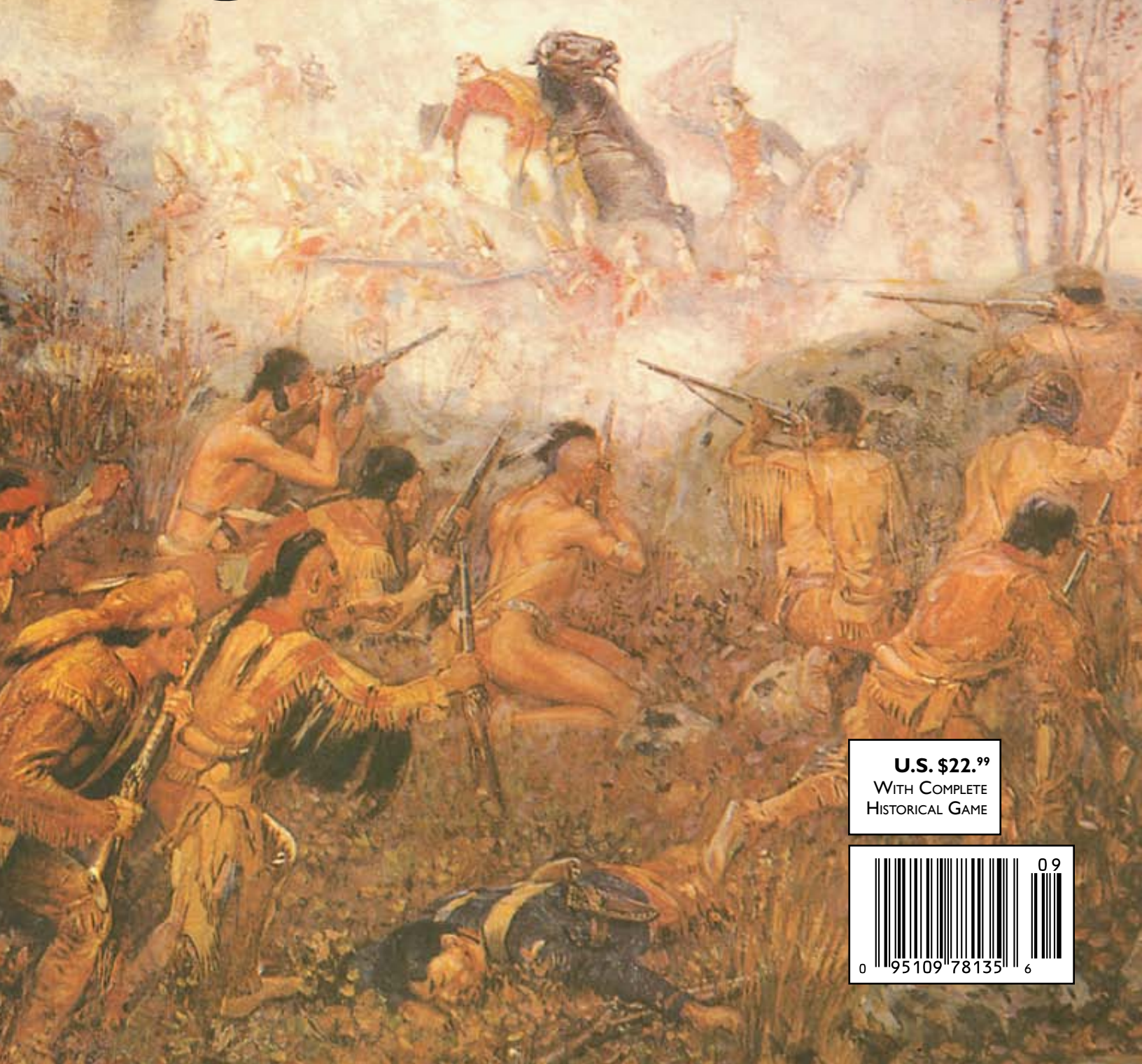


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Strategy & Tactics

NUMBER 231

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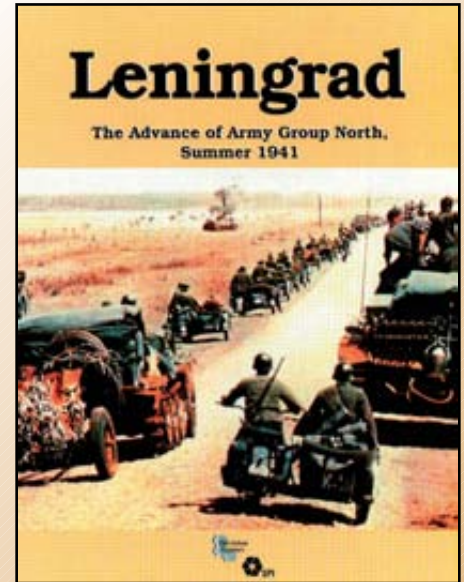
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Strategy & Tactics

Editor-in-Chief: Joseph Miranda

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Design • Graphics • Layout: Callie Cummins

Copy Editors: Ty Bomba, Rob Dean, Dav Vandenberg and Jason Burnett.

Map Graphics: Meridian Mapping

Publisher: Christopher Cummins

ADVERTISING: Rates and specifications available on request. Write P.O. Box 21598, Bakersfield CA 93390.

SUBSCRIPTION RATES are: Six issues per year—the United States is \$99.97/1 year. Canada surface mail rates are \$110/1 year and Overseas surface mail rates are \$130/1 year. International rates are subject to change as postal rates change.

Six issues per year—Newsstand (magazine only)—the United States is \$29.97/1 year. Canada surface mail rates are \$36/1 year and Overseas surface mail rates are \$42/1 year.

All payments must be in U.S. funds drawn on a U.S. bank and made payable to Strategy & Tactics (Please no Canadian checks). Checks and money orders or VISA/MasterCard accepted (with a minimum charge of \$40). All orders should be sent to Decision Games, P.O. Box 21598, Bakersfield CA 93390 or call 661/587-9633 (best hours to call are 9am-12am PDT, M-F) or use our 24-hour fax 661/587-5031 or e-mail us from our website www.decisiongames.com.

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STRATEGY & TACTICS (ISSN 1040-886X) is published bi-monthly by Decision Games, 1649 Elworth St. #1, Bakersfield CA 93312. Periodical Class postage paid at Bakersfield, CA and additional mailing offices.

Address Corrections: Address change forms to Strategy & Tactics, PO Box 21598, Bakersfield CA 93390.

