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About This Book
The front sections of this scenario book provide all the setup information necessary to play *Here I Stand* in any of the possible configurations. The remaining sections supply designer’s notes and historical background materials to further the player’s appreciation of the Reformation period.

Getting Started
Players not familiar with Europe during the Reformation are encouraged to read the section “The Game As History” before beginning play to gain an overview of the events covered in the game. The other historical sections (“Characters of the Reformation” and “Events of the Reformation”) can be perused later as specific characters and events are encountered during play.

All players should then read the rulebook. Rulebook Section 9 can be skipped entirely the first time through; it is simplest to not include a Diplomacy Phase at all during Turn 1 when first learning the game. Then use the setup instructions for the 1517 scenario (found in the “Scenarios” section below) and play a few turns to learn the game mechanics. The religious conflict between Protestants and Catholics is just getting underway in this scenario, making it an easy way to learn the procedures for Reformation attempts, Counter Reformation attempts, and theological debates (found in Rulebook Section 18).

Once the basic mechanics are understood, players should embark on any of the three scenarios, based on the time they have available for play. The following approximate time estimates are provided for 6-player games (if all players are already familiar with the rules):

- 1517 Scenario: 8 hours
- 1532 Scenario: 6 hours
- Tournament Scenario: 4 hours

The Victory Point (VP) system employed by *Here I Stand* also allows players to play for a set number of turns or hours instead of following through with a scenario to completion. See the section “Setting Your Own Time Limit” just after the scenarios for details.

Finally, the game plays quite well with less than 6 players. The minor adjustments necessary to play with fewer participants are presented in the section “Games with 3 to 5 players”.

SCENARIOS
The first section below provides general guidelines that are useful when setting up any of the scenarios. Then, the three scenarios included with *Here I Stand* are presented in order from longest playing time to shortest.

Setup Guidelines
All three scenarios are set up in the same fashion. The only differences between the scenarios are the positions of units and the initial number of cards dealt to each power.

Map and Power Card Layout
Place the map on a table between all of the players. The power cards should be placed around the map in Impulse Order so players can easily remember the order in which players take their moves.

The following configuration of power cards and the Religious Struggle card is especially recommended:

![Game Map](image)

At Start Unit/Power Card Setup
Set up the game one power at a time, using the setup tables for each power provided in the 1517 Scenario or 1532 Scenario section below. The setup table for each power lists the units that appear on the map and specifies the placement of all markers that start the game on that nation’s power card. The setup information for the Papacy and Protestant also lists the debaters that should start the game on the Religious Struggle Card.

Force Pool Setup
Land and naval units for each power that do not appear on the map at start should be placed next to each power card to create a pool of available forces that may be constructed during play. Unused minor power and neutral units should be placed in a separate pile.

Marker Setup

**Turn Marker:** Place the black “Turn” marker in the Turn 1 box of the Turn Track if this is the 1517 scenario. For the other scenarios, place it in the Turn 4 box.

**VP Markers:** Place each power’s color-coded “VP” marker in the proper box of the Victory Track according to the initial VP count specified for the scenario.

**Protestant Spaces/English Home Spaces:** Place these markers on the Protestant Space Track on the Religious Struggle Card in the numbered box specified for the scenario.

**Diplomatic Status Display:** In each scenario, several wars are underway; place a marker on the “At War” side in the appropriate box of this display to mark each of these conflicts. In the 1532 scenario, the Hapsburgs and Hungary-Bohemia are allied. Place a marker on the “Allied” side in this box if playing the 1532 scenario.

**The New World:** Place all 9 VP markers (6 for explorations, 3 for conquests) on the New World display if this is the 1517 scenario.
Setup Abbreviations
The following abbreviations are used in the setup tables for the scenarios:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HCM</td>
<td>hexagonal control marker (on Catholic side)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hcm</td>
<td>hexagonal control marker (on Protestant side)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCM</td>
<td>square control marker (on Catholic side)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merc</td>
<td>mercenary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1517 SCENARIO
Description
The 1517 Scenario is the lengthiest version of the game, covering the first 39 years of the Reformation.

Game Length
9 Turns: Turn 1 (1517) to Turn 9 (1555).

Setup
Ottoman
Istanbul ............... Suleiman, Ibrahim Pasha, 7 regulars, 1 cavalry, 1 naval squadron, SCM
Edirne ................. 1 regular, SCM
Salonika .............. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
Athens ................. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
SCM on Power Card: 7
VP for Piracy: 0

Hapsburgs
Valladolid ......... Charles V, Duke of Alva, 4 regulars, SCM
Seville ............... 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
Barcelona ............ 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
Navarre ............... 1 regular, SCM
Tunis .................. 1 regular, SCM
Naples ............... 2 regulars, 1 naval squadron, SCM
Besançon ............. 1 regular
Brussels .............. 1 regular
Vienna ............... Ferdinand, 4 regulars, SCM
Antwerp ............... 3 regulars, SCM
SCM on Power Card: 6
All Protestant home spaces: HCM (one in each of the 21 Protestant home spaces)

Crossing Atlantic Box: The Hapsburg Conquest Underway and Exploration Underway markers both start the scenario in this box (voyages of each type were funded before scenario start).

England
London ............... Henry VIII, Charles Brandon, 3 regulars, 1 naval squadron, SCM

Cards In Play
All cards in the deck may become available during this scenario. 37 cards have a turn number (or “Variable”) in the upper-right corner; these cards are not added until Turn 3 or later. Those cards that are not used at the start are numbered: #14 to #23 and #38 to #64.
**Diplomatic Status Display**
- Hapsburgs and France are at war.
- France and the Papacy are at war.
- Ottomans and Hungary-Bohemia are at war.

**Initial VP Count**
- Ottoman: 8
- Hapsburg: 9
- France: 12
- Papacy: 19
- England: 9
- Protestant: 0

**Protestant Spaces:** 0
**English Home Spaces:** 0

**Special Rules**
None.

**1532 SCENARIO**

**Description**
The 1532 Scenario is an abbreviated version of the game that skips the first three turns and puts all six powers in a position to threaten victory within just a few turns of play.

**Game Length**
6 Turns: Turn 4 (1532) to Turn 9 (1555)

**Setup**

**Ottoman**
- Istanbul ............... Suleiman, Ibrahim Pasha, 5 regulars, 1 cavalry, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Edirne ................ 1 regular, SCM
- Salonika ............. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Athens ................. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Algiers ............... Barbarossa, 2 regulars, 2 corsairs, SCM
- Buda .................... 3 regulars, 1 cavalry, SCM
- Belgrade .............. 1 regular, SCM
- Mohacs ............... HCM
- Szegedin ............. HCM
- Agram ................. HCM
- Rhodes ............... HCM
- SCM on Power Card: 4
- VP for Piracy: 0
- **Bonus VP Box:** 2 War Winners

**Hapsburgs**
- Valladolid ............ Charles V, Duke of Alva, 4 regulars, SCM
- Seville ................ 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Barcelona ............. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Navarre ............... 1 regular, SCM
- Naples ................ 2 regulars, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Besançon ............. 1 regular
- Brussels .............. 1 regular
- Vienna ............... Ferdinand, 4 regulars, 2 mercs, SCM
- Antwerp .............. 3 regulars, SCM
- Prague ............... SCM
- Breslau ............... HCM
- Brünn .................. HCM
- Pressburg ............ HCM
- Regensburg .......... HCM
- Salzburg ............. HCM
- Münster .............. HCM
- Cologne .............. HCM
- Trier ................... HCM
- SCM on Power Card: 6
- **Bonus VP Box:** 1 War Winner, Circumnavigation, Pacific Strait, Aztecs (depleted)
- **The New World:** Place Magellan on the Circumnavigation box and Cortes on the Aztecs box. This explorer and conquistador are out of play for this scenario.
- **Colonies:** Puerto Rico, Cuba
- **Out of Game:** Cordova, Leon, Narvaez

**England**
- London ............... Henry VIII, Charles Brandon, 3 regulars, 2 mercs, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Plymouth ............. 1 naval squadron
- Portsmouth ........... 1 naval squadron
- Calais .................. 2 regulars, SCM
- York .................... 1 regular, SCM
- Bristol ............... 1 regular, SCM

**SCM on Power Card:** 5
- **Henry’s Marital Status:** Ask for Divorce. Place all 6 wife counters in the appropriate box (Catherine of Aragon is placed in the same box as Anne Boleyn).
- England receives 1 extra card in the Card Draw Phase for Turn 4 (the first turn). This extra card is in addition to the one awarded because Henry VIII is ruler.
- **Out of Game:** Rut

**France**
- Paris .................. Francis I, Montmorency, 4 regulars, 2 mercs, SCM
- Rouen .................. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Bordeaux ............. 1 regular, SCM
- Lyon .................... 1 regular, SCM
- Marseille ............. 1 regular, 1 naval squadron, SCM

**SCM on Power Card:** 6
- **Crossing Atlantic Box:** The French Exploration Underway marker starts the scenario in this box (a voyage was funded before scenario start).
- France receives 1 extra card in the Card Draw Phase for Turn 4 (the first turn). This extra card is in addition to the one awarded because Francis I is ruler.
- **Out of Game:** Verranzano

**Papacy**
- Rome .................. 2 regulars, 1 merc, 1 naval squadron, SCM
- Ravenna ............... 1 regular, 1 merc, SCM

**SCM on Power Card:** 5
- **Papal Debaters:** Eck, Campeggio, Aleander, Contarini, Tetzel, Cajetan
- **Current Ruler:** Clement VII (place card #10 over the picture of Leo X)
- **Excommunicated:** Luther
- **Saint Peter’s Construction:** 0 CP, 1 VP
Protestant
Brandenburg ...... 1 regular
Wittenberg .......... John Frederick, Luther, 2 regulars
Mainz .............. Philip of Hesse, 1 regular, 2 mercs
Augsburg .......... 2 regulars

Electorate Display: 1 regular (Cologne, Trier)

German Debaters: Luther, Melanchthon, Bucer, Oekolampadius, Bullinger, Carlstadt

English Debaters: Tyndale

German New Testament: Complete
French New Testament: 4 CP
English New Testament: 2 CP
All Bibles: Not started

Out of Game: Zwingli reformer, Zwingli debater

Venice
Venice ............... 2 regulars, 3 naval squadrons
Corfu .................. 1 regular
Candia ............... 1 regular

Genoa
Genoa ............... Andrea Doria, 2 regulars, 1 naval squadron

Hungary
Prague ............... 1 regular

Scotland
Edinburgh .......... 3 regulars, 1 naval squadron

Independents
Malta ................ Knights of St. John (1 regular), HCM
Metz ................. 1 regular
Florence ............ 1 regular
Milan ............... 1 regular
Tunis ............... 1 regular
Basel ............... HCM
Zürich ............... HCM

Cards In Play
The following cards are removed from play before this scenario begins (these cards are all marked with ‘(1517)’ in the upper-right corner):
• ‘Luther’s 95 Theses’ (#8)
• ‘Barbary Pirates’ (#9)
• ‘Defender of the Faith’ (#11)
• ‘Schmalkaldic League’ (#13)
• ‘Halley’s Comet’ (#38)
• ‘Augsburg Confession’ (#39)
• ‘Marburg Colloquy’ (#41)
• ‘Zwingli Dons Armor’ (#43)
• ‘Frederick the Wise’ (#78)
• ‘John Zapolya’ (#83)
• ‘Katherina Bora’ (#85)
• ‘Peasants’ War’ (#88)
• ‘Sack of Rome’ (#95)
• ‘Sale of Moluccas’ (#96)

All other cards in the deck may become available during this scenario. Cards not listed above that enter play on Turn 3 should be included in the deck immediately. These are:
• ‘Paul III’ (#14)
• ‘Machiavelli’s The Prince’ (#40)
• ‘Roxelana’ (#42)

Be sure to also add cards, debaters, and reformers that enter at the start of Turn 4 in the first Card Draw Phase of this scenario (Section 8.2).

Diplomatic Status Display
• Ottoman and Hapsburgs are at war.
• Hapsburgs and Protestants are at war.
• Papacy and Protestants are at war.
• Hapsburgs and Hungary-Bohemia are allied.

Initial VP Count
Ottoman: 16
Hapsburg: 18
Papacy: 15
England: 9
Protestant: 13

Protestant Spaces: 19 (a 20th space is converted when Calvin is placed on the map in the first Card Draw Phase).

English Home Spaces: 0

Special Rules
None.

TOURNAMENT SCENARIO

Description
The Tournament Scenario adds additional constraints to the 1532 Scenario setup to ensure the game will end within 3 turns of play.

Game Length
3 Turns: Turn 4 (1532) to Turn 6 (1543).

Setup
Same as 1532 scenario. However all six powers get one extra card dealt to them at the start of Turn 4 above and beyond those they would normally receive at the start of the 1532 scenario. Example: England and France receive 3 cards more than listed in the “Cards and VP Per Key” section of their power card: 1 from their ruler’s card bonus, 1 from the normal 1532 scenario setup, and 1 from this tournament scenario setup rule.

Cards In Play
Same as 1532 scenario.

Diplomatic Status Display
Same as 1532 scenario.

Initial VP Count
Same as 1532 scenario.

Special Rules
1. The game ends no later than Turn 6. Because of that, suing for peace is not allowed on Turn 6.
2. A Domination Victory is achieved if anyone ends a turn 4 VP ahead of all other players.

3. A Standard Victory is achieved if any power ends a turn with 23 VP or more.

**SETTING YOUR OWN TIME LIMIT**

The VP system used in *Here I Stand* allows players to declare a winner at the end of a turn, even if none of the victory types listed in Section 23 of the rulebook have been triggered. The one rule-of-thumb to keep in mind is that the VP totals are not in balance until the end of Turn 4 (since the Papacy starts the 1517 Scenario with a 19 VP lead on the Protestant and England needs time to attempt to gain a male heir). So, in the Victory Determination Phase of Turns 4 through 8, players are free to end the game and award victory to the player with the highest VP total. Ties for the highest total are resolved as described in Section 23.3 (Standard Victory). Because of the possibility of ties, players should be sure to record the VP totals at the end of each turn of play (even at the end of turns prior to Turn 4).

Thus, players can use *Here I Stand*’s VP system to tailor their gaming session according to the time available for their gaming group. Here are some examples of perfectly legitimate, balanced ways to play the game:

- Start with the 1517 setup and play for 6 hours, then declare a winner at the end of the first turn that ends after the 6-hour mark (probably the end of Turn 5 with experienced players).
- Start with the 1517 setup and play until the end of Turn 6 (about 7 hours of play).
- Start with the 1532 setup and play for 5 hours, then declare a winner at the end of the first turn that ends after the 5-hour mark (probably the end of Turn 7).

Groups are encouraged to have a firm agreement on the limits for their game session before beginning play.

**GAMES WITH 3 TO 5 PLAYERS**

The *Here I Stand* rulebook assumes a game with the full complement of 6 players, one for each power. However, the changes to play with fewer players (3, 4, or 5) are minimal, as described below.

**Configurations**

The recommended assignments of powers to players in games with less than 6 players are given below.

**3-player**

Player 1: Ottoman and France
Player 2: Hapsburgs and Papacy
Player 3: England and Protestant

**4-player**

Player 1: Ottoman
Player 2: Hapsburgs and Papacy
Player 3: England and Protestant
Player 4: France

**5-player**

Player 1: Ottoman
Player 2: Hapsburgs
Player 3: England and Protestant
Player 4: France
Player 5: Papacy

**Controlling 2 Powers**

Additional restrictions are placed on any player that controls two powers:

- The Ottoman power may never conduct piracy on another power controlled by the same player.
- A player may never have one of his powers declare war on the other.
- A player may never award a card draw or mercenaries from one of his powers to the other.
- A player may never have one of his powers give control of a space to his other power (*Exception: returning control of a home space to a power is allowed*).

The two powers controlled by a single player may ally and loan naval squadrons however.

**Domination Victory**

The only other rule change made in games where one player controls 2 powers is in the calculation of Domination victory (Section 23.3). Before checking for a Domination victory, average the current victory points of any set of two powers played by a single player. Then check to see if any single player’s total is 5 greater than all other players. If so that player has won the game with a Domination victory.

**PLAY-BY-EMAIL TIPS**

Nearly half of the playtesting for *Here I Stand* was completed through play-by-email games. Several dozen email games were completed using Cyberboard, a Windows application that serves as a PBEM boardgame assistant (http://cyberboard.brainiac.com). Here are some tips on how to best keep PBEM games moving efficiently, whether you are using Cyberboard or another PBEM utility.

**Interruptions to Play**

PBEM games flow smoothly if each player takes their move in impulse order and completes that impulse with a single email message. However, Combat cards and Response cards may be played by other powers during an impulse, interrupting play. In addition, as land and naval units move, other players must make decisions about intercept, avoid battle, and withdrawing into fortifications. The best way to handle these situations is to first remember that the only game operations that can be interrupted are:

- Move Formation action
- Naval Move action
- Field battle, naval combat, and assault

There are other operations that involve direct conflict between powers (piracy, reformation/counter reformation attempts, and theological debates), but none of them can be interrupted. (*Exception: An interruption can occur if the Papacy calls a debate in Germany and the Protestant player must decide whether or not to substitute Luther for another German debater.*)
For the Move Formation and Naval Move actions, the active player should continue move actions until a move is made that requires an enemy decision on whether or not to intercept, avoid battle, or withdraw into fortifications. The game should then be interrupted to wait for the enemy response. In field battles and assaults, the active player should initiate the combat and declare any combat cards that he intends to play. The play of defensive cards and the resolution of the combat is then handled by the defender.

**Response Card Play**
The trickiest interruptions to account for come from play of Response cards (since any of the players in the game may play a Response during another player’s impulse). However there are only 8 different response cards. Recommended PBEM handling of each is described below. Note that several of these recommendations cause game actions to be “rewound” back to the point in time when the Response occurred. This rewinding is recommended so PBEM play is not halted over-and-over because of possible Response card play.

- ‘Foul Weather’, ‘Gout’: Play just after the email that notifies them of the assault, naval combat, or naval intercept that they will be modifying.
- ‘Halley’s Comet’: Play at any break between impulses.
- ‘Landsknechts’, ‘Swiss Mercenaries’: Handle as Combat cards (allowing them to be played after combat is declared but before it is resolved).
- ‘Siege Artillery’, ‘Professional Rowers’: Play just after the email that notifies them of the assault, naval combat, or naval intercept that they will be modifying.
- ‘Warburg’: Protestant must cancel an event card just after the email that notifies them of its play. The Protestant is not permitted to wait until they have seen the full event execution and then play this response.

**DESIGNER’S NOTES**

Our Friday night gaming group in college mostly played role-playing games. SPI’s *Dragonquest*, which I had helped playtest, was our mainstay. But occasionally one of us would propose a traditional wargame, especially if it was multiplayer. And so it was with reluctance that I approached my roommate Mike’s suggestion to play SPI’s *A Mighty Fortress*. I knew nothing about the Reformation, and Mike himself admitted that the pacing of the game was so poor that his high school gaming group referred to it as “A Mighty Tortoise”. Worse still, they had decided I needed to play the Hapsburg empire, a power splintered into a series of isolated holdings that were each threatened by several enemies. Well we tried it anyway ... and I was immediately hooked. The juggling act of playing Hapsburg was the supreme challenge. I loved being powerful enough to crush any one opponent, but only being able to face a solitary enemy if I had prearranged it with skillful diplomacy. The dual layers of military and religious conflict presented a puzzle unlike any other game I had seen. And best of all, it worked beautifully with our group of role players; there was a part for each of us. Mike, our Italian Catholic, was the perfect Pope. Tom, our connoisseur of Renaissance culture, played the part of Francis I. Tito, our relentless aggressor from a distant land, emerged naturally as the Ottoman. Rich played the part of Henry VIII; David was Luther; and I had to fend them all off as Charles.

And yet one problem remained, and it was a big one - the game just didn’t really work. Game length was a huge issue. We never came close to finishing a session (and I still haven’t played a single game of AMF from start to finish). Plus, a hex-based, zone-of-control system could not properly represent the period’s campaigning by isolated armies led by charismatic leaders. Furthermore, the religious and military struggles were almost entirely disjointed and didn’t include any of the colorful characters of the period. Here was perhaps my favorite game, one that I would suggest repeatedly to our gaming group, clearly falling far short of its ultimate potential. The others soured on it and we moved on.

