Violin)-10 [1/2]; Politics-13 [2]; Riding (Horse)-13 [8]; Savoir-Faire-13† [0]; Savoir-Faire (Military)-14 [2]; Sex Appeal-10 [1]; Strategy (Land)-17 [12]; Tactics (Land)-15 [8].

* Includes +2 for IQ 13.

** Includes +3 from Charisma.

† Free from Status.

Languages: English (native)-13 [0]; French-12 [1]; Latin-11 [1/2].

Customization Notes: This represents Wellington at the time of Waterloo.



*Wellington Orders the Advance,
World's Famous Events (Waterloo, 1815)*

force (a duel), he induced George IV, Robert Peel, Tory allies, and others to accept Catholic emancipation to prevent an Irish civil war (1828). Unwillingness to accept parliamentary reform (fearing future revolution) and increased Whig representation following the 1830 election led to his resignation. He continued to oppose reform until 1832, when he convinced his supporters to abstain, allowing the law to pass and preserving the House of Lords.

Thereafter he served as foreign secretary (1834-1835), minister without portfolio (1841-1846), and army commander-in-chief (from 1842). Though he retired from public life after 1846, his opinion was sought by all, with Queen Victoria treating him as a hero. He died on September 14, 1852.





Slim, 5'9" tall, Wellington had wavy brown hair, blue eyes, and an aquiline nose (hence "Nosey"). In war, Wellington was decisive, a master of detail and tactics, a disciplinarian, and only rash in disliking prolonged sieges. Unhappy in his marriage, he enjoyed the company of intellectual women. Restrained and limited in small talk, Wellington was indifferent to public opinion and never apologized (though he would perform favors to redress a wrong). His sardonic humor was occasionally released in loud laughter. Wellington was utterly dedicated and incorruptible in his country's service.

REVOLUTIONARIES

Georges-Jacques Danton

Danton was born on October 26, 1759 in Arcis-sur-Aube, and his love of rural life and pursuits abided to his death. His face was pockmarked by smallpox and his lip was disfigured. Well-read in French, English, and Italian, Danton purchased his degree and practiced law in Paris from 1784. Danton's improvisational and ambiguous oratory gained him fame in Cordelier and Jacobin clubs. Rumors persisted that he was in the pay of England, royalists, and federalists. Adroit maneuvering allowed him to manipulate and exploit the factions, though his opposition to the Terror made him a target. Refusing to heed warnings, he was arrested, tried, and guillotined on April 5, 1794.

Comte Honoré Gabriel Riqueti de Mirabeau

The unscrupulous Mirabeau was born on March 9, 1749. Pugnacious and vain, with charming manners offset by a heavyset figure and disfigured face, his amorous adventures and spendthrift nature led to several prison stays and rejection from the aristocracy. From 1784 to 1788, he worked variously as a pamphleteer and secret agent around Europe. His aim in the Estates General was to be an intermediary between King and people, reshaping the government to a constitutional monarchy, and he employed his oratory to these ends. Jealousy and fear that Mirabeau might seek dictatorial power ensured passage of a decree prohibiting deputies from serving as ministers. His intrigues with the court were thwarted by royal distrust. His Machiavellian schemes were ignored, while his popularity elsewhere increased. He became ill and died on April 2, 1792 with his aims unfulfilled.

Maximilien Robespierre

Robespierre was born in Arras on May 6, 1758. After his mother's death, his lawyer father left the children in their grandparents' care. Educated at the Oratorian college (in Arras) and after 1769 in Enlightenment teachings at Louis-le-Grand (in Paris), Robespierre was a conscientious, if solitary, student, receiving a law degree in 1781. His Arras law practice was successful, gaining him a reputation for honesty through his avoidance of unworthy causes. In pursuit of fame, he submitted essays to academic competitions.

In 1789, he was elected to the Estates General. Popular within the National Assembly, he was denounced by royalist newspapers. During 1790, he became influential in the Jacobin Club, and though excluded from Assembly committees, he championed universal suffrage and other measures while opposing royal and ministerial abuses. After the Champ-de-Mars massacre of antimonarchists, Robespierre's life was threatened, so he moved in with the Duplay family for safety. He preserved the radical core of the Jacobins, denouncing Brissotin policies, and for condoning the September massacres, was elected to the National Convention in 1792.

Having ensured the execution of Louis XVI, Robespierre supported the overthrow of the Girondins. Deciding that "a single will" was essential to save the Revolution, he became its dictatorial leader through the Committee of Public Safety in July 1793, increasing the "Reign of Terror" to destroy all factions opposing his Rousseauist vision. His health ruined by overwork, Robespierre isolated himself in June 1794, emboldening his foes, who indicted him. His unwillingness to lead an uprising ensured his execution on July 28, 1794.

At 5'3" Robespierre was a small, thin man. His broad, flat face was slightly pock-marked. Tinted spectacles rectified his near-sightedness and concealed his gray-green eyes. His chestnut hair was carefully brushed and powdered. To his death, Robespierre was always immaculately dressed as a bourgeois. He was highly strung, suffering from facial spasms.

Quiet and grave, he had a weak speaking voice. His listeners found him self-righteous, though few doubted his sincerity. While he was not cowardly, his tactics were often underhanded, demonstrating Machiavellian skill in dividing and destroying opposing factions. Suspicious and vindictive, Robespierre was ruthless in implementing his patriotic and democratic beliefs. Unworldly and tactless, he lacked a compromising spirit.

MAXIMILIEN ROBESPIERRE 126 POINTS

ST 8 [-15]; **DX** 11 [10]; **IQ** 13 [30]; **HT** 10/8 [-10].

Speed 5; Move 5.

Dodge 5.

Advantages: Administrative Rank 6 [30]; Attractive [5]; Charisma +2 [10]; Comfortable [10]; Literacy [5]; Reputation +4 (As the "Incorruptible," to French revolutionaries) [7]; Single-Minded [5]; Status 2* [0]; Strong Will +3 [12].
* Free from Administrative Rank.

Disadvantages: Fanaticism (The Revolution) [-15]; Intolerance (Political opponents) [-5]; Reputation -4 (As a dangerous Jacobin revolutionary, to all royalists) [-10].

Quirks: Anglophobia; Fastidiously maintains old-fashioned bourgeois manners, appearance, and dress; Preoccupation with his own mortality; Respects property, prudence, and thrift, but disdains business affairs; Suffers from a touch of stage fright prior to public speaking. [-5]

Skills: Administration-14 [4]; Area Knowledge (France)-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (Paris)-13 [1]; Bard-13* [1/2]; Detect Lies-14 [6]; Diplomacy-12 [2]; Fast-Talk-14 [4]; History-14 [6]; Law-15 [8]; Leadership-13* [1/2]; Literature-13 [4]; Mathematics-11 [1]; Poetry-13 [2]; Politics-17 [10]; Savoir-Faire-13** [0]; Theology-12 [2]; Writing-14 [4].
* Includes +2 from Charisma.
** Free from Status.

Languages: French (native)-14 [1]; Greek-12 [1]; Latin-14 [4].





Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès

Born in Fréjus on May 3, 1748, Sieyès was educated for an ecclesiastical career. Although temperamentally unsuited for the priesthood, he nevertheless was a diocesan chancellor by 1788. Despairing of French society, he nearly emigrated to America, but changed his mind with the explosion of political debate in 1788. His soft musical voice and austere yet courteous manner limited his oratory. His political theories combining revolution, limited monarchy, and limited democracy ensured that power remained with the bourgeoisie throughout the Republic. He avoided the Terror by removing himself from politics. Returning in 1795, he became a member of the Five Hundred and by 1799 a Director. He was instrumental in encouraging Napoleon's coup d'état, but his consulate and elaborate constitution were eclipsed by Napoleon. Loyal to the Empire, he was exiled by the Bourbons from 1815 to 1830, living in Belgium. He died in Paris on June 20, 1836.

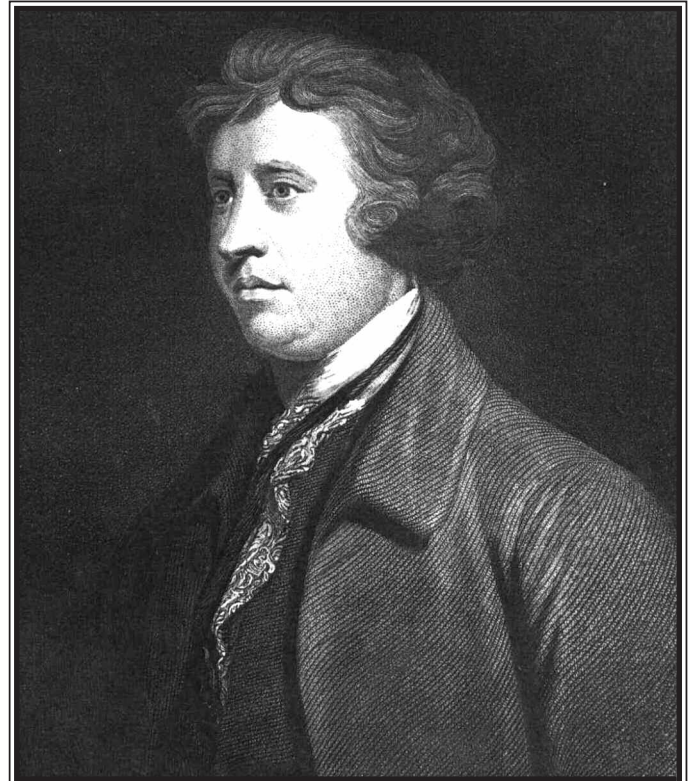
Theobald Wolfe Tone

Born on January 20, 1763 in Dublin, Tone was vain, intelligent, and witty, a slender man with sallow and pockmarked features. Already a practicing lawyer in 1789, he delivered a proposal to Pitt the Younger recommending the use of the Sandwich Isles (Hawaii) as a English privateer base. The suggestion was completely ignored. Tone became hostile to British rule, quit his law practice, and helped found the Society of United Irishmen in 1791. His pamphleteering urged Protestants and Catholics to unite, though he was hostile to both faiths and dissatisfied with Pitt's resulting compromises. Banished to America in 1794 for conspiring with France, he went to Paris, and persuaded the Directory to attack Ireland in 1796. Next year, Tone failed to convince Napoleon to lead a second expedition. In 1798, Tone joined Hardy's invasion force and was captured. Tried and condemned to death, he botched his suicide – he had attempted to cut his own throat with a penknife – and died in agony on November 19, 1798.

OTHER EMINENT PERSONAGES

Edmund Burke

Born into a provincial “mixed-marriage” family (his father was a Protestant, his mother a Catholic) in Dublin on January 12, 1729, Burke was educated at Trinity College, Dublin (1744), moving later to London (1750) to train in law. Publishing a satire against attacks on revealed religion (1756) and an essay on aesthetics (1757), Burke gained his first literary renown. He married that year, and contemplated emigration to America. 1758 witnessed his founding of *The Annual Register* as a survey of world affairs, to which he contributed for 30 years, and his immersion in literary London. A brief tenure as adviser to the Chief Secretary of Ireland (1761-1764) was followed by attachment to the Marquis of Rockingham's faction and entry into the House of Commons (1765). He was elected



Edmond Burke, *History of English Literature*

for Bristol (1774), but compelled to seek a “pocket borough” seat (1780), as Bristol wanted a delegate who would obey their wishes in all matters, not a representative able to exercise his own judgment for the general good. Except for the years 1782-1783, he remained in opposition, developing the idea of political parties, rather than becoming a “placeman” in office, voting as the government wished in return for well-paid sinecures. (Had he become a placeman like his contemporary Edward Gibbon (author of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 1776-1788), Burke would have had the financial freedom to have become an eminent historian.)

In Parliament, Burke opposed the Stamp Act, but believed America should be ruled by the Crown. As agent for the New York colony (1771 onward), he proposed pragmatic solutions, hoping to retain America through trade, internal self-government, and voluntary tax contributions, but the North ministry was unheeding.

The secret sponsor of the Catholic Relief Acts, Burke was almost lynched in the Gordon Riots. To save Ireland, he demanded Catholic emancipation, the freeing of commerce between Ireland and England, reduction of the Protestant Ascendancy's power, and even effective autonomy. He believed that an empowered Catholic aristocracy would forestall their collaboration with the United Irishmen, preventing rebellion.

Burke's indignation at the abuses of the East India Company, beginning with a parliamentary select committee inquiry in 1781, led to his impeaching Warren Hastings, former governor-general, in 1787, and prosecuting the case in the House of Lords. Although Hastings was found innocent in 1795 on a plea of “necessities of state,” India was governed more carefully thereafter.





On November 1, 1790, Burke published *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, analyzing the upheaval, predicting its violent future, and appealing for a more conservative approach such as found in the English constitution. Though attacked by Paine and others, this pamphlet swayed British society against Jacobinism. Further tracts followed defending his position and urging war against the Revolution.

Retiring from Parliament in 1794, he continued his attacks on Robespierre's successors. Burke died on July 8, 1797, and was buried secretly to prevent his remains being disinterred by future English Jacobins.

Despite debts incurred by collapsing East India stock, Burke remained generous, convivial, and sanguine to his death. His conversation was witty, his debate passionate, his imagination brooding, and his powers of foresight immense. His enemies suspected him falsely of being a secret Catholic or even a Jesuit.

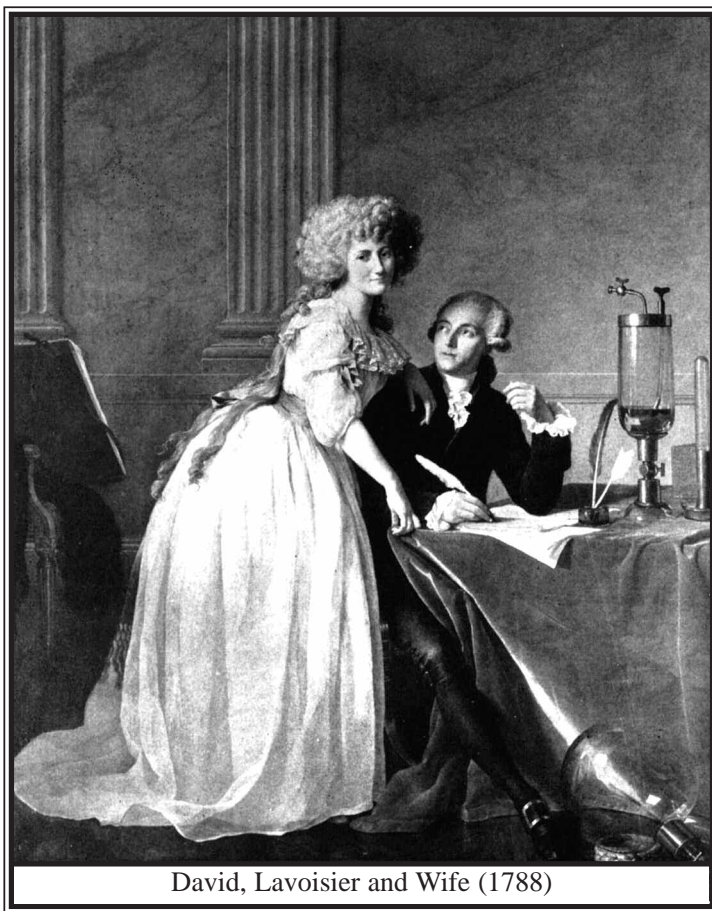
Jacques-Louis David

The painter David was born in Paris, on August 30, 1748. Trained by Joseph-Marie Vien, he joined the school of the Académie Royale de Peinture et de Sculpture at 18. Success eluded him in the official artistic competitions, moving him to attempt suicide through starvation, until he obtained the Prix de Rome in 1774. His travels in Italy during the mid to late 1770s inspired him in neoclassical themes. Returning to Paris in 1780, he married Marguerite Pécoul (1782) and was elected to the Académie Royale (1784). His *Oath of the Horatii* and *The Lictors Bringing to Brutus the Bodies of His Sons* brought him great fame and began his influence on French society.

A Jacobin by 1790, he was elected to the National Convention in 1792. His wife separated from him because David voted for Louis XVI's execution. Under Robespierre's influence, he became totally committed to the Revolution. He used his talents to advance its goals, as in painting *The Death of Marat* (1793) to commemorate its first martyr. Motivated by revenge for its slights, he abolished the Académie Royale, replacing it with the Commune des Arts and the Popular and Republican Society of the Arts. Though he pledged to die with Robespierre, David was absent from the Convention on the day of Thermidor and was imprisoned rather than guillotined. He remarried his wife and was released from prison (1795), becoming a teacher of artists.

David's *The Intervention of the Sabines* (1799) brought him to the attention of Napoleon. David soon idolized the Emperor, producing portraits and contemporary history paintings. David became a Chevalier of the Legion d'Honneur (1804) and First Painter of the Empire (1805). Unhappy under the First Restoration, David welcomed the Hundred Days, resuming his post as First Painter. After the Second Restoration, he was exiled. He continued to paint, though without energy or inspiration, in Brussels, dying on December 29, 1825.

David had disheveled hair, brown eyes, and a tumor on his cheek that twisted his face. His character was contradictory; he was by turns touchy, resolute, generous, jealous, contented, and bitter. Always excitable and an extreme patriot, David was easily swayed in his opinions by strong personalities.



David, Lavoisier and Wife (1788)

Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier

Lavoisier was born on August 26, 1743, in Paris, the son of relatively wealthy barristers. Educated at the Collège Mazarin, he studied the sciences in addition to law, gaining his barrister's license in 1764. Drawn to science, he vigorously pursued admission to the Academy of Sciences, submitting papers on street lighting (1766), the aurora, gypsum, and water analysis. The last gained him the junior rank of supernumerary adjunct in the chemistry section (1768). He bought a part-share in the Company of General Farmers (tax farmers) (1768), married Marie-Anne Paulze (1771), received a purchased hereditary title from his father, and became independently wealthy.

In 1770, he refuted the belief that distillation could convert water into earth. He began his research into gases and combustion during the 1770s, discovering that "dephlogisticated" or "common air" (oxygen) was absorbed in combustion and confirming water as a hydrogen ("inflammable air") and oxygen compound and oxygen's role in acids. He employed chemical experiments to discover adulterated tobacco in his reforms of tax collection in the early 1770s. He became director of the gunpowder administration, and his improvements in niter extraction from saltpeter and location of new sources enabled France to become an exporter of gunpowder, supplying the American Revolution and later the Revolutionary and Napoleonic armies. He was instrumental in exposing mesmerism as fraudulent in 1781.



Starting in 1783, he published his combustion theories and attacked phlogiston beliefs, eventually proposing a new chemical nomenclature – based on his own work – which became widely accepted.

Elected to the representative assembly of Orléans (1787), he worked tirelessly in its executive committees. In Paris, he proposed the construction of a new city wall to assist in toll collection. His liberal agenda of a regularly elected legislative Estates General, presided over by an executive monarchy, ensured his election as a noble deputy to the Estates General. As the Academy's treasurer (from 1791), he fought a vain rearguard action to preserve its character from attacks by Marat and Brissot (who were partially motivated by personal jealousy). Arrested in November 1793 as a "tax farmer," Lavoisier was imprisoned. Pleas for clemency for his scientific abilities were ignored; he was tried, convicted, and guillotined on May 8, 1794.

Slim, with a finely featured face and receding hair, the father of modern chemistry was ambitious, driven, and intelligent. A practical experimenter, he researched many problems simultaneously, but was always careful to have his preliminary notes in sealed envelopes initialed by the Academy secretary to ensure proof of prior discovery. Had he survived the Revolution, later French governments would have benefited from his applied scientific genius.

Thomas Paine

Paine was born in rural Norfolk, England, on January 29, 1737. Minimally schooled, he worked variously from age 13 as a corset-maker, privateersman, exciseman, teacher, shopkeeper, and exciseman again. Briefly married in 1759, the widower Paine remarried in 1771, only to separate from Elizabeth Ollives in 1774. He was dismissed from the excise for publishing a pamphlet urging increased pay for officers (1774). Receiving letters of introduction from Benjamin Franklin (then in Britain representing the colonies), Paine emigrated to America, where he became a contributor to the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. In 1776, Paine published *Common Sense*, a proposal for American independence, crystallizing colonial desires for separation from England. During the Revolution, Paine served as a military observer (1776), secretary to the Committee for Foreign Affairs (until his resignation after he revealed Silas Deane's corruption in 1779), clerk of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and procurer of supplies from France. His major contribution was his series of 16 *Crisis* pamphlets (under the pseudonym *Common Sense*), analyzing the war and bolstering American patriotism from 1776 to 1783.

Granted a farm in New Rochelle for his services, Paine turned his attentions to bridge design, returning to Europe (1787) to promote plans for iron bridges in France and England. Galvanized by the French Revolution, he defended it against Burke's *Reflections* with his *The Rights of Man* (Part 1, March 1791; Part 2, February 1792), favoring republicanism against monarchy and supplying a manifesto for government. Banned in England, Paine escaped arrest for treason by emigrating to Paris, taking his seat in the National Convention (despite knowing no French) in 1792. Girondin in sympathies, Paine failed to ensure exile to America for Louis XVI, leading

eventually to his own imprisonment (December 1793). Only illness prevented a trial (and certain death). Released in November 1794, Paine concentrated on pamphlets such as *The Age of Reason* (1794, 1796) attacking organized religion and newspaper articles denouncing England. In 1802, he returned to the United States, where his reputation as an atheist, his poverty, and political enemies made life difficult. He died on June 8, 1809.

Tall and slender, Paine was lazy, slovenly, vain, hypersensitive, and overly fond of brandy. Paine's public altruism in decrying profits from pamphlets concealed private stinginess and demands for recompense. The age's supreme propagandist, Paine contributed as much to the American Revolution as Washington and Franklin.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau

Rousseau was born in Geneva, on June 28, 1712; his mother died in childbirth. His father, a watchmaker, gave him an idealized image of Geneva as a republic. Expelled from the city for pretensions above his station, he left his son in the care of his mother's family for six years. Jean-Jacques fled the city at age 16, converted to Roman Catholicism, and became a vagabond. Eventually he came under the tutelage of the Baronne de Warene in Savoy, receiving a literary and musical education, and becoming her lover.

In 1742, Rousseau went to Paris, where he met Diderot and the other *philosophes*. He became a contributor of musical articles to the *Encyclopédie*. Eight years later, he published his first philosophical work, *A Discourse on the Sciences and the Arts*, which proposed that man was good by nature, but corrupted by society and civilization, which had themselves gone wrong after the Middle Ages.

In 1752, he attracted attention through his opera *Devin du village* and his support for Italian opera and melody over the French opera and harmony espoused by Rameau and most of the *philosophes*. Nevertheless he eschewed opportunities to become a court composer, devoting himself to philosophy and literature.

He returned to Geneva in 1754 to reclaim his citizenship, but was soon back in Paris in the company of the *philosophes*. On one of his stays in Geneva, he converted to Calvinism. In 1755, Rousseau published his *Discourse on the Origins of Inequality*, which continued his thinking on the corruption of mankind, laying the blame on a fraudulent social contract.

From 1756, Rousseau lived in seclusion on the estates of various nobles. In 1761-1762, he published the novel *The New Éloïse*, *Emile*, and *The Social Contract*. The views on education in "Emile" angered Jansenists in France. The suggestions in *The Social Contract* that Geneva no longer conformed to the ideals of its founders angered the Genevan leaders. Rousseau was forced to flee France and was chased through the Swiss cantons, eventually finding refuge in England in 1764.

Signs of paranoia appeared during his English stay, as he believed that his hosts were mocking him. He returned secretly to France in 1768 and married his mistress Thérèse Levasseur. Protected by aristocratic admirers, he spent the last decade of his life producing autobiographical writings. He died on July 2, 1778.





Rousseau was the last *philosophe*, and his thinking bridged the Enlightenment and the dawn of the Romantic age. He altered taste in music and the arts, encouraged his readers to be actively interested in their children (rather than benignly neglecting them), and espoused the beauties of nature and the desire for liberty. His writings, particularly *The Social Contract*, inspired the radical deputies of the French Revolution.

Germaine de Staël

Germaine de Staël, only child of the Swiss banker Jacques Necker (later Louis XVI's finance minister), was born in Paris on April 22, 1766. A precocious child, she astonished attendees of her mother's salon by her lively wit and conversation. Germaine's wish to avoid living in England prevented a marriage to Pitt the Younger; instead she married the Swedish Ambassador, Baron Erik de Staël-Holstein, in 1786. It was strictly a marriage of convenience, which ended by separation in 1797; her three children, Auguste (born 1790), Albert (born 1792), and Albertine (born 1796), were fathered by her several lovers.

Politically, De Staël was closest to the Girondins, though suspected of Jacobinism. Protected by her Swiss nationality and her husband's diplomatic status, she encouraged her lover, Narbonne, to become Minister of War, and arranged for many friends to be released from prison. She fled to Switzerland and then England in 1793, returning to France after the Terror. Her salon flourished, while she published political and literary essays. She fell in love with Benjamin Constant, who influenced her toward German Romanticism.

Her initial adoration of Napoleon turned to fear of his potential despotism. She became a focus of liberal resistance, criticizing Napoleon's censorship in her novel *Delphine* (1802). Banished from Paris (1803), she reestablished her salon at her estate in Coppet, Switzerland. During 1804, she journeyed through Germany, meeting Goethe and Schlegel, and she visited Italy in 1805. She published the novel *Corinne* (1807) and *De l'Allemagne* (1810), a study of German morals, manners, and literature, deemed anti-French by Napoleon and suppressed in the Empire.

She fled police persecution in 1812, traveling to Austria, Russia, Sweden, and finally England (1813), where she was considered variously too liberal and too anti-Napoleonic. After Napoleon's first abdication, she returned to Paris, taking refuge in Coppet during the Hundred Days. Her health declined rapidly in 1817. She died on July 14, 1817.

De Staël's wide face was framed by dark hair, worn according to the prevailing fashion. Despite admirers commenting on her blue eyes and "superb bosom," she does not seem to have been exceptionally attractive; it was her voice that all found irresistible. Impulsive, energetic, fearless, unrestrained in conversation, Madame de Staël dominated salon and drawing room alike, wanting to explain, examine, and pass judgment on everything. Extremely passionate and easily hurt emotionally, she resorted to emotional blackmail to keep lovers in line. Her acquaintances and friends included

Talleyrand, Joseph and Lucien Bonaparte, Goethe, Schiller, and Byron. In a campaign, her political influence and literary connections could be a considerable advantage to adventurers.

NAPOLEON'S SIBLINGS

Joseph Bonaparte

Born on January 7, 1768, the lawyer Joseph assisted with the political reorganization of Corsica (1796) and served as ambassador to Parma and Rome (1797). He negotiated treaties with the United States (1800), Austria (1801), and Britain (1802). Joseph quarreled with Napoleon, desiring to be named his heir. Napoleon created him king of Naples (1806-1808) and of Spain (1808-1813). After 1815, he lived mostly in the United States. He died on July 28, 1844 in Florence.

Lucien Bonaparte

Born on May 21, 1775, Lucien was an active Jacobin in both Corsica and France during the Revolution. Elected Corsican deputy in the Council of Five Hundred (1798), he gained Napoleon a consulship by well-timed maneuvering in the 19 Brumaire coup. During the Consulate, Lucien's democratic sympathies cost him positions as interior minister and ambassador to Spain. His second marriage exacerbated the brotherly rift, as it prevented Lucien's marrying the Spanish Princess Maria Luisa (as Napoleon desired). Exiled, Lucien later fled Italy (1807) for America, but was captured by the British and released in 1814. He supported Napoleon during the Hundred Days. He retired to Italy, dying on June 29, 1840.

GERMAINE DE STAEL 134 POINTS

ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 14 [45]; HT 10 [0].

Speed 5; Move 5.

Dodge 5.

Advantages: Charisma +1 [5]; Filthy Rich [50]; Literacy [5]; Reputation +3 (As an astonishing woman of letters, to all literate Europe) [7]; Status 4* [15]; Voice [10].

* Includes +1 from Filthy Rich.

Disadvantages: Enemy (Napoleon) [-10]; Impulsiveness [-10]; Reputation -1 (As "the freest woman in Europe," to the morally conservative) [-2]; Social Stigma (Second-Class Citizen) [-5].

Quirks: Admires democracy and all things British; Extremely talkative; Prone to complimenting people in person, then reconsidering when they are out of earshot; Rash and passionate in her love affairs; Tends to be a "name-dropper" in conversation. [-5].

Skills: Acting-13 [1]; Area Knowledge (England)-13 [1/2]; Area Knowledge (France)-14 [1]; Area Knowledge (Germany)-13 [1/2]; Area Knowledge (Italy)-13 [1/2]; Area Knowledge (Paris)-14 [1]; Bard-16**† [1]; Carousing-8 [1/2]; Dancing-10 [2]; Detect Lies-12 [1]; Diplomacy-13† [1/2]; Fast-Talk-14 [2]; History-14 [4]; Literature-14 [4]; Poetry-13 [1]; Politics-14† [1/2]; Savoir-Faire-16**† [0]; Sex Appeal-11† [1]; Singing-12† [1]; Writing-15 [4].

* Includes +1 from Charisma.

** Free from Status.

† Includes +2 from Voice.

Languages: English-12 [1/2]; French (native)-15 [1]; German-12 [1/2].





Louis Bonaparte, *Napoleon from Corsica to St. Helena*

Elisa Bonaparte

Born on January 2, 1777, Elisa married the Corsican nobleman Fèlix Baciocchi. Napoleon made her Princess of Piombino (1805) and of Lucca (1806). As Grand Duchess of Tuscany (1809 onwards), she had substantial influence on that state's administration and assisted Joachim Murat's plots. After Napoleon's downfall, she retired to Trieste, dying on August 7, 1820.

Louis Bonaparte

Born on September 2, 1778, Louis served as an aide to Napoleon on his Italian and Egyptian campaigns. He was unhappily married to Hortense de Beauharnais in 1802. Promoted to general (1804), and appointed Paris' governor (1805), Louis was created king of Holland (1806-1810). His concern for his Dutch subject earned him Napoleon's anger and he abdicated in 1810. Thereafter he lived variously in Austria, Switzerland, and Italy, writing historical memoirs. He died on July 25, 1846.

Pauline Bonaparte

Napoleon's most beautiful sister was born on October 20, 1780. Pauline's first husband, General Leclerc, died of yellow fever in San Domingo (1802). She married Prince Camillo Borghese of Rome (1803), but left him to live scandalously in Paris. Created Duchess of Guastalla (1806), she



Jérôme Bonaparte, *Scribner's Monthly* (1875)

angered Napoleon by slighting Empress Marie-Louise; he expelled her from his court (1810). She died in Florence on June 9, 1825.

Caroline Bonaparte

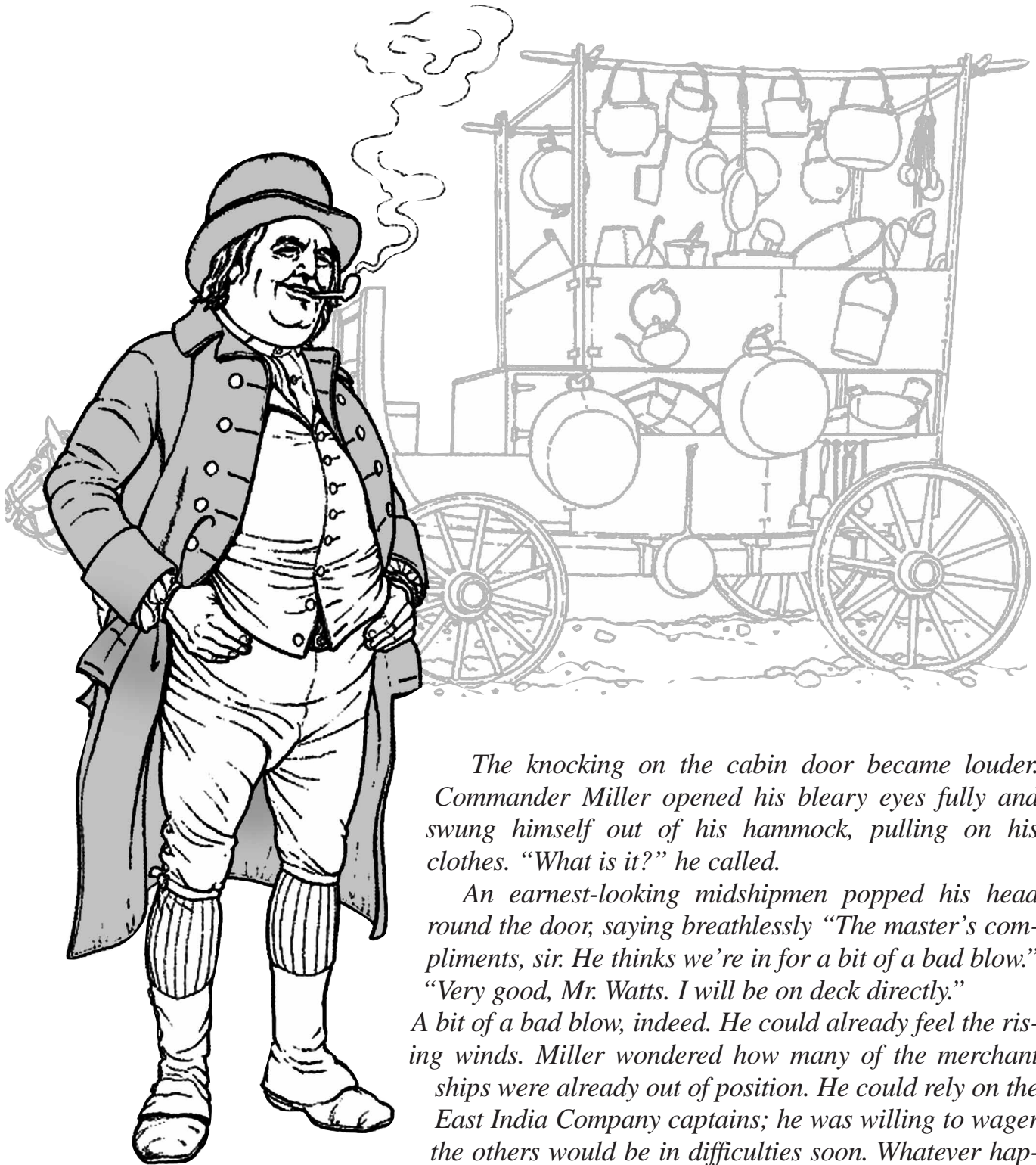
Caroline, born on March 25, 1782, married Joachim Murat (see p. 48) in 1800. Her ambitions spurred her husband to seek glory and honors, angering Napoleon when she failed to curb Murat's disloyalty to the Emperor. After Murat's execution, she found safety in Trieste. Caroline died on May 18, 1839.

Jérôme Bonaparte

Born on November 15, 1784, Jérôme served briefly in the Consular Guard and later in the French Navy. He deserted his ship in the West Indies, marrying the American Elizabeth Patterson in the United States (1803). Though they returned to Europe (1805), Napoleon expelled her from the Empire. Jérôme rejoined the navy, commanding a Mediterranean squadron until 1806. Napoleon annulled Jérôme's marriage, wed him to Princess Catherine of Württemberg, and installed him as king of Westphalia. Ineffective in Napoleon's Russian campaign, Jérôme commanded a division at Waterloo. He attained high office in 1847 during the Second Empire of Napoleon III (Napoleon Bonaparte's nephew). He died on June 24, 1860.



CHAPTER THREE



The knocking on the cabin door became louder. Commander Miller opened his bleary eyes fully and swung himself out of his hammock, pulling on his clothes. "What is it?" he called.

An earnest-looking midshipman popped his head round the door, saying breathlessly "The master's compliments, sir. He thinks we're in for a bit of a bad blow." "Very good, Mr. Watts. I will be on deck directly." A bit of a bad blow, indeed. He could already feel the rising winds. Miller wondered how many of the merchant ships were already out of position. He could rely on the East India Company captains; he was willing to wager the others would be in difficulties soon. Whatever happened, the navy would get the blame. Grimly, he grabbed his battered hat and left the cabin.



Though the French Revolution and Napoleon's empire would alter the lives of millions, work and leisure remained heavily influenced by social status. Accurate portrayal of the ordinary lives of peasants, colonists, aristocrats, and others will add verisimilitude to campaigns.

FOOD AND DRINK

The average European had three daily meals: breakfast, dinner, and supper. Breakfast, whether of bread and butter or tea and rolls, was eaten at 10 a.m. (in Britain), allowing the poor to perform morning tasks and the rich to call on friends. Dinner was the chief meal, eaten at 2 p.m., or as late as 5 p.m. by the rich. The poor ate their suppers around 9 p.m., while the rich might wait until after midnight, dining in a fashionable club.

To a great extent, diet was determined by wealth. The poor subsisted on bread. The English enjoyed more meat and "puddings" – boiled or steamed dishes. Sweet puddings included boiled fruit enclosed in a suet pastry crust and "plum duffs" (raisins or currants in a sweetened dough); savory puddings contained meat, game, or poultry. The French benefited from fresh vegetables. In Italy, pasta was supreme and supplemented with occasional veal, sausages, or poultry. Outside Italy, many considered tomatoes poisonous. Porridges and gruel, infrequently mixed with cabbage, leeks, or onions, were staple foods in eastern Europe. The potato was gaining importance. Gin, ale, beer, and wine were all popular in their localities, but trade outside the producing region was minimal. Tea and sugar slowly percolated downward through society.

The wealthy enjoyed more variety. A typical English squire might have a meal of salt beef or cold mutton and cabbage or carrots followed by a heavy pudding, and washed down with ale, port, or an infrequent contraband brandy. For less rustic palates, fish, oysters, game, cheeses, jellies, and fruit puddings provided a more diverse cuisine. Coffee and chocolate (sometimes called *jocalot*) were popular drinks among the well to do.

The truly refined and well to do followed France in matters of gastronomy. Cooks proliferated in aristocratic households, specializing in particular areas of cuisine. Preservation of seasonal foodstuffs became common. Every aspect of food preparation and presentation became an art. While individual dishes were masterworks, less consideration was (as yet) given to their mutual compatibility. The "French service" placing multiple dishes for each course on the table together was the norm throughout European high society. The smaller dishes (known as "removes") were replaced frequently during the principal courses of banquets. Cookbooks differentiated between recipes suitable for commoners (*cuisine bourgeoise*) and those appropriate for nobles (*cuisine des grands*).

As servants of the nobility, some cooks chose to flee France in the émigrés' train rather than risk the guillotine. Those who remained – and survived the Terror – relocated to the restaurants to pursue their vocations, and provided *haute cuisine* to the French middle classes.

Order and logic in flavors, textures, and colors were brought to French dishes by Marie-Antoine Carême, who was

variously employed by Talleyrand, Czar Alexander, and England's Prince Regent. His feasts were also noteworthy for elaborate confectionery creations that modeled classical architecture of every kind. The opulence was matched only by the accuracy of his displays. Carême's influence on gastronomy during the late Empire and the Bourbon Restoration was ensured via his published cookbooks.

CLOTHING

The 1770s witnessed the start of a series of changes in fashion. Silks, satins, and velvet waned in popularity against cottons. The bourgeoisie joined the nobility in following every twist in haute couture.

Well-to-do men throughout Europe dressed elegantly in the French style, wearing cutaway coats, embroidered waistcoats, knee breeches, and knee-high silk stockings. The bright decorated satins were replaced with more subdued and darker fabrics, with the embroidered patterns gradually disappearing from the clothing. Hair was worn long and tied in a "queue" at the back, powdered in blue or red during the 1770s in England. (Powdered hair virtually vanished in England following Pitt's 1795 powder tax, with only the most ardent antirevolutionaries maintaining the habit.) Small wigs were common during the 1780s. Cocked hats such as bicorns or tricorns dominated headgear until the 19th century. Shoes (with buckles and minimal heels) were the normal footwear for social occasions, though tight-fitting boots were more practical when riding or walking outdoors. Dress swords, snuff-boxes, walking sticks, and riding whips were all masculine accessories.

Regency England, under the influence of dandies such as "Beau" Brummel, became the world center of masculine culture. Top hats replaced cocked hats. The suit now consisted of a dark square-cut tailcoat, a waistcoat (almost obscured by the coat), and lighter-colored close-fitting pantaloons buckled at the ankle. Shirt collars were worn high, with a cravat wrapped around the neck and tied in a knot at the front. As waistcoat pockets were now unreachable, watch fobs were hung from the belt, and greater use was made of the coat's pockets.

For women, panier gowns dominated fashion until 1775. These consisted of a rigid corset and an oval framework petticoat that was tied at the waist using tapes. (Some paniers were collapsible for greater maneuverability!) The gown itself then flowed over corset and petticoat and was decorated with many ribbons and ruffles. True devotees of fashion wore powdered high wigs and much make-up, frequently to conceal smallpox marks. The English introduced a more restrained gown with a high waistline and less ornamentation. Skirts reached almost to the ground. This eventually became the accepted style, even in France. Graceful folding fans with bone or ivory handles and painted sides were essential feminine accessories to cool the owner and enhance her abilities at coquetry. Hats were large, made of straw or silk, and bedecked with ribbons and feathers. Worn at an angle, they were pinned to secure them during periods when high wigs were fashionable. High-heeled shoes were slowly replaced with flimsy slippers, made of satin for evening wear and leather for daywear.





Naismith, *Napoleon and Josephine*,
Library of Universal History

After the French Revolution, female fashion across Europe imitated the neoclassical styles of the Directory and the Empire. Thin and loose gowns with low necklines and high waists (even up to just below the bosom) were *de rigueur*. Corsets disappeared. During the Empire, opaque fabrics and sheath skirts replaced the translucent materials of the 1790s. Warm colorful overdresses, shawls, and pelisses were all worn to battle the cold. Natural coiffures, tending towards a wide mass of curls, replaced the Directory's plumed and beribboned chignons as the dominant hairstyles. The absence of pockets in the thinner dresses led to the appearance of reticules (small handbags) as a female accessory.

Girls wore dresses, resembling in shape the most comfortable adult gowns. Boys wore frilled shirts and ankle-length trousers.

For the laboring classes, the traditional male smocks and aprons of the 18th century yielded to trousers and breeches during the early 19th century. Shorter hair replaced long queues. For women, simpler cotton clothing became more available, supplanting the earlier bulky garments. In winter, cloaks and capes supplemented the lighter skirts and aprons. Plain caps and bonnets were worn as headgear.

ENTERTAINMENT

Fêtes and fairs provided diversions for all classes of society. Village fêtes interrupted the rural routine. Fairs were held regularly in major cities. These were general markets and many people found them a convenient excuse for a holiday. Some participants used them as opportunities for rioting and debauchery. Market stalls jostled with entertainment booths. Wild beasts and human and animal freaks astonished the onlookers, quacks sold elixirs to the credulous, and showmen performed their acts.

Violent sports were extremely popular. Although hunting and shooting were the preserve of the elite and the well-to-do, other sports such as fisticuffs, cockfighting, and (in Spain) bullfighting had broader appeal. Rich and poor alike bred fighting cocks in Britain with important tournaments (called "mains") being held at racetracks and reported in horse-racing journals. Gambling on the outcome of such events added extra excitement.

Indeed, gambling, often for high stakes, was the greatest vice of the era, indulged in by all classes of society and by both men and women. In the clubs, vast fortunes were wagered in games of whist, hazard, and loo. Although the influence of Methodism acted as a brake on gambling in Britain by 1800, it increased in popularity in the French Empire. Select clubs catered to the wealthy, while the *menu peuple* (see p. 64) frequented gaming-houses and billiard halls. Only dancing was a serious rival to gambling as the waltz, the quadrille, and the mazurka swept across the ballrooms of Europe.

On the seedier side, prostitutes were readily available in the larger cities – 30,000 worked in Paris. Although the Parisian prostitutes maintained a low profile during the Revolution, their presence was more visible, especially in the fashionable parts of the city, with the rise of the Directory.

More genteel pleasures were also available. The English upper classes went to Bath "to take the waters," bathing in and drinking the spring water during the morning as a cure for various illnesses, followed by walking, riding, and shopping in the afternoon, with shows and balls in the evening. The Parisian bourgeoisie went for strolls in the fashionable gardens and parks, attended the theatres to appreciate the latest opera or comedy, and visited the boulevard theatres preferred by the *menu peuple* to watch melodramas and low farces.

While Europe's upper classes shared a cosmopolitan culture in the arts (see pp. 88-91), fashion, and everyday pleasures, the lower classes were fractured along national lines, taking rude joy in popular poetry satirizing their social superiors and oral traditions of local heroes and rebels battling against the established order. Revolutions and nationalist revivals tapped this reservoir of discontent and patriotism.



TRAVEL BY LAND

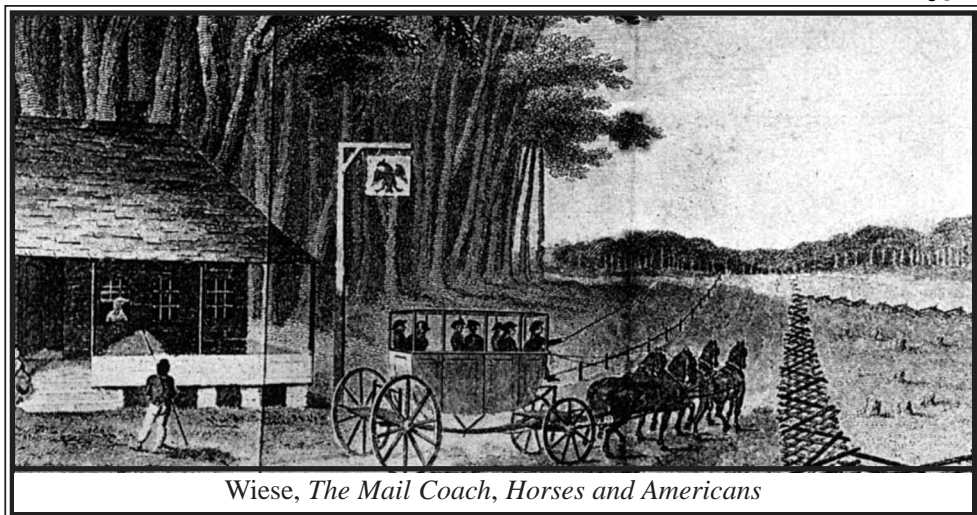
Only the wealthy traveled for leisure; everyone else on the roads journeyed for business reasons or out of necessity to avoid arrest or seek their fortune.

Wealth and status were reflected in the traveler's means of transportation. Those compelled by circumstances to use humbler modes than usual for their station often hid their rank to protect their reputations. The poor walked or hitched on a farmer's lumbering cart. Public stagecoaches provided faster travel for the well to do. Post-chaises could be hired by the rich for their exclusive use – some aristocrats and magnates owned their own. For shorter journeys, riding on horseback was practical.

Types of chaises and coaches varied. The post-chaise was a four-wheeled closed carriage with one front-facing seat large enough for three passengers. Luggage rested on a platform at the front. Post-chaises were drawn by two horses, one of which was ridden by the driver. The four-wheeled landau had an open top and seated four passengers inside on two facing benches. The driver had his own raised front seat outside to supervise the four horses. Lucky stagecoach passengers rode inside the coach itself; the unlucky clung to handrails while seated on the coach roof or suffered the buffeting of unsecured baggage in the luggage basket at the back of the stagecoach.