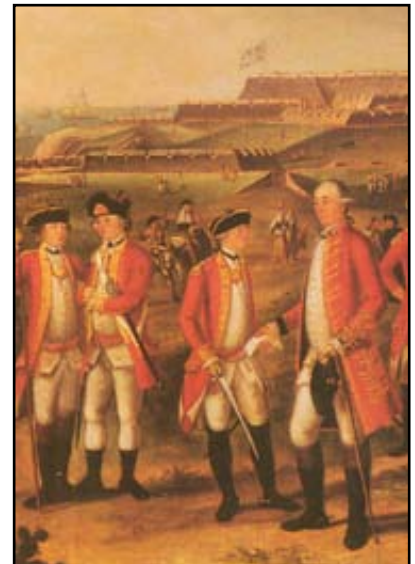
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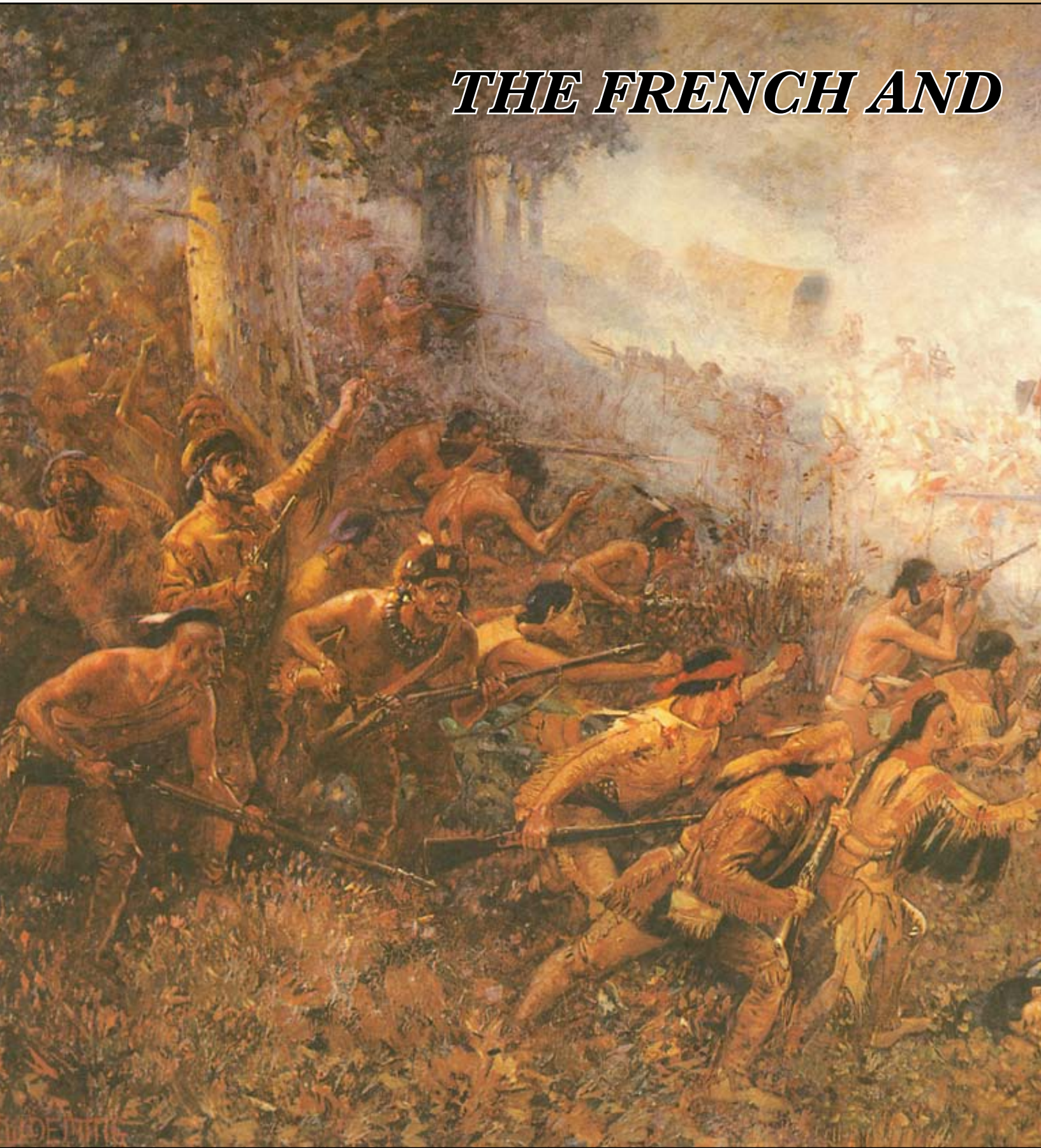
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THE FRENCH AND





INDIAN WAR, 1754-60

by Brian R. Train

In the early years of the 17th century, both France and Britain established permanent colonies on the continent of North America. Both countries realized the vast economic potential of the new land but were preoccupied by wars in Europe (the Thirty Years War and English Civil War), and so were not able to turn their colonies into profitable enterprises. Near the end of the 17th century and in the early 18th, that situation began to change. Military conflict in Europe was mirrored by aggressive moves by the colonial powers in North America. King William's War (known as the War of the League of Augsburg in Europe, 1689-97), Queen Anne's War (War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-13), and King George's War (War of the Austrian Succession, 1744-48) all saw fighting between British and French forces in North America.

Background to Continental Conflict

By the late 1740s, the French had begun to move south from their settlements along the St. Lawrence River and into the Ohio Valley, determined to dominate the lucrative fur trade there. That move south was matched as settlers and trappers made their way up the Mississippi Valley from New Orleans (founded 1718). A linkup of French colonists would effectively prevent further expansion to the west by the British. Even though there were about 20 times more British colonists in North America than French (about 1.3 million to 65,000, respectively), the French colonial authorities reasoned they had four critical factors in their favor:

- “possession is nine tenths of the law”—their colonists, trappers and troops controlled strategic waterways;
- good relations with the Indian tribes in and around the Great Lakes and Ohio valley;
- the British colonies acted independently of each other and often had divergent aims;
- the British colonies could not mobilize enough soldiers to drive the French out of the chain of forts along the Ohio valley, nor could the British government spare enough of its standing army to do the job.

In late March of 1754, Gov. Dinwiddie of Virginia sent six companies of “provincials” (as the British authorities called the locally recruited troops, based on the

colonial militia) into the Ohio valley. The provincials had orders to build roads and forts and to establish a permanent British military presence to contest the French. It helped that Dinwiddie held a financial interest in the Ohio Company, a private business formed to exploit and develop the valley. The inevitable clashes at Forts Duquesne and Necessity (April-May 1754), though small in scale, were the first ones of the French and Indian War, two years in advance of the official declaration of war.

1755—Braddock's' Defeat

When news of those skirmishes reached London and Paris, both governments decided it was time to take matters seriously. Both dispatched detachments of regulars to the New World. In February-March 1755, London sent about 1,000 regulars plus artillery, mostly drawn from the 44th and 48th Regiments, and directed the formation of two more regular regiments, the 50th and 51st, in the colonies themselves. Meanwhile, Paris sent three contingents of reinforcements: four battalions of regulars (the second battalions of the *Regiments Guyenne, Bearn, Languedoc* and *de la Reine*) to Quebec, arriving in June 1755; two battalions of regulars from the *Regiments Artois* and *Bourgogne* to reinforce the garrison at the fortress of Louisbourg; and several hundred individual soldiers for the Marine companies.

Gen. Edward Braddock, the new British military commander in the colonies, had as his first order of business to recruit and train enough provincials to bring his infantry battalions up to strength before moving into the Ohio valley. The 44th and 48th had come over significantly understrength, and it proved difficult to find enough men to both fill the ranks of the regulars and to form the new 50th and 51st Regiments. It was early June before Braddock could muster sufficient strength to march into the interior.

Braddock hoped to accomplish four things in 1755:

- lead the regular troops against Fort Duquesne in the Ohio valley;
- capture Fort St. Frederic on Lake Champlain with a force of Indians and provincials, then use it as the base for an advance against Montreal in 1756;
- send the 50th and 51st Regiments to Oswego, in preparation for an attack across Lake Ontario against Fort Niagara;
- capture Fort Beausejour in Nova Scotia, thus reducing the French presence on the Atlantic coast to Louisbourg.

As it turned out, only the last task would be accomplished. Braddock and the regulars were ambushed and defeated at the Monongahela River (9 July 1755), and the attempt on Fort St. Frederic was a bloody but inconclusive clash (8 September 1755). The plans to attack Fort Niagara were cancelled in the face of those

defeats, desertions among the “batto men” (civilian crews for the transport boats or “bateaux”), and the winter storms on Lake Ontario.

