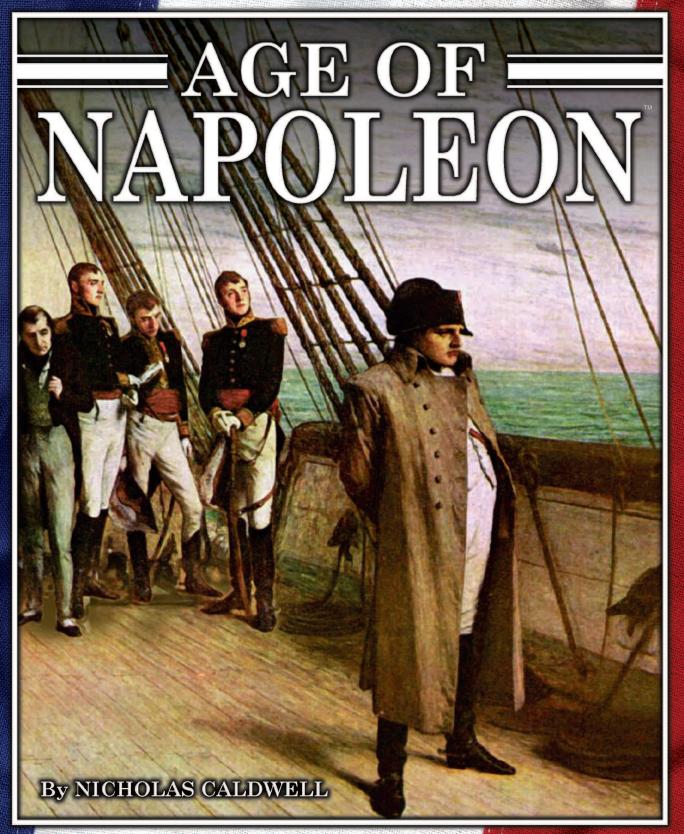
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THE REVOLUTIONARIES:

Written by **Nicholas Caldwell** Edited by William H. Stoddard

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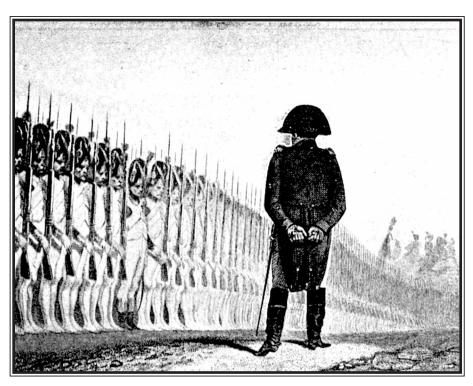
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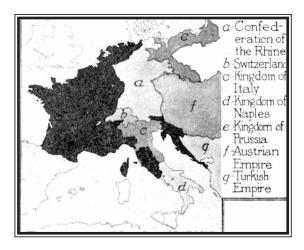
Welcome to the Age of Napoleon.

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

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

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

Welcome to the high adventure of the Age of Napoleon.



About the Author

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

his current major hobby is editing and managing a gaming magazine (see **www.guildcompanion.com**).

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GURPSnet. This e-mail list hosts much of the online discussion of GURPS. To join, e-mail majordomo@io.com with "subscribe GURPSnet-L" in the body, or point your web browser to gurpsnet.sjgames.com.

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

Page References

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In Europe, forces of the Second Coalition of Britain, Russia, Austria, the Ottoman Empire, Naples, and Portugal (created December 1798) were threatening France on many fronts. Archduke Charles defeated Jourdan and Masséna in the Rhineland, Suvorov's Russians drove the French out of northern Italy, Neapolitan rule was reasserted 0in southern Italy, and a combined British-Russian army invaded Holland.

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

The Directory

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

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

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

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

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

INTERLUDE: SPAIN

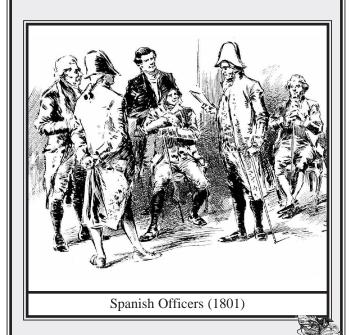
The reign of Charles III was distinguished by his appointment of a succession of reforming ministers influenced by various strands of Enlightenment thought. Although all were impeded by various traditional privileges, their efforts improved colonial administration, increasing revenue and providing a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

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

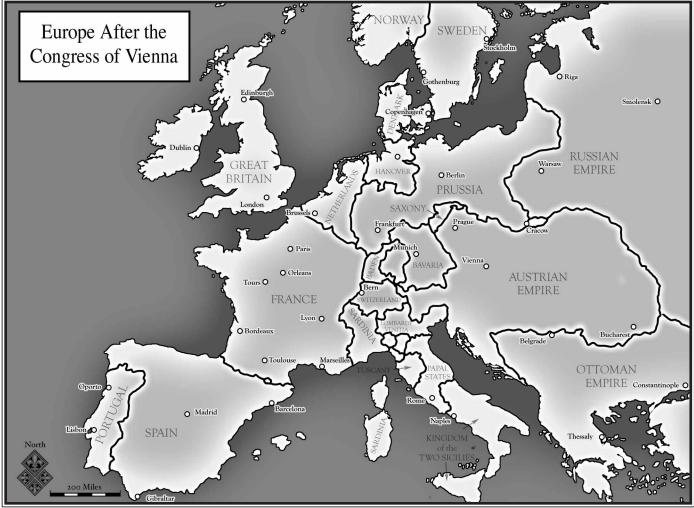
The War of the Oranges – the short joint invasion of Portugal with France in 1801 – gained Spain the province of Olivenza but failed to raise Godoy's popularity. Spanish naval losses at Trafalgar (1805) increased discontent with pro-French policies. However, Napoleon's continued continental successes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

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

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







THE HUNDRED DAYS

Escape from Elba

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

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

Colonel Campbell, British Commissioner for Elba and Napoleon's jailer, sailed for Italy to visit his mistress on February 16, 1815. Ten days later, Napoleon embarked on the

brig *Inconstant*, which was disguised as a British man-of-war. With 1,000 Old Guard, Polish lancers, and volunteers, Napoleon sailed for France in a flotilla of seven ships, evading Campbell in

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

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

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

Waterloo

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

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

HISTORY **E**



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

FOOD AND DRINK

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CLOTHING

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

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

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

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



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