The treatment of travelers depended on their mode of transport – those owning their own horses or arriving by post-chaise received preferential service. Stagecoach passengers paid for their cheaper fares in indignities offered by disrespectful coachmen, turnpike wardens, and rude innkeepers and lack of choice in fellow passengers and schedules. All road travelers faced risk to life and property from highwaymen. Surrendering one's purse without attempting self-defense avoided violent revenge. Increasing road traffic was matched by rising numbers of highwaymen and better quality inns.

Road conditions, time of year, amount of traffic, and type of carriage all affected the cost and speed of travel. Turnpike tolls in Britain and internal customs in France raised the price of fares. Tolls, while popularly condemned for increasing food prices in rural areas, did enable faster travel in areas where the turnpike trustees used the toll revenues wisely. Roads were more passable in summer than winter, and so travel was both faster and cheaper. Travel to popular destinations was unsurprisingly cheaper than travel to more obscure places – on some main routes, the stagecoaches achieved swifter journeys by not stopping overnight at inns. Under poor conditions, an average day's travel by coach might be some 50 miles. By 1800, a stagecoach in Britain could expect to traverse over 100 miles per day. Post-chaise passengers paid four times as much per mile as stagecoach travelers.



Wiese, *The Mail Coach, Horses and Americans*

TRAVEL BY SEA

Sea travel was the preserve of professional seamen. Warships, privateers, and pirates cruised the sea lanes of the world. Whalers roved the Arctic Ocean, while fishing fleets sailed more temperate and inshore waters. Small merchant vessels shipped diverse cargoes around the coasts, obsolescent men of war with reduced armament served as troopships, and slavers profited in the Triangular Trade.

During times of peace, the owners of the swiftest ships reaped the greatest profits. In wartime, solitary vessels were easy prey for commerce-raiders. Hence, merchants petitioned their governments to provide naval escorts for convoys. Inexperienced (and incompetent) captains and crews would sail only during the day, delaying the others, and ignore signals from the guarding warships to maintain position and speed, exasperating the Navy officers. Woe betide the frigate captain, however, if privateers "cut out" any ships from the convoy.

While military necessity might require high-ranking officers, ambassadors, or spies to take passage on a naval ship, privately owned ships carried all other passengers, in addition to their normal cargo. Very few could afford the high cost of sea travel. A typical berth on an East Indiaman from England to India cost \$2,000; passage (but not food) on a Post Office mail packet to the West Indies cost \$262.50. The packets were, however, fast, crossing the Atlantic in an average of 45 days.

The majestic East Indiamen of the Honourable East India Company might take three to five months on the journey from England to India. Their schedules used the prevailing monsoon winds and avoided cyclones and typhoons in the Indian Ocean and South China Sea. Outward passage was best attempted between May and October, while homeward ships sailed between November and April. East Indiaman passengers enjoyed fine food and wines, but had to make do with "cabins" created with canvas partitions and endure the rude sounds and odors of a sailing ship. Stranded East Indiamen might be attacked off the African coast by natives or threatened by French privateers in the Indian Ocean. Between both perils was Cape Town, where the passengers visited Table Mountain and the zoological gardens while the captain awaited favorable winds.





MONEY AND TRADE

Although the Industrial Revolution was beginning in Britain, the measure of a nation's wealth was still its overseas trade with the other foreign powers and its own colonies. Merchants and bankers, rather than manufacturers, were the pre-eminent forces in the business world.

Until the start of the Revolutionary Wars, the struggle for international commerce was between Britain and France. Each imported cotton from North America, sugar from the West Indies, and precious metals and coffee from South America. In return, they exported manufactured goods to the colonies. Much of the new wealth came from the "triangular trade" of cottons and manufactured goods to West Africa, slaves from West Africa to the West Indies, and raw cotton, sugar, and tobacco from the West Indies to Europe.

Britain, Sweden, and Holland competed for the Baltic trade in wheat (from Poland), naval stores (such as timber and hemp), iron, and copper (from Russia and Sweden) to the seafaring powers. France held the upper hand in the Mediterranean. Cargoes of manufactured goods, textiles, and fish were exported to the Levant in return for wine, silk, spices, tea, and coffee. In the Indian Ocean, Britain's victories in the Seven Years' War had yielded it sole control of the Indian silk and calico trade, while Holland remained paramount in the Spice Islands (the Moluccas) and Indonesia generally.

Chartered companies such as the Honourable East India Company and the Dutch East India Company continued to exert significant influence in commerce. International financiers specializing in particular goods, wholesale trade, insurance, or banking played a greater role.

In Britain, by 1800, there were 70 commercial banks (frequented by merchants and speculators) and 300 "country" banks (serving the wealthier classes), able to take deposits, pay interest, lend money, and discount bills (see p. 105). In 1773, trade in stocks and shares moved from Jonathan's Coffee-house in Change Alley to the Stock Exchange in London's Threadneedle Street. Share speculation, its reputation long tarnished as a consequence of the "South Sea Bubble" disaster of 1720, became respectable again, although bad investments or accusations of corrupt business practices could condemn one to debtor's prison or worse. Elsewhere in Europe, there were banks concentrating on commercial financing. Paper bills and currency had supplanted shipments of bullion as the accepted medium of exchange.

The capital of the world's money markets remained Amsterdam until it was displaced by London as a consequence of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars.

CRIME AND PUNISHMENT

Crime was rampant throughout Europe.

England suffered the depredations of pickpockets, highwaymen, and footpads. Seeming respectability allowed pickpockets to ply their trade everywhere. The highwaymen terrorized the occupants of stagecoaches, but rarely murdered their victims, unlike the footpads, who robbed and killed for trifling sums.

Chronic brigandage afflicted rural France until the late Empire. The Revolution and the Empire added rebels and army deserters to the ragged bands of landless peasants, mixing counter-revolution and acts of terrorism to traditional pillaging. Empire criminals such as "Coco" (Barthélemy Lacour), the master of disguise, Desnoyers, and Desfossieux (the era's Houdini) became infamous. "Coco" and others were eventually recruited by François-Eugène Vidocq, a former criminal and jail-breaker, to staff the Paris criminal police.

Smuggling, or "the Trade," became more prolific during the war years following rising excise duties and the naval blockades. In spite of informers and military support, the English Revenue Service was unable to stop the cross-Channel traffic. Many European officials simply ignored the prohibitions of Napoleon's Continental System, conniving at the illicit trade with England.

Punishments were usually harsh. Branding was common for minor offenses. However, prisoners could usually bribe the jailer to use a cold iron for the "branding." Whippings (of prostitutes), floggings (see p. 80), and the pillory were all common English sentences for "misdemeanors." Felonies, i.e., crimes of theft or violence, were punishable by hanging, with the

SLAVES AND SLAVERY

Slavery and slave raids were practiced throughout Africa. Women and children were preferred by African slave owners for labor and marriage. Captured men (usually from the interior) were either killed or sold to the coastal tribes of West Africa. European slave traders landed at the ports to buy slaves in bulk and load them onto waiting ships to make "the Middle Passage" (of the triangular trade) to the Americas.

The slaves were chained to wooden bunks in the hold, either on their backs ("loose packing") or on their sides ("tight packing"), fed once per day, and infrequently permitted exercise on deck. Bodily wastes were washed out with buckets of seawater once a fortnight at most. The voyage lasted up to two months, with a tenth to a quarter of the slaves dying en route. Half the slavers themselves usually died, often from diseases contracted in Africa or on board.

On arrival, the surviving slaves were sold at auction and then delivered to their new owners. Many imported slaves perished of New World diseases in their first two years of service. On the Caribbean islands, slaves were employed on sugar plantations, where their lives were governed by fellow slaves appointed as foremen and European overseers running the estates on behalf of absentee landlords. Slave labor worked the silver mines in Central America and the coffee farms of Brazil. In the American colonies, slaves were employed in rice and indigo farming in the swamps of the south, on rafts in the north, and in tobacco cultivation in Virginia. Eli Whitney's cotton gin and the Louisiana Purchase increased the demand for slaves in the new American territories.

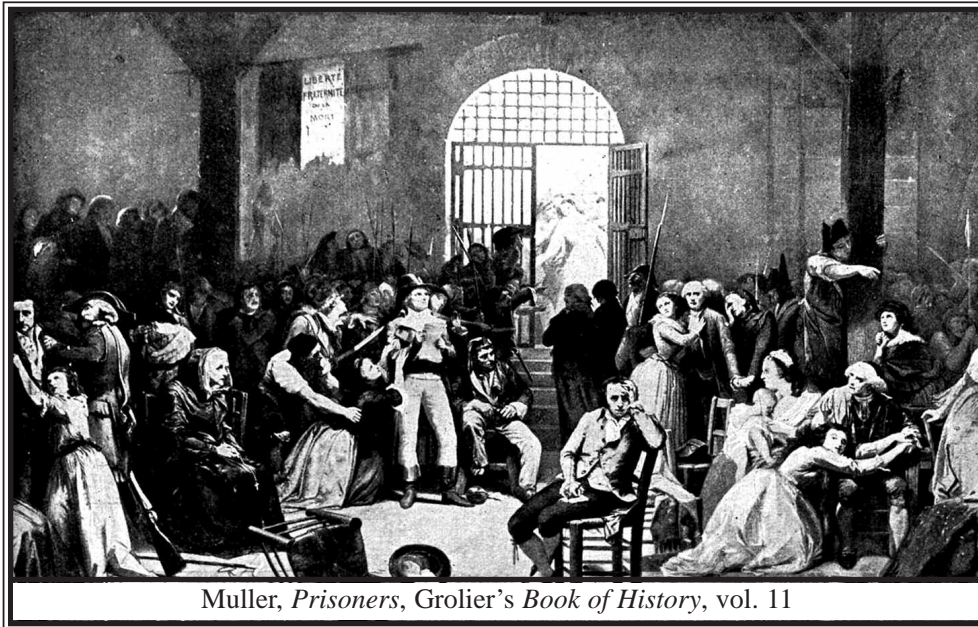
On large plantations, the slaves had their own quarters and maintained their culture. Elsewhere they lived in their owners' homes or shops in slightly better conditions but at the expense of their cultural identity. Farm foremen had separate cabins, privileges, and possessions, but their role as disciplinarians ensured their isolation from other slaves.

Major opposition to slavery began in Britain in the 1780s, resulting in the abolition of the slave trade to British colonies in 1807. The rebel colonies of Spanish America followed suit between 1810 and 1812. Existing slaves were not, however, freed until much later. In the United States, the importation of slaves was outlawed in 1808, but smuggling and slavery itself continued in the southern states.



condemned marching in public procession to Tyburn Tree in London until 1783. (Thereafter, felons were publicly executed outside Newgate prison.) Once a criminal had been executed (“turned off” in period slang), the corpse was taken by surgeons for dissection. A death sentence might be commuted to transportation to the American colonies (until they declared independence) or to Australia (from 1787). Representations of a defendant’s previous good character often secured a pardon from hanging.

Criminals in Bourbon France were variously sentenced to branding, a term of indenture as an oarsman on the galleys (seeing service in the Mediterranean against North African pirates), or public hanging. Where there was insufficient evidence, a royal *lettre de cachet* could condemn a suspect to indefinite imprisonment (such as in the Bastille). Revolutionary France introduced the “humane” guillotine for capital offences, while Napoleon exported many miscreants to Devil’s Island and French Guiana.



Muller, *Prisoners*, Grolier’s *Book of History*, vol. 11

English criminals might endure a year’s imprisonment before their trials. Prisons were cramped, with sleeping quarters resembling dungeons and small day-rooms and exercise yards. Living conditions were filthy, inmates were chained to the walls by their wrists and ankles, food was minimal, jail fevers were frequently fatal, and behavior in mixed prisons was debauched. The turnkeys stole (or acquired as bribes) prisoners’ clothes and possessions. The “hulks,” dismantled and decrepit warships moored on the Thames or in harbors, were worse. Hundreds of prisoners were held in the darkness of their enlarged holds. Gunports were sealed to prevent escape; air and light was admitted infrequently through guarded hatchways on the deck. (To avoid infection, captives must make a HT roll for each day of imprisonment. GMs may modify the rolls per p. B133).

Revolutionary France’s prisons were makeshift and easy to escape from – careful bribery gained inmates better accommodation or luxuries. Add freedom of movement within the jail itself, and the fears of “prison plots” to overthrow the Revolution seem all too plausible.

RELIGION

Religion was still a potent force in 18th-century Europe, though actual faith was strongest among the lower classes. Many of the upper classes attended religious services out of duty or good manners rather than belief.

The established churches fulfilled many roles in society – popular education, running hospitals, and almsgiving to the poor – as well as conducting religious services. The Protestant national churches of Britain, Scandinavia, and the northern German states remained subservient to the state. The Catholic monarchs of Spain and the Italian states were intent on limiting the Papacy by acquiring the rights to appoint bishops themselves and to veto the promulgation of Papal bulls in their dominions. The French had previously won similar freedoms.

Religious minorities were present in every nation. More

than a million Calvinists lived in southern and southwestern France; in return for freedom of worship and civil rights, they remained loyal to the French crown.

In Britain, the Protestant Dissenters were influential in the new industrial towns, especially as advocates of better conditions for their inhabitants. John Wesley’s Methodists, who split from the Church of England after his death in 1791, gained some 70,000 morally earnest converts through lively preaching. Catholics remained a tiny minority in mainland Britain, but were no longer openly persecuted, though they were denied access to education,

military commissions, and land ownership.

Jewish communities were scattered throughout Europe. The smaller Sephardic grouping became westernized, lived in major cities, and were (modestly) wealthy through trade and finance. The Ashkenazi Jews who had emigrated west from Poland maintained their Eastern European identity and stayed poor. In central and eastern Europe, Jews were required to live in segregated ghettos, limited to financial careers or peddling, and required to pay special taxes.

Rulers and governments became increasingly tolerant of religious minorities. The last heretic died by the *auto-da-fé* (public burning) in Spain in 1781. Joseph II of Austria granted most Protestants and Orthodox Christians citizenship and eliminated most of the restrictions on Jews. In 1787, Protestants received full freedom of worship in France. Legal Roman Catholic chapels were opened in London from 1792. Even in the Ottoman Empire, Orthodox Greeks were tolerated as long as they did not conspire with foreign powers to attain independence.





SOCIAL CLASSES

Nobility

Throughout Europe, the aristocracy formed an elite, second only to royalty. While tens of thousands claimed noble titles and ancient lineage on the Continent, only a few possessed the wealth and lifestyle marking the true aristocrat. In Great Britain, a severely restricted peerage meant that the nobility consisted of perhaps 400 titled families with incomes of \$50,000 (£10,000) or more. The 4,000 *grand seigneurs* of France (like the 700 Spanish *grandees* and *titulos*) were less wealthy than their British equals but enjoyed more lavish lifestyles at Versailles.

Power and privilege varied across Europe. French nobles enjoyed tax exemption and received feudal dues, but were excluded from power. Spanish and German nobles received tax exemptions, feudal dues, and significant jurisdiction in local affairs. Parts of Italy remained medieval, with government dominated by the aristocracy. In Prussia and Russia, the rulers granted the nobility substantial local jurisdiction and control over their peasants and serfs in return for state service. In Great Britain, nobles and commoners were equal before the law, save for the hundred peers who held seats in the House of Lords.

British nobles enriched themselves through agriculture, commerce, industry, and high office, being unrestricted in their careers. Some received overseas posts or Secret Service

DUELLING

As the wearing of sidearms became rare in civilian life, duelling declined substantially, though personal and political disputes still occasioned affairs of honor. Duelling was illegal almost everywhere, except Malta and some parts of the United States – usually participating in a duel did not lead to arrest, but killing an opponent risked a murder charge. In many parts of Europe where laws against duelling were enforced, including Portugal (where it was punishable by transportation to Africa), the Scandinavian kingdoms, Russia (until the accession of Czar Alexander I), and the German states (until 1800), duelling virtually disappeared. Duelling remained popular in Italy, Spain, and Ireland.

In Britain, a duellist who killed his opponent was liable to be tried as a murderer, unless he could prove that he was provoked and had struck or fired in self-defense, i.e., his opponent had attacked first. Even then, he was charged with manslaughter. Military officers who indulged in duels were cashiered or court-martialed (see pp. 73).

In the United States, challenges were frequently “posted” if the challenged party avoided a duel, with denunciations being printed in the local newspaper and on posters in public places. Duels in America tended to be to the death.

Despite Louis XVI’s disdain for duellists, frivolous disputes frequently led to duels between military officers in France. Such duels were seldom fought to the death. During the Revolution, duelling was deemed an aristocratic vice and fell into total disfavor, only to return with the establishment of the Directory. Pistols were now the weapon of choice for civilians, while the military adopted the saber. Duelling continued under the Consulate and the Empire, although survivors risked Napoleon’s displeasure.

The Code Duello

Duels were formal affairs, even to the extent of being regulated by the Code Duello (drawn up in Ireland in 1777), which was generally followed, albeit with variations in Europe and America. They involved principals (the men with the quarrel), seconds (their representatives, who had the responsibility of ensuring the propriety of the duel), and a surgeon to tend to the wounded afterwards. The seconds also decided how to apply and modify the Code’s in any particular duel.

Following an insult, an accusation of being a cheat, a liar, or a coward, an ungentlemanly blow, or a slur on a lady’s reputation, a man of honor might feel compelled to “call out” another. This challenge may be simply stated in words, e.g., “Sir, I demand satisfaction. You are a cheat and a liar.”

After the challenge, the seconds meet first to attempt a reconciliation between the principals (allowing hasty words to be smoothed over with carefully worded apologies). If no reconciliation is possible, the seconds arrange the details of the duel, including where and when it is to be held. (An Area Knowledge roll might be useful to find a convenient place and discover how

tolerant the local authorities are of duelling.) According to the Code, the challenged may choose his own weapon (swords or pistols), unless the challenger states that he is “no swordsman.” (Pistols had supplanted swords as the weapon of choice.)

On the appointed day, the challenged party chooses his ground and the challenger chooses the distance (from 7 to 20 yards). The seconds fix the terms of firing and the number of exchanges of fire required. The seconds load the pistols with a single charge of smooth gunpowder and one ball. (In severe cases, the seconds will give their principals two pistols and retain a third loaded pistol in reserve.)

The principals stand facing each other. At a signal or word of command from one of the seconds (or occasionally at the principals’ convenience), they ready their pistols and fire. Decide which duelist acts first by a Quick Contest of DX, with Combat Reflexes granting a +1. A tie means simultaneous firing. A cool duellist may spend a second or two aiming, even allowing his opponent to fire first, in the hopes that the other will rush his shot and miss. (A hit will penalize the duellist’s return fire; see pp. B126-127.) Firing quickly will incur snap shot penalties, while taking aim will provide bonuses (see pp. B115-116). Taking time to aim for a killing shot can generate a negative Reputation; this may influence a jury if the case goes to court. Some combatants might choose to aim for a specific body location to ensure a (non)-life-threatening injury (see p. B109). Using Dodge in a pistol duel will be deemed cowardly. Although the Code prohibits firing one’s pistol into the air (“deloping”), a duellist might do so to avoid killing an opponent, who should be grateful for such mercy.

According to the Code, once the principals had taken up their positions, no apology could be given or received until there had been at least one exchange of fire. Insults, accusations of cheating, and undivulged causes required one exchange. Accusations of lying (the “lie direct”) required at least two exchanges, while any insult to a lady was treated as an offence of one degree greater severity than if it had been given to a gentleman. The person who gave the first offense could apologize after the minimum number of exchanges; alternatively the other principal could explain his retort to the initial insult after a further exchange of fire and the first principal could then apologize. Where the offense was the “lie direct” and no reconciliation had been achieved after three shots each, the duellists could continue to fire until one principal sustained severe injury.

No verbal apology was sufficient if the offense was a blow. Instead the principals exchanged three shots each (before the aggressor could beg pardon), or continued to fire until one or both were disabled.

Misfirings, fumbles, and weapon malfunctions all counted as shots.

Sword duels were to first blood or until at least one combatant was “well blooded,” disabled, or disarmed, according to the severity of the quarrel.





pensions (see p. 85) to avoid poverty. Outside Britain, aristocrats received lucrative government, military, and ecclesiastical positions. While engaging in retail or manual trades could forfeit status and privileges, agriculture, mining, and overseas trade were usually permissible.

With a host of servants in the great houses – footmen, maidservants, cooks, gardeners, and coachmen – a life of unlimited leisure was possible for the truly wealthy. Most European nobles went on the Grand Tour of France and Italy (see p. 123), absorbing the culture and/or indulging in vice and dissipation for up to a year, making friends abroad, and acquiring foreign languages. At home, the aristocracy could enjoy witty conversation in the salons and coffee-houses, gamble in the clubs, and patronize the arts.

Entry into the nobility was difficult. While the great English landowning families allied with commoners who had become wealthy through speculation, trade, or the professions, continental aristocrats were less willing to marry “new money.” Purchase of titles permitted a trickle of new arrivals into the mostly closed continental castes.

Gentry

Below the true aristocracy came the gentry of Britain and the rural lesser nobility of continental Europe.

The British gentry numbered less than 1,000 baronets and knights (with incomes of \$15,000 [£3,000]) and 4,000 squires (with incomes of \$10,000 [£2,000]). A host of “gentlemen,” little better than tenant farmers, provided the bulk of the English rural middle class. Although lacking legal privileges, the gentry filled the country constituencies of the House of Commons and served as local judges. Most country squires were ill-educated and uncouth, spending their time working on their estates, shooting, hunting, fishing, and drinking.

Across the English Channel, the lesser nobility were much more numerous. In 1800, half a million Spaniards, or 1/20 of the population, were rural *hidalgos*, entitled to be called “Don.” In France prior to the Revolution, the provincial minor nobility, the *hobereaux*, numbered about 400,000. This inflation was partly a consequence of all children of a noble inheriting their parent’s status, rather than only the eldest surviving son as in Britain.

While the British aristocracy rubbed shoulders with the gentry and the squires, the *hidalgos* and *hobereaux* were largely ignored by their superiors and had little influence on government. Instead they stayed on their tiny estates, scratching a meager living from the land, and were often no wealthier than their peasant neighbors and tenants. However they enjoyed exemptions from many taxes, collected feudal dues, and retained ancient privileges such as wearing swords openly and (for Spanish *hidalgos*) immunity from arrest for debts.

Lack of disposable income ensured most *hobereaux* were unable to participate in commercial ventures. Lack of social standing and family connections denied them high office in government, the church, or the military. In Spain, the *hidalgos* could forfeit their status if they engaged in commerce or industry. Understandably, the rural nobility were highly conservative traditionalists.

Clergy

The clergy mostly reflected the aristocratic dominance of society.

In France from 1783 to the Revolution, every single bishop was noble-born. Moreover, aristocratic churchmen were appointed to the wealthiest livings or became abbots of well-endowed monasteries. High social rank also conferred rapid promotion in the church hierarchy. The Catholic Church in France was not required to pay taxes, but could levy its own tithes on the faithful and was corporately the largest landowner in the country. In Austria and Belgium, the Church possessed an even larger share of the land. In Britain, bishoprics in the Church of England earned their holders from \$2,500 to \$35,000 annually and entitled many to seats in the House of Lords. Spain was different – its bishops were predominantly commoners and lacked great personal riches.

Spain excepted, most prelates of the European established churches concentrated on their worldly prerogatives and political affairs rather than their spiritual duties. Many bishops in Britain and France preferred the capitals to their sees and responsibilities such as confirmation tours. (Louis XVI ordered his bishops back to their dioceses.) Atheism presented no barrier to some ambitious churchmen. However, enough zealous clergy existed to preserve the churches from complete discredit.

The bulk of the clergy, whether French *curés*, Spanish parish priests, or English vicars, survived on much smaller incomes. Most rural *curés* lived on tithes or an annual stipend of \$300, barely more than their parishioners earned. The Spanish clergy were often as poor and as ignorant as their peasant congregations. Many English parsons supplemented their annual benefices of \$300 by working as local schoolmasters or through “plurality” (holding multiple livings). Unlike their continental counterparts, they were welcome in the society of the gentry and local squires, enjoyed similar status, and often partook of country pursuits.

The clergy represented a significant portion of the populace – 20,000 in Spain, 65,000 in Austria, and 130,000 in France. Although religious houses still proliferated across Europe (Austria, France, and Spain each had 2,000 to 3,000 such communities), monasticism was in retreat as envious monarchs seized the lands of the contemplative orders. The Catholic sovereigns, having first expelled the Jesuits from their domains, forced Pope Clement XIV to disband the order in 1773.

Townsfolk

The commoners who formed the urban populations divided into several social classes primarily based on wealth: the burghesses, the “lower orders,” and the criminal classes. Defoe described them as “the rich, the poor, and the miserable.”

Bourgeoisie

In Napoleon’s lifetime, the title of “bourgeois” was not a pejorative one; rather it indicated a property-owner and full citizen of a town or city. Burghesses included professionals (particularly lawyers), manufacturers, merchants, important officials, and in France the *rentier* class who lived off pensions and other fixed incomes.





Expanding trade with the overseas colonies, particularly in sugar and slaves, was responsible for the new affluence of the merchant classes. Industrial growth in terms of increased coal, cast-iron, and textile production enriched the manufacturers. Factories still remained an exception, with work being “farmed” out to master craftsmen and their journeymen.

Across Europe, but particularly in France, their new wealth encouraged the burgesses to seek a share in the privileges of the aristocracy and influence in politics. Even if they were unable to purchase a title of nobility, the wealthy could still “live nobly” in fine mansions and new estates, sometimes with greater extravagance than many “blue-blooded” families.

The hyperinflation of Revolutionary France drove the *rentier* class into poverty; the later English blockades and colonial losses ruined merchants who had invested in overseas trade. However, bankers and speculators discovered new opportunities to become rich at the expense of successive regimes. Both the Consulate and the Empire offered the bourgeoisie careers in Napoleon’s armies and bureaucracy.

The “Lower Orders”

Next in social status were the “lower orders” of England, known as the *menu peuple* in France and *popolino* in Italy. These were the largest segment of the urban population and included shopkeepers, master craftsmen, journeymen, apprentices, skilled laborers, and servants. Shopkeepers received greater respect in England than elsewhere.

The social status of the master craftsmen was in decline, as changing circumstances and regulations eroded the traditional prerogatives of the surviving guilds. Despite their struggles, the craftsmen lost ground to their former bourgeois equals as they steadily became simply skilled workers for the manufacturers who supplied their raw materials and marketed their finished

products. Independent craftsmen involved in making luxury goods for the aristocracy and the rich were better able to sustain their social standing.

Apprenticeship in the crafts remained a lengthy and rigorous process of training. In France, journeymen were supposed to undertake the “Tour de France” to gain experience under multiple masters. Associations such as the *compagnonnages* assisted journeymen in these travels as well as protecting their interests. The old regulations were frequently flouted as masters often employed up to 100 apprentices and journeymen, and the coveted elevation to master was increasingly granted only to their relatives.

Tradesmen, craft workers, and others lived in the same city districts, dressed similarly, and spent their modest incomes on bread, beer or wine, firewood, and occasionally some meat. Internal squabbles among the lower orders were forgotten whenever threats to trade in general or the food supply occurred. Violent protests and food riots were their common solution.

Riffraff

For those lacking useful skills, life was “nasty, brutish, and short.” Respectable members of society, including the shopkeepers and laborers, despised the riffraff of society, dismissing them as the criminal classes.

Casual workers, the utterly destitute, vagrants, and beggars mingled with thieves, thugs, and common prostitutes in the crowded suburbs of Paris and other cities. Their sheer number gave the rudimentary city police forces and administrations cause for grave concern. A sixth to a quarter of the population of large cities such as London, Paris, Strasbourg, and Toulouse received some form of charitable relief in the 1780s and 1790s.

A TALE OF TWO CITIES

Life in London

London was the largest city in all of Europe, with between 750,000 and 1,000,000 residents. As seat of government, home of the monarchy, center for commerce and finance, and the principal British port, it was growing rapidly and haphazardly. Cramped houses formed narrow streets darkened by overhanging shop signs. Carriages jostled to make headway through bustling throngs of noisy pedestrians. Despite regular legislation to improve the state of the streets, filth was still slopped down the central gutters of the cobbled roads. Public drunkenness and whoring were less common than in previous decades, but the streets remained dangerous, with brawls frequent and footpads prowling at night. The city lacked a police force throughout the period.

Shops were plentiful and opulent, with wares publicly displayed in the windows. Customers were advised not to haggle in the better shops, as the shopkeepers increasingly adopted fixed prices and refused to sell their goods for less. Hordes of street-sellers hawked fruit, vegetables, and other produce.

London boasted thousands of alehouses and coffee-houses. Some of the latter had specialized clientele, such as Almack’s, habituated by gamblers, Peele’s, St James’, and the Turk’s Head, which catered to writers and wits, and White’s, which attracted sportsmen. The Drury Lane and Covent Garden theatres could each seat rowdy audiences of several thousand. During cold winters when the Thames froze, frost fairs were held on the river. The last was held during the 1813-1814 winter. Afterward, the old London Bridge was demolished and the more freely flowing Thames failed to freeze.

Life in Paris

With 650,000 inhabitants, Paris was the heart of France, and probably the cultural capital of the European world, as noble scions of every nationality congregated in its salons, theatres, and restaurants during their Grand Tour. While the great aristocrats enjoyed their palaces, and the wealthy bourgeois lived nobly in their new residences, most of the ordinary commoners were crowded into old *faubourgs* (neighborhoods) on the banks of the river Seine and the Ile de la Cité. The hundreds of shopkeepers and minor craftsmen of the *faubourg* Saint-Antoine (on the right bank of the Seine) would provide the Revolution with its most radical *sans-culottes*. The Cité was home to the goldsmiths, jewelers, watchmakers, and others who serviced Parisian demands for luxury items.

Prior to the Revolution, the French police exercised the will of the monarch as well as maintaining law and order, regulating food supplies and prices, censoring subversive literature, and inspecting prisons, buildings, and streets. Paris’ police *commissaires* served as administrators and judges for the city’s 20 districts. The *inspecteurs* investigated crimes and analyzed the information received from spies and informers. The *exempts* enforced order and were supported by several hundred foot soldiers, archers, and mounted police who proactively patrolled the streets. *Mouchards*, or secret police, also reported on the citizenry, using a network of informers drawn from the ranks of prostitutes, servants, and criminals, and through the interception of mail. Daily summary reports from the lieutenant-general of police were sent to the king.



In England, parishes were expected to provide for the needs of their own poor from the “rates” they collected from the middle classes. Indeed, unfortunates who became destitute elsewhere were shipped back to their home parishes. Up to 1782, the able-bodied were, like the old, sick, orphans, and unmarried mothers, sent to parish workhouses and contracted out to road-builders as cheap labor. After 1782, the able-bodied were classified as vagrants, imprisoned in houses of correction rather than the workhouse, and driven into crime.

Peasants

Village society could be extremely self-contained, even inbred. Villagers fed and clothed themselves, living in primitive hovels and thatched stone cottages with at most two rooms, low ceilings, earthen floors, and small “windows” – holes in the wall.

Rural life was unremitting labor from dawn to dusk on the farm – or in the workshop, for artisans such as smiths or potters. Payment was usually in kind, with trade between villages being rare; nearby towns provided markets for surplus produce and a break from drudgery.

Parts of northern and western Europe underwent an agricultural revolution involving improved crop rotations, which avoided fallow fields, and new crops such as the potato. In Britain, experimentation led to increased soil yields and fatter livestock. Common lands dwindled through the legal process of “enclosure,” where landlords gained the power to build fences and grow hedges around meadows and pastures, thus denying local communities grazing rights on those plots between harvesting and sowing. Enclosure required an Act of Parliament – but most landlords had sufficient influence to arrange that (see p. 121). The result was enlarged estates and the eventual elimination of yeoman smallholders in favor of great landlords, well-to-do farmers, and farm laborers. Many yeoman families ended up in workhouses or London slums.

In France, agricultural progress was limited after 1771 due to aristocratic apathy and fear of peasant revolts. Instead the peasantry remained in poverty, over-taxed by their government, and subjected to traditional feudal obligations. Many peasants supplemented their incomes through domestic industry such as growing raw silk or finishing off textiles.

Elsewhere in western Europe, peasants either worked as laborers on great estates, as in southern Spain and parts of Italy, or owned small farms, as in northern Spain, the Netherlands, and Scandinavia. Feudal dues such as quit-rents, church tithes, and “fines” on inheritances, plus noble monopolies on hunting and fishing, were variously enforced to the benefit of the nobility and detriment of the villagers.

Except in Denmark and on some French ecclesiastical estates, serfdom was extinct west of the Elbe. In Prussia, Poland, the Austrian Empire, Russia, and the Ottoman Empire, serfdom flourished and the rural populations endured the imposition of feudal duties and labor services. In Russia, the serfs were bound to the land and its owner, creating a caste of virtual slaves.

LIFE IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES

Everyday Essentials

The American colonials were taller, healthier, and longer-lived than their European counterparts, due mostly to their better and more varied diet. The mainstays were pork and beef, boiled, broiled, and in stews and pies, supplemented with vegetables, corn, bread, and fruit. The absence of game laws allowed colonists to enjoy venison and wildfowl. Dietary snobbery had vanished, so foods (such as oysters) elsewhere considered fit only for the poor were welcome dishes for the rich. Coffee, chocolate, and “small beer” (a poor quality and very weak beer) were the most popular drinks – tea became unpatriotic in this era and wine was an expensive import.

Clothing was expensive, with many settlers owning only one or two complete sets of clothes. Heavy and hard-wearing materials were preferred, with aprons worn on top to protect the clothes during work. Women wore full-length shifts, long skirts, and bodices. Capes, cloaks, and hats were worn as protection against the weather. Men wore leather vests and aprons over shirts and breeches while working. On the frontier, buckskin breeches and jackets were common. Formal dress followed French fashions.





Houses ranged from one-room huts to elaborate manor houses with separate kitchen and bedroom wings. Most had wattle and daub or wooden walls constructed around a supporting frame; a few were made of brick. Roofs were thatched or shingled; floors were covered with pine heartwood boards. In the northern colonies, chimneys were central to the structure and ceilings were low to preserve heat, while southern residences had high ceilings and peripheral chimneys to lose heat. Glazed sash windows and candles provided illumination, with interiors being whitewashed or painted in bright colors to make the rooms lighter.

Marriage and Children

Couples met and courted at church, horse races, or dances. Marriage, however, was a business arrangement requiring the consent of both families. Spouses were usually in their mid- to late 20s when they first married. Widows and widowers remarried quickly, as single life was rarely practical.

Up to half of all women died in childbirth or of related complications. Infant mortality was equally severe. Age 11 was considered a landmark beyond which a child could expect long life. Children were taught to read, write, and do simple arithmetic in addition to a trade. (The Protestant belief that the faithful needed to be able to read the Bible themselves was a key spur to ensuring literacy.) Upper-class children received a broader education from private tutors, and young men might be sent to the American colleges for a university degree.

Occupations

Most settlers were planters with farms of up to 250 acres. Agriculture lagged behind English techniques, relying on the "mound" system, wherein earth was piled up into mounds and planted simultaneously with corn, beans, and squash, rather than full field plantings and crop rotation. Livestock roamed wild; fowl were raised in hen houses and enclosed yards. Fishing and furs provided incomes for many.

Skilled labor was scarce. Freed from the strictures of the guilds, craftsmen could achieve master status, acquire wealth, and become planters themselves, training apprentices, indentured, servants or slaves in their skills for hire to their neighbors. Blacksmiths, shoemakers, and coopers were paramount, though leatherworkers, metalworkers, and weavers all made respectable livings. Nearly all men were required to be available for militia service.

Prior to the American Revolution, these artisans mostly repaired goods that were manufactured in and imported from England. Likewise, many raw materials were exported to England. Planters and colonial merchants corresponded regularly with the officials ("factors") of British mercantile houses on business and other matters.

English coinage was scarce, owing to a prohibition on local mints. Hence, barter was common in frontier territories, whereas letters of credit and bills of exchange were preferred in the cities. Foreign currency could be substituted at official rates, and some colonies printed paper money to ease cash flow.

Entertainment

The colonial era did not witness much first-class indigenous art, music, or literature. Nevertheless, Americans enjoyed all three, commissioning paintings and importing engravings from England. Musical accomplishments, such as singing or proficiency with wind instruments (for men) or stringed instruments (for women), were admired. Dancing was taken seriously; balls might last several days. Minuets, Scottish reels, and country dances were all popular. Puritan hostility forestalled local theatrics, but traveling English troupes performed popular plays and operas. Subscription libraries with hundreds of volumes appeared in the cities and many wealthy planters owned large book collections.

Crime and Punishment

Criminals were tried according to English common law and received the benefits of being presumed innocent until proven guilty, the right to counsel (if they could afford lawyers), and trial by jury. Unlike England, few felons received death sentences, owing to the shortage of labor. Fines, the pillory, and floggings were the prevailing punishments. Malefactors were normally branded on their right thumbs as a permanent record of their offenses.

NABOBS OF THE INDIES

The word "nabob" was a corruption of the Indian title "nawab," held by viceroys of the Mughal Empire. In English usage, the Nabobs were those who had amassed great fortunes while working for (and frequently at the expense of) the Honourable East India Company. On their return to Britain, many bought their way into Parliament via a "rotten borough" (see p. 121). Even the officers of the East Indiamen ships could become wealthy; the company permitted them space on board for their private cargoes according to their rank. A successful captain could easily retire on the profits of three or four voyages, if he chose his goods carefully.

In India itself, the potential gains both from honest commerce and bribes were much greater. So were the opportunities to squander one's earnings in luxurious living, in entertaining native-born and often mercenary mistresses, or in evenings at the gaming tables. Naturally, gentlemen affected complete uninterest in money matters, leaving the management of their finances and daily expenses to native-born *sircars* (brokers), who made recourse to moneylenders when expenses exceeded incomes.

Living well in Company-ruled cities such as Bombay or Madras meant renting expensive bungalows, purchasing costly imported furniture, and employing an army of servants (sometimes over 100) for menial tasks. The magistrates were frequently required to sentence insubordinate servants to corporal punishment (by rattan cane).

Company factors were manicured and shaved by their servants before a breakfast of tea and toast. Unsuitably dressed (for the climate) and wearing the customary wig, the factor would travel to the office in a palanquin borne by native bearers or in a carriage. After working in the morning for three hours, he would return home for dinner at 2 p.m. Ladies would ride or drive in the morning or await house calls from friends. (Their aim in traveling to India was to acquire rich husbands.) Europeans slept through the heat of the afternoon, rising again in the evening to dress formally for a reception, a ball, or a boating party. Supper would be served after midnight. Excessive consumption of food and drink was the norm. Scant regard was paid to the quality of wines and clarets. Both sexes smoked hookahs filled with mixtures of tobacco, spices, and herbs.

Once a fortune and/or a suitable marriage was made, wise nabobs left India and returned to Britain for an enjoyable retirement. The climate and lifestyle frequently ruined the health of those who tarried too long, even if they escaped premature death from disease.





LIFE IN REVOLUTIONARY FRANCE

For many nobles, the Revolution was a financial and social disaster. The loss of their feudal dues reduced their incomes by up to 60%. *Egalité* (equality) abolished their status and privileges. Everyone was now addressed as *citoyen* (citizen) rather than *monsieur*. Louis XVI's younger brothers (the Comtes de Provence and Artois) led an aristocratic emigration from 1789 onward. Those who stayed survived the Terror by renouncing their titles and living in obscurity.

Well-to-do peasants purchased émigré and church lands. Poorer peasants could not compete in these auctions and remained impoverished. The controlled economy of the Terror worsened rural conditions and increased conflict between urban and rural France. The attacks on organized religion exacerbated the situation (see below).

The Revolution proper was the apogee of the *sans-culottes*. Belonging to the poorer urban social classes, the *sans-culottes* included skilled workers, shopkeepers, and craftsmen and objected to the display of wealth. Their dress was the *pantalon* (long trousers) rather than *culottes* (knee breeches), the *carmagnole* (short-skirted coat), the red cap of *liberté* (liberty), and *sabots* (wooden shoes). The accoutrements of the *ancien regime*, such as wigs and perfumed rosewater, were spurned. In the spirit of *égalité* and *fraternité* (brotherhood), they addressed each other in the familiar form of the French language.

The militancy of the *sans-culottes* found new vigor in the conscripted Revolutionary armies. Soldiers received revolutionary newspapers, sang revolutionary songs, and elected their officers. The spirit of the Revolution endured in these citizen-soldiers after Robespierre's fall.

Sensuality succeeded the repressive and puritanical daily life of the Terror. Fashions became garish, morals loosened, and attire became uninhibited. Women wore dresses in the Roman and Sabine styles, leaving their breasts exposed. Guests attending the increasingly popular balls and dances shaved

DECHRISTIANIZATION AND THE SUPREME BEING

Although France was Catholic prior to the Revolution, the *philosophes* had encouraged anticlericalism, leading to widespread criticism of the church hierarchy and contemplative monastic orders. Nevertheless, the enforcement of the Civil Constitution of the Clergy from 1790 angered the peasantry.

Persecution really began in 1792, with refractory priests being slaughtered in the September Massacres. Thousands emigrated. The "dechristianization" program gathered pace in the autumn and winter of 1793-1794 with demands that priests renounce their vocations, closure and desecration of churches, and seizures of clerical property.

Idolatry of Revolutionary heroes such as the murdered Marat filled the religious vacuum of the lower classes. The artist David's (see p. 52) depiction of the murder and the elaborate death rites for his funeral transformed Marat into a martyr. *Maratism* was further encouraged by revolutionary propaganda, with the radical clubs identifying with him.

David also choreographed "religious festivals" on the themes of liberty, unity, and nature for the revolutionary cult. With the introduction of the revolutionary calendar (see below), secular civic festivals were held on the Tenth Days of the new months, and the cathedral of Notre Dame was renamed the Temple of Reason.

This was insufficient for Robespierre, who believed in the deism of Rousseau, disliked atheism, and desired a moral regeneration of society. In June 1794, the Committee of Public Safety initiated the Cult of the Supreme Being, which merged moral and religious ideas with republican principles. According to Robespierre, nature was its priest, the universe its temple, and virtue its religion, with joy and brotherhood to suffuse its festivals. Further dogmas asserted the Supreme Being's existence and the soul's immortality. Most people were simply baffled by these pronouncements. Robespierre's behavior at its public inauguration led many to fear he intended to become its high priest and persecute unbelievers through a religious Terror. While attendees at the festival were temporarily swayed by the processions, singing, and symbolism, there were few believers among either the peasantry or the *sans-culottes*. This cult of Reason collapsed with Robespierre's downfall.

The austere and similarly manufactured cult of Theophilanthropy, which emphasized nature and morality, was equally short-lived in 1799, never reaching the populace at large.

Catholicism recovered following the Thermidor coup but remained disestablished. The persecution of refractory priests continued until Napoleon's Concordat with the Papacy.

THE REVOLUTIONARY CALENDAR

The introduction of the Revolutionary calendar from October 1793 (but backdated to September 22, 1792 which became Year One of the Republic) disrupted ordinary life even more than the religious upheavals. Consisting of 12 months, each of three *décadis* (10-day "weeks"), followed by five festival days known as *sans-culottides*, the new calendar abolished religious holidays and enraged many workers, as only one day in 10 (rather than one in seven) was a rest day.

The Revolutionary Year was as follows:

Vendémiaire (vintage) = September 22-October 21
Brumaire (mist) = October 22-November 20
Frimaire (frost) = November 21-December 20
Nivôse (snow) = December 21-January 19
Pluviôse (rain) = January 20-February 18
Ventôse (wind) = February 19-March 20
Germinal (seedtime) = March 21-April 19
Floréal (blossom) = April 20-May 19
Prairial (meadow) = May 20-June 18
Messidor (harvest) = June 19-July 18
Thermidor (heat) = July 19-August 17
Fructidor (fruits) = August 18-September 16

The *sans-culottides* were from September 17 to 21, and celebrated virtue, genius, labor, opinion, and rewards. In leap years, an extra *sans-culottide* day was added to commemorate the Revolution.

This calendar was suspended following the Thermidor coup, but was reinstated in 1798. The Gregorian calendar was formally restored on January 1, 1806.



Religious debate (1789)





their necks and wore thin red silk bands around the throat to mock the guillotine. The *jeunesse dorée*, young middle-class men, wearing square-skirted coats, tight trousers, and high cravats, thrashed the *sans-culottes* with weighted sticks. The *Incroyables* affected lisps, dressed outlandishly with pointed shoes and voluminous coats, and cut their hair short at the front and raised it with a comb at the back. The flamboyant *muscadins* and *merveilleuses* wore wigs and revealing “Grecian tunics” – for women, this was a single semi-transparent chemise-like dress with pink skin-tights worn underneath and a girdle just below the waist.

LIFE IN IMPERIAL FRANCE

Hundreds of émigrés returned to France as the Directory transformed itself into the Consulate. Napoleon desired an aristocracy to add glamour to his new empire. Most *ancien régime* nobles remained aloof from the pomp and brilliance of the imperial court with its lavish balls, parties, and soirees, preferring their own exclusive salons, so from 1808, Napoleon created a new imperial aristocracy, who owed their inheritable titles to him. These new aristocrats included successful generals, officials, and professionals who had excelled in public or imperial service.

The Concordat between Napoleon and the Papacy temporarily eased the religious divisions in France. The Organic Articles gave Napoleon significant influence over the Church, leading to the inclusion of his Bulletins and the virtues of patriotism and submission to conscription in sermons. Despite the rapprochement, Fouché’s police spies infiltrated congregations to uncover royalist conspiracies (see pp. 85). The Church recovered its dominance over primary education, while private schools and the new *lycées* catered to middle-class children. The latter emphasized logic, rhetoric, and classical languages rather than modern languages and history and were intended to produce the next generation of Imperial administrators and military officers.

The exigencies of the British blockades encouraged experimentation in agriculture. Peasants participated (under pressure) in trials of maize, potatoes, and sugar beets. The government averted mass starvation in the winter of 1811-1812 only through soup kitchens – revolt was prevented by requiring the poor to work hard for this sustenance. Itinerant beggars threatened more successful farmers with arson if they refused to offer food or work. Fishermen and peasants added smuggling and poaching to their trades.

Painting, sculpture, and architecture in the Empire continued to reflect neoclassical themes in the realistic styles espoused by painters such as Jacques-Louis David (see p. 52). The tastes of the populace differed greatly from the classical emphasis of the imperial court. The masses patronized fairs and boulevard theatres, enjoying burlesques and melodramas. Plays told a story and had a moral – actors were often forced by the audience to diverge from the script, lest the performance be abruptly ended. The literate read historical fiction, escapist romances, and translated English novels. Poets imitated and translated the classics.

Revolutionary France had witnessed an explosion in newspapers and radical pamphlets. In 1804, Paris possessed 70 newspapers. Napoleon and his censors reduced this to 13 by 1805 and to a mere four (plus one provincial periodical) by the Empire’s end. The principal newspaper, *Le Moniteur*, became a mouthpiece for Imperial propaganda, supplemented (until 1812) by Napoleon’s military Bulletins.