No Arcadia in Acadia

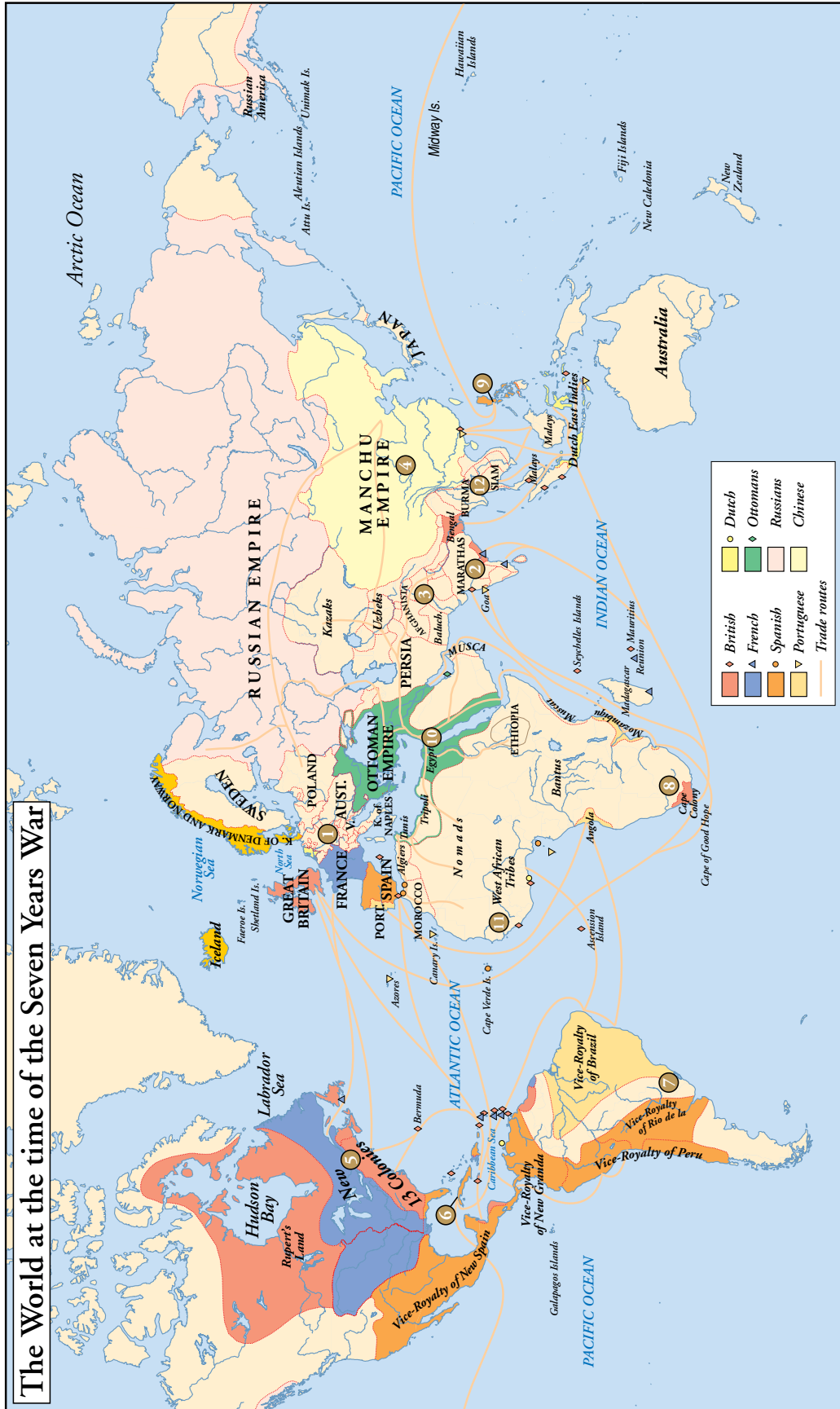
After Queen Anne's War (1701-13), the land then known as Acadia was ceded to Britain and renamed Nova Scotia. The French settlers were not turned out at the time, though they were required to swear allegiance to the British crown. They further pledged to remain neutral in the event of future wars between Britain and France, and that pledge was mostly honoured during King George's War (1744-48). However, pressure from large numbers of British, German and Swiss colonists moving into the area from the new British port city of Halifax, as well as raids on their settlements by the Mi'kmaq Indians who were allied with the French, disaffected more and more Acadians. Many moved to what is now New Brunswick, which both Britain and France claimed.

The French military presence was based on the fortress of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island, and at Fort Beausejour, the latter located at the Chignecto Peninsula, the narrow neck of land that divides the two modern provinces. Gov. Lawrence of Nova Scotia reasoned capturing Fort Beausejour would not only isolate Louisbourg, it would also halt the exodus of the Acadians into British territory.

On 3 June 1755, Col. Robert Monckton landed 2,000 provincials and 270 British regulars in the Bay of Fundy to lay siege to Fort Beausejour. After a desultory bombardment, the fort surrendered on 16 June. Though the resistance had been little more than token, the Acadians had taken sides in that battle. About 300 of them had been impressed into the fort's garrison, and Monckton's besieging troops had been attacked by small groups of Acadians and Mi'kmaq Indians in the woods. Gov. Lawrence used that as an excuse to expel the Acadians, deporting them to the other colonies.

Starting in October 1755 and continuing for the next three months, over 7,000 Acadians were ordered to move without compensation for their lands and goods. Most of them were dispersed along the Atlantic seaboard, though others were shipped back to England or France. Deportations would continue for the next four years, until almost all of the estimated Acadian population of 16,000 had been dispersed or fled to New Brunswick or Louisiana (whence the term “Cajun”). For the Age of Enlightenment, the deportations were considered to be a barbaric act, though the British no doubt felt justified by the need to secure their frontiers.

The World at the time of the Seven Years War



- 1 Seven Years War Europe
- 2 Britain vs. France in India
- 3 Afghans raid northern India
- 4 China: Manchus expand in Tibet and Sinkiang
- 5 French and Indian Wars in North America, 1754-63
- 6 British capture Havana, 1762
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- 8 South Africa: Boers cross the Orange River, 1760
- 9 British capture Manila, 1762
- 10 Egypt asserts independence against Ottomans
- 11 British operations in Senegal
- 12 Burma invades Siam, China intervenes

1756—Global War

The balance of power at the beginning of 1756 favored the French:

- they had the support of more Indian tribes than the British, and the pro-French tribes were also more aggressive;
- they also had possession of the Ohio valley, the original *casus belli*;
- because Britain and France were still not officially at war, French ships were not being attacked by the Royal Navy. That meant routes back to France were open to bring in men, supplies and money;
- the French victory at Monongahela, the standoff at Fort George, and the cancellation of the Oswego operation ensured the British would not regain the initiative for some time;
- even though the British had deprived the French of potentially valuable auxiliaries by deporting the Acadians, the fortress of Louisbourg remained capable of contesting British sea power along the coast.

April 1756 saw the formal declaration of war between Britain and France, along with the official beginning of the Seven Years War in Europe. Now the Royal Navy could chase and capture French ships, and by the end of the year the British naval blockade would begin to tell on the French war effort in North America.

In May of 1756, a new French military commander, the Marquis de Montcalm, arrived in New France with 10 companies of Marines and two new units of regular troops: the second battalions of the *Regiments La Sarre* and *Royal Roussillon*. Montcalm was an experienced and competent general, but he did not cooperate well with the Marquis de Vaudreuil, governor of New France, who held final authority over all civil and military affairs in the colony. For his part, Vaudreuil had expected to command the campaign and did not welcome Montcalm's presence, which implied to him the king and court did not trust him.

The British were reinforced as well. Gen. Shirley was relieved in June 1756 by John Campbell, 4th Earl of Loudoun, who arrived with the first battalions of the 22nd, 27th, 35th, and 42nd *Regiments*. Also, at the end of 1755 the formation of the 60th (*Royal American*) *Regiment* was authorized. It was raised from men of the colonies and, unlike most "British" regiments, would field four battalions.