Nonetheless, the thought of one day correcting these flaws become my idea fixe. But it had to be done right; I didn’t want to start on the project until I knew these issues could all be overcome. So I bode my time and just started to collect books on the period, attend our local Renaissance festival religiously, and watch the blossoming of card-driven games with great interest. A point-to-point system using cards to introduce the flavor of the period was clearly going to be a step in the right direction. Finally, I played Mark McLaughlin’s *The Napoleonic Wars*, a design that showed that a card-driven design could accommodate an asymmetric multiplayer configuration. Twenty years after I had first played AMF, the time for posting my theses had arrived.

**Design Emphasis**
As I started to study the Reformation, it didn’t take long for me to realize what an incredibly rich period of history this was. While the Reformation unfolded, Europe also saw: the conquest of the New World, Henry VIII’s succession of wives, Magellan’s voyage proving that the earth is round, and the publication of Copernicus’ theory demonstrating that the Earth is not the center of the universe. Throw in Machiavelli, Michelangelo, and the zenith of the Ottoman Empire, and you have quite a lot to work with. However I have still not found a single book that links all these elements in any meaningful way. I decided then and there that the focus of the game would be showcasing the interdependencies between these great historical figures and events.

The military, political, and religious landscape of Europe changed dramatically during the 40-year period covered in the game. One of the first steps in designing the game was analyzing this timeline in detail, and mapping these changes to a series of events. This process led to the Mandatory Events that are included in the game to drive the storyline. However, I didn’t want the game to be so scripted that it played out the same every time. You’ll see that in the final version these key events (Barbary Pirates, Schmalkaldic League, Society of Jesus) have a span of several turns during which they may occur.

**Religious Mechanics**
Several different land combat, siege, and naval systems have been used in card-driven games; I didn’t expect that finding appropriate mechanics for that side of the game would prove too troublesome. However, in devising mechanics for the spread of the Protestant reformation across a point-to-point map, I had no choice but to break new ground. I tried at least four different methods before settling on the published version. The strength of this approach is that players bring pressure to bear from adjacent spaces, therefore modeling the natural spread of the Reformation from town-to-town. The mechanics also account for the presence of Catholic or Protestant armies...
and allow the Reformation to spread over water (especially the North Sea), though with greater difficulty.

I was hoping that playtesting would show that the Reformation spread along historical lines. To ensure that was the case, I had to account for the fact that the Reformation would accelerate in one language at a time, especially when new biblical translations appeared in that language. And so I added language zones and the all-important Printing Press card. I think the game does a good job of showing the importance of the revolution in communication that resulted from Gutenberg’s invention.

Up until now, I’ve only discussed mechanics that spread the reformed belief by geographic pressure. However, key theological debates and events like the Diet of Worms clearly gave the Protestant cause an extra boost. Therefore the debate system was established to serve as a way for religious powers to spread their ideas even if the opposing side has a geographic advantage in a particular area. The debate mechanics didn’t undergo much change. The idea of rolling a handful of dice to try and burn an opponent at the stake has always been appealing!

Other Difficulties
What else proved tricky? Well the creation of a six-sided political struggle with alliances that changed each turn was difficult. It took a long time to track down all of the cases for intercepts, avoid battles, sieges and relief forces, especially when allied forces or space control was involved. Making sure these cases were all handled was one of the driving reasons behind the current form of the rules. Each section contains a list of restrictions and then a step-by-step procedure. Structuring the rules this way really helped accommodate some of the rare cases that come up when allies are fighting in close proximity.

Game balance was another challenge. Each of the six powers brings a very unique perspective and its own path to victory. That’s great for replayability, but can be a challenge when trying to create a balanced product. I tracked scores for each power at the end of each turn of our playtest games. The resulting spreadsheet was invaluable in judging if and when balance adjustments were required. The good thing is that the interplay of cards often allows the players to “bring a leader back to the pack.” It will be interesting to see if any power is deemed to have an edge once the game is exposed to a wider audience.

Thanks
Finally, I want to thank the 62 people that helped playtest the game. Extra special credit goes to three people who each took a turn providing special assistance to the project. My son Matthew was the first of these. He and I played the game extensively over a six-month period, moving it from its earliest form to a point where it was ready for PBEM playtesting. I have to admit to it was a little surprising that a 14 year-old living in the 21st Century would be so fond of a game on the Reformation. I took the fact that he asked to play repeatedly as a very good sign. Ananda Gupta was the next to step into a key role. His warnings to keep the game simple were always well-timed. He also gets credit for suggesting the debater bonus system, a late addition that adds a lot of strategic depth to the religious fighting. Dave Cross was the final person deserving of special mention. Without Dave I never would have tracked down as many loopholes in rules and cards. He also significantly improved the mechanics of many of the cards, particularly those nasty Inquisitions.

Finally, I want to thank my wife Sarah and daughter Natalie. Not every family attends the movie Luther or heads straight to the book vendor on opening day of the local Renaissance festival. Their tolerance of my obsession has earned them many, many days off their times in Purgatory.

EXTENDED EXAMPLE OF PLAY
This section presents an example of the action at the beginning of a Tournament Scenario contested by some of the leading playtesters of Here I Stand. As a Tournament Scenario, this game starts on Turn 4. The 1532 Scenario setup is used except each power receives one extra card in their hand on the first turn. New players are encouraged to set up this scenario and play along.

TURN 4
Luther’s 95 Theses Phase:
Skipped (since this is not the 1517 Scenario).

Card Draw Phase:
Add debaters, reformers, leaders: Calvin reformer is added in Geneva; that space flips to Protestant control. An independent hexagonal control marker is placed in that space flipped on its Protestant (gray border, white center) side. 20 spaces are now under Protestant control. Protestant VP rise to 14; Papal VP drop to 14. All four French debaters enter play.

Add new cards to the deck: The 11 cards marked as Turn 4 are added to the deck and shuffled into the deck for the upcoming card deal.

Roll for New World Riches: Hapsburgs roll two dice and sum the totals for their two colonies:
• Puerto Rico (dr 8; no card - galleon was needed)
• Cuba (dr 7; no effect)

Shuffle deck and deal cards:
Ottoman (Steve Caler) - 7 cards (1 home, 5 from keys, 1 for tournament)
• #1 ‘Janissaries’ (Home, 5 CP)
• #33 ‘Landsknechts’ (Response, 1 CP)
• #47 ‘Copernicus’ (6 CP)
• #66 ‘Akinji Raiders’ (3 CP)
• #92 ‘Revolt in Egypt’ (3 CP)
• #98 ‘Search for Cibola’ (2 CP)
• #109 ‘Venetian Informant’ (1 CP)

Hapsburgs (Dave Cross) - 7 cards (1 home, 5 from keys, 1 for tournament)
• #2 ‘Holy Roman Emperor’ (Home, 5 CP)
• #26 ‘Mercenaries Bried’ (Combat, 3 CP)
• #28 ‘Siege Mining’ (Combat, 1 CP)
• #37 ‘Wartburg’ (Response, 2 CP)
• #67 ‘Anabaptists’ (3 CP)
• #79 ‘Fuggers’ (3 CP)
• #90 ‘Printing Press’ (5 CP)

England (Paul Nied) - 6 cards (1 home, 2 from keys, 1 for Henry’s card bonus, 1 for 1532 scenario setup, 1 for tournament)
• #3 ‘Six Wives of Henry VIII’ (Home, 5 CP)

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• #40 ‘Machiavelli’s The Prince’ (2 CP)
• #54 ‘Potosi Silver Mines’ (3 CP)
• #70 ‘Charles Bourbon’ (4 CP)
• #101 ‘Smallpox’ (4 CP)
• #107 ‘Unsanitary Camp’ (2 CP)

France (Ken Richards) - 6 cards (1 home, 2 from keys, 1 for Francis’s card bonus, 1 for 1532 scenario setup, 1 for tournament)

• #4 ‘Patron of the Arts’ (Home, 5 CP)
• #25 ‘Field Artillery’ (Combat, 1 CP)
• #36 ‘Swiss Mercenaries’ (Response, 1 CP)
• #45 ‘Calvin Expelled’ (1 CP)
• #46 ‘Calvin’s Institutes’ (5 CP)
• #72 ‘Cloth Prices Fluctuate’ (3 CP)

Papacy (Jim Adams) - 6 cards (2 home, 3 from keys, 1 for tournament)

• #5 ‘Papal Bull’ (Home, 4 CP)
• #6 ‘Leipzig Debate’ (Combat, 3 CP)
• #31 ‘Foul Weather’ (Response, 2 CP)
• #52 ‘Michelangelo’ (4 CP)
• #80 ‘Gabelle Revolt’ (1 CP)
• #86 ‘Knights of St. John’ (2 CP)

Protestant (Ed Beach) - 7 cards (1 home, 5 from electorates, 1 for tournament)

• #7 ‘Here I Stand’ (Home, 5 CP)
• #34 ‘Professional Rowers’ (Response, 2 CP)
• #42 ‘Roxelana’ (4 CP)
• #97 ‘Scots Raid’ (2 CP)
• #102 ‘Spring Preparations’ (3 CP)
• #106 ‘Unpaid Mercenaries’ (3 CP)
• #110 ‘War with Persia’ (4 CP)

Diplomacy Phase

Negotiation Segment - Hold Negotiations: The “Henry’s Marital Status” marker is on the “Ask for Divorce” space. This is the one turn that the Papacy (Jim) may grant the divorce in exchange for concessions from the English player. However, the Hapsburg (Dave) approaches Jim first, touting the need for Catholic solidarity and a solid anti-piracy defense against the Ottomans. Jim agrees to ally with Dave and lend his fleet for anti-piracy duty.

The Protestant (Ed) has a hand full of high CP cards but none that are particularly helpful for the Reformation. However France (Ken) offers to play Calvin’s Institutes as an event on the first card play of the turn (before Calvin can be excommunicated). A deal is soon made.

Other negotiations occur between the English and Protestant (who agree to ally just to affirm their solidarity) and the French and Hapsburgs (who ally with a French fleet being lent for anti-piracy work).

Negotiation Segment - Announce Deals:

The Ottomans have no announcements.

The Hapsburgs announce their alliances with the French and the Papacy. The French fleet in Marseille is lent and will start in Palma. The Papal fleet in Rome is lent and will start in Cagliari.

The English announce an alliance with the Protestant. The French confirm the alliance with the Hapsburgs and the lent fleet. The fleet is moved to Palma and a Hapsburg “Loaned” marker placed on it. An “Allied” marker is placed on the Diplomatic Status Display on the Hapsburg box in the France column.

The French also announce that they are receiving 2 random card draws from the Protestant in exchange for 2 mercenaries from Paris (and the play of Calvin’s Institutes as an event, though this secret, non-binding agreement is not publicly declared at this time).

The Papacy confirm the alliance with the Hapsburgs and the lent fleet. The fleet is moved to Cagliari and a Hapsburg “Loaned” marker placed on it. An “Allied” marker is placed on the Diplomatic Status Display on the Hapsburg box in the Papacy column.


The Protestants confirm the deal announced by France. The two mercenaries are placed in Mainz (1 regular and 4 mercenaries there now). The French draw these cards from the Protestant hand:

• #102 ‘Spring Preparations’ (3 CP)
• #106 ‘Unpaid Mercenaries’ (3 CP)

Peace Segment: Skipped. No powers are eligible to sue for peace.

Ransom Segment: Skipped. No leaders are captured.

Excommunication Segment: Skipped. No rulers are under excommunication.

War Segment: All six powers are offered the option of declaring war and all six decline. It looks like everyone is going to attack independent keys and build up strength in the New World this turn.

Diet of Worms Phase

Skipped (since this is not the 1517 Scenario).

Spring Deployment Phase

Ottoman: Suleiman, 4 regulars, 1 cavalry to Buda. Ibrahim and 1 regular remain in Istanbul. The Ottoman could have played Venetian Informant to review the cards in another player’s hand (but declined to do so).

Hapsburgs: Charles V, Duke of Alva and all 4 regulars in Valladolid to Cartagena.


France: Montmorency and 2 regulars to Lyon (3 regulars there total now). Francis and 2 regulars remain in Paris.

Papacy: Decline to make a spring deployment this turn.

Protestant: The Protestants can never spring deploy.

Action Phase - Round 1

Ottoman

• #92 ‘Revolt in Egypt’ (3 CP). Played for CP.

The Ottomans take advantage of moving first and go straight for Vienna.

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CP1: Suleiman, 6 regulars, 2 cavalry to Pressburg. Hapsburgs decline the intercept opportunity.

CP2: Control unfortified space of Pressburg. The Hapsburg control marker there is replaced with an Ottoman one (still on its Catholic side).

CP3: Suleiman and his 8-unit formation proceed to Vienna. The Hapsburgs accept the field battle (no avoid battle attempt). In Step 1 of the Field Battle procedure the Ottomans play:

- #33 'Landsknechts' (Response, 1 CP)

...and eliminate the 2 Hapsburg mercenaries. In the battle, the Ottomans roll 10 dice (8 units plus 2 for Suleiman’s Battle Rating). The Hapsburgs roll 6 dice (4 units, plus 1 for Ferdinand’s Battle Rating and 1 as defender).

  Ottoman Dice: 3, 2, 3, 4, 3, 6, 5, 5 (4 hits)
  Hapsburg Dice: 3, 3, 4, 6, 1, 6 (2 hits)

All 4 Hapsburg units are eliminated. Ferdinand is captured and placed on the Ottoman power card. The Ottomans choose to eliminate 1 regular and 1 cavalry. The winner of a field battle never gains control of the space, however. Vienna is under siege and may be assaulted as soon as the next Ottoman impulse.

Hapsburgs

- #2 ‘Holy Roman Emperor’ (Home, 5 CP)

Played as event; the Hapsburg announces that Charles is transferring to Linz (currently unoccupied). No other power plays the ‘Gout’ response to stop the transfer.

CP1-5: The Hapsburgs use all 5 CP to build units in Linz. 3 mercenaries and 1 regular. Charles has an army with him now. However, Vienna may fall before he is strong enough to attack to relieve the siege.

England

- #54 ‘Potosi Silver Mines’ (3 CP).

Played as event. The Potosi marker is placed in the top colony box for England (to the left of the New World Riches Table on the game map).

France

- #46 ‘Calvin’s Institutes’ (5 CP)

As promised, the French play Calvin’s Institutes as an event to aid the Protestants and live up to their diplomatic agreement. Calvin is committed. Committed Calvin to fulfill the requirement for an event does not count as using a debater bonus in an impulse. Farel is committed as well to give one extra die for Reformation attempts within 2 spaces of Geneva during this impulse.

Reformation Attempt #1 (Besancon): Protestants roll 5 dice at +1 (3 adjacent Protestant spaces, 1 adjacent reformer, Farel bonus).

  Protestant Dice: 6, 1, 6, 1, 4 (automatic conversion)

Reformation Attempt #2 (Metz): Protestants roll 3 dice at +1 (2 adjacent Protestant spaces, Farel bonus)

Reformation Attempt #3 (Grenoble): Protestants roll 3 dice at +1 (1 adjacent Protestant space, 1 adjacent reformer, Farel bonus)

  Protestant Dice: 5, 5, 2 (automatic conversion).

Reformation Attempt #4 (Lyons): Protestants roll 4 dice at +1 (2 adjacent Protestant spaces, 1 adjacent reformer, Farel bonus). Papacy finally gets to try and defend. They roll 6 dice (3 adjacent Catholic spaces, 3 adjacent Catholic stacks).

  Protestant Dice: 2, 1, 3, 1
  Catholic Dice: 5, 1, 4, 5, 3, 3

The Catholic best die (5) beats the best Protestant roll (3+1); Lyons remains Catholic.

Reformation Attempt #5 (Dijon): Protestants roll 3 dice at +1 (2 adjacent Protestant spaces, Farel bonus)

  Protestant Dice: 1, 5, 4 (automatic conversion)

The Protestant succeeded on 4 of the 5 attempts. The Protestant advances the Protestant Space Marker on the Religious Struggle Card to 24. Protestant VP rise to 15; Papal VP drop to 13.

Papacy

- #80 ‘Gabelle Revolt’ (1 CP). Played as event.

Unrest markers are placed on Grenoble and Dijon. This will limit French line-of-communication into Italy and reduce the Protestant space count until the unrest is removed. Papacy drops the Protestant Space Marker on the Card to 22. Protestant VP drop to 14; Papal VP rise to 14.

Protestant

- #42 ‘Roxelana’ (4 CP). Played as event.

Ed’s comment: “Well the Hapsburgs are going to owe the Protestants a favor after this move.” There had been no diplomatic agreement that the Protestants would play this card as an event. However, the Ottoman threat to Central Europe looks pretty dire. Plus Ed is calculating that keeping the odds even between these two powers will keep them at war longer, draining them both of resources. The Suleiman leader (but none of the units in Vienna) is returned to Istanbul. Per the event card, the Protestants can then spend 2 CP.

CP1> Build a mercenary in Mainz (now Philip of Hesse, 1 regular, 5 mercenaries there).

CP2> Philip moves with a formation of 1 regular and 4 mercenaries to Cologne (which is unoccupied). 1 mercenary remains in Mainz. Cologne is under siege.

The Ottoman is now up in the second round of the Action Phase. The six powers will continue playing cards in this fashion until all six powers have passed in consecutive impulses. Then they proceed to Phases 7, 8, and 9 (Winter Phase, New World Phase, Victory Determination Phase) to complete a turn of play.

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THE GAME AS HISTORY

This section outlines the history of the Wars of the Reformation, organized into the nine turns represented in the game. People and events listed in bold are described in greater detail in the sections that follow.

Background

In the 15th Century, signals appeared hinting that Europe would soon emerge from the long slumber of the Middle Ages. The invention of the printing press by Johann Gutenberg promised to revolutionize the spread of culture and learning. In 1453, the Ottoman Turks finally overcame Constantinople, sweeping away the final vestige of the Byzantine Empire. The flight of Greek scholars to Italy became a further stimulus to the intellectual Renaissance that was spreading across Northern Italy. The balance of power was also shifting on the Iberian peninsula; Ferdinand and Isabella’s armies removed the final Arab presence in Granada in 1492, the same year that Christopher Columbus sailed for the New World.

Even in religious matters, where the Catholic Church held sway throughout the Middle Ages, change was in the air. Building on the work of John Wycliffe, a 14th Century Oxford scholar who created the first Bible translation in English, the Hussites in Bohemia started to question the institutions of the Catholic Church. These Bohemians were able to establish a Hussite church that maintained a degree of independence from Rome, could worship in the Czech language, and offered wine as well as bread at communion.

Changes in leadership were occurring as well. Henry VII, founder of the English Tudor dynasty died in 1509, leaving the kingdom to his young son of the same name. The younger Henry had become the heir apparent at age eleven in 1502, when his older brother Arthur caught an infection and died. To maintain the dynastic alliance with Spain, Henry was betrothed to Arthur’s widow, Catherine of Aragon. They were married in June 1509, just a few months after Henry VIII ascended to the English throne.

A new pope also ascended during this period. The new pontiff was Leo X, born as Giovanni di Lorenzo de Medici in Florence in 1475. Destined for the church at birth, Giovanni was elevated to the rank of cardinal at the remarkably young age of 14. When he became Pope in 1513, Leo rejoiced, telling his brother “Since God has given us the papacy, let us enjoy it.” Leo lived by these words, throwing immediate creating a stir across Germany and cutting into Tetzel’s sales. Leo sends one of his top theologians, Tommaso de Vio Cajetan, into Germany to force Luther to recant. Luther meets Cajetan in Augsburg, but refuses to give ground. Fearing arrest, Luther flees the city at night and returns home. A year later, Luther and his fellow professor Andreas Carlstadt meet Johann Eck in a two-week debate at Leipzig. Luther inserts himself in the debate before Carlstadt can lose too much ground to Eck’s stirring attacks.