THE CONSERVATIVE REACTION

Napoleon’s first abdication brought the remaining émigré aristocrats back to France. Their influence in politics was checked until the Hundred Days excused greater repression against Napoleonic supporters and instituted a conservative Catholic royalist regime. Regicides and ardent imperialists were proscribed and fled abroad to avoid imprisonment or execution.

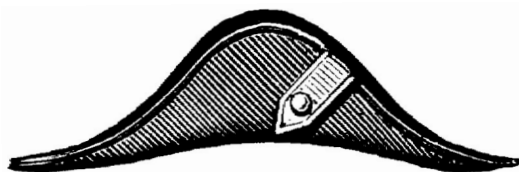
The constitutional charter that had restored Louis XVIII prevented society from being restored to its pre-Revolutionary character. The bourgeoisie who had benefited from purchasing noble and church lands were allowed to keep them. Some émigrés displaced commoners in military and administrative positions; others were forced into trade to recover their fortunes. Censorship was relaxed, the electoral regulations were reformed, and food supplies to town and country became assured.

Catholicism was reinstated as France’s state religion and recovered its preeminence in education. Throughout Europe, church attendance rose as the upper classes rediscovered their faith. Pope Pius VII reinstituted the Jesuit order to undertake its mission of conversion and education. Religion became a source of conflict between rulers and ruled in Russia, Poland, the Balkan territories of the Ottoman Empire, and the Netherlands.

The protracted wars had engendered a desire in governments and monarchs to maintain the status quo and preserve intact the institutions and attitudes that they had spent so long defending. However, the economic slump that followed the coming of peace required corrective action and gave impetus to calls for reform.

In Britain, radicals and Dissenters attacked the inequalities of the electoral system, governmental corruption, and new laws through the newspapers. Although official pressure reduced the agitation in 1816, the Peterloo massacre (1819) caused by a panicked crowd fleeing a cavalry squadron allowed the passage of the “Six Acts.” These laws banned political meetings and parades, permitted the police to perform house searches and seize subversive literature, taxed newspapers and periodicals (to prevent the poor from buying them), and weighted justice against defendants in criminal cases.

Secret societies flourished across Europe, plotting to overthrow the established order. They included Freemasons, *Carbonari* in Italy and France, and nationalist groups in Germany, Greece, and Russia.



MILITARY LIFE

"All clear?" asked Major Croix quietly. Roques nodded.

Deschamps spoke firmly, "Enough preparations. The Duke d'Enghien is a traitor, Etienne. Let us arrest him quickly and return him to the Emperor for justice."

Croix sighed, then motioned to the nearest troopers. They drew their sabers and followed Croix and Roques to the house. Croix and his men positioned themselves against the walls. Roques tensed, then hurled himself at the door. Wood splintered, the door gave way, and he was through. Croix casually cocked his pistol and then charged inside.





The bravery of soldiers and sailors and the intrigues of spies shaped the destinies of empires. Their daily lives and experiences of battle by land and sea are the focus of a campaign that emphasizes roleplaying rather than wargaming. The hidden world of the secret police and intelligence services provides the basis for another sort of campaign.

SAILORS

The Age of Fighting Sail was made possible by the tens of thousands of ordinary sailors who lived, fought, and died at sea. Abandoned to fend for themselves in peacetime, sailors could only leave the service during a war by death, injury, or desertion.

Pressed Men and Volunteers

All navies experienced manpower shortages, as their hardships, harsh discipline, and poor pay discouraged trained seamen from serving. Between the wars, short-handed captains toured fairs and markets at their own expense to attract suitable volunteers.

Imminent conflict demanded the commissioning and crewing of laid-up ships . . . achieved by judicious use of the press-gang and its continental equivalents. European navies drafted conscript soldiers to complete ships' crews. By contrast, the American navy was wholly crewed by volunteers, enlisting for one or two years' service. Many British deserters served on American warships, to the indignation of the Royal Navy.

In Britain, parties of sailors and marines targeted inbound merchantmen, effectively kidnapping their best sailors, and raided taverns and brothels for unwilling recruits. The sight of a King's ship heading for port was just cause for able-bodied men to take to the hills. Foreigners, Americans with legal "Protections," certain key merchant sailors, and gentlemen (if dressed according to their status) were exempt.

The Impress Service, run by "beached" officers, organized permanent press-gangs during the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars. Once caught by a press-gang, the prisoners were escorted under heavy guard to the nearest "receiving ship," a dismantled and ancient "hulk" permanently moored in a dockyard. They were imprisoned here, until either ships requiring men arrived or they died from typhus, which was epidemic in the hulks' cramped and squalid holds.

As the war progressed, each county was required to find a quota of men for naval service. Despite the offer of a "bounty" (a cash inducement of five pounds or more to enlist), insufficient volunteers came forward. The authorities soon achieved their quotas by offering convicted criminals the opportunity to "volunteer" rather than suffer transportation or hanging. Nevertheless, all officers agreed that one volunteer was worth three pressed men.

Seamen

Sailors were rated (and paid) according to their maritime experience – as boys (trainees and servants), landsmen, ordinary seamen, or able seamen. The ship's company was also divided by function: the older "foc's'lemen" worked the anchors, forward

sails, and cannon, the nimble "topmen" trimmed the highest sails and handled cable and capstan, the inexperienced or stupid "waisters" looked after the livestock, pumped the bilges, formed gun-crews, and handled the lower sails of the main and mizzenmasts, and the "afterguard" manned the braces which controlled the sails. These four groups were divided into larboard (port) and starboard watches, working and resting alternately. A final group, the "idlers" – comprising cook, carpenter and mates, and officers' servants – worked all day instead of standing watches. The "quarters, watch, and station bill" prescribed the duties of each sailor in sail handling and battle, even indicating the weapons (cut-lass, boarding axe, pistol, or boarding pike) to be issued for each man.

Additionally the sailors were organized into "messes" of up to eight for sleeping and eating. Changes could be made at the start of each month – too many transfers indicated an unhappy crew; seamen who switched regularly were probably troublemakers.

Warrant and Petty Officers

Between the "commission" officers (*not* "commissioned" officers as in modern usage) and the sailors were the warrant officers, professionals appointed to the ship itself rather than to a single tour of duty, and the petty officers. In the Royal Navy, these officers were "warranted" by the Navy Board or the Ordinance Board for gunners and were removable only by court martial. Petty officers were rated (appointed) and disgraced by the captain.

The senior warrant officers – master, purser, surgeon and chaplain – had status equal to that of the lieutenants (and resided with them in the wardroom), but less authority. Transfer to larger ships constituted promotion for warrant and senior petty officers. On smaller unrated vessels, the master, the gunner, and the boatswain (bosun) stood watches as surrogate lieutenants.

The master was responsible for navigation and the updating of sea charts, the stowing of cargo, and the ship's sailing qualities. The purser combined the roles of storekeeper and shopkeeper, buying supplies and distributing them to the crew. In the Royal Navy, pursers were allowed a commission of one-eighth, ostensibly to counter wastage by vermin and malfeasance by contractors. For a purser, there were thus 14 ounces to the pound, and dishonesty and corruption were rife. The surgeon looked after the health of the crew, but contemporary medical knowledge limited many to treating venereal diseases and amputating limbs. Chaplains were rare, finding congenial employment only on the largest ships. Some doubled as schoolmasters.

The gunner's charges were the cannon, shot, and powder, and the keys to the ship's magazine. He also supervised the midshipmen. The bosun's responsibilities included the sails, rigging, anchors, and ship's boats. He and his mates (subordinate assistants) passed orders to the crew. The carpenter ensured the integrity of the masts and hull and repaired battle damage. The master-at-arms exercised the men in weapons and monitored the vigilance of sentries.

Petty officers included the master's mates, surgeon's mates, quartermasters, the master specialists (sailmaker,





caulker, ropemaker), the coxswain (responsible for conning the captain's gig), and the bosun's mates. Below them came the cook, the captains of the tops and the afterguard, and the remaining mates. The most junior were the quartergunners (one for every four cannon), the cooper, and the trumpeter.

Marines

Contingents of Marines served in all the major navies, enforcing discipline and suppressing mutinies. Neither sailor nor soldier, the marines provided musket sharpshooters, additional cannon crew, and boarding parties. True amphibious operations involving marines were rare, partly due to their small numbers – 40 on a frigate, 110 on a “third-rate” (see p. 73).

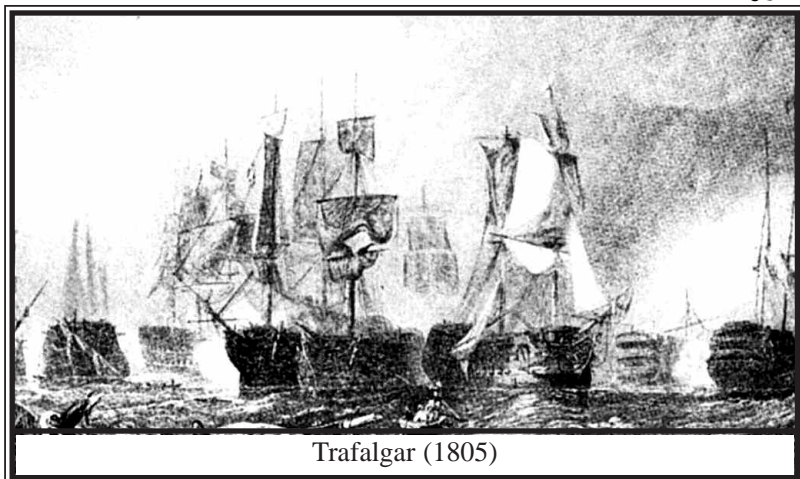
Aft the Most Honor

British naval officers were mostly drawn from the middle classes and seafaring families, with some younger sons of the gentry and aristocracy. Catholics were officially prohibited from holding commissions. The American navy modeled itself after the Royal Navy on a smaller scale, with much politicking for commissions. In the French and Spanish navies, the aristocracy dominated the higher echelons, while commoner officers languished as lieutenants and junior captains, despite (usually) greater seamanship and sea experience. The execution or emigration of aristocratic officers during the Revolution led to their replacement by surviving lieutenants and senior warrant officers.

The traditional route to high rank was to serve as a volunteer aboard ship (usually from age 11) as a midshipman (Royal Navy), *aspirant* (French navy), or *guardia marina* (Spanish navy). Some midshipmen received up to two years' basic instruction at naval academies. Midshipmen were solely selected by captains, and could be appointed from the crew, “through the hawsehole.” Midshipmen were petty officers and could be “turned before the mast” (reduced to ordinary sailors) by the captain. Royal Navy candidates taking the examination for lieutenant needed to be (or appear) at least 20 years old and have a minimum of six years' sea service. If they failed the exam, they were required to wait six months before their next attempt. Passed candidates continued to serve as midshipmen or master's mates (in their 20s and 30s) until a lieutenantancy became vacant. From December 1804, a passed midshipman could be temporarily appointed as sublieutenant (French *enseigne de vaisseau*), subordinate to the lieutenant commanding a brig. Exceptional warrant officers, usually masters, were sometimes promoted to commission rank.

Lieutenants (Spanish *tenientes*) kept watches, leading a division of the crew and a section of the guns in actions. First lieutenants organized the watches and duties and acted as the captain's second-in-command. Flag lieutenants served as admirals' aides and were responsible for signals aboard the flagship. In the Royal Navy, smaller unrated vessels (such as cutters, schooners, bomb vessels, fireships, brigs, and transports) were commanded by lieutenants.

Promotion to “master and commander” (“commander” after 1794) required recognized merit, notable success in



Trafalgar (1805)

action, luck, or influence, and allowed the fortunate officer to command sloops. Shortages of sloops meant that many commanders were unemployed even in wartime. Like all naval commission officers, they could draw “half-pay” (approximately half their normal salary) when not assigned to active duty, and pursue other nonmilitary occupations while waiting on a ship. Promotion to post-captain necessitated further brilliance or exertion of influence, and granted permission to command rated ships – frigates and ships of the line. Lieutenants were occasionally promoted directly to post-captain.

The French equivalents of post-captain were *capitaine de frégate* and *capitaine de vaisseau*; the Spanish captains were ranked according to the ship commanded – *capitan de corbeta* (sloops, etc.), *capitan de fragata* (frigates), and *capitan de navio* (ships of the line).

Royal Navy captains could be temporarily appointed as flag-captains or commodores. A flag-captain commanded an admiral's flagship. A commodore commanded a detached squadron and flew a broad pennant (a long streaming flag) – some had “a captain under them” to command their pennant ships and were paid as rear admirals, others did not. The senior captain in a squadron (occasionally a rear admiral) could be appointed as captain-of-the-fleet (chief of staff) to an admiral.

Seniority decided when a captain could be promoted to Rear Admiral. A few were forcibly retired by Admiralty intervention; others became “yellow admirals” – rear admirals unfit for further service. Advancement through the flag ranks was strictly by seniority with long-lived officers rising through Rear Admiral (of the Blue, White, and Red), Vice Admiral (of the Blue, White, and Red), Admiral (of the Blue and White), and finally Admiral of the Fleet. In November 1805, the rank of Admiral of the Red was created; Admiral of the Fleet became an honorary rank. (In the early 17th century, the fleet had been divided into three squadrons – red, white, and blue; by the 18th century, the Admiralty deployed the much larger navy into as many fleets and squadrons as deemed appropriate, but the squadron titles remained.)

French equivalents were *Chef de division*, *Contre-admiral*, *Vice-admiral*, and *Admiral*; Spanish flag officers were *Jefe de escuadra* (Rear Admiral), *Teniente-general*, *Amiralante*, and *Capitan General de Armada* (Admiral of the Fleet). Commodore was the highest effective rank in the American Navy.





Life at Sea

Daily Routine at Sea

The naval day was divided into seven “watches,” five lasting four hours and two “dog” watches lasting two hours. Each watch was timed by a four-hour sandglass kept outside the captain’s cabin. Smaller half-hour sandglasses were turned every 30 minutes by the midshipman of the watch. The sentry marked each turn of the glass by ringing a bell, once for the first half-hour (e.g. “one bell of the forenoon watch”), twice for the second half-hour (e.g. “two bells of the forenoon watch”), and so on. The afternoon watch was from noon to 4 p.m., the dogwatches from 4 p.m. to 8 p.m., the first watch from 8 p.m. to midnight, the middle watch from midnight to 4 a.m., the morning watch from 4 a.m. to 8 a.m., and the forenoon watch ended the naval “day” at noon. Up to 1805, the Royal Navy considered the “day” to begin at noon, when the captain, master, lieutenants and midshipmen gathered on the quarterdeck to determine the ship’s position by taking “the noon sights.” This involved recording the moment the sun reached the meridian, measuring its angular height (giving the latitude), and then calculating the difference between local and Greenwich time with the aid of a chronometer (yielding the longitude).

The morning began at 4 a.m. for the idlers and the seamen with the morning watch duty. The decks were cleaned in the morning watch. Before dawn, the watch on deck (the working half) sent lookouts aloft; they were relieved hourly. The watch below (the sleeping half) was roused no later than 7:30 a.m. to put hammocks in racks on deck – to air, and to provide a barrier against gunfire. Breakfast was at 8-8:30 a.m. followed by maintenance, gunnery or sail exercises, witnessing punishment, and any other tasks set by the captain and first lieutenant. Dinner (with the first beer ration) was noon to 1 p.m. for the crew and midshipmen. Officers dined at 1 p.m.; the captain ate an hour later. The afternoon watch was usually not rigorous, but the dogwatches were. After supper (and more beer) from 4 to 5 p.m., gunnery exercises were customary during the dogwatches. At dusk, the sternlights would be lit. At 8 p.m., the hammocks were piped down and the idlers and the watch below went to sleep.

A threat could change all the rules. The ship could be darkened from dusk to dawn; lookouts could be kept aloft at night; the crew could sleep at their guns with hammocks still up; the entire crew could be called at any hour to set more sail to chase an enemy ship or to reduce sail and unrig and lower the upper masts in the face of a storm.

DAILY ROUTINE IN PORT

In port, the petty officers would wake both the off-watch and any female companions aboard, leading to more confusion and noise than normal. If the ship was anchored with a fleet, a drumbeat would mark time to dawn until a signal gun was fired from the flagship to indicate sufficient visibility for signal flags and ships’ positions to be discerned. Sailors would be employed in cleaning the hull and other major maintenance during the day. As many seamen would desert if allowed ashore, captains allowed bumboat men to ferry traders and prostitutes to the ship. The latter would be deemed “wives.” (Officially, women were prohibited on board navy ships unless they were the wives of male passengers. However, some officers disregarded these regulations.)

Rations

Shipboard food varied from unappetizing to inedible, but unlike their counterparts ashore, sailors were fed. In the Royal Navy, sailors subsisted on a pound of “bread” (weevil-infested hard biscuit) and a gallon of weak beer per day. Other food-stuffs were served according to a regular routine over a week. Thus the crew would receive a pound of salt pork and a half-pint of peas on Sundays and Thursdays, and two pounds of salt beef on Tuesdays and Saturdays. On the remaining days, one pint of oatmeal, four ounces of cheese, and two ounces of butter would be issued. A half-pint of peas would also be issued on Wednesdays and Fridays. Watered wine and rum replaced the beer in the Mediterranean and Caribbean respectively. Lime juice (which was mixed into the spirits ration) was introduced in 1795 to prevent scurvy.

Commission officers brought their own provisions to supplement the official rations, sometimes selecting one among them as caterer and subscribing to a common fund to purchase choice foods, wines, and livestock (ranging from cows to hens). The officers dined together in the wardroom or the gun-room according to their status. Each of these messes had its own skilled cook, and officers had Marine orderlies or ship’s boys to serve them. The wardroom mess would regularly invite guests such as the captain or any passengers to dinner. The captain would return their hospitality using his own supplies, but otherwise he would dine mostly alone or with a few selected guests.

Duty and Discipline

Severe punishments were the normal reaction to indiscipline. The Royal Navy meted out flogging and hanging. The Dutch navy retained keelhauling until 1813; the Spanish navy could sentence sailors to long stints as oarsmen in the galleys. After the Revolution, the French navy replaced corporal punishment with various levels of arrest. Most seamen did not object to just punishments, but inconsistent or excessive sentences could provoke mutinies.

For minor crimes, captains could deal out various punishments. These included verbal warnings, suspending or watering the rum ration, or making an offender work the ship’s pumps. Mastheading, where the sailor was sent aloft to join the lookouts for a full watch or longer, regardless of the weather, was also used on midshipmen. “Kissing the gunner’s daughter” was reserved for midshipmen – the young gentleman was forced to bend over a cannon and was caned by the gunner.

The 36 Articles of War governed all aspects of Royal Navy life for officers and men at sea, and on land for those on full pay, on active service, or attached to a ship. The Articles gave directions for public worship in the navy, defined the correct handling of prizes and convoys, and required officers to remedy any just complaints made to them. They forbade on pain of death assisting the enemy, mutiny (and concealing such activity), treason, cowardice, arson, murder, sodomy, and robbery. Disobeying a superior officer, grounding a ship, and sleeping on watch could be punished by death or a lesser punishment. Striking a superior, fighting among the crew, fraud, and desertion were also prohibited.





Flogging was the naval punishment for serious crimes or persistent offenders. The accused was brought to the captain by an officer who described the offense. The captain would determine guilt (or innocence) and deliver the sentence. If the sailor was to be flogged, a bosun's mate would be ordered to make up a new "cat of nine tails." Usually the flogging would take place the next day. All crew members would be mustered "to witness punishment." The captain would describe the offence, read out the Article that the sailor had infringed, and then order the punishment. The sailor's shirt was stripped off and a leather apron tied around his waist to protect his lower back. The man was then spread-eagled against a grating and bound at wrist and ankle. The bosun's mate then took the "cat" out of the bag and laid on up to a dozen lashes. A fresh bosun's mate would deliver the next dozen, if necessary. The surgeon could halt the flogging on medical grounds. (See p. 80 for rules for flogging.)

Officers could only be punished by court-martial. Any captain who lost his ship was automatically tried. Courts were often called for the slightest breach of the Articles. The post-captains available (up to 13) formed the court as both judges and jury. If fewer than five were available, commanders could be used to form the minimum court of five. The trial would usually be held aboard a flagship. The accused would be

escorted to the trial by the provost marshal (a junior officer). The accused's sword was laid on the table around which the court sat. A clerk, styled the deputy judge advocate, was responsible for recording the minutes and determining the relevancy of any naval legal precedents. After all the judges had been sworn in, the prosecuting officer would call his witnesses, and these would be cross-examined by the members of the court and the accused (or his legal counsel). The defense witnesses would then be called and questioned. The court then determined its verdict and sentence in private. The defendant was then ushered back into the court – if the tip of his sword pointed towards him, he was guilty; if the pommel, he was innocent. The verdict (and sentence, if any) was formally announced by the court's president (the most senior officer).

Officers could be dismissed from the service, removed from their command, demoted in rank or seniority, or (rarely) shot. They could also resign when threatened with a court-martial, removing themselves from the court's jurisdiction.

Seamen found guilty by court-martial (rather than the captain's summary justice) could expect a "flogging round the fleet" (hundreds of lashes delivered in batches of dozens on each warship in port) or death by hanging.

ALL THE WORLD'S FLEETS

Ships were classified into *rates* by their number of cannon. Any carronades carried were not usually counted. First-rates (of 100 guns plus) and second-rates (of 90 guns plus) possessed three armed decks and served as admirals' flagships, but they were difficult to sail. Third-rates (of 64, 74 or 80 guns) with their two armed decks formed the majority of active ships-of-the-line. A "74" with an experienced crew could match a frigate for speed. Fourth-rates (of 50-60 guns) were too small to survive in the line of battle but their shallow draft allowed their effective use in coastal waters of the Baltic and North Sea. Fifth-rates and sixth-rates were frigates (of 32-44 and 20-30 guns, respectively, on a single gun deck) serving as "eyes of the fleet," commerce raiders, convoy escorts, and blockade enforcers. The unrated ships included three-masted sloops, two-masted brigs (up to 18 guns), and two-masted schooners and single-masted cutters (with up to 10 guns). Sloops protected convoys and conducted patrols, brigs attacked enemy merchantmen and undertook close coastal blockades, and cutters and schooners served as fleet tenders, messengers, and reconnaissance vessels.

In peacetime, the Royal Navy mustered perhaps 30 active ships of the line and twice as many frigates. In war, the inactive ships were swiftly recommissioned – by 1794, the Royal Navy had 91 ships of the line, 9 fourth-rates, 116 frigates, and 87 unrated vessels in home, Mediterranean, Caribbean, and East Indian waters. Captured prizes and new construction offset weather and battle losses, so that by 1799, the active list included 146 ships of the line, 21 fourth-rates, 176 frigates and 303 unrated vessels. (Between 1793 and 1815, 108 French frigates and 41 ships of the line were taken into the Royal Navy.)

The ships of the French navy were fast and weatherly, organized into nine divisions, centered on the ports of Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon. Lorient, Le Havre, Boulogne and Cherbourg gained importance under the Empire. In 1790, the French navy had 80 ships of the line and 70 frigates, falling to 40 and 35 by 1805. Throughout the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, extensive shipbuilding programs and acquisition of allied ships maintained the navy's strength at this level despite additional losses.

The Spanish navy in 1790 mustered 72 ships of the line, 46 frigates, and several dozen corvettes and xebecs. The xebecs were fast sloops deployed in the Mediterranean. Home ports were Cadiz, Ferrol, and Cartagena, with overseas bases in Havana and Manila. Major defeats at St. Vincent and Trafalgar and ships surrendered to Napoleon halved the Spanish navy by 1806; the decline continued to 1815.

In 1790, the Dutch navy possessed 48 small ships of the line (the largest were 10 "74s"), 36 frigates, and some 40 unrated vessels, organized into the home fleet and colonial squadrons in the East Indies and Cape Colony. By 1800, the Batavian Republic was reduced to 16 ships of the line and 12 frigates and remained at this level until 1815.

The Russian navy was concentrated in the Baltic and Black Seas at Kronstadt and Sebastopol. In 1790, the Baltic fleet had 51 ships of the line, 32 frigates, and 100 sloops and oared vessels; the Black Sea fleet had seven ships of the line, 23 frigates, and a score of lesser craft. From 1791 to 1815, 75 new ships of the line were constructed, replacing older vessels and those shipwrecked.

Denmark's fleet in 1790 had 38 ships of the line, 20 heavy frigates, and some 60 xebecs. Reduced to 20 ships of the line and 17 frigates after 1801, the remaining ships were captured intact in 1807. Thereafter the Danes defended themselves and attacked British convoys with a flotilla of 168 gunboats (oared and sailed). The Swedish navy consisted of a High Seas Fleet (17 ships of the line, 8 frigates and 8 sloops in 1788) and the "Army Fleet" (some 60 hybrid large galleys, rising to 150 by 1808). Both forces stayed within the Baltic.

The small Portuguese navy consisted of 10 ships of the line, 14 frigates, and 30 minor vessels in 1790, with only a few ships being lost to the French during the period. The Ottoman Empire maintained 30 ships of the line (50-74 guns), 50 "frigates" (10 to 50 guns) and 100 galliots. The Neapolitan fleet in 1792 comprised 5 ships of the line, 8 frigates, and 11 corvettes and brigs.

During the War of 1812, the United States Navy challenged Britain with seven heavy frigates (larger and better armed than British equivalents), two sloops, one corvette, three brigs, and four schooners. However, they were supported by swarms of independent privateers.



ABSTRACT NAVAL BATTLES

The rules for naval battles in the Age of Sail as presented in *GURPS Compendium II*, pp. CII94-99, should be used. The following more specific tables should be used for ship data:

Ship Speeds and Maneuverability

Speed by Wind Strength (mph)

	Light	Medium	Heavy	Storm	Upwind Speed	Heavy Seas (mph)	Maneuverability	Notes
<i>Warships:</i>								
3-decker	4	9	15	8	35%	—	-9 to -10	1st & 2nd rates
2-decker	5	10	15	7	40%	—	-6 to -8	3rd & 4th rates
Frigate	6	11	13	6	45%	-1 to -3	-4 to -6	4th, 5th, & 6th rates
Sloop	7	10	11	5	50%	-2 to -5	-2 to -4	
Brig	8	9	9	scud	55%	-3 to -7	-1 to -3	
Cutter	9	12	10	scud	60%	-2 to -5	-1 to -2	
Galley	4-9	2-7	scud	scud	55%	-3 to -7	-2 to -4	short range
rowed	7-9	scud	scud	scud	90%	-3 to -7	-2 to -4	for a short time
<i>Merchantmen:</i>								
large	4	8	9	3	40%	-1 to -3	-4 to -6	
medium	5	9	8	scud	40%	-2 to -5	-2 to -5	
small	6	7	7	scud	40%	-3 to -7	-1 to -3	

Upwind Speed: Given as a percentage of full speed for the prevailing wind conditions. Use this reduced speed when sailing upwind by tacking or wearing. For example, a frigate sailing directly upwind will only move at 45% of its usual 11 mph for medium winds, or 5 mph.

Heavy Seas: The speed reduction (in mph) for rough water — usually but not always due to a storm. Apply this *after* modifying for upwind speed, if applicable. E.g., a frigate with a normal maximum speed of 6 mph in a storm with very heavy seas suffers a -3 mph to speed, and moves at 3 mph. This frigate will be unable to sail upwind in heavy seas: 45% of 6 mph is 3 mph, and the -3 mph penalty will reduce final speed to 0 mph. If the speed is negative, then this represents the effective downwind speed; e.g., a -1 mph upwind speed becomes a 1 mph downwind speed. (In effect, the ship is attempting to move upwind in order to minimize being blown downwind.) Shiphandling rolls (with a penalty equal to the speed) will be required to save the ship from being damaged. Choosing another course or “scudding” would be safer (as fighting the weather dangerously strains the ship’s masts, sails, and rigging).

Scudding: If the table entry is “scud,” then the captain’s job is to save the ship by sailing as fast as the ship’s masts will withstand (i.e., potentially up to its maximum speed in heavy winds) downwind in order to lessen the damage from storm-driven waves. (Too much sail and the masts will give way.) A Shiphandling roll should be made to find the right balance. If this is failed, further Shiphandling rolls will be required to save the ship from being damaged, swamped, or (at worst) capsized; where the ship ends up is at the GM’s discretion.

In calms, frigates and sloops can be towed by their boats at 1 mph; brigs and cutters have “sweeps” (large oars) allowing 2 mph speed.

These are typical values; East Indiamen were faster but their maneuverability was limited by a small crew.

If a ship has not been “careened” in the past 12 months, speeds should be reduced to 75% if its hull is sheathed in copper below the waterline and to 50% if the ship lacks copper sheathing. “Careening” is tilting the ship to scrape the hull clean of accumulated barnacles, seaweed, and the like. It can be done in a shipyard, a friendly port, or even a secluded anchorage.

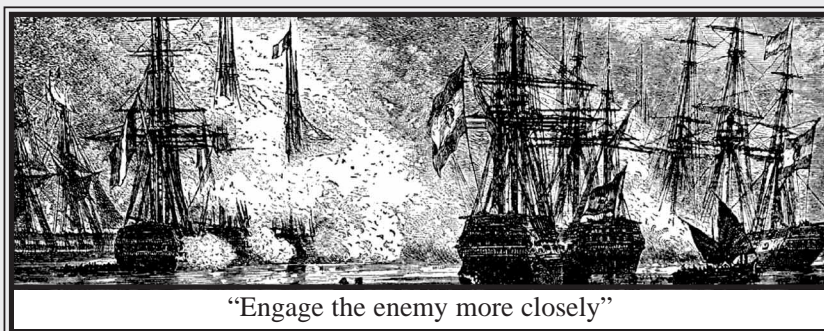
GMs should vary speeds by +/- 1 mph and Maneuverability Numbers by +/- 1 to reflect the sailing qualities of better (or worse) designed ships. French and Spanish ships were usually better sailors than native British designs. American naval frigates were fast and very heavily armed (equivalent to a fourth-rate or even a third-rate in firepower). For example, the USS *President*, officially described as a 44-gun frigate, actually carried 30 24-pounder cannons and 22 42-pounder carronades, yielding a Firepower (see below) of 822.

Firepower Table

Ship Type	Firepower
Small Merchantman	0-50
Medium Merchantman	35-75
Large Merchantman	45-135
Galley	0-50
Naval Sloop/Brig	30-102
Sixth-rate (20)	138
Sixth-rate (24)	183
Sixth-rate (28)	192 / 210
Fifth-rate (32)	246
Fifth-rate (36)	410 / 258
Fifth-rate (French, 38)	354
Fifth-rate (French, 44)	372 / 402
Fourth-rate (50)	522
Fourth-rate (60)	474
Third-rate (64)	678
Third-rate (70)	849
Third-rate (74)	867 / 1,000
Third-rate (80)	894 / 1,140
Second-rate (98)	1,044
First-rate (100)	1,136
First-rate (Fr, 110)	1,252
First-rate (Fr, 120)	1,358

Ship Type: The number in parentheses after the ship type is the number of cannon carried.

Firepower: This quantifies the number and size of cannon carried. Cannon are rated by shot weight. To calculate Firepower, sum the shot weight of all the ship’s guns and divide by 2. The table above includes carronades (usually mounted in the bows and stern) in the broadside firepower. British cannon could be 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, or 32-pounders; carronades came in four sizes, namely 12, 18, 24, and 32-pounders. (French guns came in 6, 8, 12, 18, 24, and 36-pound sizes; French carronades were always 36-pounders.) Where two firepower ratings are given, the second value is for an equivalent French ship of that rate.



“Engage the enemy more closely”



THE REAL ENEMY

Few sailors died in the great sea battles – only 2,000 British sailors perished in all of the fleet actions combined from 1793 to 1815. But shipwrecks, accidents, and disease killed tens of thousands. Although inoculation and fruit juices eliminated smallpox and scurvy, pressed criminals carried typhus from the prisons and yellow fever decimated crews stationed in the West Indies. Alcoholism was common in all navies.

Fighting at Sea

Once a strange sail was sighted, the crew would “beat to quarters,” readying the ship for action. False colors could be flown, with the true flag being hoisted just before firing. Warships would seek to confirm allegiances through challenge and response using secret flag signals, changed monthly. A ship might bluff its way closer to its prey or maneuver upwind, gaining the weather gage (i.e., being between the wind and the other ship), and hence improving its ability to fight or flee. In a chase or close action, ships could turn to deliver “raking” broadsides at the foe’s bow or stern, sending shot racing down the entire ship’s length with devastating effect in crowded gun decks.

The British mostly fired on the “downroll” (into the enemy’s hull) to destroy cannon and their crews, preferring close range; their opponents usually fired on the “uproll” (into the enemy’s sails, rigging, and masts) to disable the enemy at longer ranges. Commerce raiders fired at merchantmen’s rigging to slow them down; blockade runners fired on the uproll to discourage pursuers and effect their escape. Grapeshot at close range could inflict heavy crew casualties, making boarding easier and reducing ship damage.

Wind, currents, skill, and the best trained crews decided the fight. If the ships were grappled together, boarding parties would risk swivel guns and boarding nets to defeat the enemy crew in hand-to-hand combat. The vanquished would strike their flag.

Captains facing hopeless odds might order a withdrawal. Experienced crews could set all sails in six minutes, and tricks such as wetting the sails or having sailors bearing roundshot move around the ship as mobile ballast could ensure that a stern chase became a long chase. The truly desperate would jettison water casks or even their cannon to increase their speed.

Fleet actions were limited to indecisive “line of battle” engagements dictated by the Fighting Instructions and limited signals. Improvements in signal codes such as Admiral Howe’s private signals (1790) or Popham’s “telegraphic” code (1800) gave British admirals the ability to order complex maneuvers and implement tactics to overwhelm enemy fleets arranged in battle lines.

Prize money spurred officers and men alike to victory. Captured ships were often “bought in” by the Admiralty and the money divided as follows: an eighth to the commanding admiral, a quarter to the captain, an eighth shared among the lieutenants, master, surgeon, and Marine officer, another eighth to the principal warrant officers, an eighth shared among midshipmen, Marine sergeants, and other warrant officers, and the final quarter to the crew. From 1808, the division was modified: a twelfth to the admiral, one sixth to the captain, and one-half to the midshipmen, Marine sergeants, lesser warrant officers and the crew. Prize money was only awarded after condemnation by an Admiralty prize court, which authorized the sale of the ship and its cargo by the capturing ship’s prize agent. The court could declare a ship a neutral and return it to its owners, or decide that a privateer’s Letters of Marque were not in order. Prize agents loaned prize money until the prize was condemned; many captains were ruined when a prize was declared neutral.

In addition to prize money, Parliament might decide that a naval action was worthy of the country’s gratitude and vote an annual sum to the distinguished officer (or his widow). Civic bodies such as the City of London or the insurers Lloyd’s also gave presentation swords of varying value (but totally unsuitable for combat) to brave captains.

PRISONERS AND PAROLE

When defeat was inevitable and retreat impractical, few combatants would fight to the death against civilized opponents. (However, being killed in battle was preferable to being tortured by Arab corsairs or Indian potentates.) Soldiers and sailors would drop their weapons in surrender. Officers would yield their swords to the victors. As a mark of respect to a worthy adversary, the sword might be returned almost immediately, but unless the officer gave his “parole,” discretion required the eventual confiscation of all weapons.

“Parole” was an officer’s word of honor that, for the duration of his captivity, he would make no attempt to escape or to continue hostilities against his captors. In return, he would be treated as a gentleman, allowed to retain his weapon and other personal effects, and allowed some measure of liberty, such as being permitted to stay in private lodgings rather than in a guarded camp. (Rarely, a paroled officer might be permitted to return immediately to his own forces, subject to his giving his word not to participate in hostilities until a “virtual” exchange was performed.) Some officers broke their parole and escaped with the aid of local sympathizers and disguises. Parole-breakers could not expect a second chance of parole, if recaptured.

Officers who refused to give their parole, as well as ordinary soldiers and sailors, would be temporarily confined in the nearest dungeon or ship’s hold under heavy guard. Where possible, officers would be kept separate to prevent them leading a prisoner revolt. Eventually the captives would be taken to a prison camp, such as Verdun in France or Dartmoor in England. (In the Napoleonic Wars, the British sent many prisoners-of-war to the hulks (prison ships; see p. 61) as the camps were too full.)

Guarded and watched in the camps, prisoners waited out the war, sometimes supplementing their rations by making trinkets and models for sale from bone and wood. Widespread trouble was rare. Agents of the French secret police visited British prisoners to persuade them to desert or become spies for the Empire. Likewise the secret police suspected French escapees of having been suborned by the British and placed them under observation.

As part of the honorable treatment of prisoners, each belligerent nation maintained a representative in the enemy countries. These representatives monitored the conditions of prisoners, forwarded lists of the captured to their home governments, and arranged periodic exchanges of prisoners of equivalent rank on a one-for-one basis. The released prisoners would be ferried on a merchant ship or otherwise escorted under flag of truce to their home nation. Once returned, they could resume their military careers.





Every action also necessitated the writing of a report by the senior surviving officer on a ship to his commanding flag officer or direct to the Admiralty. These despatches were carefully worded; captains and admirals could hoard all the credit for a success to themselves or give due credit to their subordinates by “mentioning” (naming) them. Reports of failures would be scrutinized carefully and probably used as evidence in a future court-martial. The Admiralty would also publish a selection of received dispatches of successes in the *Naval Gazette* – being “Gazetted” was a mark of public honor and raised the reputation of all involved.

SOLDIERS

Europe itself had enjoyed peace between the end of the Seven Years’ War and the onset of the Revolutionary Wars. Austria and Russia warred intermittently with the Ottoman Empire on the continental fringes. Conflicts between Britain, France, and Spain were fought mostly in the colonies and India. The value of light infantry, simply equipped with either muskets or less commonly rifles and highly trained, had been shown in the American War of Independence, but the lessons (such as shooting officers to render units leaderless) were quickly forgotten. Military doctrine and tactics remained locked in mid-century ideas, with commanders and troops paying most attention to perfection of elaborate uniforms on parade and ability to perform complex maneuvers (“evolutions”) en masse. “Live” firing of weapons was rare in continental armies. Soldiers were seen as a necessary evil, living apart from mainstream society, and controlled only by harsh discipline. Initiative among individual soldiers was actively discouraged.

The French Revolution brought sweeping changes to the French army. Corporal punishment was replaced with degrees of arrest and imprisonment. The purchase of commissions was abolished; meritorious soldiers were promoted to officers; unsuccessful generals were guillotined. Political representatives of the revolutionary regime accompanied the soldiery in the early campaigns. Mass conscription and patriotic fervor to defend the Revolution and France reintegrated the army with the nation. New tactics were developed to employ the inexperienced recruits effectively. Napoleon further encouraged individual initiative, rewarded ordinary soldiers with medals, and gave his armies an aggressive thirst for glory with successive victories.

Types of Soldiers

The Infantry

The core of every army was the infantry, organized into regiments of one or more battalions. The second battalion of most British regiments remained at home on recruiting and reserve duties. The multiple battalions of U.S. and continental European regiments usually served together. French battalions consisted of one grenadier company (of the best soldiers), four fusilier companies, and a *voltigeur* (skirmisher) company. British battalions had eight ordinary companies, a grenadier company, and a

light infantry company of skirmishers. A full-strength British company had 100 soldiers and was led by a captain and two lieutenants. French companies varied in size – a typical 1808 line company had a captain, a lieutenant, a *sous-lieutenant*, 14 sergeants and corporals, two drummers, and 121 privates.

The average infantryman carried some 70 pounds of equipment, including a knapsack of spare clothing, a haversack of food, canteen, blanket, greatcoat, musket, bayonet, gunpowder pouch, and up to 60 rounds of ammunition, in addition to his share of common gear. British packs were of poorly made canvas; lucky British soldiers used captured French horsehide packs. Sergeants were responsible for carrying the ledgers containing the company accounts.

Uniforms were uncomfortable, made from cheap cloth, and colorful rather than camouflaged for most units. Austrian, Spanish, and pre-Revolutionary French soldiers wore white. Revolutionary and Napoleonic France used blue, with many French-allied units copying the designs. Prussian infantry also wore blue, while the Russians wore green and the British red. By 1808, British soldiers were officially relieved of wearing their hair in powdered queues. American Revolution infantrymen wore blue, with diverse colored facings indicating their home state. Within armies, individual units were distinguished by variant badges, facings, cuffs, headgear, and so forth. Some continental units used uniform color schemes that diverged greatly from national norms.

Skirmishers required greater resourcefulness than ordinary infantry, being expected to engage the enemy without detailed orders, and received extra marksmanship training. They usually fought in pairs, firing alternately. Some British skirmishers, such as the fifth battalion of the Royal Americans and the Rifle Regiment (95th Foot), were armed with rifles. Napoleon preferred the musket’s faster rate of fire to the rifle’s accuracy, and so his armies made minimal use of rifles. Uniforms tended toward “natural” colors – British riflemen wore dark green, Portuguese skirmishers (called *caçadores*) brown with green piping, Austrian and Prussian *Jägers* green and grey. The French *voltigeurs* were an exception, with blue uniforms.

The Cavalry

Cavalry were divided into two classes: heavy cavalry, used as battlefield shock troops, and light cavalry, intended for skirmish and outpost duties. However, British units served in both capacities according to need. Cavalry regiments consisted usually of three to six squadrons (though some Prussian, Russian, and Austrian regiments had 10), subdivided into two “troops” per squadron, and with up to 60 cavalymen per troop.

Rough riders and riding masters instructed new recruits in equestrian skills. Officers usually purchased their own horses. The standard of animal care varied from army to army; however, in battle, horse casualties were significantly higher than human.

The cavalry were armed with sabers. The British were encouraged to use the cut rather than the thrust in battle (and vice versa for the French). An accurate thrust was known to be more deadly; the cut was likelier to down an opponent without the risk of the blade becoming stuck. Some light cavalry used lances – the extra reach was advantageous against infantry





Copeland, Marshal of France (1812)

squares and devastating against unformed troops, but a hindrance against cavalry using sabers. Consequently, the British never deployed lancers, although they were popular in continental armies. Most cavalry units also used carbines (short muskets) and pistols, but their range and accuracy from horseback was limited. Unless loaded carefully, both powder and shot tended to jiggle out of such weapons when kept in a saddle holster. However, they allowed light cavalry to serve as sentries, as advance parties, and as infantry when dismounted.

Cavalrymen wore finer uniforms than their infantry counterparts. None were more extravagant than the hussars with their ornate busbies, fur pelisses, gold-braided dolmans, colorful sashes, and fashionable boots. Other light cavalry were much duller; e.g., French dragoons wore green uniforms, British Dragoons wore red. Heavy cavalry often wore a steel cuirass (breastplate), whence the name “cuirassiers,” a tall helmet, high boots, and varying uniform colors.

The Artillery

The great guns, including cannon, howitzers, and mortars, were the responsibility of the artillery units. Ammunition ranged from ordinary shot through antipersonnel canister and case shot to flares, smoke bombs, and the highly erratic Congreve rockets. Shrapnel (introduced 1808) was a “secret” British ammunition, especially effective against distant artillery, but never copied by Napoleon’s armies. Guns required a minimum six-man crew; rapid firing required up to 10 men for light field pieces, and up to 16 for the heaviest ordnance.

Prior to the Revolutionary Wars, it was customary to attach several light guns to infantry battalions. Insufficiently powerful to provide effective fire support, they hindered rapid infantry deployment. Later the artillery was regrouped into “batteries” of between 4 and 12 guns to deliver concentrated fire. British “batteries” (confusingly called “brigades”) consisted of five cannon and one howitzer (for indirect fire) from 1802. After 1809, Napoleon reintroduced battalion guns to the French army to strengthen his infantry, reserving the heavier cannon for batteries.

True horse artillery units – where the gunners rode on horses rather than (Austrian-style) in caissons (ammunition-wagons) – were deployed as highly mobile fire support for cavalry charges.

Officers and Gentlemen

Patriotism, a love of glory, hopes of a fortune, or simple unfitness for any other vocation spurred gentlemen to become officers. The younger sons of the European aristocracies and scions of military families became infantry ensigns, cavalry cornets, or military cadets at 16 with their first commissions purchased by their families (see *The Purchase System*, p. 79). Those unable to afford an ensigncy could serve as “gentlemen rankers,” volunteers in the ranks (but “messing” (see p. 79) with the officers) until death created a vacancy for a subaltern. Officially Catholics were forbidden to serve as officers in English or Scottish regiments; however, the need to swear the legally required pro-Protestant oaths was forestalled by regularly renewed legislation and a willingness to overlook religion in most cases.

Necessity ensured that at least 5% of the serving officers were promoted from the ranks as rewards for conspicuous bravery. (Literacy was required of all officers, however.) Often they were sidelined as quartermasters and adjutants. Absence of a private income required them to survive on their pay, which was only possible by sacrificing the luxuries of the “mess,” endearing them even less to their social “superiors.”





In technical corps, such as the artillery, promotion was by strict seniority. In the infantry and cavalry, officers could purchase higher rank either with hard cash or by recruiting sufficient soldiers. (Valor could also win promotion.) To prevent the inexperienced from buying their way to high rank, the British imposed time requirements. To be promoted to captain, an officer had to serve at least two years as a lieutenant; to reach major, seven years experience (two as a captain) was demanded; and a total of nine years service was required for lieutenant colonels (equivalent to continental colonels and battalion commanders). The higher ranks of colonel, major general, lieutenant general, and general were attained through seniority. Merit, influence, and seniority decided who was sent on active service.

THE IMPERIAL GUARD

The Guard had its origins in the *Garde du Directoire* of Directorial France, which was intended as an escort force for the Directors, and numbered 120 grenadiers and 120 horse grenadiers. Napoleon converted this unit into a much larger force loyal to him, rewarding them with better pay, uniforms, living conditions, and prestige. Each Guardsman, whether infantry, cavalry, or artillery, had to meet physical requirements of height (at least 5' 8" for grenadiers and 5' 6" for chasseurs), constitution, and age (at least 25 years old for Old Guard entry) as well as military experience (a minimum of 10 years campaigning for entry into the Old Guard), exemplary conduct, and bravery. These requirements varied for different units and at different times; valor was considered more important than physical statistics.

Initially established in 1800 at 2,089 officers and men (as the *Garde des Consuls*), the "Old Guard" grew to 5,736 strong, being renamed in 1802 as the *Garde Consulaire* and in 1804 as the *Garde Impériale*. Identifiable by their unique tall bearskin bonnets, six-inch powdered queues, moustaches, and gold earrings, Guardsmen wore their greatcoats and blue overall-trousers rather than blue dress uniform, white breeches, and long gaiters when on campaign. As Napoleon's most valuable troops, they were rarely deployed in battle (and often only when the foe was retreating) much to their consternation, earning them the nickname "*les grognards*," the grumblers, but ensuring their aura of invincibility. Promotion was slow within the Old Guard, so suitable candidates were promoted into junior regiments.

The Imperial Guard was expanded from 1804 onwards by recruiting veteran soldiers from line regiments and young hopefuls from good families. Eventually (1811) known as the "Middle Guard," these Guardsmen formed Grenadier, *Chasseur à Pied*, and Fusilier regiments, but were distinguished from Old Guardsmen by their short-cropped hair and shakos. From 1809, the "Young Guard" regiments of *tirailleurs* and *voltigeurs* were created and were equipped and deployed as light infantry. By 1814, the Imperial Guard had swollen to 1,684 officers and 47,269 men, one-third of France's army.

