Eduqas GCSE History
Component 2: Studies in Breadth

CAUSES OF WAR
HAVE WARS ALWAYS HAD THE SAME CAUSES OVER TIME?

CAUSES OF WAR IN GENERAL
OVERVIEW

> **"Every age had its own kind of war, its limiting conditions and its own peculiar preconceptions.".**
>
> - Carl von Clausewitz (1780-1831), Prussian general and military theorist.

There can be no single cause of war. The origins of conflict over time have been diverse and complex but they have basic similarities and characteristics. Political, economic, religious, nationalistic and ideological factors have been the causes of war and warfare itself has been shaped by science and technology.

Recent research has revealed that there have only been 292 years without war since 3,600 BC. In ancient times nomadic peoples went to war over grazing rights and the prospect of plunder. The Roman Empire was established by warfare and ultimately destroyed by it. Religion was a major cause of war in early times while in the modern era imperialism and commercial rivalry have pushed nations to war.

With causes there are consequences. The cost has been over 150 million war-related deaths of which 96% have occurred in the last 400 years. The concept of "Total War" in more recent times, where civilians become targets, has increased the death toll. In the First World War there were 8.4 million military and 1.4 million civilian deaths. In the Second World War there were 16.9 million military and 34.3 million civilian deaths. Since 1945 it has been estimated that 90% of war-related casualties have been civilian, many of whom were children. The United Nations has estimated that in the last decade 2 million children have died in armed conflict.

Mankind's attempts to eradicate wars have failed. The First World War or the "war to end all wars" did not ensure peace. The Second World War has been described

as the unfinished business of the First World War. Organisations such as the League of Nations and its successor the United Nations failed to prevent wars. The world today may appear to be a dangerous place but the trend has been for the major powers to avoid war.
Harvard Professor of Psychology. Since 1945 however there has been no great super-power war as a result of MAD (Mutually Assured Destruction) in preventing war. In the post-1945 period 9 out of 10 wars have occurred in weak, unstable countries in the Third World.

> **"Today we are probably living in the most peaceful time in the existence of our species"**
>
> – Steven Pinker (2007), Harvard Professor of Psychology.

Religion as a cause of the Crusades of the medieval period

The Crusades were a series of military campaigns between the end of the 11th century through to the end of the 13th century and were initiated by the medieval papacy to rescue the Holy Land from Islamic control.
They were caused by a combination of political, economic, social but primarily religious factors.

- Political – to make possible the reunification of the Catholic Western Church and the Greek Orthodox Eastern Church.
- Economic – the Italian merchant states sought to expand their trade in the Mediterranean at a time when many strategic seaports were controlled by Muslims.
- Social – the Crusades offered social release for a society that was becoming overburdened by landless nobles as a result of primogeniture where the eldest legitimate son inherited all the land of his parents. Crusading presented an opportunity to gain lands in the Middle East. If a noble went on crusade his knights would follow him into battle as part of their feudal obligations.
- Religious – In 1095 pope Urban II made a dramatic speech to the Council of Clermont urging Christians to take up arms to rescue Jerusalem from Muslim control. The response of the crowds that were gathered was to chant "Deus

vult", "God wills it". Knights were given a holy vocation and became vassals of God. Devout Christians saw the opportunity to go on pilgrimages or spiritual journeys to the places associated with Jesus. "Taking the cross" would be the perfect demonstration of Christian love and devotion to God and crusaders would be granted remission of sin and reduced time in purgatory (a place where sins would be purged before entry to Heaven. Retaking and defending the Holy Land and protecting Christians (while killing Muslims) were considered acts of loving one's neighbour.

In short, Christians and Muslims eagerly participated in acts of killing and destruction on a mass scale mostly for the sake of religious belief and conquest in a bid for supremacy.

Source 1: King Richard I – Lionheart on Crusade

Politics as a cause of the English Civil War

The English Civil War lasted from 1642 to 1649 and divided the country between supporters of King Charles I – Royalists or "Cavaliers" and supporters of parliament – Parliamentarians or "Roundheads". The English Civil War was the result of complex, inter-related economic, religious and political disagreements between the monarchy and parliament.

- Economic – a combination of a lavish lifestyle and a series of costly wars meant that Charles I was short of money. He resorted to raise money by forcing rich people to 'lend' him money and demanded that parliament raise customs duties on wine and other goods. Parliament's response was to issue the Petition of Right in 1628 which stated that the King could not levy taxes without the assent of parliament nor could he arrest people arbitrarily. In order to raise money Charles exploited Royal prerogative and imposed knighthood fees on landowners, sold monopolies to merchants and charged Ship Money to towns that were nowhere near the coast.
- Religious – Charles had married Henrietta Maria, a French Catholic, and there were fears that the king and his children might convert to the Catholic faith. This would challenge the Protestant Religious Settlement which alarmed the Puritans. Concerns increased when Charles appointed William Laud as Archbishop of Canterbury who had little time for Puritans and set about making changes to church services and worship that smacked of Catholicism.
- Political – A wealthy and powerful middle class was emerging at this time who wanted more of a say in the running of the country. This would challenge the power of the monarchy which had increased during the reigns of Henry VIII and Elizabeth I. There had been a breakdown in relations between monarchy and parliament during the reign of James I (father of Charles) and Charles inherited the same negative view of any interference by parliament to his own rule.

Following the Petition of Right Charles dismissed parliament and went on to rule without them until 1639 in what he called his "Personal Rule" but what became known as "The Eleven Years Tyranny". Desperate to raise an army to defeat the Scots, Charles was forced to recall parliament but when they refused to grant him money he again dismissed them. After defeat, parliament was again recalled and "The Long Parliament" was to sit from 1640 to 1660. In 1641 John Pym a strict Puritan MP laid before parliament a list of the wrong-doings of the king in what was known as the Grand Remonstrance. The king, angered by this and with an armed guard, forced his way into the House of Commons to arrest Pym and four other

rebel MPs. In doing this Charles had broken parliamentary privilege where MPs could not be arrested when sitting in the House of Commons. Underpinning this was the king's firm belief in the Divine Right of Kings that a monarch received power directly from God and could not be challenged. This cut across the view that there should be a limit to royal authority and that the people, through their representatives, should have more say in the running of the country.

By 1642 the rift between monarchy and parliament had become too wide and on 22nd of August Charles declared war on parliament.

Source 2: Charles I attempts to arrest five MPs in 1642

Nationalism and Expansionism as causes of the Second World War

The Second World War was the result of a range of factors that arose in the 1920s and 1930s that were to escalate into full blown war. The rise of fascism in Europe, German aggression in Europe, passive resistance of European powers and failed efforts to create peace all combined to cause war in 1939.
Factors leading to war –

- Militarism and rearmament – Hitler defied the terms of the Treaty of Versailles which had reduced Germany's military strength after the First World War. He expanded all three areas of the military and began producing weapons on a massive scale with the aim of making Germany the most dominant power in Europe.
- Ideology – Hitler's aim was to destroy communism which would mean waging war on the USSR. Britain and France had also shown opposition to communism and Hitler believed that they would not oppose and possibly support his policies in Eastern Europe.
- Appeasement – Hitler faced no opposition to his actions in Europe. The USA was neutral and France was reluctant to intervene without British support while Britain appeared sympathetic to Germany's claims in Europe.
- Failure of the League of Nations – the League failed to act against Japanese aggression in Manchuria, the Italian invasion of Abyssinia and Hitler's moves in Europe.

Imperialism – Japan wanted to create a Nipponese empire in the Pacific extending to China and Australia. Mussolini wanted a Fascist-Roman empire in the Mediterranean and East Africa. Hitler aimed to unite all German speaking people into a Greater Germany while expanding eastwards at the expense of the USSR.

Nationalism and Expansionism

German nationalism was arguably one of the most important factors in causing the Second World War. Nazism was based on extreme nationalism and centred on racial purity and authoritarian rule. The ideal of an Aryan, pure bred German race superior in mind and body pervades Hitler's book Mein Kampf (1924) and is present in his early political speeches. He saw it as his mission to ensure the dominance of the German "Master Race" where the nation would be built on "Blood and Soil" and on the totalitarian principle of "One People, One Nation, One Leader". It required bringing all German minorities within the borders of the state and claiming *Lebensraum*, literally "living space" for all. Land was to be taken by force from the east where the aim would be to deport, enslave or kill Poles, Russians and other Slavic populations whom they regarded as *Untermenschen* or sub-humans. The lands acquired would then be populated by people of pure breeding.
The Nazi modified theory of *Lebensraum* became the basis of German foreign policy during the Third Reich.

Weltpolitik was the belief that Germany should and would become a world power. At the outbreak of the First World War in 1914 German politicians and military strategists were planning *Mitteleuropa* a plan to create a German dominated Europe followed by expansion eastwards assuming they were victorious. The plan was put on hold but revived by Hitler. Hitler made no secret of his aggressive, expansionist aims and had little interest in improving foreign relations except to advance German interests. In March 1936 the German army occupied the demilitarised Rhineland in clear violation of the Treaty of Versailles and with no opposition from France and Britain. Then in March 1938 he annexed Austria and then demanded the Sudetenland, the German speaking part of Czechoslovakia as a prelude to annexing the rest of the country. Fearing another large-scale war Britain and France appeased Hitler. In September 1939 Hitler's gambled and invaded Poland in the hope that Britain and France would broker a peace deal. This miscalculation would plunge Europe and the world into war.

Source 3: German troops march into Poland, September 1939

Ideology as a cause of the Cold War

The Cold War lasted from the end of the Second World War to the fall of communism in 1990. It was a time of intense political, economic, military and ideological rivalry between the USA and her democratic allies in the west and the USSR and its satellite states. The development of nuclear weapons by both sides meant that if a war broke out it would be a "hot war" which would lead to global destruction. Instead, both sides resorted to a "cold war" or a war of nerves that did not lead to direct confrontation and actual fighting.

- Political rivalry – At the end of the Second World War disagreements arose about the rebuilding of Europe. The USA realised that a weakened Germany in Central Europe would be the perfect breeding ground for communism and so was keen to aid recovery and secure a return to democracy. Stalin however wanted to extract heavy reparations as a means of punishing Germany. The pattern for conflict was set.
- Expansionism – Stalin sought to dominate the counties of Eastern Europe, absorb them and spread communism there. Churchill coined the phrase "Iron Curtain" and called for an alliance of English speaking nations to resist Soviet goals of expansion and power. In 1947 the US announced the "Truman Doctrine" which offered help to any country threatened by 'internal or external forces' in an attempt to contain the spread of communism.
- Militarism – Stalin was angered that he had not been consulted about the USA's decision to use atomic weapons to end the war with Japan. In 1949 the Soviet Union detonated its first atomic bomb which ended the USA's monopoly of atomic weaponry and both powers became involved in an arms race which became central to the Cold War. In 1949 12 Western powers came together to form The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) which was a military alliance set up to create a counterweight to Soviet armies stationed in Central and Eastern Europe. The Soviet response was to set up the Warsaw Pact in 1955 which was a military alliance of the Soviet Union and the satellite states.
- Economic rivalry - The Marshall Plan put the Truman Doctrine into practice. The US Secretary of State George C. Marshall offered a programme of economic aid to countries trying to recover after the war. Stalin forbade the satellite states from accepting it.
- Ideology - The Cold War was basically a clash between capitalism and communism.

Differences between capitalism and communism

Capitalism is based on –

- the principle of individual rights.
- the private ownership of property.
- a free market economy.
- little government interference.
- an uneven distribution of wealth.
- the goal of equal opportunity with the focus on the individual and its own progress in life.

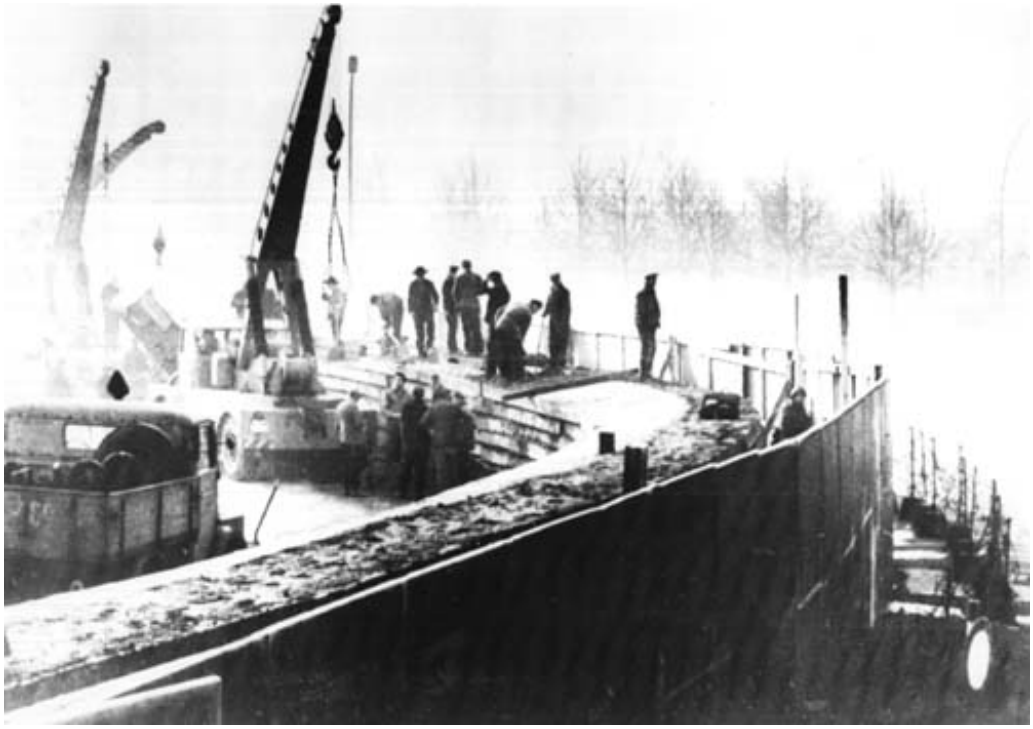
Communism is based on –

- the principle of communal rights.
- the state ownership of property.
- a controlled economy.
- high levels of governmental control.
- an even distribution of wealth.
- the goal of equal outcome for all with the focus on the progress of the community as a whole.