While these early religious struggles rage on, the Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian died. Francis I and Charles V are the candidates to become the next emperor. Ultimately it is Charles’ ability to borrow money from the Fuggers that allows him to prevail and become the new nominal ruler of Germany. He also inherits Hapsburg lands in Austria after Maximilian’s death. Truly, Charles V is now the greatest ruler in all Christendom.

With tensions running high between France and the Hapsburgs over the imperial election, the diplomatic posture of England becomes a concern for everyone. Within three months (May to July, 1520), Henry and his Lord Chancellor Thomas Wolsey arrange embassies with Charles in London, Francis at the Field of Cloth of Gold outside Calais, and then again at Gravelines (in the Netherlands) with Charles. Although the magnificence of the festivities at the Field of Cloth of Gold are unmatched, Henry actually sides with Charles, agreeing to break off the engagement of the Princess Mary to the Dauphin and not ally with France for two years. Henry sends Charles Brandon to invade France just three years later.

With his English ally secure, Charles next move is to get to Italy so the Pope can coronate him as Holy Roman Emperor. However, life as the emperor is not that easy. First, the Revolt of the Communeros breaks out back in Spain. Second, the outbreak of Lutheran heresy in Germany needs to be addressed. Thinking along these lines, Leo issues a bull of excommunication against Luther. However, the townspeople of Germany have quickly rallied behind the monk from Wittenberg. Eck and Jerome Aleander have great difficulty in posting the bull anywhere, though they are able to burn Luther’s books in Cologne and Mainz. In retaliation, the audacious Luther publicly burns the Papal Bull in Wittenberg. The renowned scholar, Desiderius Erasmus, is accused of supporting Luther. Erasmus thus begins to distance himself from the movement, even as he fears that Luther’s break from Rome may already be irreconcilable.

en in the New World. At age 16, Charles V empire was vast and was soon to expand twice more.

The Protestant Reformation is about to begin.

Turn 1 (1517-1523)

Pope Leo X’s ambitious schedule to move forward with the ongoing construction work on St. Peter’s Basilica is going to be expensive. Leo therefore works with Albrecht of Brandenburg to issue a new indulgence to fill the Papal coffers. Albrecht’s best salesmen, Johann Tetzel, is sent across Germany to convince the townsfolk of their duty to buy indulgences.

Enter Martin Luther, a 33-year-old Augustinian monk and son of middle-class parents, who has been lecturing on the Wittenberg faculty for the past six years. Luther intends to initiate an academic discussion on the subject of indulgences. Following the traditions of the time, he delineates his theses on the subject and on October 31, 1517, posts that document on the door of the Castle Church. Luther’s 95 Theses are soon printed in both Latin and German, immediately creating a stir across Germany and cutting into Tetzel’s sales. Leo sends one of his top theologians, Tommaso de Vio Cajetan, into Germany to force Luther to recant. Luther meets Cajetan in Augsburg, but refuses to give ground. Fearing arrest, Luther flees the city at night and returns home. A year later, Luther and his fellow professor Andreas Carlstadt meet Johann Eck in a two-week debate at Leipzig. Luther inserts himself in the debate before Carlstadt can lose too much ground to Eck’s stirring attacks.

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In this atmosphere, Charles concludes that he must face Luther directly. Luther receives a summons to appear at the Diet of Worms in front of the assembled leadership of Germany. Upon Luther’s arrival, his works are attacked by Papal officials, who ask him to recant completely. On the second day of the proceedings, Luther is finally ready to answer these charges. He states clearly and boldly, that:

“I cannot and I will not recant anything, for to go against conscience is neither right nor safe. Here I Stand. I can do no other. God help me. Amen.”

Luther then retires from the hall. He flees Worms before the Emperor can decide his fate. On the way home, the elector Frederick the Wise kidnaps Luther and whisk him away to Wartburg castle for his own safekeeping against imperial agents. The ten months Luther spends at Wartburg end up being some of the most productive of his life; he translates large sections of the New Testament into German during that stay. Luther finally comes out of hiding in 1522 when Frederick needs his assistance to quell the unrest created by the preaching of the radical Carlstadt.

Francis also has plans to make Charles’ life miserable. Without formally declaring war, he sends armies into Luxembourg and Navarre. However, the Hapsburgs turn back these threats and then work with Papal forces to drive France out of Milan. The sudden death of Leo X causes uncertainty in the Papal ranks, but even then the French are still defeated soundly at the battle of La Bicocca. Leo is replaced first by Adrian of Utrecht (Charles’ old tutor) and then (after Adrian dies within a year) by Clement VII. Clement is Leo X’s cousin, another Florentine from the Medici family. He would soon face one of the most difficult pontificates in the history of the Papacy.

One final problem confronts Charles. In 1520, Selim I, ruler of the Ottoman Empire dies. His 26-year-old son, Suleiman, becomes sultan. This new leader is ambitious, completing the conquest of Belgrade and Rhodes in his first two years as ruler. At Rhodes, Suleiman’s huge army is held off for six months by just 7,000 men of the Knights of St. John. Based on this valiant defense, Suleiman allows the knights to withdraw with honors of war. They would later relocate at Malta where they would prey on Ottoman shipping, making sure that Suleiman lived to regret his leniency on Rhodes.

In the New World: Soon after Charles’ arrival in Spain in 1518, he is approached by an eager Portuguese explorer, Ferdinand Magellan, who promotes an expedition to sail west through a South American strait to reach the Spice Islands. That same year, an ambitious chief magistrate from the Spanish colony on Cuba, Hernando Cortes, takes an expedition bound for the Yucatan and diverts those soldiers to central Mexico. Within three years, Spain expeditions conquer the Aztec empire and sail around the world, completing two of the greatest achievements of the Age of Discovery. Only Ponce de Leon’s quest for the Fountain of Youth is a failure during this time.

Turn 2 (1524-1527)
The Reformation continues to spread. Ulrich Zwingli, a 40-year old priest with a background as a chaplain and humanist scholar, establishes Zurich as the first reformed town in Switzerland. Martin Bucer, a follower of Luther, returns home after his marriage and subsequent excommunication; he will develop a similar Protestant base in Strasbourg. Luther is married to Katherina Bora. Over the next 20 years, his home life with the former nun will set the tone for clerical marriages. Luther’s ideas even reach William Tyndale in England. Tyndale is forced to flee from Henry VIII’s still staunchly Catholic regime and continue his work on an English-language version of the New Testament in Germany. However, the spread of reformed belief is not easy to control. In 1524 the Peasants’ War starts and for two years threatens to engulf Germany. The period does end on a high note in 1527 with the establishment of the first Protestant university at Marburg and the publication of Luther’s first hymnal, including the new battle hymn of the German Reformation, A Mighty Fortress.

The action in Italy heats up even further. Charles Bourbon, marshal of France, breaks with Francis and leads imperial troops against Marseille. Chased back into Italy, Bourbon and the other Hapsburg generals fall back to Pavia. The armies clash there in one of the first battles to prominently feature gunpowder weapons such as field artillery and arquebusiers. Francis is defeated and imprisoned. One year later, he gives up his two sons as ransom to gain his freedom. Bourbon then loses control of his largely mercenary army, leading to the Sack of Rome. It is at this unfortunate moment (with Clement as an imperial prisoner) that Henry VIII first petitions the Pope for a divorce from Catherine of Aragon.

The Ottoman Empire is faced with a revolt in Egypt. Suleiman’s skilled lieutenant, Ibrahim Pasha, is successful in overcoming the Mameluks and then joins Suleiman for his 1526 campaign up the Danube River valley. At the subsequent Battle of Mohacs, Suleiman wins a glorious victory, in part because a major Hungarian army under John Zapolya fails to show. The young Hungarian king is slain. Ferdinand, brother of Charles V, takes over as King of Hungary and Bohemia. Yet again the Hapsburg lands have grown. However, Hungary, historically the “Shield of Christendom,” no longer stands as a buffer between the Ottoman and Hapsburg empires.

In the New World: Spain’s efforts in the New World sputter after the huge triumphs by Magellan and Cortes. Francisco Hernandez de Cordova subjugates the people of Nicaragua, only to be killed there by his rival Pedrarias Davila. Juan Sebastian Elcano, the surviving Basque captain who completed Magellan’s voyage, dies of scurvy crossing the Pacific while attempting to reach the Moluccas for a second time. But the most ignominious fate of all is suffered by Panfilo de Narvaez during his disastrous voyage to Florida. Better luck is enjoyed by the English pilot John Rut and Giovanni da Verrazano (an Italian who sailed for France); both explored major sections of the North American coast.

Turn 3 (1528-1531)
The year after the death of Niccolo Machiavelli, the French suffer from some Machiavellian diplomacy by the Genoese naval leader Andrea Doria, who defects to the Hapsburg side just as Francis tries to siege Naples with Genoese naval support. Doria moves on to a position as admiral of the Hapsburg fleet. That task becomes very challenging after Barbarossa captures Algiers and sets it up as a base for piracy. Suleiman’s Ottoman army also threatens to capture the Hapsburg capital of Vienna. After a siege of several weeks, the Ottomans withdraw, having lost time to press the siege before winter. The Hapsburgs start modernizing the fortifications of Vienna in case the Turks return.

In 1529, the German Diet convenes at Speyer. This time, a Roman Catholic presence is dominant, and the diet’s earlier decision that each German prince can decide if his realm will be of the Catholic
or reformed faith is reversed. The resulting protest from the reformers brings the term “Protestant” into being. Philip of Hesse decides it is time to unite the Lutheran and Zwinglian branches of Protestantism, and calls the Marburg Colloquy. The delegates include Luther, Philip Melanchthon, Zwingli, Johannes Oekolampadius and Bucer. Although unsuccessful, the discussions at Marburg lay the foundation for the Augsburg Confession, presented to Charles V the next year. The Lutheran reformers and princes realize that eventually Charles is going to move to eliminate the Protestants. In 1531, they form the Schmalkaldic League for defense of those cities and principalities that have adopted the new faith. Philip of Hesse and John Frederick of Saxony are nominated as the military commanders.

Clement VII is released from Hapsburg custody and finally gets a chance to officially coronate Charles as Holy Roman Emperor. He also sends Lorenzo Campeggio to England, officially to hear the case for Henry’s divorce, but in reality to further stall and delay that decision. As this period ends, the comet Halley fills the night sky of 1531. Perhaps it is an ill omen, for the Protestants lose Zwingli, who has taken up the sword to help defend his Swiss canton from a Catholic army. Luckily his replacement, Heinrich Bullinger, steps up to lead the faithful of Zurich almost immediately.

**In the New World:** Activity in the New World hits a lull. St. John’s, Newfoundland (the oldest city in North America founded by Europeans) becomes an active base for English, French, Basque, Portuguese, and Spanish cod fishermen. Still trying to get someone to equal Magellan’s feat, Charles V sends Sebastian Cabot to the Moluccas. Cabot gets no further than the mouth of the Rio de la Plata. Even an expedition organized by Cortes from the western coast of Mexico (so that it would not need to enter the Strait of Magellan) fails, for the only ship that reaches the Spice Islands is seized by the Portuguese. Desperately short of funds, Charles concedes control of the Spice Islands to Portugal and arranges for the Sale of Moluccas.

**Turn 4 (1532-1535)**

The Ottomans make the first big move during this period, once again marching toward Vienna in April 1532. This time Suleiman elects to march west from Mohacs, instead of heading up the Danube River valley to Buda. The Hapsburg garrison at Guns [Graz space in Here I Stand] puts up a valiant fight however, delaying the Ottoman advance for three weeks. Suleiman contents himself with razing the Austrian countryside but does not besiege Vienna.

The Ottomans also pose a dire threat along the Mediterranean coastline. Barbarossa’s fleet of 84 vessels almost captures the fair Julia Gonzaga for Suleiman’s harem. Failing at this, Barbarossa moves on Tunis instead, taking the city bloodlessly when its ruler flees on Barbarossa’s approach. It is this moment when Clement VII dies. After a brief conclave, Alessandro Farnese ascends to the Papal throne as Pope Paul III, the first Pope born in Rome in almost 200 years. Paul III funds Charles V to counterattack Barbarossa. In 1535, Charles and Andrea Doria assemble a fleet of 400 ships and 30,000 men and retake Tunis after a one-month campaign.

The religious struggles expand beyond Germany. Paul III chooses Gasparo Contarini as one of his cardinals. Meanwhile, Henry VIII selects 37 year-old Thomas Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury. Cranmer finally annuls Henry’s marriage to Catherine, clearing the way for Anne Boleyn to become Queen of England. Henry works with Parliament to get the Act of Supremacy passed so Rome can no longer interfere in English religious affairs. Nicholas Cop delivers a stirring address at the University of Paris, revealing that Protestant thought has crept into France as well. Cop and John Calvin (who at age 25 may have helped write Cop’s address) are forced to flee the country. Nonetheless, Protestant circles remain in Paris, as evidenced by the Affair of the Placards the following year. The French also publish a Bible in their native tongue (translation by Pierre Robert Olivetan), as do the English (Tyndale and Miles Coverdale), and the Germans (Luther and Melanchthon).

**In the New World:** Suddenly the Spanish luck in the New World picks back up. In 1532, Francisco Pizarro, with an army of less than 200 men, walks into the midst of a raging civil war within the Inca Empire. Taking some pages from Cortes’ book, he captures their leader Atahualpa, extracts an enormous ransom, and then kills him. These actions complete the disintegration of the once mighty empire. Further to the north, the French explorer Jacques Cartier follows the St. Lawrence River for 1,000 miles to Montreal in an attempt to find the Northwest Passage. Cartier’s findings focus the upcoming French efforts on this new region, a place he named Canada after the Huron-Iroquois word for village.

**Turn 5 (1536-1539)**

1536 was one of the more dangerous years of the period. Ibrahim Pasha is assassinated while campaigning in Persia, probably at the behest of Suleiman’s new wife Roxelana. William Tyndale is tried for heresy and burnt at the stake near Brussels. In England, Catherine of Aragon dies of cancer and Anne Boleyn falls from grace after another miscarriage. Anne is soon beheaded, allowing Henry to marry Jane Seymour (thus making 1536 “The Year of Three Queens”). One year later, Jane dies after giving birth to Henry’s long-desired male heir, Edward VI.

Henry and Thomas Cromwell begin their Dissolution of the Monasteries to seize church property. Catholics in England revolt, starting a movement known as the Pilgrimage of Grace, demanding the arrest of Cromwell, Cranmer and Hugh Latimer. Through deceit, Henry is able to capture the rebels and crush the rebellion. Calvin’s Institutes, a massive 1500-page book that provides a systematic theology for a reformed church, was published at this time. Calvin himself passes through Geneva and is stopped by William Farel and convinced to stay and make Geneva a Protestant city. Despite the fact that Calvin and Farel quarrel with city officials and are expelled for 3 years, Geneva will soon become the center of the French-speaking Reformation.

**In the New World:** Events in the New World take a few interesting twists. Alzar Nunez Cabeza De Vaca, one of the members of Narvaez’s disastrous expedition to Florida, resurfaces 8 years later in northwestern Mexico, having journeyed thousands of miles. He writes the oldest surviving travelogue for America, describing both his encounters with Native Americans and the legend of the golden cities of Cibola. Meanwhile, French Protestants sailors, predominantly Huguenots from southern France, begin to raid Spanish shipping returning from the New World. At first just a nuisance, the activity of these raiders increases steadily; by 1538 they are able to burn Havana to the ground. Finally, a new scientific approach to exploration is introduced through the works of Gerardus Mercator, a Dutch map maker commissioned in 1537 to create a globe for Charles V. Mercator is soon publishing world maps that depict the New World with greater accuracy than ever before.
Turn 6 (1540-1543)
For a brief time, the French and Hapsburgs enjoy close diplomatic relations. The plans are even for Francis’ third son to marry Charles’ daughter and receive the Duchy of Milan as the dowry. Fearing a Franco-Hapsburg invasion of England, Henry VIII allies with the Protestants and agrees to marry Anne of Cleves. That unconsummated marriage is followed in rapid succession by marriages to Kathryn Howard and Katherine Parr.

However, Charles reneges on his marriage promise; Anne de Montmorency takes the fall for the failure of this diplomatic effort. A new period of fighting commences with the French opposing the Hapsburgs and English. To counter these foes, Francis allies closely with the Ottomans, even allowing Barbarossa’s huge fleet to spend the winter in southern France. Ottoman successes during the period include the recapture of Buda and the successful defense of Algiers against Charles’ ill-fated mission there.

The Counter Reformation gains momentum with Papal bulls being issued in 1540 for the formation of Society of Jesus (under Ignatius Loyola) and in 1542 for the Papal Inquisition (led by Giovanni Pietro Caraffa). In Germany, Peter Faber is also successful in returning key clergy members back to the Catholic fold. It is no wonder that Nicolaus Copernicus is hesitant to publish his new theory that the earth revolves around the sun.

In the New World: Cartier returns to the New World for the final time, accompanied by Jean Francois de Roberval, who found the colony of Charlesbourg Royale near present day Quebec City. Meanwhile, De Vaca’s legend of riches of Cibola takes hold in the minds of the Spanish. Francisco Coronado and Hernando De Soto are sent on simultaneous missions across North America in search of this treasure. Of course neither succeed, but they return having discovered the Grand Canyon and Mississippi River. Further to the south, another river is explored - namely the Amazon. Francisco de Orellana turns an expedition to search for cinnamon trees into an amazing 3,000-mile trek downriver from the Amazon headwaters to the Atlantic.

Turn 7 (1544-1547)
The war between France and England continues to heat up. Henry travels across the continent to Boulogne to ensure that his army takes that city, the last military success of his rule. Meanwhile the French try a naval invasion of southern England; it is repulsed by John Dudley at the Battle of the Solent.

The Counter Reformation builds more speed. The Council of Trent opens with Reginald Pole as one of the presiding members. Michelangelo is appointed chief architect for St. Peter’s Basilica. George Wishart is captured and burnt at the stake in Scotland; his disciple, John Knox, is also imprisoned as a galley slave.

Meanwhile, several of the leading protagonists pass away. Luther dies in 1546; Barbarossa dies the same year. Dragut fills his shoes quickly, soon becoming a scourge of the Mediterranean. Henry VIII and Francis I also die, but one year later. Their sons Edward VI and Henry II accede to those thrones.

Charles makes peace with the Turks. At last he is free to strike at the Protestant homeland. Using the defection of Maurice of Saxony and the military talents of the Duke of Alva, Charles wins a decisive victory at Mühlberg, pocketing both Protestant military leaders.

In the New World: The Spanish never did find their New World city of gold, but in 1545, they uncover the next best thing - a mountain of silver. Named Cerro Rico (“rich hill” in Spanish) this mountain at Potosi (in modern day Bolivia) becomes the greatest boom town during the Age of Discovery. Despite being located at 13,000 feet above sea level and deep in the interior of South America, Potosi grows to a population of 150,000 by the end of the century, making it the largest city in the New World and comparable in size to many of the capitals in Europe. The annual shipments of silver back to Spain become a driving force behind the growing European economy and a major contributor to the high inflation that persists in Europe for the next century. The Spanish also enjoy one additional triumph in the New World: namely the conquest of the Maya. Francisco de Montejo finally takes control of the Maya’s Yucatan homeland, succeeding where his father’s two earlier expeditions could not.

Turn 8 (1548-1551)
The reign of Edward VI in England allows for the steady advancement of the Protestant faith. Bucer is invited to reside there. Archbishop Cranmer issues the first edition of the Book of Common Prayer which will standardize the worship across all parishes in England.

In France, new taxes lead to the Gabelle Revolt. Henry II sends the newly rehabilitated Montmorency to deal harshly with the rebels. Meanwhile Suleiman launches his second campaign against the Persians. Dragut captures Tripoli and sets up a new base for piracy there.

Finally, Peter Canisius, a disciple of Faber’s, continues the work of the Jesuits, this time in Bavaria. With Paul III’s death in 1550, Canisius is now working for the new Pope, Julius III. Born in Rome, Julius had opened the first Council of Trent. During his five-year stint as Pope, he will renew the charter for the Jesuit Order and sponsor a second session of the Council of Trent.