The Guard included excellent cavalry regiments, such as the *Grenadiers à Cheval*, nicknamed the "gods" and the "giants" for their height and tall fur caps, and the *Chasseurs à Cheval*, "the cherished children" who were Napoleon's closest bodyguard. The Empress' Dragoons (so titled in 1807) were recruited from the line dragoon regiments from 1806. A 240-strong squadron of Mamelukes, initially formed during Napoleon's Egyptian campaign, served as irregular cavalry and retained native dress. Lancer regiments included the Polish cavalry of the 1st *Cheval-Légers* (formed in 1807), the Dutch 2nd *Cheval-Légers-Lanciers* (formed in 1809), known as the red lancers from their scarlet uniforms, and three regiments of scout-lancers (established in 1813), who served as skirmishers. (The introduction of foreign units within the Guard may have been politically motivated to strengthen the Empire's union.)

Initially a company with eight guns, the Guard artillery was transformed in 1806 into a regiment of horse artillery equipped with heavy caliber guns. Its lightest pieces were 6-pounders; most were 12-pounders and 203-mm howitzers. Consequently the Guard artillery was frequently used en masse.

Created in 1803 to man the boats for the invasion of England, the battalion-strength Seamen of the Guard were employed on land, usually as engineers, artillerymen, or soldiers.

Staff Officers

Army staffs were few in number and included the senior artillery, engineer, and medical officers, the commissary, the paymaster, the deputy judge advocate (responsible for court-martials), and a handful of junior officers serving as aides-de-camp and messengers. Chaplains rarely saw active service with their regiments.

The engineers were notoriously overworked and sustained high casualty rates. The British corps was all officers with manpower supplied by semi-skilled infantry and civilians. Similarly, British supply wagons were operated by hired drivers and unfit soldiers. Most nations relied on complex provisioning systems to keep their troops in the field, with British commissariat clerks being unusual in paying cash for goods and fortunate in receiving supplies by sea. Following the Revolution, the French simply requisitioned material from the local populace, paying seldom and in arrears. The system simplified French logistics and increased their mobility, but only worked in rich farmlands. Where the country was hostile or lightly populated, soldiers would go hungry. Undisciplined vanguard units were likely to consume food and drink to excess, to the disadvantage of the rest.

Intelligence was provided by the light cavalry and "observing officers," who wore full dress uniforms and rode fast horses when on reconnaissance – the former prevented execution as spies if they were captured, the latter prevented capture! Napoleon's generals were not averse to personally donning disguises and infiltrating enemy supply trains to gain information. Some agents even kidnapped civilians. Maps were scarce and usually of poor quality – wise commanders inspected the terrain in person.

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Daily Life

While some soldiers enlisted for a life of adventure, others sought an escape from poverty – for them, the cash inducement of an enlistment bounty (10 guineas for British Army recruits in the 1790s) was an irresistible temptation. (The recruit was not informed that the price of his equipment came out of his pay!) Conscripts filled Napoleon's armies, while in Britain, some convicts "volunteered" for army service and gangs of "crimpers" suborned the unwary. Crimpers were merchants, publicans, and outright rogues who supplied undermanned regiments with recruits for a fee. Typical stratagems involved getting potential victims drunk and handing them over to the army before they sobered. Some gangs kidnapped their prey from brothels. Unless they escaped from the crimpers or the recruiting party, or could refund their bounty, recruits were "sworn in" (and thus under military law) before a magistrate within four days.





DISTINCTIVE BRITISH FORCES

The King's German Legion

After the French invasion of Hanover in 1803 and the subsequent disbandment of the Electorate's army, George III determined to raise a Hanoverian army in exile. This proved exceedingly popular, with the King's German Legion consisting of eight line infantry battalions, two light infantry battalions, two heavy dragoon regiments, three light dragoon regiments, two horse and four foot artillery batteries, and an engineer detachment by 1805. The cavalry regiments in particular were the most disciplined in the entire British army. Uniforms and equipment were British in style, and the Legionaries spoke English officially, but German in practice. The Legion was disbanded in 1816, becoming the new army of Hanover.

The Royal Americans

Formed initially from loyalist Americans, the four battalions of the 60th Royal American Regiment remained in British service after the loss of America. In 1797, a fifth battalion of mainly German recruits with rifle experience was added, enabling rifle companies from this unit to be attached to divisions. The original four battalions wore standard red uniforms with blue facings and used muskets; the fifth battalion wore green uniforms with red facings and blue breeches and were armed with Baker rifles.

95th Rifles

In 1800, Britain formed an "Experimental Corps of Riflemen" from 14 regiments. These riflemen were trained in light infantry tactics. Enlarged by drafts from "Fencible" (militia) regiments, the three battalions of the 95th Rifles served with distinction in the Light Division during the Peninsular War. Uniformed in dark green with black facings and white piping, and sporting black leather equipment, these soldiers were experts with the Baker rifle.

Army conditions were nevertheless better than civilian life for many rank and file recruits. Able troopers could hope for promotion for good service. Old soldiers could expect easy postings to quiet garrisons and eventual discharge.

Soldiers received free housing (whether quartered in proper barracks, inns, or local houses), free clothing (replacement uniforms), and food. For a British soldier, the daily ration consisted of a pound and a half of bread, a pound of beef or a half-pound of pork, a quarter-pint of peas, an ounce of butter or cheese, an ounce of rice, and five pints of small beer or cider. (At sea, they shared the naval diet.) Those who wished could buy additional food; services such as laundry came out of their pay.

The Officers' Mess

The officers (and any "gentlemen rankers") dined and relaxed together in the comforts of the "mess," effectively a private club. While officers on campaign might be reduced to ordinary rations, the mess would normally be able to purchase much better supplies, enabling them to live according to their station as gentlemen. Regiments acquired their own traditions concerning behavior within the mess. Officers could be "fined" a bottle of port for arriving late or singing without permission. Frequent toasts to the health of the sovereign, the nation, the regiment, etc., were commonplace in the mess, as was excessive drinking. In addition to contributing to the mess funds for provisions, many well-to-do officers spent more than their pay on buying finely tailored uniforms and other equipment, and even hired civilians as servants, rather than relying on a single soldier-servant.

Discipline

Minor misdemeanors could be leniently punished with additional duties, temporary confinement to barracks, fines, or being required to perform duties encumbered with a wooden log or cannonball chained to one leg (apply Fatigue rules for overexertion, p. B134). Corporals and sergeants could be demoted. The Prussians retained the painful practice of *Krummschliessen*, where the offender's right hand was chained to his left foot for hours (each hour so immobilized costs 3 Fatigue Points). In Napoleon's armies, serious malefactors were executed.

Excessive drinking, absence of diverting pastimes, and the need for absolute obedience led (in the British army) to frequent floggings, usually of incorrigible troublemakers. Accused by an officer, the soldier would be arrested and heavily guarded until the senior regimental officers (who would act as judges) could convene a court martial. The charges would be brought against the accused, and any witnesses called to give evidence.

THE PURCHASE SYSTEM

In the British army, a gentleman seeking to purchase his first commission in a particular regiment approached the relevant regimental agent. He deposited the purchase price of the ensigncy or cornetcy with the agent, who submitted his name and any letters of recommendation to "Horse Guards" (army headquarters) for the Commander-in-Chief's approval. Thereafter higher rank could be purchased in a similar fashion, subject to vacancies existing and the minimum service time requirements being met.

Although the prices of commissions were regulated, applicants sometimes paid more to secure rank in a fashionable regiment. Prices for infantry commissions were approximately as follows: Ensigns \$2,000, Lieutenants \$2,500, Captains \$7,500, Majors \$13,000, and Lieutenant Colonels \$17,500. Cavalry commissions cost more, sometimes two or three times as much. To purchase a higher rank, the officer actually paid only the difference in rank (e.g., \$500 to upgrade to Lieutenant from Ensign, with the \$2,000 remainder being paid by the purchaser of his vacated ensigncy). The most senior officer in each rank had the right of first refusal in purchasing a higher commission.

When a serving officer died, his commission was not sold. Instead, the most senior officer in the grade below was promoted into the vacancy. Commissions belonging to cashiered officers were also not sold; a replacement officer from a different regiment was promoted into the vacancy without purchase.

While officers who were crippled in the line of duty could expect an annual pension for each limb or eye lost (\$250 for ensigns, \$500 for captains, \$1,000 for majors, and \$2,000 for generals), they did not receive retirement pensions. Instead, they sold their commissions and invested the money in "annuities," which normally yielded an annual income equal to their former pay. Widows of serving officers received a modest pension (\$180 for an ensign's widow, \$250 for a captain, and \$600 for a general). In addition, the dead officer's personal effects and equipment would be auctioned, with the proceeds being sent to his next of kin.

Sometimes the commissions could not be sold (usually because the regiment had been disbanded after a war). The unfortunate officers were placed on "half-pay" status – allowed to pursue other occupations (other than holy orders and service in other foreign armies) while drawing approximately half their salary – but were expected to return to full service if the need arose.





Ligny, Napoleon from Corsica to St. Helena (1815)

The accused would be “defended” by an officer, though for enlisted men, this might be limited to a plea of mitigating circumstances. If the court gave a guilty verdict, a flogging sentence could be as severe as hundreds of lashes, and was carried out quickly.

The regiment was assembled to witness punishment. The sergeants lashed several halberds together and planted them firmly in the ground to form the “triangle.” The offender was stripped to the waist, tied to the “triangle,” and given a leather gag to bite on, both to stifle any cries and to prevent his biting his tongue. Once the surgeon had confirmed that the prisoner was healthy, the flogging began. Two drummer boys alternated in whipping the offender with a cat of nine tails to the beat of a drum. The flogging could be stopped prematurely, if the surgeon deemed the soldier was likely to die. In such cases, the remainder of the punishment could be meted out when he had recovered. Floggings could also be stopped at any time by higher authority.

Officers were not flogged. Instead they could be reprimanded for neglect of duty, placed on half-pay for incompetence, or dismissed from the service. Rather than risk the dishonor of a court-martial, officers would be persuaded by their peers to “sell out” their commissions and retire early.

On campaign, non-commissioned officers acted as provost-marshals to enforce discipline against looters, deserters, and cowards. Looting and murder were punished by hanging; desertion mandated the firing squad.

On Campaign

At sea, soldiers traveled in navy vessels, East India Company transports, or (unsuitable) hired merchantmen. On land, infantry marched 15 miles per day (though 70 miles in 24 hours was achieved on some forced marches). Cavalry usually made 17 miles in six hours’ travel, though up to 28 miles could be covered. Using relays of horses, couriers attained much higher speeds. While the artillery could cover three miles in a single hour, the requirement to rest the horses meant that only six miles could be managed in four hours and 12 miles in 10 hours.

When traveling, advance parties left early each morning to mark out the next night’s camp. Meanwhile, the watch would be changed and the camp swiftly struck. The force would then march out in column, halting briefly at intervals of a couple of miles to permit the rearguard to close on the main body. On arrival, the new camp would be set quickly, sentries posted, and the soldiers would sleep in their great-coats or occasionally tents.

Camp Followers

Well-to-do officers employed servants, and some brought wives and children on campaign. Although wives of private soldiers were allowed in British barracks, no more than six wives per company were allowed to join their men on foreign service. These women cooked, laundered, foraged, and tended the wounded. If their husbands were killed, they were rarely widowed for long. True camp-followers had no status and were abandoned by the army at the war’s end. In addition to the womenfolk, traders and rogues accompanied the army to sell goods to the soldiers and join in looting the dead (and the wounded) on the battlefield.

FLOGGING RULES

The cat of nine tails was the normal means of administering flogging in the British army and navy. The naval cat had a rope handle, two feet long and one inch in diameter. Attached to this were the nine tails, which were also two feet long and made of line (one-quarter of an inch in diameter) with the ends knotted. Army cats were significantly lighter and did proportionately less damage. One stroke would raise a red welt, with the knots drawing blood. After half a dozen, the offender’s back would be raw. As the flogging continued, his back would be transformed into a bloody mess. In severe floggings, onlookers might see the flash of white as the strokes laid open the back to the spine. The flogging would result in permanent scars.

The following abstract rules should be used for handling flogging. As flogging sentences ranged from dozens to hundreds of lashes, damage is given by the following table:

Navy lashes:	6	12	18	24	36	each further 50
Army lashes:	12	24	36	50	75	each further 100
Damage:	1d-5	1d-4	1d-3	1d-2	1d-1	1d

The GM might require a Will roll or even a Fright check for the victim to avoid becoming insane from fear of a harsh sentence or the aftereffects of the flogging.

If the victim is reduced to 5 hit points or less (and the sentence is not yet complete), a First Aid (or Physician) roll should be made for the attending surgeon. If this is made, the surgeon will correctly assess the prisoner’s current state of health and will normally intervene to halt the punishment once the prisoner is reduced to 3 or fewer hit points. If the roll is failed, he incorrectly diagnoses the prisoner’s health (by a point or two in either direction). A critical failure (or a malicious surgeon) could result in the prisoner dying during punishment.

Once the flogging has ended, the surgeon will administer first aid to the victim, who may require several days (or even weeks after harsh sentences) to recover. Normal rules apply for this recuperation.





Battlefield Medicine

For the soldier, disease was a graver danger than battle, and a posting to the “Fever Islands” (the West Indies) was a death sentence. Accidents and fatigue added to the casualty list, as did malingering. Surgeons and assistants were attached to regiments; military hospitals also had physicians. Some were extremely able; others were barely trained. In battle, “dressing stations” were established in the rear. Dominique-Jean Larrey, principal surgeon to Napoleon’s armies, introduced field hospitals, first aid practices, and “ambulance” services to ferry the wounded for timely treatment. The ambulance carriages had suspension mechanisms, which served to reduce the pain, stress, and bleeding experienced by patients during transit. In other armies, the injured had to make their own way to help or remain where they fell for hours or days until

medical parties located them. Sometimes regimental bandsmen served as stretcher-bearers; more frequently the battle-shy helped the wounded to safety (out of compassion) and occasionally forgot to return to the combat. The survival of casualties depended on the ability and willingness of the surgeon to persevere with “hopeless” cases. See *Practitioners and Treatments*, p. 92, for rules on contemporary medicine.

In Battle

Sieges and Breaches

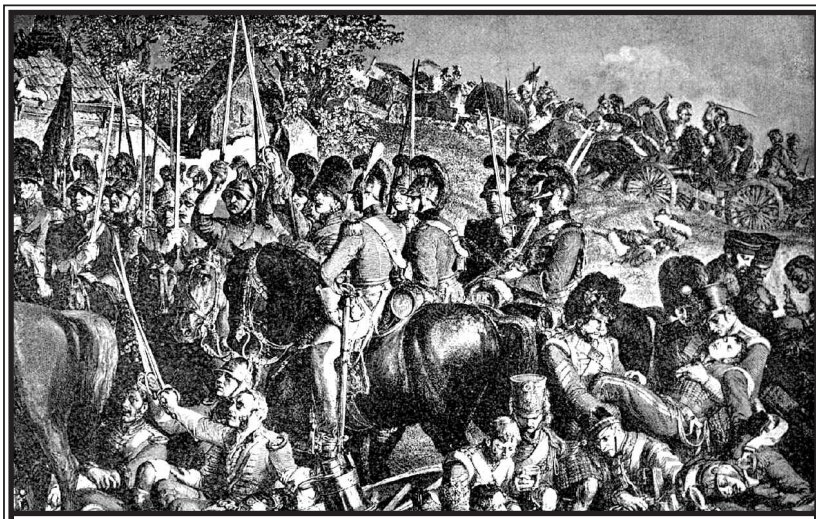
When besieging a town or fortress, the attackers first deployed a covering force to prevent defender sorties and the arrival of relief forces. Next, circuits of trenches were dug, moving ever inward, and artillery batteries established. The defenders fortified their redoubt with a surrounding “glacis” (a raised ramp of soil to soak up cannonball impacts) and bombarded the besiegers, who in turn concentrated their fire on weak points, eventually creating a breach in the wall. Once this was adjudged “practicable” (i.e., large enough for sufficient attackers to penetrate the defenses), the garrison was asked to surrender, and could do so without loss of honor. If the defenders refused, a “Forlorn Hope” of volunteers (officers and men desiring promotion and glory) led the assault. A well-defended breach doomed the Forlorn Hope and sometimes the main attack. If the defense failed, no mercy was shown to the garrison, and the town was subjected to looting, rapine, and mayhem until the provost-marshal could restore discipline.

Artillery Tactics

Artillery were most effective when given time to prepare their position. If defending a village, the cannon were placed to the side of the village or in the local churchyard to prevent accidental conflagrations. On a battlefield, the guns were lowered into shallow pits with only their muzzles poking through shields of soil. Gunners measured the distances to landmarks in advance, placing the smallest guns (which had the shortest range) furthest forward. All batteries were positioned within 900 yards of each other to be close enough for mutual support

and effective control, with infantry and cavalry units between for protection. Sentries or cannon loaded with canister guarded the flanks. To prevent explosions, only one ammunition wagon was allowed forward at any time.

The guns would open fire once the enemy was 1,000 to 2,000 yards distant, targeting opposing artillery first, then cavalry formations, and finally infantry in squares or columns. If oblique fire at infantry in line could be achieved, then high casualties would be inflicted. Once the battle reached a decision, the artillery would pursue a withdrawal or protect a retreat by a staggered sequence of firing and moving maneuvers. If moving was impossible, the guns were spiked and the wagons blown up.



Waterloo, (1815)

Cavalry Tactics

Cavalry attacked in one of three formations: squadrons in line with up to 24 yards separating units and with skirmishers in the gaps; in two lines (*en echiquier*), with the second line squadrons 100 yards behind the first line, matching up with its squadron-sized holes; and in echelon, with squadrons separated by 100 yards, forming an extended diagonal line. When advancing, the cavalry would gradually increase their pace from a walk (120 yards/minute) through a trot (240 yards/minute) to a gallop (480 yards/minute) once they were within 200 paces of the enemy target. (Charge pace was 600 yards/minute but ruined horses.) The second rank of riders remained at least three yards behind the foremost horsemen, only moving forward in the final 50 yards to fill gaps. Where possible, a second cavalry formation trotted after the first at 300 yards distance with wide gaps through which front-line squadrons could withdraw. These reinforcements allowed an assault to be quickly supported or renewed.

Echelon attack was most useful against opposing cavalry. Infantry was most vulnerable in line, or from the rear and flanks. Infantry squares were weakest at the corners, but a dying horse falling into a square could breach it anywhere. Attacking artillery was suicide. Cavalry’s perennial weakness was their inability to reform for a pursuit or regroup following a charge – instead they usually rode heedlessly forward after glory, formations fragmented, and they were overwhelmed by resolute foes.



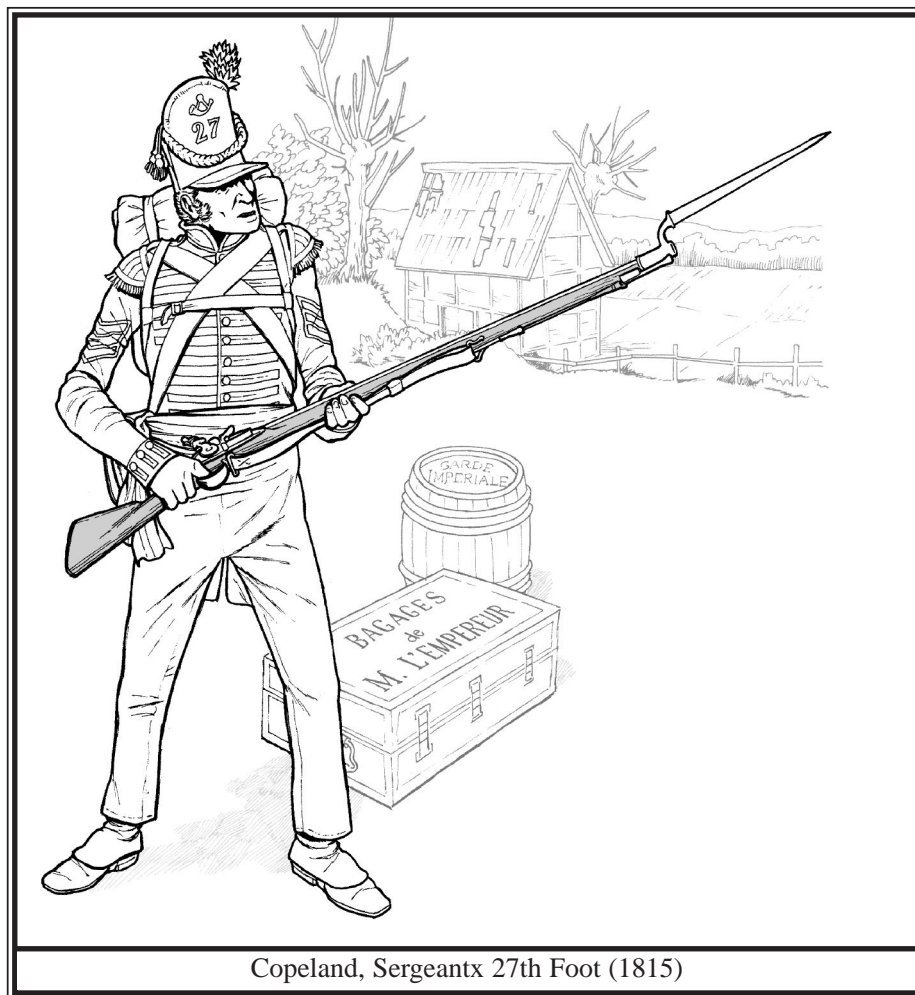


Infantry Tactics

Infantry marched and maneuvered in columns (usually three men abreast), but deployed in line (two or three long rows of men, front rank kneeling, next rank standing behind, final row as reserve). British commanders used two-rank lines, sacrificing the ability to fill gaps from the reserve for maximum frontage and firepower. The normal pace for “evolutions” (formation maneuvers) was 75 yards/minute, but seasoned troops could perform at the “double” rate of 120 yards/minute. Against cavalry, infantry formed a square, holding their musket fire until at close range and then presenting an array of bayonets (normally sufficient to frighten surviving horses into pulling up). A well-trained and steady line could also break a cavalry charge with a volley at 40 yards. Squares and long columns were extremely vulnerable to artillery raking through multiple ranks. In line, however, soldiers could follow the path of incoming shot, sidestepping left and right to allow cannonballs to pass through safely, though sergeants would punish such undisciplined disruption of the formation. Volley fire, by rank or by entire unit, was the principal infantry attack, with trained troops being able to load, aim, and fire between three and five times per minute depending on musket design and cleanliness (repeated firing fouled the barrel). Seasoned French, exceptional Spanish, and green British infantry achieved three musket shots per minute. (Rifle firing rates were three shots per minute at best.) The first volley could be vital, as its accuracy was greater, owing to careful and unhurried loading of the weapon – if timed correctly, its devastating effect could break an enemy charge, physically or psychologically. Infantry fired and moved alternately in both advance and withdrawal.

Napoleonic Tactics and Counters

The conscripts of the French Revolutionary armies were too inexperienced to fight in line; instead their training emphasized the attack in column, which had speed and power. Napoleon’s innovation was to combine artillery, cavalry, and infantry in such assaults. The artillery bombarded selected areas of the enemy line – few commanders used terrain to protect their troops. Meanwhile the infantry slowly advanced in squad- and company-wide columns, drummers within the formation timing the march and the regular shouts of “Vive l’Empereur.” Soldiers within the column hoisted their shakos high into the air on their bayonets, increasing the column’s apparent size, while sergeants expertly filled gaps created by casualties. French columns terrified opposing armies – Austrian and Spanish officers frequently opened fire at too long range. The continental tactics of



Copeland, Sergeantx 27th Foot (1815)

using three-rank lines also reduced effective volleys to two-thirds of unit strength. The *voltigeur* skirmish companies would move rapidly forward to weaken the enemy lines further (sometimes tempting them into wasting a volley on the scattered skirmishers), eventually withdrawing to allow the columns to reach and overwhelm them. (Prussian and Austrian units, poor at rapid maneuvering, were frequently disrupted by *voltigeur* attacks before they had fully deployed. The Prussian lack of skirmishers allowed the *voltigeurs* to snipe with impunity.) Few lines could withstand the impact of the column, and its concentrated numbers swiftly decided any melee. The fusilier companies would then proceed to “roll up” the broken line, and the cavalry would be unleashed to smash remaining resistance and rout the enemy.

The British (under Wellington) developed counters to each aspect of these assaults. To minimize casualties from artillery, the troops were ordered to lie down or to remain behind the crests of hills and ridges (the “reverse slopes” tactic). Light infantry thwarted the *voltigeurs*, shot enemy officers, and harassed the columns’ flanks. As the columns approached, the British lines then got to their feet or advanced over the crest, awaiting their opponents in complete silence until they moved within close musket range – whereupon volley after volley was fired into the columns. As soon as the grenadier companies were destroyed, the columns were halted by their own dead. This was the moment for a rousing cheer and a controlled bayonet charge to rout the enemy.





NAPOLEON'S MILITARY SUCCESS

Napoleon's military successes had many sources. He was driven by unbounded ambition to emulate previous world conquerors, and could be utterly ruthless in pursuit of his goals. His personal charisma, apt battlefield rhetoric, and appeal as a soldier's general inspired his armies to extraordinary efforts – Wellington opined that Napoleon's presence at a battle was worth an extra army corps.

Unlike his political and military opponents, Napoleon enjoyed an unrivalled unity of command in his combined role as head of state and of the army. (His related weakness was an inability to delegate, fearing usurpation, though he had a knack for selecting the most competent subordinates for any task.) In war, he was single-minded in aiming to destroy the enemy's field army through decisive battles and the relentless pursuit of retreating forces, whereas his foes considered territorial gains, besieged cities, etc.

Close security, cavalry screens, different routes for distinct army corps, and Napoleon's ability to improvise grand strategy all confounded attempts to discern his plans. The French use of requisitioning and looting to reprovision (rather than relying on supply trains) enabled his armies to move faster than his opponents whenever Napoleon observed an opportunity. His organization of the army into self-contained corps gave Napoleon increased maneuverability and flexibility against more traditional armies – any corps could give battle en route and withstand the enemy until reinforcements arrived. Each corps stayed within up to two days' march of the others when moving.

Wherever possible, his methods involved the rapid concentration of forces to achieve local superiority. Against numerically superior enemies, Napoleon attempted to shatter them into two wings by eliminating the center. One army corps would pin down one wing, while the remaining corps would overwhelm the other wing, then split to harry routed forces and reinforce the pinning corps. Against numerically inferior enemies, Napoleon would deploy a corps to distract their main force while the bulk of his units flanked the enemy, severing their lines of communication, and compelling the enemy commander to fight Napoleon on ground of the Emperor's choosing (and Napoleon had an excellent eye for terrain) with a divided force (as the feinting corps would otherwise destroy the rearguard). To prevent timely reinforcement, Napoleon would deploy observation corps at strategic locations.

Strong government with an effective taxation base, mass conscription, and minimal training of recruits maintained Napoleon's military strength, while French national spirit (created by the Revolution) and esprit de corps (from the veterans) enthused new soldiers. A general staff of several thousand officers (including the meticulous Marshal Berthier) and some 10,000 other ranks administered the army and implemented Napoleon's orders. A key task of the staff was the daily revision and fortnightly complete renewal of the *carnets*, detailed notebooks containing comprehensive information on every French and allied unit plus intelligence reports on foes, which gave Napoleon substantial advantages in strategic and tactical planning.

ALL THE WORLD'S ARMIES

The table below gives a snapshot of the army strengths of the major powers in terms of infantry battalions, cavalry squadrons, and artillery batteries around 1800. Full-strength English-style battalions mustered 1,000 men; French-style battalions had 600 soldiers. Cavalry squadrons varied between 120 and 150 riders. Batteries usually had between six and 12 cannons and howitzers.

Army Strengths Table

Country	Infantry	Cavalry	Artillery
Austrian Empire	255	322	1,000
Denmark	30	36	20
France	265	322	202
Great Britain	115	140	40
Italy	37	19	18
Naples	36	21	16
Portugal	48	48	24
Prussia	175	156	50
Russia	359	341	229
Spain	153	93	60
Sweden	75	66	70
USA	12	4	4

The Italian and Neapolitan units listed above served under Napoleon and were organized along French lines. Austria did not organize its artillery into batteries. The Ottoman Empire had some 24,000 soldiers trained in firearms and modern tactics plus 196 regiments of janissaries, each with between 2,000 and 3,000 scimitar-wielding fanatics.

The Mass Combat Rules presented in *GURPS Compendium II* should be used for resolving battles in the period. The European armies are quite similar in organization and troop types.

Troop Types

Rangers: Unarmored irregulars (often raised from colonial settlers) or specialist soldiers used for scouting duties. Usually armed with rifles and swords. Quality is Average to Elite. TS value 5 (irregular) 8 (regular).

Native Americans: Unarmored or lightly armored irregulars. Armed with axes, bows, and knowledge of the terrain. Quality: Green to Veteran. TS value 3 (5 if armed with muskets).

Native Indians: Unarmored or lightly armored regulars, armed with swords and pikes. Quality: Green to Veteran. TS value 2.

Light Infantry (Skirmishers): Regular soldiers wearing no armor. French and French-influenced units used muskets, bayonets, and sabers; British skirmishers from the Rifle Regiment and Royal Americans bore rifles and bayonets, other British light infantry used muskets and bayonets; Austrian *jägers* wielded rifles and sabers; Portuguese *caçadores* were initially armed with muskets and shortwords, but by 1810 all bore Baker rifles and sword-bayonets. Minimum quality: Average. TS value 9.

Infantry: Regular soldiers wearing no armor and usually armed with musket and bayonet. Members of Grenadier companies also had sabers. Minimum quality for Grenadiers: Seasoned. TS value 10.

Light Cavalry: Regular unarmored soldiers, and usually armed with saber, pistol, and carbine. Mounted on unarmored light horses. TS value 10.

Heavy Cavalry: Regular soldiers wearing at most a cuirass for armor, and usually armed with saber, pistol, and carbine. Polish cavalry units often used lances. Mounted on unarmored heavy horses. TS value 12.

Artillery: Gun crew armed as per regular infantry. Quality: Average or better. TS value 28-55 (according to size).

Officers always carried swords and usually had muskets, pistols, and/or rifles according to the custom of their service and personal inclination. Quality of troops should be limited to Seasoned, except for the British and French armies. From the Peninsular War onward, GMs should be generous in ascribing Veteran and Elite status to British units that have seen significant service in Spain and Portugal. Revolutionary France's armies should be a mixture of Raw to Average quality units. Most units in the later Directory should be Average or Seasoned. Forces serving with Napoleon should reach Veteran or possibly Elite status by 1805. The proportion of Veteran and Elite troops should continue to increase in Napoleon's armies until the Russian campaign. Afterward only a few units such as the Imperial Guard should retain Elite status; the majority of Napoleon's army thereafter should decline to Inexperienced and Average status.



In parallel with the military and naval conflicts, spies and police agents conducted their own secret struggle. Every nation employed its overseas diplomats as unofficial spies. Continental officials often supplied intelligence to the governments of foreign states. Some nations developed networks of informants – prior to the Tilsit treaty, Czar Alexander received money from Britain to establish a secret service, though the money was returned before he made peace with Bonaparte.

On His Majesty's Secret Service

British intelligence faced threats from the Jacobites, American revolutionaries, and Irish conspirators as well as the French. While the Jacobite Secret Service was unable to destabilize Britain sufficiently to effect a Stuart restoration, it did enable the Young Pretender (the soi-disant Charles III of England, known as “Bonnie Prince Charlie”) to visit London secretly. The French also employed Jacobite agents. During the American Revolution, the Committee of Secret Correspondence and the Secret Service orchestrated anti-British espionage. The British infiltrated the American Embassy in Paris, gaining details of sailing dates and cargo manifests of ships supplying the rebels through suborning aides or even, according to some theories, Benjamin Franklin himself!

The extreme perils posed by the French Revolution led Pitt in 1792 to establish a police service to provide internal security. Police magistrates, supported by clerks and constables, were sent wherever anti-government activities were detected, while “loyal” clubs and journals were created to counter pro-Jacobin societies and pamphleteers. Informers observed suspects in the taverns and coffee houses. The Bow Street Runners, originally responsible for controlling London’s road traffic, gained mounted patrols to suppress civil disturbances.

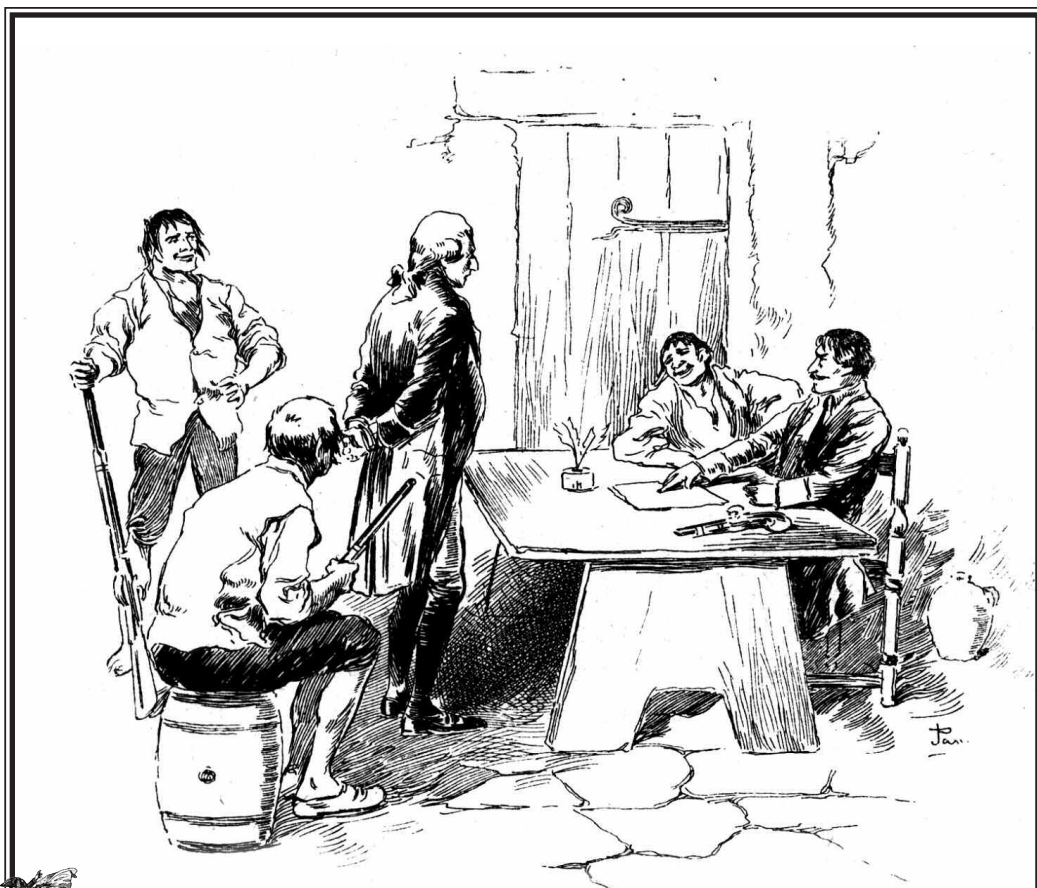
From 1793, the Alien Office was responsible for ensuring that all foreigners registered with a police magistrate or customs officials on arrival at a British port. Permits were required by anyone wanting to leave Britain. Formerly the Foreign Department of the Post Office had the task of opening, deciphering, and copying diplomatic correspondence. (Expert engravers then resealed the original letters, which were sent to their intended recipients.) With more suspects and foreigners to scrutinize, a new Secret Deciphering Office was created and placed under total secrecy.

The Royal Navy supported Britain’s secret war effort, with frigates watching neutral harbors. A squadron of small ships supported the Channel Islands Correspondence, a listening post and transfer point for agents between England and France. Occasionally Sir Evan Nepean, Secretary to the Admiralty, detached ships and officers for secret services without the knowledge or authority of the First Lord.

In the Peninsular War, the army gained its first official military intelligence officers. While some British Exploratory

Officers (see p. 78) concentrated on mapping the Iberian hinterlands, others worked closely with the Spanish partisans, who intercepted Napoleon’s couriers and waylaid detached French units. Eventually Wellington’s staff cracked the French ciphers.

Abroad, Switzerland (until it was conquered by the French) was Britain’s center for counter-revolution. William Wickham contacted royalists and linked them with British agents, forming and managing espionage cells, protecting some agents by gaining them commissions in Swiss regiments. Spies protected their reports with ciphers and invisible inks. Some top agents used multiple aliases, even sending incomplete reports to other agents and to their aliases to befuddle the enemy.



Spanish guerrillas question a French spy (1808)



In France, the *Institut Philanthropique*, ostensibly created by priests to relieve poverty, had an inner core dedicated to counter-revolution and funded by Britain. Its organization drew upon Freemasonry and Jesuit secret society practices. Each *philanthrope* knew only the alias of his superior, to whom he reported. This chain system preserved secrecy; when agents were captured, however, subordinate members could not be contacted.

Napoleon's romances in Egypt attracted the attention of Admiralty agent John Barnett, who suborned Napoleon's mistresses and servants. The cuckolded husband of one mistress was ordered back to France with routine despatches. The Royal Navy captured the transport carrying the officer. Barnett persuaded him to return to Egypt to assassinate Napoleon, but the husband failed to kill him.

With foreign spies receiving \$2,000 annual salaries and substantial bribes commonplace, secret service monies were siphoned from the "Civil List" (officially payments to the Royal Family) and army contingency funds. (Secret Service pensions were also given to retired spies, and occasionally impoverished lords.) Payments were made through the continental banking houses – reports were also sent via the *diligence*, a coach service operated by these bankers throughout Europe.

The Men from the Ministry

During the Revolution and the early Directory, the French police's mission was to protect each incumbent government, while their other functions (see p. 64) were transferred to multiple commissions. Central to forestalling counter-revolution were the powers of the Passport Acts, by which all French citizens were required to seek a permit from their local municipality before leaving on a journey and a further permit to stay on arrival at their destination. Anyone without a legal passport was treated as a vagrant or worse.

From 1796, the Ministry of Police was added to the government and the local gendarmerie was established to deal with ordinary crime. After a succession of ministers, Joseph Fouché (see p. 39) became head of the *haut police* in 1799.

Fouché recruited hundreds of spies to monitor the activities of the citizenry and to combat Jacobin, royalist, and foreign conspiracies aimed at overthrowing the Consular and Imperial regimes. His agents watched for suspicious trading on the "Bourse" (the French Stock Exchange), which might indicate a British attempt to devalue the currency. Anyone spending large sums of foreign cash or living beyond his means attracted police interest. Priests, émigrés, ex-prisoners of war, gamblers, fishermen questioned by the British, and even self-styled "seers" were routinely put under close observation. Fouché's spies also intercepted the mail of Imperial administrators and diplomats as well as the correspondence of the Bonaparte family. All the information gathered was stored in the records of the *Bureau particulier*.

Agents provocateurs mingled with the discontented, shared in their plotting, and then arrested the conspirators for treason. Bribery and blackmail persuaded impoverished nobles to betray their peers. Hard cash bought the loyalty of

some royalist agents; others were betrayed by the internecine jealousy of rival factions.

Suspects were frequently imprisoned "au secret" under conditions of solitary confinement. Torture, including methods such as partial garroting, was used to extract confessions. Even if a prisoner was acquitted of a crime, Fouché frequently ordered that he be detained indefinitely or required to relocate to a new area (sometimes outside France).

The Ministry's responsibilities extended beyond France's borders. Agents, styling themselves "correspondents," were active throughout Europe. In Britain, they infiltrated the English universities of Oxford and Cambridge, encouraged mutiny and treason within the armed services, and installed a double agent in the Alien Office. French spies, bearing the rose token (very like a scarlet pimpernel) used by some royalists, were thus temporarily able to enter and leave England without a passport.

The Empire faced multiple security threats. The royalist *contre-police*, backed by Britain, infiltrated the police, warning spies when they came under suspicion. Deserters from Napoleon's armies became brigands and counter-revolutionaries, only to be hunted by Fouché's men.

The *chouans*, originally supporters of Jean Chouan's Vendéan uprising of 1792-1794, later combined forces with adventurers, ex-convicts, and royalists. They operated in Normandy, Brittany, and Anjou and financed themselves by robbing mail coaches, which carried taxes and soldiers' pay. (They also received British gold.) During occasional truces with the regime, the *chouans* frequently came out of hiding and relaxed their guard. Fouché's agents identified them, placed them under observation, and added their details to the comprehensive police records. Such information was ruthlessly exploited whenever the truces ended.

Georges Cadoudal was, until his capture and execution in 1804, one of the most vigorous opponents of the Revolution and Napoleon. A veteran of the Breton uprisings, Cadoudal organized his own army, recruited deserters, and plotted with the British to lead an invasion of France. Involved in the Opera Plot (see p. 22) to assassinate Napoleon, he and Pichegru, a former revolutionary general, were separately captured following a failed attempt to persuade General Moreau, a rival of Bonaparte, to lead a coup.

Plots to assassinate Napoleon were common. The usual ideas involved attacking the Emperor en route to or from his residence at Saint-Cloud, ambushing him while hunting, having a marksman shoot him at a review of troops, pulling him off his horse so that he might be trampled to death, and even wilder schemes. Usually Fouché's informers were able to denounce the assassins before they completed their plans.

The Ministry received many letters informing them of conspiracies. Some were genuine; others were intended to mislead and sow fear among Napoleon's officials. One sensationalist report, purporting to detail a plot to use "pestiferous poisons" to eliminate Napoleon *and* his army, was revealed, after careful investigation, to be a fiction invented by an untrustworthy surgeon. Malicious rumors of the Emperor's death or capture on campaign, spread by royalist sympathizers, were suppressed regularly.



CHAPTER FIVE



*Captain Miller looked in vain for any wind in the sails. HMS **Swiftsure** was becalmed, a sitting duck for the French submarine still moving inexorably toward them.*

The gun crew finished loading the swivel gun. Lieutenant Watts and Harris the gunner

carefully adjusted the gun's elevation and aim. With a lot of luck, this might just sink the enemy craft, thought Watts; otherwise they might have to try intercepting it using the longboat.



The Enlightenment prepared the path to political revolution; science and technology were combining to create an industrial revolution. GMs and players planning political campaigns will find background material here on the intellectual and philosophical climate. For “secret history” and “Illuminated” campaigns, this era witnessed the creation or expansion of many secret societies such as the Freemasons and the Bavarian Illuminati. Trends in literature and the arts are covered – as even in action-packed military campaigns, dashing officers may find that a knowledge of the Romantic poets is essential when courting young ladies. The latest advances in science, medicine, and technology are also presented, so that GMs may determine what scientists and engineers in realistic campaigns may know, research, or create.

PHILOSOPHY

The 18th century up until the outbreak of the French Revolution was the Age of Enlightenment. Intellectual thought in philosophy, the social sciences, and the natural sciences flourished across civilized Europe. It was an era dominated by the *philosophes*. These diverse philosophers and writers were centered in, but not confined to, France. By 1769, the most influential social and political treatises of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau (see p. 53) had already been published, and they became accepted wisdom for many revolutionaries over the next two decades.

With the exception of the 17-volume *Encyclopédie* (completed in 1772), which aimed to summarize all extant human knowledge and popularize Enlightenment attitudes, the *philosophes* pursued no concerted agenda. They questioned traditional assumptions and sought to explain the world in rational terms. Most attacked religion, especially the established churches and any faith, which relied on “revelation” for its teachings. Their ideas were disseminated to the literate bourgeoisie by the *philosophes* themselves in salons and Masonic lodges as well as through their writings.

The European rulers also read the works of the Enlightenment thinkers. Both Frederick the Great of Prussia and Catherine the Great of Russia (see p. 37) patronized the writers and claimed to be influenced by them, consequently gaining significant prestige among the intellectual communities. In practice, these “enlightened” monarchs remained autocrats tending toward despotism, to the disappointment of the *philosophes*. Practical attempts at implementing “enlightenment” principles in terms of political reforms occurred in Austria under Joseph II, in Spain under Charles III’s ministers, and in lesser German and Italian principalities such as Leopold II’s Tuscany (see pp. 19). Britain was largely unaffected by Enlightenment thought until William Pitt the Younger (see p. 40) applied Adam Smith’s theories to trade policies. (Political campaigns might exploit this dichotomy between the ideals of the thinkers and the pragmatism of rulers as a source of conflict.)

While Voltaire placed his hopes for good government in enlightened monarchs, Montesquieu believed that the most suitable forms of government were the republic (for small city-states) and monarchy (for large nations). He advocated increasing the powers of the nobility and parliament to prevent monarchies from degenerating into despotism.

Rousseau claimed that the creation of societies had corrupted primitive man’s innocence. Progress, the institution of property, and social conventions led to human vices and jealousy and perpetuated inequality. His solution, published as *Du Contrat social* in 1762, was a new social contract. Citizens surrendered their natural rights (maintainable only through force) in return for civil rights, which would be recognized and adhered to by all members of society. To maintain this new society, Rousseau invoked a “general will” representing the common good. This “will” was determined by the majority decision of fully informed citizens or by an incorruptible lawgiver. In this totalitarian view, society could coerce anyone who refused to follow the “general will,” and the state controlled the morality, education, and economic equality of the citizenry. A secular cult, preaching patriotism and civic virtues, would replace Christianity, with failure to adhere to it punishable by death.

Rousseau’s influence on Robespierre (see p. 50) was substantial, in terms of government through Terror (see p. 15) and the Cult of the Supreme Being (see p. 67). In revolutionary-era campaigns, Jacobins might justify their methods as the necessary means of creating Rousseau’s new social order.

MERCANTILISM VS. FREE TRADE

The colonial expansion and trade monopolies of the European powers until the end of the 18th century reflected mercantilist economic doctrines. According to mercantilism, bullion was the prime measure of a nation’s wealth. Mineral resources and trade guaranteed the money supply. In commerce, exports should exceed imports because the world’s wealth was deemed to be constant, making international trade a struggle where one nation’s gain was another’s loss. Colonies provided raw materials and were closed markets for a nation’s manufactured goods. To protect the home suppliers, they were prohibited from developing their own industries, while all colonial trade was routed via the home country. Widespread smuggling thwarted mercantilism throughout the New World.

In contrast to the regulatory regime of the mercantilists, the “Physiocrats” of France espoused a “laissez-faire” policy and considered land rather than trade or industry to be the foundation of wealth. All restrictions on trade and labor were to be removed. Supply and demand were then expected to achieve fair prices. Attempts to implement these principles were foiled by the *parlements* in the 1770s, ending the doctrine’s influence and pushing France toward bankruptcy (see p. 13).

Adam Smith, in his treatise *The Wealth of Nations* (published in 1776), argued more forcefully for free trade. Smith contended that labor was the true foundation of a nation’s wealth in goods and services, division of labor was necessary to increase production, and competition was essential to individual and national improvement. Competition, not government, regulated wages, costs, and profits to their natural level. Domestic and foreign trade were equally beneficial; protectionist monopolies merely enriched manufacturers and merchants without benefiting the state as a whole.