Montcalm and Vaudreuil agreed on the strategic importance of retaining control of Lake Ontario, both to guard the approaches to the Ohio valley and to forestall British action against the forts on the north side of the lake. During the winter a small fleet of boats had been built at Fort Frontenac to contest the British naval presence there, and a series of raids by Canadian militia and Indians had isolated Fort Oswego.

Montcalm captured the complex of forts at Oswego in August. When news of the fall of Oswego reached the Earl of Loudoun he cancelled the plans he had made to advance up the Lake Champlain corridor to attempt to take Louisbourg.

There was little action for the rest of the year, except for a campaign of raids and ambushes by Canadian militia and Indians against the British settlers inhabiting the western borders of Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia. Those raids pushed back the frontier, depriving the British of a base of operations against the Ohio valley. They also had a psychological effect. Recruitment of provincial forces dropped off sharply because militiamen did not want to leave their families unguarded while British generals sent their regiments on expeditions far to the north. The Indians, especially the Iroquois, acquired a fearsome reputation for atrocity and superhuman fieldcraft. For a small investment of men and supplies, Montcalm had managed to keep the British on the defensive all year.

1757 Fort William Henry & a Legend Born

As the spring thaw of 1757 approached, Gov. Vaudreuil decided the Lake Champlain front would be the main theatre of operations. Since the Battle of Lake George in 1755, the French and British had remained facing each other at opposite ends of the lake—Fort Carillon to the north (called Ticonderoga in American histories), and Fort William Henry to the south. Whoever first captured the opposing fort would be free to use the Lake Champlain corridor as they wished: the British for an advance on Quebec or Montreal, the French against New York. Montcalm captured William Henry in early August in an action that would later become part of colonial folklore. The story of the ensuing Fort William Henry "massacre," as Indians attacked troops and colonists the French had allowed to withdraw under honors of war, was exaggerated in the British and colonial news. It also excited further interest in the North American theatre back in Britain and maintained fears of the "savage Indians" on the colonial front.

An unexpected outcome of the Fort William Henry massacre was, in their zeal for loot, some Indians dug up bodies in the fort's cemetery and thereby unknowingly carried smallpox back to their villages with them. The resulting epidemic during the winter of 1757-58 took many of the tribes in the Great Lakes region out of the war. That, together with the increasing number of British regulars being sent to North America, would decrease the reliance of both the British and French on native auxiliaries for victory. The major battles of the rest of the war would be fought almost exclusively by European regulars and American colonists.

Though Loudoun had to cancel his plans for a summer assault on Louisbourg in order to reinforce



the Lake Champlain area, that was the year when the balance began to tip against the French. William Pitt became British prime minister in mid-year, and his policy was to energetically pursue the war in North America and India while the French remained fixated on the continental European military balance. Loudoun received a reinforcement of eight more regular infantry battalions and formed a ninth of light infantry in America. The French received only two more battalions and some replacements.

The British naval blockade was also proving effective in choking off supplies of weapons, reinforcements and money from France. New France was also beginning to run out of food. The British navy had mostly shut down the cod fishing industry, and the Canadian militia had spent most of the harvest season mobilized and on campaign, which meant a poor harvest.

1758—the Balance Turns

Loudoun was an able administrator of military forces but accomplished little with them, so London relieved him of his command. Gen. James Abercromby was placed in charge and given direction to carry the war to the French. He intended to do that by simultaneous advances on all three fronts: Lake Champlain, Louisbourg and the Ohio valley. Abercromby himself would lead an expedition against Fort Carillon and then continue up the Champlain corridor to threaten Montreal. An amphibious operation, using most of the reinforcements sent from England and under command of Gen. Jeffrey Amherst, would capture Louisbourg and open the way to an assault on Quebec. Col. John Forbes would begin to clear the Ohio valley by capturing Fort Duquesne.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR REGULAR TROOPS ORDER OF BATTLE

by Brian Train

Before 1754

French:

30 Marine companies (nominal strength 50 men each), dispersed throughout New France.

24 Marine companies at Ile Royale (Louisbourg garrison).

36 Marine companies in Louisiana (some participated in Ohio valley fighting).

British:

40th, 45th, 47th Regiments at Halifax/Nova Scotia.

1755

French:

2nd Battalions of Regiments Artois and Bourgogne (June, at Louisbourg)

2nd Battalions of Regiments Bearn, Guyenne, Languedoc (-), La Reine (-). (June, at Quebec, Languedoc and La Reine each lost four companies when their transports were intercepted at sea.)

British:

44th (-), 48th (-) Regiments (late March, Virginia, arrived significantly understrength).

50th, 51st Regiments (locally recruited winter 1754-spring 1755, disbanded after their capture at Oswego in 1756).

1756

French:

2nd Battalions of Regiments La Sarre and Royal Rousillon (May, Quebec).

About 500 replacements to fill out 10 Marine companies (May, Quebec).

British:

22nd Regiment (Halifax)

27th, 35th Regiments (Virginia)

1/42nd Regiment (New York)

60th Regiment, recruited locally to reach a strength of four battalions. The 1/60th was a good light infantry unit, 2/60th and 3/60th the equal of British regulars, and 4/60th was poor quality. Originally formed as the 62nd Regiment, it was renumbered the 60th after the 50th and 51st Regiments were disbanded following the fall of Oswego.



1757

French:

2nd and 3rd Battalions of Regiment Berry (May, Quebec).

255 poor quality replacements for the eight companies lost in transit from Regiments Languedoc and La Reine (May, Quebec).

British:

2/1st, 17th, 28th, 43rd, 46th, 58th Regiments (early 1757, Halifax).

55th, 78th Regiments (July, Halifax).

80th Regiment of Light Armed Foot formed winter 1757- spring 1758 with cadres of Rangers and volunteers from provincial militia and British regular units.

1758

French:

Volontaires Etrangers (battalion-size unit of Swiss mercenaries; early spring, Louisbourg).

2nd Battalion of Regiment Cambis (June, Louisbourg, a few days before the British invasion)

British:

15th, 62nd (-), 77th Regiments (early 1758, Halifax).

Four companies of the 2nd Battalion, 4th Regiment were sent to North America as ship's marines in January 1758, but the detachment was renamed the 62nd Regiment in April 1758. The unit served as marine infantry at Louisbourg and Quebec, though it did not get a battle honour for the latter.

1759

French:

About 300 replacements (May, Quebec).

British:

2/42nd Regiment (early 1759, Halifax).

1760

French:

None (reinforcement convoy of 400 replacements intercepted).

British:

94th Regiment (raised in Wales for brief garrison duty in North America).

95th Regiment (formed May, 1760 in South Carolina from nine independent companies for service against Cherokee rebels).



ORGANIZATION

French

Army Infantry Regiments

There were several different organizational patterns. For example, *Regiments de la Reine, Languedoc, Bearn* and *Guyenne* each deployed a battalion to the New World. The strength of each was about 525 men organized into one grenadier company (45 men) and 10 to 12 fusilier companies (40 men each). But *Regiment Cambis* at Louisbourg had 16 companies. *Regiment Berry* deployed its 2nd and 3rd battalions, with 550 men each, divided into nine fusilier companies.

Troupes de la Marine

French Marines were under the control of the Ministry of Marine, which had responsibility for colonial administration. The Marines were deployed on land as overseas colonial military forces. A Marine company had 50–65 men, usually broken into section or platoon detachments to guard small forts or outposts, or to reinforce militia units. On several occasions they were joined into battalion-size formations of eight to 10 companies. Marines were generally well versed in frontier skirmishing tactics.

Militia

The French had an extensive militia system in North America, built around their parishes. While the militia could frequently be effective, especially in skirmish style warfare, prolonged mobilization undermined the civilian economy. And militia reliability could vary, depending on morale and which side was winning the war. Sometimes the militia were used to provide logistical support to the regulars by hauling supplies, really a necessity in wilderness North America. There were also some quasi-regular units raised among the settlers.