Turn 9 (1552-1555)
The closing chapter of Charles V’s reign is not a happy one. The Hapsburg army is surprised by Maurice of Saxony, forcing Charles to beat a hasty retreat to Innsbruck. Henry II, now a Protestant ally, seizes Metz with his French army. Charles and Alva campaign against Henry and invest the city, but are unable to force the French to surrender.

Michael Servetus, a radical theologian and scientist, is burnt at the stake for heresy by John Calvin.

Mary I rises to the throne of England, displacing the upstart Lady Jane Grey. The new Lord Chancellor, Stephen Gardiner, begins to crack down on heresy across England. Mary marries Charles’ son Philip in 1554. But Mary and Philip will produce no heir that could transform England into a Hapsburg possession.

Charles gives Ferdinand authority to deal with all German matters. Ferdinand agrees to the Peace of Augsburg; this agreement allows each German prince to decide whether or not his realm will follow the Lutheran or Catholic faith. At least in Germany, the Protestants have achieved independence from the Catholic Church. Charles abdicates, leaving Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip.

In the New World: The final push in the New World during the period covered in the game is made by the English under Edward and Mary. Edward’s first move is to recruit Sebastian Cabot away from Spain. Cabot suggests a search for a northwest passage to China.
and draws up an ordinance for Hugh Willoughby to lead the first voyage. Willoughby and his crew freeze to death in the Arctic. However, Richard Chancellor, captain of one of the three ships in Willoughby’s expedition, makes it to the White Sea and continues overland to Moscow, arriving at the court of Ivan IV and establishing new trade ties with Russia.

CHARACTERS OF THE REFORMATION

Brief biographies of each of the debaters, army leaders, naval leaders, explorers, conquistadors, wives, and those featured on cards follow in the sections below. Within each group they are presented in the order in which they were referenced in the section “The Game As History.” Specific biographies of the rulers and reformers have not been included; the life and work of these principal characters is assumed to already be covered in plenty of detail in “The Game As History.”

Debaters

Johann Tetzel (1465?-1519)

At the age of 17, Johann Tetzel traveled to Leipzig to enter the Dominican Order. In 1503, he made his first appearance as a vendor of indulgences, selling for the Teutonic Order in Magdeburg, Bremen, and Riga. He traveled across Germany for the next seven years, continuing to sell indulgences advertised to reduce the time that loved ones would have to spend in Purgatory.

In 1516, he reemerged, this time as the leading vendor of indulgences in Germany to support Leo X’s efforts to build St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome. He used the catch phrase: “When the coin in the coffer rings, the soul from purgatory springs.” Tetzel’s relentless campaigning served as a catalyst inducing Luther to post his 95 Theses. The controversy soon spilled out into public debate; Tetzel offered his 106 anti-theses as a rebuttal. Ultimately, however popular sentiment turned toward Luther and against Tetzel. Tetzel retired back to the Dominican monastery in disgrace. He became the scapegoat for the Papacy’s poor handling of Luther’s early attacks on the church and died a broken man soon thereafter.

Tommaso de Vio Cajetan (1469-1534)

Born as Jacopo Vio, he entered the Dominican Order at age 15 and studied Thomas Aquinas (thus taking on the monastic name Tommaso). The surname Cajetan is derived from Gaeta, outside Naples, where he was born. By the age of 30, Cajetan was a doctor of theology at Padua. In 1517, Leo X made him a cardinal, appointing him as the archbishop of Palermo.

In 1518, he was sent as the Papal legate to the Diet of Augsburg, where he was asked to examine the teachings of the upstart monk, Martin Luther. During his audience with Cajetan, Luther refused to recant. Instead, he drew Cajetan into debates of scripture, which Luther easily won. Frustrated by the entire experience, Cajetan said, “I do not want to have any further parley with that beast; for he has sharp eyes and fantastical speculations in his head.”

Cajetan would go on to write the Papal Bull of excommunication against Luther and the decision denying Henry VIII an annulment of his marriage to Catherine of Aragon. He died in Rome in 1534.

Andreas Carlstadt (1480-1541)

Andreas Carlstadt joined the faculty at Wittenberg at age 24, becoming the co-worker of Luther and Philip Melanchthon. He shared much in common in Luther; in fact, he published 152 theses against indulgences in April 1517, six months before Luther posted his own theses on the door of the Castle Church (Luther just had better timing, posting his right before the town was packed for All Saints Day).

Carlstadt was a staunch defender of Luther’s work, especially against the early attacks from Johann Eck. To bring the conflict to a head, Eck challenged Carlstadt to a public debate in Leipzig in 1519. On June 27, 1519, Carlstadt took the stand against Eck. Crowds of students and faculty members had gathered from the universities of Leipzig and Wittenberg. On and off for 7 days the debate raged on the topics of the depravity of man and Papal primacy. Eck was Carlstadt’s clear superior; on July 4, Luther replaced Carlstadt and carried on for another 5 days. Overall the debate probably favored the Catholics, for Eck had exposed that Luther’s beliefs borrowed heavily from the Bohemian Hussites (who had been successfully tried as heretics a century earlier).

The most radical of the Wittenberg reformers, Carlstadt took an even more prominent role during Luther’s exile at the Wartburg. Leading the services in Wittenberg at this time, Carlstadt introduced sweeping changes: marrying a noble woman, denouncing pictures and images as idols, and wearing black academic robes instead of the usual vestments. Within months, all of Wittenberg was in turmoil. At a loss on how to control the situation, Frederick the Wise called Luther back out of Wartburg to restore order. Strongly censored by Luther, Carlstadt moved to Basel, where he died in 1541.

Johann Eck (1486-1543)

Johann Eck, a doctor of theology at age 24, was Luther’s chief antagonist during the early days of the Reformation. In response to Luther’s 95 Theses, Eck published his own Obelisci, accusing Luther of promoting heresy and fostering anarchy. At the Leipzig Debate that followed, Eck used his dialectic skill to best Carlstadt. Even against Luther (who Eck confessed was superior to himself in acumen and learning), Eck was able to hold his own. The theologians of Leipzig named him victor and showered him with gifts.

The following year, Leo X sent out Eck and Aleander with orders to publish the bull excommunicating Luther in the towns of Germany. Both were met by fierce resistance; even in Leipzig Eck had to hide in a cloister to avoid capture by an angry mob. Despite such dangers, Eck would continue his attacks against the Protestants for the remainder of his life. He sparred with Luther, Zwingli, Melanchthon, and Bucer during these years and served as the primary Catholic representative at the German Diets at Augsburg (1530), Worms (1540) and Regensburg (1541).

Jerome Aleander (1480-1542)

Born as Girolamo Aleandro outside Venice, Aleander was one of the most learned men of the time, occupying the position of Rector of the University of Paris around 1508. He traveled to Rome, and in 1519, was appointed the librarian of the Vatican by Leo X.

His first exposure to the Reformation was at the Diet of Worms, which he attended as the Papal representative. At Worms, he fiercely denounced Luther, polarizing the opinions on both sides of the de-
bated. He ended up writing the Edict of Worms which branded Luther as an outlaw and made it illegal to read any of Luther’s works.

Alexander next moved to the Netherlands, where he persecuted two monks from Antwerp, who were burnt at the stake in 1523, the first martyrs of the Reformation. Alexander was a member of the court of Francis I during the Battle of Pavia; he was captured and released only after payment of a heavy ransom. He was made a cardinal in 1536 by Paul III, remaining in Rome until his death there six years later.

**Martin Bucer (1491-1551)**
Born in Alsace, Martin Bucer was a Dominican doctor of theology and an avid follower of the humanist scholar Erasmus. He heard Luther speak at a public disputation in Heidelberg in 1518 and soon became an enthusiastic disciple. In 1522, he married, one of the first Protestants to take that step. He was subsequently excommunicated and returned to the friendly confines of Strasburg, which he developed into one of the key hubs of the Reformation.

Bucer was a strong advocate of Lutheran unity, and tried several times to craft a statement of beliefs that would be acceptable to both Lutheran and Zwinglian leaders. Although such a reconciliation never occurred, Bucer remained influential, convincing Calvin of the importance of lay participation in church affairs during Calvin’s exile from Geneva. During his lifetime he published an amazing total of 96 treatises.

In 1549, Bucer accepted Cranmer’s invitation to move to England, then a friendly home to Protestants under the rule of Edward VI. In England, Bucer helped craft the 1552 revision to the Book of Common Prayer. He died however in 1551, and was buried with great dignity in the Oxford University church. However, the upheaval of the English Reformation still did not afford him peace; in 1557 Mary’s agents exhumed his body, demolished his tomb, and burnt his remains at the stake. His honors were, however, restored at Cambridge once Elizabeth took the English throne.

**William Tyndale (1495-1536)**
William Tyndale was born in Gloucestershire, England in 1495. He immediately showed a great facility with languages, being able to read Latin fluently by age 10. Just 2 years later, he was enrolled at the University of Oxford; he gained his MA degree there in 1515. A colleague commented that Tyndale is “so skilled in eight languages - Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Spanish, French, Italian, English, and German, that whichever he speaks, you might think it his native tongue!”

Tyndale applied these language skills to the study of scripture and the works of Reformers such as Martin Luther and Ulrich Zwingli. He was ordained a priest in 1521, taking a position as a family tutor in the Cotswold region soon thereafter. He would espouse his reform beliefs to guests of the manor, engaging and besetting them in theological debates by quoting exact citations from scripture.

Tyndale’s goal became putting copies of the Bible into the hands of the common folk of England. He would start by translating the New Testament into English from the original Greek. He is reputed to have said to a local Catholic priest: “I defy the Pope and all his laws. If God spare my life ere many years, I will cause the boy that drives the plow to know more of the scriptures than you!”

Tyndale moved to London and sought out Cuthbert Tunstall, the Bishop of London, as a possible patron for his biblical translation project. However, Tyndale’s timing was poor. Henry VIII’s initial reaction to Luther’s Reformation was one of vehement opposition. In 1521 he worked with Sir Thomas More to write the anti-Lutheran tract *Declaration of the Seven Sacraments Against Martin Luther*, a work which caused Pope Leo X to award Henry with the title “Defender of the Faith.” Clearly there was going to be no support for translations of the Bible in the English vernacular during this period of Henry’s reign.

So in May of 1524, Tyndale embarked for Hamburg, never to see his native England again. He made his way from the coast to Wittenberg where he could confer with Luther and his colleague Philipp Melanchthon directly. Within a year he had completed his translation of the New Testament and taken it to Worms for publication. By 1526, the first run of 3000 copies had been printed. These copies were then hidden in cases of dry goods and sent out for shipment to England.

Henry VIII had been alerted to the contraband entering the country and had put watches out at all of the ports. Tunstall issued a decree that read in part: “...that many children of iniquity, maintainers of Luther’s sect, blinded through extreme wickedness, wandering from the way of truth and the Catholic faith, craftily have translated the New Testament into our English tongue.... [We] do charge you [to] bring in all such books...”

The books were collected and burned in front of St. Paul’s Cathedral in London. However, despite this huge book burning operation, Tyndale’s New Testament still spread through England. Tunstall was forced to work with Hapsburg agents in the Netherlands to try and stop the production overseas. Finding a cloth merchant that knew Tyndale, Tunstall offered to buy every copy possible at a handsome sum to keep them out of England. Working through his intermediary, Tyndale, now heavily in debt, closed the deal. The proceeds allowed him to pay off his loans and prepare a new and improved edition - all at the expense of the Catholic Church of England.

His luck did not hold out forever though. By 1529, he had completed his translation of the Pentateuch (the first 5 books of the Bible). Sailing from Antwerp to Hamburg (where his publisher awaited), Tyndale’s ship was wrecked; the translation and all reference books were lost. Working with Miles Coverdale, he was able to complete a retranslation over the course of the next year. The Pentateuch reached England by the summer of 1530. However, Tyndale was now a target for English and Hapsburg agents alike. He spent the next few years on the run, hopping from city to city on the continent. Finally in 1535, he was captured in Antwerp after being tricked into accepting an invitation to a dinner party. He spent over a year locked in a fortress north of Brussels. Finally he was tried for heresy, condemned, and burnt at the stake in October 1536.

Coverdale soon finished the Bible from Tyndale’s notes, however the heart of these first full English versions remained Tyndale’s rhythmic prose and clever translations. Much of his text was incorporated directly into the King James Version, a work that has carried forward to this day. Today, two copies still exist of the original run of 3000 Tyndale New Testaments printed in Worms in 1526. The British Library owns one of those copies, having purchased it for over a million pounds in 1994.

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Philip Melanchthon (1497-1560)
Philip changed his family name (Schwarzerd, literally “Black Earth”) to its Greek equivalent when he began studying humanism. He joined the faculty at Wittenberg as a professor of Greek in 1518. He would work at Luther’s side for the next 28 years, acting as a more diplomatic and scholarly complement to the Lutheran leader. As Luther himself commented: “I am the rough pioneer who must break the road; but Master Philipp comes along softly and gently, sows and waters heartily, since God has richly endowed him with gifts.”

Luther could not attend the Diet of Augsburg in 1530 since he was still a hunted man. With Luther’s absence, Melanchthon rose to prominence with his work to write and edit the Augsburg Confession. After Luther’s death, Melanchthon became the spiritual leader of the Lutheran church, carrying on in that capacity until his death.

Johannes Oekolampadius (1482-1531)
Johannes Oekolampadius, who adopted a Greek name like many of the 16th Century humanists (his means “house lamp”), was born in the Palatinate and studied in Bologna. He became the preacher at the cathedral in Basel in 1515. He spend about 18 months preaching in Augsburg around 1519, a time when he began correspondence with Luther and Melanchthon. Finally in 1522 he returned to Basel for good. He became Zwingli’s right-hand man helping with the Swiss Reformation and attended the Marburg Colloquy representing the Zwinglian point-of-view. He married in 1528; his wife (Wibrandis Rosenblatt) would go on to marry Martin Bucer 14 years later. He was quite ill when the news reached him that Zwingli had fallen in battle; he died brokenhearted shortly thereafter.

Lorenzo Campeggio (1474?-1539)
The son of a Bologna lawyer, Lorenzo Campeggio was also the father of five children. He entered the priesthood only after the death of his wife in 1509. He was made a cardinal just eight years later, just in time to see some of the key events of the Reformation. In 1518, he visited England, and became friendly with Henry VIII, who made him Bishop of Salisbury. He was also at Clement VII’s side during the Sack of Rome, saw Charles’ coronation as Holy Roman Emperor, negotiated with Melanchthon at the Diet of Augsburg in 1530, and was part of the concile that elected Paul III.

Campeggio is best known as the Papal legate to England who heard Henry’s case for a divorce from Catherine of Aragon. Under orders from Clement, Campeggio stalled and refused to give an opinion. On the final day of the session, just when everyone expected a verdict, Campeggio adjourned the court and fled England. He would only return to England in 1535, this time carrying a bull excommunicating Henry for his marriage of Anne Boleyn.

Heinrich Bullinger (1504-1575)
The Swiss reformer Heinrich Bullinger was born a generation after Zwingli. Bullinger heard Zwingli speak at Zurich in 1527 and followed him to Berne for the debate there the following year. After Zwingli’s death at the Battle of Kappel, Bullinger and his family moved to Zurich permanently. On the Sunday after he arrived, he “thundered a sermon from the pulpit that many thought Zwingli was not dead but resurrected like the phoenix.” He would preside over that church until his death 44 years later.

Bullinger was an amazing correspondent, giving him the ability to influence the Reformation across Europe, especially in England where he and Martin Bucer helped shape Anglican worship. An amazing 12,000 of his letters exist to this day. He corresponded with theologians of the Lutheran, Reformed, Calvinist, and Anglican faiths and such other notables as Philip of Hesse, Henry VIII, Edward VI, Elizabeth I, and Lady Jane Grey.

Gasparo Contarini (1483-1542)
Born into a noble Venetian family, Gasparo Contarini attended the University of Padua, studying science, philosophy, and theology. Late in 1520, he became the Venetian ambassador to the court of Charles V, serving in that capacity until 1525. Similarly, he was the representative at the papal court of Clement VII from 1528 to 1530, attending the coronation of Charles V during that time. He was active in a group of reformed Catholics that included Reginald Pole and Giovanni Pietro Caraffa.

In 1535, Paul III made Contarini a cardinal. He worked to curb abuses within the Catholic church, and helped promote the creation of the Society of Jesus. At Charles’ behest, Contarini was sent as papal legate to Germany for the conference at Regensburg in 1541. He was not able to reconcile the Catholics and Protestants that attended and died the following year.

Nicholas Cop
Almost nothing is known of Nicholas Cop except his brief stint as rector of the University of Paris in 1533. On All Saints Day, Cop preached the opening convocation at the start of the academic year. Cop’s message was a Protestant one; namely that salvation is granted by faith alone, not through good works.

Cop was summoned to explain his speech but he fled Paris instead. Francis put up a reward for the capture of Cop, but he was able to escape to Basel. Jean Calvin was a friend of Cop’s and he fled Paris at this time too. Some sources point to the possibility that Calvin was the writer behind Cop’s speech, but that is not confirmed. After Cop’s speech, the Protestants in France became bolder, launching the Affair of the Placards early the next year.

Pierre Robert Olivetan (1506?-1538)
Born in Picardy, Pierre Robert adopted the nickname Olivetan (literally “Midnight Oil”) based on his proclivity to work late into the night. He attended university at both Paris and Orleans, adopting Protestant beliefs during that time. John Calvin was his cousin; many claim that Olivetan was the first person to get the Protestant fires burning within Calvin. In 1528, Olivetan was suspected of heretical beliefs and fled to Strasbourg.

Five years later, he moved up to the Alps and lived among the Waldensians, teaching the children of this community of long-standing religious outcasts. The Waldensian elders became interested in a new translation of the Bible in French and made a gift of 500 crowns to fund Olivetan for that work. Using the French Bible of Jacques Lefevre D’etaples as a guide, Olivetan completed a new version based on translating from the Hebrew Old Testament and the Greek New Testament. It was published in 1535 and remained the definitive French Bible for 350 years. Olivetan died in Italy at the early age of 32; he bequeathed his extensive library to his cousin Calvin.
Hugh Latimer (1485?-1555)

Hugh Latimer was born into a family of Leicestershire farmers. He attended Christ’s College, Cambridge starting at age 14 and was a university preacher by 1522. Initially anti-Lutheran, he moved quickly toward reformed views after meeting Thomas Bilney.

Latimer was a dynamic, zealous preacher and a tireless advocate for the poor. He was often careless, getting in trouble for preaching that the Virgin Mary was a sinner, denying the existence of purgatory, and calling most bishops and abbots “thieves.” During Henry's reign he was twice imprisoned in the Tower of London, but never for long, perhaps owing to the fact that he had been one of the first supporters of Henry’s marriage to Anne Boleyn. During Edward’s reign, Latimer could finally speak freely. He would routinely preach at least twice each Sunday, whipping the faithful into a frenzy so that parish ledgers often recorded expenses to “mend divers pews that were broken when Dr. Latimer did preach.”

When Mary took the throne, Latimer knew his days were numbered. In October 1555, he and Bishop Nicholas Ridley were burnt at the stake in Oxford, becoming some of the most famous Protestant martyrs. Just before the fires were lit, Latimer said: “Be of good cheer, Master Ridley, and play the man, for we shall this day light such a candle in England as I trust by God’s grace shall never be put out.”

William Farel (1489-1565)

At age 20, William Farel left his home in southeast France to study at Paris. Coming under the influence of Jacques Lefèvre D’etaples, Farel developed Protestant views, and decided to leave France in 1523. He went first to Basel, where he met Oekolampadius. He was chased from Basel and began to preach his fiery sermons across Switzerland. Finally in 1533, he settled in Geneva.

In 1536, Calvin was passing through town on his way to Strasbourg. Farel had read Calvin’s Institutes and knew he needed someone with Calvin’s organizational skills. He convinced Calvin to stay and they began to implement their program. However, a quarrel with the city administrators caused Calvin and Farel to be expelled in 1538. They went to Strasbourg and saw the work that Bucer had accomplished there in setting up a church-led city-state. Farel officiated at Calvin’s marriage in Strasbourg in 1540. Calvin was invited back to Geneva in 1541; Farel returned to Neuchâtel instead. Farel remained friends with Calvin, although they had a brief falling out when the 69-year-old Farel married a young woman late in life.

Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556)

Íñigo López de Loyola was born in the Basque province of Spain. He fought against the French during the 1521 invasion of Navarre and was severely wounded during the fighting. During his recuperation, he read religious texts and developed an uncanny ability to analyze the human mind and emotions. He took notes on his spiritual experiences, collecting them in a book that would later be published as his Spiritual Exercises.

His first name was changed to Ignatius due to a scribal error when he matriculated to the University of Paris in 1528. At Paris, he led a circle of friends with similar religious beliefs, including Peter Faber and Francis Xavier. This group founded the Society of Jesus in 1534 and decided to travel to Rome to obtain Papal blessing. In 1538 they reached Rome; two years later a Papal Bull was published officially creating the Jesuit Order. Ignatius would be the first Superior General of the Jesuits.

Loyola then sent individual Jesuits out across both Europe and the New World with a charter to teach and to found colleges, universities and seminaries. Armed with the teachings of Jesuits such as Loyola, Faber, and Canisius, the Counter Reformation was now fully prepared to battle the Protestants.

Giovanni Pietro Caraffa (1476-1559)

The son of a prominent family from Naples, Caraffa was ambassador to England and Spain under Leo X. He developed a hatred toward the Spanish, who were ruling his native Naples at this time. In 1524, he resigned his church office and helped form the Theatines, a male ascetic order based in northern Italy. Members of this group founded Catholic oratories, missions, and hospitals while dedicating themselves to strict norms of behavior including vows of poverty.

Paul III made Caraffa a cardinal in 1536 and bishop of Naples shortly thereafter. His hatred of the Spanish continued, and he feuded with both Loyola’s Jesuits and Charles V. In 1542, after the failure of the Regensburg Colloquy, Paul III issued a bull forming the Papal Inquisition. Caraffa became inquisitor-general. A man with a violent temper and a firm belief that heretics should be punished severely, Caraffa used this opportunity to unleash a reign of terror on non-believers. Protestant and Jewish books were destroyed in mass book burnings. Caraffa pledged: “Even if my own father were a heretic, I would gather the wood to burn him.”

In 1555, Caraffa was elected Pope Paul IV, against the wishes of Charles V. His four-year Papacy saw the Papacy at war with Charles’ son Philip. Caraffa issued the first Index of Forbidden Books in 1559, shortly before his death.
Peter Faber (1506-1546)
The son of a Savoy shepherd, Peter Faber (or Pierre Favre) traveled to Paris in 1525 to enter studies toward a clerical vocation. His roommate at the university was Francis Xavier of Navarre. The two soon became acquainted with Ignatius Loyola, thus forming the nucleus of the Jesuit Order.

After the Jesuit Order had been founded, Faber took the lead role in the Counter Reformation of Germany. He worked in Mainz, Cologne, Regensburg and Worms, using Loyola’s Spiritual Exercises to reform and strengthen Catholic beliefs, especially among the priesthood. He did not confront the Protestants directly, instead stating: “If we will help the heretics of this time, we have to be attentive to look at them with love, to love them in truth, and to banish out of our hearts any thought that could lessen our reverence for them. Pastoral care, dialogue, benevolence, and confidence will help; controversy, which would only bring the partner into discredit, would not help.”

Worn out by years of traveling on foot across Germany, Italy, France, Spain, and Portugal, Faber died with Loyola at his side in Rome in 1546.

Reginald Pole (1500-1558)
The grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, Pole was a Yorkist claimant to the throne of England. He studied theology at Oxford and in Italy. Henry offered him the position of Archbishop of York, but he refused. Eventually he returned overseas, studying once more at Padua and Paris.

In 1536, Paul III elected Pole as a cardinal. Pole presided over the Council of Trent twice. In 1549, upon the death of Paul III, Pole missed election as Pope by just a single vote. The conservative regime of Paul IV now prevailed in Rome. Pole did not get along with Paul IV and returned to England after Mary took the throne. She made him Archbishop of Canterbury, an office he would hold until his death in 1558, just a few hours after Mary passed away.

George Wishart (1513?-1546)
Born on the east coast of Scotland, George Wishart attended King’s College, Aberdeen and the University of Louvain. He returned to Scotland and began teaching the New Testament in Greek. In 1538, he was investigated on charges of heresy and fled, first to the continent and then to England. By 1544, he had slipped back into Scotland and began working with John Knox, his disciple. For almost two years he preached across Scotland, narrowly eluding the pursuit of the Catholic authorities. Finally late in 1545 he was captured and sentenced to be burnt. On that day, the gunpowder exploded but did not kill him, making him suffer a prolonged death. Outrage from his execution helped fuel the Protestant cause in Scotland

John Knox (1505?-1572)
Born in Lothian, east of Edinburgh, Knox was son of a Scot who fought the English at the Battle of Flodden Field in 1513. He was ordained a priest in 1536 and became a disciple of George Wishart. When Wishart was captured, Knox fled, but he was captured in the castle of St. Andrews and forced to spend three years rowing on a French galley (1547-1549). On his release he went to Edward VI’s Protestant England, where he preached at Berwick and London.

On Edward’s death, Knox left for the continent. He studied under Calvin in Geneva and would use that knowledge to establish the Presbyterian church in Scotland after his return home in 1559.

Peter Canisius (1521-1597)
Canisius was born in Nijmegen and attended the university of Cologne. There he met his mentor, Faber. He was inducted into the Jesuit Order in 1543, the first German to be so honored. He founded a number of Jesuit colleges in Germany and wrote a catechism in the German language. He stayed in Germany, actively promoting the Catholic cause until age 59.

Stephen Gardiner (1493?-1555)
The son of a cloth merchant from Bury St. Edmunds in Suffolk, England, Gardiner studied to be a doctor of both civil and canon law, achieving both by 1521. He became secretary to Cardinal Thomas Wolsey, who sent him to Clement VII to argue Henry’s divorce case. In 1531, he succeeded Wolsey as Bishop of Winchester. His treatise De vera obedientia, published in 1535, is still widely regarded as the best argument for English monarchs to head the Church of England.

After 1539, he became a stern critic of Protestantism. He attacked Cranmer for heresy and forced Latimer to resign. However, upon Henry’s death, the tables turned. He was imprisoned in the Tower of London for most of the 5-year reign of Edward VI. He did however still participate in theological debates from the Tower, publishing under a pseudonym abroad.

Finally, Mary I became queen and Gardiner’s ascent was complete. She made him Lord Chancellor of England. He revived the old heresy laws, setting the stage for the bloody persecutions that would follow. He presided at heresy hearings throughout the first two years of Mary’s reign (until his death in 1555), but died before the famous burnings of Latimer, Ridley and Cranmer.

Army Leaders

Charles Brandon (1484-1544)
Charles Brandon was the son of Sir William Brandon, the standard bearer for Henry VII during his great triumph at Bosworth. The elder Brandon died in that battle, killed by the hand of the Yorkist king, Richard III. Charles grew up at court and became a lifelong friend of Henry VIII. Brandon was English Master of Horse during Henry’s 1513 campaign against France; he would personally lead two other English attacks on France in both 1523 and 1544.

Brandon became 1st Duke of Suffolk in 1514. Shortly thereafter, the elderly French king Louis XII died, and his wife, Henry’s beautiful sister Mary Tudor, was left a widow. Brandon and Mary had long been in love; they were married against Henry’s wishes in 1515. Brandon played a major role in Henry’s court throughout his reign: he conveyed the news to Queen Catherine of Henry’s marriage to Anne Boleyn, he acted as High Steward at Anne Boleyn’s coronation, and he benefited greatly from the Dissolution of the Monasteries.

Charles Bourbon (1490-1527)
Officially known as Charles III of Bourbon-Montpensier, Eighth Duke of Bourbon, he was a nobleman with claim to the lands of Auvergne in France. In 1505, he married Suzanne, Duchess of Bourbon, adding another huge tract of land to his demesne that now stretched across central France, mostly to the west of Lyon.
An accomplished soldier in the Italian Wars, Bourbon was appointed Constable of France in 1515 and was rewarded by Francis for his service at the battle of Marignano by being made governor of Milan. However, his relationship with Francis soon soured. The final breach occurred upon the death of Suzanne when the claim to her lands became disputed between Bourbon and Francis’ mother, Louise of Savoy. Knowing he wasn’t going to win such a dispute against the queen mother, Bourbon offered his services to Charles V. The plot was discovered and he fled to Italy.

Once in Italy, Bourbon was given imperial troops to lead. He marched back to France and briefly besieged Marseille, an action that ultimately led to the Pavia campaign. After the victory at Pavia, Bourbon was left in charge of the imperial army in northern Italy. Within two years, there was no money to pay these troops. Their looting campaign led to the sack of Rome; Bourbon was killed during the assault on the city walls.

Ibrahim Pasha (1493-1536), Ottoman
Ibrahim Pasha was born in 1493, the son of a Greek sailor. The Mediterranean sea coast was a dangerous place in those days, and Ibrahim was captured by Turkish corsairs while still a young boy. He was lucky enough to be sold to a widow in the region of Magnesia (part of Thessalonica on the northwest shore of the Aegean) who saw to his education within the local Greek Christian community. He was soon able to speak Turkish, Persian, Greek and Italian.

At the time, Suleiman was heir to the throne and governor of Macedonia. He took an immediate liking to Ibrahim, who was nearly the same age, making him a page at court. Upon Suleiman’s accession to the imperial throne in 1520, Ibrahim was appointed as the Head Falconer for the court in Istanbul.

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Falconer for the court in Istanbul.

Upon his return from the battle of Pavia, Ibrahim was made an imperial officer and soon rose to the rank of second-in-command of the Ottoman forces. He was known for his military prowess and his ability to negotiate favorable deals with the leaders of the Catholic powers. The Venetian diplomats even referred to him as “Ibrahim the Magnificent”, a play on Suleiman’s usual sobriquet. In 1533, he convinced Charles V to turn Hungary into an Ottoman vassal state.

In 1535, he completed a monumental agreement with Francis I that gave France favored trade status within the Ottoman empire in exchange for joint action against the Hapsburgs. This agreement would set the stage for joint Franco-Ottoman naval maneuvers, including the bashing of the entire Ottoman fleet in southern France during the winter of 1543.

Ibrahim’s power had continued to grow, and it was now rivaling that of Suleiman himself. Suleiman most favored wife, Roxelana, began to push for Ibrahim to be removed. Although the exact motivation and plot is not known, Ibrahim was indeed murdered in 1536, while campaigning against the Persians.

In 1524, a revolt broke out in Egypt. Suleiman dispatched Ibrahim to deal with the crisis. Ibrahim was successful in reestablishing Ottoman authority in Egypt, using his diplomatic skills to bring the rebel Mameluks in line and establish a new system of taxation that helped keep the peace in Egypt for over a century. Upon his return to Istanbul, Ibrahim married Suleiman’s sister and was made general-in-chief of the Ottoman military. His rise to power had been meteoric. He is reputed to have begged Suleiman not to advance him so far that his fall from power would ruin him. But now he was second to only the Sultan himself.

Suleiman and Ibrahim first launched a major campaign together into Hungary in 1526. Torrential rain and hailstorms plagued their march up the Danube river valley well into the summer. The river Drava was a major obstacle to the Ottoman advance, with some military experts estimating that it would take 3 months to bridge the river. Under Ibrahim’s guidance, the bridge was instead completed in 3 days. Once the Ottoman host was across, Suleiman had the army in place in those days, and Ibrahim was captured by Turkish corsairs while still a young boy. He was lucky enough to be sold to a widow in the region of Magnesia (part of Thessalonica on the northwest shore of the Aegean) who saw to his education within the local Greek Christian community. He was soon able to speak Turkish, Persian, Greek and Italian.

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At the time, Suleiman was heir to the throne and governor of Macedonia. He took an immediate liking to Ibrahim, who was nearly the same age, making him a page at court. Upon Suleiman’s accession to the imperial throne in 1520, Ibrahim was appointed as the Head Falconer for the court in Istanbul. He rose through a series of offices, all the while remaining at Suleiman’s side day and night. The two friends, one the Sultan, the other a former slave, conferred together regularly about the affairs of the ever-expanding Ottoman empire. Ibrahim’s outgoing and upbeat personality was a perfect foil to Suleiman’s withdrawn, often melancholic nature.

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Ibrahim would campaign in Hungary with Suleiman several more times. Ibrahim took personal command of the siege preparations in front of Vienna in 1529. But the Austrian capital withstood Ottoman approaches both then and three years later in 1532.

On the diplomatic front, however, Ibrahim’s work with Western Christendom was a complete success. Posing as “the real power behind the Ottoman empire” to the west, Ibrahim used a variety of tactics to negotiate favorable deals with the leaders of the Catholic powers. The Venetian diplomats even referred to him as “Ibrahim the Magnificent”, a play on Suleiman’s usual sobriquet. In 1533, he convinced Charles V to turn Hungary into an Ottoman vassal state. In 1535, he completed a monumental agreement with Francis I that gave France favored trade status within the Ottoman empire in exchange for joint action against the Hapsburgs. This agreement would set the stage for joint Franco-Ottoman naval maneuvers, including the bashing of the entire Ottoman fleet in southern France during the winter of 1543.

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Ferdinand’s key test was the defense of Vienna in 1529. The city held, but through no effort on Ferdinand’s part; he had already fled to Bohemia. Four years later he signed a treaty with the Ottomans, splitting Hungary into thirds.

Later Ferdinand become a staunch supporter of the Counter Reformation, inviting Jesuits into Vienna (1551) and Prague (1555). After Charles’ abdication, Ferdinand became the Holy Roman Emperor.

Philip of Hesse (1504-1567)
Philip, Landgrave of Hesse, was one of the secular and military leaders of the Reformation in Germany. He was the founder of the first Protestant university in Marburg, the host of the Marburg Colloquy, one of the two founding fathers of the Schmalkaldic League, and a signer of both the “protest” at the Diet of Speyer and the original 1530 Augsburg Confession.

The one blemish to his record was that he was not faithful to his wife. In 1540 he asked Bucer and Melanchthon to approve his bigamy with a second wife. In secret, they did attend Philip’s second marriage, though Melanchthon had second thoughts about his role immediately. When word of the situation leaked out, the resulting scandal hurt the reputation of the Protestant cause significantly.

Philip surrendered to Charles V’s imperial forces soon after the Battle of Muhlberg, perhaps after being duped. He was an imperial prisoner for five years before being released at the Peace of Passau (1552).
**John Frederick (1503-1554)**

John Frederick was the nephew of Frederick the Wise, the cousin of Maurice of Saxony, and the elector of Saxony from 1524 until his death. He was a personal acquaintance and correspondent with Luther, and helped promote the publication of Luther’s writings. Like Philip he helped found the Schmalkaldic League and was a signor of the Augsburg Confession. His role in the Reformation is often viewed as nearly identical to that of Philip of Hesse. However it is important to note the John Frederick was a staunch Lutheran; Philip was more of a Zwinglian.

When the Schmalkaldic War started, he marched south to meet Charles, but instead was confronted with his treacherous cousin Maurice. John Frederick repelled Maurice, but was overcome and captured by the army of Charles V. He was released at the Peace of Passau five years later, just like Philip.

**Anne de Montmorency (1493-1567)**

A boyhood friend of Francis (one year older than the king), Montmorency accompanied him on almost every military and diplomatic encounter of the period. His first battlefield action was at Marignano in 1515, but it was his successful defense of Provence against Bourbon’s insurrection that first earned him renown as an excellent defensive campaigner. That reputation was further enhanced in 1537 when he halted Charles’ invasion into southeast France by using a scorched earth policy on the towns of Provence that prevented Charles from drawing supplies. After the peace with the Hapsburgs was concluded in 1538, Francis elevated Montmorency to the rank of Constable of France (an office that had been vacant since Bourbon’s defection).

Montmorency then advocated a spirit of peace and accord with the Hapsburgs. However, when a proposed marriage between Francis’ son and Charles’ daughter (that would award Milan to France) went awry, Montmorency caught the blame and was sent away in disgrace. He would not return to public life until 1547 with the accession of Henry II.

For Henry, Montmorency suppressed the Gabelle Revolt and helped capture Metz (1552), though he was captured in the relief of St. Quentin (1557). He was released in the subsequent peace and went on to fight in the Huguenot War of 1562. He died at the Battle of St. Denis in 1567.

**John Dudley (1501-1553)**

The son of Henry VII’s finance minister, Dudley served well in the 1523 campaign against France. Charles Brandon knighted him for his accomplishments there. By 1542 he became Lord High Admiral. He led the successful assault on Boulogne, participated in the sacking of Edinburgh, and directed the naval repulse of the French fleet at the Battle of the Solent.

He was named one of the 16 regents to rule during Edward’s minority, but the Duke of Somerset seized the reins of power. However, Somerset was unpopular, and other members encouraged Dudley to displace him. He toppled Somerset in 1549 and was named Duke of Northumberland shortly thereafter. He effectively ruled England for four years until Edward’s death. He hatched the plot to put Lady Jane Grey on the throne, an act which led to his execution.

**Maurice of Saxony (1521-1553)**

At age 19, Maurice elder son of Henry, Duke of Saxony married Agnes, daughter of Philip of Hesse. His father died that same year, allowing Maurice to inherit the dukedom. Initially a member of the Schmalkaldic League, Maurice soon realized that it could be politically expedient to ally with Charles V. In June 1546 he made a secret agreement with the Emperor that would allow him to inherit most of Saxony. He soon declared war on John Frederick. When Charles arrived with the Hapsburg army the next year, they combined to defeat John Frederick at Muhlberg. In the Capitulation of Wittenberg that followed, John Frederick ceded control of electoral Saxony to Maurice.

However, Maurice would not remain an imperial ally for long. Irritated by the continued imprisonment of his father-in-law Philip, Maurice now made secret deals with the Protestants and Henry II of France. He surprised Charles’ army in March 1552. Augsburg fell to Maurice and Charles barely escaped to Innsbruck. Maurice obtained Philip’s freedom and forced the emperor to agree to the Peace of Passau. He died in 1553 fighting yet another German rival.

**Duke of Alva (1508-1583)**

Fernando Álvarez de Toledo, the third Duke of Alva, was a Castilian general whose career began at the Battle of Pavia in 1525. He served Charles V faithfully for the next 30 years, gaining special prominence during the Schmalkaldic Wars. He deserves much of the credit for Charles’ victory at Muhlberg (1547) and for the fall of Wittenberg that same year. He failed to capture Metz in 1552, however.

After Charles V’s abdication, he led Philip II’s armies to the gates of Rome in the fighting against the forces of Pope Paul IV (Caraffa). He is best remembered as the “Iron Duke” who brutally repressed the Protestants in the Netherlands during Philip’s reign.

**Naval Leaders**

**Andrea Doria (1466-1560)**

Andrea Doria started as a soldier of fortune in the papal guard. He soon returned to his native Genoa, where he took command of the Genoese fleet. He now began a long career selling the services of the Genoese to either the Hapsburgs or French, usually whomever would pay well or maintain Genoese independence. In 1524 he helped the French relieve Charles Bourbon’s siege of Marseille. Four years later he called off a French naval blockade of Naples when he was angered by Francis’ sporadic payments.

As imperial admiral for Charles, he was able to raid the Greek coast near Corom, aid in Charles’ capture of Tunis, and help save Charles from greater disaster at Algiers. He would continue to fight for Genoese freedom and against his arch enemies, the Barbary Corsairs, until the age of 84.

**Barbarossa (1475?-1546)**

Khair ad Din was one of four brothers born on the island of Lesbos. His father was probably a Janissary or Sipahi (cavalry); his mother was the widow of a Christian priest. All of the brothers started their career as pirates in the Aegean trying to counter the piracy of the Knights of St. John.
His brother Aruj established bases in the western Mediterranean, first at Djerba (near Tripoli) and later at Algiers. Aruj was killed in 1518, and Khair took over Algiers, at the same time inheriting his older brother’s nickname “Barbarossa” (red beard). In 1531, Barbarossa captured Tunis; just two years later Suleiman made him his admiral-in-chief.