In the context of political campaigns (see p. 119), mercantilism, Physiocracy, and free trade provide frameworks by which politicians can devise economic policies as well as special interest groups (monopolist manufacturers, ship owners, colonial merchants, etc.) who may either favor or be actively hostile to a politician’s reforms.





The attacks of the French *philosophes* on religion ensured that their works were banned by the Catholic Church in France, Spain, and Italy. This did not prevent leading clergymen and even rural priests from acquiring copies. Criticism and suspicion became more widespread following the French Revolution as their writings were deemed to have contributed to the revolt. (Royalist sympathizers are likely to loathe Enlightenment writings and writers; agents involved in countering revolutions will consider possession of such material to be incriminating evidence.)

Later thinkers initially supported the French Revolution. Thomas Paine (see p. 53), whose pamphlet *Common Sense* had inflamed the American Revolution, even became a member of the National Convention during the Terror and attacked authority and privilege in his tracts *The Rights of Man* (published in 1791 and 1792).

Edmund Burke (see p. 51) first criticized the French Revolution in his *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, published in 1790. Although his knowledge of French history and current affairs was limited, he defended existing institutions, warned against rapid change, and predicted revolutionary violence. Burke's essay, strengthened by fears of Irish rebellions and disgust at the excess brutality in France, eventually shaped the British government's attitudes to the French Revolution and its successor regimes.

THE ARTS Literature

In the mid-18th century, Europe possessed two international languages – Latin and French. Latin remained the language of the Catholic Church, of education, and of scholarship and a common official tongue in Central and Eastern Europe. (Greek also formed part of a contemporary classical education, but was much less useful in later life.) French was the language of the literate and the cultured. Continental Europe was heavily influenced by French literature, especially the writings of the *philosophes*.

In Britain, the novel was firmly established, with writers such as Defoe, Fielding, Richardson, Smollett, and Sterne being widely read. Translations of Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* and Richardson's *Pamela* were popular in Europe. Gothic novels such as Ann Radcliff's *Mysteries of Udolpho* (1794) and Matthew Lewis' *The Monk* (1796) engaged popular interest in the supernatural and horror. Ephemeral erotic romances maintained a steady readership.

Elegance, rather than originality or passion, was the hallmark of the high culture. However, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe's *The Sorrows of Young Werther* (published in 1774)

FREEMASONRY AND SECRET SOCIETIES

The rationalist ideals of the Enlightenment philosophers found acceptance and easy dissemination within the secret brotherhood of the "Free and Accepted Masons," no doubt assisted by *philosophes* such as Voltaire being themselves Freemasons. Attacks on the traditional religions and support for solidarity between the classes increased their following among the anticlerical and liberal segments of society, but aroused the hostility of the churches, particularly the Catholic Church.

Freemasonry had grown from a number of medieval stonemasons' guilds, which had accepted honorary members to maintain their numbers, and accreted the rites of chivalric and religious orders. Although "speculative" lodges (as opposed to "working" lodges of *actual* masons) had previously existed, they came to public notice with the founding of the first Grand Lodge in 1717 in England. This was followed by lodges in France, Italy, Prussia, and the American colonies during the next 20 years. Freemasonry's stress on reason and virtue, rather than dogma and tradition, and its emphasis on human brotherhood and transcendence of national and class boundaries gave it a broad appeal in Enlightenment Europe, making Freemasonry fashionable in many social circles. However, its claims to embrace all orders of society and all religions were frequently exaggerated by its supporters.

Potential Masonic candidates were required to be adult males who professed a belief in a "Supreme Being" and the immortality of the soul and were sponsored by an existing Freemason. The candidates were then tested and bound by secret oaths to the society in initiation ceremonies. As they gained knowledge in the "Craft" – the lore of Freemasonry – and secured the approval of their superiors, Freemasons would be elevated through the ranks of the brotherhood from "entered apprentice" through "fellow craft" to "master mason." (Members gain the "Claim to Hospitality" advantage (see p. C110 and p. 100), with the potential for fellow Freemasons providing Contacts, Favors, and Patrons.)

In the British Isles, the early Freemasons had links with the Jacobite factions desiring a restoration of the Stuart pretenders, the self-styled James VIII and his son "Bonnie Prince Charlie," to the British throne. By the French Revolution, the

British lodges had eschewed politics and thus avoided being banned in the crackdown on political clubs and societies.

In France, most Masonic lodges came under the leadership of the "Grand Orient" Lodge in 1773. Some French lodges granted additional "higher degrees" (up to 81) above "master mason." Prior to the Revolution, liberal nobles discussed Enlightenment solutions to their nation's developing crises in the lodges, but the "craft" disappeared during the Terror. Recovery began slowly from 1795 onwards, with a Supreme Council of France taking over the administration of the fourth to 33rd higher degrees in 1804.

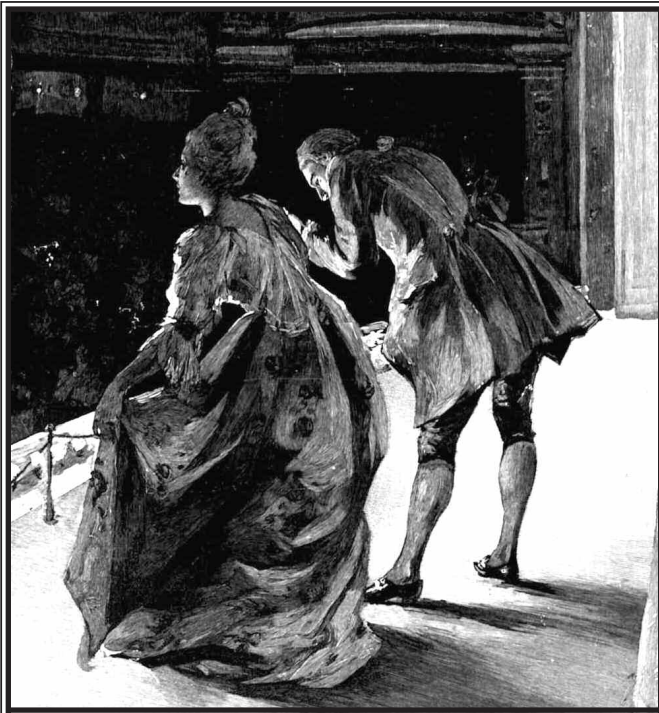
As Freemasonry migrated into Germany and Russia, it acquired greater religious and mystical overtones in the "Strict Observance" (as opposed to the "Lax Observance" practiced in western Europe). Strict Observance Freemasons claimed to have adopted traditions from the Knights Templar. By the 1780s, Freemasons were under police surveillance in the Habsburg territories.

The Rosicrucians' leaders (centered in Berlin) claimed to have gained supernatural and/or magical powers, and practiced astrology, kabbalism, and sorcery. Frederick William II of Prussia became a member of the society. Attempts were made to recruit Grand Duke Paul (later Czar Paul I), but all such societies were restricted in Russia by Catherine the Great in the 1790s.

Adam Weishaupt, a professor of canon law in Bavaria, founded the Order of Perfectibilists, better known as the Illuminati, in 1776. He used his knowledge of Freemasonry and pagan mystery schools to create this secret society. The Illuminati espoused egalitarian and socialist ideas. Their aim was to create a Utopian superstate, where social authority, nationality, and private property would be abolished. Humanity was to be redeemed through the occult traditions to a state of peace, universal brotherhood and equality, spiritual wisdom, and free love. Men and women were initiated into the order, which gained a reputation for mysticism, sorcery, and exotic rituals. Lodges were established across Germany and Austria. The Order also appeared in France, Italy, Switzerland, and Hungary.

See *Pawns of the Secret Masters*, p. 123, for campaign suggestions for secret societies.





18th-Century French Theater

heralded the first stirrings of Romanticism. By the 1780s, the folk ballads and lyrics of Goethe, Friedrich Schiller, William Blake, William Cowper, and Robert Burns dominated German, English, and Scottish poetry.

In France, the psychological novel appeared with Pierre Choderlos de Laclos' *Les Liaisons dangereuses* (1782), which also reinforced belief in the decadence of the aristocracy. The Greco-Roman emphasis of the Revolutionary regimes and the threat of the guillotine sent French poetry back to the classical forms. Chateaubriand's works and de Staël's novel *Delphine* (1802) were the highlights of French literature under the Empire.

Romanticism proper erupted onto the English literary scene in 1798 with the anonymous first publication of *Lyrical Ballads* by William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge. The Romantics praised the liberating ideals of the French Revolution and rebelled against the Industrial Revolution. Later Romantics included Percy Bysshe Shelley (author of *Queen Mab* (1813) and *Prometheus Unbound* (1820)), John Keats, and Lord Byron (author of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* (1812-1818) and *Don Juan* (1819-1824)).

Jane Austen's novels (from *Sense and Sensibility* [1811] to *Persuasion* [1817]) explored the manners and sensibilities of the English gentry with wit and irony in the 1810s. Sir Walter Scott switched from narrative historical poems such as *The Lady of The Lake* (1810) to popular historical novels beginning with *Waverley* (1814).

The Theatre

Drama remained popular throughout the era, becoming accessible to increasingly wider sections of the population. Unlicensed playhouses and provincial theatres proliferated in England and France to supplement the "official" institutions of the capitals.

Existing theatrical classics (such as Shakespeare's plays) supplied actors and managers with their greatest opportunities for fame and fortune. These plays were ruthlessly altered to suit the contemporary audience's more refined tastes. Actors *acted* their lines in the style of David Garrick, the century's finest actor, who was *still* giving farewell performances in the early 1770s at the Drury Lane Theatre in London.

In Britain, theatergoers could see comedies such as Oliver Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer* (1773) and Richard Sheridan's *The Rivals* (1775) and *The School for Scandal* (1777). In France, the plays of Pierre Beaumarchais, namely *The Barber of Seville* (1775) and *The Marriage of Figaro* (1784), which openly criticized the privileged, were praised by the bourgeoisie and the nobility alike. Beaumarchais and Laclos (see above) were associated with the Committee of Thirty (see p. 123); in an Illuminated campaign, their writings could be a deliberate attempt at social engineering.

The French Revolution stripped the official theaters of their monopolies. Acting companies divided into Jacobins and royalist sympathizers. The quantity of dramatic productions of every kind increased greatly. The quality declined with even greater rapidity. Existing scripts were rewritten in accordance with republican sympathies. Most new plays were really political tracts promoting the new civic virtues, and subject to revision with every change in faction. Actors and actresses became more important than the playwrights and attracted even greater followings under Napoleon. Despite Napoleon's preference for the works of Racine and Corneille, ordinary folk preferred melodramas with exotic locales, stereotyped characters, and ambitious stage effects.

A NIGHT AT THE OPERA

In 1769, opera in the Neapolitan style (drama divided artificially by musical pieces) was limited in its appeal outside Italy to court circles and private theatres. Alternative styles were much more popular – Gay's *The Beggar's Opera* (a play with songs composed in 1728) was still frequently produced in Britain and the American colonies.

Christoph Gluck's "natural operas" (such as *Orfeo* (1774), *Iphigénie en Aulide* (1774), and *Iphigénie en Tauride* (1779)) restored the balance between drama and music so that the latter now supported the former. This style gradually ousted the Italian forms and greatly increased opera's popularity. Opera became a normal part of city life, captivating the affluent middle classes across Europe in large dedicated opera houses, and becoming the continent's most popular musical type by the creation of the Empire.

In 1786, Mozart set *The Marriage of Figaro* to music, but removed the explicit revolutionary sympathies for his Viennese audience. His comic operas, *Don Giovanni* (whose "demonic" aspects fascinated spectators) and *Così fan tutte*, debuted in 1787 and 1790 respectively. His final work, *The Magic Flute* (1791), blending fairy tale and Masonic elements, only became popular after his death.

Fidelio, Beethoven's sole opera, was initially unsuccessful in 1805 due to the French occupation of Vienna discouraging opera attendees, but was acclaimed after a second revision in 1814. *Tancred* (1813) and *The Barber of Seville* (1816) ensured Gioacchino Rossini's reputation as the leading operatic composer of the 19th century.





Beethoven at Work, Purities Publishing

Music

Napoleon's lifetime was also the age of Mozart, Haydn, and Beethoven. Instrumental music had reached new heights of popularity. Orchestras featured violins, violas, flutes, oboes, and French horns, among others. Chamber ensembles included string trios and quartets and piano trios, all of which attracted specially written sonata music. The bourgeoisie joined the aristocracy in attending grand professional performances in purpose-built concert halls. Noble and bourgeois parents hired tutors to train their children in music.

In 1769, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart was still a child prodigy touring Italy and composing sonatas, operas, and other music on a commission basis for the nobility. In Salzburg during the 1770s and in Vienna during the 1780s, his output for the German princes and upper Austrian society was prolific and varied.

Joseph Haydn, with the patronage of the Esterházy princes in Vienna, composed secular and sacred music in the form of symphonies, string quartets, and sonatas. From the 1760s onward, his reputation spread throughout Europe. Oratorios such as *The Seasons* (1801) ensured his status as Europe's preeminent composer at the turn of the century.

Ludwig van Beethoven's music married classical forms with romantic and revolutionary themes. Between 1800 and 1814, he completed eight major symphonies, plus *Wellington's Victory* in 1813 to celebrate the battle of Vitoria. His music was recognized throughout Europe during the 1810s, and he provided musical entertainment to the Congress of Vienna.

Visual Arts

The archaeological discoveries at Herculaneum and Pompeii in the first half of the 18th century fostered neoclassical themes and highly formal styles in painting and sculpture from the 1760s onward. Portraits, especially by the English painters Gainsborough and Reynolds, remained in demand by the rich and the powerful.

Jacques-Louis David's (see p. 52) *Oath of the Horatii* (1785) introduced a new school of art. Both before and during the French Revolution, David's paintings linked the moral conflicts and virtues of the Roman Republic with the *ancien régime's* overthrow and the new order. He recorded the key events of the Revolution. Later, as the first painter of the Empire, he immortalized Napoleon in art.

In Britain, poet and painter William Blake evoked the supernatural, the works of Dante and Milton, and the Bible in his engravings and watercolors. John Constable captured the Suffolk countryside on canvas after 1800. J.M.W. Turner created dramatic and mysterious seascapes and landscapes. In Germany, Philipp Runge and Caspar Friedrich led the reaction against neoclassicism, drawing inspiration instead from Christian and mystical subjects.

By the 1790s, Francisco Goya's focus had shifted from conventional portraits of Spanish courtiers and religious art to satirical etchings on contemporary society. Though he was court painter to Charles IV, his depictions of the royal family and later of French generals were *extremely* unflattering. His etchings of the horrors of the Peninsular War were not published until 1863.



Gainsborough's *Blue Boy*





Neoclassicism also dominated sculpture. Antonio Canova's friezes, busts, and statues were in high demand from 1800 to 1820 in all the European courts. Though Canova persuaded Pauline Bonaparte to pose nude for *Venus Victrix* (1807), his idealized statues of Napoleon were not drawn from life.

ADVANCES IN SCIENCE

New discoveries and controversies spurred scientific research in the era.

Advances in algebra and geometry transformed mechanics from a field of physics to a branch of mathematics. Joseph-Louis Lagrange applied differential equations to problems in physics and astronomy in his *Analytical Mechanics* (1788). Pierre-Simon Laplace demonstrated in his multivolume *Celestial Mechanics* (1799-1825) that Newtonian gravitation could explain perturbations in planetary orbits, eliminating the necessity of divine intervention to maintain long-term solar stability. Laplace also proposed the nebular theory of the solar system's origin, wherein the sun and the planets resulted from the cooling of fiery balls of gas.

In astronomy, William Herschel discovered the planet Uranus during an observation of the night sky in 1781. Herschel wanted to name it the Georgian Planet after his patron King George III; the French preferred to call it Herschel. Fortunately, the tradition of using names from Greco-Roman mythology was maintained. A royal pension enabled Herschel to construct telescopes far more powerful than those of his scientific rivals and embark on ambitious celestial catalogs of nebulae and stars.

In optics, Newton's corpuscular (particle) theory of light survived occasional critiques throughout the 18th century. More significant challenges arose from Thomas Young's discovery of interference, which he explained via a wave theory of light that was further developed after 1815 by Augustin-Jean Fresnel, leading to further controversy between adherents of the two theories.

In the mid-18th century, the "phlogiston" theory held sway in chemistry, maintaining that substances released this "element" during combustion. Experiments began to challenge this traditional view with Joseph Priestley isolating "dephlogisticated gas" (oxygen) and identifying other gaseous compounds in the 1770s. Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier's (see p. 52) careful laboratory methods revealed the action of oxygen in combustion, shattering the phlogiston theory. Later work by John Dalton in 1808 led to an atomic theory of chemistry, while Joseph-Louis Gay-Lussac published the ratios of gases necessary to form particular compounds. By 1818, Jöns Jacob Berzelius was able to issue the first table of elements identified by the symbols (Au, Ag, etc.) still current.

Franklin's invention of the lightning conductor was followed by further experiments with electricity in Europe. During the 1780s, Charles-Augustin de Coulomb measured electrical and magnetic forces (using a torsion balance) and Luigi Galvani investigated electrical effects in animal physiology. Alessandro Volta disagreed with Galvani's conclusion that there was an electrical fluid in animals, believing that electricity could be generated using metals alone. He subsequently invented the first wet-cell battery ("electric pile") in 1800.

In geology, scientists debated the validity of the Neptunist and the Vulcanist/Plutonist theories of the Earth's formation. Abraham Werner's Neptunists believed that the Earth's surface was initially covered by an ocean. Rocks were sediments deposited on this ocean floor as the water subsided. Volcanism was ignored – lava was the result of subterranean coal deposits catching fire! The Vulcanists explained the formation of rocks by the cooling of gases into igneous matter, pointing to volcanic eruptions as evidence for new material being expelled from the Earth's core. James Hutton's Plutonist theories, first published as an essay (*Theory of the Earth*) in 1788, posited that the action of rivers eroded the land, carrying silt and sediments to the seas. Heat from the core caused portions of the Earth's crust to expand, raising the compressed marine sediments to form new land.

The Chevalier de Lamarck, working outside the international network of scientists and ignoring the cautious approach of his contemporaries in critically collecting evidence before presuming to advance theories, pronounced a theory of biological evolution in 1809 (*Zoological Philosophy*) by which animals adapted to their environments and their young inherited these changes. Opposition to this theory came from believers and scientists alike.

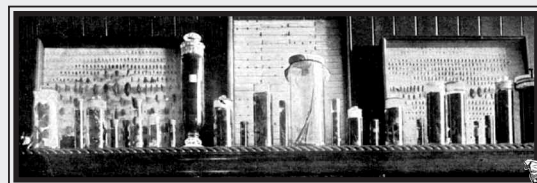
SCIENTIFIC ACADEMIES AND THE PURSUIT OF KNOWLEDGE

Many European institutions of higher learning simply ignored the Enlightenment. France's 22 universities stagnated until the Revolutionary government closed them. Oxford and Cambridge functioned as "finishing schools" for gentlemen – real degree examinations were only introduced at Oxford in 1800, 37 years after Cambridge. Students of noble birth (having parents with Status 4 or higher) could *still* graduate without examination.

The Scottish universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, and St. Andrew, like their continental counterparts at Leyden, Geneva, and Göttingen, embraced the new philosophy and sciences. Aspiring scientists should attend courses at one of these institutions.

Supporting or replacing the universities in disseminating new ideas were scientific and literary societies in northern England, Scotland, France, Germany, Poland, and America. Perhaps the most influential was the Lunar Society of Birmingham, dedicated to the advance of the arts and sciences. Its members included scientists (such as Joseph Priestley), writers, and industrialists (such as James Watt) and contributed directly to the Industrial Revolution. The Directory's *Institut National* provided France with a more formal scientific establishment after the Revolution.

Men of science who desire the respect and support of their peers (and wish to stay current with the latest discoveries) should join at least one society, gaining other inventors as Contacts or wealthy manufacturers as Patrons. (For ideas for science campaigns, see p. 124.)





ADVANCES IN MEDICINE

In medicine, the medieval theory of humors (yellow bile, blood, phlegm, and black bile), with its attendant doctrines of sickness being an imbalance and cures restoring the balance, was slowly yielding ground to new approaches. Some of the newer theories were equally wild, such as John Brown's division of diseases into strong and weak, to be treated by alcoholic stimulants and opiate sedatives. In mesmerism (named after its developer Franz Mesmer), an invisible magnetic fluid was considered to course through the human body. Manipulating this fluid was supposed to remove "obstacles" (and hence cure diseases). The hypnotic elements were largely responsible for the limited successes of mesmerism, and Mesmer was successively debunked in Austria and France in the 1770s and 1780s. (Both governments feared the influence that Mesmer was gaining in society.) Quacks and mountebanks proliferated. They had few pretensions to scientific theory but a great grasp of pseudo-medical terminology with which to "diagnose" credulous patients, "specifics" – sometimes toxic concoctions – to cure ailments, and unusual treatments such as "bathing in earth."

Three vocations covered the spectrum of medicine per se: the barber-surgeon, the apothecary, and the physician. The barber-surgeons combined the skills of hair and nail trimming with amputation of limbs. Apothecaries dispensed drugs and (for an extra fee) advice. The physician diagnosed illnesses, prescribed treatments, and attended operations.

Padua, Leyden, and Edinburgh were the medical centers

of excellence, offering practical training in surgery and medicine, joined by Paris at the close of Napoleon's Empire. (Medical degrees from Oxford and Cambridge were often merely purchased – adventurers should determine their doctors' abilities before they need treatment!) As a consequence of this education, Scottish practitioners (such as John and William Hunter) became preeminent in Britain, teaching anatomy by dissection, and raising surgery from a trade to a profession. Although the corpses of condemned criminals were purchased for dissection, some physicians hired "resurrection men" to raid cemeteries for additional bodies, risking attack by local gangs and possible arrest.

Donations from the rich assisted in the opening of many county hospitals. Admission was free, if the patient had a letter of recommendation from a patron or a governor; otherwise a hefty deposit for possible burial fees was required.

Despite the improvements in technique, surgery remained a last resort. Bacteria were not yet associated with disease, so surgical instruments were merely cleaned, not sterilized. Patients were held down by attendants on the table, and given alcohol to drink to relieve the pain. (Sometimes they were given a lead ball or a leather strop to bite during the operation.) The surgeon then operated quickly to minimize the pain and blood loss, usually completing the entire process in a few minutes. Infections following the operation represented the major danger to the patient.

Convulsions, consumption (tuberculosis), fevers, smallpox, dropsy, and infections from rotting teeth were all major killers. Inoculation for smallpox had been practiced in England since the 1720s, but was still a risky procedure viewed with

PRACTITIONERS AND TREATMENTS

So how is medical practice defined in *GURPS* terms?

Barber-surgeons require First Aid and Surgery skills, but Physician skill is not a prerequisite for Surgery in this period. Apothecaries require Chemistry and some Physician skill, specializing in creating and using herbal remedies. Physicians proper require Diagnosis, Physician, Physiology, and Latin (to read medical textbooks). Competent army and naval medical practitioners will have the complete set of skills. Students of Mesmer should learn Hypnotism.

Bleeding the patient will rarely help the healing process. After a successful Diagnosis roll, a doctor should make a Physician roll to decide upon a suitable treatment. On a failure, bleeding is recommended. On a success, he prescribes some other "treatment." To bleed a patient, make a Physician or First Aid roll. On a critical success, the patient sustains no damage. On a success, the patient loses 1 point of HT. The patient loses 1d of HT (on a failure) and 1d+1 (on a critical failure) from prolonged bleeding. First Aid is recommended to prevent further damage and infection.

As many medications are experimental and dangerous, GMs must decide whether a remedy has any curative properties at all and whether it contains any toxic ingredients (such as arsenic and other heavy metals). The poisonous medicines relied on their toxins being more harmful to the disease than the patient. GMs may require rolls against Pharmacy (for inorganic compounds such as metal salts) or Herbalism on behalf of apothecaries to create medicines with a desired effect – normal failures indicate ineffective or unusually toxic doses, critical failures are ineffective and highly toxic, critical successes may be nontoxic. Doctors should make a Physician roll for each day of their prescribed treatment. On a critical or normal success, the patient may regain one point of HT over and above natural healing. On a normal success, the patient must also

make a HT roll to avoid losing one point of HT from the toxic ingredients. On a failure, the patient recovers no HT but must make a HT roll to avoid losing one point of HT. On a critical failure, the patient must make a HT roll or lose 1d of HT from an overdose or unexpected reaction, and the medicine has no curative effects. (Characters with the Resistant to Poison Advantage (p. C129) have a +3 bonus to these HT rolls.) Highly toxic doses impose a -1 (or higher) penalty to the HT rolls. Medicines without curative qualities but with toxic elements still require Physician rolls to determine if they harm the patient. Some medicines for specific ailments may not include dangerous poisons; any success on a Physician roll equals one point of HT recovered, while failures have no effect at all.

In realistic campaigns, the more exotic treatments such as mesmerism will have minimal therapeutic effects.

Surgery is very dangerous owing to the absence of anesthetics and antiseptics. Penalties for unhygienic environments should always be applied to the Surgery skill (p. B56). A further modifier should be applied for how still the patient is during the operation, from -1 if dosed into unconsciousness by laudanum or opium to -3 if held down by burly surgeon's assistants. Surgery will be required to extract musket balls and splinters from wounds – a failed roll may mean that a fragment of metal, wood, or clothing remains in the wound. A further probing operation will be required later, but the surgeon must make a Physician roll to detect that the injury is not healing properly. Several failed Physician rolls could give the wound time to turn gangrenous – amputation of the damaged limb is then the only possible cure, and body wounds will be fatal. (GMs desiring even more realism in medicine should consult *GURPS Steampunk*, pp. STM64-65, for a detailed treatment.)





VOYAGES OF EXPLORATION

The Napoleonic era witnessed a number of epic sea voyages to explore previously uncharted waters and discover new lands. These occurred both between and during the wars. The British and French governments were willing to offer explorers "passports" of safe conduct even at the height of hostilities.

Earlier seafarers had reported large islands in the South Pacific. Scientists postulated a large southern landmass as a counterbalance to the northern continents. The British Admiralty and the Royal Society commissioned Lieutenant James Cook to undertake a series of surveys of the Pacific. His first voyage (1768-1771) included astronomical observations of a transit of Venus, studies of Maori life during a circumnavigation of New Zealand, and landings in New South Wales. After his promotion to commander and eventually captain, Cook's later voyages (1772-1775 and 1776-1779) probed the Antarctic and Arctic Oceans but failed to discover either Antarctica or a Northwest Passage.

The French explorers du Fresne and the Comte de la Pérouse were less successful. Both lost their lives, the former in a skirmish with Maoris, the latter in a shipwreck. La Pérouse also arrived too late to prevent the British settlement at Botany Bay.

Both Britain and France sponsored competing expeditions in 1800 to explore the Australian coast. The British achieved a complete circumnavigation of the continent by 1804, and "New Holland" was renamed Australia in 1817.

See p. 118 for exploration and Australian pioneering campaigns.

alarm by many continental physicians. Edward Jenner developed a smallpox vaccine from cowpox in 1796, which slowly gained widespread adoption over the next two decades. The rediscovery of citrus fruits as a preventative for scurvy in 1757 was finally implemented by the Royal Navy in 1795, eliminating the disease from shipboard life. Gout (see p. 103) was popularly believed to result from overindulgence in drink and debauchery, and attacks were treated by swathing the feet in heavy bandages.

Bloodletting continued to be a principal remedy ordered by physicians for numerous ailments. Quinine (called Jesuit's bark) was used to counter fevers, foxglove for heart conditions, and chalk for upset stomachs. Many other common herbs formed the basis of a variety of tinctures, extracts, poultices, and pills to cure diseases, relieve conditions, and speed healing.

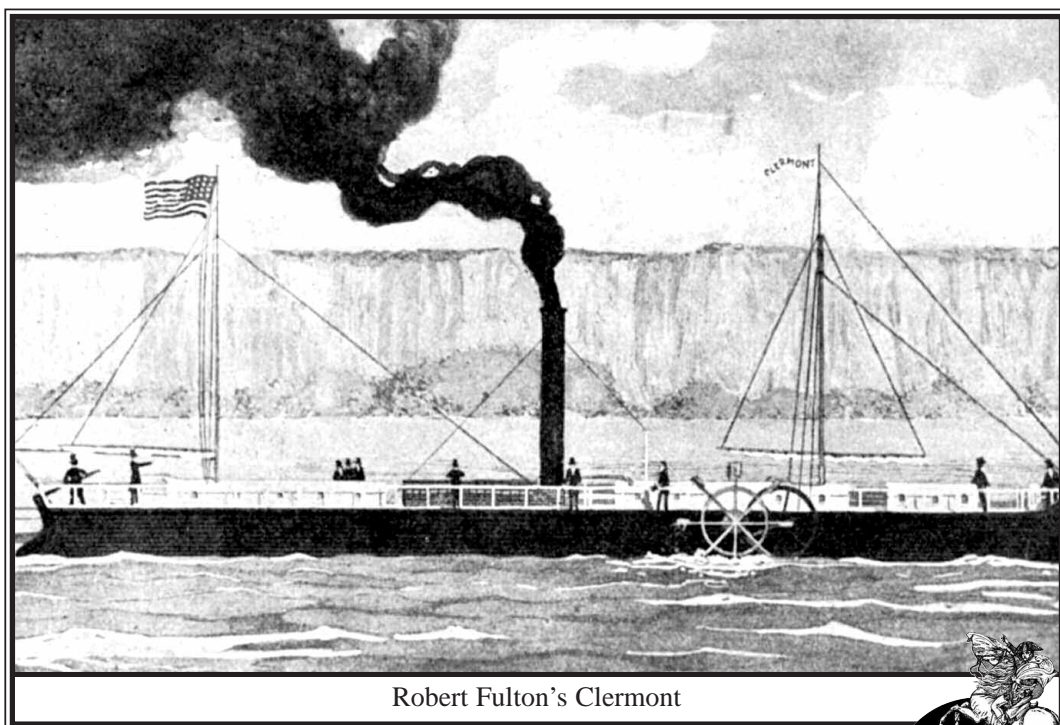
Insanity was incurable; the only solution was detention in lunatic asylums such as Bedlam in England. Inmates were often chained, beaten, and abused by their keepers. Bedlam was a popular London tourist attraction with visitors paying to wander around the hospital, usually in the company of an attendant.

ADVANCES IN TECHNOLOGY

Technological development was largely divorced from the discoveries in the natural sciences. The nascent Industrial Revolution was confined to Britain and proceeded in fits and starts.

Steam power was already used to pump water from coal mines when James Watt added a condenser to the steam engine in 1769. From 1775 to 1800, engines of increasing efficiency built by Watt found application throughout the mining industries. By the 1780s, steam engines could supply rotary motion and these newer devices were adopted to power cotton and grain mill machinery. Once Watt's patents lapsed in 1800, other inventors developed high-pressure steam engines. Richard Trevithick's engines were used successfully as mine pumps in Cornwall and Latin America, but his attempt to create a steam-powered locomotive in 1804 to haul ores via the mine plateways (prototype railroads used by mine wagons) failed, as the tracks broke under the weight. In America, Oliver Evans built a high-pressure steam dredge for Philadelphia in 1805.

Early experiments with steam-powered paddleboats in France and Britain between 1775 and 1802 provided the inspiration for the American Robert Fulton's development of the paddle steamer in 1807. His *North River Steamboat* was the first of his fleet of 21 steamships to ply the Hudson River. In Britain, similar steamships appeared after 1812. By 1820, there were regular steam-powered ferries and packets operating in the English Channel and the Irish Sea. Over a hundred steamers navigated the major inland waterways of the United States. Misapprehensions concerning fuel requirements and inadequacies of the paddle-wheel design for the open seas limited these early steamers to coastal and river transport of passengers and mail.



Robert Fulton's Clermont





The Age of Steam had its critics. The new steam-powered machinery of the textile industry required workers to submit to a regimented working day in purpose-built factories, replacing the “putting-out” system where they had worked in their own homes without supervision. From 1811 to 1812, bands of unemployed artisans (known as Luddites after their supposed leader Ned Ludd) rioted in central England, destroying machines in nocturnal attacks. Lord Liverpool’s government suppressed the Luddites with mass transportation and execution of offenders in 1813. William Blake denounced factories as “dark Satanic mills” in his hymn “Jerusalem.”

The 18th century had witnessed a great interest in clockwork automata. Various inventors had created wind-up ornaments (dispensing variously cutlery, spices, or wine) and mechanical animals, songbirds, and men.

In 1770, Wolfgang von Kempelen demonstrated his chess-playing automaton to Empress Maria Theresa. Nicknamed the “Turk,” this contraption was a life-sized wooden mannequin, dressed in Turkish attire and seated behind a cabinet. One of the cabinet’s compartments held a complex mechanism of gears, cogs, and clockwork; chess pieces were stored in the other. Using its left hand, the “Turk” moved the pieces on the chessboard on top of the cabinet. It proved to be an aggressive and swift player, winning the game. Von Kempelen and its later owner (Johann Maelzel) toured Europe with the “Turk,” which won most of its games. Under Maelzel, it played in 1809 against Napoleon, who confounded it by deliberately making illegal moves until the “Turk” ended the game by knocking over the pieces. Scientists

were unable to fathom its means of operation, suspecting either a hidden operator (a child, a dwarf, or a legless amputee) concealed within the apparatus or remote control of the pieces, perhaps using magnets. Eventually Maelzel fled to America in 1825 to escape debt and the “Turk” ended its existence in a museum fire in Philadelphia in 1854. (Men of science or engineers could be asked to determine the Turk’s means of operation – they will need a knowledge of stage magic and unfettered access to expose the concealed compartment. Perhaps von Kempelen and the operator are also spying for the Hapsburgs on their European tours; perhaps the operator is a crippled former officer, who is a crack shot as well as a chess master? They may be very unwilling to have the hoax revealed. In a steampunk campaign, the “Turk” could really be a sentient automaton; see p. STE76.)

In 1781, the Montgolfier brothers, Joseph and Etienne, constructed hot-air balloons made from paper, which were capable of lifting animal and human passengers into the air for short distances. Later French balloons used hydrogen for greater lift and range, but could not be steered. Aeronauts did have primitive parachutes, however. A military unit, the Aérostiers, was formed in 1794 to provide military reconnaissance from tethered

balloons to the French Revolutionary army in the field. Napoleon disbanded the company in 1799.

Some inventions of the period were ahead of their time and did not enjoy widespread adoption. A German architect claimed a successful flight in an ornithopter (a human-powered aircraft where the “pilot” controlled flapping wings).

The first trial of underwater warfare occurred during the American War of Independence. The *Turtle*, a wooden one-man submarine powered by manual propellers, attempted to attach a gunpowder charge to the hull of HMS *Eagle* via a screw device operated from inside. The attack failed, as the screw was unable to penetrate the British ship’s copper sheathing. A similar attack during the War of 1812 failed because the screw broke before the mine was attached.

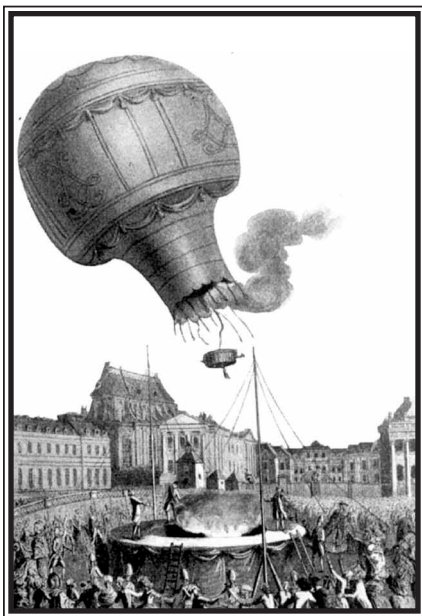
Robert Fulton proposed submarine attacks against the British blockading fleet to the French government, building the *Nautilus* (see also p. STE84) in 1801. This craft had a collapsible mast and sail for surface travel as well as a manual propeller for underwater motion, and contained enough air to last four men and two burning candles three hours. However, the *Nautilus* was too slow to catch British ships in order to affix the explosive charges. French admirals considered this means of warfare to be barbaric and feared that the British would adopt it quickly and with greater success were it to be introduced. The failures in action and naval disapproval led Napoleon to end the experiments.

Fulton next approached the British Admiralty in 1805. Although the *Nautilus* was able to destroy an old anchored brig in trials, two real attacks on French vessels were unsuccessful. Following Trafalgar,

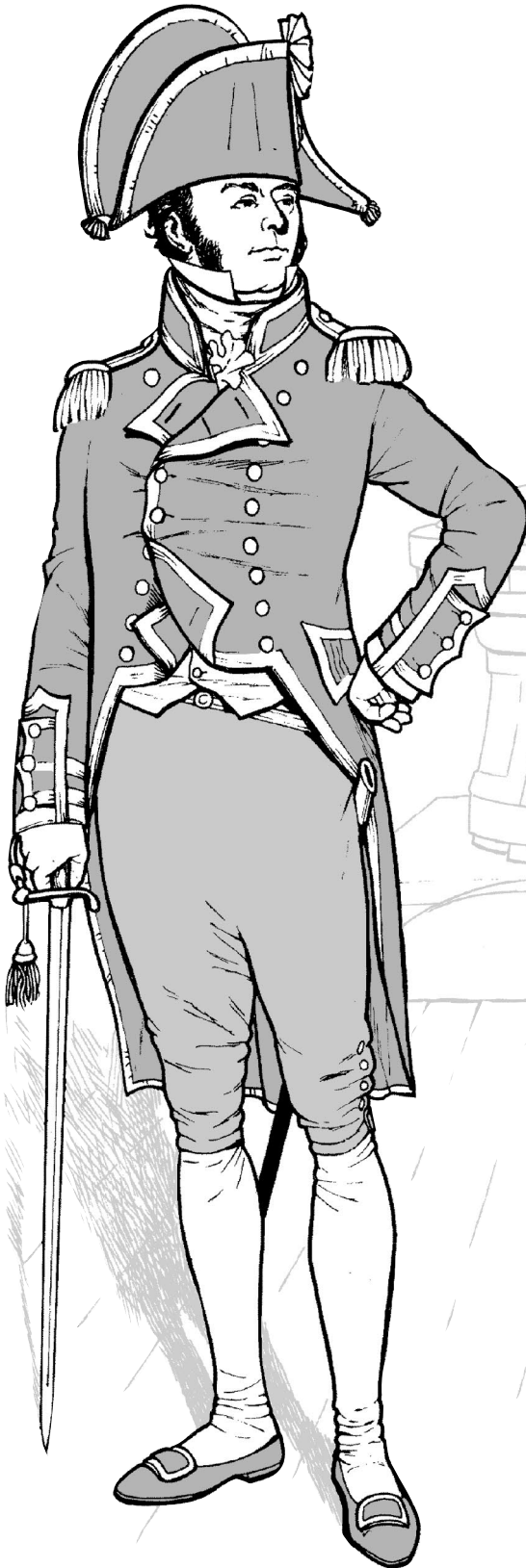
the Admiralty realized that developing this mode of warfare could at best only undermine British naval supremacy and they withdrew their support. Fulton returned to America where his submarines, submerged mines (“torpedoes”), and submersible charges failed to interest the U.S. government. He concentrated on steamships, including the development of the USS *Demologos*, a steam-powered frigate, which was completed after his death in 1815 and remained in naval service until 1829.

Admiral Thomas Cochrane (see p. 43) proposed a number of advanced weapons technologies. His formula for poison gas used the vapor given off by burning charcoal (5 parts) and sulfur (1 part). Apparently it destroyed “every animal function” (This was his first plan, conceived around 1810s) Later schemes involved floating naphtha on the sea and igniting it with a ball of potassium. He even had plans for saturation-bombing shells and reinforced ships. The plans were kept secret until the end of the 19th century. In an alternative technology campaign, the British navy might have tested them, in the Napoleonic wars or later, or even brought them into regular use.

See p. 124 for suggestions on how to blend technology, weird or otherwise, into campaigns.



CHAPTER SIX



Ahead of the riders rose the Pyrenees, and beyond them, France.

"I'd rather be a Guard colonel than a general of the line," said a smiling Etienne Croix.

"Hah! I'm just glad to be quit of Spain at last," snorted Roques. "Those guerrillas would have been the death of me."

A musket shot rang out and a flanking outrider toppled from his horse, fountaining blood as his body landed on the ground. A ragged volley of shots followed; Roques felt a speeding ball pluck at his uniform sleeve.

As Croix drew his carbine, he quickly looked around for the ambushers.

"I think someone forgot to tell the guerrillas that we're leaving," he remarked.



This chapter describes some common adventurer types. While some combinations of types may seem implausible initially, the tumult of the era may make for strange bedfellows. For military campaigns, GMs may find the templates in *GURPS Warriors* useful. Guidance on how to customize these for this period can be found on p. 100. Certain advantages, disadvantages, and skills are of special importance in this era and are detailed after the character types.

CHARACTER TYPES

Clergy

In the Age of Enlightenment, philosophers mock religious beliefs as superstition and rulers encroach on clerical privileges. Dissolute and atheistic clergy bring themselves and their churches into disrepute. Later, the Revolutionaries will persecute all revealed religions. Clerics must choose whether they prefer secular or ecclesiastical Enemies by their political choices; some will join counter-revolutionary movements or serve as spies working against Napoleon's empire.

Advantages/Disadvantages: The Clerical Investment and Literacy advantages are required. The religion must be specified at the time of character creation. Clergymen usually must take a Vow or Discipline of Faith; failure to adhere to this will produce a negative Reputation or a Secret. A Sense of Duty to the church and congregation is only required for clergymen who believe in their faith. Status is not necessary, but will help secure high ecclesiastical rank.

Skills: Clergy should know Theology (with an appropriate optional specialization) and Performance/Ritual at 12+. Roman Catholic clergy will have at least some Latin.

Colonists

The great European powers have founded colonies and settlements in the Americas, Africa, and Asia. Some colonials already desire independence from the mother country. Disease, weather, hostile natives, and the attentions of foreign powers make life dangerous. Colonists include gentleman plantation owners (and their deputies), bureaucrats, hardy pioneers, artisans, transported convicts, and slaves. In long-settled territories such as the American colonies, almost any occupation is possible.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: Most colonists are everyday folk, excelling only in the skills necessary for them to earn their living. Given the stresses of frontier life, consider such advantages as Fit, High Pain Threshold, Immunity to Disease, Rapid Healing, or Temperature Tolerance.

Craftsmen

Despite the burgeoning Industrial Revolution in England, most goods are still manufactured by skilled craftsmen. Stifling guild regulations stall the advancement of many ambitious apprentices and journeymen; the French Revolution temporarily eliminates the markets for luxury goods. Masters may join journeymen in peregrinations around

Europe or even depart for the colonies. Others (such as weavers) may find employment in factories.

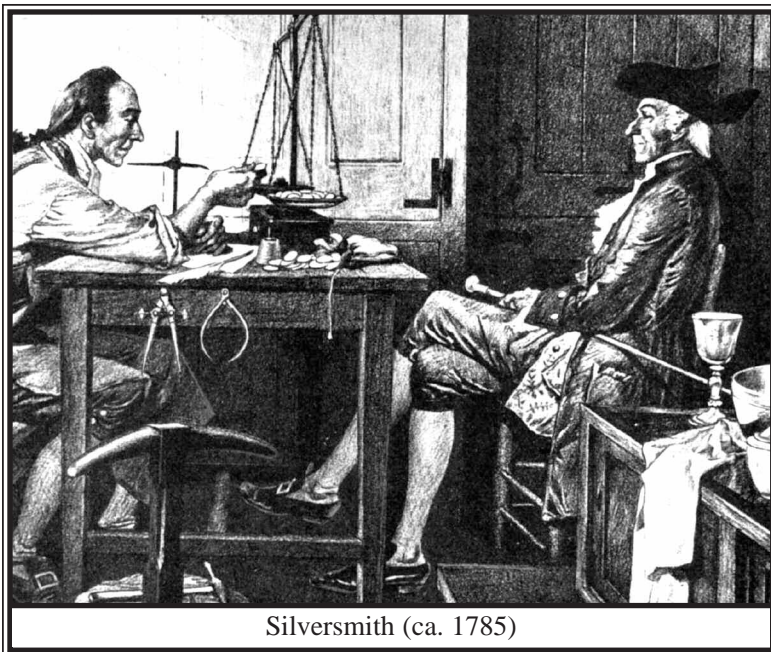
Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: No advantages or disadvantages are required, although a Patron (either a wealthy customer or a guild) can be useful. Craftsmen should develop the appropriate Crafts skills to high levels. Factory workers should have above-average DX – clumsy employees have a much higher risk of being maimed by the machinery.

Criminals

The underworld includes many types of criminals. Burglars prefer breaking and entering into shops and townhouses, using force only in self-defense. Footpads are city muggers employing potentially lethal violence to rob people walking in the streets after dark. Pickpockets circulate in the crowds attending fairs, markets, plays, and public executions, combining teamwork and a veneer of respectability to relieve the unwary of their purses. Highwaymen remain glamorous mounted bandits waylaying stagecoaches with shouts of "Stand and deliver! Your money or your life!"

Advantages/Disadvantages: Criminals require the usual nefarious advantages and disadvantages that have been common to thieves for centuries (see *GURPS Rogues* for more detail). Some criminals may have their gangs as Ally Groups. Highwaymen might have Absolute Direction, Alertness, Combat Reflexes, Danger Sense, Night Vision, Rapid Healing, or Toughness. Disadvantages might include Alcoholism, Greed, Laziness, a Social Stigma (Outlaw) or Secret, or perhaps a Code of Honor.

Skills: All criminals should develop Fast-Talk, Stealth, and Streetwise. Burglars will find Lockpicking and Climbing essential. Cutpurses need Shadowing, Holdout, Knife, and Running. Footpads will focus on combat skills such as Blackjack and Knife. Pickpockets will need Pickpocket, Sleight of Hand, and Holdout; some Savoir-Faire or Disguise may be useful. Highwaymen will require Riding and Black Powder Weapons, with Area Knowledge being important for emergency getaways.



Silversmith (ca. 1785)





Short, Cottages and Harvesters

Diplomats

Diplomats represent their countries' interests abroad in times of peace and war. Slower rates of travel than today give them greater discretion and decision-making power. They face greater risks, being potential hostages for the actions of their government. Diplomatic appointments to smaller states can last for many years. Espionage (in terms of reporting all news and court gossip) is an expected duty of the diplomat.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Status is essential to gain entry into European courts. High IQ, Voice, and Charisma are all useful. Cultural Adaptability (p. CI23) is a major asset. Duty or a Sense of Duty may motivate some diplomats. Diplomatic Immunity (p. CI24) does not exist.

Skills: Diplomacy and Savoir-Faire, naturally, and indeed nearly any social, artistic, or cultural skill will prove helpful. European diplomats *must* be fluent in French.

Entertainers

Entertainers include acrobats, actors, buffoons, dancers, freaks, musicians, and prize fighters. Entertainers make excellent spies, as they have opportunities to meet and become acquainted with members of all social classes as a normal part of their work; many have criminal leanings and connections. Prize fighters are usually skilled wrestlers or bare-knuckle boxers.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Appearance, Voice, and Charisma are useful. Many entertainers, especially actresses, acquire aristocratic or wealthy Patrons. Entertainers, again especially actresses, suffer from a poor Reputation.