British

Regular Infantry Regiment

A British regiment was composed of more than one battalion; however, those battalions rarely served together in the field. Each battalion had a grenadier company, which was supposed to be composed of the unit's best soldiers, and nine line infantry companies. In 1758, one of the line companies was redesignated light infantry and trained in skirmish tactics. Battalion strength was 6-700 men.

Provincial Regiments

These units were raised from colonists and generally could serve across a theater of operations. A battalion had 500 men on paper, divided into 10 companies.

Militia

The British had an extensive militia system in their 13 North American colonies. Each colony raised its own militia regiments with varying degrees of training and discipline. Aside from infantry, there were also some artillery, dragoons (cavalry) and light infantry. Generally, the militia tended to be less effective the farther they marched from home, but they would later become the basis for the American Army during the Revolution.

Rogers' Rangers

These light troops were raised as single companies and were usually broken into scouting or patrolling groups of varying sizes. A company had an authorized strength of 100 men, with four officers, four sergeants and 92 privates.

Success in all three endeavours would reverse the French gains of the previous three years and assure victory in 1759. As it turned out, two out of three wasn't bad: Abercromby's bloody tactical repulse at Fort Carillon (Ticonderoga) on 8 July 1758 was balanced by the hard-fought but eventual success at Louisbourg in July, and the captures of Forts Frontenac and Duquesne in November.

As 1758 ended, both Montcalm and Vaudreuil knew defeat was only a matter of time without massive reinforcement from France. Practically no men, food or weapons had made it through the blockade before the St. Lawrence River froze, and it would be at least April 1759 before the ice had melted enough to allow another attempt. Vaudreuil had sent his aide, Count Louis de Bougainville, to Paris to ask for reinforcements. Bougainville tried but could acquire only 300 men and three transports of supplies to take back with him in the spring. In fairness, at that time French armies were being defeated piecemeal in Europe, the West Indies and India, and it would have taken a major effort by the entire French navy to break the British naval blockade and reinforce New France.

So Vaudreuil began to withdraw what forces he had—at this time about 3,500 regulars and 1,500 Marines—to the area around Quebec, leaving garrisons at Fort Niagara, Fort Carillon, and Montreal. Theoretically, up to 10,000 militia could be mobilized to support the regulars, but with the poor harvests and low stockpiles of ammunition available, only a limited number could actually be called to the colors.

Abercromby was relieved of command at the end of 1758, thanks to his disaster at Ticonderoga, and was replaced by Amherst, the hero of Louisbourg. Amherst's plan was to end the war in 1759, and was straightforward. An amphibious force based in Halifax would place a British army on the north shore of the St. Lawrence River to take, or at least contain, Quebec. If all went well, it would be supported by another force moving up the Lake Champlain corridor to Montreal, capturing Fort Carillon and Fort St.-Frederic along the way. Meanwhile, French access to the Ohio valley would finally be cut off by taking Fort Niagara, using a rebuilt Fort Oswego as a base.

In comparison with the bloody battle at Carillon the previous year, the second battle at Ticonderoga was anti-climactic: the fort was blown up by a small rear guard as the British prepared to lay siege to it in July 1759. The French withdrew to the Ile aux Noix, but the cautious nature of Amherst's advance prevented him from reaching the St. Lawrence. The capture of Fort Niagara was a certainty. Both battles were conducted over the summer, leaving the British in position to march on Montreal the following spring.

1759—Plains of Abraham

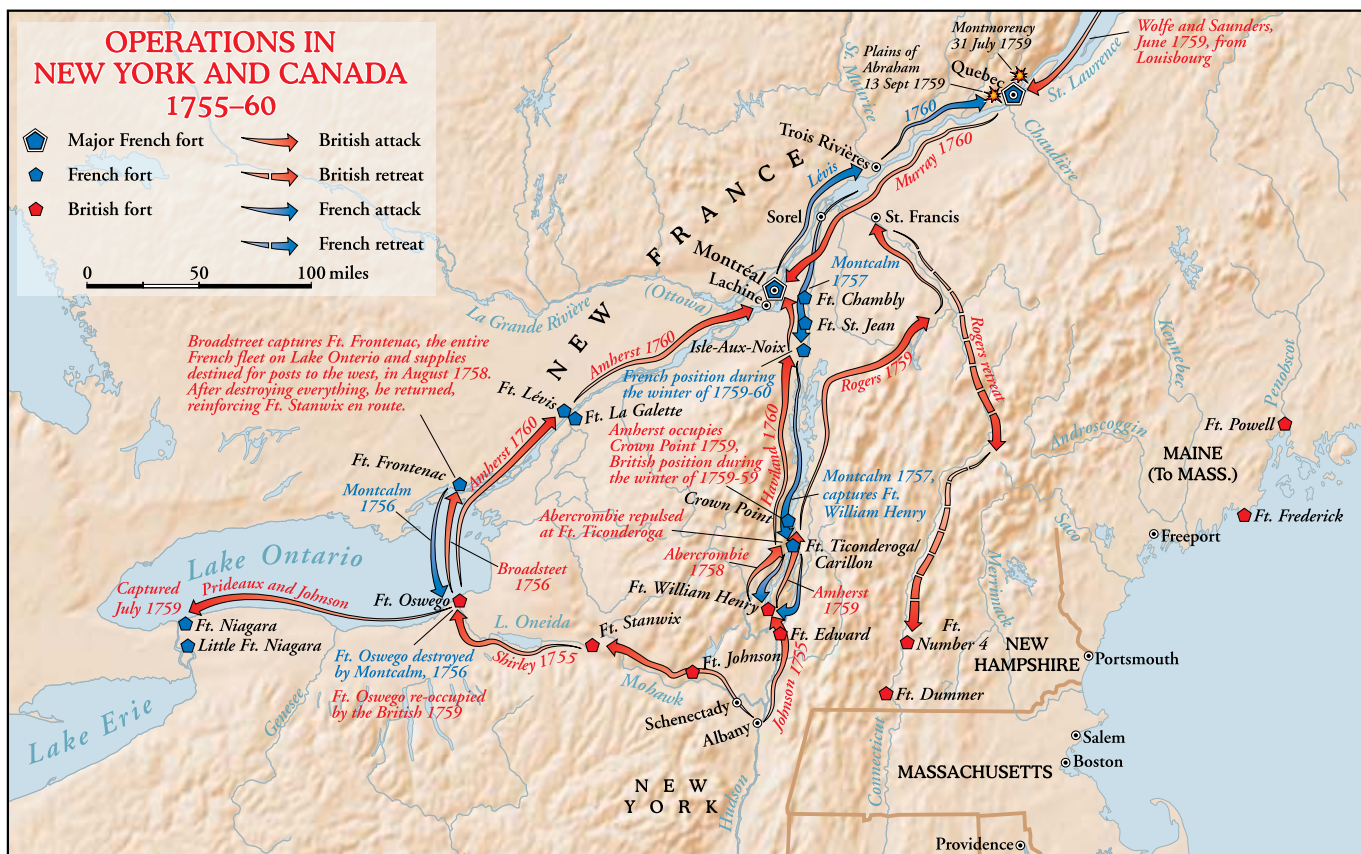
It remained only to seize Quebec, the citadel of French power in the colony. Gen. Wolfe, who had been one of Amherst's three brigadiers at Louisbourg, sailed from Halifax in June with 50 warships and 150 transports, carrying 8,500 regular troops. That was the largest war fleet ever yet assembled in North America and stretched for 50 miles at sea. On 26 June the British disembarked on the Ile d'Orleans near Quebec where the St. Lawrence River divides into northern and southern channels and set up a smaller camp at Montmorency on the north shore of the St. Lawrence well to the east of the city. By 12 July they had opened a bombardment of Quebec from the south shore. The French harassed the flanks of the British camps with militia and Indians but were powerless to defeat them. Wolfe responded by progressively stripping the country around Quebec of food and shelter, though he did make proclamations that civilians and churches were not to be harmed.