The main cause of the Cold War was the vastly different political ideologies of capitalist USA and communist USSR. Both countries had united against Nazism but after the war they clashed over the future of Europe and especially Germany. Post-war Germany and the capital Berlin had been divided into four zones of occupation to be administered by Britain, France, the USA and the USSR. Berlin lay in the Soviet zone.

By 1948 Germany was suffering from economic difficulties and the Western powers combined their zones into one and announced the introduction of a new currency. In retaliation, Stalin blocked all links between the West and Berlin in an attempt to starve West Berliners and the Western powers into submission. Food and supplies were air-lifted into Berlin and Stalin was forced to lift the blockade.
Germany became officially separated in 1949 between the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) and the German Democratic Republic (East Germany). Berlin became an island of freedom locked 100 miles inside Soviet controlled East Germany and the city became a symbol of the Cold War. The building of Berlin

Wall in August 1961 separated East and West Berlin and the wall became poignant physical symbol of the Cold War until its fall in 1989. The divergent ideologies led to the division of Europe and the world was ultimately turned into two opposing camps. The USA pursued its policy of containment and fought proxy wars e.g. Korea and Vietnam.



Source 4: East German construction workers building the wall in 1961

Changes in tactics and strategy
How have tactics and strategy changed over time?

> **"Tactics is the art of using troops in battle, strategy is the art of using battles to win the war"**
>
> - Carl von Clausewitz (1780-1831), Prussian general and military theorist.

Military strategy and tactics are essential features of warfare. Strategy is the planning, co-ordination and direction of military operations. Tactics carry out strategy by interim decisions on the use of troops and weapons on the field of battle.

Saxon and Viking battle methods

Details of military strategy and tactics in the Dark Ages are scant owing to a lack of evidence which has led to much conjecture.

From the 6th century AD Saxon warriors were organised into war-bands each led by a chieftain. Estimating the size of a Saxon army is difficult because any force of more than 30 warriors was classed as an army. A number of war-bands under the leadership of a senior chieftain could have a strength of between 200 and 600 warriors.

In the post-settlement period when the Saxons had established kingdoms, an army would have been composed of earls who would maintain their own household troops or *housecarls* who were full-time professional soldiers. A new class of lord emerged called *thegns*. These held land from the king and some richer *thegns* would have their own household troops. *Thegns* were responsible for raising the *fyrd* which was an emergency army which was raised when required. The nucleus would have consisted of experienced soldiers but the bulk was made up of farmers who lacked experience and equipment. The war-band fought in close order behind a shield wall or phalanx formation which would require a degree of training and discipline. The shield wall was both a defensive as well as an offensive tactical weapon. In battle the infantry would exchange insults, then missiles such as arrows and javelins and

a double advance would ensue rather like a shoving contest until one side broke through and engaged the enemy. In the fighting, swords being expensive items were used by the richer warriors, while most would have used long- handled axes. There is some reference to the use of horses in literature which is supported by the discovery of burials of warriors and horses but it would appear that their use was confined to transporting troops and supplies.

The Vikings had no professional standing army. In battle tactics were basic and there were regular formations. The younger warriors would draw up behind a shield wall while the older veterans would form rear lines of support. The battle began with an exchange of missiles and if this was not decisive then each side would attempt to breech the shield walls. This was sometimes achieved by forming a wedge of 20 to 30 warriors in a "boar formation". The *beserks* often made up this formation and, in the belief that Odin the god of war gave them spiritual and even super-human strength, they would work themselves up into a frenzy. It was said that they were able to ignore severe battle wounds. Once a hole had been punched into the shield wall the warriors would engage in hand to hand combat. Viking tactics were usually successful because they often ignored the conventions of battle and used stealth and ruthlessness which they regarded as fair play.

Again, horses did not feature in battle and were used for transportation and reconnaissance.

Source 5: A modern re-enactment of a Viking battle

Medieval battle tactics and strategy

Saxon and Viking armies were basically mobs of infantry but with the advent of heavy cavalry in the medieval period, the most effective armies consisted of groups of mounted knights. The role of the infantry also saw change. The introduction of the longbow and the use of ballistics (see section on changes technology) were to transform the nature of warfare. However, many aspects of warfare witnessed little change. Weaponry remained the same and battles continued to be fought by the infantry in hand to hand combat.

Strategy was based on the concept of limited warfare. Battles in the medieval era remained the last resort and more so all-out warfare. Terms could be negotiated by cleverly out-manoeuvring the enemy or by laying siege to a castle or fortified town. The medieval period saw kings leading armies into battle which could result in death or capture for ransom. Knights felt obliged by codes of chivalry to avoid killing opposing knights. Capture was considered honourable and was more lucrative. If a battle was to ensue then positioning was vital. Securing high ground offered an advantage over enemy forces as was the need to protect the flanks or sides in order to repel cavalry attacks.

<u>The use of cavalry.</u>
It is a misconception that cavalry could be used as a giant battering ram during mounted charges. Horses would, by their nature, pull short against the barrier of a shield wall. Defenders would thrust with spears or hurl missiles and if the infantry held their ground the effectiveness of the cavalry was reduced. However, against a scattered army a mounted charge or “rout and chase” could devastate the opposition.

<u>The use of archers.</u>
The decisive victory of William at Hastings in 1066 was won in the main by archers though it was the knights who, as usual, gained the glory. The longbow was to decide many key battles of the medieval era, notably Crécy (1346) and Agincourt (1415) during the Hundred Years War (1337-1453).

Foot archers fought in mass formation of hundreds, sometimes thousands of men. At long range archers could send over a barrage of arrows to disrupt the opposition. At shorter range they could be deployed to pick out individual targets. Firing up to six shots per minute, 3,000 bowmen could put 18,000 arrows into a massed enemy formation with devastating effect.

The use of infantry and pikemen.

If arrow barrages and the use of cavalry failed then the infantry would be sent in leading to hand to hand combat. The infantry used swords, battle-axes and pikes which were thrusting spears between 3 to 5 metres in length. Owing to its unwieldy nature, the pike was used mainly as a defensive weapon but skilled pikemen could use the weapon in an aggressive attack while advancing in rank formation.

A *schiltron* was a circular or rectangular formation that could include upwards of 2,000 pikemen. The Scots were particularly well trained the tactic and, when tightly packed,they were virtually impenetrable. They were used to great effect at the Battle of Bannockburn (1314). English knights became hemmed in by advancing schiltrons and when Robert the Bruce deployed his elite schiltron the English forces were forced to retreat.

The development of such tactics greatly increased the role of the infantry while at the same time reducing the effectiveness of mounted knights.

By the end of the medieval period army commanders were better able to discipline their troops who, in turn, were more responsive to taking orders and working as a cohesive unit. Knights began to fight for money rather than for glory and even gave grudging respect to longbow men and pikemen. Feudal armies were beginning to evolve into professional armies.

Source 6: The battle of Crécy August 26th 1346

The use of linear tactics up to the mid- nineteenth century

Battalions of pikemen remained the basis of battle formations but as firearms improved and the number of musketeers increased, the number of pikemen reduced. The introduction of the rifle and bayonet by the end of the 17th century made pikemen redundant.

Linear tactics were developed to counter the use of firearms. Infantry battalions of between 500 and 1,000 men could be formed in line, column or square. Line formation was used for musketry, column was used to advance while square was a defensive formation used against cavalry. Officers had to assemble men into formation quickly and effectively. They needed an awareness of the terrain and had to be able to estimate distance in order to execute a formation. The drilling of troops was essential.

Line formation - was the basic tactic from the mid-17th century to the mid- 19th century. Lines consisted of between two and four ranks depending on the rate of fire needed. Muskets had a short range of accuracy and could fire between two and three rounds a minute. Rather than fire at will which was more accurate, infantrymen fired “en masse” in order to break the opposing line. In harsh terrain, ranks could become ragged, broken and difficult to manoeuvre and so were used only for short distances.

Column formation – had the advantage of being easier to manoeuvre and advance but, lacking musket firepower it was more vulnerable to artillery attacks. A column would move swiftly to the point of attack and then form a line to return fire. Columns were not deployed as assault formations except under special circumstances.

Square formation – was used when a cavalry advance was sighted and troops would form in squares or rectangles to repulse the charge. The centre would be occupied by the commanding officer, the colour-bearer and wounded soldiers. Again, forming square demanded discipline and precision. Though effective against cavalry squares were vulnerable to artillery attacks. The Duke of Wellington made effective use of the tactic in the defeat of Napoleon’s forces at the Battle of Waterloo (1815).

Source 7: The Battle of Waterloo, June 18th 1815

Infantrymen were often used in skirmishes operating ahead of the line. They were deployed to probe the opposition and took cover behind trees and buildings to target enemy officers and trumpeters. Skirmishers acted in pairs and one would fire while the other loaded.

In the second half of the 19th century the rifle was greatly improved and the range of aimed fire increased. It was impractical to use linear formations and battalion columns. Troops in the field were now in direct contact with the enemy and now operated in loose order described as a chain. At the beginning of the First World War battle formations consisted of combat troops and reserves. Companies and battalions were deployed in a dense skirmish line with intervals of one or two paces between each soldier. The more static nature of warfare after 1915 led to the further splitting of the battle formation into battle sectors on the front line and reserves in the second line.

The development of entrenched warfare in the First World War

> **"The war will be ended by the exhaustion of nations rather than the victories of armies"**
>
> – Winston Churchill.

Forms of trench warfare have been used since ancient times but it was to be used on an unprecedented scale on the Western Front during the First World War (1914-18). At the outbreak of the war both German and French commanders anticipated that there would be large movements of troops as both sides sought to gain and then defend territory. During the first **Battle of the Marne** in September 1914 German forces were pushed back by allied forces and "dug in" to avoid losing more ground. The allies did the same. It quickly became apparent that 19th century forward-moving strategies such as head-on infantry attacks were no longer feasible against the weaponry of the time which made for stalemate. Early foxholes evolved into an elaborate network of trenches and by the end of 1914 the trench system stretched 475 miles from the North Sea to the Swiss border.

Trenches were dug in zig-zag patterns so that an enemy entering the trench could not fire down it. A typical trench system would include a line of three or four trenches – the outpost or fire line, the support trench and the reserve trench all parallel to each other and anywhere from 100 to 400 yards. The main trenches were connected by communication trenches which facilitated the movement of troops and equipment together with the carrying of orders and messages. Protected by fields of barbed-wire in "no-man's land" the fire line was located at varying distances between 50 and 300 metres from the German lines. Some trenches contained dug-outs below the trench floor. The German dug-outs were generally more sophisticated with some boasting toilets, electricity and ventilation.
The aim of both sides was to exhaust each other of resources and manpower while sapping their will to fight in a war of attrition. The Allied high command remained convinced that a big push would lead to a decisive breakthrough as exemplified by the **Battle of the Somme** (July – Nov.1916) and the **Battle of Verdun** (Feb.-Nov.1916). Verdun itself had no strategic value yet the battlefield was turned into a killing field.

Tactics emerged that went beyond the notion of men "going over the top" and facing injury or death. Entering "no man's land" in daylight would almost guarantee certain death and so most attacks occurred at night-time or at dawn. Attacks would be preceded by artillery barrages with the intention of destroying sections of enemy defences. Artillery fire became carefully planned with precise calculations of range and trajectory. The concept of the "creeping barrage" involved a forward-moving wall of destruction followed by advancing troops.

As the war progressed new features of warfare emerged. These included mine warfare where mines were dug beneath enemy lines to lay tons of explosives. At the Battle of Messines (1917) 455 tons were placed in 22 tunnels which had taken a year to prepare. The explosion killed 10,000 Germans.

By November 1918 the war of attrition had run its course and Germany surrendered. Trench warfare had played a vital role in the eventual outcome of the war.

Source 8: : British soldiers going 'over the top' during the Battle of the Somme.

The development of guerrilla methods and their impact on British soldiers fighting in wars in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries

> **"Guerrilla warfare is the most under-rated and most successful form of warfare in human history".**
>
> – Ivan Eland, an American specialist on military science writing in 2004.

The 18th century was a time of massive industrialisation coupled with the expansion of the British Empire. It was a time when British military forces were the most powerful in the world. As a consequence Britain was drawn into conflicts where her opponents, unable to make gains by conventional methods, turned to guerrilla tactics.

Guerrilla warfare is a method of combat where a weaker force uses mobility and local knowledge of the terrain to conduct strategic, surprise attacks. Guerrilla tactics are based on elements of intelligence, ambush, deception and sabotage.

- South Africa - between 1880-81 and 1899-1902 Britain fought wars against Boers (descendants of Dutch settlers) in South Africa. British forces controlled the towns and railways but Boer commandos were able to operate in the *veldt* (open country). They knew the terrain and used *kopjes* (hills) and *dongas* (riverbeds) to their advantage which gave Boer marksmen natural cover. Lord Kitchener the British Commander in South Africa instigated a new strategy of using mobile columns to hunt out the Boers. Many families deemed sympathetic to the commandos were interned in concentration camps and their properties were seized by the British government. Women and children were left in ruined houses or "blockhouses" to draw the Boers in after which they were captured by the British. The British also used a "scorched-earth policy" to destroy anything that gave the Boers sustenance.