Over the final 15 years of his life, Barbarossa terrorized the Mediterranean world and was a constant thorn in Charles V’s side. His accomplishments included: repulsing two Hapsburg strikes at Algiers, defeating a larger Hapsburg-Venetian fleet led by Andrea Doria at the Battle of Prevesa (1538), continually raiding the coasts of the western Mediterranean, and terrorizing Italy on a quest to capture the fair Julia Gonzaga for the sultan’s harem.

Dragut (1514-1565)
Born in Anatolia, Dragut Reis went to sea in 1538, initially as a gunner. He attracted the attention of Barbarossa and soon was commanding a fleet of corsairs based at Djerba [Tripoli space in Here I Stand]. He was pursued by Andrea Doria and captured in 1540. He served four years as a galley slave in Doria’s fleet before being ransomed by Barbarossa.

After Barbarossa’s death, Dragut was his natural successor. He ruthlessly raided the coasts of Sicily and Italy over the next 20 years, earning the nickname “The Drawn Sword of Islam.” A French admiral commented that he was “a living chart of the Mediterranean ... there was not a channel that he had not sailed. He excelled above all in escaping by unexpected methods from situations of great peril.”

Dragut’s final action was in command of the 1565 siege of Malta, where he was mortally wounded by artillery fire from the Knights of St. John.

Explorers
Ferdinand Magellan (1480-1521)
Ferdinand Magellan was born in northern Portugal in 1480 and spent his early career with the Portuguese expeditions to India. His relations with king Manuel soured, so he requested (and received) permission to seek a commission for another monarch. Trying Spain first was a fortunate move; the Hapsburgs were desperate for some way to block the Portuguese stranglehold on the spice trade. Events moved quickly for Magellan after arriving in Seville. Within one year he married, fathered a child, and obtained a contract from Charles V. That contract granted Magellan five ships to be outfitted as the Armada de las Indias.

Magellan’s initial difficulties were internal, for the mostly Castilian crew resented being led by an unknown sailor from Portugal. Even before they had left the coast of Africa to cross the Atlantic, the captain of one of the other four ships (and the inspector general of the entire expedition) mutinied. Magellan imprisoned him quickly, but the seeds of discontent remained. After failing to find the reputed strait to the Pacific Ocean by March (the month when the southern hemisphere’s winter weather kicks in), Magellan found a winter refuge and cut the men back to half rations to last out the winter. Hungry and not believing that a strait to the Pacific existed, the men from three of Magellan’s five ships mutinied and demanded to return to Spain. Magellan dealt with the mutiny in bold fashion, using landing boats filled with loyal men to storm the mutinous ships one-by-one. He soon regained control of the fleet and executed or marooned the ringleaders.

Trying to scout for the strait with the winter storms still raging, Magellan lost one of his ships to a storm in May 1520. Magellan finally resumed his voyage in October and quickly discovered the strait that now bears his name. Magellan needed five weeks to navigate through the 300-mile-long passageway. The archipelago of islands on the west side of the strait made navigation difficult and allowed the one remaining disgruntled Castilian captain to escape back to Spain with Magellan’s largest ship. Still, Magellan had found the western route to the Pacific and negotiated the hazardous strait without mishap, arguably one of the greatest feats of maritime exploration ever.

With his three remaining ships, Magellan headed into the Pacific, expecting the Moluccas to be a short sail to the west. Instead his starving men faced the longest continuous voyage at sea recorded to that time. For 98 days they sailed west buoyed by the prevailing winds, progressing an incredible 7000 miles without finding a habitable place to stop. Several dozen men died of scurvy, a disease believed to be caused by “bad air”. Little did Magellan and his officers know that their private stash of quince was keeping them from suffering from the same affliction as their crews.

Magellan resupplied in Guam; his first major stop was in the Philippines. At the Philippine island of Cebu, Magellan became deeply involved in converting the local islanders to Christianity. During his three-week stay there, he befriended two local tribal chiefs and baptized over two thousand of the islanders as Christians. However, as his successes mounted, so did his confidence level. Magellan boldly told his new allies that he could defeat a rival tribe nearby and took just 60 men to try and defeat the local tribe of 1500. Wading ashore, Magellan and his men were ambushed and he was struck by a poisoned arrow. Magellan continued the fight until his men could withdraw to the safety of their longboats, but he was ultimately overcome and his body hacked to pieces.

After Magellan’s death the remaining men prepared to resume their search for the Moluccas. However, disaster struck once more before they could leave the Philippines. The islanders, quickly souring on their conversion to Christianity, used the promise of a farewell feast to invite senior officers ashore. Once there, thirty crew members were massacred; out of the 260 men who set out from Seville, only 115 remained. The surviving crew was so short-handed that they chose to abandon one of the three remaining vessels.

Finally, six months after the death of Magellan, the remaining two ships reached the Moluccas. Every available trinket was traded to the locals for cloves. But just as they were to depart, the flagship Trinidad takes on water. With Trinidad needing months of repair, the crew decided to split up. Half remained with Trinidad intending to sail back home on an easterly course. Only one ship (under the Basque navigator Juan Sebastian Elcano) continued west on the quest to complete a circumnavigation.

Trinidad sailed northeast, into the stormy seas of the North Pacific. Battered by the weather, starving, and still far from the Americas, the desperate ship turned back to the Moluccas after five months at sea. They reached the Moluccas just in time to be captured by a Portuguese fleet that had been searching for Magellan.
And so, only Elcano’s lone vessel, Victoria, concluded the voyage successfully, bringing its cargo of 381 sacks of cloves (a small fortune) back to Charles V. Sailing west around the Cape of Good Hope, Elcano returned to the Atlantic and rushed north to Spain. Fear of capture by the Portuguese discouraged him from long stops to resupply or refit, causing additional deaths from scurvy. Out of the 60 sailors who left the Moluccas with Elcano, only 18 returned to Spain as circum navigators.

**Juan Ponce de Leon (1460?-1521)**
Juan Ponce de Leon was born in Palencia, Spain, just north of Valladolid. He participated in Ferdinand and Isabella’s final “reconquista” of the Moors and Columbus’ second voyage to the Caribbean. He first built his reputation fighting off native attacks on Hispaniola in 1508. The next year he was commissioned to conquer Puerto Rico. He was successful in taking over the nearby island, becoming its first governor in 1509.

It was probably from the natives of Puerto Rico that he first heard tales of a Fountain of Youth on a nearby island called Bimini that would restore youth and vigor to all who drank from it.

In 1512, Ponce de Leon received a patent to settle and discover Bimini. Sailing north the next spring, he stopped on several islands in the Bahamas before reaching Florida, a land he claimed for Spain. Encountering determined native resistance, he returned to Spain to get approval for a second voyage of colonization. Finally in 1521, he was ready to sail again. Landing this time on the west coast of Florida, he was met by fierce native attacks. Mortally wounded by an arrow, he returned to Cuba where he died. Ponce de Leon was buried in San Juan, Puerto Rico, having never found anything to restore his youth.

**Panfilo de Narvaez (1470-1528)**
Panfilo de Narvaez was born in Valladolid and emigrated to Hispaniola in 1498. He served as the top lieutenant to Diego de Velazquez during Velazquez’s conquest of Cuba (1511-1514). Six years later, when Cortes overstepped his bounds and turned a reconnaissance of Mexico into an effort to conquer the Aztec Empire, Velasquez sent Narvaez to stop Cortes. In the conflict that ensued, Narvaez lost an eye and was captured. His troops ended up serving as much-needed replacements for Cortes’ army. Narvaez was released by Cortes a year later and returned to Spain.

In 1526, Charles V granted Narvaez the rights to conquer and govern all lands between the Rio Grande and Florida. Narvaez enlisted a Spanish nobleman, Alzar Nunez Cabeza De Vaca, as a partner and returned to the New World a year later. Battered by hurricanes, the party landed near Tampa Bay. The natives told the Spaniards that great riches lay inland. Hoping to find treasures like those of the Aztecs, Narvaez set off inland, carelessly abandoning his fleet (despite the vocal protests of De Vaca). Finding no gold, Narvaez is forced to return to the Gulf Coast. He has also incited the natives of the area through his brutal conduct. Decimated by their struggles, Narvaez abandoned his quest for Florida and built wooden rafts to sail west, expecting to reach Mexico in a few days. The crude barges actually stayed at sea for 30 days and made it to Texas, only to be hit by a storm in which Narvaez capsized and drowned.

**John Rut**
There were only a handful of expeditions to the New World during Henry VIII’s reign; one which obtained modest success was led by John Rut. Sailing from Plymouth in 1527 in search of a Northwest Passage, Rut reached the shore of Labrador. Losing one ship to the ice, Rut made contact with the fishing colony at St. John’s, Newfoundland, finding over a dozen French and Portuguese fishing vessels in the area. Before heading south to explore more of the North American coast, Rut sent a letter back to England with one of the St. John’s fishermen. It was the first recorded example of a letter from the New World to the Old. Rut sailed as far as the Caribbean on the next leg of his voyage, and was spotted by the Spanish in the West Indies. Reportedly he was able to return to England; his subsequent fate after this voyage is not recorded.

**Giovanni da Verrazano (1485?-1528)**
Giovanni da Verrazano was born in Tuscany, just outside Florence. Estimates of his date of birth range from 1470 to 1485. When he came of age, he enlisted in the service of France and sailed from Dieppe on the Atlantic coast.

Verrazano was perhaps the first New World pirate, for early in his career (1522), he captured one of Cortez’ ships heading back to Spain laden with Aztec treasure. In 1524, Verrazano again traveled to the New World, this time with his brother, Girolamo, who recorded their voyage in maps. Verrazano landed near Cape Fear, North Carolina and explored north to Maine. He was likely the first European to explore the New York Bay through the Hudson River Narrows.

The rest of his career is uncertain. He probably undertook two more voyages: a logging expedition to Brazil and another to the Caribbean. Some accounts mention that he was captured in 1527 and executed at Cadiz by the order of Charles V. Others mention that he was killed in an encounter with the natives of the Lesser Antilles.

**Sebastian Cabot (1476?-1557)**
Details on Sebastian Cabot’s early years are difficult to come by, mostly because he was known to alter facts to suit his own needs. He told the English that he was born in Bristol and moved to Venice at age four; he told the Venetian Gasparo Contarini that he was a Venetian by birth who was educated in England. The historian J. A. Williamson describes him as “a vain egoist, fond of giving vent to mysterious utterances containing a maximum of self-praise and a minimum of hard fact.”

Cabot’s career as an explorer probably began on the voyages led by his father, John Cabot, who was the first Englishman to reach the New World when he sailed to Newfoundland in both 1497 and 1498. Unfortunately for John, these voyages were poorly documented, and Sebastian claimed those successes for himself (in fact, John Cabot would not be “rediscovered” by historians until the late 19th Century). By 1508, Sebastian was in the employ of Henry VII as a cartographer. He is reputed to have led a 1508 voyage around Labrador in which he found a strait to the west (probably the Hudson Strait). As the story goes, only thick ice and a mutinous crew forced him to return home.

Sebastian then received an offer to switch allegiance to Spain from Charles V’s father Ferdinand, and he moved to Seville in 1512. He remained in the employ of Spain for the next 35 years. The one voyage we are sure he led was an attempt to return to the Moluccas, chartered by Charles in 1526. Cabot never made it further than Rio de la Plata, where he abandoned his quest for the passage to China in order to follow up on rumors of gold in the area. The change in plans led to quarrels with his officers; Cabot simply abandoned the trouble makers and sailed on. He spent three ineffective years in
that region: building forts, pushing upriver in search for gold, but mostly just squandering his men and resources. Finally in 1529 Cabot and his starving men abandoned their outpost and returned to Spain. Cabot’s subordinates and financiers filed lawsuits against him; he was sentenced to banishment to Oran and severely fined.

Remarkably, Cabot’s reputation was not unduly damaged by this expedition. When Edward VI succeeded to the English throne, he outbid Charles for Cabot’s services and set him up in charge of the new Merchant Adventurer’s company. Cabot thus took a role in setting up the expeditions of Willoughby and Chancellor. Cabot died in 1557.

Jacques Cartier (1491-1557)
Jacques Cartier was born in 1491 in St. Malo, France; his first known voyage was with Verrazano in 1524. Ten years later, Cartier led his own expedition of two ships. They crossed the Atlantic in three weeks and explored west of Newfoundland, particularly the Gaspe Peninsula. Cartier met with the local Huron chief, Donnaconna, and convinced him that his two sons should join Cartier’s voyage. Cartier found a possible strait to the west that looked promising, but returned to France before exploring it due to the approach of winter.

A year later in 1535, Cartier returned with Donnaconna’s sons now serving as translators and with an additional ship. He sailed up the strait, really just the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, and proceeded west to the Huron kingdom of Hochelaga, where he was greeted by over a thousand friendly natives. The natives took him to the top of a nearby rise and pointed west to the kingdom of Saguenay, purported to have riches in silver and gold. Cartier planted a cross at the top of this mountain and called the place Mont Real. Cartier remained throughout the winter in his fort near modern day Quebec City. Not expecting such a harsh winter, the men were snowed in and suffered from scurvy. With the assistance of the natives, they survived, returning to France the next spring with an even larger contingent of natives, including Donnaconna himself.

Cartier next petitioned Francis for the resources required to set up a colony in this land he had named “Kanata,” after the word for village in the Huron language. Francis supported such a move, but needed a member of the French nobility to serve as governor of the colony; Francis’ friend Jean Francois de Roberval was selected for the post.

Cartier departed for the St. Lawrence in May 1541, taking enough supplies to last two years. He established a new base upriver from his previous one and named it Charlesbourg Royale. Initially the colony fared well, growing vegetables and finding iron and flecks of gold and diamonds. Cartier wanted to again search for the kingdom of Saguenay, and left his colony to explore to the west. The Ottawa River proved unnavigable however; he returned to Charlesbourg Royale to find that relations with the natives had soured and the colony was under almost daily attack.

Once again the winter proved brutal, but Cartier’s colony held out waiting for Roberval to arrive with new supplies the following spring. They waited until May 1542 before finally abandoning the colony and heading home. As fortune would have it, they ran into Roberval’s ships off the coast of Newfoundland on June 8. However, Cartier refused to turn around at this point. He never returned to the New World. The gold and diamonds he discovered turned out to be pyrite and quartz. He died in France in 1557, still believing the St. Lawrence River was a passage to China.

Alzar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca (1490?-1559?)
Alzar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca was born in the Andalusia region of Spain. His unusual family name ("head of a cow") came from one of his ancestors’ exploits in a campaign against the Moors; that ancestor used a cow skull to show troops the way to an important mountain pass. De Vaca was the treasurer on Narvaez’s fateful expedition to Florida; he was one of the lucky ones who survived the month-long raft trip across the Gulf of Mexico to Texas.

After a cold winter with minimal food supplies, only 15 men remained. De Vaca and the other survivors spent several years on the Texas coast before embarking on an odyssey across the American Southwest. They practiced healing with the indigenous tribes they encountered, developing a strong reputation as medicine men. Finally in 1536, nine years after they departed, they arrived back in Mexico City. De Vaca’s travelogue, published in 1542, is still a key historical source documenting the native cultures and their reaction to the arrival of Europeans.

De Vaca last assignment was as governor of Argentina (1541-1543). However, his men revolted against his rule and he was forced to return to Spain and stand trial on charges of usurping the power of the king. He was found guilty and had to serve a mild sentence for 8 years. He would not return to the New World.

Jean Francois de Roberval (1500?-1566)
Roberval was born around 1500, probably in Carcassonne, a town which his father governed. He was a noble who grew up at court in Francis’ inner circle of friends. Francis’ protection proved invaluable in 1535 when he was found to be a Protestant convert and briefly outlawed from court with others, including the poet Clement Marot. His financial dealings during this period were also disastrous, and he decided to try and recoup his fortune in the New World. Raising money for such an expedition was difficult, however, and Roberval briefly turned to piracy against the English to secure additional funds.

Roberval sailed with a charter to colonize and convert the natives to Catholicism (despite his own Protestant beliefs). He sailed with three ships and 200 men that included a contingent of convicts to perform heavy labor. However he didn’t depart until 1542, one year after Cartier, who was to be his guide. On June 8, he encountered Cartier’s fleet returning to France off the coast of Newfoundland and ordered him back to Canada. Cartier however slipped away during the night; Roberval would have to persevere without the benefit of an experienced explorer of the St. Lawrence.

Roberval also landed at Charlesbourg Royale, this time naming the colony France-Roy. Roberval’s force built two forts in the area but still suffered greatly over the winter, losing almost half their men. In June 1543, he took 70 men west to try and find Saguenay, but made it no further than the Ottawa River. Finally, in the autumn, Francis sent ships over to recall Roberval to France. After the realization that the mineral wealth of the area was fool’s gold, Francis has soured on the entire operation.

Having earned no fortune in the New World, Roberval’s financial struggles continued. His chateau was mortgaged in 1555 after he lost a lawsuit filed by Cartier against him. His luck did not improve. In 1560 he attended a Calvinist meeting in Paris. Leaving the build-
ing, his party was attacked and Roberval killed, one of the first victims of the French Wars of Religion.

**Hernando de Soto (1499-1542)**

Hernando de Soto was born late in the 15th Century in a town in western Spain near the Portuguese border. He came to the New World with Pedrarias Davila, and supported Davila during his feud with Cordova in Nicaragua.

De Soto was assigned to Pizarro’s mission against the Inca in 1532, serving as Pizarro’s second-in-command. De Soto was sent on scouting missions ahead of the main army; it was he who discovered the main Inca road to the capital of Cuzco. He was also the first European to talk to the Inca chief Atahualpa; they formed a friendship during The Inca’s eight-month imprisonment. When Pizarro executed Atahualpa, it caused a rift with De Soto, who promptly took his personal share of the Inca treasure (an amazing 100,000 golden pesos) and returned to Spain.

De Soto settled in Seville, and lived a life of extravagance, being wealthy enough to loan money to Charles V himself in times of need. However, he wasn’t ready to settle down for good. Upon reading de Vaca’s report on the Seven Cities of Cibola, his passion to equal the exploits of Cortes and Pizarro was rekindled. He organized a massive expedition of nearly a thousand men, two dozen priests, nine ships and over two hundred horses and sailed for the New World, landing on the west coast of Florida in May 1539.

De Soto’s travels across the eastern half of the United States would last for the next three years. His expedition moved with some haste; Coronado’s expedition left Mexico the same year and the two were in competition to be the first to find Cibola. De Soto’s army was frequently under attack by the natives of the region, who remembered their earlier brutal treatment at the hands of Narvaez a decade earlier. The exact path of de Soto’s expedition is a matter of much debate, though it may have touched on as many as fourteen US states. De Soto was the first European to document the discovery of the Mississippi River, crossing it into Arkansas in 1541. He returned to the Mississippi the following June, but contracted a fever and died. He was laid to rest in the river itself; the remaining members of his expedition floated down the river and then sailed for Mexico.

For months, Orellana traveled downriver, fighting off constant attacks from the shoreline. On June 24 they faced their most famous foes, a large horde of natives led by fierce white-skinned women fighters, forever after known as “Amazons”. Finally in August, their makeshift vessels emerged at the mouth of the great river. Using their blankets as sails, they traveled around the coast of South America, finally reaching a Spanish port in present-day Venezuela in September.

Orellana and his men were hailed as heroes and both the Portuguese and Spanish courts offered him grants to exploit the lands of the Amazon basin. He took Charles up on that offer and returned to the mouth of the Amazon in 1545. However, his second voyage suffered from native attack, starvation, and shipwreck. Orellana died, probably of illness, and only 44 of the 300 members of his party made it back to Panama as survivors.

**Hugh Willoughby (died 1554)**

Hugh Willoughby’s birth date is not known. His father, Henry Willoughby, was a knight who fought on the Lancastrian side in the War of the Roses. Hugh was similarly knighted in action against the Scots at Leith in 1544. From 1548 to 1549 he commanded a garrison on the Scottish border. Little is known about his decision to join the newly-formed Merchant Adventurers company and take to the sea.