A British attempt to scale the heights near Beauport on 31 July with the collected grenadier companies and men of the 60th Regiment was repulsed with heavy losses. As August turned to September, Wolfe tried keeping an entire squadron maneuvering on the river, moving back and forth with the tide. This was partly a deception plan and partly a search to find an undefended spot close enough to Quebec to make a crossing. Meanwhile, the French, who could not cover all points of the north shore at once with their

regular troops, exhausted themselves marching and countermarching to match the British moves.

On 13 September, Wolfe found his opportunity and landed 4,500 men in the early hours of the morning at a weakly defended point named Anse au Foulon. (Coincidentally, the troops guarding that spot were commanded by Louis de Vergor, the same captain who had surrendered Fort Beausejour without a fight in 1755. Vergor had not been punished and had been able to resist Montcalm's attempts to remove him from command because he was a friend of Gov. Vaudreuil.) As the sun rose, Montcalm and most of the garrison sortied to engage the British on the Plains of Abraham, a piece of open country not far from the city walls. The ensuing battle saw both Montcalm and Wolfe dead of wounds. Confusion on the part of Brig. Townshend permitted the majority of the French army to withdraw to Montreal. Only about 600 French troops were left inside the city, and so Quebec surrendered on 18 September 1759.

The capture of Quebec appeared to be the effective end of the fight for New France, but the British hold on the French colony was tenuous. A brigade of 7,000 regulars under Gen. James Murray was left in the city, while the remaining British returned to Halifax or Britain. Murray knew his first priority was to restore order and that he could not afford to antagonize the civilian population. He adopted a lenient policy toward the defeated enemy. French regular troops were





On the prowl: Wolfe's army approaches Quebec.

shipped back across the ocean under parole in British ships, any Canadian militia were simply released after swearing an oath of allegiance to King George, and the authority of the Roman Catholic Church was not contested. Murray set about repairing both the city's houses and its fortifications, the latter against any French attempt to retake Quebec.

1760—End Game

The British and French armies spent a difficult winter along the St. Lawrence. Both sides were short of food and fuel, and disease and frostbite quickly reduced the number of effective troops. In late April 1760, the Duc de Levis (who had taken over as the colony's military commander after Montcalm's death) decided to try to retake Quebec. He left Montreal with about 7,000 regulars and militia. They were met by Murray with about 3,000 men, all he could mobilize from the garrison, on 28 April at Ste. Foy, about six miles outside Quebec. The resulting battle was bloodier than the clash in September. The French seemed to hold the field as Murray retired back inside the city walls to await reinforcement. The Duc de Levis had no siege equipment and his artillery was too light to

breach the fortifications. Both sides realized the first naval squadron to appear off Quebec would decide the siege.

On 9 May a British ship was sighted, and one week later the main British fleet arrived with reinforcements and supplies. Meanwhile a small French reinforcement squadron was blockaded by the Royal Navy in a small bay in northern New Brunswick. The Duc de Levis withdrew to Montreal to await the inevitable.

Amherst's plan to reduce Montreal was, again, based on a simple three-pronged advance. Murray was to go upriver from Quebec with 2,200 men. Gen. William Haldimand was to advance with 3,500 men up the Champlain-Richelieu River route, capture or contain the French fort at Ile aux Noix, and link up with Murray. And Amherst himself would descend on Montreal with 14,000 men via Oswego, landing on the western end of Montreal Island after clearing any forts encountered along the upper reaches of the St. Lawrence.

Those operations were so well coordinated all three forces met at Montreal on 5-6 September. The garrison of Montreal, only weakly fortified and reduced to



2,100 regulars and only a few hundred militia and Indians, could not offer resistance to what amounted to one of the largest armies ever yet assembled in North America. On 7 September, de Bougainville negotiated surrender terms with Amherst. French regulars were given the honors of war and left Montreal on 9 September, having burned their regimental colours the night before. New France had fallen.

End of the War

The articles of capitulation signed on 8 September maintained the lenient policy the British military government would exercise toward the people of New France, now renamed Canada. The regular soldiers were sent home to France on parole, and militiamen were left alone if they swore an oath of allegiance to the British crown. The rights of the inhabitants to use

BIOGRAPHIES

Louis Antoine, Comte de Bougainville, (1729-1811). The son of a notary, de Bougainville wrote the first volume of a treatise on integral calculus that gained him admission to the Royal Society of London. In 1755 he was a lieutenant in the *d'Apchon Dragoon Regiment* and transferred to Canada with the rank of captain where he became one of Montcalm's aides-de-camp. de Bougainville became one of Montcalm's most trusted friends as well as an able field commander. Montcalm sent him back to France at the end of 1758 to request reinforcements. When Bougainville pointed out to the Minister of Colonies that New France would not survive if no additional regiments were sent, the Minister responded, "When the house is on fire, we cannot bother with the stables." To this rebuff Bougainville replied, "At least Monsieur, no one will say that you talk like a horse." He also found time during his stay in France to arrange marriages for Montcalm's eldest son and daughter.

Bougainville was present at both the Plains of Abraham and the surrender of Montreal. He returned to France and became an explorer. He established a colony on the Falkland Islands in 1764, but had to surrender it to Spain in 1766. Accompanied by naturalists and astronomers, he made a voyage around the world (1767-69), visiting the south Pacific. Bougainville, the largest of the Solomon Islands, is named for him. He later became an admiral in the French Navy and fought Adm. Hood at Martinique.

George Washington. Washington was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on 22 February 1732. He inherited a sizable fortune on his father's death in 1752 and invested in the Ohio Company. That company's effort to acquire land in Ohio partly resulted in the French and Indian War. In 1754 the lieutenant governor of Virginia, Robert Dinwiddie, sent Washington to destroy Fort Duquesne. Washington failed, and a combined force of French soldiers and their Indian allies overwhelmed Fort Necessity on 3 July 1754, marking the start of the French and Indian War, as the Seven Years War became known in North America. Washington remained active on the battlefield, including being present at the defeat of a British army led by Edward Braddock in 1755.

After the war Washington returned to civilian life and became involved in politics, serving in the Virginia legislature from 1759 to 1774. In 1775, the Second Continental Congress met and Washington was appointed to lead the Continental Army against the British.



Gen. James Wolfe. Born in 1727, Wolfe's father was an army officer. At 13 years old he joined his father's regiment in time for the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748). Wolfe saw his first action at the Battle of Hettinger in 1743. In 1745, his regiment was called home to deal with the Jacobite Rebellion, and he was present at the Battles of Falkirk and Culloden (see *Strategy & Tactics* 212). Wolfe was ordered by the Duke of Cumberland to shoot "that Highland scoundrel who dares to look upon us with so insolent a stare," alluding to the colonel of the *Fraser Regiment*. Wolfe indignantly replied he would resign his commission, "but that he never would consent to become an executioner." It is further reported it was this incident that caused the *Fraser Regiment* to cling so affectionately to Wolfe when he came to America in 1758.

At 21 years of age, Wolfe returned home in glory with seven active campaigns under his belt. In 1757, the English launched an attack directly on the French coast at Rochefort. The landing was a failure, but Wolfe nonetheless distinguished himself. That brought him to the notice of Prime Minister William Pitt, who had determined the best gains in the war were to be made in America. In 1758, Wolfe was sent off to the New World. His enthusiasm and constant inspiration brought the English success at Louisbourg. At Quebec, on 13 September 1759, Wolfe secured his legend in the annals of British arms at the age of 32.