- Ireland – The Irish War of Independence (1919-21) was a guerrilla conflict fought

between the British military forces in Ireland and Irish Volunteers of the Irish Republican Army (IRA). Lacking military training and equipment the Volunteers carried out low level stealth attacks after which they would melt back into the civilian population. Large numbers of Volunteers formed "flying columns", units of about 100 men, who were based in remote camps or safe houses. They attacked post-offices and blew up railway stations and bridges in an attempt to disrupt administration and communication. The main aim was to provoke the British forces to retaliate with acts of brutality to further popular support for the IRA. The British used their powers to arrest on suspicion and imprison without trial. Retribution was brutal and indiscriminate and whole Irish communities were often punished.

- Palestine - From the establishment of the British Mandate of Palestine in 1919 until Israeli independence in 1948, there was much unrest and violence from both Jews and Palestinian Arabs directed at British rule. The bloodiest time was in the run-up to independence when Zionist underground forces targeted British troops resulting in 233 deaths.
- Korea – The Korean War (1950-53) was fought using conventional weapons and military operations between North Korean soldiers and United Nations forces. The North Koreans adopted guerrilla tactics and soldiers would often disguise themselves as civilian peasants and attack unsuspecting UN troops. Civilians suspected of not supporting the communist cause were summarily executed. 100,000 British personnel served in Korea and 765 were killed.
- Cyprus - Greek Cypriot nationalists in Cyprus carried out guerrilla warfare against British forces between 1954 and 1959 in a campaign to end British rule in Cyprus by carrying out attacks on military barracks, destroying installations and assassinating British soldiers and local informers. More British soldiers (371) were killed in Cyprus than in Iraq or Afghanistan.
- Aden – (now part of Yemen) had been a British crown colony since 1937. In 1962 the British government announced that it was to be maintained as a permanent British garrison east of Suez. Between 1964 and 1967 the Federation for the Liberation of South Yemen attacked the British Forces. Alongside targeting British forces in combat, the guerrilla attacks involved killing off-duty personnel and policemen.

- Malaya – the Malayan Emergency was a guerrilla war fought between

Commonwealth armed forces and the Malayan National Liberation Army (MNLA) from 1948 to 1960. The Nationalists sabotaged installations, attacked rubber plantations and destroyed transport links. The MNLA operated from camps situated in inaccessible jungle camps. The British responded by sending in platoons on patrol to lay ambushes based on intelligence gained from captured MNLA personnel.

- Kenya – The Kenyan Emergency or *Mau Mau* uprising was a military uprising in British Kenya between 1952 and 1960. Kikuyu insurgents attacked white settlers who were hacked to death with machetes in night-time attacks. The British responded with brutal reprisals in an attempt to purge them.
- Iraq – British forces were deployed in Iraq from 2003 to 2011. Iraqi insurgents had the advantage of the local environment, not the jungle but an urban setting, with the additional problem of distinguishing between fighters and innocent civilians. They carried out suicide bombings and sniper and bomb attacks often using human shields. Specialist teams of British soldiers trained up Kurdish forces fighting Islamic State militants.
- Afghanistan – Britain fought a war against the **Taliban** between 2001 and 2014. Afghan fighters used speed, surprise and mobility in their attacks operating in a "pick-up truck cavalry". The trucks would carry about a dozen guerrilla fighters armed with heavy machine guns and rocket propelled grenades. They used radio controlled and "command wire" bombs, landmines and improvised explosive devices (IED). British troops working with the Afghan National Army would take over civilian compounds behind enemy lines and attempt to draw insurgents into exposed positions. British troops stopped taking part in military operations in 2014 but some remain stationed there. More than 4,000 British troops remain on duty in war zones such as Iraq, Afghanistan, the Middle East and Ukraine even though Britain is officially no longer at war.

Training and recruitment
How far did methods of training and recruiting troops change over time?

Feudal duties and chivalrous codes

Medieval society was organised around the Feudal System which was based on the allocation of land in return for service. The king granted lands to his favoured noblemen (tenants-in-chief) who would, in return, promise to serve him loyally and supply him with soldiers in times of conflict. The nobles would sub-divide land among lower nobles or knights (sub-tenants) who would promise military support to their lord. The raising of trained troops was called the feudal levy. Men were required to offer military service for 40 days which could be increased to 90 days in times of conflict. This was inadequate for long campaigns and wars on a national scale. Knights in turn would rent out land to freemen who would have to provide one per family for military duty when required by the king or their lord. Peasants and serfs (the vast majority of the population) were expected to provide military service on a regular basis, not as a feudal levy, but out of a sense of loyalty and deference to their lord and master. Some would have considered it a release from the drudgery of life at the time.

With the decline of the Feudal System the country had to move from a land based economy to a money based one. The feudal levy diminished as nobles preferred to pay money to knights in the form of **scutage** rather than provide military service. Kings began to employ **mercenaries** whose allegiance was to money and not loyal service.

A way of raising troops was the **Assize of Arms** which was a proclamation that all freemen between the ages of 16 and 60 were obliged to swear allegiance and possess and bear arms in the service of the king. The assize stipulated that a man should possess military equipment in accordance to his rank and wealth. The assize effectively revived the Saxon *fyrd* duty.

The Code of Chivalry was the moral and social code of conduct followed by knights during the 11th and 12th centuries although it is believed that its origins date back to antiquity. In times of war a knight was expected to display qualities of gallantry and loyalty as well as an honourable respect for the enemy. In times of peace a knight should possess the qualities of politeness and courtesy, especially to women. According to the *Song of Roland* (completed between 1098 and 1100) the Chivalrous Code included vows to –

- Fear God and His Church
- Serve the liege Lord in valour and faith
- Protect the weak and defenceless (e.g. widows and orphans)
- Life by honour and for glory
- Respect the honour of women

The Chivalrous Code was exemplified by the stories describing the adventures of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table.

Chivalry and knighthood declined together as a result of the rise of mercantilism and the emergence of a prosperous middling class. Power shifted away from landed noblemen to wealthy merchants who were expected to take on knightly virtues.

The creation of Tudor armies

The early Tudor period was a complex mix of late medieval and renaissance culture. In terms of warfare it was a time of transition when fire-arms, artillery and strategic thinking were developing but the medieval use of cavalry and siege warfare remained features.

The Tudor period began with **Henry Tudor**'s victory on the battlefield of Bosworth (1484) and his descendants resolved to fight to keep the realm intact and free from foreign invasion. The Wars of the Roses that preceded the Tudor period had demonstrated the military power of the nobles and a system was needed that would raise an army while limiting the that power. The Tudor period saw the continuance of the Assize of Arms and the raising of the militia but with some modifications. In each county all men between the ages of 16 and 60 were compelled to **muster** for inspection at varying intervals - up to twice a year in times in times of danger. The muster was organised by Commissioners of the Muster who became replaced by Lords Lieutenants during the reign of **Mary I**. The clergy and lords and their retainers had similar obligations but were administered separately. Troops were usually allowed to return home after inspection unless there was a threat of a foreign invasion. The system meant that a large force could be raised fairly quickly and effectively. **Henry VIII** once raised 120,000 men on foot for a whole summer. By the mid-16th century the militia totalled one million men. Many of these however had little more than basic training and the need arose to improve the calibre of the troops. From 1573 **Trained Bands** appeared which consisted of hand- picked men

from the general muster who were retained for drill with costs being met by the city or council concerned. Extra training was needed as a result of the increased use of fire-arms and because of the skill needed when using pikes. For service abroad – which featured more in the last quarter of the 16th century – troops were often **"pressed"** (forced) into the army. These paid soldiers were often raised with arms and armour from the county militia or Trained Bands.

By the 17th century the militia system began to fall into decline but it was still the basis for raising a military force which is why both sides sought to gain control of it during the Civil Wars.

The New Model Army of the 1640s and the beginning of professionalism

At the beginning of the Civil War in 1642 armies were led by the nobility and gentry who believed that their high birth gave them a right to command. The infantry of both sides were mostly pressed men who had to resort to plundering local people because they were paid irregularly. Troops lacked discipline and desertion rates were high. The need for a full-time professional standing army was clear and it was the forces of parliament that seized the initiative. The "new modelling" of Parliament's army was introduced by Sir William Waller in December 1644. He proposed the formation of a national army with no royal affiliations that would not be commanded by the nobility and gentry. The **"Self-denying Ordinance"** was passed in April 1645 which stipulated that members of the House of Commons and House of Lords had to resign their seats of military commissions.
Parliament's army now consisted of 22,000 men made up of -

- 12 regiments of foot of 1,200 men in the proportion of 2/3rds musketeers and 1/3rd pikemen.
- 11 regiments of horse of 600 men each
- 1 regiment of dragoons (mounted infantrymen)
- An artillery train of 50 guns.

Oliver Cromwell as an MP had to resign his command but was given the title Lieutenant General by General Thomas Fairfax and took charge of the cavalry. Members of the New Model Army received military training, regular pay and were strictly disciplined. Cromwell was keen to promote men of the basis ability which allowed men to be raised from the ranks. He also believed that soldiers would fight

better if they believed in what they were fighting for and so recruited men with strict Puritan views.

The New Model Army won a decisive victory at Naseby (June 1645). The battle showed the difference in discipline between the sides. Cromwell forbade his cavalry to gallop after a fleeing army and demanded they hold the battle field and not loot abandoned enemy baggage which enabled them to make further charges. The Cavaliers made the tactical blunder of launching one successful charge and then leaving the field to go looting.

After the end of the war the role of the army was crucial in maintaining control at a time when many people favoured the return of the monarchy. The **"Rule of the Major Generals"** (1655-57) during the **Protectorate** caused resentment and fear of a military dictatorship.

Source 9: victory for the New Model Army at the Battle of Naseby, June 14th 1645

The **Restoration** of the monarchy in 1660 saw the disbandment of the New Model Army. In its place Charles II created a small standing army made up of former Royalist and Parliamentary regiments. On January 26th 1661 the king issued the **"Royal Warrant"** that created the first regiments of what would become the British Army.

From the 18th century to the mid-19th century the pace of change in the military was slow in terms of the appointment of officers and the training of soldiers. The latter half of the 19th century however witnessed significant change as a result of developments in warfare in general and government legislation in particular.

Press gangs and recruiting parties in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

"Impressment" or colloquially **"the press"** or **"crimping"** was the act of taking men into the military, usually the navy, by surprise and force.

Before the introduction of conscription many countries supplemented their militia and mercenaries by impressment. It featured in the Saxon period and was used extensively by Elizabeth I, Charles I and Oliver Cromwell.

It was used by the navy from the mid-17th century and throughout the 18th and early 19th centuries more usually in times of war. Men more likely to be impressed were "of sea-faring habits", mostly merchant seamen, and aged between 18 and 55. Recruiting sailors voluntarily was difficult owing to the harsh conditions on board and the obvious dangers of serving during warfare. The **press-gang** was made up of 10-12 men and led by an officer would roam the streets looking for "likely volunteers". Men were given drink, threatened and sometimes knocked unconscious. When a man was seized he would be given "the king's shilling" as a reward for volunteering. The coin was often issued by devious means such as slipping it into a pocket or into a drink. The recruiters preyed mainly on men from the lower classes who were sometimes vagrants or ex-convicts. The sources of supply were usually the taverns and brothels of naval towns.

After 1853 the need for impressment declined when the navy introduced continuous service and pensions on retirement.

Source 10: A caricature of a press gang, 1789

Recruitment

In the 18th and up until the mid-19th centuries men were recruited into the army by recruitment parties and parades at markets, fairs and ale-houses. Militia regiments were raised by ballot as a result of the **Militia Act** of 1757 when men would have to serve for 5 years. Men could enlist voluntarily in the army for between 8 and 12 years or they could sign up for life which usually meant 21 years. Pay was poor but regular and discipline was harsh. For many it was a way to escape poverty coupled with the prospect of excitement and plunder. In times of war convicts would be offered release if they joined the army.

The years between the end of the Napoleonic Wars (1815) and the beginning of the Crimean War (1854) were relatively peaceful with most troops involved with colonial matters. The experience of the Crimean War and the Indian Rebellion of 1857 acted as a "wake-up call" for the British Army. It revealed logistical failings, maladministration and inept leadership. It also highlighted the massive gulf between officers and men.

In 1868 a Liberal government was elected and William Gladstone became Prime Minister. He was a committed reformer and was acutely aware of the need to make changes the army. The German victory over the French in 1870-71 showed that the Prussian system of professional soldiers with modern weaponry was far superior to the outmoded British system of gentlemen soldiers. Gladstone appointed Edward Cardwell as Secretary of State for War and as part of the **Cardwell Reforms** he reorganised and modernised the British Army.

<u>Changes in recruitment and training.</u>

- 1870 – the **Army Enlistment Act** fixed the term of enlistment to 12 years, 6 in the army and 6 in the reserves.
- 1871- the purchase of commissions was abolished.
- 1872 – the regimental structure was reorganised on the basis of two linked battalions, one serving at home and one overseas. Regiments were given a local attachment for the purpose of recruitment.
- 1881 – the regular and militia battalions of the army were amalgamated into territorial regiments with local names and local depots.

As a result of the reforms the British Army was provided with a constant supply of well- trained soldiers and the quality of officers improved.