Skills: Carousing, Fast-Talk, Savoir-Faire, and Sex Appeal are useful for most entertainers. In addition, skills appropriate to the specialty should be heavily developed.

Explorers

Parts of the globe remain undiscovered by Europeans. Expeditions may be sent by any of the colonial powers to discover new territories for settlement and exploitation. As long as their credentials (known then as "passports") are in order, explorers will be tolerated by the military forces of opposing nations even during wars. Expeditionary leaders are usually

aristocratic and/or military in background, although scientists may have prominent roles.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: Outdoor skills and (for seafaring explorers) nautical skills are essential for survival. Surveying (p. CI158) will be handy.

Laborers

Small farmers and farm workers can sometimes eke out a living in the countryside. Enclosure, rising rents and taxes, or a bad harvest may ruin them, forcing them to beggary and banditry on the roads or emigration to the cities.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: Above-average ST will be a useful asset for arduous manual labor, as will Fit. Wealth level is usually Struggling or Poor. Ruined laborers will be Dead Broke. Good farmers have Agronomy.

Men of Letters and the Arts

Many artists, composers, philosophers, scholars, and writers journey around Europe, seeking inspiration, employment, and sometimes safety (especially if they have offended the current regimes in their home nations). For those without personal wealth, cultivating a temporary employer may produce a long-term patron.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Independent Income or Wealth will provide financial freedom; otherwise a Patron will be necessary. Reputations (both positive and negative) must be earned by publishing, creating works of art, etc., although characters may begin the game with Reputations gained from an existing portfolio of work.

Skills: Expertise in the chosen area of artistic endeavor is necessary for those without personal resources. Savoir-Faire and Languages (especially French) will open many doors.

Men of Science and Engineers

Although scientists are few in number, they are making new discoveries in their private laboratories and publishing their theories in the journals and correspondence of clubs and societies dedicated for the advancement of progress. Engineers, meanwhile, are designing and building steam-powered machines with varying degrees of success.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Literacy is essential. Independent Income, Wealth, or a Patron will be necessary to fund experiments until a potentially profitable breakthrough is achieved. Results will eventually generate a Reputation. Curious and Workaholic are common disadvantages. Innumerate should be avoided.

Skills: Language (Latin) and Research are usually essential. Available sciences include Archaeology, Astronomy, Botany, Chemistry, Geology, Mathematics, Naturalist, Physics, and Zoology. Engineers will require some understanding of Mathematics, Physics, Mechanic (Steam), and Engineer.





Merchants

Shrewd merchants can make their fortune in speculation, in careful investments in manufacturing industries, or in overseas trade with the colonies, India, and the Spice Islands. Protecting business interests often requires travel. When businesses fail, they sometimes do so spectacularly. Bankrupts should flee before the bailiffs drag them to a debtors' prison.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: Appearance, Charisma, Empathy, Strong Will, and Voice are helpful. Greed is an occupational hazard. Acting, Administration, Area Knowledge, Detect Lies, Diplomacy, Economics, Fast-Talk, Languages, Law, Merchant, and Savoir-Faire will aid entrepreneurs.

Pirates and Privateers

The Golden Age of piracy is long past. Those who wish to plunder merchant shipping on the high seas usually now do so as privateers. Their letters of marque and reprisal limit their depredations to the ships of hostile nations, but should prevent their being hanged for common piracy if captured. However, there are still pirates in the world: the Barbary Coast is home to Saracen raiders and slavers who terrorize the Mediterranean coastlines, and in the East Indies, native corsairs prove vexatious to European commerce.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Combat-related advantages such as Alertness, Combat Reflexes, High Pain Threshold, Immunity to Disease, Rapid Healing, and Toughness are all helpful to pirates and privateers. Charisma, Literacy, Status, and Wealth are possible for the more genteel privateer captains. Alcoholism, Code of Honor, Compulsive Carousing, Compulsive Gambling, Compulsive Spending, Greed, Impulsiveness, and Overconfidence are all plausible character flaws.

Skills: Seamanship is essential. Axe, Black Powder Weapons, Boating, Brawling, Climbing, and Shortsword (Cutlass) are likely additional skills. Carousing and Gambling will help pass the time. Many will not have any Swimming.

Politicians

For some, a governmental career is simply a route to amassing wealth from accepting bribes for political decisions. For others, politics is the means to improve the common good or guide one's nation in troubled times.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Status is an essential requirement for entry into politics. Wealth, high IQ, Voice, and Charisma are all useful. Contacts can provide information, or access to important people. A few politicians may be motivated by Duty or a Sense of Duty.

Skills: Politics is useful for dealing with other politicians and getting elected (whether honestly or by a rigged vote). Bard will aid election speeches and persuading fellow legislators to vote in favor of one's proposals, without appearing to be the wrong sort of demagogue! Savoir-Faire will be the key to making the right impression in genteel circles and to networking at parties, soirees, etc. — Acting and Carousing will also be helpful here. Serious politicians will find Administration, and in war, Strategy, essential to being effective in government. Many politicians have skill in Law, especially in France.

Professionals

Officials, doctors, and lawyers provide essential and expensive services. Often wealthy, their upward progress in society is hindered by the privileges of the aristocracy. Political upheavals present opportunities for these classes to seize power for themselves.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: Professionals usually enjoy above-average Status and Wealth. Reputation will depend on their competence and attitudes. Professionals should develop their occupational skills. Politics may be helpful for those seeking government office.



Smugglers and Revenue Men, Chatterbox Magazine

Rebels and Revolutionaries

Injustices, perceived and actual, sow the seeds of revolt in the hearts and minds of many. For some, the opportunity or necessity arises to take action through open rebellion or hidden conspiracy.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Open rebels will acquire Social Stigmas, Reputations (both favorable and not), and Enemies. Conspirators will have at least one Secret to protect. Some will take Vows or possess a Sense of Duty.

Skills: Diplomacy, Leadership, Combat skills, and some combination of Social and Thief/Spy skills are useful. Anyone intending to construct an "infernal device" to blow up an Emperor should invest in Demolition. Propagandists and demagogues need Advertising, Bard, and Writing.

Sailors

Merchant vessels carry cargo and occasional passengers across the oceans. Imperial expansion is secured and protected by navies. Both mercantile and naval fleets have an insatiable demand for skilled seamen.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Navy sailors will find combat-related advantages such as Alertness, Combat Reflexes, High Pain Threshold, Immunity to Disease, Rapid Healing, and Toughness useful. Alcoholism and Compulsive Gambling are common to merchant and navy seamen alike. The latter can take an Involuntary Duty. Navy officers require Literacy and some Military Rank and will find Charisma,





Patrons, Status, and an Independent Income or Wealth helpful. Duty is required and a Code of Honor expected for officers. Greed, occasional Odious Personal Habits, Dependents, Impulsiveness, and Overconfidence are possible; Cowardice and Sadism will lead to future problems.

Skills: Seamanship and Sailor are essential, with Boating and Climbing too useful to ignore. Few will learn any Swimming. Naval service will require training in Axe, Black Powder Weapons, Gunner (Cannon), and Shortsword (Cutlass). Warrant officers will learn additional skills according to their specialty, such as Carpentry, Merchant (for pursers), Navigation, Shipbuilding, Shiphandling, First Aid, and Surgery. Commission officers will add Navigation, Shiphandling, Savoir-Faire (Military), Tactics (Naval), and Leadership, among others.

Slavers

Slavers, sometimes called Guineamen, make their fortunes in the Triangular Trade between Europe, West Africa, and the Americas. Native treachery and tropical diseases make this an extremely dangerous career. Though most captains take care of their human cargoes, this is only to maximize profits; compassion has no place in a slaver's heart.

Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: The disadvantage Callous is almost mandatory. Health-related advantages such as Immunity to Disease will be extremely useful. In terms of skills, a combination of sailor and merchant training will be desirable. Personal combat and medical skills will prove valuable.

Smugglers

Smugglers are a natural response to the high customs and excise duties imposed by mercantilist trade policies and the shortages resulting from blockades. Smugglers sail in sloops to another country's port, purchase goods honestly, and then return to their home country, landing their goods secretly for careful sale to the gentry and merchants. Their avoidance of duties allows them to reap handsome profits at lower prices than legal goods. Revenue services wage an unending war against the "Trade." As smuggling is a hanging matter, strife between excisemen and smugglers is frequently violent. In wartime, smugglers often land and retrieve spies.

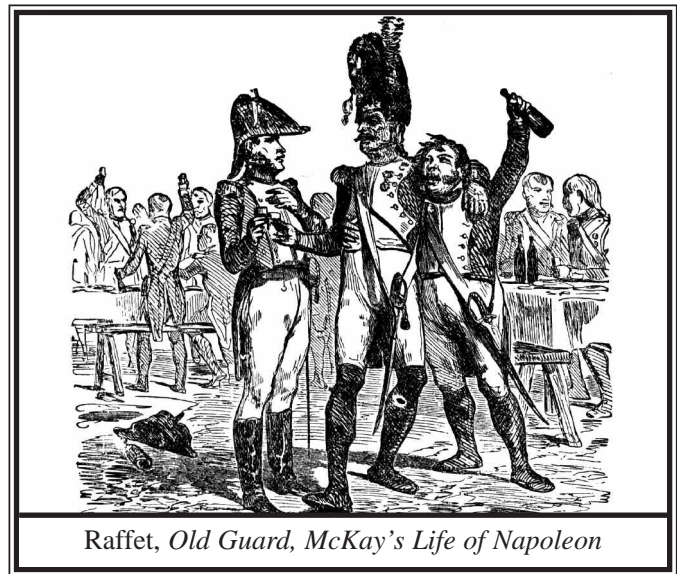
Advantages/Disadvantages and Skills: A mixture of merchant, sailor, and criminal skills will be most useful to the aspiring smuggler.

Soldiers

In battlefields across Europe and beyond, soldiers decide the futures of nations and empires. Infantry fight in disciplined lines, columns, and squares; dashing cavalymen charge to glory; artilleryists destroy enemy formations and fortifications with concentrated cannon fire. Many will die in foreign fields; a very few will achieve lasting fame. Soldiers may serve either in the armies of their native lands or as mercenaries in the American war, participating in the confrontations in the Baltic, training native troops to withstand the British in India, or assisting in the independence struggles of South America and Greece. Serving officers may, subject to the approval of their superiors, fight in the forces of other nations while their own countries are at peace.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Alertness, Combat Reflexes, Strong Will, High Pain Threshold, and Toughness will keep soldiers alive. Officers require some Military Rank and Literacy; a Code of Honor is expected. Status, Wealth, or an Independent Income will smooth relations with fellow officers. Duty is mandatory. Alcoholism and Compulsive Carousing are frequently encountered. Laziness, Gluttony, Greed, and Compulsive Spending are common among mercenaries.

Skills: Infantry should have Black Powder Weapons, Spear, Hiking, and Savoir-Faire (Military). Cavalry should learn Black Powder Weapons, Broadsword, Riding, and Savoir-Faire (Military). Artillery specialists should develop a high Gunner skill. Officers need some Leadership and Tactics (Land). Languages are helpful, especially for mercenaries.



Spies

Spies are everywhere. At home, they uncover plots to overthrow the regime and unmask foreign infiltrators. Abroad, they collect information on troop movements and naval activity, encourage conspiracies, and undertake occasional assassinations. Every nation employs hundreds of spies. The French spy network controlled by Fouché during the Consulate and Empire is the most extensive and efficient in Europe. Spies may be male or female, hired civilians or professional military officers, and come from any social class. Many Parisian beggars were paid informers of Fouché.

Advantages/Disadvantages: Military Rank is appropriate for military spies. Other useful advantages include Absolute Timing, Alertness, Charisma, Double-Jointed, Eidetic Memory, Empathy, Intuition, Language Talent, Literacy, Status, Strong Will, Voice, and Wealth. Duty and Secret are reasonable disadvantages. Other flaws may include Enemies, Fanaticism, Greed, Jealousy, Lecherousness, Overconfidence, and occasional Sense of Duty.

Skills: Any and all of Acting, Area Knowledge, Black Powder Weapons, Climbing, Dancing, Disguise, Fast-Talk, Fencing, Forgery, Knife, Languages, Lockpicking, Poison, Riding, Savoir-Faire, Sex Appeal, Shadowing, and Streetwise are likely to be useful sooner or later.



ADVANTAGES, DISADVANTAGES, AND SKILLS

Advantages

Alcohol Tolerance see p. CI19

As the water is frequently not potable, alcohol is an essential part of most civilian and nearly all military diets throughout the era. Drink is an important component of social interaction. Alcohol Tolerance grants a +1 bonus to Carousing (p. B63). Behavior that reveals this advantage or the Light Hangover or No Hangover advantages (pp. CI27, CI28) will gain +1 Reputation among military men and roués.

Claim to Hospitality see p. CI21

Europeans of at least Status 1 or Military Rank 3 (i.e. commissioned officers) should usually take this advantage. (Those who lack it haven't moved around enough in society to be well known.) On meeting an NPC who is also a European and is at least of this Rank or Status and no more than one level higher, a character can expect a civil greeting and at least a night of lodging and board for themselves and companions. He is expected to extend similar hospitality to others if able to do so. This costs 5 points if usable only in one's home country and colonies, and 10 points if usable everywhere. Other social groups such as the American colonists may purchase variations on this usable on their relatives and friends. Freemasons may claim such hospitality from members of any Lodge – this is a 10-point advantage.

Clerical Investment see p. B19

Anyone who is an ordained priest or minister must take this advantage.

Christian nuns do not have the Clerical Investment advantage; they are not ordained and have neither the legal nor spiritual authority of a priest. Monks may or may not be ordained as priests; most are not and do not have this advantage. Monks and nuns are required to take vows of poverty, celibacy, and obedience, and get a +1 reaction from those of their own faith. Catholic priests are required to take a vow of celibacy and a promise of obedience; Anglican priests need only take a vow of obedience, but this includes loyalty to the English monarch.

Clerics will be addressed by an appropriate title – Master for Protestant ministers, Father for Roman Catholic priests, Brother for monks, and Friar for Franciscans.

Light Hangover see p. CI27

See *Alcohol Tolerance*, above.

Disease-Resistant see p. CI24

See *Immunity to Disease*, below.

Immunity to Disease see p. B20

Health-related advantages, including Disease-Resistant and Rapid Healing, become very important when playing in this era. There is no magical healing or modern medicine; contemporary medicine is extremely dangerous and experimental (see p. 90 for the state of medical practice and game mechanics). A chest wound requires at least a month of recuperation in this period, and Europeans are extremely prone to tropical diseases such as prevail in the West Indies, India, and Africa. (GMs should consult pp. CII167-174 for more information on these diseases.) Inoculations against smallpox are available, but these cost cash, not character points!

TEMPLATES FROM GURPS WARRIORS

GMs may wish to consider adapting the templates from *GURPS Warriors* for *Age of Napoleon* campaigns.

Soldiers or veterans who have served with line regiments can be based on the "Rifleman" template (pp. WA96-99) with the TL5 lens, replacing Black Powder Weapons (Rifle) or Guns/TL with Black Powder Weapons (Musket). Skirmishers can use the Light Foot Soldier template (pp. WA80-83), with most of their primary combat skill points assigned to firearms skills. The Scout and Sharpshooter templates (pp. WA100-107) could fit heroic and/or wide-ranging light infantry, including the best American irregulars; competent irregulars such as Spanish partisans would suit the Guerrilla template (pp. WA56-59).

The Cavalryman template (pp. WA36-39) covers most mounted troops; instead of using the TL5 lens, assign the spare points to Broadsword (saber), Lance, Spear, and Black Powder Weapons as appropriate. Cossacks and similar irregular cavalry may use the Horseman template (pp. WA68-71). Gunners may use Artillerist (pp. WA16-19); Engineers (pp. WA44-47) are uncommon. Maritime adventurers should use the Marine or Naval Crew templates (pp. WA84-87 and WA92-95).

Some aristocrats and swashbuckling adventurers could be defined as Knights (pp. WA76-79) and Swordsmen (pp. WA120-123), respectively.

Literacy see p. B21

Semi-Literacy is the default for *GURPS Age of Napoleon*. Most Europeans of Status 1 (0 in Scandinavian nations) or higher should take Literacy (unless they are impoverished members of the continental gentry, among whom Illiteracy is common). Americans of European extraction (but born in the colonies) should also take full Literacy, owing to their higher standard of education. Members of other cultures should usually take Illiteracy.

Military Rank see p. B22

Military Rank is normally gained through regular or militia service in the national armies, in the national navies, or in the Honourable East India Company's private military forces. Military Rank in the last service does *not* provide additional Status outside of India. For other military forces, soldiers and sailors may gain a free rank of Status for every three levels of Military Rank. See *Aft the Most Honor* (p. 71) and *Officers and Gentlemen* (p. 77) for further details on gaining military rank.





Brevet ranks in the army are strictly temporary, but may last until the end of a campaign or even an entire war. Naval brevet rank should not be purchased – shortages of ships and officer berths mean that someone will be appointed directly or receive a permanent promotion. Since brevet rank can disappear with a new assignment, it has no point cost.

Military Rank, unlike Social Status, costs no money to maintain, but officers will be expected to live like gentlemen, especially as they gain higher rank. Incompetence and cowardice will usually result in being cashiered or shot. All military service should be accompanied by a Duty.

Military Rank in the army is as follows (names will differ according to nation):

Army Military Rank Table

Rank	Titles
8	Marshal of the Empire, Field Marshal
7	General (7.8, 39), Lieutenant General (7.4, 37), and Major General (7.0, 35)
6	Colonel (6.4, 32) and Lieutenant Colonel (6.0, 30)
5	Major
4	Captain
3	Lieutenant
2	Ensign (2.4, 12), Cornet (2.4, 12), and Sergeant
1	Corporal
0	Enlisted man

Military Rank in the navy is as follows (names will differ according to nation):

Naval Military Rank Table

Rank	Titles
8	Sea Lord (British Admiralty), Admiral of the Fleet
7	Admiral (7.8, 39), Vice Admiral (7.4, 37), Rear Admiral (7.0, 35)
6	Commodore (6.8, 29), Post-Captain [British only, 3 years plus seniority] (6.4, 27), Captain [French or Spanish, commanding a ship of the line] (6.6, 28), Post-Captain [British only, less than 3 years seniority] (6, 25) Captain [French or Spanish, commanding a frigate] (6, 25)
5	Commander (commanding a sloop or smaller vessel)
4	Lieutenant
3	Master, Surgeon, Purser, Chaplain
2	Warrant Officers (gunners, boatswains, carpenters, masters-at-arms)
1	Midshipmen, Petty Officers (master's mates, bosun's mates, etc.)
0	Sailors

Armies and navies in the era are extremely stratified in this era, with senior officers such as generals and admirals being divided into various subranks. To represent this, certain ranks are followed by pairs of numbers indicating a more exact rank status and point cost.

Merchant service titles are not military ranks.

No Hangover

See *Alcohol Tolerance*, above.

see p. CI28

Patron

see pp. B24, CI28

Patronage, or more properly “influence,” is the lubricant that ensures the smooth running of society. Patrons who are merely wealthy may be willing to bail you out of financial trouble (or debtor’s prison) or fund your scholarly research or creativity. Patrons with “influence” may be able to arrange a preferential posting in the army, navy, or East India Company, smooth your path to promotion, arrange a governmental sinecure (in the Customs service, the diplomatic corps, or the colonies), or minimize the consequences of your failures. Many officers owed their careers to the adroit use of patronage on their behalf, to arrange an initial commission that could not be afforded by the immediate family or a midshipman’s berth in the navy. Patronage from admirals later assisted promotion and employment prospects for lieutenants, commanders, and captains.

Patrons will seek first to reward their friends and relatives with sinecures (jobs with good salaries but minimal duties); thereafter, the highest bidder is the most likely recipient. Such corruption is expected in this era and exists at every level of government, including the established churches and the military. While government ministers might be able to secure well-paid positions as courtiers for scions of the nobility and gentry, the ability to determine the holders of minor posts, even departmental clerks and doorkeepers, is also lucrative. (The favored applicants can expect to supplement their salaries by taking bribes simply to perform their responsibilities in a speedy fashion, so buying office is a wise investment.) In Britain, many posts (“livings”) in the Church of England were in the “gift” of the local gentry, while magistrates could appoint beadles to superintend the welfare of the poor of a parish.

Possible Patrons include rich aristocrats, senior military officers, government ministers and high officials, diplomats, and even royalty. A Patron’s direct influence may be limited to a certain region, type or status of sinecures controlled, and so on. However, influential people will have contacts within their own social circles, who have influence in other walks of life by virtue of different careers. Thus, a Patron might draw upon this network to advance a particular protégé and return the favor for someone else’s favorite. Dependents may find themselves out of luck, if their Patron has to repay too many favors to others. Worse, being identified too closely with a Patron may mean that a character gains his Patron’s rivals as Enemies, in terms either of the rival’s Dependents or of the rival himself.

Patrons will expect loyalty and occasional quid pro quos from their protégés – a Duty disadvantage may be appropriate. Parliamentarians will be expected to support the wishes of political patrons, officers to prove themselves by bravery and taking prizes, officials to ease the due processes of bureaucracy for the patron’s other dependents, magistrates to be lax in their prosecution of smugglers (if under the protection of the local squire) or impose a harsh sentence on trumped-up charges on anyone trifling with the squire’s daughter, and so on.





Rapid Healing

See *Immunity to Disease*, above.

Reputation

see p. B17

A Reputation is a common advantage/disadvantage in this era. Even junior army and naval officers will acquire reputations in their respective regiments and ships. Increasing rank will lead to greater recognition throughout the services. Academic societies and court patronage will spread the fame of men of letters, the sciences, and the arts. Political sympathies such as Whig or Tory in peaceful times can divide society; in more turbulent times, the name of “Jacobin,” “regicide,” or “royalist” can be a death sentence. Coward and cheat are possibly the worst reputations among the privileged orders. Rakes and other dissolutes can expect differing reactions according to their company. Conservative members of society and the press will ridicule dandies and fops who follow extreme fashions.

Atheist is a hard Reputation to lose – known atheists should expect little help or sympathy from even mildly religious people. Some Roman Catholic clergy (e.g., the Jesuits and the Dominicans in charge of the Inquisition in Spain) have negative Reputations (receiving a -6 reaction from Protestants and a -2 reaction from Roman Catholics). In France, the constitutional clergy and the non-juring clergy (those obedient to Rome) are mutually Intolerant; well-known members of either branch of the church may have negative Reputations (-1 or -2) with each other and zealous followers of the other branch of the church.

The newspapers will magnify every virtue of someone who once featured in national or world events – while satirists and lampoonists will exploit every flaw.

New Advantage

Independent Income 5 points

You have a private income. Unless you are a spend-thrift, you should never have to work for a living. You may still choose to work – if so, you will still benefit from your private income. The source is up to you: investments in (for example) the East India Company, rent on land or houses, a military pension or half-pay (see p. 79), monies from the Secret Service fund (see p. 85), an allowance from a relative, or a sinecure. Some “sinecures” actually involve real work, but no one will complain if you hire a clerk to serve as your deputy and undertake your duties in the West Indies for a fraction of your salary. This advantage does not give you any specified level of income; the income per month is equal to 5% of the starting wealth for your wealth level. A Dead Broke character gains nothing from this advantage and should not take it; a Very Wealthy or better character effectively already has it. You should spend up to 10 hours per month “working” for this income, by corresponding with brokers and merchant houses, collecting rents, writing to the wealthy relative, collecting the pension, or signing documents.

see p. B23

Disadvantages

Addiction

see p. B30

Addictive substances such as alcohol, tobacco, and opium are legal in this period. Many patent medicines contain high doses of such substances and are marketed as cures for debilitating and chronic diseases, leading to the potential for addiction to the medicine. All Addictions are legal and hence worth 5 points less than normal.

Alcoholism

see p. B30

The easy availability of alcohol, and indeed its necessity in most diets, mean that alcoholism is common in all classes of society. Alcoholism is a 15-point addiction. Drinkers will receive a -1 reaction penalty from followers of “dry” religions and sects; alcoholics will receive a -2 reaction penalty from such people.

Code of Honor

see p. B31

Honor is taken seriously by most gentlemen in this period. Though illegal, duels are still fought over insults, political disagreements, and adulterous liaisons. The Gentleman’s Code of Honor (-10 points) is the standard for the upper classes. The Pirate’s Code of Honor (-5 points) is sometimes followed by ordinary soldiers, sailors, rebels, and revolutionaries.

Compulsive Gambling

see p. CI88

Gambling is a pastime of rich and poor alike. Fortunes can be lost and won (and lost again) in a single evening. Most characters who gamble regularly should take this Disadvantage at -5 point level.

Cowardice

see p. B32

The very accusation of cowardice is an insult that cannot be ignored; it must be disproved by an act of extraordinary and conspicuous bravery and/or by “demanding satisfaction” from the accuser by a duel. This disadvantage is worth -10 pts. In this age of honor, known cowards also suffer from the additional negative Reputation (Coward) at either -5 points (for everyone, all the time, -1) or -10 points (for everyone, all the time, -2), depending on the consequences of their lack of courage. Those whose cowardice remains a private failing should take Secret (Coward) at -5 points; when revealed this will convert into the Reputation (Coward) described above.

Dependents

see p. B38

In the 18th century, Dependents can also include people who are seeking your character’s “influence” to further their careers by arranging promotions or sinecures on their behalf. The more powerful one becomes, the more others will seek to ingratiate themselves. In addition, relatives, friends, and their relations will expect preferential treatment. The value of this Disadvantage will depend on how much influence the protector is prepared to exercise for his protégés, and should be discussed with the GM.

Duty

see p. B39

Duty, especially to one’s sovereign and/or country, is important in 18th-century society. All members of the regular





military forces – officers, volunteers, conscripts, and pressed men – can take a 15-point Duty, owing to the frequency of hazardous duty, the harsh discipline, and the near-permanency of membership. Members of militia forces can take a 5-point Duty to reflect the less frequent requirements for service.

Fat and Overweight see pp. B28, B29

Having enough to eat is a sign of wealth. Most people do not have enough food to keep hunger at bay. Being overweight or fat does not provoke the same reaction penalties in the 18th century as it would in more health-conscious eras. Being Overweight or merely Fat at the 10-point level has no reaction penalty. Only being Fat at the 20-point level will incur a -1 reaction. All the practical problems and limits on HT still apply. Stout characters may have the Gluttony disadvantage or suffer from gout as well (see *Lame* below).

Gluttony see p. B33

A common vice, blatant gluttony in full view of the wrong people – for example the righteous members of a Revolutionary Tribunal – will incur a reaction penalty ranging from -1 to -3, depending on how bad conditions are currently for the onlookers (or the people they purport to represent).

Greed see p. B33

There are fortunes to be made in Europe, in the colonies, and beyond. For the avaricious, this is a golden time of opportunities. Greed will keep a merchant in the disease-ridden West and East Indies even to the ruin of his health. Corruption is rife in officialdom. Greed will ensure that officeholders squeeze every last penny from bribery simply to undertake their ordinary responsibilities.

Innumerate see p. CI91

This is a 5-point disadvantage. Knowing how to count is important, especially to collect the right pay or avoid being fleeced. This is a common disadvantage among the lower classes of European society.

Intolerance see p. B34

Intolerance of other religions is the norm. There is no point value for Intolerance (Religious) (p. CI91). Blatant religious *tolerance* is an Odious Personal Habit. Intolerance toward other nationalities is a disadvantage. If it is toward all foreigners, it is worth 10 points. If it is only toward one commonly encountered nationality, it is worth -5 points. If it is toward an uncommonly-encountered nationality, it is merely a -1-point quirk.

Lame see p. B29

Gout is a hereditary disorder that was believed to be caused by overindulgence in food and drink. It is a recurring ailment that can be triggered by infection, emotional disturbances, or trauma. The symptoms are extreme pain and tenderness in the joints of the foot. Attacks can last up to a fortnight. The victim should take the Lame disadvantage with the -20% limitation “only on a failed HT roll.” As a special effect, this disadvantage can be set off by the triggers mentioned above instead of failed HT

rolls. The usual effect is a crippled leg [-12 points]; severe cases may confine the sufferer to a wheelchair or sedan chair [-28 points].

Lecherousness see p. B34

Lechery is a common vice in this age, with many men taking mistresses or enjoying more temporary dalliances in brothels and bawdy houses. Women often take lovers. Age is no barrier to desire and its consummation.

Odious Personal Habit see p. B26

Boasting (at either -5 or -10-point levels) is a common disadvantage. Refusing to drink, gamble, or indulge in similar common pursuits is worth -5 points if the abstainer spends much of his time in circles where such activities are the norm. Openly advocating religious tolerance of minority Christian sects is an Odious Personal Habit worth -5 points. Openly advocating religious tolerance of non-Christian faiths in Europe or in settler communities in the colonies is worth -10 points. The wars of religion are over, but their aftereffects linger.

WOMEN IN THE ERA

Eighteenth-century women were second-class citizens. Aristocratic women played second fiddle to noblemen, but remained socially superior to untitled male commoners. Campaigns with even a modicum of realism should require the Social Stigma disadvantage for female characters.

Women adhering to society's conventions wielded the power in their husbands' households and organized the balls and parties where their husbands and brothers could network, gain patronage, and dispense influence. In France, especially, educated and attractive women held court in the salons where intellectuals and young bucks vied for their attention with wit and gallantry. High society in Austria and Russia was dominated by their ruling empresses, Maria Theresa and Catherine the Great.

Women do not have to spend their lives like Jane Austen in quiet retirement, observing the manners of genteel society and penning ironic novels. Adventurous members of the upper classes may travel with their husbands (or, if unmarried, with just a maidservant) to foreign parts. Love affairs should be avoided, or at least conducted discreetly, lest the erring wife be declared mad and shut away in an asylum under heavy medication laced with arsenic. (Getting a divorce in England and its empire requires an Act of Parliament in this period; Roman Catholics must petition the Pope for an annulment.) Middle-class women may relocate to the colonies to seek or join a husband, though they too should maintain public respectability. Lower-class women may behave as they wish, though they will receive scant protection in law should their actions embroil them in peril.

Women were found in every army as camp followers. Frequently armed, they were not averse to killing and looting enemy wounded. Some disguised themselves as men and fought in the ranks – even female officers are not impossible. Pasquale Paoli organized women-only detachments to defend Corsica from the French Revolutionary armies.

Though women were officially prohibited from serving aboard ship, some captains and officers took their wives to sea. Female stowaways were hidden below decks on many ships of the line, out of sight of less liberal commanders. At Trafalgar, women served with the gun crews on HMS *Victory* – one even gave birth during the battle.

Less structured careers such as privateering, the merchant marine, (counter-) revolution, espionage, and entertainment posed fewer barriers to women of the period. Even in science, Madame Lavoisier assisted in her husband's research, and the University of Bologna had a woman professor.

Thus, with a little effort, there are first-class roleplaying opportunities for female PCs in any *GURPS Age of Napoleon* campaign.





Primitive

see p. B26

Technological progress from 1769 to 1821 is extremely uneven. England leads the way in the practical development of steam power, while Europe in general is a center of scientific advances in many fields. Europeans and overseas colonists may not take the Primitive disadvantage. Indigenous inhabitants of China, India, the Muslim nations, and the Americas may take Primitive at the 5-point level; they are familiar with TL4 technology. Those from elsewhere in Asia or Africa are at the 10-point level, as their technology is TL3. Pacific islanders, Australian and New Zealand natives, and members of any truly isolated culture can have technology ranging down to TL0.

Reputation

see p. B17

See the entry under *Advantages*.

Secret

see p. CI78

Many people have secrets. Suitable secrets include clandestine love affairs, concealed (usually ruinous) debts, being a spy, shady pasts in terms of political beliefs, religious backgrounds, or even hiding one's gender.

Social Stigma

see p. B27

Belief in a minority religion will qualify as a Social Stigma if it is obvious from appearances, such as a priest in his cassock or a Quaker using his distinctive thee and thou. Any woman has a -5 point Social Stigma owing to the limits on her behavior. Foreigners (the Irish in England, Austrians in France, American colonials in England, etc.) may take a -5 or -10 point Social Stigma, even in the most enlightened regions. This does not apply if the PC will spend a significant proportion of his time in his home country.

Vow (Parole)

see p. B37

A military man who is captured alive by the enemy may be offered the chance to give his parole (see also p. 75). This is a promise to refrain from combat against the enemy, from actively supporting other combatants, and from attempting to escape. The captive benefits from avoiding the more unpleasant aspects of imprisonment; the captors benefit from not having to pay for guards or prison walls to keep him imprisoned. Parole is taken seriously and can be treated as a -10-point Vow. Usually this disadvantage will be acquired during play.

Skills

This section describes some skills that are of particular relevance to *GURPS Age of Napoleon* campaigns. Readers are referred to *GURPS Basic Set* and *Compendium I* for other skills. Of particular note to adventurers in this era are Diplomacy, Fencing, Gambling, Leadership, Riding, Seamanship, Shiphandling, Streetwise, and Survival.

Black Powder Weapons

see p. B49

Nearly all fighters receive training only with flintlock pistols, muskets, and rifles. Matchlocks and wheellocks are rare antiques and will therefore count as unfamiliar weapons to flintlock users.

The Blue Devils

Command is a lonely business. The need to out-think one's opponent can lead to bouts of introspection over one's own deeds, inducing chains of often gloomy "What If?" thoughts. For officers who care about their subordinates, this can lead to fits of depression (see Chronic Depression, p. CI87) and indecision (see Indecisive, p. CI91, and Weak Will, p. B37). Alcoholism may provide an escape for some; others may break completely (use a combination of Confused (p. CI88), Insomniac (p. CI82), Nightmares (p. CI92), and Post-Combat Shakes (p. CI93) in addition to the original depressive and indecisive disadvantages).

Gunner

see p. B50

There are three major types of heavy weapon in the period: cannons (including carronades), howitzers, and mortars. Treat these as familiarities with the standard -4 default. Naval gunners will normally only learn how to fire cannon, unless they see service on a bomb ketch (which carries mortars). Army gunners should expect to learn all three weapon types eventually.

Savoir-Faire

see p. B64

While a *faux pas* may not be sufficient cause for an offended party to "demand satisfaction," rude or boorish behavior will have repercussions to Reputation; they may bar entry to the fashionable salons where aristocratic ladies hold court among a circle of witty conversationalists, or create unexpected Enemies who will exercise their influence to arrange the preferment of the boor's Rivals.

Savoir-Faire may be used to determine the correct forms of address when speaking with aristocracy and high-ranking military and clergy. Kings and queens are "Your Majesty," princes and princesses are "Your Highness," dukes and duchesses are "Your Grace," and other aristocrats are "my lord" and "my lady." Holders of knighthoods are addressed by their first names, e.g., "Sir Richard."

Particularly in France, details of costume style and color can reveal the wearer's political allegiances and attitudes. Choosing dress and adornment to convey neutrality or a specific position requires a Savoir-Faire roll, with penalties if in a country whose styles are unfamiliar. Vision and Savoir-Faire rolls (with familiarity penalties for other countries on the latter) may be made to identify the opinions expressed through others' apparel.

Savoir-Faire (Military)

see p. CI160

Savoir-Faire (Military) includes knowing how superiors and subordinates address each other. In the British military, subordinate officers are usually dignified by a "Mister," when given an order, e.g., "Mr. Hornblower, you have the watch," although it is common for them to be addressed by their surnames in other situations. (Superior officers are addressed as "Sir," unless they are lords or knights, where the aristocratic form takes precedence.) Elsewhere, officers are addressed by their rank and surname. The civilian version of Savoir-Faire provides no guidance in such matters.





Strategy and Tactics

see p. B64

In this era, characters must specialize in either Tactics (Land), Tactics (Naval) (formerly known as Naval Tactics (p. CI151)), Tactics (Guerrilla), or Tactics (Marine). Tactics (Guerrilla) represents the pragmatic hit-and-run tactics used by irregular forces such as the Spanish guerrillas and specialist skirmishers such as British riflemen and the French *voltigeurs*. Tactics (Marine) represents the specialist tactics required for boarding actions and boat actions, and is the province of marines and sailors. Marines should also take some Tactics (Land). Naval officers should possess Tactics (Naval) and some Tactics (Marine); ordinary sailors only require some Tactics (Marine). All required Tactics specializations default to IQ-6 and Strategy-6, and mutually default to each other at -4. Characters must also specialize in either Strategy (Land) or Strategy (Naval) (formerly known as Naval Strategy (p. CI151)).

Characters with Tactics (Land) may *optionally* specialize (p. B43) in Tactics (Drill). This represents the series of practiced maneuvers which allow large groups of soldiers to conduct turns, advances (e.g. in line or column), retreats, charges, and defensive postures (such as forming square) by rote memorization, especially under fire. It is inappropriate for *leading* soldiers in battle. It is found among members of organized military forces of this era, particularly infantrymen and cavalymen.

The borderline between Tactics and Strategy is often blurred for naval officers. A useful rule of thumb is that Tactics (Naval) should be used for single-ship actions, whereas Strategy (Naval) should be used whenever the actions of two or more ships must be coordinated. Only the most senior admirals will ever have any say over worldwide grand strategy. The gravest responsibilities for most flag officers will be fleet maneuvers and fleet-level battles. Captains and their juniors will be concerned with the tactics of ship-level engagements and boat-level skirmishes; exceptional officers sent on independent missions in distant waters will require strategic awareness and diplomacy to interpret admiralty orders in their country's best interests.

New Skill

Advertising/TL (Mental/Average)

Defaults to IQ-5 or Psychology-4

Propagandists, demagogues, revolutionary pamphleteers, and many politicians will possess this skill. Advertising is the skill of indirect persuasion through the media. Advertising works on groups, not individuals. Successful advertising can inform the target audience or even alter its perceptions; results require time and exposure. The GM should set the effective Will of the target group based on its size, composition, and innate resistance to the desired outcome, and then use the *Influence Rolls* rule (p. B93) to determine the outcome. In this era, Advertising is used frequently to create and disseminate propaganda (in the form of political tracts, pamphlets, and newspaper articles). Advertising can also be used for psychological warfare, but, as training in this application is not available in this period, a -2 unfamiliarity penalty (see p. B43) must be applied to such uses.

LANGUAGES

It is expected that most *GURPS Age of Napoleon* characters will be European or of European extraction, so most of the languages they are likely to learn will be Mental/Average (see pp. B54-55). However, Basque, a non-Indo-European language spoken in southern France and northern Spain, is Mental/Hard. Other Mental/Hard languages may be encountered in Africa, Asia, or the Americas.

Many European languages have some default to each other, especially the written forms. The Romance languages include Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian. French defaults to either Italian or Spanish at -5, Latin at -6. Spanish and Italian default to each other at -2, Latin at -3.

German and Dutch default to each other at -3, and the Scandinavian languages to them at -6. Danish and Norwegian default to each other at -1, and Swedish to each of them at -3. English and Dutch default to each other at -5. English and German default to each other at -7. (While much of the vocabulary of English is Romance-based, more of it is Germanic, as is its underlying grammar.)

Languages defaulting to each other should not be taken to mean that there is a word-to-word correspondence.

French is the “lingua franca” of Europe and is the language of many royal courts including Russia and Prussia for part of the period. Anyone who wishes to move in high social circles should learn French. Latin remains the language of the Catholic Church and is extremely common to physicians, scholars, scientists, and anyone who has benefited from a university education.

For time travelers, the languages of the 18th century default to their 20th-century descendants at -1 owing to differences in vocabulary and grammatical usage. Masquerading as a foreigner would not be difficult, but to pass as a native will require special effort and training.

ECONOMICS, JOBS, AND WEALTH

Money

Every nation had its own currency – even some of the colonies resorted to producing their own paper bills when coinage from the home country was in short supply. Gold, silver, and copper coins were the principal form of currency. Merchants assessed the value of foreign currency by weight and metal type. Paper bills and letters of exchange steadily became more prominent in national and international commerce. Transfers of large sums of money were normally accomplished by giving the recipient authorization to (with)draw cash from the giver's bank, possibly via intermediate banks. Merchants could convert unpaid bills into cash by presenting them to a bank for “discounting.” The bank gave the merchant a fraction less than their face value and was then responsible for recovering the whole sum from the original





customer. The “discount” varied depending on the expected difficulty of collecting the debt. In unsettled times, in uncivilized regions, or when dealing with the less genteel segments of society, there are few substitutes for hard cash.

The following table summarizes the relationship between the **GURPS** dollar and a selection of the national currencies:

Currency Conversion Table

Austria

1 Thaler (silver)	\$1.00
1 Florin (silver)	\$0.50
1 Kreuzer (copper)	\$0.008

Britain

1 Guinea (gold)	\$5.25
1 Pound (unit of account)	\$5.00
1 Shilling (silver)	\$0.25
1 Penny (copper)	\$0.02

France

1 Livre or 1 Franc (silver)	\$0.40
1 Sou (copper)	\$0.02

Holland

1 Ducat (gold)	\$2
1 Guilder (silver)	\$0.40
1 Stuiver (copper)	\$0.02

Spain

1 Peso (a.k.a. 1 Piece of Eight) (silver)	\$0.50
1 Real (silver)	\$0.06
1 Maraverdi (copper)	\$0.002

United States

1 Dollar (silver)	\$1.00
1 Cent (copper)	\$0.01

The currencies are subdivided as follows:

1 thaler equals 2 florins; 1 florin equals 60 kreuzer
1 pound equals 20 shillings; 1 shilling equals 12 pence
1 livre or 1 franc equals 20 sous
1 ducat equals 5 guilders; 1 guilder equals 20 stuivers
1 peso equals 8 reals; 1 real equals 34 maraverdis
1 dollar equals 100 cents.

Wealth and Social Status

Average starting wealth in **GURPS Age of Napoleon** is \$750. GMs may permit PCs up to Wealthy to spend all their money on personal “adventuring” gear – there may be a good reason for the PC to have converted all his wealth into portable goods and cash. Adventurers who are Very Wealthy, Filthy Rich, or Multimillionaires may only spend 20% of their starting wealth on items to be used directly in a campaign: 80% must be tied up in a home, land, furniture, clothing, investments, etc. PCs who acquire debts through unlucky gambling, unwise speculations, or repudiated loans may have to liquidate more of their starting wealth.

For anyone on the lowest rungs of the social ladder, life will be defined by the social class of

birth. The middle classes can hope to rise by success in their chosen profession, marriage into a higher social rank, or even ennoblement by purchase or royal patronage. Scions of the upper classes may receive grander titles following unexpected deaths in the family or be elevated in the peerage for military or political services.

The bold and the lucky may find themselves rising into high society – one of Napoleon’s Marshals became King of Sweden! Players should create beginning characters of Social Status no higher than 3. Use the Status and Cost of Living table below as an idea of Status in this era. Status also determines cost of living.

Status and Cost of Living

Level	Examples	Monthly Cost of Living
8	Divine ruler, emperor	\$20,000+
7	King, pope	\$5,000+
6	Prince, duke, marquis, archbishop	\$2,000
5	Earl, count, bishop	\$1,000
4	Viscount, baron, landed lord, monsignor, abbé	\$500
3	Lesser lord (e.g. untitled noble), English baronet, knight, canon	\$100
2	Squire, <i>hidalgo</i> , <i>hobereau</i> , burgess, lawyer, great merchant, parish priest	\$40
1	Rural gentleman, merchant, master craftsman, curate	\$20
0	Shopkeeper, journeyman, laborer	\$10
-1	Casual worker, servant	\$5
-2	Outsider, criminal, prostitute	\$2
-3	Street beggar, vagrant	\$2
-4	Serf or slave	\$2

Note that living below your Status level may reduce your Status! Roll vs. IQ each month; a failure means Status drops by 1. The point value of a character also drops if his Status drops. A noble’s Status can never go below 1 by this means.



A gentleman encounters the destitute (ca. 1790)





Job Table

In civilized areas, PCs may find jobs to provide income while they are not in play. Not every job is available in every part of the world. Jobs can help cover the PC's cost of living. The Job Table lists a number of possible occupations. Some have skill or experience prerequisites. Default values do not count; at least a half-point must be invested in the skill.

Job (Required Skills), Monthly Income

Success Roll

Critical Failure

Poor Jobs

Beggar* (none), \$2	10	-1i/3d
Farm Laborer (ST 9+), \$2	12	LJ
Street Thief* (DX 11+, Shadowing 11+, Pickpocket 10+), \$3	Best PR sent to penal colony	2d or 3 months in jail/
Street Vendor (none), \$3	IQ-1	-2i/1d
Tenant Farmer (Agronomy 12+, ST 10+), \$3	12	-1i/-2i, evicted

Struggling Jobs

Clerk (Literacy, Accounting 12+), \$10	PR	LJ
Cavalryman (Black Powder Weapons 10+, Riding 12+, Broadsword 10+), \$8 + rank plus room and board	Best PR	2d/4d
Infantryman (Black Powder Weapons 12+), \$7 + rank plus room and board	PR	2d/4d
Inventor* (Engineer 12+), \$1×Engineer	PR	-1i/-2i, 1d, workshop damaged in explosion
Laborer (ST 10+), \$15	ST	LJ
Performer* (any Music or Entertainment Skill 12+), \$1 ×Skill	Best PR	-1i/-2i, LJ
Petty Thief* (four Thief/Spy skills 12+ or two at 14+), \$8	Best PR	2d or 3 months in jail/ sent to penal colony
Porter (ST 12+), \$8	ST	LJ
Sailor [Navy or Merchant] (Seamanship 10+, Sailor 12+), \$6 plus room and board	PR	2d/3d
Servant/Lackey (Savoir-Faire (Servant) 12+, Status -1 or higher), \$6 plus room and board	PR	LJ
Teacher (Literacy, Knowledge skill at 10+) \$15	PR	LJ
Thug* (Brawling 11+ or any Weapon skill 11+), \$8	PR-2	3d or 3 months in jail/ sent to penal colony
Writer* (Writing 12+), \$1×Skill	PR	-1i/-3i, derisive reviews or censored

Average Jobs

Actor* (Performance 12+, Acting 12+), \$2×Skill	Best PR	-1i/-2i, LJ
Army Officer (Status 1+, Leadership 12+ or Wealthy+, Tactics 10+), Ensigns \$38, Cornets \$60, Infantry (\$30×Rank)-\$45, Cavalry (\$38×Rank)-\$45, plus room and board	Best PR	2d/-1 Rank
Bureaucrat (Administration 12+, Literacy, Status 1+), \$20	PR	LJ
Continental Gentry (Status 2+), \$100	Status+8	-1i/-3i
Factory Worker (ST 10), \$20	DX	-2i/ 2d or LJ
Gambler* (Gambling 12+), \$3×Skill	PR	-1i/2d
Man of Science (any Science skill 12+), \$2×Skill	PR	Ridicule/LJ
Merchant* (Merchant 12+), \$3×Skill	PR	-1i/-2i, bankruptcy
Navy Commission Officer (Status +1, Leadership 12+, Sailor 10+, Seamanship 10+, Navigation 10+, Shiphhandling 10+), \$38 (Rank 4), \$45 (Rank 5), \$75 (Rank 6, frigate captain) \$120 (captain of a ship of the line) plus room and board	Best PR	2d/-1 Rank
Navy Warrant Officer (Seamanship 12+ plus professional skill at 12+), \$5 + (\$5×Rank) plus room and board	Best PR	2d/-1 Rank
Parish Clergyman (Theology or Performance/Ritual 12+, Clerical Investment, Literacy, Status 1+), \$20 (poor curate) to \$100 (rich living)	Worse of PR, IQ	-1i/LJ
Shop Owner* (Professional skill 12+, Status 0+, a shop), \$2×Skill	PR	-1i/-2i
Skilled Craftsman* (Craft skill 12+, Status 0+), \$2×Skill	PR	-1i/-2i
Surgeon* (First Aid 14+, Surgeon 12+), \$90	Worst PR	-1i
Thief* (three Thief/Spy skills at 14+), \$25	Best PR	2d or 6 months in jail/ transportation to penal colony

Comfortable Jobs

Army General/Navy Flag Officer (Strategy 10+ or Politics 10+), \$225 (Rank 7), \$300 (Rank 8) plus room and board	Worst PR	1d, -1i/3d or cashiered
Diplomat (IQ 12+, Diplomacy 12+), \$400	IQ	Transferred to hardship post/LJ
English Gentry* (Status 2+), \$1,000	Status+8	-2i/forced to sell off part of estate
Lawyer* (Law 12+, Bard 12+, Status 1+, Literacy), \$200	PR	-3i/-10i, disbarred
Master Craftsman* (Craft skill 15+, own shop), \$6×Craft skill	PR	-2i/-4i
Merchant Ship Captain* (Navigation 10+, Shiphhandling 11+, Leadership 11+), \$150 plus room and board	Worst PR	-1i/-6i
Office-holder (IQ 10+, Status 2+), \$400	IQ	LJ
Physician* (Diagnosis 12+, Physician 12+, Literacy, Status 1+), \$250	PR-2	-1i/-2i
Slaver* (Merchant 10+, Diplomacy 10+), \$200	PR	-2i/3d, -4i
Smuggler* (Merchant 10+, Streetwise 12+, Shiphhandling 11+), \$200	PR-2	3d or 3 years in jail/ transportation to penal colony

Wealthy Jobs

High Church Official (Status 5+, Theology 12+, Administration 12+, Clerical Investment), \$2,500	Best PR	Income drops 10%
Professional Investor/Manufacturer* (Status 2+, Filthy Rich, Merchant 14+), \$5,000	PR	-3i/-10i
Titled Nobility* (Status 4+), \$4,000	Status+8	-2i/forced to sell off part of estate



EQUIPMENT

The fantasy/medieval equipment tables from the *GURPS Basic Set* may be used. All prices should be divided by 20 to approximate the prices of this era. During inflationary periods such as the Revolutionary Wars or other times of hardship, GMs should feel free to double or even triple the prices for food and other essentials from the *Basic Set*. A selection of further goods and services is given in the table below.