Gen. Joseph de Montcalm de Saint-Veran. Montcalm was a veteran of the Wars of the Polish Succession and the Austrian Succession. In 1756 he was sent to defend Canada in the French and Indian War. He was initially successful, capturing Fort Ontario at Oswego (1756) and Fort William Henry on Lake George (1757). In 1758 he concentrated a force of 3,800 men at Ticonderoga and successfully withstood an attack by a large British force under Gen. James Abercrombie. In 1759, Montcalm initially defended Quebec against Wolfe's siege until the British effected an open engagement on the Plains of Abraham. There both Wolfe and Montcalm were killed as the British swept to victory.



the French language, worship in the Catholic Church, be judged under their old code of civil law, and compete on equal terms in the marketplace and fur trade were not interfered with. The British even maintained the old French militia system under which every male from age 16 to 60 was liable for military service, simply giving the local militia officers commissions. That made for a quiet occupation, and Canada would stand firmly on the side of Britain during the American Revolution.

France, preoccupied with its waning fortunes on the battlefields of Europe, made no further attempt to retake its former colony, except for one opportunistic expedition against St. John's in Newfoundland, in the spring of 1762. A force of 700 regulars sent from France seized the lightly defended port, but were themselves captured by a British task force built around the 45th and 78th Regiments in September.

The Treaty of Paris, signed on 10 February 1763 after four months of peace talks, formally ended the Seven Years War. France ceded Canada to Britain (with the exception of two tiny islands off Newfoundland, St. Pierre and Miquelon, which belong to her to this day), in exchange for keeping the sugar island of Guadeloupe. France was no longer a power in North America. But the war has also affected the American colonists, as issues of taxation, regular troops versus militia, and colonial unity versus distant rule from London would spark another war in North America in 1775.

For more on the Seven Years War, the first global war, see Strategy & Tactics issue no. 221.



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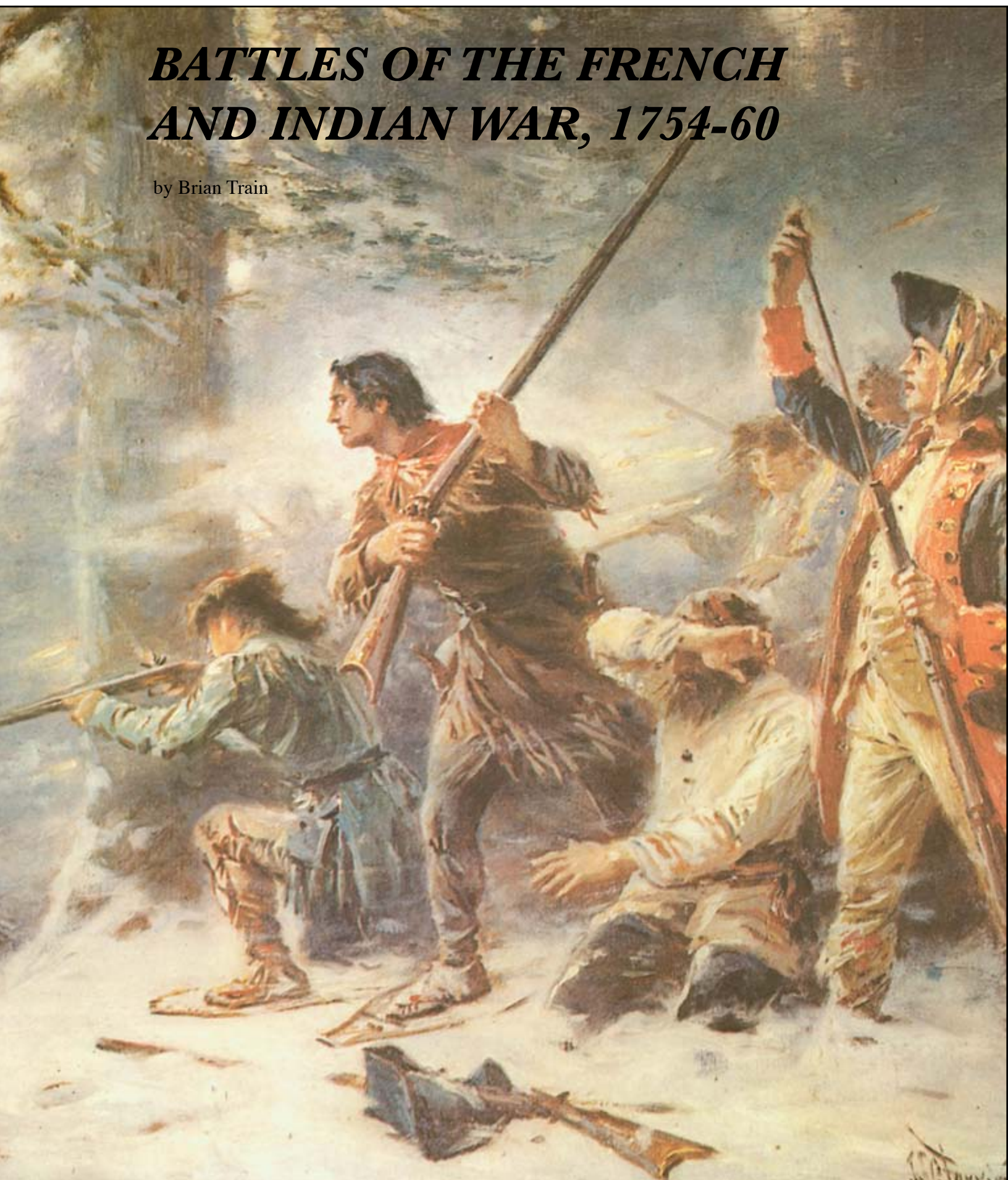
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BATTLES OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, 1754-60

by Brian Train



FORT DUQUESNE, FORT NECESSITY

(April-May 1754)

British

Regular troops: none.

Militia and provincials: six companies Virginia militia (c. 300 men), reinforced by two companies of South Carolina militia (c. 100 men).

Indian Auxiliaries: none.

French

Regular troops/militia and provincials: mixed force of 600 Marines and militia.

Indian Auxiliaries: about 100 Iroquois.

The British sent a force of provincial militia into the Ohio valley in late March 1754 to contest the French presence there, building roads and forts. On 17 April some Virginian troops were building a fort where the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers join to become the Ohio River. They were driven off by a much larger force of French Marines and militia. The French finished building the fort and named it Fort Duquesne, after the governor of New France. When informed of that, a small force of Virginians under George Washington began building Fort Necessity (essentially an entrenchment and a wooden palisade surrounding a small storehouse) about 30 miles away while awaiting reinforcement. On 27 May, Washington led a surprise attack against a French contingent approaching the fort, killing or capturing most of them.

About a month later, a force of 600 French troops and 100 Indians marched to attack Fort Necessity. On 3 July they encountered Washington's small army and, after a day of exchanging desultory musket fire in the rain, negotiated the surrender of the fort. Washington knew he would not receive any reinforcement besides the South Carolinians who had already joined him. He had lost 30 killed and 70 wounded, about a third of his men, and many of his militia had either deserted or gotten into the rum. His troops received the honors of war and were to be returned to Virginia with their baggage and weapons. As they began to leave the fort, they were attacked by Indian warriors who had accompanied the French. The Americans panicked and fled into the forest, where several more were taken prisoner.

It was a small engagement, but it constituted the first shots of the French and Indian War. The North American situation assumed greater urgency in both London and Paris.

FORT ST. FREDERIC (LAKE GEORGE)

(8 September, 1755)

British

Regular troops: 50th, 51st Regiments.

Militia and provincials: about 1,000 New York militia.

Indian auxiliaries: about 200, mostly Mohawk and Oneida.

French

Regular troops: *Languedoc, La Reine Regiments*.

Militia: 550 Canadian militia garrisoning Fort St. Frederic, 1,400 Canadian militia from Montreal and Quebec.