Before the reforms officers continued to be drawn from the upper classes who had the means to purchase a commission which was essentially a cash-bond that would be forfeited in the event of incompetency, cowardice or gross misbehaviour. The practice began in the reign of **Charles II** and continued until abolished in 1871. Only commissions in the cavalry and infantry regiments up to the rank of colonel were able to be purchased. Commissions in the Royal Engineers and Royal Artillery were open to graduates of the **Royal Military College** at Woolwich (established 1741) and promotion was by seniority. Such officers would be looked down upon as "not quite gentleman".

The high incidence of death of officers during the Napoleonic Wars sometimes offered opportunities for officers to be raised from the ranks. Ex-rankers would not be accepted socially and often got moved to back-water jobs such as quartermasters where their experiences of the ways of rankers would keep them ahead of the game. Ambitious sergeants could aspire to becoming second lieutenants by taking charge of the "Forlorn Hope" before a battle but, as a rule, many could not afford the costs of excessive socialising and, in some cases, the cost of an officer's uniform.

The experiences of a ranker raised to the officer class is portrayed in the television series *Sharpe* (1993-97).

The use of propaganda for recruitment in the First World War

Recruitment

When war broke out on August 4th 1914 Britain had a professional army of under 250,000. The **British Expeditionary Force** numbered 80,000 and it became very evident that the regular army would not be large enough to wage war on a large scale. The new Secretary of State for War, Lord Kitchener predicted, quite perceptively and against generally held views ,that the war would last at least 3 years and would require a minimum of a million men. Two days after the declaration of war, parliament sanctioned an increase in the armed forces of half a million men and a massive recruiting campaign began. Recruitment offices were set up in towns and cities and, in a surge of patriotism, the target was reached by the end of September.

The first recruits tended to be young, single men who often joined in "**Pals' Battalions"** who grew up together, served together and often died together. The age limit for enlistment was raised to 35 and married men were encouraged to sign up.

Lord Derby the Director General for Recruitment devised a scheme (**the Derby Scheme**) in an attempt to avoid introducing conscription. Volunteers would be placed on a reserve list and called up if needed. They would wear a khaki armband with a red crown on their civilian clothes to avoid being given the white feather of cowardice.

Propaganda

By 1917 the government faced the problem of persuading the nation to continue supporting a war that was costing so much in terms of money, resources and lives. The Prime Minister David Lloyd George saw the need to introduce a programme to influence attitudes. The government set up the **National War Aims Committee (NWAC)** which aimed to introduce forms of propaganda.

- Media – the NWAC worked with high street businesses such as W. H. Smith to distribute pamphlets. Illustrated newspapers reported the war in an heroic way but played down the full horrors of the war and the extent of casualties.

- Films – *Britain Prepared* was a film produced in December 1915 and was distributed nationwide. The film used military footage to promote the idea of British strength and determination. It ran for 6 weeks in the Empire Theatre London and was condensed into a shorter version for general release in cinemas across the country.
- Posters – Recruitment posters were arguably the most effective form of propaganda. The most common theme used was patriotism which appealed for everyone to "do their bit". Other themes included the fear of invasion , German atrocities and an appeal to male pride.
- Atrocity propaganda – newspaper accounts of the "Hun" carrying out atrocities in Belgium and depicting German barbarism were sensational but entirely fictitious. *Remember Scarborough* was a poster produced in December 1914 which showed the bombing of the town where 18 people were killed including children and a 14 month old baby.
- Celebrity endorsement - Politicians like Winston Churchill spoke at rallies and King George V lent his support to the campaign appealing to the public to pull together.

Source 11: A military recruitment poster, 1915

Conscription, National Service and career soldiers in the twentieth century

The Derby Scheme failed as 38% of single men and 54% of married men who were not in reserved occupations did not sign up and **conscription** was introduced in January 1916. Men between the ages of 18 and 41 were called up (the limit was raised to 51 in the last months of the war). Exempted were those deemed medically unfit to serve, clergymen, teachers and workers in mining and engineering and munitions factories.

Around 16,000 men refused to fight on moral and religious grounds. They were called **"conscientious objectors" ("conshies")** although 7,000 **pacifists** agreed to perform non-combat service often as stretcher- bearers on the front line. In all 6,000 men were imprisoned for refusing to fight of which 35 were sentenced to death although the sentences were commuted to 10 years in prison.

In the first year of conscription 1.1 million enlisted and by the end of the war the figure stood at 2.5 million.

Conscription was not popular with many and in April 1916 over 200,000 people demonstrated in Trafalgar Square.

In Britain, conscription has been considered necessary for two periods – 1916-18 and 1939-1960.

With war looming the government passed the **Military Training Act** of 1939. Men aged 20-22 could be called up for 6 months training - the first ever conscription in peacetime. When war was declared on September 3rd 1939, all men between 18 and 40 became eligible for the call-up under the **National Service (Armed Forces Act)**.

The age was raised to 51 in 1941. 250,000 registered for service and, as in the First World War, there were reserved occupations e.g. in 1943 22,000 "Bevin Boys" (named after Ernest Bevin, Minister for Labour) were conscripted to work in the mines.

Provision was again made for those who refused to serve on moral grounds. They faced military tribunals but the experience of the First World War meant that they were treated more humanely. Many took up non-combat roles and civilian work on farms and in hospitals.

National Service

National Service or peacetime conscription was introduced in 1948. From January 1st 1949 all medically fit men between the ages of 17 and 21 were expected to serve in the armed forces for 18 months and remain on the reserve list for 4 years. The vast majority served in the army and air-force as the navy took very few National Servicemen. Men working in key industries were exempted and National Service could be deferred while young men completed higher education. After 10 weeks of basic training men were posted to join regiments at home and abroad. Experiences differed greatly. Many died on active duty, others learned trades while many spent their time "square-bashing". National Service ended in 1960 and Britain returned to a standing, volunteer army.

Source 12: National Service – kit inspection

Career soldiers in the 20th century

The decades following the ending of National Service saw cuts in the size of the army and by the end of the 1980s with the ending of the Cold War there were further cuts. In 1990 the government carried out a defence review and the army was reduced by 50,000 leaving a strength of 102,000 regular personnel. Together with the Royal Air Force and the Royal Navy the country has a military force of around 150,000 personnel.

The minimum age for enlistment is 16 although the age is 18 for serving on operations. The maximum recruitment age was raised from 26 to 33 in 2007. The usual length of service is 22 years and personnel are not normally allowed to leave before serving for 4 years. Basic training lasts for 14 weeks which is followed by a year of more specialist training.

All three branches of the British Forces recruit primarily from the UK although citizens of the Republic of Ireland and countries of the Commonwealth are eligible to enlist.

Trainee army officers begin training at the **Royal Military College** at **Sandhurst** where graduates spend 44 weeks training before selecting particular career paths such as aviation support, combat arms, communications, education and training, engineering and logistics.

The RAF offers a 6 months officer training programme followed by specialist training in areas such as; administration, air-traffic control, engineering, fighter control, operations and intelligence.

Trainee officers in the Royal Navy spend time in the **Royal Naval College** in Dartmouth before going on to train at sea and is followed by specialist training in areas such as aviation, engineering and warfare.

Changes in technology
How important was technology in changing the nature of warfare over time?

Medieval siege warfare

Pitched battles were the exception in the Middle Ages. Laying siege or besieging a castle or fortified town was more widespread and played a vital role in military strategy and technology. Besieging armies developed sophisticated siege machines which, in turn, led to defenders developing counter-measures. Fortifications became increasingly stronger especially with the introduction of concentric castles. Emphasis was placed on defending entrances with a protective drawbridge, portcullis and barbican. Moats and other water defences were important features as was the need for deep wells with supplies of fresh water.

Besiegers developed techniques for achieving their objective of either forcing their way in or forcing the inhabitants out.

Siege engineers would assess the strengths and weaknesses of the castle or town and plan and construct siege weaponry using a workforce of carpenters and blacksmiths.

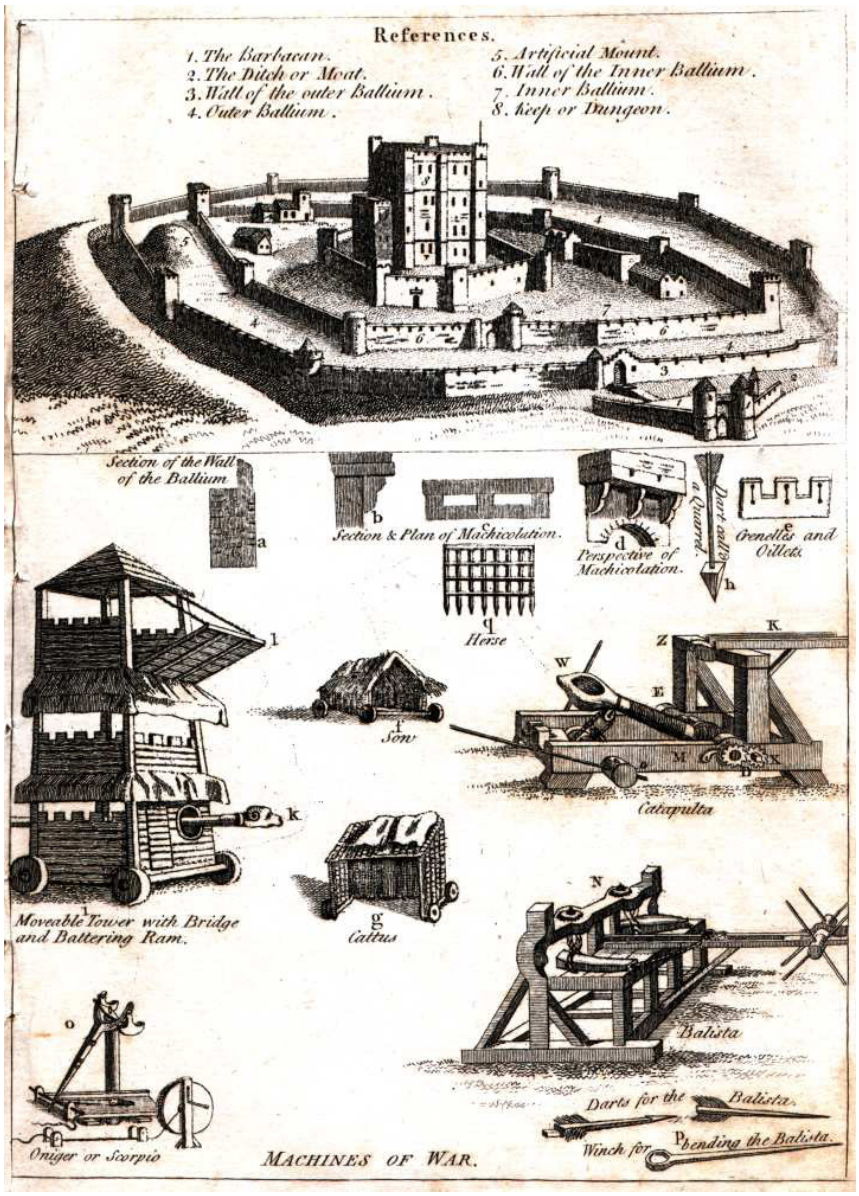
Siege methods.

- Breaching the fortifications – using stone throwing machines such as trebuchets and mangonels, battering rams, cats that would claw away at stone walls and weasels that used spikes.
- Tunnelling under walls – using mines to gain entry or digging under and setting fires to weaken the foundations.
- Scaling the walls - using scaling ladders, siege towers and belfries.
- Biological warfare –using catapults to hurl dead and diseased animal carcasses into the castle or town or poisoning the water supplies.
- Stealth – using bribery to induce a defender to link up with the attackers.
- Atrocity tactics - terrorising the inhabitants by mutilating or executing hostages or catapulting human body parts into the castle or town.

- Attrition – using time as an advantage by cutting off communications between the besieged and the outside world or denying food supplies.

However it was not in the interests of either defenders or attackers to have a prolonged siege. Siege warfare was usually conducted according to the Code of Chivalry. A diplomatic truce would be attempted before the commencement of the siege and surrender under honourable terms, allowing a reasonable outcome was favoured.

The introduction of gunpowder and cannon meant that sieges were no longer long drawn out affairs as fortified walls would be pounded and the inhabitants brought to surrender relatively quickly.



Source 13: Medieval siege machines

The development of bows and firearms as British weapons up to the seventeenth century

Crossbows

The crossbow was a revelation and as important as the gun to later generations. Handbows required muscular strength, steadiness and could not be held at full draw for any length of time. It also took many years to master the weapon. In contrast crossbows could be used by unskilled common soldiers. Handbow archers had to stand upright to fire and were open targets. Crossbow men could fire crouched or prone and take aim when a target appeared. They also had a special shield for protection called a **pavise**. Crossbows were deadly at short range and bolts could be fired further and with more accuracy than the handbow. From the beginning of the 14th century crossbows were made of steel with mechanical spanning mechanisms making them even more powerful. The downside was that they had a slow rate of fire- 2 or 3 bolts a minute. However, now a common peasant could, at short range pierce the armour of a noble knight which led to the adoption of plate armour.

Longbows

The Welsh were the first to use the longbow in Britain but its use had spread into England by the end of the 13th century. The bow was 6 feet in length and usually made of yew. Arrows were 3 feet in length with broad metal tips. The Long Bodkin was used for piercing chainmail, the Short Bodkin pierced armour plate and Swallowtails were used for bringing down horses.