Equipment Table

Entertainment

Book (not novel)	\$5-\$10
Evening's entertainment and drinking at a club	\$0.25
Newspaper	\$0.05
Novel	\$0.75
Services of a street prostitute	\$0.25
Theatre ticket	\$0.25
Visit to Bedlam	\$0.04
Visit to a Pleasure Garden	\$0.25

Food and Drink

Beer (one quart)	\$0.12
Bread (one lb.)	\$0.04
Butter (one lb.)	\$0.14
Cheese (one lb.)	\$0.07
Cherries (one lb.)	\$0.12
Chocolate (one lb.)	\$8.50
Coffee in a coffee-house (per cup)	\$0.02
Meat (one lb.)	\$0.08
Sugar (one lb.)	\$0.12
Tea (one lb.)	\$1.50

Tools and Instruments

Logarithmic tables	\$50
Marine chronometer	\$500
Navigating instruments	\$100-\$500
Surgical kit	\$100
Surveying instruments	\$300
Telescope	\$100

Transport, Travel, and Communications

Carriage travel (in city, per mile)	\$0.25
Coach travel (in summer, per mile)	\$0.05
Coach travel (in winter, per mile)	\$0.06
Passage to India (from England)	\$2,000
Passage to the West Indies (from England via Post Office packet)	\$260
Posting a letter (inland destination, less than 80 miles)	\$0.06
Posting a letter (inland destination, less than 150 miles)	\$0.10
Posting a letter (inland destination, more than 150 miles)	\$0.12
Posting a letter (London to Edinburgh)	\$0.14
Posting a letter (London to Dublin)	\$0.12
Posting a letter (London to America)	\$0.25
Posting a letter (London to France)	\$0.20
Posting a letter (London to Spain)	\$0.37

Miscellany

Decorate and furnish a London townhouse	\$5,000
Fire Insurance (for every \$500 insured)	\$3
House (four bedrooms)	\$750
Inoculation against smallpox	\$1.25

Lodgings (squalid, per week)	\$0.62
Patent medicine	\$0.50-\$5
Portrait (by an "unknown" artist)	\$75
Portrait (by a world-class artist)	\$1,000
Reward for catching a deserter	\$5
Reward for catching a highwayman	\$200
School education (per year, in private school)	\$75
Set of human teeth (for use as dentures)	\$150
Shave and wig combed	\$0.06
Soap (bar)	\$0.12
Suit of fashionable society clothes	\$150
University education (Oxford or Cambridge, per year)	\$360
Wooden stool	\$0.32
Writing desk (high quality)	\$18

NOTES ON WEAPONS

Boarding Axe: Treat as an axe (p. B206). Not made for throwing (-2 to skill). Common on ships.

Boarding Pike: Treat as a spear (p. B206), used two-handed. Not made for throwing (-2 to skill). Common on ships.

Cavalry Saber: Long (32" to 36") and heavy. Treat as a broadsword (p. B206).

Cutlass: Treat as a shortsword (p. B206).

Lance: Period lances were 8' to 9' long (p. B206 but with Reach of 3).

Long Knife: Irregular troops frequently used small swords best represented as long knives. These use the Shortsword skill.

Muskets and Rifles: Muskets and rifles (really muskets with spiral grooves inside their barrels) can be used in three ways in hand-to-hand combat. First, if a bayonet is fitted, the weapon can be used as a spear. The weapon is held in two hands (p. B206), but reach is 1 and skill is Spear-1. The musket or rifle can be fired at -1 to skill when the bayonet is fixed in place.

Second, a musket can be "clubbed": held by the barrel and swung two-handed. Treat it as a maul (p. B206), but damage and Min ST both drop by 2, and skill is Two-Handed Axe/Mace-1. Muskets and rifles are sturdy enough to be used in this manner without sustaining damage.

Finally, a musket butt can be used as an improvised weapon: treat as a punch made using DX or Brawling, at -2 to skill but +2 to normal punching damage.

The Brown Bess is the standard British musket; riflemen use the Baker rifle. The Charleville is the standard French, Austrian, and American musket; American riflemen use the Kentucky rifle, and Austrian riflemen the Jager rifle. Some French troops use the musketoon as a carbine.

Pistols: Most pistols are sufficiently sturdy to be used as improvised blackjacks. Use Blackjack-1 and reduce damage by 1.

Polearms: Some infantry sergeants were issued with "pikes" (actually long spears in *GURPS* terms). Some Russian units used renaissance-style pikes during Napoleon's 1812 campaign. See *GURPS Low-Tech* for detail on such weapons.

Rockets: The Congreve rocket does not require a launcher; it is mounted on a stick that is thrust into the ground.

Sabers and Shortswords: Light 24" swords used by infantry, officers, and engineers. Treat as Shortswords or Sabers according to weight.

Volley Gun: Nock's volley gun is a multibarreled musked used for such purposes as suppressing mutinies. One pull of the trigger fires all seven barrels simultaneously. Treat this as two bursts (as defined on p. B120), one of four rounds and one of three.





Weapon Table

A variety of melee weapons remain in use. For a more detailed treatment on weapons of the period and fighting styles, see *GURPS Swashbucklers* and *GURPS High-Tech*. The prices in this table reflect the division of equipment prices by 20 in this setting.

Melee Weapons

<i>Weapon</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Damage</i>	<i>Reach</i>	<i>Cost</i>	<i>Weight</i>	<i>Min ST</i>
<i>Axe/Mace (DX-5)</i>						
Boarding Axe	cut	sw+2	1	\$2.50	4 lbs.	12
<i>Broadsword (DX-5 or Shortsword-2)</i>						
Broadsword	cut	sw+1	1	\$25	3 lbs.	10
	cr	thr+1	1			
Thrusting Broadsword	cut	sw+1	1	\$30	3 lbs.	10
	imp	thr+2	1			
<i>Fencing (DX-5)</i>						
Sabercut	sw	1	\$35	2 lbs.	7	
	imp	thr+1	1			
<i>Lance (DX-6)</i>						
Lance	imp	thr+3	3	\$3	6 lbs.	12
<i>Shortsword (DX-5 or Broadsword-2)</i>						
Long Knife	cut	sw-1	1	\$6	1.5 lbs.	7
	imp	thr	C, 1			
Shortsword	cut	sw	1	\$20	2 lbs.	7
	imp	thr	1			
<i>Spear (DX-5)</i>						
Boarding Pike	imp	thr+3	1,2	\$2	4 lbs.	—
Pike	imp	thr+3	4-6	\$9	3 lbs./yd	12
Sword Bayonet	imp	thr+2	1,2*	\$2	1.5 lbs.	9
Thrusting Bayonet	imp	thr+3	1,2*	\$1	1 lb.	9
	cut	sw+1	1,2*			

*Must be readied for one second to change from long to short grip and vice versa.

Firearms

<i>Weapon</i>	<i>Malf</i>	<i>Damage</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>1/2D</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Wt.</i>	<i>AWt.</i>	<i>RoF</i>	<i>Shots</i>	<i>ST</i>	<i>Rcl</i>	<i>Cost</i>
<i>Muskets</i>													
Brown Bess, .75, BPW(FL Msk)													
14	4d++	15	5	100	1,500	13	—	1/20	1	11	-3	\$10	
Charleville, .69, BPW(FL Msk)													
14	3d++	15	5	100	1,500	11	—	1/20	1	10	-2	\$10	
Fusil, .65, BPW(FL Msk)													
14	3d-2++	14	5	100	800	9	—	1/20	1	10	-2	\$75	
Musketoen, .69, BPW(FL Msk)													
14	3d-1++	15	4	100	1,100	8	—	1/20	1	11	-3	\$10	
Nock’s Volley Gun (7 barrels), BPW(FL Msk)													
14	2d+1++	14	3	100	900	12	—	1/60	7	13	-4	\$72	
<i>Pistols</i>													
Duck’s Foot Pistol, .40, BPW(FL Ptl)													
14	1d+1+	11	1	40	300	2	—	4~	4	13	-4	\$50	
Durs Egg Holster Pistol, .60, BPW(FL Ptl)													
14	2d+1+	12	2	50	400	2.75	—	1/20	1	11	-2	\$50	
Highland Pistol, .52, BPW(FL Ptl)													
14	2d+	11	2	55	400	2.75	—	1/20	1	10	-2	\$400	
Horse Pistol, .75, BPW(WI Ptl)													
14	2d+1++	12	1	90	500	4	—	1/60	1	12	-3	\$1,500	
Naval Pistol, .51, BPW(FL Ptl)													
14	2d-1+	11	1	75	450	3	—	1/20	1	10	-1	\$200	
Wogdon Dueller, .45, BPW(FL Ptl)													
15	2d-1+	10	3	75	450	2.75	—	1/20	1	9	-1	\$2,000	



<i>Weapon</i>	<i>Malf</i>	<i>Damage</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>1/2D</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Wt.</i>	<i>AWt.</i>	<i>RoF</i>	<i>Shots</i>	<i>ST</i>	<i>Rcl</i>	<i>Cost</i>
<i>Rifles</i>													
Baker Rifle, .625, BPW(FL Rfl)	14	5d++	15	7	300	2,500	9	–	1/20	1	12	-3	\$20
Girandoni Air Rifle, .51, BPW(Rfl)	14	4d+	15	7	250	2,100	9	–	1/4	20	10	-1	\$100
Jäger Rifle, .85, BPW(FL Msk)	14	4d++	12	7	150	1,000	12	–	1/90	1	12	-3	\$800
Kentucky Rifle, .45, BPW(FL Rfl)	14	5d+	15	7	400	2,000	7	–	1/40	1	10	-2	\$40
<i>Shotguns</i>													
Blunderbuss, 8g, BPW(FL Shg)	14	5d	14	3	15	100	12	–	1/15	1	13	-4	\$5
Manton Double, 12g, BPW(FL Shg)	15	4d	9	5	25	150	8	–	2~	2	13	-4	\$300

Artillery

<i>Wpn</i>	<i>Malf</i>	<i>Damage</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>1/2D</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Wt.</i>	<i>RoF</i>	<i>Cost</i>	<i>Crew</i>
<i>Cannon, Land-Based (Gunner (Cannon))</i>									
3 pdr	14	22d-1	6	430	2,100	1,250	1/20	\$4,100	3
4 pdr	14	6d×4	6	460	2,200	2,100	1/20	\$4,500	4
6 pdr short	14	6d×5	6	500	2,300	2,200	1/20	\$4,800	5
6 pdr long	14	6d×6	6	600	2,600	3,100	1/20	\$6,700	5
8 pdr	14	6d×7	6	620	2,600	3,100	1/20	\$7,600	6
9 pdr	14	6d×5	6	520	2,300	2,700	1/20	\$5,900	6
12 pdr	14	6d×8	6	670	2,700	5,000	1/20	\$10,000	7
18 pdr	14	6d×9	6	720	2,900	6,500	1/22	\$13,000	9
24 pdr	14	6d×8	6	630	2,600	5,700	1/26	\$12,000	10
26 pdr	14	6d×9	6	670	2,700	7,300	1/29	\$15,000	12
32 pdr	14	6d×11	6	790	3,000	9,600	1/27	\$19,000	11
36 pdr	14	6d×9	6	670	2,700	7,200	1/29	\$15,000	12
<i>Cannon, Naval (Gunner (Cannon))</i>									
6 pdr	14	6d×6	6	600	1,800	2,500	1/20	\$5,400	4
9 pdr	14	6d×7	6	620	1,900	3,500	1/20	\$7,400	6
12 pdr	14	6d×8	6	650	1,900	3,800	1/20	\$8,000	7
18 pdr, frigates	14	6d×7	6	580	2,000	4,100	1/22	\$8,600	7
18 pdr, ships of the line	14	6d×9	6	700	2,100	4,700	1/22	\$9,700	8
24 pdr	14	6d×7	6	620	2,100	5,300	1/25	\$11,000	9
32 pdr	14	6d×8	6	630	2,150	6,200	1/26	\$13,000	11
42 pdr	14	6d×9	6	660	2,200	7,500	1/28	\$15,000	13
<i>Carronades (Gunner (Cannon))</i>									
12 pdr	14	11d	3	70	870	660	1/20	\$1,800	1
18 pdr	14	13d	3	80	1,000	950	1/22	\$2,400	2
24 pdr	14	15d	3	90	1,100	1,300	1/25	\$3,000	2
32 pdr	14	16d	3	90	1,100	1,900	1/26	\$4,300	3
42 pdr	14	17d	3	90	1,200	2,500	1/28	\$5,400	4
68 pdr	14	20d	5	200	1,300	4,000	1/33	\$8,400	7
<i>Howitzers (Gunner (Howitzers))</i>									
4.4"	14	22d+1	6	300	1,700	1,500	1/20	\$3,400	7
5.5"	14	6d×5	6	330	1,800	2,400	1/23	\$5,100	9
5.8"	14	6d×5	6	340	1,800	2,600	1/25	\$5,000	10
6"	14	6d×5	6	350	1,800	2,600	1/25	\$5,600	10
6.7"	14	6d×6	6	370	1,910	3,500	1/28	\$7,400	12
<i>Mortars (Gunner (Mortars))</i>									
13"	14	6d×11	6	260	1,600	6,800	1/55	\$13,000	27

Rockets

<i>Weapon</i>	<i>Malf</i>	<i>Damage</i>	<i>Spd</i>	<i>End</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>WPS</i>	<i>VPS</i>	<i>CPS</i>
Congreve Rocket	16	6d×4 [10d]	360	1.4	500	32 lbs.	0.64 cf	\$16

CAMPAIGNS

*Vice Admiral Miller stood on the quarterdeck, looking through his telescope at the brace of French frigates in Rochefort harbor. Ready to sail. Were their captains loyal to Boney or Louis XVIII? Whatever Captain Watts might believe, HMS **Swiftsure** would be hard-pressed to block the escape of both ships. Time to signal for reinforcements from the squadron.*

A harried-looking Roques reined in his horse before General Croix. Roques spoke urgently to Croix, who nodded once, and then rode over to the imperial carriage. The Guardsmen surrounding the coach let him pass.

“Your Majesty, Deschamps has determined that both frigate captains are your loyal subjects, and are ready, willing, and able to run the British blockade. What are your orders, Sire?”





Adventurers will find excitement in every part of the world, with wars and revolutions providing opportunities for glory, power, and danger. This chapter explores the many different possible campaigns available in this setting as well as opportunities for crossovers and hybrid games.

TYPES OF CAMPAIGN

History vs. Fiction

The Napoleonic epoch, particularly the French Revolution and the subsequent wars, has inspired many works of fiction – including *War and Peace*. Some early literature, such as Charles Dickens' *A Tale of Two Cities* and Baroness Orczy's *The Scarlet Pimpernel*, exaggerated some aspects of the era for dramatic effect. Later series, such as C. S. Forester's Hornblower novels (and their many excellent imitators) and Bernard Cornwell's Sharpe sequence, have been written by historians and authors willing to pay attention to authentic historical detail. Many of their plots are based on actual events or purport to be the hidden histories of the times. As such, they provide a treasure trove of ideas and models for roleplaying campaigns. (See the Bibliography for listings.)

Should history be changed in a roleplaying game?

Yes and no.

Yes. A lot of history buffs are well versed in the minutiae of this era. Occasionally it may be necessary to change dates and names to keep such players guessing. This will also allow the GM to obtain endless plots by dipping into history. However, do *not* move the famous battles such as Austerlitz, Trafalgar, and Waterloo. Players will want their characters to be present at such pivotal moments. Plot lines that allow them to be responsible behind the scenes for making such events happen will be especially appreciated. Allow real historical figures to feature in the campaign – meeting the famous will both ground players in the historical framework and inspire their characters. (Remember that Richard Sharpe won his commission by saving Wellington in India.)

No. Do *not* substantially alter the lives of major personalities or the outcomes of major events, unless the desired intention is to trigger an alternate timeline. Napoleon's life was threatened from many quarters. A party of adventurers could be plotting to kill him or working desperately to save him. If Napoleon is assassinated, the game becomes an alternate history and everything that happens after the key juncture is subject to change. Read the "What if . . ." sidebars in Chapters 1 and 2 for some suggestions as to what might have been and how to maintain the broad sweep of history.

The late Patrick O'Brian lamented his error in not starting his Aubrey-Maturin saga sufficiently early in the wars; he had to warp strict chronology to fit in his later novels. So while it is probably not necessary to send characters to sea as youthful midshipmen in 1768 (like Alexander Kent's Richard Bolitho), GMs expecting prolonged campaigns should still choose an early starting year.

Realistic vs. Cinematic

For GMs desiring completely accurate historical gaming, a fully realistic approach is best. In such campaigns, the streets are filthy, the battles are bloody, and disease kills more people than musket fire. Personal combat should use the Advanced Combat Rules (pp. B102-105). *GURPS Vehicles* should be used for shipbuilding and naval engagements, while the Mass Combat rules (pp. CII113-124) will cover land battles. Fright Checks may be required in particularly bloody battles. GMs and players should be warned – this level of realism leads to frequent fatalities.

For GMs seeking dramatic action rather than accuracy, a cinematic approach is best. In such campaigns, the harsh realities are blurred into soft focus, the peasants are healthy, the streets are clean, and the battles are glorious. Such high adventure requires the Optional Cinematic Reflexes (pp. CII71-79).

Many GMs will seek a middle ground, including the gritty details, but letting the NPCs suffer the brunt of the cannonballs and musketry. It was a cliché of the era that nobody ever died in a battle from an aimed musket shot, and there were cases of soldiers being knocked out by the passing wind of a cannonball – adjusting a "hit" in this way will spare the wounded man's life but remove him from the combat. For such campaigns, GMs should only use those rules options with which they are comfortable.

IN THE SHADOW OF THE EAGLES

Two out of every three years in the 18th century witnessed war in Europe. Even when Europe was at peace, India and the overseas colonies could be relied on as alternative conflict zones. Thus campaigns involving active duty soldiers will be action-packed. Consult the *Timeline*, p. 7, to determine which countries are (or will be) at war around the campaign's starting date.

Sea power and the desire for imperial aggrandizement transform European conflicts into global wars. GMs can and should move regiments around so that the soldiers can be available for the next slice of action. This does not mean that soldiers should be fighting on a different continent every week – do retain the realism of travel time – but it does mean that soldiers should not spend the rest of the war garrisoning the first town they captured, just because that's what happened to the real historical battalion. Likewise, officers who are captured after losing a battle or siege should receive opportunities to escape or be selected for a prisoner exchange. However, prisoners who escape *after* giving their parole (see p. 75) will not be considered honorable enemies and may be denied further active service by their own government.

All armies operate under military discipline of varying severity. PCs, regardless of Military Rank, should obey the orders of their lawful superiors or have good reasons ready for their court-martial. NPCs of lower Military Rank will obey orders, but stupid and near-suicidal orders will have a detrimental effect on respect and loyalty, provoking desertion and





mutiny. While good officers could expect devotion from their men, bad officers frequently had fatal accidents in the confusion of battle.

British officers do not have to accept postings. Many will prefer to eke out half-pay rather than accept a garrison command in the Caribbean. Posting an officer to the “Fever Islands” is an easy way to get rid of someone permanently – it may be years before the Horse Guards (the British army high command located in Horse Guards Parade, London) recalls him home. Refusing a posting in the French Revolutionary armies could earn a date with the guillotine.

Players may want more freedom of action than is realistically available to rank-and-file line infantry. Scouts (in the American War), French *voltigeurs*, and British riflemen are trained to fight as individuals. Cavalry have sufficient maneuverability to make detaching small units for special missions practical. Alternatively, allow one PC to be an officer, able to take a few men on special missions – either starting out with Military Rank 3 or above, or acquiring it during the course of a campaign. This is especially appropriate for “gentleman rankers,” wealthy men who serve in the ranks while waiting for a desirable commission to open up for

purchase. The safeguards on the purchase system in terms of required time in junior ranks, the need to find a seller, and the cost of high rank should prevent players from gaining freedom of action prematurely, even if their characters are wealthy enough to afford it.

Another option is to have all the PCs be officers, usually under the same commander. Depending on the type of action the campaign emphasizes, enlisted men can be treated as human equipment, or each officer can have specific men as an Ally Group, or when an officer is sent on a detached mission, other players can assume the roles of enlisted men accompanying him.

In most armies, there was a social as well as military chasm between officers and the lower ranks. (In Napoleon’s forces, soldiers might just be able to win even a marshal’s baton through bravery and victory.) Realistically, large parties cannot all be officers, and players should expect their nonofficer PCs to obey officer PCs. However, because *GURPS Age of Napoleon* is a game and because the fictional conventions support such behavior, nonofficers may enjoy a soldierly camaraderie with their official superiors (but not in front of other superior officers!).

ADVENTURE IDEAS: ARMY CAMPAIGNS

☛ For military campaigns, the following selection of adventure ideas can be expanded into full scenarios to sandwich between marches, gunnery practice, skirmishes, and spectacular battles. Only a few are specific to particular times and places.

☛ A motley group of convicts is transformed into an elite military unit. (The characters may be the trainers and/or the ex-prisoners.)

☛ Rebel forces attempt to overthrow an imperial regime (such as the British in North America or the Ottoman Empire in Greece and the Balkans). If the motivation for joining the rebels is hard cash, then the mercenaries may be treated with contempt by both sides; if idealism, persuading and training the patriots to use sound tactics and prevent infighting may be more taxing than any frontal assault.

☛ An Exploratory Officer rides beyond the army’s front lines in full dress uniform to discover the whereabouts of enemy forces. A crack unit is assigned to intercept enemy baggage trains or dispatch riders or to “salvage” priceless art treasures and relics before someone else loots them.

☛ Vital dispatches are sent from headquarters to the army’s outposts (and back), surviving the attacks of guerrillas and enemy scouts. A “galloper” in a battle rides through the action to pass on orders to battalion commanders.

☛ Rivalry between sailors and soldiers on a transport ship encourages gambling on fistfights or rat fights. Accusations of cheating and sore losers lead to wider mayhem. Someone must prevent a general bloodbath.

☛ Chafing at military discipline, a group of soldiers/sailors take unauthorized leave to sample the pleasures of a nearby port or town. They must elude the guard, enjoy themselves in town without causing a hue and cry and attracting the attention of the provost-marshal or local authorities, then return before their absence is noticed.

☛ The army is desperate for supplies. With the connivance of superior officers, a marauding band steals them from the local peasantry or enemy depots, or sneaks through enemy lines, pays farmers for their produce, and gets the supplies (which could be a herd of cattle or sheep) back safely. Can the men be trusted not to seize the gold? And whose side are the locals really on?

☛ An entire detachment of native, mercenary, or disaffected troops deserts, setting up a local tyranny and committing atrocities. Loyal troops are assigned to locate their base and eradicate them. This scenario could also happen in Britain or France. Such gangs of deserters will be smaller in number, but harder to catch in their

home territory. Soldiers will have more limited resources and powers to apprehend them, yet civilian and military authorities will demand results quickly.

☛ The (secret) police require aid in catching or suppressing violent criminals, rebel bands, machine breakers, smugglers, or other enemies of the state. A conflict of loyalties may occur if family or friends of the soldiers are discovered in league with the lawbreakers, or if the characters object to the high-handed and ruthless methods of the magistrates.

☛ An important person is threatened with assassination or kidnapping. His guards must identify and deal with the enemy agents. (See p. 116 for an extended scenario hook on this topic involving Prince William Henry.)

☛ A military unit makes a fighting withdrawal through hostile territory (e.g., to Corunna or from Moscow).

☛ A “Forlorn Hope” assault on a fortress takes place. If the stronghold defends a town, humane officers will have the added task of restraining triumphant troops from looting and pillaging civilian quarters.

☛ A stronghold is placed under siege. The defenders must pacify the civilians, prevent spies from betraying the city, conduct sallies against the besiegers, and hold out until relief arrives. Food shortages will lead to civilian unrest. Rioters may attack suspected “hoarders.” Disease will spread among the population and eventually reach the garrison. Meanwhile, the enemy will be bombarding the position. If the population is actively hostile to the garrison, the enemy within may be more dangerous than any besiegers.

☛ Soldiers have the opportunity to capture a Napoleonic Eagle or the equivalent British battalion standards (the King’s Color and the Regimental Color) in battle. As soldiers rally to these ensigns, the fighting will be most severe around them. A more difficult task is to recover a captured standard, when the rest of the army is routed or retreating. Soldiers will have to depart their own forces without orders (risking accusations of desertion), infiltrate the enemy, steal the standard, and escape back to their own army (wherever that is now).

☛ Prisoners must be rescued from the enemy or must escape after being captured. Either scenario becomes more complex if some prisoners have given their parole – but perhaps the rescuers have suspicions or proof that the authorities intend to hand the captives over to the secret police?





To prevent all soldiers from looking the same when generated, GMs should encourage players to come up with varied backgrounds and occupations followed by their characters before they enlisted or were conscripted.

HEARTS OF OAK

Naval campaigns possess the same advantages and disadvantages as their land-based cousins. GMs and players who want to explore the whole setting should exploit the flexibility granted by a fast sailing ship. For example, in the American War, a British frigate could be blockading the American coast one autumn, defending the West Indies from French attack the next spring, back in England that summer, and then escorting military transports to Gibraltar to relieve the siege, before sailing onward to India to combat Admiral Suffren's forces.

Every member of the Royal Navy, from the youngest powder monkey to the most senior admiral, is under the discipline of the Articles of War (see p. 72). This will limit the freedom of action of players, even those playing officers. PCs who reach the exalted ranks of master-and-commander and captain have ultimate responsibility for their ships. In the absence of a superior officer, there are no restrictions on their behavior save Admiralty displeasure and the risk of mutiny. If they succeed, no questions will be asked; if they fail, no answer will be sufficient. Every officer in the navy will remember that Admiral Byng was court-martialed and shot on his own quarterdeck for "failing to do his utmost." In the naval skirmishing prior to Trafalgar, the unfortunate Admiral Calder was court-martialed

because his engagement with the Combined Fleet in the Bay of Biscay was indecisive. Captains can measure the happiness of the crew (and hence spot the signs of mutiny) by the enthusiasm shown in Sunday services and the amount of skylarking indulged in. Similarly, muttering and fidgeting during and after a flogging will indicate that the crew believes the punishment to be unjust or excessive.

Players who like playing the real underdogs might prefer their characters to join the French or Spanish navies for an extreme challenge. In addition to facing superior British seamanship, gunnery, and numbers, mariners will have to cope with inexperienced crews, incompetent fellow officers, and the rapid promotion of undeserving compatriots simply on the basis of their purer noble lineage. Once the Revolution begins, French naval officers with royalist sympathies will have to take great care to avoid denunciation.

Royal Navy officers are extremely unlikely to refuse an appointment – even in war, there are always fewer ships than officers. Captains who are sitting MPs may request service in home waters so that they can be available for important Parliamentary business. A naval posting to the Caribbean is not too unhealthy – ships will usually be on patrol during the fever season.

Seniority is all-important in navies of the period. Officers of the same military rank will be ordered into seniority by date of commission, so making every PC an officer will not remove the obligation of subordinate PCs to obey their superiors. However, the fictional conventions allow protagonists of varying ranks to share the limelight – which permits GMs

ADVENTURE IDEAS: NAVAL CAMPAIGNS

☛ For naval campaigns, the following selection of adventure ideas can be expanded into full scenarios in the same way as the previous selection in campaigns of land warfare. Some adventure ideas listed for land forces also work for naval forces, as well.

☛ A joint force seeks to seize a Caribbean island from its colonial masters. Tensions between army and naval officers will appear in joint operations, especially if the plans go awry. Cooperation between the services may dwindle rapidly.

☛ Slaves in the Caribbean rebel against their masters, or disgruntled privateer crews seek to overthrow the local authorities. A joint force is sent to resolve the situation.

☛ An upsurge in successful privateering or piracy threatens the safety of homeward convoys. A naval force is sent to find and destroy them before any further ships are lost. Twist one: The pirates are in the very act of taking a merchantman. They threaten to kill their prisoners unless they are allowed to escape. Twist two: The privateers know too much about the convoy schedules – who is helping them? Twist three: The merchantmen are being lost in home waters – a gang of smugglers have become "wreckers," luring ships to destruction on the rocky coasts with false lights.

☛ A ship is assigned to protect a convoy either to or from home waters, surviving bad weather, stubborn and incompetent merchant captains, and the inevitable attempts of privateers to pick off stragglers. For added spice, GMs may make the convoy unusual – the Atlantic whaling fleet (for encounters with icebergs and Eskimos) or convict transports heading for Botany Bay or French Guiana (for the perils of disease, prisoner mutinies, and attacks by savages in land-falls in the Pacific.)

☛ Spies need passage into or refugees out of enemy territory. Betrayed by a double agent, the landing party must

avoid capture at all costs. Their ship will be identified and driven off with overwhelming force. Denied easy escape, the crew must find another route home, stealing a ship or finding passage with smugglers. As a deadly twist, the smugglers break their side of the bargain and attempt to kill their passengers.

☛ The crew (or a significant proportion) are planning mutiny. The officers must realize what's amiss, identify the ringleaders, and take decisive action. If not, they'll lose the ship and perhaps their lives.

☛ Shipwrecked in unexplored territory, marooned on a desert island, or set adrift in an open boat by successful mutineers, the survivors will need courage and skill to find their way back to civilization (and possibly revenge on the mutineers!).

☛ A "cutting out" expedition seeks to seize enemy ships from under the guns of harbor fortresses. Boat crews must row into position with muffled oars, sentries must be dispatched with cold steel, and an unfamiliar ship must be worked out of port at night. If there are many crewmen below decks, resistance is inevitable, the alarm will probably be given, and the expedition will have limited time to escape (in the prize ship or by boat).

☛ Ships in a harbor must be protected from "cutting out" expeditions with a submerged boom to bar large ships, or sentries on every ship and boats patrolling the anchorage. Alternatively, fire-ships enter the harbor, whose defenders may attempt to destroy them at a distance or, *in extremis*, board them, overpower the enemy, and change their course.

☛ A ship is sent to intercept and ravage an enemy convoy. For added spice, increase the naval escort so that the encounter becomes a battle royal between the squadrons, while the treasure fleet attempts to flee in the confusion.





to create parties with varied strengths. For example, in addition to the traditional captain and loyal first lieutenant pairing, Marine officers, surgeons, sailing masters, and other warrant officers are all suitable PCs. Access to the lower deck can be achieved through the crucial position of captain's coxswain, while other seamen can attach themselves to particular officers. The press-gang is no respecter of nationality or occupation – players should feel free to create diverse backgrounds for pressed seamen.

GMs should seriously consider starting characters at the lower naval ranks such as lieutenant, midshipman, and warrant officer's mate, both to allow the players to grow into positions of responsibility and to provide the widest range of possible scenarios. Officers should advance slowly – Richard Woodman kept his hero Nathaniel Drinkwater in the junior ranks for years (and hence commanding unrated ships), making his secret service career feasible. Alexander Kent gave his Richard Bolitho a more conventional career as an exceptional ship and fleet commander – Bolitho was a captain by 1783, but reached flag rank only in 1800 (through the normal process of promotion by seniority). Seafarers will experience the greatest breadth of action while commanding frigates or smaller ships. Ships of the line necessitate a change in campaign focus.

PRIVATEERS AND PIRATES

Players seeking seaborne action with greater freedom of action, less discipline, and increased diversity of character types may wish to consider privateering and/or piracy campaigns. Naval officers involved in financial scandals or duels (such as Cochrane and the fictional heroes Jack Aubrey and Harry Ludlow) may find a new career as privateers.

Pirates still proliferate in the South China Sea and among the Barbary States of North Africa. The increased naval presence in colonial waters – and hence the likelihood of being captured and hanged for piracy – dissuades nearly all Europeans from becoming freebooters. Instead, civilians await a war and then approach their home or colonial government to solicit “letters of marque and reprisal” licensing them to attack enemy ships until the end of the war as “privateers.” If captured, a privateer produces his letters of marque as a legal defense against prosecution as a pirate.

Privateer ships come in two flavors. Armed merchantmen employ their privateer status mostly as an exemption from sailing in convoy, enabling them to deliver their cargoes faster,

THE BARBARY PIRATES

The corsairs of the Barbary States of North Africa represented a threat to shipping in the Mediterranean throughout the period. Daring pirates raided isolated coastal communities, carrying off peasants into slavery. The rulers of these four states – the Bashaw of Tripoli, the Dey of Algiers, the Bey of Tunis, and the Emperor of Morocco – extorted tribute from trading nations who desired immunity for their merchants. Greed and contempt meant that treaties were frequently broken and tribute payments guaranteed no true safety.

The Tripolitan War (1801-1805) (see also *Stephen Decatur*, p. 43) offers substantial scope for an American naval campaign. Officers and men, perhaps having defeated French privateers and even French naval frigates in the Quasi-War with France, must now confront a new foe far from their home waters. For some, this war will be a matter of honor. For others, it may be a matter of vengeance, if friends or family have suffered or are suffering enslavement by the corsairs.

Compared to the British or the French, the American squadrons were much smaller, comprising several heavy frigates (as flagships), several schooners, and a few brigs. Half a dozen flat-bottomed gunboats (armed with a bow-mounted 24-pounder) and a couple of bomb vessels (with a single mortar) were borrowed from the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies for this war. (As the war reaches its conclusion, the American squadron will increase to six frigates, six schooners, one sloop, two bomb-vessels, and 16 gunboats.) GMs should bear this difference in scale in mind when assigning postings.

Suitably provisioned, the squadron must first make a transatlantic crossing. Keeping in formation despite adverse weather may pose a challenge for new commanders; becoming separated may provide opportunities for engagements with overconfident privateers. Upon reaching the Mediterranean, encounters with the pirates themselves can be expected – perhaps including slaves to be rescued and returned to their homes. While the main fleet hurries to blockade Tripoli, trusted captains might be sent to Sicily (or later Malta) to obtain the promised gunboats, and their lieutenants have the privilege of trying to sail them back. Of course, the vessels are not very seaworthy. Additionally, the American consuls will want the squadron to

put on a show of force at the other Barbary ports to help their negotiations.

Even once the blockade has been established around Tripoli, the Bashaw can draw upon a formidable force – several brigs and schooners, two large galleys, and a score of gunboats (mounting a cannon in the bow and two howitzers at the stern) are normally anchored in the harbor. Tripoli itself is completely surrounded by walls, except for the side facing the harbor. That side has a series of forts mounting 115 guns. The Bashaw's army numbers some 25,000 soldiers, with 1,200 officers and crew for the ships.

Maintaining a close blockade in all weather requires skill, and naturally, whenever the squadron is under strength (ships off for repairs, provisioning, or simply returning home), the Bashaw will press a gunboat attack. Likewise, American commanders will want to penetrate Tripoli's harbor to reduce the enemy fleet, while the heavier ordnance of the frigates and the bomb vessels is concentrated on the forts' batteries. Such missions must be swift undertakings with the attackers withdrawing before they suffer heavy casualties. Volunteers might join Decatur's sortie to burn the *Philadelphia* (or perhaps try to recapture and sail it back!) or attempt the rescue of its crew or other slaves.

As a break from blockade duties, a ship could be sent to obtain supplies from a neutral or friendly nation. Off-hand remarks by British or American sailors to their counterparts while ashore could easily lead to duels. Other independent commands might involve hunting raiders operating from other ports, or even undertaking assaults on lesser towns owing allegiance to Tripoli.

The historical Tripolitan War ended with the Bashaw receiving a \$60,000 ransom for the *Philadelphia*'s crew but relinquishing all claim to tribute from the United States. An overland expedition from Egypt of a few hundred Arab and Christian mercenaries (led by the American William Eaton) supported by three American ships had seized the city of Derne on behalf of the Bashaw's exiled elder brother. Negotiations were probably begun too early. Stronger support for Eaton (allowing him to advance towards Tripoli) and increasing the naval attacks on Tripoli might have led to an even more successful conclusion to the war.





PROTECTING THE PRINCE

In October 1781, the third son of George III of England, the future William IV, was a 13-year-old midshipman in the Royal Navy. Prince William Henry, as he was then called, was under the command of Rear Admiral Digby, whose squadron had been dispatched to America. The British government believed that Prince William's presence in New York would bolster Loyalist morale. On his arrival, he was duly received with great appreciation and invited to a succession of dinners, concerts, and other social engagements.

Meanwhile, George Washington received a proposal from his agents to kidnap both prince and admiral. The prince could be held to political ransom, while the mere success of the venture would demoralize the British and the Loyalists. Washington approved the plan, subject to the utmost caution being taken with the victims' safety. In the event, British counterintelligence discovered the plot and increased security around Prince William, deterring the conspirators. However, entertaining and protecting the prince did distract the British high command from Cornwallis' entrapment in Yorktown.

According to their sympathies, adventurers could attempt the kidnapping or seek to prevent it. Rebel sympathizers in New York could supply details of the prince's movements. The kidnappers could stage a nocturnal raid on some townhouse, where Prince William was staying overnight. Alternatively, he and his escort could be ambushed on their return from an evening engagement – haste in getting back to the ship might lead to sloppy precautions. Only the truly audacious would attempt to spirit the prince from his quarters on the flagship itself. Having captured Prince William, the rebels must make good their escape. Loyalists and British patrols

will render a cross-country route exceedingly risky. A seaborne escape will require a fast ship, ready to set sail the moment the prisoner is aboard. Of course, the privateer ship and its crew must either be unknown to the Royal Navy or be well disguised. An inquisitive naval captain sending a ship's boat over to "press" merchant seamen could ruin the getaway. If the alarm is given, the privateers should expect vigorous pursuit, as any naval officer who fails to rescue Prince William can expect no mercy from the Admiralty.

Prince William continued to serve in the Royal Navy, being commissioned lieutenant and promoted to captain in due course. Between the wars, naval officers may have the misfortune to serve with him, or worse, under him. While a friendship with a royal prince may seem a valuable connection, William's influence was slight at this time and he was unpopular among his brother officers. Moreover, his love affairs angered George III. William's apparent patronage of Nelson (see p. 44) helped keep Nelson on half-pay for five years.

Between the wars, naval officers will be desperate for any ship, even if it means serving as a lieutenant under the prince. To make life more difficult, the most senior officer will receive instructions from the Admiralty to give William the benefit of his experience and to ensure that no harm befalls him. Although competent in his profession, William as a captain is an overly harsh disciplinarian. Subordinates must tread warily and prevent excessive punishments becoming the spark that ignites a mutiny, while being tactful in advising their vain commander.

Eventually the Admiralty removed William from command of the frigate HMS *Andromeda* in 1789 for excessive severity; he was never employed at sea again.

and occasionally diverting to seize smaller enemy ships. Real privateers use custom-built schooners and converted slaving vessels, heavily armed and manned (for gun crews, boarding parties, and prize crews). Privateers are most successful when their own nation is losing, because the fleet is busy defending home waters and naval frigates are too busy guarding convoys.

Privateering campaigns should start with the budding privateers finding someone with enough cash to purchase and fit out a suitable vessel. Obtaining the letters of marque, agreeing a suitable division of prize money between owners, government, and crew, recruiting and training crews, etc., will be appropriate initial tasks. Getting to sea might involve running a British blockade. Thereafter privateers will spend their time afloat hunting the sea lanes for prizes, and their time ashore networking with colonial governors, merchants, and criminals to glean information as to the likely movements of enemy vessels. For maximum profit, commerce raiders should locate and harry convoys, cutting out stragglers and pouncing on ships dispersed by storms, before escaping from vengeful frigates. Attacking naval ships is heroic, stupid, and unprofitable. British privateers should avoid the Royal Navy – they don't like *any* privateers and will attempt to press crew members regardless of their exemptions!

in maritime commerce. The truly successful may become financiers and bankers, offering loans to governments and other entrepreneurs. However, repeated failures will lead to spiraling debts and bankruptcy. Fleeing the country is often the only way of escaping creditors and prolonged incarceration in a debtors' prison.

Seagoing merchants who prefer their independence will ply the West Indian and Baltic trade routes. Contrary winds prolonging voyages by several months, storms, spoiled stores and cargoes, and petulant passengers will enliven peacetime commerce. War will bring the threat of privateers and hostile navies, the necessity of traveling in convoys, and frequent attempts by the Royal Navy to press crews at sea and as soon as the ship reaches port.

More ruthless players might consider a stint in the slave trade. Slaving is not a career for the compassionate or sickly. Slaving expeditions will involve purchasing supplies of trade goods such as muskets, gunpowder, brandy, wines, textiles, etc., in the home nation, sailing to West Africa, and then braving disease and native betrayals to buy a consignment of slaves. Assuming the slavers can avoid the depredations of privateers en route and being defrauded by colonial planters, each healthy slave can be sold for some \$400. After 1807, the Royal Navy maintained an anti-slavery blockade of the African coast – this offers some potential for more idealistic maritime adventurers and increases the dangers for slavers.

The "Trade," as smuggling was known in England, prevailed wherever duties were excessive on foreign goods. Smugglers operated in the English Channel, the Mediterranean, and the Caribbean. When war, blockades, and the

TRADERS, SLAVERS, AND SMUGGLERS

The opportunities for merchant adventurers to become outrageously wealthy are many, especially





Continental System prohibited the import of certain goods outright, smugglers worked harder and became richer. During the wars, English smugglers met French counterparts mid-Channel to transfer cargoes and passengers (such as spies, royalists, and rebels). Smugglers use swift under-armed schooners, as discretion is the only part of valor. Illicit cargoes can be towed under the keel. If pursued by a Revenue cutter, smugglers will frequently sink the cargo in shallow waters and retrieve it later when the excise officials are safely elsewhere. Being caught in the possession of contraband goods can spell the end for these traders.

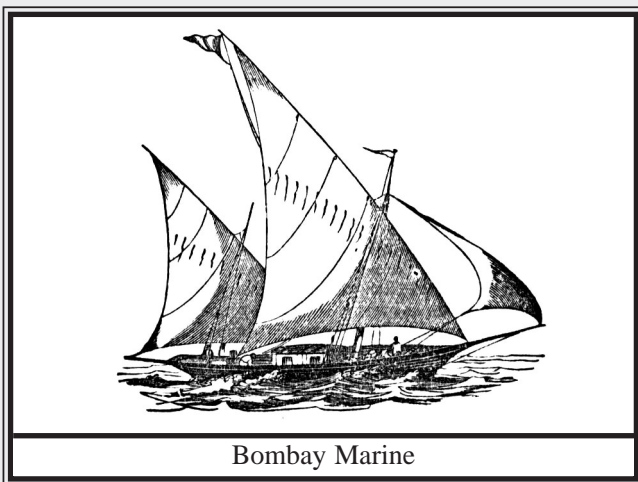
On land, the struggle between smugglers and the Revenue service will involve organizing gangs, preparing safe houses, cultivating friends in high places, ferreting out informers, corrupting excise officials, and so on. Smugglers punish informers harshly. One gruesome method, used by some smugglers, is to bury a bound and gagged victim alive on a beach when the tide is out – hours later, the returning tide will drown the hapless informer.

For prolonged mercantile campaigns, GMs should encourage players to move among the vocations of law-abiding merchant, smuggler, and perhaps slaver or privateer to prevent the game from stagnating.

FOR KING AND COMPANY

British trade with India was the preserve of the Honourable East India Company, which was also the *de facto* government of parts of India, and had commercial interests beyond to the Persian Gulf, Southeast Asia, and China. “John Company” campaigns can thus be mercantile, political, martial, or any combination.

Merchant adventurers should be careful which rumors they believe when selecting their private cargoes in England to ship outward to India – it is easy to glut the market and lose, rather than gain, a fortune! Spices, saltpeter, indigo, cotton, and silk goods will be suitable cargoes for the homeward passage. Some may prefer to earn their profits in the “country trade,” shipping goods around the Indian Ocean. The bold may brave typhoons and the Manchu rulers of China to buy tea at Macao and perhaps smuggle opium to the mandarins. Native pirates and European privateers will make life difficult, especially if the captain has employed timorous native sailors to save on crew wages. The officers could find themselves manning the guns in action!



Bombay Marine

In India itself, everyone from the lowliest clerk to the governor’s council is trying to amass personal wealth. Adventurers must keep their wits about them to prosper despite the corruption, the intrigue, and shrewd local traders.

For the more politically minded, officials must administer Company-ruled territories and represent the interests of King and Company at the courts of allied and neutral princes. Responsibilities will include collecting taxes, enforcing monopolies on salt and opium sales, serving as provincial police, and administering justice. Successful officials may be appointed as “Residents,” overseeing all governmental functions for a given area.