Willoughby was made Captain-General of the Merchant Adventurers’ first voyage, perhaps because of his previous military leadership experience. He set sail from London in May 1553 with three ships. Their goal was to find a “North-East Passage” to China by sailing east past Scandinavia.

Three months out to sea, the ships were hit by a major storm, and the ship led by Richard Chancellor was separated from the other two. Chancellor proceeded to the rendezvous point at the eastern edge of Norway; however, Willoughby’s two remaining ships missed that location and sailed further east, probably reaching Novaya Zemlya. Attempting to return to Norway late in the year, Willoughby’s ships were trapped in the ice. Their frozen corpses were found the next spring by Russian fishermen.

**Richard Chancellor (died 1557)**

Very little is known about Richard Chancellor’s life prior to his commissioning as Pilot-General of Willoughby’s voyage. He did have more experience at sea than Willoughby, however, having sailed on an earlier voyage to Candia on Crete. He also worked with the famous Elizabethan mathematician John Dee to improve English instruments of navigation.

After the storm separated his ship from Willoughby, Chancellor waited a full week for the other ships to reappear. When they did not, he proceeded on and entered the White Sea, anchoring at the village of Nenoksa, famous at the time for its production of salt. When he learned he had reached Russia, Chancellor decided to travel overland to Moscow to meet with the current Tsar, Ivan IV. After a difficult journey, Chancellor received a cordial welcome from Ivan, who promised free and open trading with the English. Chancellor then sailed home in triumph, quickly publishing an account of his visit to the Russian court.

Mary was now in power in England, but she shared her younger brother’s enthusiasm for finding a route to China. The Merchant Adventurers were renamed to the Muscovy Company, and Chancellor was sent back to Moscow in 1555. Again Chancellor was greeted warmly by Ivan; this time the tsar sent a special envoy back to visit England. On the return voyage, Chancellor’s ship wrecked off the coast of Scotland. Chancellor drowned trying to reach shore. However, the tsar’s envoy did make it to London, and the Muscovy Company proved a success even after the loss of Chancellor, remaining in operation until 1917.
Conquistadors

**Hernando Cortes (1485-1547)**

Hernando Cortes was born in Medellin, Spain in 1485. His second cousin was Francisco Pizarro; both would gain similar fame in the New World. Cortes briefly studied law, but grew restless and sailed to the New World in 1506. He participated in the subjugation of Cuba, serving as clerk to the governor, Diego Velasquez.

Hearing reports of the riches of the Yucatan, Velasquez commissioned Cortes to sail to Mexico with 11 ships and 500 men. His orders were to explore and trade, but not to colonize. Velasquez soon became suspicious that Cortes was planning to overstep these bounds. Velasquez moved against Cortes, trying to relieve him from command, but found to his dismay that Cortes’ fleet had already sailed.

Cortes stopped briefly in the Yucatan, where he was gifted with a native woman (he named her Dona Marina). She served Cortes as his translator and advisor, and told him of both the unrest in the outer provinces of the Aztec empire and the Aztec legend of Quetzalcoatl. According to this story, a white-skinned god was scheduled to return from the eastern sea to reclaim his authority over the Aztecs.

Cortes realized the opportunity that was presented to him. Dressing all in black (as would Quetzalcoatl), he timed his landing in Mexico to coincide with the Aztec New Year (the date foretold for Quetzalcoatl’s return). Immediately he began to win allies that would support him against the Aztecs. Cortes next founded the city of Veracruz and put his supporters into the new town council, a shrewd tactic to place himself outside Velasquez’s authority. Finally, needing the absolute loyalty of his men, he scuttled his fleet. He was ready to march inland toward the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan.

The march to Tenochtitlan took three months. Cortes’ army beat off an attack by 30,000 Tlaxcalans and then used the negotiating skills of Dona Marina to convert these natives into an important new ally. Upon reaching Tenochtitlan, the Spanish column was amazed by the wealth and grandeur of this capital city tucked into a high plateau surrounded by volcanoes. With the central city built in a lake and connected over narrow causeways, Tenochtitlan was the “Venice of the West”.

Initially all went well at Tenochtitlan. Montezuma feared making a direct attack on a figure who might truly be Quetzalcoatl. Instead he met Cortes’ demands for lodging in the center city and to replace the Aztec idols at the main temple complex with shrines to Quetzalcoatl. According to this story, a white-skinned god was scheduled to return from the eastern sea to reclaim his authority over the Aztecs.

Montezuma’s ransom was being delivered, Cortes boldly and seized Montezuma, paralyzing the entire Aztec empire. Initially all went well at Tenochtitlan. Montezuma feared making a direct attack on a figure who might truly be Quetzalcoatl. Instead he met Cortes’ demands for lodging in the center city and to replace the Aztec idols at the main temple complex with shrines to Quetzalcoatl. According to this story, a white-skinned god was scheduled to return from the eastern sea to reclaim his authority over the Aztecs.

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Initially all went well at Tenochtitlan. Montezuma feared making a direct attack on a figure who might truly be Quetzalcoatl. Instead he met Cortes’ demands for lodging in the center city and to replace the Aztec idols at the main temple complex with shrines to the Virgin Mary. Once established in the center city, Cortes struck boldly and seized Montezuma, paralyzing the entire Aztec empire. However, while Montezuma’s ransom was being delivered, Cortes learned that Velasquez had sent an army under Panfilo de Narvaez to arrest him. Cortes split his 400 men in two and returned to confront Narvaez, outnumbered 4-to-1. Striking boldly, he quickly captured Narvaez and enticed this larger Spanish force to join in the conquest of Mexico.

However, returning to Tenochtitlan, Cortes faced a desperate situation. The Aztecs were finally starting to awake under leadership from Montezuma’s brother, Cuitlahuac. Even an attempt by Montezuma to calm the Aztecs ended disastrously; Montezuma was stoned and died soon thereafter. Cortes decided to withdraw from the city. However, his men took severe losses retreating out of the central city over the dismantled causeways. Once outside of danger, however, Cortes regrouped quickly. He built a small fleet for a new assault across the lake. Striking just as smallpox was beginning to ravage the Aztecs, he launched a brutal campaign to take the city one street at a time. When he captured the latest emperor on August 13, 1521, the Aztecs finally surrendered.

Cortes ruled in Mexico for several years, bringing some stability to the area. But he never regained the full trust of Charles V for his insubordination to Velasquez and was eventually replaced. He participated in Charles unsuccessful expedition to Algiers in 1541. In 1547, Cortes died at his estate near Seville, a wealthy man, but one still embittered by the way his authority in Mexico had been curtailed.

**Francisco Hernandez de Cordova (1475?-1526)**

Francisco Hernandez de Cordova was a deputy of Pedrarias Davila, governor of Panama. In 1522, he set out north to conquer Nicaragua. His party founded the cities of Leon and Granada in 1524. Traveling even further north to modern day Honduras, he tried to establish his own province in this area. Davila caught wind of it, came north, and captured Cordova. He was speedily tried and executed by beheading. The Nicaraguan currency is named the cordoba in his honor.

He should not be confused with the earlier Spanish explorer with exactly the same name who was the first Spaniard to encounter the Maya (and die at their hands) in 1517.

**Francisco Pizarro (1471-1541)**

The illegitimate son of a colonel in the Spanish infantry, Francisco Pizarro grew up without a proper education. He sailed to the New World by 1502, taking part in the subjugation of Hispaniola. He also participated in Balboa’s mission that discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513. While working as a cattle farmer in Panama, Pizarro began to hear rumors of a land to the south rich in gold.

Teaming up with Diego de Almagro, Pizarro led two naval expeditions south from Panama along the coast of South America in 1524 and 1526. The second trip sailed as far south as modern Ecuador, but suffered from disease and starvation. Pizarro sent Almagro back to Panama for reinforcements, but the new governor wanted to recall Pizarro’s entire party. Pizarro defiantly refused to return and challenged his men: “There lies Peru with its riches; Here, Panama and its poverty. Choose, each man, what best becomes a brave Castilian.” Thirteen of them decided to continue on. Soon they were rewarded when they landed at Tumbes, an outpost of the very Inca empire he was seeking. The temple in Tumbes, with its gold-sheeted walls, confirmed that they had found the rich land that they were seeking.

Upon his return to Panama, Pizarro was frustrated that the governor was not willing to finance another voyage. He returned to Spain and petitioned Charles V directly. In 1529, Charles signed the capitulacion de Toledo, which granted Pizarro the rights to conquer Peru. Pizarro returned to the Ecuadorian coast, this time bringing his three brothers and 250 men. By May 1532, he had established a Spanish outpost, been reinforced by Hernando de Soto, and discovered that the Inca empire was in the middle of a civil war. The time to cross the Andes and strike toward the Inca capital had
arrived. Leaving a garrison on the coast, Pizarro headed inland with 106 foot soldiers, 62 horsemen and 4 cannon.

By November, Pizarro’s small force reached the new seat of the Inca government at Cajamarca and came face-to-face with a veteran Inca army of 40,000. Borrowing a trick from Cortes, Pizarro lured the Inca ruler Atahualpa away from his army, ambushed his bodyguard, and captured the ruler. Atahualpa offered his captors an incredible ransom, enough gold to fill an entire room. He was allowed to continue to rule from captivity, even ordering his people to assist the Spanish in their acquisition of gold.

By 1533, the room was nearly full and the melting down of the treasures of the Inca had begun in full force. Rumors of approaching Inca armies caused Pizarro to sentence Atahualpa to death, executing him by garrote in August against the wishes of several of his subordinates, including De Soto. The Inca empire collapsed quickly after Atahualpa’s death, but so did the unity among the Spanish. Pizarro and Almagro feuded openly over their shares of the treasure. In 1538, Pizarro captured Almagro and had him executed. Just three years later, supporters of Almagro assassinated Pizarro in his palace in the new Peruvian capital of Lima.

Francisco Coronado (1510-1554)
Francisco Coronado was born to a noble family of Salamanca in 1510. At age 25, he accompanied Antonio de Mendoza, the new viceroy of New Spain, across the Atlantic. By 1538, he had married and become governor of a province in northwestern Mexico. Only two years before, De Vaca had reappeared in just this area with his story of the Seven Cities of Cibola. Both Mendoza and Coronado became obsessed with finding this treasure.

Coronado started by sending out a scouting expedition that included Friar Marcos de Niza and Estevanico, a survivor (like De Vaca) of the Narvaez expedition. Marcos returned with news that he had seen a golden city off in the distance, prompting Mendoza and Coronado to redouble their efforts.

Coronado’s expedition of 300 Spaniards and over a thousand natives left Mexico in February 1540. They reached the location (in present-day New Mexico) where Marcos claimed to have seen the golden city, only to find a Zuni pueblo. Coronado continued his march north and wintered near Santa Fe. Over the course of the next year, he sent out search parties in all directions, reaching as far as Kansas and eastern California. One of these groups became the first Europeans to discover the Grand Canyon. But no treasure was ever found. Upon his return to Mexico City in 1542 with but 100 men, Mendoza turned on Coronado and called him an abject failure. Coronado spent two more years as governor before he was brought to trial on charges of corruption and mistreatment of the natives. He died 10 years later while working in Mexico City in a low-level government post.

Francisco de Montejo (1479?-1549)
Francisco de Montejo was born around 1479 in Salamanca. He was the first Spaniard to touch the shore of Mexico during Cortes’ conquest of the Aztecs. For Cortes, he also commanded the fortifications at Veracruz and led the first ships returning to Spain with Aztec treasures. Back in Spain in 1526, he received a commission from Charles V to conquer the Yucatan and subdue the Maya. In 1528, he landed on the east side of the peninsula, adopting Cortes’ tactic of landing on the shore and then burning his ships to prevent desertion. The Maya fought tenaciously and Montejo had to withdraw to Mexico. He then led another invasion from the west (1531-1535), but his troops were discouraged by the lack of treasures and did desert this time. Although he had subjugated major portions of the Maya kingdom, the conquest was not yet complete. He retired nearly destitute to an administrative position in Mexico and left the rest of the conquest to his son (of the same name). Francisco de Montejo the younger finally completed the conquest in 1546.

Henry’s Wives

Catherine of Aragon (1485-1536)
The youngest surviving daughter of Ferdinand II of Aragon and Isabella I of Castile, Catherine was betrothed to the oldest son of Henry VII of England, Arthur, at the age of 3. The deal, ratified as the Treaty of Medina del Campo included an enormous dowry of 200,000 cows. In 1501, at age 15, she sailed for England, never to see her native Spain. The marriage to Arthur was short-lived however. He died of an infection less than 5 months into the marriage.

Both Ferdinand and Henry VII saw the benefits of maintaining the Spanish-English alliance; soon the new plan was to marry Catherine to the new heir to the throne, Henry. However he was 5 years younger than she, so the wedding was not scheduled to occur for several years. In addition, marrying your brother’s widow was not considered proper practice, so a papal dispensation was obtained to officially remove this “impediment of affinity.”

After their marriage in 1509, Catherine was able to bear Henry a son, but the boy died in his second month. By 1516, Catherine, who had been pregnant at least five times previously, finally gave birth to a healthy child, the princess Mary. But no male heir was forthcoming. By 1521, Henry had given up hope that Katherine would be able to produce the male heir that the Tudor dynasty, fresh from the succession crises of the War of the Roses, so desperately needed. He began keeping a series of mistresses and finally, in 1527, he asked Clement VII to annul their marriage.

Clement would stall for 6 years without giving a response. Finally Henry had Cramer, Archbishop of Canterbury, perform the annulment in 1533 so that Henry’s secret marriage to Anne Boleyn could be made official. Catherine was removed from court and separated from Mary. To prevent an appeal to Rome, Henry had Parliament pass the Act of Supremacy, which made the King head of the church in England, rather than the Pope. Despite repeated entreaties, Catherine would never acknowledge the annulment, referring to herself as the queen until she died in 1536.

Anne Boleyn (1501?-1536)
Anne Boleyn was born some time between 1501 and 1507, one of three children of the diplomat Thomas Boleyn, Earl of Wiltshire, and his wife, Lady Elizabeth Boleyn, daughter of the Duke of Norfolk. She spent the years 1513 and 1514 in the Netherlands in the household of Archduchess Margaret of Austria, who was the current regent of the Netherlands and one of Charles V’s aunts. Anne next moved to France, where she was a lady-in-waiting for Queen Claude, Francis’ wife. Anne learned fluent French, charmed all the men at court including Francis, and became enamored with the latest French fashions. She is also thought to have picked up her reformed religious beliefs while in France.
Recalled to England in 1522, Anne became a lady-in-waiting for Queen Katherine of Aragon, and thus came under the roving eye of Henry VIII. Henry had already had an affair with Anne’s promiscuous younger sister, Mary. When he became enamored with Anne, she steadfastly refused to become his mistress. Henry was going to have to marry her and make her Queen of England if he wanted more than her company.

And so, driven by his need to move on from Catherine and by his growing passion for Anne, Henry petitioned Pope Clement for an annulment of his marriage to Catherine in the spring of 1527. As discussed above, it was close to 6 years before Henry’s marriage to Catherine was annulled by Archbishop Cranmer, who originally had been the Boleyn family chaplain. At last, Henry and Anne were married. Anne became pregnant immediately; in September 1533, their first baby was born. However, the child was disappointingly a girl, the red-headed Princess Elizabeth.

As queen, Anne championed religious reform, especially the idea of translating the Bible into English. She became pregnant twice more, miscarrying in 1534 and 1536. This second miscarriage is often attributed to the stress she was under knowing that Henry was passionate about Jane Seymour (one of her ladies-in-waiting) and the fact that the king fell from his horse that year and nearly died. By this time, her relationship with Henry had soured and she knew he would soon move on. She was imprisoned on May 2, 1536 on charges of adultery, incest, treason and witchcraft. She was beheaded within the grounds of the Tower of London 17 days later.

**Jane Seymour (1508?-1537)**

Daughter of Sir John Seymour of Wiltshire, Jane served as lady-in-waiting for both Catherine of Aragon and Anne Boleyn. Henry became interested in Jane in September 1535, soon after a brief stay at the Seymour family home. Tired of fighting with the boisterous queen, Henry was quickly attracted to the reserved, formal behavior of Jane. When Anne Boleyn was beheaded in May 1536, Jane became Queen just 11 days later. Unlike Anne (who had to court Henry for 7 years before marriage), Jane waited only 7 months to gain the throne.

Jane was conservative in belief, backing the Catholic and imperial position on all matters. When the Pilgrimage of Grace started, she was sympathetic to the rebels. She also advocated the restoration of Princess Mary to court, a reconciliation that was achieved soon after Jane took the throne.

On October 12, 1537, Jane gave birth to a son named Edward. All of England rejoiced. However, Jane contracted puerperal fever during her delivery, a common affliction during those days when there was no knowledge of bacterial infections. Jane died 12 days later.

**Anne of Cleves (1515-1557)**

Born in Düsseldorf, Anne was the second daughter of John III, ruler of Cleves. Her older sister Sybille married John Frederick, Elector of Saxony and leader of the Schmalkaldic League.

After the death of Jane Seymour, Thomas Cromwell searched Europe for a new wife for Henry. At this time, the French and Hapsburgs had formed close ties; Cromwell looked to an alliance with the Protestants to afford England some protection against these other powers. The artist Hans Holbein was sent to paint a portrait of Anne for Henry’s consideration; her Protestant connections made her a good diplomatic match. Holbein omitted her smallpox scars, creating a portrait that Henry found desirable.

With a marriage treaty in place, Anne traveled to England via Calais. They were married in January 1540, but Henry never was attracted to Anne. The marriage was never consummated and an annulment followed later that year. Anne would remain in England until her death in 1557, the last of Henry’s wives to die. She formed a friendship with Princess Mary and converted to Catholicism as a result.

**Kathryn Howard (1525?-1542)**

A niece of the Duke of Norfolk and a cousin of Anne Boleyn, Kathryn Howard grew up in the large household of the Duchess Dowager of Norfolk. Kathryn became involved with the young courtiers in that house by age 11. She had a romance with her music teacher and an affair with the handsome Francis Dereham. Finally her uncle found her a position as lady-in-waiting for Anne of Cleves and she moved to court.

The leading Catholics in England saw the beautiful young Kathryn as an ideal next queen for Henry. She quickly attracted the king, starting an affair with him before his marriage to Anne of Cleves was annulled. On July 28, 1540, just sixteen days after the annulment came through, Henry took Kathryn as his fifth wife. Thomas Cromwell, who took the blame for the Anne of Cleves debacle, was executed. Henry called Kathryn his “rose without a thorn” and his energy and enthusiasm was bolstered by his vivacious young wife. However, Kathryn ultimately needed the company of younger men her own age. She had an affair with Francis Dereham, her private secretary. Their liaison was soon discovered and reported to Thomas Cranmer. Despite Henry’s disbelief, he permitted Cranmer to pursue the matter. She was found guilty by Parliament and executed in February 1542.

**Katherine Parr (1512?-1548)**

Katherine Parr’s father died when she was just 5; she and her two siblings were raised by their single mother. Katherine married twice early in life; once at age 15 and again around age 20. Her second husband, the Lord Latimer, fought on the Catholic side in the Pilgrimage of Grace but was subsequently pardoned. After his death, Katherine received a marriage proposal from Henry VIII, recently widowed after Kathryn Howard’s death. Katherine was in love with Thomas Seymour (Jane’s brother), but knew that the king could not be refused, even if he was aging and obese.

Henry and Katherine were married in July 1543. Katherine became a loving mother to Prince Edward and helped reconcile Mary and Elizabeth to Henry. Katherine personally supported a Protestant faith. At one point the Catholic faction even had a warrant for her arrest, but she managed to defuse the crisis by promising to stay out of religious matters in the future.

Henry died in 1547, finally allowing Katherine to move on and marry Thomas Seymour. She died in childbirth having at last conceived a child in her mid-thirties. She is the only queen in English history to have been married four times.