By the early 15th century archers discovered that they could achieve greater distance by curling the tail feathers of their arrows causing them to spin in flight. The longbow archers were the elite of the bowmen and could fire off up to 15 arrows per minute.

Source 14: Longbowmen at archery practice

Firearms

The introduction of firearms made bows obsolete. The earliest mass produced firearm was the **arquebus** which was used in the 15th century. It was replaced by the **musket** in the mid-16th century and it would take another 200 years before it was improved upon.

Early muskets were clumsy and dangerous to use. Longer muskets need a rest on which to balance the barrel and they were slow to load and only effective when fired in a volley.

There were two types of musket, the **matchlock** and the **flintlock**. Both were loaded in the same way by pouring gunpowder into the barrel and packing it with a rod or stick. The lead ball would be put in followed by wadding to hold it in. To fire the matchlock the musketeer would empty gunpowder into the firing pan and cover it for protection. He would then press a lighted piece of flax into the metal trigger or serpent. On firing the flax would come down into the pan and ignite the powder. The flame would enter the barrel and ignite the powder and fire the lead ball. Firing the flintlock was a little easier. The serpent would contain a piece of flint which, when struck, would produce a spark and ignite the powder. Loading was obviously slow and it would take up to two minutes to fire a single shot.

The spiralling of arrows to achieve greater accuracy and distance found its way into firearms in the form of rifling. Rifling is the spiralling of grooves cut into the barrel of the gun. Muskets that used this technology were referred as **rifles** which appeared in the latter part of the 15th century. They were not widely used owing to the need for constant cleaning which was impractical in battle.

With the exception of rifling and the upgrade to flintlock muskets, early firearms changed very little from the early 15th to the end of the 18th century. **The Land Pattern Musket** or "**Brown Bess**" was commissioned in 1722 and remained in service until 1838 and became the gun that "built the British Empire". The 19th century however would witness advancements that would lead to the birth of modern firearms.

Source 15: The "Brown Bess"

Cannon

Early cannons in the early 14th century were made of wood or stone until iron bars were welded together and strengthened with metal rings to form a cylinder to fire balls of stone. Smaller cannon shot arrows. These early devices were only able to fire a few times a day and were prone to burst. **King James II** of Scotland was killed by a burst cannon during the siege of Roxburgh in 1460. Superior cannon were cast in bronze with cheaper versions in cast iron. They fired iron balls over a greater range but with only a slight elevation. The introduction of **trunnions** on wooden carriages allowed the barrel to be lifted higher or lower. Their range was about 100 metres but they were difficult to transport and mainly used in sieges. Records show that Edward III used three cannon at the **Battle of Crécy** (1346) though more to intimidate the enemy than cause damage.

By the 16th century field artillery became smaller, lighter and so easier to transport and, by the time of the Civil Wars, could be moved by a team of four men. Larger cannon could need a team of 16 horses to move them and would have to be positioned before the start of the battle.

The impact of industrialisation on British weaponry in the nineteenth century

Britain was almost constantly at war throughout the time of the Industrial Revolution and there was a demand for improvements in weaponry in order to protect the empire and overseas interests.

The **Industrial Revolution** transformed the production of weaponry and changed the nature of warfare. Railways and steam ships meant that armies and supplies could be transported quickly and the telegraph meant that messages could be transmitted much faster.

Developments in industry had a knock-on effect in other areas. **Sir Henry Bessemer** (1813-98) set out to identify a way of producing more accurate cannon which led him to develop a grooved or rifled barrel. Using steel was expensive and he developed a process for making a cheaper version which became the **Bessemer Process**. In the 1740s the ironmaster **John Wilkinson** began casting cannon barrels from a single piece of metal which made them thinner and more accurate. The adoption of modern production methods of standardisation and mass production made Britain the largest producer of weaponry in the world and Birmingham became the world's greatest gun-making industry. The Gun Quarter in Birmingham met the huge demand for weapons during the Napoleonic Wars, the Crimean War and the American Civil War.

The Royal Small Arms Factory in Enfield, London produced muskets, rifles and swords between 1816 and 1988. Demand for weapons in the Crimean War saw the factory increase its levels of production and expand its workforce. By 1860, 1,000 workers were producing 1,744 rifles every week.

From the mid-19th century onwards breech-loading rifle replaced the muzzle – loading musket as the weapon of the infantryman and, in doing so, revolutionised warfare. New models were introduced that could fire multiple rounds loaded from a magazine by means of a manual or automatic mechanism. The repeating rifles had a huge advantage over breech-loaded, single shot rifles.

After many design and production changes the **Lee Enfield** became the main firearm of the British Army. It featured a 10 round magazine and became standard issue in both world wars. A well-trained infantryman could perform the "mad-minute", firing between 20 and 30 shots per minute.

Machine guns

Early attempts to produce a gun with multiple barrel action were largely unsuccessful owing to overheating and loading problems. In 1871 the British Army adopted the **Gatling Gun** which could fire up to 150 rounds a minute over a distance of 200 metres. It was large and heavy and left the gun crew exposed. In 1883 the American inventor Hiram Maxim invented a machine gun that made all others obsolete. The **Maxim Gun** was fed bullets from a belt and used the recoil from the explosive gasses in the firing chamber to reload the next bullet. Theoretically, it could fire 600 rounds a minute but 500 was more practical.

The **Vickers Company** gained the rights to the gun and set about simplifying the gun for mass production. The lighter gun was to be used with devastating effect during the First World War and it proved so successful that it remained in use in a military capacity until the 1980s.

Source 16: British troops using a Vickers machine gun in Palestine in 1946

Artillery

The muzzle-loading, cast iron guns of the 19th century were slow to load and exposed the crew to the enemy. The need was for a breech-loading rifle cannon. **Sir Wm. George Armstrong**'s "monster gun" (1887) represented a revolution in armaments technology and its rifle breech-loading ordinance has been described as the greatest innovation in the whole course of the Royal Artillery's existence. Weighing 111 tons and with a length of 43 feet and 8 inches it fired 1,800 pound shells and had a range of 8 miles. The gun was the precursor of large weaponry in the 20th century.

Developments in machinery during the First and Second World Wars: tanks and aircraft

The First World War was to become a testing ground for a range of weapons and technologies that would transform the nature of warfare and shape future conflict. Prototypes of aircraft, tanks and submarines would be used with devastating effect in the Second World War when citizens found themselves on the front line with the concept of "**Total War**".

Tanks

Steam powered tractors with caterpillar tracks had been used to manoeuvre around the muddy battlefields of the Crimea. There appeared to be potential but little was done until 1885 when the **Holt Company** in America used an internal combustion engine to construct a tractor with caterpillar tracks. In 1899 **Frederick Simms** designed a "motor-war car" which had a Daimler engine, bullet-proof casing and two revolving machine guns. **Lt. Colonel Ernest Swinton** proposed the development

of a new type of fighting vehicle. These machines were met with hostility by traditionally minded officers on the General Staff. Swinton was convinced that such machines would alter warfare on the Western Front.

By 1915 an agreement was made that a new weapon should –

- have a top speed of 4 mph on flat terrain
- be able to manoeuvre at top speed
- be able to mount a 5 feet parapet
- be able to cross an 8 foot gap
- be able to neutralise barbed wire entanglements
- operate with a 20 mile radius
- be armed with 2 on-board machine guns and a light artillery gun
- be able to accommodate a crew of 10 men.

There were teething problems but the first prototype appeared in January 1916. **Lord Kitchener** dismissed it as "a pretty mechanical toy" asserting that the war would not be won by such machines. The machine was called the **Landship** but to maintain secrecy the parts of the vehicle were shipped to the battle zone in crates labelled "water tanks".

The Battle of Flers-Courcelette (Sept. 1916) on the Somme saw the introduction of the tank. The plan was to use 49 tanks but 35 took part because of mechanical problems. The tanks did not result in the intended breakthrough but they struck fear into the Germans and introduced a weapon that would dominate and define future wars.

On November 20th 1917 the entire British Tank Corps (474 tanks) saw action at the battle of Cambrai to great effect. The German front line was breached but British troops were unable to hold the position. The Germans were initially unconvinced about the feasibility of tanks but did start production. The first tank battle took place on April 20th 1918 when 3 British Mark IVs were victorious over 3 German A7Vs south of Villiers Bretonneax.

By the end of the war the British had produced 2,636 tanks, the French 2,870 and the Germans just 20. However, a week before the end of the War Britain had just 8 tanks left.

Source 17: A British tank on the Western Front, 1916

After the war the British began producing a series of lighter tanks and by the outbreak of the Second World War the tank was transformed from a terrain covering vehicle into an armoured combat vehicle. However, many were rushed into service too quickly and they lacked the armour to resist enemy anti-aircraft fire.

The war in the North African desert between 1940 and 1943 was highly dependent on the use of tanks. The British deployed models including **Matildas**, **Crusaders**, **Cromwells** and **Valentines**.

- Matilda – had a gun that could rotate through 360 degrees, a machine gun and two grenade launchers. It was slow at just 4 mph but it was effective and earned the title "Queen of the Desert".
- Crusader – could reach speeds of up to 40mph and was well armed. Over 5,300 were built between 1939 and 1943 but it was superseded by the Cromwell.
- Cromwell – was not used until the D-Day landings in June 1944. It was speedy and agile but its 75mm guns were no match for superior German tanks.
- Valentine - also took part in the Desert War and 11 versions were produced. In all 8,275 were made, 2,720 of which were sent to the Red Army to fight on the Eastern Front.

British tanks were prone to mechanical problems but the arrival of the Americans into the war meant that Britain was able to benefit from superior tanks such as **Grants** and **Shermans**. By May 1945 with the war almost at an end a prototype of a new tank was hurried to be tested in action. The **Centurion** was to go on to become the most successful of all tank designs and saw combat into the 1980s.

Source 18: A Centurion tank

Aircraft

The First World War witnessed the evolution of aeroplanes from basic, unsophisticated machines into fighters and bombers. At the start of the war aircraft had little combat use and the "eyes in the sky" were used mostly for reconnaissance. There were few navigational aids and pilots often had to rely on school atlases and land features. As the war progressed both sides introduced a range of technical developments in order to gain superiority.

Initially opposing pilots simply took pot shots at each other with service revolvers and crews carried grenades which could be thrown and bombs that could be dropped. As technology improved aircraft became more manoeuvrable, engines more powerful and it became possible to mount machine guns. Speeds in excess of 70mph were possible. The age of air-to-air combat had begun.

The bombing of military targets, dockyards and factories became a feature of warfare.

By the end of the war aircraft were still often made of timber and fabric but in terms of handling and engine performance they had produced a foundation for inter-war development.

Source 19: A Sopwith Camel, 1917

At the outbreak of war in 1939 the all-metal monoplane had advanced hugely in performance and fire power. With speeds of 400mph some planes could fly at 30,000 feet. Pilots were able to communicate with each other in flight and could contact ground control with radio-telephones. Fighter and bomber squadrons could fly in formation and were directed by radar control stations as part of the new electronic warfare. **Radio Detecting and Ranging** gave aircraft the ability to attack at night and during inclement weather.

The development of bomber technology allowed for more accurate raids and precision targeting of sites.

Different types of planes were developed for specific tasks. Small aircraft for air-to-air combat, large bombers and planes that could take off and land on air-craft carriers which transported supplies. Other developments included the introduction of the first military helicopters and, towards the end of the war, jet powered fighter planes.

- Lancaster – considered to be the greatest bomber of the war. Its four engines allowed it to fly at 287mph and had the capacity to deliver a bomb load of 14,000 lbs with a range of 1660 miles.
- Halifax – was rather eclipsed by the Lancaster but a versatile craft that flew night-time missions and had a range of 1,240 miles.
- Hurricane – a fighter, bomber and ground attacker and effective as an anti-tank aircraft.
- Hawker Tempest – technologically advanced for its time it became the best propeller fighter of the war and was excellent in intercepting V1 German missiles.

- Spitfire – the iconic airplane of the war that saw off the Luftwaffe during the **Battle of Britain** in 1940. It had a speed of 450mph and over 1,500 were made between 1939 and 1945.
- The Parnall Panther was a carrier based spotter and reconnaissance aircraft and served aboard HMS Argus and HMS Hermes.
- The Short Type 166 – was a patrol seaplane with twin wooden pontoon floats.

Source 20: A Lancaster supported by a Hurricane and a Spitfire

A study of the historic environment –The bombing of London during the Second World War

Source 21: A member of the Observer Corps in 1940

- The historical context in relation to London during the Second World War - the nation's capital was the centre of government, industry and commerce and with a large concentration of people it was a strategic and easy target. Germany had bomber aircraft bases in occupied Europe and could launch attacks across the Channel and the River Thames acted as a bomber route to London.

  Hitler's tactical shift to subdue Britain – he was frustrated with the RAF's superiority and enraged by British bombing of German cities. His aim was to draw the remainder of RAF fighters into a showdown with the Luftwaffe.

- The main features of preparations and precautions for war in London - evacuation of children and vulnerable civilians to areas of safety which happened in flurries following the Fall of France and the start of the Blitz in 1940 and during the time of the flying bombs in 1944, The Air Raid Precaution Act and the responsibility of local councils to establish effective Civil Defence systems to oversee the distribution of gas masks, domestic air-raid shelters and the role of ARPs in enforcing blackout regulations. The use of hotel basements and the Underground as shelters with reference to the Balham Tube disaster (1940) and the Bethnal Green disaster (1943).

  The use of anti-aircraft guns, search lights and barrage balloons; the work of the Fire, Ambulance and Heavy Rescue Services.