The ambitious will seek high office in the Presidencies of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. Appointment as a Presidency

Governor, let alone Governor-General of India, will require substantial influence in the Court of Proprietors (the Company’s shareholders) and in Parliament. A return to England and company headquarters in Leadenhall Street will be essential to cultivate the necessary patronage. Wealthy PCs should purchase Company stock (at \$2,500 per share) to gain their own votes in Proprietor’s Court, especially if they are seeking election as one of the Company’s 24 operational directors. As directors, they will have seats on key decision-making bodies such as the Committee of Secrecy (responsible for the safety of all Company shipping). If stockholders and government ministers have been suitably influenced and impressed, the coveted appointment of governor could follow.

The martially inclined will gravitate to the Bombay Marine (the Company’s private navy, nicknamed “the Bombay Buccaneers”) or its Sepoy land forces during the Company’s wars with Indian rulers and their French allies.

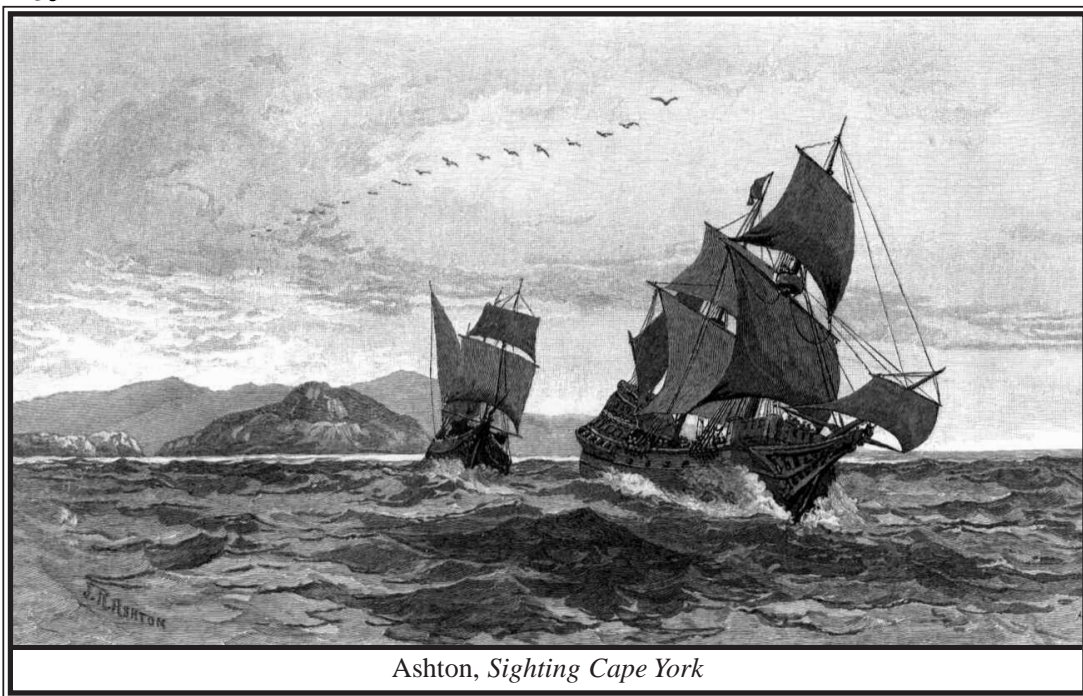
On land, the Sepoy regiments will be responsible for defending Company-held territories and the dominions of allied nawabs. As no Indian may hold a Sepoy commission, European officers will find themselves commanding units composed entirely of native troops; their loyalty must be earned, so wise officers will respect the traditions of the men. French spies may encourage mutinous stirrings, while foreign mercenaries and advisors will bolster hostile armies. Like their marine counterparts, Sepoy officers may occasionally undertake diplomatic and intelligence missions to remote areas.

At sea, the Bombay Marine’s small squadrons of frigates, sloops, and brigs must protect shipping from the depredations of pirates and privateers. Pirates may be Europeans, Arabs, or Chinese in conventional schooners, dhows, and junks, or tribes of savages in war canoes, armed with spears, swords, and occasional antique firearms. French Mauritius and Dutch Java will provide safe havens for privateers. Sea officers will also be responsible for leading any amphibious operations performed by Sepoy marines against coastal forts. More peaceful tasks include exploring and charting the eastern seas. Service in the Bombay Marine is probably less dangerous than the navy, and sailors enjoy exemption from naval press-gangs. Unlike the navy, officers are promoted by seniority through the ranks of third, second, and first lieutenant, and thence to captain. Commodores may be temporarily or permanently appointed; no higher rank exists.

Officers can expect regular invitations to social events. Opportunities for romance with young widows abound, but scandal should be avoided in the close-knit European “high society.” Duty may interfere with desire when an officer is posted to a distant outpost; will absence make the heart grow fonder or afford an opportunity for a rival to step into the breach?

Military officers should be wary of involvement in the Company’s internal commercial and political struggles, as enemies in high places can ruin careers.





Ashton, *Sighting Cape York*

THE UNDISCOVERED COUNTRY

Explorers can take advantage of imperialism to get involved with land and sea expeditions to distant lands. Naval expeditions seek Terra Australis but find Australia, New Zealand, and uncounted Pacific atolls. Explorers might stray further south than Captain Cook and discover the frozen wastes of Antarctica. Alternatively, the Admiralty might send them to discover the Northwest Passage (the Arctic sea route around North America).

Napoleon's expedition to Egypt included a large scientific and archaeological contingent. Napoleon also supported efforts to construct a Suez Canal as a shortcut to India. In conspiratorial and Illuminated campaigns, adventurers may also have to contend with Russian and Templar (via the Knights of St. John in Malta) designs on the Holy Land.

The Association for the Discovery of the Interior Parts of Africa, a club of wealthy Englishmen motivated by scientific and humanitarian interests, will fund expeditions into unknown Africa. Europeans disguised as Arabs were able to travel through Muslim North Africa to reach the cities of Gondar (in Ethiopia) and Sennar (in Funj on the Blue Nile). Mungo Park took a more direct route during his 1795-1797 explorations of the Niger river.

Expeditions involve getting there, seeing the sights, and getting back home, preferably alive! Long sea voyages are prone to outbreaks of scurvy and mutiny; land-based treks may require caution and diplomacy for the travelers to pass through hostile nations to reach the limits of the known world. New lands will have to be mapped, named, and, if the natives seem sufficiently primitive, claimed for the home country. Flora, fauna, and natural resources must be investigated. Encounters with natives may be peaceful or

violent – one day the explorers may be treated as gods, the next as devils. Rival expeditions may encourage healthy competition, unlikely alliances, or ruthless sabotage. Ammunition and guns must be conserved against real need. Depleted stores, stiff native opposition, or even successful discoveries will signal time to leave. Time, however, marches on – the explorers may escape the frying pan of a tribe of cannibals only to find themselves in the fire of a war.

GMs may introduce elements of the fantastic

– unnatural beings, lost civilizations, and monsters on land and at sea are all possible. How much effect three broadsides every two minutes will have on eldritch horrors and sunken cities rising from the sea is a different matter.

Unwilling Colonists in Australia

In 1786, the British decided to settle New South Wales in Australia as a penal colony. Players could join the 1,000 marines, convicts, and free settlers of the First Fleet who arrived and founded Sydney in 1788. Threats will include disease, hostile aborigines, and recalcitrant transportees as the colonists struggle to survive. Criminals may chafe against the military regime and attempt a coup or stow away on a transport making the return passage. Military men may be equally desperate to ensure that their posting to the New South Wales Corps does not become permanent.

SPIES AND SPYMASTERS

Players and GMs who prefer espionage games will have many opportunities in this period. Every nation has its spies; some also have secret police. Each network gathers information on the political, diplomatic and military intentions of foreign states while hampering the efforts of rival agencies. Secret police agents also monitor and sometimes suppress internal dissidents.

Spies may be involved in all aspects of espionage: intelligence gathering, counterintelligence, recruitment, and special operations.





Intelligence gathering is the foundation of all espionage. Missions may range from simple observation of troop deployment and naval readiness, through interception of couriers and dispatches, to infiltrating foreign governments. It has been suggested that Casanova's travels and amatory adventures around Europe concealed a more furtive real career. British agents in the household of Czar Alexander discovered and reported the secret articles of the Treaty of Tilsit almost immediately, enabling the British to forestall Napoleon's hopes of attaining naval superiority using the Danish fleet.

Counterintelligence is the process of capturing and/or misinforming enemy agents. The British secret service searched for Jacobin and pro-French sympathizers in the corresponding societies of the 1790s. Fouché ordered the surveillance of hundreds of suspected and known Jacobins, royalists, and other enemies of the regime.

Recruitment concerns the selection of new agents, by blackmail, bribery, and occasionally appeals to (misplaced) ideals. New recruits may be double agents, of course. Informers reporting to the British in Dublin Castle virtually paralyzed the Society of United Irishmen.

Special operations is a catchall for everything else. The duelist and rake Baron Camelford (a cousin of William Pitt the Younger) was suspected of being involved in attempts to assassinate Napoleon – Camelford himself died mysteriously in a

duel. In Spain, the adventurer Domingo Badia Leblicht proposed a convoluted and audacious plan to Manuel de Godoy. This involved Leblicht disguising himself as the Prophet's descendant and befriending the Sultan at Mecca, whereupon he would persuade the rebel factions to oust the Sultan, ceding Moroccan territories to Spain in return for Spanish assistance. Had it worked, the scheme would have weakened the threat of the Barbary States and made Gibraltar potentially untenable. Carlos IV vetoed the project as being too dangerous and dishonorable.

It should be noted that the penalty for espionage is death by firing squad.

POLITICIANS, REBELS, AND REACTIONARIES

GMs and players with a taste for Machiavellian maneuvering and pure roleplaying should consider a political campaign where PCs jockey for social status in the salons, coffee houses, and gaming clubs of Europe and seek influence in government or at court. Adventurers might even try to become Catherine the Great's next lover!

In France, politicians may seek election to the Estates

General and attempt to direct the course of the Revolution. Early commitments to the wrong faction, royalist connections, or ill-chosen enemies may prove their later undoing. As the Terror gathers pace, politicians must choose either to support Robespierre, to flee into exile, or to plot his downfall. If they survive the Terror and the Thermidorian reaction, skilled manipulators will seize the opportunity to become government ministers of the Directory, perhaps becoming Directors themselves. Ministers must counter the machinations of Talleyrand and Sieyès and protect themselves against Jacobin and royalist conspiracies; alternatively, opposition politicians may work to overthrow the Directory in favor of a stronger government headed by an obscure general. During the Consulate and Empire administrators and diplomats may be sent to impose Napoleon's will on conquered Europe and cowed neighboring states. Imperial administrators will find their work scrutinized by the Emperor and the Ministry of Police (see p. 85). The farsighted may choose to play a double game, betraying the Empire to the Allies.

THE AFFAIR OF THE DIAMOND NECKLACE

The Diamond Necklace Affair is proof that truth is stranger than fiction. It reads like a Dumas plot, yet it happened, and brought Marie Antoinette and the French monarchy into disrepute. GMs may wish to use it as a model for courtly intrigue.

The adventuress Jeanne de La Motte, a self-styled countess and descendant of the Valois kings, had conned her way into Versailles. She met the wealthy Cardinal de Rohan, who was desirous of regaining Marie Antoinette's favor (she had rejected an amorous advance from him years previously), and persuaded de Rohan that she could achieve this. He gave her money periodically, ostensibly for charitable works.

La Motte staged a nocturnal meeting in August 1784 between de Rohan and Nicole Le Guay, a milliner-prostitute disguised as the queen, who handed the Cardinal a single rose. He gave La Motte more money, and was persuaded that Marie Antoinette wanted to purchase a diamond necklace (valued at \$640,000) from the jewelers Boehmer and Bassenge. (Marie Antoinette on her mother's advice had previously refused to buy the jewelry.) Convinced by a forged letter apparently from Marie Antoinette and the influence of the charlatan Cagliostro, whose claims of communion with the gods of the Nile and the Euphrates had made him the Cardinal's personal prophet, the Cardinal used his credit to buy the necklace, yielding it to "the Queen's courier" in January 1785. This courier was actually La Motte's lover and proceeded to break the stones up for fencing around Paris and later London.

La Motte bought a sizeable estate, the Cardinal waited on the Queen's favor and first installment, and the jewelers fretted about their own creditors. In July, Boehmer gave Marie Antoinette a note referring to the diamonds, but she assumed this was another ploy to persuade her to buy them and burned the note. De Rohan stalled Boehmer and Bassenge. Bizarrely, La Motte went directly to them and revealed that they had been cheated. The jewelers sought the Queen on August 5th, and an enraged Louis XVI summoned de Rohan 10 days later.

De Rohan admitted he had been fooled, but beseeched Louis XVI to conceal the scandal. Instead, the king arrested him and imprisoned him in an extremely comfortable apartment in the Bastille. The conspirators were found, arrested, and more harshly jailed. Tried before the *parlement* of Paris, the Cardinal and most of the plotters were acquitted. De Rohan was nevertheless stripped of his ecclesiastical rank and sent into monastic exile. La Motte was publicly flogged, branded, and imprisoned for life in 1786. Escaping from the Salpêtrière prison two years later, she published libelous memoirs concerning Marie Antoinette from safety in England. Though she was innocent in the affair, Marie Antoinette's reputation was ruined.

Louis XVI was periodically blackmailed by adventurers threatening to libel the monarchy. Sometimes he employed agents to track down and acquire the manuscripts. Truly audacious rogues invented scandalmongers and received royal funding to gallivant around Europe in hot pursuit of the imaginary writers!





In some situations and to some people, political solutions appear impossible. Americans, disillusioned with British intransigence, might therefore find themselves responsible for organizing the American Revolution. Initial tasks might involve forming local cells of the “Sons of Liberty” to oppose the Stamp and Townshend Acts, producing and distributing subversive literature, and provoking and instigating events such as the Boston Massacre. Other activities are likely to include securing support from influential individuals across the colonies and overseas, gunrunning, training the nascent militias, and spying on Loyalists and the British. After Lexington and Concord, the campaign will have a more military emphasis.

For a change of scene, revolutionaries might be asked to ensure Benjamin Franklin’s safe passage to France in 1776, assist with his negotiations to secure military and financial support for the rebellion, or simply protect him from British spies and informers while in Paris. The never-ending succession of society dinners, parties, and balls may overwhelm rebels with simpler tastes, though their less affected manners may endear them to aristocratic sympathizers. Other contacts, such as Pierre-Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais, dramatist and French secret agent, will provide means of acquiring munitions covertly.

A LOST DAUPHIN AND THE GREAT PRETENDERS

Louis-Charles, born on March 27, 1785, the second son of Louis XVI, was first dauphin (heir) and later titular king of France (as Louis XVII) during the Revolution. With the rest of the royal family in August 1792, he was imprisoned in the Tower of the Temple palace complex. Louis-Charles was separated from his mother and his sister (Marie-Therese) on July 3, 1793, and placed in the care of the cobbler Antoine Simon and his wife, but remaining within the Temple complex. Simon relinquished his guardianship in January 1794, and Louis-Charles was subsequently immured in a squalid room in the Tower. His health declined and he died from tuberculosis on June 8, 1795.

So much for the historical record.

The secrecy of his captivity, coincidences such as the untimely death of a doctor who attended him, and the officiousness of revolutionary representatives having the corpse witnessed and identified by multiple individuals led to many rumors. Initially these alleged that Louis-Charles had been poisoned, but more romantic theories suggested that a substitution had been made (perhaps after Simon’s resignation), enabling Louis XVII to escape.

More than 30 pretenders later claimed to be Louis XVII. The most successful claimant was the clockmaker Karl Wilhelm Naundorff, who was very probably insane. In his memoirs, Naundorff claimed that he had been concealed in an attic of the Temple tower, while various substitutions were made of first a mute and then a dying child. Escaping via a secret compartment in the coffin, he was concealed in Paris before being placed in the care of a German governess for two years. Thereafter his narrative becomes more fantastic. Horsemen snatch him, placing him in the care of a nurse; after various revelations, confessions, and hidden treasure, he and his nurse quit the house just before it is destroyed in an explosion, finding temporary safety in an underground cavern, only to be transported via a (magical) carriage to a waiting ship. Then the nurse is swept overboard during a storm and Naundorff is held prisoner by a sadistic sea captain. After a further diverse series of escapes, pursuits, and confinements, a stranger in a coach gave Naundorff a set of identity papers in 1809. Naundorff appeared in Paris in 1833 and his claims of being Louis XVII convinced some folk who had known the young Dauphin. Expelled from France in 1834, he experienced some “mystical visions” in London, injured himself badly in an explosion while experimenting with pyrotechnics, and was temporarily imprisoned for debt. On his release, he went to the Netherlands and died there in 1845.

The French throne was not alone in having a disputed succession – the English and Scottish crowns were troubled by Jacobite pretenders. Although the Scottish Highland clans hoped for a Stuart restoration, the aging Charles Edward Stuart (“Bonnie Prince Charlie” or “Charles III”) remained in continental exile with his dissolute lifestyle forfeiting him allies.

After his death in 1788, his brother, already Cardinal York and bishop of Frascati, in Italy, became the *soi-disant* Henry IX. Henry’s death in 1809 ended the legitimate Stuart bloodline. Napoleon investigated the possibilities of supporting a Stuart monarch to the British crown but was foiled by the lack of any legitimate scions.

In terms of roleplaying opportunities, conspiratorial-political campaigns could focus on achieving a Stuart restoration, perhaps during the turmoil of the American Revolution or later during the Napoleonic conquest of Italy. Supporters of Henry IX’s claim will have to contend with the Machiavellian politics of the new Italian regimes and the Roman Catholic Church as well as Napoleon.

Alternatively, one of the party could be heir to a minor state – merely staying alive, let alone reclaiming the kingdom, may be difficult enough, as the ebb and flow of the Napoleonic Wars redraws the map of Europe. Political and military allies must be chosen wisely, lest short-term victories be nullified by the arbitrary decisions of the Great Powers’ delegates at the Congress of Vienna.

Less scrupulous adventurers could invent a fraudulent claim of nobility or even royalty. Elaborate preparation and/or a very convincing manner may enable such tricksters to obtain fortunes, advantageous marriages, military rank, or even high political office. The greater the claim, the more detailed scrutiny should be expected. Professionals will have a preplanned exit route if their fraud is exposed; if the getaway goes wrong, the con men can expect unpleasant repercussions.

In the post-Napoleonic watershed, investigating the claims of pretenders could form diverting missions for secret service agents as an interlude from pursuing anarchists, revolutionaries, spies, and other enemies of the state. Evidence that a pretender is the rightful heir will not be welcomed by reigning monarchs.

Finally, in an alternate history game, Louis-Charles could really escape from the Temple. In a picaresque campaign, one of the PCs could even be the young dauphin, ably assisted by a group of wiser, more experienced supporters. Escaping the Tower is only the beginning – do his rescuers risk a mad dash for apparent safety beyond France or do they lie low and seek (temporary) safety in obscurity? Did they leave any clues behind which might arouse the suspicions of the revolutionary regime? If they opt for hiding Louis-Charles, will they be able to preserve the secret in the wake of political upheavals and war? When should they reveal the survival of the young prince? Dare they negotiate with republican generals to topple the Directory and establish an interim Consulate to pave the way for a Bourbon restoration? Can they trust Napoleon Bonaparte? What will be the reaction of Louis-Charles’ uncle, the Comte de Provence and self-styled Louis XVIII, and his supporters to the reappearance of his nephew?



Similar styles of campaign can be run in France (after the Revolution), occupied Spain (during the Peninsular War), and Ireland. French Royalists can alternately conspire against the Republic and Napoleon or resort to open revolt in the Vendée. In Spain, insurgents can conduct guerrilla warfare against the French and their Spanish allies. The best-laid plans of conspirators often go astray, however. The United Irishmen intended to signal the start of an all-Ireland rebellion in 1798 by stopping all four mail coaches leaving Dublin – but only one was stopped and the revolt was piecemeal. Georges Cadoudal's "Opera Plot" failed to kill Napoleon by a matter of seconds in 1804.

Throughout Europe in the early 19th century, secret societies such as the *Philadelphes* (France), *Tugenbund* (Germany), and *Adelfi* (Italy) proliferated, with the first "professional" revolutionaries such as Filippo Buonarroti appearing. Buonarroti was a noble Tuscan lawyer who became a Freemason, an enthusiast for the French Revolution, and a Jacobin. He plotted against the Directory and Napoleon, and was an inveterate pamphleteer. By the 1820s, members of his organization were established across the continent.

The Honorable Members of Parliament

In Britain, politicians may seek careers in Parliament. The King ruled in partnership with a "cabinet" of ministers, chosen from the hereditary House of Lords (which included all titled English nobles and Anglican bishops) and the elected House of Commons. Unless the aspiring statesman already has a peerage, political campaigns will start by focusing on getting at least one character elected. Other players may prefer less public roles as the politician's election agents and aides.

Some personal wealth is a necessity for candidates, as eligibility for elections is limited to those with an annual income of at least \$1,500 from land or property. (Status of 1+, Independent Income, and Wealthy are the bare minimum needed.) Similarly, male commoners were only eligible to vote if they owned property worth at least \$10 annually. However, these 400,000 voters were unevenly distributed among the constituencies: the Westminster area of London had thousands of voters, whereas some 50 rural boroughs had fewer than 50. These depopulated constituencies were known as "pocket boroughs" and "rotten boroughs." The "pocket boroughs" were in the "pockets" of wealthy aristocrats and landowners, able to coerce or bribe the handful of voters into supporting their preferred candidates. For budding politicians with "influence," such patronage represents an easy route into Parliament; of course, the patrons will expect political favors in return. The electorates of "rotten boroughs" were even more corrupt, openly selling their votes to the highest bidder. Candidates standing in a rotten borough should expect to pay up to five guineas per voter. Radicals and idealists will take their chances with the larger urban constituencies where the electorates are too large for mass bribery.

The death of an incumbent Member of Parliament (MP) will cause a by-election in his constituency. The downfall of the ministry (the contemporary term for the government), whether through the resignation of the prime minister or the

ministry's inability to command a majority in the House of Commons, will require a "general" election in all constituencies. (General elections must also be held at least once every seven years.) Candidates must now put their names forward and begin their campaigns, demonstrating their oratory and generosity to the voters at the hustings. In hotly contested elections, forthright debate may lead to violent brawls between the supporters of rival candidates. In towns, agents will liberally post placards and posters, praising their man and denouncing his enemies. Eventually the polls will open, and the voters will cast their two votes in public to elect two Members of Parliament for their borough. The candidates' agents will note the names of who voted for whom and distribute payments after the election is over.

Following his election, the new MP will settle into his parliamentary career, promoting and defeating legislation. (The other players can have roles as aides and confidential secretaries.) Political patrons will make clear their wishes. Constituents will send endless letters petitioning for posts. Mercantile interests (such as the West Indian planters) will lobby for reduced sugar duties and restrictions on competing producers, while home merchants will seek legislation to ensure captive markets for slaves and manufactured goods, but free trade on sugar and molasses. To defray election expenses or to supplement private incomes, MPs may seek government sinecures – jobs in the administration with grandiose titles and large salaries for little actual work. MPs earned no salary for simply being MPs, so maintaining previous careers as merchants, lawyers, shipowners, or military officers will be important. Securing even minor official appointments for aides will require further exertions of influence and political deals; in return, the erstwhile aides will have direct responsibilities in government departments. (From a campaign viewpoint, this ensures that all PCs have plenty to do and prepares the group for further advancement.) Responsible and/or well-connected MPs and aides might even be offered a junior ministerial position in the current government, such as an Undersecretaryship of State (with jurisdiction in a specific area of home, colonial, or foreign affairs), Attorney-General (in charge of all public prosecutions), Secretary-at-War, Paymaster-General (of the army), Treasurer of the Navy, or Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland (the governor of all Ireland).

Social engagements, romantic interludes, diplomatic missions (probably combined with some espionage), and postings overseas to govern Ireland or the colonies will provide a change of pace.

A particularly successful group might even be invited by the King to form the next ministry. In theory, the King was free to choose his own ministers. In practice, any ministry must have the backing of a majority in the House of Commons. Offending the monarch was a sure route to remain out of power, however, – and befriending the heir (i.e., "Prinny," see p. 38) in the hopes of gaining *his* future favor is a very long-term strategy.

Having gained royal approval as a prospective prime minister (more correctly known as the "First Lord of the Treasury"), the next step is to construct a power bloc, beginning with one's network of relatives, friends, and protégés. Next, allies must be





TIME TRAVELERS

Napoleon saved the French Revolution with his “whiff of grapeshot” and France from factionalism with his coup d’état. The Napoleonic myth inspired the Latin American rebellions against colonial rule and secured a Second Empire for his nephew, Napoleon III. The Napoleonic Wars crystallized national identity in Europe, sowing the seeds for lasting German and Italian unification, with disastrous consequences in the 20th century. Napoleon is a natural target for meddling time travelers intent on altering the course of history. Here are some critical junctures with suggestions as to their consequences:

The Buonaparte family declined the opportunity to follow Pasquale Paoli into exile. Had they relocated to England, Napoleon’s sympathies would not have lain with France. Likely he would have lived and died in impoverished obscurity.

Napoleon applied in 1783 to the British Admiralty for a cadetship, but his application was ignored. As an officer of the Royal Navy, he might have brought Corsica permanently into the British Empire. If his loyalty proved weak, he might return to France but with an understanding of sea warfare sufficient to alter the outcome of the naval conflict.

On St. Helena, Napoleon regretted not leading an expedition

against Ireland. Even a small force would have been sufficient to demolish British resistance. The United Irishmen would have persuaded thousands of volunteers to join the French, creating an “Irish ulcer” for Britain. Blockade and attempts at reconquest would bleed Britain dry and divert its government from colonial adventures (thus reducing the future empire in size). Ireland would also provide the French with a staging ground to invade the vulnerable western coasts of Britain.

Napoleon was nearly captured twice during his Egyptian expedition to Egypt. En route to Egypt, the English and French fleets passed each other unawares. He eluded the blockading squadrons on his return journey. Interception, even had he survived, would have delayed his career at least. Another more biddable general would have assisted Sieyès in his overthrow of the Directory.

A subtler change might be effected by reinforcing the balconies of Malmaison. One such balcony collapsed under Josephine, rendering her infertile from internal injuries. Preventing this accident and encouraging the birth of an heir without recourse to divorce and remarriage would establish the dynasty without encumbering Napoleon with unreliable allies.

A qualified victory at Austerlitz (perhaps by an early Russian arrival at Ulm, Prussia attacking the empire’s flanks, or Kutuzov refusing battle in order to draw the French deeper into hostile territory) might have curbed Napoleon’s ambition and made him willing to accede to Talleyrand’s Austrian alliance and concomitant balance of power in Europe.

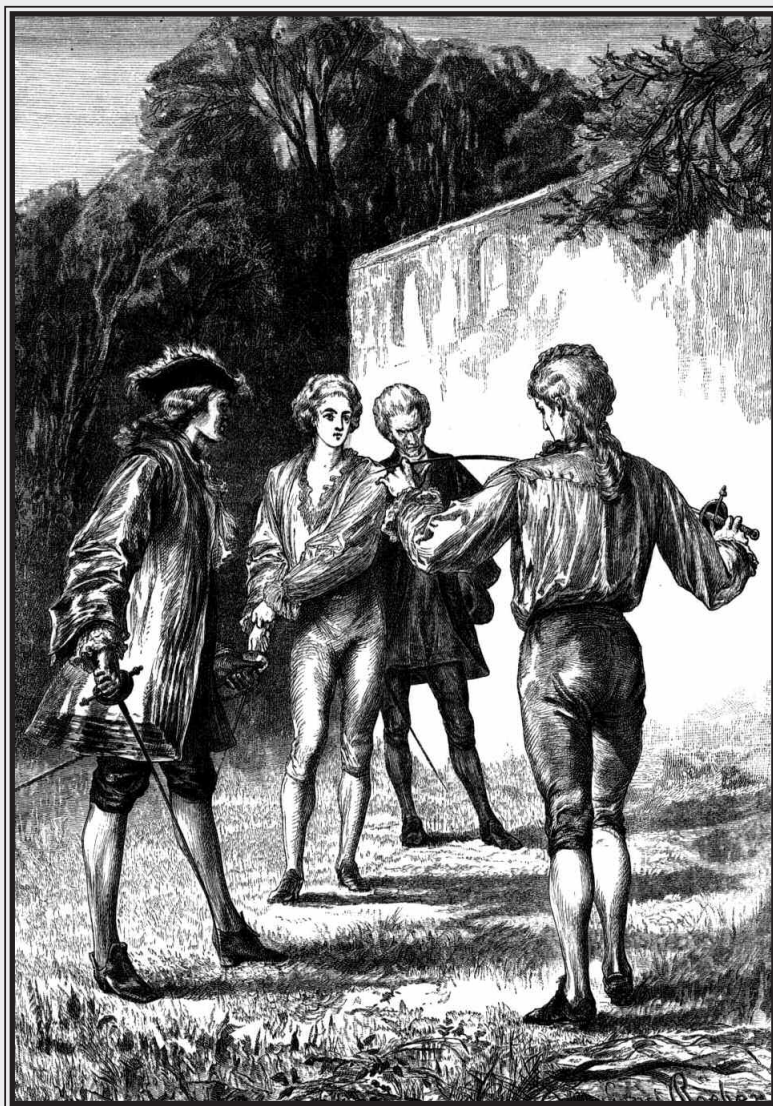
Likewise, adherence to the Tilsit treaty would have preserved his throne and left Napoleon master of Europe. After a couple of purely defensive wars to reinforce the empire’s stability, Napoleon would find Czar Alexander amenable to resurrecting their plan to attack India jointly via Persia, fulfilling Napoleon’s dreams of emulating Alexander the Great.

SCARLET PIMPERNELS

Sir Percy Blakeney, alias the Scarlet Pimpernel, is Baroness Orczy’s most famous creation. Reputedly the Pimpernel was partially modeled on Baron Jean de Batz, a wealthy Royalist adventurer who tried and failed to save both Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette. In the case of Louis, de Batz and four followers tried to force their way through the crowds to rescue the king while en route to his execution – his companions were cut down, but de Batz escaped. Finding greater success by corrupting influential revolutionaries, de Batz bribed the entire staff of the Conciergerie prison in preparation for ensuring Marie Antoinette’s escape. She refused to leave her children behind, the suspicions of outsiders were aroused, and the rescue was aborted.

The fictional Scarlet Pimpernel is a rich English baronet, the height of fashion but seemingly lacking in real intelligence. In fact, Blakeney is a master of disguise and dissimulation. His secretive League of the Scarlet Pimpernel has 20 members dedicated to rescuing French aristocrats from the guillotine. Abetted by French sympathizers, the League breaks royalists out of prisons, disguises them (as soldiers, plague victims, etc.), and spirits them from Paris to a coastal rendezvous with a fast ship bound for England. As a final mocking insult, the League leaves a calling card inscribed with the drawing of a scarlet pimpernel. Naturally the Revolutionary government is determined to unmask and eliminate the Pimpernel.

For much more detail on such campaigns, GMs should seek the out-of-print *GURPS Scarlet Pimpernel*.



Rescued (ca. 1793)



garnered either from the Tory factions (representing the conservative rural gentry, mercantile classes, and the bureaucracy) or the Whigs (liberal reformers, dissenters, and industrialists). The “placemen,” owing their positions in Parliament and sinecures to Crown patronage, will vote as necessary to support the King’s chosen ministry.

Support from some of the independent MPs (numbering 130 out of a total of 489) is essential for a safe majority. Though more concerned with business interests and pleasure than politics, the independents will attend Parliament in times of crisis. Persuading these wealthy individuals to turn up *and* vote in one’s favor, when needed, could be a full-time occupation for aides.

The prime-minister-to-be may select friends and allies to form his “cabinet” and serve as junior ministers. Cabinet ministers include the two Secretaries of State (one for Home and Colonial Affairs, the other for Foreign Affairs), the Lord Chancellor (responsible for the judiciary and Speaker of the House of Lords), the Commander in Chief (of the army), and the First Lord of the Admiralty (who need not be a naval officer). Cabinet ministers and even the prime minister may be MPs or members of the House of Lords; however, at least one should be an MP in order to lead the ministry’s support in the House of Commons, which is wholly responsible for all taxation and finance legislation.

Of course, before the new ministry becomes too involved with governing the nation, they’ll have to be re-elected first.

The Grand Tour

The Grand Tour could provide the starting point for a campaign set before the Revolutionary Wars. Young aristocrats of university age from around Europe visited Italy and France to gain an appreciation of Renaissance art and Enlightenment culture.

In reality, many nobles spent their time abroad in licentious living, banding together with like-minded fellows. On a typical day, they would rise late and enjoy a long breakfast, before taking a coach to a park, museum, cathedral or such like. Having imbibed some culture, they would spend the afternoon in a coffee house, followed by dinner and a trip to the theatre. The evening usually concluded in a tavern or a gambling den.

Such a group may include members of the nobility or gentry, scholarly tutors responsible for directing their charges’ education, and tough servants, who have the added duty of keeping the young masters and ladies out of danger. Romantic assignations, duels with cuckolded husbands, drunken quarrels, rioting in the streets, brigands on the roads, thieves in town, and charlatans running confidence games on naive noblemen will add spice and action.

Scenarios of “young men (and sometimes women) behaving badly,” could quickly pall. Depending on the timing of the campaign, it may be appropriate to involve the group in the rough-and-tumble of radical politics, recruit them as spies to gather information if war is brewing, bring them into contact with secret societies, or prepare them for a Scarlet Pimpernel campaign as the French Revolution erupts around them.

PAWNS OF THE SECRET MASTERS

It was an age of secret societies (see p. 88) and conspiracies. Rulers feared a conspiracy of the powerful above all other dangers. Revolts by the ordinary people could always be suppressed; the great nobles and magnates could topple thrones. Secret societies such as the Illuminati were also determined to overthrow the existing world order.

Weishaupt’s agents conducted a covert infiltration of Masonic lodges across Europe. It is claimed that Illuminati agents laid plans for the French Revolution at Masonic conventions in 1782 and 1785. Police agents discovered and foiled an Illuminati plot to overthrow the Hapsburgs in 1785. The order was banned in Bavaria and went into hiding. Despite this setback, the order had supporters within nearly all Grand Orient lodges by 1788.

In an Illuminated campaign, the Affair of the Diamond Necklace (see p. 119) is an illuminist plot, with Cagliostro, the founder of “Egyptian Freemasonry” (a heady mix of cabalism, ceremonial magic, and freemasonry), deliberately aiming to discredit the French monarchy with the aid of agents in the Parisian *parlement*.

In the early days of the French Revolution, the shadowy Committee of Thirty met in the Palais Royal, the Parisian residence of the Duc d’Orléans, who later styled himself Philippe-Egalité. (He was also Grand Master of French Freemasons.) Its membership included Mirabeau, Talleyrand, Lafayette, and Sieyès. The writers Laclos and Beaumarchais served as propagandists for the Orleanist faction. The extent of the Committee of Thirty’s influence on the Revolution is unknown; in an Illuminated campaign, it could be substantial. An Illuminated Comte de Saint-Germain might be directing resistance to the Revolution after faking his own death in 1784; he warned Marie Antoinette of an international conspiracy against the Bourbons in 1780.

The Inquisition interrogated Cagliostro in 1789. His confessions alleged that the Templars’ successors aimed to overthrow the Pope (or have one of their number succeed him). He also claimed that revolutions were to be organized in Britain, France, Italy, and Holland, financed by payments through international bankers. Perhaps Cagliostro’s “admissions” are all true in a “secret history” campaign.

The influence of secret societies was not limited to the French Revolution. The leaders of the American Revolution were all prominent Freemasons of various degrees; Masonic symbols were used in the design of America’s Great Seal. In Russia, Czar Paul I believed that cabals of Freemasons, Rosicrucians, and radical Martinists intended to assassinate him. Czar Alexander was advised during the early part of his reign by the “Secret Committee,” radicals who desired a democratic Russia through reforms initiated by the monarch. By 1815, Alexander was enthralled by mystical Christian sects and the societies were on the defensive.

In 1771, all Masonic lodges claiming descent from Templar traditions held a convention to establish the validity and primacy of these claims.





Illuminated campaigns could focus on how these seemingly new societies gained their arcane traditions. What is the origin of all those Higher Degrees in Freemasonry? Why are there so many variations – which system is the true ancient rite and how will its supremacy be reestablished? Are the society founders actually Secret Masters from existing orders creating alternate power bases? Are the new orders simply covers for existing conspiracies? Have the new societies merely inherited their powers from seemingly unaided discoveries, and if so, are these Things Man Was Not Meant To Know? What is the price for this knowledge, when will it be paid, and to whom or to what? Conceivably initiated PCs might reach such positions of power in these “new” secret societies to be able to create their agendas and set in motion the global conspiracies of the future.

Not all societies were equally secret, and some attracted foppish aristocrats eager to join any conspiracy as a bit of fun. Those associating with such pranksters may find their route to true Secret Master status hampered or spend their time rescuing their hapless masters from deadly intrigue.

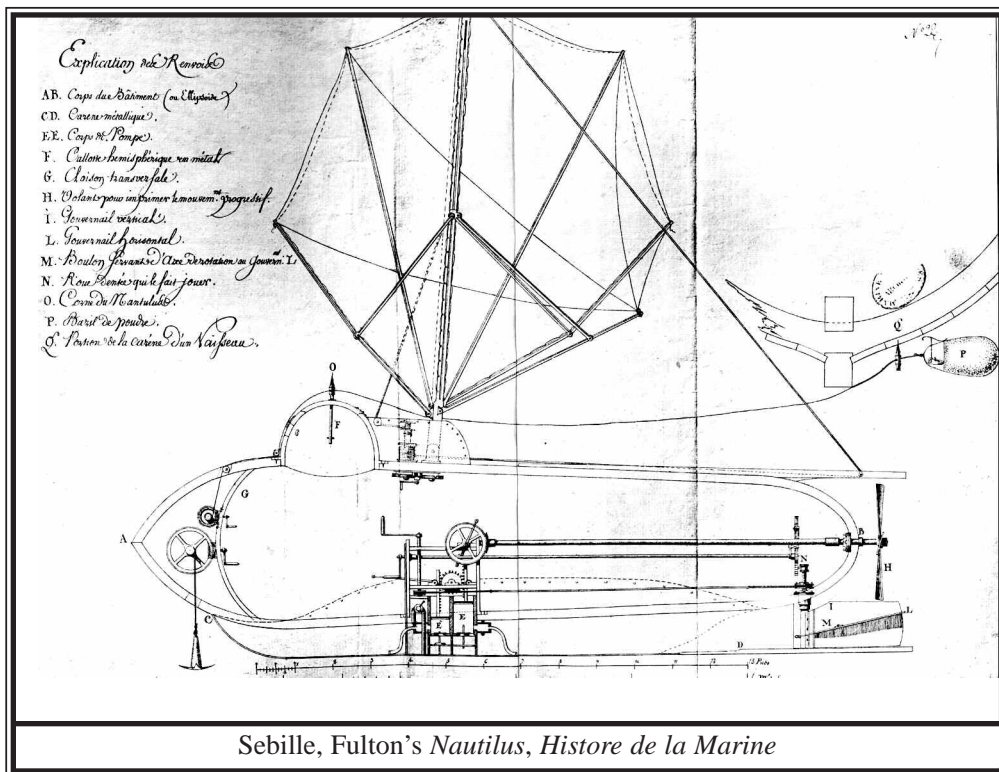
OTHER CAMPAIGNS AND CROSSOVERS

GURPS Swashbucklers

In a sense, *GURPS Age of Napoleon* is a continuation of *GURPS Swashbucklers*, describing the later swashbuckling era in greater detail. GMs and players needing rules and information on fencing techniques in the 18th century or on the mechanics of sailing and ship-to-ship combat should consult *GURPS Swashbucklers*.

Pioneer Campaigns and GURPS Old West

Players with a taste for the Western genre could play pioneers on the American frontier. Settlers will have to build and maintain their plantations against the depredations of hostile Indians, dishonest traders, and the agents of other colonial powers. The relative proximity of the “West” to the long-established colonies will prevent frontiersmen from ignoring the simmering discontent which will lead to the American Revolution – pioneers will



have to choose between the Patriot and Loyalist causes and suffer the consequences. GMs should consult *GURPS Old West* for more information on western-genre games and Indian tribes.

Science: GURPS High-Tech, GURPS Steampunk, GURPS Steam-Tech, and GURPS Vehicles

Science is respectable in civilized Europe. Scientists consider themselves to be members of the international “Republic of Science.” PCs should join learned societies and seek entry to the prestigious academies. Discoveries and theories will gain them recognition and influence. The government may appoint them to commissions to solve questions of national importance – or disprove the wild claims of pseudosciences such as mesmerism. Innovators will have to contend with bureaucracy, corruption, superstition, and traditionalism. The Luddites will provide violent opposition. Inventors determined to establish the military value of submarines, hot-air balloons, or Sir William Congreve’s rockets may find themselves required to put up or shut up in a real battle! *GURPS High-Tech* will prove useful for realistic games in this vein.

Greater weirdness is possible, leading to alternate histories. Perhaps pseudosciences such as mesmerism and phrenology (studying the skull contours reveals the traits and abilities of the individual) actually work. Perhaps the military trials of Fulton’s innovations (steamships or submarines) are successful, or the Admiralty decides to utilize Lord Cochrane’s chemical weapons. Hot-air balloons evolve into early dirigibles, fleets of submarines cruise the sea-lanes,



steam-powered engines tunnel underneath the English Channel, and clouds of poison gas add an extra horror to Napoleonic battlefields. *GURPS Steampunk* provides suggestions for unusual scientific revolutions with *GURPS Steam-Tech* supplying a vast array of ingenious inventions. However, GMs should be careful not to go overboard with the weird technology – this is still only the dawn of the Age of Steam.

GURPS Vehicles may be used to design vehicles and heavy weapons for this period, enabling GMs to define different ships in detail as well as experimental submarines, airships, giant cannon, and the like.

GURPS Horror, GURPS Undead, and GURPS Voodoo

Belief in magic and omens is common in rural areas. The touch of a hanged man or a noose traditionally cures illnesses. A suspected witch was drowned in 1780; two years later the last witch was burned. Vampires and werewolves are considered real terrors. Doctors hire “resurrection men” to rob graveyards for corpses to dissect – what else might they release? African rituals follow the slave trade to Haiti, merge with Christianity, and become voodoo practices.

Tim Burton’s movie “Sleepy Hollow” (adapted from *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*) is an idiosyncratic vision of a post-Revolutionary New England where magic and witches are real, if rare. Tom Holland’s *The Vampyre* tells the tale of how Byron became an immortal vampire during his sojourn in Greece. Period Gothic horror novels such as *The Monk* and *Mysteries of Udolpho* will also supply useful inspiration.

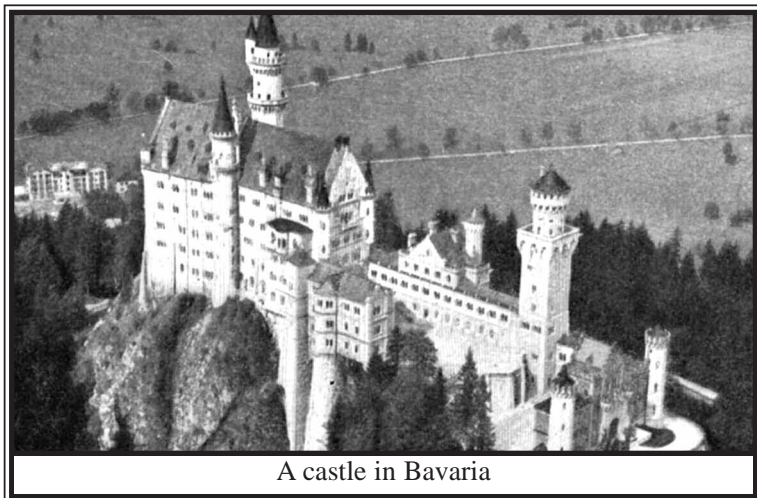
Fending off Arab raiders and enduring killing heat and deadly plagues, a mixed group of soldiers and scientists might try some early excavations in Egypt. Instead of finding the expected historical artifacts and treasures, they free an ancient evil. See the movie *The Mummy* for a 20th-century romp on these lines.

GURPS Screampunk

The Age of Napoleon was also the apogee of gothic fiction. Tales of wartime heroism may be contrasted with the dark, introspective world of *GURPS Screampunk*. Brave men may be driven mad by the horrors of the battlefield, while sailors might discover local supernatural powers to be more perilous than enemy navies. When the heroes return from the wars, they may discover that their loved ones have acquired dark secrets and their homes have crumbled through neglect. See Coleridge’s “Rime of the Ancient Mariner” for an exercise in Age of Sail Gothic.

GURPS Goblins

A *GURPS Goblins* campaign may start earlier than normal (say 1800), in that setting’s version of the Napoleonic Wars. Brave goblins could enlist as soldiers or join the navy seeking prize money and plentiful rum. War will exacerbate



A castle in Bavaria

goblin jingoism and dislike of foreign travel. As the Corsican Ogre (well known to be an indestructible fiend in goblin form who eats Proles for breakfast) threatens King and Country, England expects that loyal British goblins will do their duty.

GURPS Castle Falkenstein

For a really wild game, GMs might wish to consider combining *GURPS Age of Napoleon* with *GURPS Castle Falkenstein* in order to retell the history of New Europa in the 18th century long before the Second Compact. The events of the real Europe and New Europa are broadly the same – both have an American Revolution, a French Revolution, and the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars. GMs using the material in this book should remember that the colonial powers were less successful in New Europa and adapt historical events accordingly. For instance, Native American shamans may attack both sides in the American Revolution. The Inner Sea will stretch the resources of the Royal Navy even more thinly in the continental blockades. Magic will be used in battles on land and at sea by all sides – sharpshooters will target wizards first, then officers. GMs must also decide which sides Auberon and the Adversary are supporting in this era’s conflicts. Was the French Revolution intended by Auberon to peacefully reform and modernize France? How did the Adversary warp its ideals to create the Terror? Is Napoleon the tool of the Seelie or the Unseelie Court? Or is he simply a Corsican adventurer who has seized his opportunity to achieve his own destiny by playing one Faerie Lord off against the other?

GURPS Space

Many elements of the Napoleonic era reappear in classic science fiction. These include rival empires competing to acquire colonies, travel times measured in days and weeks, and communication limited to the speed of the fastest ship, necessitating independent decision-making from naval commanders – all of which can be found in *GURPS Traveller*. Examples of such “Hornblower in space” settings include David Weber’s Honor Harrington novels, David Feintuch’s Seafort Saga, and A. Bertram Chandler’s John Grimes series.





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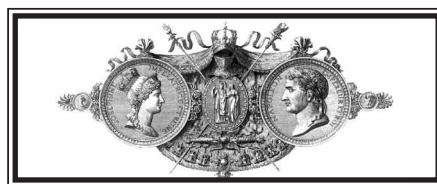
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Written by
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Edited by
William H. Stoddard

STEVE JACKSON GAMES
www.sjgames.com



FIRST EDITION, FIRST PRINTING
PUBLISHED MAY 2003

ISBN 1-55634-451-1



9 781556 344510

SJG02295 **6539**



Printed in
the USA