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**Desiderius Erasmus (1466?-1536)**

A Dutch boy of illegitimate birth, Desiderius Erasmus (Latin for “the desired beloved”) learned Latin at a young age while studying at a series of monastic schools near Rotterdam. Although admitted to the priesthood, Erasmus never worked as a priest, instead moving on to study at the University of Paris and Oxford. In England, Erasmus met the leading humanist scholars of the age, including John Colet and Thomas More. His most famous book, *The Praise of Folly*, was written in 1509 and dedicated to More. In it, Erasmus satirizes the superstitions and practices of the Catholic Church. The hugely popular book was reprinted 40 times before Erasmus’ death and put Europe in the proper mindset to appreciate Luther’s attacks on the abuses plaguing Catholicism. The famous line says that “Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched.”

After publication of *The Praise of Folly*, Erasmus’ fame grew. He published the first retranslation of the New Testament since the Vulgate written by St. Jerome a thousand years earlier, complete with a companion volume of commentary. By 1520, an Oxford bookseller reported that Erasmus’ works comprised over a third of his sales.

Erasmus reacted favorably to Luther’s Theses, sending copies to Colet and More. However, Erasmus’ support dropped off as Luther’s attacks on the Papacy became more virulent. He never made a break with Rome and by his late years he was opening attacking Luther’s views on free will. Nonetheless, he was forever considered the grandfather of the Reformation. After his death all of his works were added to the Catholic Index of Prohibited Books.

**Frederick the Wise (1463-1525)**

Frederick was born in Torgau in 1463, the first son of the Elector Ernest of the House of Wettin. At age 23 his father died and he became elector. His reign was one of peace; Ernestine Saxony refrained from warfare throughout the nearly 40 years that he reigned.

Frederick was a promoter of art and culture; he strived to establish Wittenberg as one of the centers for spiritual thought in Germany. He amassed a large collection of holy relics to draw pilgrims to the area. In 1502, he founded the university at Wittenberg, soon naming Martin Luther and Philip Melanchthon as two of the professors.

As Luther’s defiance against the Papacy grew, Frederick moved to protect his prized scholar. In 1520, Frederick refused to acknowledge the Papal Bull that called on him to arrest Luther and bring him to Rome. A year later, he fought hard to make sure Luther had safe conduct to the Diet of Worms. Leaving Worms after his hearing with Charles, Luther was kidnapped by some of Frederick’s men and whisked off to safety in Wartburg Castle. Luther would spend some of his most productive months therein, safely out of the public eye.

Frederick died unmarried in 1525, and is buried in the Castle Church in Wittenberg along with Luther and Melanchthon.

**Katherina Bora (1499-1552)**

Katherina von Bora was born south of Leipzig to a family of impoverished Saxon nobles. Her mother died when she was five years old. When her father remarried, she sent her to a nearby cloister. By age 16, she took her vows as a nun and could read and write in German and Latin. Hearing of the Protestant reform movement, a group of nuns (including Katherina) contacted Luther and asked for help in leaving the convent. He arranged for them to sneak out with the usual herring delivery wagon.

Within two years, all of the escaped nuns had found husbands, with the notable exception of Katherina. She held out for marriage to Luther himself. On June 27, 1525 they were married. She was age 26; he was 42.

Martin and “Katie” Luther had six children. She also raised four orphan children and had wide responsibilities running the monastery and brewery where they lived. She lived 6 years after Luther’s death, including a period where she fled Wittenberg to escape the destruction of the Schmalkaldic Wars.

**John Zapolya (1487-1540)**

John Zapolya was leader of the faction in Hungary that resisted rule by foreigners, especially the Hapsburgs. In 1505, he helped to pass a law preventing foreigners from ruling Hungary after the death of the current king (Ladislaus). He then attempted to marry Anna, daughter of the king, to strengthen his own claim to the throne. Instead, she was promised to Ferdinand of Austria, while he was shuffled off to rule the province of Transylvania.

Anger over this treatment probably explains the late arrival of his Transylvanian army to support young King Louis II at the Battle of Mohacs (1526). After Louis’ death in that fight, John was named king by the Hungarian nobles. However, Ferdinand also had a strong claim to the throne based on his marriage to Anna, and was able to defeat John and drive him from the country. John returned in 1529 just as the Ottomans were overrunning Hungary. The Ottomans set John Zapolya up as a vassal king, asking an annual tribute in money and manpower as well as free passage through Hungary at any time.

In 1538, John finally ended his feud with the Hapsburgs, indicating that the crown could pass to Ferdinand on his death (since John was childless). However, a few months before his death, a son was born. The child, John Sigismund, would grow up to also rule Hungary (as John II).

**Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527)**

A Florentine by birth, Niccolo Machiavelli entered civil service for his home city at age 25. For 18 years he traveled to the courts of France, Germany, and the other Italian city-states on diplomatic missions for the Republic of Florence. When Julius II’s Holy League
expelled the French from Italy in 1512, the Medici family took over Florence. Machiavelli and many of the other republican office holders were imprisoned or displaced.

Obliged to retire from public life, Machiavelli turned to literature, becoming a historian, musician, poet, comedian, and most importantly, a political philosopher. His most famous work is the legendary book *The Prince*, a handbook on how to become and remain a ruler. The prevailing sentiment that “the ends justify the means” from *The Prince* has given rise to the adjective “Machiavellian,” now applied to anyone with cutthroat political tendencies.

Medici rule of Florence ended with the Sack of Rome. Machiavelli hoped to return to civil service at last, but took ill and died soon after his return to the city. *The Prince* was circulating informally at the time of his death. It would not be formally published for 10 more years.

**Julia Gonzaga (1513-1566)**

Giulia Gonzaga was born in Gazzuolo, Italy, near the Po River. Her beauty was legendary. She was always known as “the most beautiful woman in Italy”, and hundreds of Italian poets are said to have sung her praises. She married Vespasiano Colonna at age 13, becoming Duchess of Trajetto and Countess of Fondi (her husband, age 46 when they married, would die in 2 years).

Word of this great beauty traveled to Khair ad Din Barbarossa, who planned to capture her for Suleiman’s harem. In 1534, he landed on the Italian coast at Fondi, on the coast near Naples, and scourged the town for Julia. According to the legend of the time (probably apocryphal), she escaped the town with her male servant by horse just in time, wearing only her nightgown. The legend goes on to claim that he attempted to assault her, an act that caused him to be sentenced to death. Barbarossa, furious that Julia had escaped, had Fondi burned to the ground.

Julia was much more than a beauty though, writing poetry and spending her free time engaged in theological discussions with a small circle of Italian Protestants that flourished briefly in Naples, probably starting around 1536. This group was persecuted during Caraffa’s Papal Inquisition; Julia was in grave danger but was saved by Caraffa’s death in 1559. In 1566, Julia entered a convent and died soon thereafter.

**Roxelana (1510?-1558)**

Born as Anastasia Lisovska in modern day Ukraine, she was known as Roxelana to Europe and Rossa in Istanbul. She was the daughter of an Orthodox priest and was captured by the Ottomans in the 1520s, probably in the Caucasus. She was placed in the harem of Suleiman at age 46 when they married, would die in 2 years.

In 1534 she convinced Suleiman to send away his first-born son and that boy’s mother, clearing the line of succession for Roxelana’s own children (the boy was subsequently murdered). Suleiman’s friend Ibrahim Pasha, who disapproved of Roxelana, was also assassinated in 1536. Roxelana also was able to improve her son’s claim to the throne by convincing Suleiman to officially marry her, the first such marriage of an Ottoman sultan.

Roxelana died in 1558 and is buried with her husband in the Suleiman Mosque in Istanbul. In 1566, after the death of Suleiman, her son Selim did take over as sultan.

**Gerardus Mercator (1512-1594)**

Born as Gerard de Cremere in the Flemish city of Rupelmonde, he changed his last name to the Latin equivalent Mercator, which means “merchant.” He attended the University of Louvain and in that city collaborated with Gemma Frisius for two years producing globes. His first independent works were maps of Palestine (1537) and the world (1538). He was commissioned by Charles V to produce sets of measurement instruments and globes. Mercator would continue making maps, globes, and atlases until the time of his death at age 82. His religious beliefs were Protestant, and he was imprisoned for seven months in 1544. Luckily he escaped the fate of some of the other 42 people arrested: two were burnt, one beheaded, and two were buried alive.

Mercator’s greatest contribution was his invention of a projection with straight lines of latitude and longitude that simplified maritime navigation. He also coined the word “atlas” and was instrumental in giving Europeans a more accurate representation of their place in the world, free of the earlier distortions caused by Ptolemy’s works.

**Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543)**

Copernicus was born into the son of a wealthy businessman, and was educated both in Krakow and in Italy, studying medicine and law. His interest in astronomy was sparked by Domenico Maria Novara at the University of Bologna. He returned to Poland and enjoyed a diverse career that included time as church canon, provincial governor, astrologer, economist, and briefly, as a successful military commander. During this entire time he pursued astronomy as a hobby.

His theory of the heliocentric solar system was in place by 1533, but he was afraid to publish it for fear of reprimand from church authorities. Finally in 1542, he sent the book to Nuremberg for publication through the mathematician Georg Joachim Rheticus of Wittenberg, a friend of Melanchthon. According to legend, the first printed copy of *De revolutionibus orbium coelestium* was placed in his hands on the day he died. Copernicus was buried in Frombork Cathedral and his remains finally found and identified in November 2005. His theory was one of the most important scientific advances in human history, as summarized here by Goethe: “Of all discoveries and opinions, none may have exerted a greater effect on the human spirit than the doctrine of Copernicus. The world had scarcely become known as round and complete in itself when it was asked to waive the tremendous privilege of being the center of the universe. Never, perhaps, was a greater demand made on mankind.”

**Michelangelo (1475-1564)**

Born near Arezzo, in Tuscany, Michelangelo di Lodovico Buonarroti Simoni grew up near Florence in the home of a local sculptor. He split his years between Rome, Florence, and Bologna. His most famous works are his frescoes on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel and his statue of David.

His main influence related to *Here I Stand* is his work on St. Peter’s Basilica. He was named chief architect of that project in 1546, when he was age 71. He inherited a design for a dome with a single masonry shell that was found unworkable. Refusing pay, Michelangelo reworked the design from scratch, creating a dome that is 138 feet in diameter and that rises 452 feet above the street, making St. Peter’s the largest church in Christendom. Michelangelo died before his dome could be completed; in fact, St. Peter’s would not be finished for another 50 years after his death.

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Lady Jane Grey (1537-1554)
Born in Leicestershire, Jane Grey was the granddaughter of Charles Brandon and Mary Tudor, Henry VIII’s sister. She was thus a cousin of Mary, Elizabeth, and Edward, and in line to inherit the throne of England if all three of them died without issue. She was extremely well educated, knowing Latin, Greek, Hebrew and several other language. She was an attendant for Queen Katherine Parr until age 11. Two years later, she began a correspondence with Bullinger and other Swiss Zwinglian reformers that helped earn her a reputation as one of the most learned women of her day.

With the death of Edward VI imminent, John Dudley launched a plot to advance his son, Guilford. Jane and Guilford were married, despite Jane’s protests. Edward’s will was updated to cut Mary and Elizabeth out of the picture. And so, upon Edward’s death, Lady Jane Grey became queen of England. However, she refused to allow Guilford to become king.

Queen Jane would only rule for 9 days. The people supported Mary, who quickly raised a large army and marched on London. Jane was imprisoned in the tower. When her father participated in the Protestant rebellion the following year, Mary had little choice but to execute Jane and Guilford.

Michael Servetus (1511-1553)
Spanish by birth, Servetus studied at the universities of Zaragoza, Toulouse, and Paris. In his travels he met both Bucer and Oekolampadius. Finally he settled down near Lyon and started a medical practice.

Servetus wrote several theological treatises and began a heated correspondence with Calvin. In 1553, he published a theological treatise, Christianismi Restitutio, that contained a full, correct description of pulmonary circulation. Unfortunately these books were burnt; only 3 have survived. It would be another 60 years before Servetus’ theories would gain general acceptance.

On the run from the French authorities, Servetus fled to Geneva. However, Calvin alerted the city officials, who had him imprisoned, tried, and executed. Servetus’ harsh treatment at the hands of Calvin ended up as a public relations nightmare for the Protestants.

EVENTS OF THE REFORMATION
This section contains additional details concerning some of the important events mentioned in the section “The Game As History.”

Revolt of the Communeros (1520-1522)
Charles V was considered an outsider when he first arrived in Spain in 1516 as the new king (officially as a co-regent with his mentally unstable mother Juana). Charles appointed several of his advisors from the Netherlands to key posts administering Castile and Aragon. After being elected Holy Roman Emperor in 1519, Charles left for Germany, leaving Adrian of Utrecht as regent. Soon after his departure, revolt broke out in Castile, with the chief complaint being the heavy taxes being levied by this new ruling party of foreigners.

The revolt started in Toledo, where the royal administrators were driven out and replaced with a committee of local townspeople (“the Communeros”). Similar local revolts occurred across Castile. The rebels liberated Juana and tried to prop her up as their sole sovereign. Charles moved decisively against the rebels and undermined their support by offering posts within his administration to key Castilian nobles. Juana proved to be of no assistance to the rebels either; she fell into a stupor and refused to govern on their behalf. Two years after the uprising had begun, the last resistance was crushed. Charles kept his mother safely locked up in prison for the remaining 35 years of her life.

Peasants War (1524-1525)
Agrarian unrest was common in Germany, even prior to the Reformation. Upon hearing the messages of Luther and Carlstadt of “the priesthood of all believers”, the peasants gained a further sense of empowerment. A revolt broke out near Switzerland in 1524. The peasants of the area organized armies; soon the revolt had spread across Germany north and east to Leipzig. Atrocities were committed by both sides in the war; those by the nobility were probably the worse. Zwingli voiced his support for the movement, but Luther never did. Lacking coherent leadership, the peasant forces were eventually crushed by the nobility with total losses estimated at 100,000 lives.

Sack of Rome (1527)
After the battle of Pavia, Charles V left Charles Bourbon in charge of his army in Northern Italy (which included as many as 20,000 Protestant Landsknechts). However he did not have the funds to pay for Bourbon’s operations. Without food and any hope of pay, Bourbon’s men turned to looting. They were bribed to bypass Florence, but no amount of money could keep them from Rome. Once they had broken into the city, the Hapsburg army spent at least 8 days ransacking and pillaging the city. Pope Clement VI spent the next 8 months holed up in the Castel Sant’Angelo, fearing for his life. Rome’s population plummeted from 55,000 down to just 10,000. The Sack of Rome was the low point of the 16th Century for the Papacy. Luther commented: “Christ reigns in such a way that the Emperor who persecutes Luther for the Pope is forced to destroy the Pope for Luther.”

Marburg Colloquy (1529)
In October 1529, Philip of Hesse hosted a meeting at his family castle at Marburg to mediate the differences between the Lutheran and Zwinglian reformed beliefs. The goal was to create a united Protestant front. Luther and Melanchthon attended on one side; Zwingli and Oekolampadius on the other. The two sides differed only about the true nature of the Eucharist. Luther believed in transubstantiation; Zwingli felt that the bread and wine were only symbolic. Neither of these titans was prepared to give ground; the Reformation remained split into two camps. However, the 14 articles of agreement that were drafted at Marburg helped Melanchthon craft the Augsburg Confession one year later.

Sale of Moluccas (1529)
The treaty of Tordesillas in 1494 divided the world outside of Europe equally between Spain and Portugal. One line of demarcation ran north-south about 100 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands (off the west coast of Africa), allowing for Portuguese control of Brazil. However the exact location of the other meridian in the South Pacific was impossible to fix; no method for accurately measuring longitude had been established. After Magellan’s voyage of 1521-1522 showed that the spice islands of the Moluccas could be reached by both eastern and western routes, the dispute intensified. However, Charles V never found another navigator with Magellan’s mettle. After three follow-up expeditions failed and contributed further to Hapsburg financial woes, Charles abandoned the fight. He
proceeded to sell Spanish interests in the Moluccas to Portugal for 350,000 ducats in the 1529 Treaty of Zaragoza.

**Augsburg Confession (1530)**

Presented to Charles V during the Diet of Augsburg, the Augsburg Confession is a document outlining the 21 articles of faith that make up the Lutheran religion. Edited by Melanchthon, the contents of the Augsburg Confession drew heavily from the points of agreement between the Lutheran and Zwinglian representatives at the Marburg Colloquy. This confession of faith helped unify Protestant beliefs prior to the attacks of the Counter Reformation and still serves as the basis for Lutheran beliefs to this day. Similar documents were later created for each of the other forms of Protestantism.

**Affair of the Placards (1534)**

Nicholas Cop’s sermon at the University of Paris in 1533 woke Francis up to the fact that Protestant sects were present in France. Francis noted, “we are angry and displeased to learn that this damned heretical Lutheran sect is flourishing in our good town of Paris.” Francis ordered two bulls to be issued against heresy.

Seemingly, the Protestant presence had been removed, but then on October 18, 1534, Parisians on their way to mass saw placards posted prominently across town. The printed billboards attacked transubstantiation (thus giving the Zwinglian position, not the Lutheran one). Rumors swirled around the city that a massacre of the city’s Catholics could occur next. A placard was said to have even been posted on the door of Francis’ bedchamber at his favorite chateau (Amboise). Francis’ administration reacted swiftly and violently, finding dozens of suspects who were quickly burnt at the stake. A full-fledged struggle for religious control of France was now underway.

**Dissolution of the Monasteries (1536-1540)**

After the 1536 Act of Supremacy made Henry VIII head of the Church of England, Henry charged Thomas Cromwell with overseeing a round of visitations to the monasteries and abbeys of England to determine their worth. Reports of abuses and scandals were cataloged during this process and used by Cromwell to justify action against the religious houses. Parliament first ruled that all houses with annual incomes under 200 pounds would be closed and their wealth absorbed by the crown. However, the capital raised was disappointing. So in 1539, Parliament went further, passing a new law closing down the rest of the monasteries.

Although the Dissolution did provide a cash infusion to Henry’s indebted regime, the benefits were short-lived. In the long run, the main financial beneficiaries were the gentry that bought church lands at bargain prices. The costs included a terrible loss to the archives of medieval England and a dramatic increase in unrest in England, leading directly to the Pilgrimage of Grace.

**Pilgrimage of Grace (1536-1537)**

In the fall of 1536, following a brief uprising in Lincolnshire, a band of 9000 men rose up in a prolonged insurrection. Their leader was Robert Aske, a London barrister from Yorkshire, who led this motley army into York. Their demands included: restoration of the monasteries, removal of Cromwell from office, and handing over to them a number of Protestant preachers including both Cranmer and Latimer.

Once in York, the rebels restored Catholic worship in the town. Their ranks swelled, perhaps reaching 40,000 in size. Aske led the rebels in a march down the Great North Road toward London. At Doncaster, they met the smaller royal forces of the Duke of Norfolk, who agreed to a general pardon for those involved and a parliament the next year at York. Being overly trusting, Aske then disbanded his army.

Henry had no intention of following through with the agreement. As a result, the uprising began anew in 1537, but Henry was now able to quickly seize and execute the ringleaders. The rebellion fell apart soon thereafter.

**Council of Trent (1545-1563)**

The largest ecumenical council during the period was held in the Tyrolean town of Trent in north-eastern Italy. The council met three times during the 16th Century: from 1545 to 1549, from 1551 to 1552, and from 1562 to 1563. The original idea for a council was advocated by Charles V, who asked Clement to call one hoping that it might allow a reconciliation of Catholic and Protestant faiths. The council was oft-delayed, however, not actually convening until 20 years had passed. Protestants were never given the right to vote at the proceedings, therefore those who planned to attend (such as Melanchthon) broke off their journey before reaching Trent. The council ended up condemning Protestantism. The doctrinal decisions made at Trent affected much-needed reforms that helped the Roman Catholic church respond to the Protestant challenge.

**Gabelle Revolt (1548)**

Francis I issued an edict in 1548 increasing the taxes (“the gabelle”) on the southwest provinces of France. By 1548, the new taxes had become most unpopular; the resulting unrest turned to violence and spread across the province of Guyenne. Rag-tag armies with as many as 40,000 men appeared. Bordeaux was seized and the lieutenant of the governor of the province killed. Henry II (now the king after Francis’ death) dispatched Montmorency to the region. He cracked down hard, executing hundreds, and stripping royal charters from many of the towns of the region.