- The impact of bombing on London; the extent of damage - Black Saturday, January 7th 1940 which targeted London in general and the dockyards in particular with 436 deaths and 1,666 serious injuries, raids between September and November when 30,000 bombs were dropped, the notorious raid on December 29th on the City of London area from Aldersgate to Cannon St., Cheapside to Moorgate. Estimates of 13,000 metric tons of high explosive bombs along with 1,000,000 incendiary bombs dropped. The use of VI bombs and V2 rockets.

  The Luftwaffe's attempt to paralyse the commercial life of London by bombing docks, wharfs, warehouses, railway lines, factories and power stations.

  The bombing of landmarks such as Buckingham Palace, the Houses of Parliament, the Tower of London and St. Paul's Cathedral and how the Bank of England and the Stock Exchange escaped from bombing.

  The impact of bombing on civilian life; numbers of casualties; damage to housing; the role of the Ministry of Information; the use of propaganda in raising morale and censorship in playing down rising crime rates and the truth surrounding the Hallsville School disaster. The role of the Royal Family and Churchill in keeping up spirits.

  Changing attitudes to warfare caused by the bombing of London and the significance of aerial bombing in the development of warfare. How military strategists targeted civilian populations and how modern technology aided the striking of targets.

The British development of nuclear warfare in the 1950s; computerisation and hi-tech weaponry in the modern British armed forces

<u>The development of nuclear weapons.</u>
Shortly after the outbreak of war in October 1939 the US **President Roosevelt** received a communication from the physicist Albert Einstein informing him of the potential of a bomb of unprecedented power that could be made by tapping the forces of nuclear fission. They were fearful that German scientists were close to producing an "atomic bomb" which would have catastrophic effects. Roosevelt was convinced and launched a joint venture with Britain called the **Manhattan Project.** Scientists known as the "British Mission" made a significant contribution to the project.

On July 20th 1945 the first atomic bomb was tested in the Alamogordo desert in New Mexico. Germany had surrendered at this point but two uranium bombs were dropped on **Hiroshima** (August 6th) and **Nagasaki** (August 9th) causing the Japanese to surrender. Each bomb was a thermonuclear weapon weighing little more than 2,4000 lbs but with an explosive force comparable to the detonation of 1.2 million tons of TNT.

There have been difficulties estimating the total casualties in the Japanese cities. Hiroshima suffered 150,000 deaths and injuries and Nagasaki 75,000.

Wartime allies the USA and the USSR now entered a time of hostility during the Cold War and relations became intense when the USSR developed its own atomic bomb. In retaliation Roosevelt began a programme to develop a more advanced type of nuclear weapon the hydrogen bomb. By 1954 both the USA and the USSR had successfully tested the first generation of H-bombs.

Britain became the third country to develop and test a nuclear weapon in October 1952 with an atomic device called **Hurricane** and in May 1957 the first fusion weapon was tested on Christmas Island in the Pacific Ocean.

Computerisation and hi-tech weaponry

In recent times British soldiers have benefited from improvements in tactical-level intelligence, surveillance, target acquisition and reconnaissance capabilities. Computerisation has been central to these improvements and the way the military operates on land, in the air and at sea has changed completely.

Precision bombing allows a projectile to be launched at targets hundreds of miles away. This has been possible by the use of advanced optical systems and lasers with computers processing the information. The **Global Positioning System** (GPS) picks up signals from satellites and “smart” bombs can be dropped on targets. They can also be guided by operators on the ground using video footage from cameras in the missile or by heat sensors.

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV) or “drones” can be used for surveillance, reconnaissance or ground attacks. The RAF has 10 **Reapers** armed with **Hellfire** missiles and laser-guided bombs.

Advanced technology means that most infantrymen can deploy small, lightweight drones to recce targets and induce enemy forces. Helmets fitted with information systems, thermal weapon sights and computers embedded into uniforms mean that soldiers are able to engage in combat assisted by satellite imagery of the battlefield while carrying out ballistic accuracy calculations.

Source 22: MQ Reaper, 2005

The Development of naval warfare
What have been the main developments in naval warfare over time?

The use of Viking and Norman longboats

Viking longboats

The Viking age (c. 800AD to c.1150) was a time of exploration, trade but primarily plundering and warfare. The term "a Viking" from the Old Norse means to go on a pirate raid or adventuring and just a glimpse of a colourful square sail and a dragon or serpent-headed bow would strike terror into the people of the countries on their routes. Their dominance at the time was largely due to advances in ship technology namely the longboat or longship. The larger vessels were the cutting edge of naval power at the time and were highly valued possessions. They were often communally owned by coastal farmers and sometimes commissioned by chieftains to assemble a naval force. They were essentially troop and supply carriers rather than fighting vessels. There are some references to longboats being harnessed together to form a platform for infantry fighting but actual sea battles were rare. Fighting at sea would involve an exchange of missiles followed by hand-to-hand combat having boarded the opposing vessel. The aim was not to destroy opposition ships but to capture the highly prized craft.

The Viking fleet was composed of a range of longboats of different classes.

- The "Karvi" longboat was the smallest and used for small raiding parties with between 12 and 32 pairs of oars.

- The “Skeid” was larger at about 30 metres in length and could hold 70 warriors. It had sails and up to 30 pairs of oars.
- The “Busse” was the most prestigious vessel and was 50 metres in length with sails and 35 pairs of oars. It carried a crew of 80 but could carry a large amount of cargo making it ideal for long voyages.
- The “Drekkar” or “Drakar” was the flagship of the fleet and distinguishable by its dragon’s head on the bow.

The longboat was well designed. It was shallow, wide and stable yet light and speedy and was unrivalled for centuries.

Source 23: An early 20th century painting of a Viking raiding party

Norman longboats

The Norman longboat or “nef” developed from the Viking longboat. The boat was slender in the beam, shallow- drafted, fast and manoeuvrable. By the end of the 12th century “fore-and aft-castles” were added to provide additional protection. Under the aft-castle was an enclosed cabin for the master of the boat or any nobleman or woman who might be journeying.

Cogs were standard broad-beamed merchant vessels crewed by up to 10 men with a deep draft to accommodate merchandise. The introduction of the stern rudder during the 12th century and improvements in rigging enabled the use of sails to almost supersede that of oars. The Bayeux Tapestry depicts the Norman invasion fleet of 1066 and shows small, fortified platforms for archers at each end of the boat. The size of the fleet and details of the army it transported have been a topic of debate. William of Jumieges (c.1025-1090) claimed that the fleet numbered 3,000 ships while the 12th century chronicler Robert Wace (1110-1174) offers a much

lower and seemingly more accurate figure of 696 ships. The boats contained some 7,000 troops with horses, weapons and supplies. The fleet crossed the channel unopposed and once ashore Duke William symbolically burned some of the boats. The last successful invasion of England was achieved.

The development of the Tudor navy and the defeat of the Armada

Throughout the rest of the Middle Ages ships continued to be used mostly for transporting troops and supplies. Combat with opposing fleets would involve exchanging missiles until marines could board and fight on deck.

The introduction of guns on ships would appear to be an important development but it only slowly changed the dynamics of ship-to-ship combat. Guns were first introduced on ships in the 14th century and were intended to kill or injure or cause panic and confusion before boarding. As guns became bigger and heavier the capacity to inflict damage to the vessels increased. Owing to their weight they were placed below deck and fired from gun-ports from the 15th century. Ships that had the capacity to sink opposition ships were called **galleys**.

The Tudor period witnessed significant changes that would lead to the establishment of a regular force which laid the foundations for what was to become the Royal Navy.

The founder of the Tudor dynasty can arguably be described as the father of the English navy. European ship design was going through a transformation in the 15th century and Henry VII tapped into it. He began a began a programme of ship building and invested heavily in the development of dockyards in Southampton and the dry docks in Portsmouth where the first warship **Sweepstake** was built in 1497. Henry VIII inherited a naval fleet of just 5 ships and immediately set out to build a fleet that was strong enough to compensate for his lack of manpower on land. The **Mary Rose** was built in Portsmouth between 1509-11 and later re-fitted in the 1530s. It was transformed into a 700 ton galleon with 15 large bronze cannon mounted on wheeled carriages, 24 wrought iron carriage and 30 gunners. Its accidental sinking in 1545 exemplified the difficulties of sailing such ships (it was discovered in 1971 and restored from 1982).

Source 24: The Grace á Dieu - the Great Harry

In 1547 the **Grace á Dieu,** also known as the **Great Harry,** was launched. It was a 1,500 ton **carrack** (ocean going vessel) that had a forecastle four decks high and a stern castle two decks high. She was 50 metres long and armed with 43 heavy guns and 141 light guns and carried a crew of between 700 and 1,000. At the time she was the largest and most powerful warship in Europe but saw little action as she was used mostly in an ambassadorial role.

By 1540 the English navy consisted of 45 ships which had increased to 80 ships by 1545. The marriage of Mary Tudor to Phillip II of Spain led to increased contact with Spain, a bi-product of which was the copying of some of the features of their ship building.

On her accession in 1558 Elizabeth I made the development of the navy a top priority. At the time the English fleet had been reduced to 39 ships with plans to provide an additional 30. The new ships were at the cutting edge of technology at the time and represented a departure from the heavy, clumsy Spanish design that was to prove vital during Spain's attempt to invade in 1588.

The fully-rigged ship (a vessel with three or more square rigged masts) represented one of the most important technological advances of the 16th century and had a lasting impact. In 1573 the innovative **Dreadnought** was launched which was faster and more manoeuvrable than other vessels. As a result tactics at sea began to change and rather than sail close and board enemy ships there would be a stand -off and ships would fire broad-sides at distance to damage and destroy enemy weapons.

The high point of Elizabeth's reign was the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588.

The Spanish were defeated as a result of a range of factors ranging from bad luck to bad planning. One major factor was the superiority of English naval tactics.

- The Spanish had put their trust into large galleons. The English vessels were smaller and faster and could tack the wind more easily.
- The English used fire ships or "Hell Burners" to break up the strong, crescent shaped formation of the Spanish fleet.
- The main Spanish tactic was to board and capture English ships. The English fought them at distance though only 6 of the 129 Spanish ships were destroyed as a direct result of naval engagement.
- Spanish ships had heavy guns that had a shorter range than the English guns.
- The English had superior commanders such as Drake, Frobisher, Hawkins and Howard.

The growth of the British navy from the mid-seventeenth century

After the Civil Wars, **Oliver Cromwell** as **Lord Protector** recognised the role of the English navy as vital in securing its defence while increasing the wealth and power of the country. Between 1646 and 1659 the navy grew to 217 vessels of which 106 were built and 111 captured.

When Charles II was restored to the kingship in 1660 one of his first moves was to re-establish the navy which ceased to be the personal possession of the crown and instead of Navy Royal became The **Royal Navy**. The navy grew considerably in size because of rivalry between the Dutch and the French and as a result England was to become the most powerful maritime nation in the world. As part of his "blue water" policy, Charles II added 25 more battleships to counter the naval strength of The Dutch.

The fleet was extended further between 1688 and 1714 as a result of war with France in 1689. The English navy played a crucial role in the War of Spanish Succession (1701-15) and the landmark victory at Blenheim (1704) might not have been possible had The Royal Navy not forced the French to retreat from the seas. The naval victory at the **Battle of Vigo** (1702) when an Anglo-Dutch force had an overwhelming victory over the French marked the beginning of British supremacy in the Mediterranean seas. A crushing victory for the Royal Navy at the **Battle of Toulon** (1767) inflicted massive damage on the French fleet reducing considerably its maritime power.

During the **War of Austrian Succession** (1740-48) the British navy harassed French merchant shipping on its way to the West Indies while blockading French harbours in order to stifle trade. The French backed down and sued for peace.
By 1755 the navy had expanded to over 200 ships with a personnel of 40,000. At the height of the **Seven Years War** (1756-63) in 1759 the navy had expanded to 300 ships with a manpower of 80,000. The war was a triumph for the Royal Navy and established Britain as the greatest colonial power. In 1765 the **Navy Board** built the 100 gun first rate ship **Victory** which became the benchmark for ships of the time.
The war against the American colonies from 1776 to the early 1780s bucked the trend. The Seven Years War had left Britain isolated without any European powers and, although still superior at sea, she was unable to beat American troops on land and also maintain a presence of ships in the North Atlantic to counter the French which took its toll. Events in France in 1789 would present the Royal Navy with its greatest challenge to date.

The role of the of the Royal Navy in the defeat of Napoleon by 1815

British naval victories in the **French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars** succeeded in protecting the country from a French invasion but it was not enough to defeat the French who ultimately would have to be defeated on land.
The navy was to play a key role in transporting troops and supplies and landing them on French controlled territory which was a huge logistical operation.
It was the time of the Napoleonic Wars that British maritime power reached a peak of efficiency and was unrivalled in terms of technological strength and manpower evidenced in the **Battle of the Nile** (1798) and culminating in the momentous victory at the **Battle of Trafalgar** (1805), the high point of British naval glory.
In order to thwart **Napoleon**'s invasion of Egypt , which would have threatened British interests in India, **Vice- Admiral Horatio Nelson** was given 15 ships of the line with orders to destroy the French fleet.

Line Battle tactics at sea.
The tactic was used from the early 17th century until the mid-19th century when iron-clad warships rendered it obsolete. It involved a naval fleet forming a line end to end. Previously two opposing ships would close on one another for individual combat. The line tactic had the advantage that each ship in the line could fire broadside without the fear of "friendly fire". Only the largest and most powerful ships would be used and they were called line of battle ships which is where we get the word "battleship".

The Battle of the Nile, August 1798

The French anticipating an attack had anchored 13 ships of the line in the hope that the British would attack the strong centre and rear and they would counter-attack. Clever manoeuvring allowed the British fleet to sail down the other side of the French line inflicting damage on each ship systematically. The French had 9 ships captured, 2 were burned and 2 escaped. The French fleet had been annihilated.

The Battle of Trafalgar, October 1805

Napoleon was now planning his invasion of Britain and so needed control of the English Channel. His plan involved eluding Nelson's blockade and Vice Admiral Pierre Villeneuve's fleet would then rendezvous with Spanish forces in the Caribbean.

This joint fleet would then cross the Atlantic link up with French ships at Brest and take control of the channel. Villeneuve reached the Caribbean but on heading back across the Atlantic he was harried by British vessels and was forced to seek safety in the port of Cadiz. On hearing this, Nelson made preparations to join the English fleet off Spain, reaching Cadiz on the 29th September in his 104 gunner ship HMS Victory.

Villeneuve set sail for Gibraltar with 33 ships of the line and on October 18th the British were spotted in pursuit. The French formed into a single line. Nelson had 27 ships of the line and 4 frigates. Most naval engagements at the time were inconclusive but Nelson was determined to secure a victory. He planned to abandon the line of battle and sail directly at the enemy in two columns, one to the centre and one to the rear with the Victory leading. Once the enemy line was broken the rear most ships would be surrounded and destroyed in a "pell-mell" battle. This was not without risk as his ships would be under fire during the approach. At dawn on October 1st, while northwest of Cape Trafalgar, Nelson gave the order to prepare for battle issuing his famous instruction – "England expects every man to do his duty". Nelson was mortally wounded but his navy captured or destroyed 18 ships of the Franco-Spanish fleet. Nelson's bold action became an acclaimed manoeuvre copied by naval commanders for many years.

With the channel now secure and with a diminished threat of invasion, the **Duke of Wellington** could now plan for the defeat of Napoleon on land.

The Battle of Trafalgar ensured that Britain's dominance at sea was to be unchallenged for the remainder of the war and her superiority would continue for the next century.

Source 25: The Battle of Trafalgar, October 21st 1805

The role of the Royal Navy during the First and Second World War

The role of the Royal Navy in both wars was to: defend trade routes and blockade German merchant shipping; detect and destroy enemy vessels; defend the coastline and repel invasion and to transport troops and supplies to the theatres of war.

<u>The role of the Royal Navy during the First World War.</u>
At the beginning of the 20th Britain enjoyed her status as the dominant naval power in the world. The years before the outbreak of war in 1914 witnessed an arms race between Britain and Germany. The war was to herald a new form of naval warfare that would feature a whole new generation of battleships and submarines epitomised by the **Dreadnought** which came to symbolise naval power in the early 20th century. The Dreadnought was a turning point in naval design and thereafter ships were classified as pre and post-Dreadnought. Yet its construction was based on the centuries old principle of head-on confrontation.

Source 26: HMS Dreadnought built in 1906

At the outbreak of war the Royal Navy consisted of –

- 18 Dreadnoughts (with 6 more under construction)
- 29 pre-Dreadnought battleships
- 10 battle-cruisers
- 20 town cruisers
- 15 scout cruisers
- 200 destroyers
- 150 cruisers (built before 1907).

Just as the generals in the British army had to adapt quickly to new strategies so did the commanders at sea. The need was to master technologies that only a few years earlier would have been unthinkable. War at sea became a test of ingenuity especially as it would be fought below the waves for the first time.

The British High Command recognised that control of the North Sea would be crucial. As well as engaging with the German fleet, the navy would need to blockade supplies to Germany in order to weaken the country and the **Grand Fleet** set about patrolling the North Sea any laying mines to disrupt German merchant shipping.

The greatest threat to the British surface fleet came from German **U-Boats** (anglicised version of the German U-Boot, short for *Unterseeboot*). The U-Boats were difficult to detect as the periscope was the most effective method of sighting enemy vessels at a time when sonar technology was in its infancy.

On September 5th 1914 **HMS Pathfinder** became the first ship to be sunk by a submarine using a self-prepared torpedo. In February 1915 as a form of retaliation to attempts to block German merchant ships, U-Boat commanders were given orders to sink British merchant ships and even neutral vessels if they were suspected of carrying supplies, without warning. The sinking of the liner **Lusitania** (May 1915) claimed the lives of 1,198 people including 128 Americans, an attack that deeply shocked the Allies.

The war at sea became a war of nerves, not categorised by dramatic victories and many hoped for a decisive victory such as Trafalgar. The **Battle of Jutland** (May 31st 1915) was the only example of a full-scale, direct action engagement between

the British and German fleets. The battle was indecisive even though the British fleet outnumbered the German fleet by 151 to 99. British losses included 3 battle cruisers, 3 cruisers, 8 destroyers along with 6,100 casualties. The Germans lost 1 battleship, 1 battle cruiser, 4 cruisers and 5 destroyers with 2,550 casualties. The battle was considered a British victory because control of the North Sea was maintained.

The British navy continued blocking trade and the country had to depend on non-military cargo ships to import food and raw materials as well as transporting soldiers and weaponry. After the war King George V bestowed the title **Merchant Navy** in recognition of the contribution made by merchant sailors.

The role of the Royal Navy during the Second World War.
At the outbreak of war in September 1939 The Royal Navy was the largest in the world with 1,400 vessels including -

- 15 battleships and cruisers (with 5 more under construction)
- 7 aircraft carriers
- 66 cruisers
- 184 destroyers
- 60 submarines
- 45 escort and patrol vehicles.

The Royal Navy would take responsibility for the North Sea and the Atlantic and a joint British-French force would defend the Mediterranean.

The **Battle of River Plate** (December 13th 1939) was the first major sea battle of the war and the first battle in the Atlantic. The Royal Navy suffered losses but the decommissioning of the mighty German ship the **Graf Spee** was an important propaganda victory.

The navy provided vital cover during the evacuation of troops from the beaches of Dunkirk in May-June 1940 and during the retreat from Crete in May 1941. At the **Battle of Taranto** on November 11th 1940 the Royal Navy carried out the world's first successful carrier-borne air attack. The attack on the Italian fleet was vital in protecting British supply routes in the Mediterranean. The attack was successful in destroying over half of the Italian fleet and significant in that it marked the beginning of the ascendancy of naval aviation over the big guns of battleships. The aircraft carrier was to become the new capital ship of naval warfare.

The Royal Navy suffered losses such as the aircraft carrier the **Ark Royal** (November 13th 1941) and **HMS Hood** (May 24th 1941) by the German battleship **Bismark,** although the Bismark was sunk days later. In December 1941 **HMS Repulse** and **HMS Prince of Wales** were sunk by Japanese air strikes.
From 1942 the Royal Navy assumed the responsibility of protecting the Atlantic convoys. Central to this was the need to suppress the threat from German U-Boats. In May 1941 the Germans assembled a fleet of 134 U-Boats, the largest ever.
The British hade made breakthroughs in air cover and weaponry. **RAF Coastal Command** had added long-range **B-24 Liberator** bombers to its inventory of **Sunderland** and **Catalina** flying boats. The Liberator carried a new weapon the Mark 24 Mine which was really a torpedo with a homing device that targeted the noise made by the propeller of the U-Boat. Intelligence had broken U-Boat codes and had introduced centi-metric radar and radio detection finding gear. The combination of air and sea power had dramatic results and marked a turning point both in the Battle of the Atlantic in particular and in naval warfare in general.
Naval supremacy was also vital to the amphibious operations in North West Africa, Italy and especially during the Normandy landings in June 1944. The Allied armada which crossed the Channel consisted of 4,300 vessels. The fleet was divided into two forces each composed of several hundred troop ships, auxiliary vessels and escort ships and was accompanied by a naval bombardment squadron of between 15 and 20 warships. During the landings the fleet provided continuous covering fire while the landings took place.

By the end of the war Britain's naval superiority in terms of battleships was greatly reduced as the Royal Navy became dwarfed by the United States Navy.

The function of the Royal Navy in the twenty-first century

- Protecting the economy - the protection of maritime trade is the lifeblood of the country as 95% of Britain's economic activity is dependent on the seas and the majority of trade passes through a handful of global chokepoints. The Royal Navy keeps a close watchful eye on areas that are key to the country's economy.
- Providing humanitarian assistance - natural or man-made disasters can cripple a country's infrastructure and put the lives of the vulnerable at risk. The Royal Navy possesses specialist logistical supply ships and can deliver expertise to stricken countries e.g. Sri Lanka, Haiti and the Philippines.

  Britain also has a duty to protect dependent territories.

- During the Libya Crisis and Lebanon Crisis in 2011 the Royal Navy safely evacuated fleeing citizens and during the Icelandic Volcanic Ash incident (2010) 200,000 stranded nationals were repatriated.
- Preventing conflict – the Royal Navy's presence on the global stage sends out a powerful message that Britain is committed to world affairs in order to prevent conflict e.g. the Gulf War and in West Africa. As a member of NATO and the UN Britain has to be "on call" and ready to protect its allies and interests.

The role of women in war

There is a commonly held misconception that the business of combat in war has been the almost exclusive preserve of men throughout time. The apparent exclusion of women in combat is based on assumptions that –

- Women are generally physically weaker than men and so less able to wield a sword, shoulder a musket or load a shell for sustained periods.
- Women are psychologically different to men and lack the aggression needed for combat.
- Women characteristically are less prepared to take risks and, ultimately sacrifice their lives in combat.

However, historical research has shown that there has been a long tradition of women serving their country in armed combat and that their contribution has not always been limited to nursing, auxiliary and administrative work.

How has the role of women in warfare changed over time?

The role of women in medieval battles

In early times women entered war by virtue of inheritance, office or faith. There are references in literary sources such as the Anglo Saxon Chronicle to women who exercised military powers in the early medieval period notably **Aelthelflaed** (or Ethelfleda) eldest daughter of **Alfred the Great** of Wessex. On the death of her husband she assumed the title "Lady of the Mercians" and linked up with her brother Edward in attacks against the Scandinavians who had settled in the north. It seems that she did more than just sit at home and direct expeditions but took an active part. She ruled in her own name and commanded armies against the Danes and also defeated the Welsh and forced them to pay tribute to her. On her death, control of the realm passed to her brother.

Other women became involved in military affairs by virtue of office. In the late 12th and the 13th centuries some woman held the office of sheriff on the deaths of their husbands which combined administrative responsibilities and military duties. Dame Nicola de la Haye, Sheriff of Lincoln, played a significant role in the Siege of Lincoln in 1217 during the **First Baron's War**.

Some women went to war for devotion and faith. There are records of women who accompanied their husbands during the crusades. Eleanor of Aquitaine (later wife of Henry II) accompanied her husband Louis VII on the Second Crusade. **Richard the Lionheart** took his newly married wife and his sister on the Third Crusade in 1191. Wealthy women organised their own expeditions, hired fighting men and contributed to the construction of fortifications.

Non-noble women performed various support services such as taking water onto the battlefields, making arrows and bowstrings, hurling missiles at the enemy and administering medical aid.

Evidence is scant as to whether women fought alongside men on the battlefields. Christian writers make little mention of women combatants but Muslim sources make reference to them in an attempt to emphasise the barbarity of the Christians.

Other references to women in battle include –

- In 1075 Emma de Guader, Countess of Norfolk defended Norwich Castle when under siege. She died during the First Crusade with her husband on the road to Palestine.
- In 1136 Princess Gwenllian raised an army during "the patriotic revolt" to defend South West Wales against the Normans. In a battle fought near Kidwelly Castle she was captured and beheaded along with her two sons.
- In mid-13th century Eleanor of Provence, wife of Henry III, raised troops to fight against Simon de Montford who as leading a rebellion against her husband.
- In 1461 Margaret of Anjou (wife of King Henry VI) during the Wars of the Roses defeated the Earl of Warwick but was later defeated in battle at Tewkesbury.

Women and their role in British armies 1500-1815: nursing, support, prostitution

Women carried out military duties in the early modern era. They are depicted in contemporary illustrations marching on campaign toting canteens of water while some are shown carrying halberds and handguns. Records show that women were not averse to use such weapons in combat.

With their husbands at war women would be called on to defend their homes. In 1643 during the Civil War Blanche, Lady of Arundel held Wardour Castle against a force of 1,300 parliamentary troops during a week long siege. Her maidservants carried bullets and powder up to the men at their positions. Lady Mary Bankes and her daughters defended Corfe Castle during a six week siege in 1643 by dropping stones and hot embers on soldiers attempting to scale the walls. Joane Purefoy and the household of Caldecote Hall held off Prince Rupert and a Royalist force for seven hours armed with just a dozen muskets.

Some women saw active service. In 1639 Lady Ann Cunningham, Marchioness of Hamilton led a cavalry troop of men and women at the **Battle of Berwick.** A Royalist corporal captured near Nottingham was found to be a woman. A Scots army that marched on Newcastle in 1644 is said to have included women who fought as regular soldiers alongside men.

Armies of the time could not have functioned without camp followers of which women formed a significant number. There were two types of camp followers – the wives (and children) of soldiers and those who provided services such as carrying

equipment, cooking, foraging for food, washing and mending clothes, tending to the sick and wounded along with "other services". Some army leaders spoke out against the presence of woman in camps but at a time when there were no field hospitals they had little alternative.

If a soldier was already married or if he married while enlisted, his wife officially belonged to the regiment and as such was listed on the regiment's strength. It meant that they could draw rations and, as part of army discipline, could be flogged for misbehaviour.

Women on campaign developed a formidable reputation for quickly looting the bodies of the enemy after battle as well as "dispatching" the wounded by slitting their throats with a small blade.

Officers were rather less inclined to take their wives on campaign though some wives did travel abroad to join their husbands. Most officers were of the opinion that the army was no place for a lady.

"Leaguer Ladies" or prostitutes were usually impoverished local women who offered their services to soldiers in the hope that they might marry. Commanding officers turned a blind eye to the issue in the belief that it reduced the number of desertions. Widows of soldiers often married quickly almost as a means of survival and sometimes to a succession of soldiers. Permission to marry had to be given by the colonel of the regiment and would only be granted to soldiers of good conduct. Common law wives were often abandoned by soldiers at the end of a campaign.

Source 27: English soldiers and camp followers taking rest, 1739

Women would carry ammunition and provisions onto the battlefield and protected baggage carts from enemy looters. On occasions, women were able to disguise themselves as males and join the army as drummers and some were known to have taken up arms and fought in battle.

- *The Gallant She-Soldier* is a mid-17th century ballad which describes a woman combatant called Private Clarke. She served in the same regiment as her husband for nine years until the birth of a child revealed her gender.
- "Robert Cornelius" fought with the British Army at the battle of Namur 1695 and was revealed as woman by a surgeon treating her wounds.
- Phoebe Hessel joined the 5th Regiment of Foot in the 1740s in order to serve with her lover and her gender was revealed when she was stripped to the waist prior to being flogged.
- Daniel Defoe became the chronicler of a She-Soldier nick-named "Mother Ross" who volunteered as an infantryman under the name "Christopher Welsh" in 1693 and fought at the **Battle of Laden** in the Nine Years War where she was wounded. After being discharged she re-joined the army but was later revealed to be a woman.
- Mary Anne Talbot was born illegitimately and sold by her guardian to an army officer who disguised her as a drummer boy. She went on to serve on **HMS Brunswick** during the Napoleonic Wars serving also as a junior officer on a merchant ship.

Avoiding being identified as a woman was not difficult. There were no real medical inspections on enlisting and poor hygiene meant that soldiers rarely stripped to wash.

The role of women as nurses and auxiliaries in the nineteenth century

Until the mid-19th century, nursing did not demand any training and did not command any respect.

> **"Nursing was left to those who were too old, too weak, too drunken, too dirty, too stupid or too bad to do anything else".**
>
> - Florence Nightingale

Source 28: Florence Nightingale

Florence Nightingale (1820-1910) came from a wealthy English family but, defying convention, enrolled on a three month training programme to study the care and treatment of disease. Following her studies she joined an organisation called the "Establishment for Gentlewomen During Illness" and was about to begin a training programme when the **Crimean War** intervened. She was invited to lead the nursing staff at the Scutari Army Barracks and immediately set about getting herself and her nurses and auxiliaries established while cutting across the prevailing view that common soldiers were not worthy of proper medical attention and comfort. Having raised funds through the London Times she was able to provide medical supplies for the wounded. Nightingale and her nurses improved the insanitary conditions and in doing so reduced the death count by 2/3rds. There were over 18,000 casualties in the war yet less than 2,000 were killed in action. The majority died of disease

in hospital. The popular image of her doing the rounds to see that all was well earned her the title "Lady of the Lamp". Her greatest achievement was the raising of nursing to a respectable profession.

Mary Seacole (1805-81) was born in Jamaica to a Jamaican mother and a Scottish career soldier. Although not formerly trained as a nurse she picked up skills from her mother and worked with victims of cholera and yellow fever. On hearing of the situation in the Crimea she sought permission from the British Government to go there as a nurse but was refused because of her ethnicity and so had to fund her own travel. On arrival in Constantinople in 1855 she volunteered to work as one of Nightingale's nurses but was rejected. She helped establish the "British Hotel" in Balaclava at her own expense as a place for recuperating officers. The hospital was near the front line and she often ventured onto the battlefield to tend to the injured. She also operated as a "sutler" selling provisions to soldiers and even provided refreshments for spectators at the battles.

Janet Wells (Sister Janet) (1859-1911).
Born in London in 1859 and, aged 17, joined the *Evangelical Protestant Deaconesses Institute of Training Hospitals* as a trainee nurse also spending her time doing charitable work in the slum areas of London. After qualifying she was sent to the Balkans to help the Russian army medical teams during the **Russo-Turkish War** 1877-78 where she helped treat thousands of seriously wounded troops often with basic resources. On returning to England she was summoned to go to South Africa to take over the British medical post at Utrecht in Zululand. She treated the wounded during the brutal Zulu wars notably at **Rorke's Drift** and also administered care to the Zulu **King Cetshwayo** then a prisoner of the British.
She and Florence Nightingale were the first recipients of the Royal Red Cross which was awarded for devotion displayed in nursing British troops.

Women and their role on the Home Fronts in the First and Second World Wars

The First World War.
The concept of Total War meant that everyone and everything was directed at the war. This would include women in many important roles. Of the two wars, it was arguably the First World War that presented the greatest challenge for women on the Home Front. Between 1914-18 an estimated two million women replaced men in employment.

The vast majority of women were absorbed into the civilian workforce in order to replace volunteer and conscripted men. They took on roles in male dominated industries and also worked alongside men in reserved occupations and in coalmines. Nearly one million women worked as "munitionettes" in munitions factories where conditions were hazardous as their work involved handling toxic and unstable substances. By June 1917 80% of weapons and ammunition used by the British Army were made by women.

Women were also needed for vital agricultural work and over 260,000 volunteered to work as farm labourers often for little remuneration. Some 23,000 joined the **Women's Land Army (WLA)** which was set up in February 1917.

Women also played a role in the propaganda of the time. Posters and films portrayed soldiers as the defenders of women, children and the country. Women were involved in recruitment and were active in the "white feather" campaign designed to put pressure on men to sign up.

On the military front while military nursing was not new there was a need to expand it on a massive scale. Women served as nurses in the ; **Queen Alexandra Imperial Nursing Service (QAINS);** the **First Aid Nursing Yeomanry (FANY);** the **Voluntary Aid Detachment (VAD)** along with branches of the **Red Cross**.
More direct support to the military came from the **Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC)** established in 1917 which saw women serving as drivers, clerks, telephonists and as caterers.

The Royal Flying Corps and the **Royal Naval Air Services** merged in May 1918 to form the **Royal Air Force** and a women's branch was established as the **Women's Royal Air Force (WRAF)**. Some 100,000 women served in the uniformed services during 1914-18 of which over half were connected with nursing though very few went anywhere near the battlefield.

<u>The Second World War.</u>
In 1939 there was the same need for women to help with the war effort. In the Spring of 1941all British women between the ages of 18 and 60 had to register their family occupations. After being interviewed they were required to choose from a range of jobs though it was made clear that there would be no combat roles. Women however were to work and often die under fire.

The National Service Act of December 1941 made the conscription of women legal. At first only unmarried women between the ages of 20 and 30 were called but by mid-1943 almost 90% of single women and 80% of married women were

employed as train drivers and in civil defence as air-raid wardens.

Over 640,000 women served in the armed forces including the **Women's Naval Services (WRNS)** and the **Air Territorial Force (ATF)**. Notably the Queen, then Princess Elizabeth trained as a driver and mechanic and reached the rank of Junior Commander. Mary Churchill daughter of the Prime Minister served in the ATS. In the countryside 80,000 "Land Girls" worked in the WLA and in the towns and cities the **Women's Voluntary Service (WVS)** provided support to victims of bombing raids and to those sheltering in Underground stations.

Churchill recruited 55 women agents as part of the **Special Operations Executive (SOE)** to be dropped behind enemy lines to help resistance fighters to conduct espionage, sabotage and reconnaissance in German occupied Europe. Of the 55 agents, 13 were killed in action or died in Nazi concentration camps. The **Air Training Auxiliary (ATA)** had been formed in 1938 to ferry aircraft between factories and the front line. The organisation began recruiting women dubbed "Attagirls" and by the end of the war of the 650 pilots, 168 were women, 15 of whom were killed. Other women operated boats and barges transporting heavy guns on inland waterways.

Women on the front line in the twentieth century as soldiers and medics.: Flora Sandes, Dorothy Lawrence, Sarah Bushbye

> "The British Army will become more representative of its society but also more operationally effective. Wars are not just fought by men, and do not just affect men. The battlefield has already moved from the remote frontlines of 20th century warfare to a more urban environment and is influenced by all of society and not just military personnel. The armed forced need women in all military roles in order to understand and influence events on the battlefield and beyond.
> This is not just about fairness, but about winning."

Hannah Bryce from the Royal Institute of International Affairs speaking in July 2016 after Prime Minister David Cameron announced the lifting of the ban on women serving in close combat units in the British Army.

Women had previously served on the front line of battle in support roles but now will be allowed to enter the cavalry, infantry and the armoured corps.
Some senior officers at the time of the announcement expressed fears that lifting the centuries old ban could lead to a drop in standards in the armed forces. Colonel Richard Kemp, former commander of British forces in Afghanistan warned that women fighters would harm the "warrior ethos" and damage the fighting capabilities of male soldiers.

Flora Sandes (1876-1956)
Flora Sandes was a British nurse who volunteered for the Serbian ambulance service at the start of the First World War. When the Serbian Army was forced to retreat in November 1915 she enlisted in the army (Serbia was one of a few countries to accept women). Fellow troops called her "brother" and she was accepted as an "honorary man". A year later she was promoted to Sergeant-major and was wounded by an enemy grenade during hand-to-hand fighting after which she returned to nursing. At the end of the war she remained in the Serbian Army eventually reaching the rank of Captain and was awarded the King George Star, Serbia's highest decoration. She lived in Yugoslavia, and in 1941 when the Germans invaded, she marched off to fight at the age of 65. She was captured and imprisoned by the Gestapo. She returned to Britain after the war where she died in

1956. Her biographer Louise Millar wrote "she helped shift the perception of what women could do. She was a heroine. She pushed the boundaries".

Source 29: Flora Sandes during the First World War

Dorothy Lawrence (1896-1964),
At the outbreak of war of war in 1914 Dorothy Lawrence was working as a journalist and applied to be a war correspondent on the front line but was rejected because she was a woman. In a spirit of "I will show them" she decided to disguise herself and pose as a soldier. With the help of two English soldiers in France she acquired a uniform and the forged papers of a Dennis Smith. She wore a corset to alter her figure, cut her hair and darkened her skin. She arrived at the Somme and found work as a sapper with the British Expeditionary Force (BEF) and laid mines on the front line coming under enemy fire. After 10 days she became ill and, not wanting to get her co-conspirators into trouble, presented herself to the military authorities who placed her under military arrest. She was interrogated as a spy, accused of being a camp follower (she did know of the term) and declared a prisoner of war. She was released after signing a declaration that she would not speak about her experiences until after the war. She later published a book *Sapper Dorothy Lawrence, The Only English Woman Soldier*.

There have been four female recipients of the Military Cross –

- Michelle Norris of the Royal Army Medical Corps while serving in Iraq in 2006
- Kate Nesbit of the Royal Navy while serving in Afghanistan in 2009
- L/Corporal Kylie Watson of the Royal Army Medical Corps while serving in Afghanistan in 2011

Sarah Bushbye (1985-)

While serving as an army medic in Afghanistan in 2010 she gave medical care to two wounded British soldiers and two Afghan comrades following an attack by Taliban suicide bombers. The Lance Corporal's citation told how she ignored the risk of sharpshooters and improvised explosive devices to cross 500 metres of open land to reach the wounded. She attended to them administering resuscitation to one soldier who stopped breathing. She then helped the injured onto a helicopter while still under gun-fire.

The citation concluded "Her professionalism, selfless courage and conspicuous gallantry in the face of the enemy while under fire were extraordinary, given her rank and experience."

Source 30: Lance Corporal Sarah Bushbye receiving the Military Cross

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Source 1
Richard I — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fSvLY6

Source 2
Five Members — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2f0Anhm

Source 3
Germans in Warsaw — US National Archives

Source 4
Berlin wall — US National Archives

Source 5
Vikingr — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fSFIoH

Source 6
Crecy — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2gcmfEo

Source 7
Waterloo — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fSJle3

Source 8
Canadians at the Somme — © IWM (CO 874)

Source 9
Naseby — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2eBP2AX

Source 10
Press gang — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fucdMS

Source 11
WW1 poster — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fC6bYc

Source 12
National service — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2eBNoPK

Source 13 Siege machines	Grose, Francis: "The Antiquities of England and Wales" (1783)
Source 14 Longbowmen	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2eWEqI3
Source 15 Brown Bess	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fRpCww
Source 16 Vickers	© IWM (E 31734)
Source 17 Mark V tank	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fSWiok
Source 18 Centurion tank	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fkAP6R
Source 19 Sopwith Camel	Photo by Alan Wilson, http://bit.ly/2eWKWyR
Source 20 WW2 aircraft	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fumFnB
Source 21 Observer	US National Archives
Source 22 MQ Reaper	NASA
Source 23 Vikings	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fdd69o
Source 24 Ship	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fCvk4R
Source 25 Trafalgar	Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2eCgSgr

Source 26
HMS Dreadnought — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fRGjrJ

Source 27
Camp followers — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fCyNQP

Source 28
Florence Nightingale — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/1Ou92vd

Source 29
Flora Sandes — Wikimedia CC, http://bit.ly/2fCCXbu

Source 30
Sarah Bushbye — John Stillwell/PA Archive/PA Images