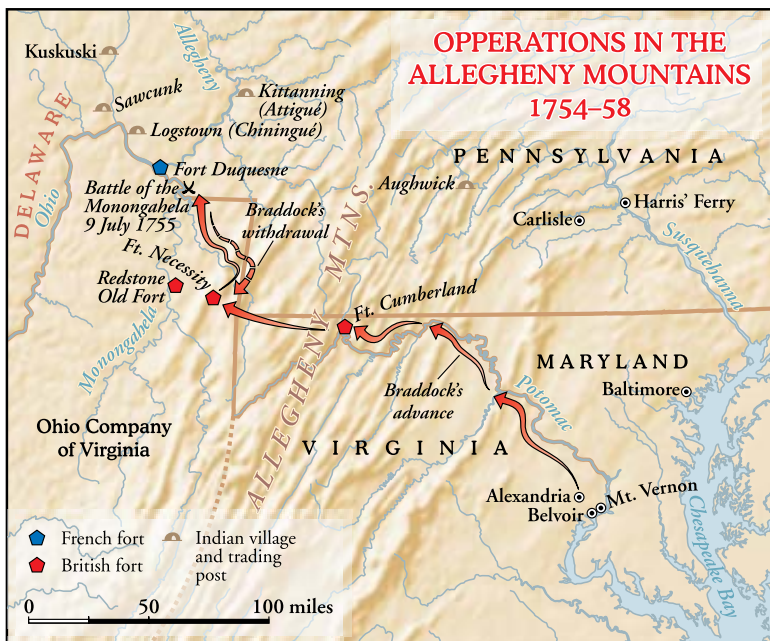
Indian auxiliaries: about 600 Abenaki, Caughnawaga and Iroquois.

In late August, British forces under William Johnson concentrated at Fort Edward in order to attack Fort St. Frederic and continue up the Lake Champlain-Richelieu River corridor to threaten Montreal. The new Governor of New France, the Marquis de Vaudreuil, knew of the British plans because Braddock's order book and campaign plans had been captured at the Monongahela. So de Vaudreuil directed Baron Dieskau, who had been preparing to attack Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario, to reinforce the Lake Champlain front.

Dieskau arrived at the end of August and set about preparing to assault Fort Edward. On 8 September he engaged a column of British provincial militia and Indians. The French regulars formed across the road on which the militia were marching north, while the Canadian militia and Indian allies deployed in the woods on either flank. The British column walked directly into the ambush, but Dieskau managed to catch only part of it as his Iroquois attempted to convince the Mohawks they saw traveling in the British vanguard to stand aside, since they were only at war with the British and not the Mohawk nation.

The entire British force broke and fled back down the road to Johnson's camp. Dieskau pursued and soon discovered Johnson had managed to fortify his position with improvised earthworks. Dieskau had no artillery with him, but thought his speed and numbers could carry the day. With his Canadian militia and Indians firing from the trees, he sent his regular troops in a column in order to storm the breastworks. (The Iroquois, sensibly, were appalled at Dieskau's suggestion to join an assault across open ground against an entrenched foe.) Johnson had several light guns that he used to good effect and, after several attacks, the French regulars withdrew back into the woods. Dieskau was badly wounded and a general retreat, prompted by a British counterattack, left him abandoned on the field. He was taken prisoner and went to New York to convalesce. He later went to England and from there was paroled back to France, where he died in 1767.

The battle for Fort St. Frederic, also known as the Battle of Lake George, was inconclusive in that no territory or forts changed hands, yet it forestalled any further British advance up the Lake Champlain corridor.



MONONGAHELA

(9 July 1755)

British (1,500 total)

Regular troops: 44th and 48th Regiments of Foot (about 500 men each); 30 sailors and 60 gunners with the artillery (six x 12 pounders, 6 x 6 pounders, 4 x howitzers, 30 x small mortars).

Militia and provincials: 10 companies of provincials from Maryland (one), New York (two), North Carolina (one), South Carolina (one), Virginia (five); two companies of Virginia "carpenters" (construction troops; each company about 50 men); one troop of Virginia Light Horse (28 mounted troopers).

Indian auxiliaries: 10-16 Iroquois.

French

Regular troops: about 100 Marines.

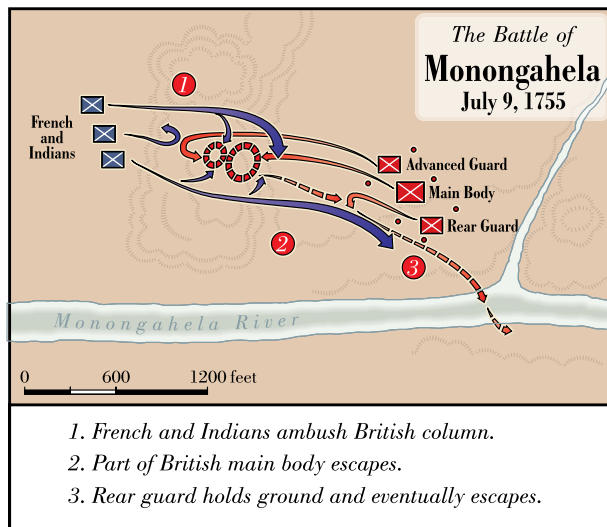
Militia: c. 150 militia.

Indian auxiliaries: 300-600 from the Ottawa, Huron, Miami, Shawnee, Delaware and Iroquois nations.

Gen. Edward Braddock moved his not inconsiderable force (for a frontier army at the time) into the Ohio valley in early June, after spending April and May training and recruiting for the 44th and 48th Regiments. His progress was slow, for his men were building a wide road with bridges as they advanced. Along one stretch it took 18 hours to push forward only three miles. Braddock did not draw near Fort Duquesne until 9 July. Because he had encountered no significant resistance so far in his march, he assumed the fort was abandoned. So he set off on the final approach without setting up pickets or flank guards.

Braddock's vanguard, three companies under Lt. Col. Gage, walked into an ambush. About 30 French Marines and 300 Indians opened fire from three sides. The poorly disciplined and half-trained British and provincial soldiers bunched up in the narrow road and, as the main body came up, the scene was one of confusion. Ragged volleys of musketry created huge clouds of powder smoke that prevented any rally, while the French-allied Indians on either flank of the column simply fired at random into the struggling mass of soldiery. Both Gage and Braddock were wounded. Their troops broke and ran back beyond the Monongahela River.








Over 450 British and provincial troops had been killed, with almost as many wounded. It was later discovered many of the casualties had been caused by friendly fire (British muskets used larger balls than those of the French). French casualties are not known, but were probably less than 30 killed and wounded. Braddock later died of wounds, and his shattered army withdrew to Philadelphia. With few organized militia companies to stop them, the Indians began to raid farms in settlements in Virginia, Maryland and Pennsylvania at will over the next two years. Despite their victory, however, the French did not have enough troops to press their advantage. The Ohio valley became a secondary theatre until a British expedition forced Fort Duquesne's evacuation and destruction in November 1758.

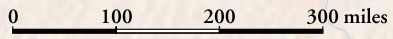


French and British Forts

-  Major French fort
-  French fort
-  British fort
-  Fort abandoned by French
-  Fort abandoned by British
-  French fort captured by British, with date
-  British fort captured by French, with date

Economics

-  Fishing
 -  Timber
 -  Shipbuilding
 -  Ironworks
 -  Major ports
 -  Tobacco
 -  Indigo and Rice
- Nb. Trapping, a major trade source occurred in much of the hinterland west of the Appalachians



OSWEGO

(11-13 August 1756)

British (total c. 1,250)

Regular troops: *50th Regiment* (about 540 men), *51st Regiment* (440 men), 100 sailors and about 20 professional gunners to man 120 guns of various sizes.

Militia and provincials: 140 provincials from the *New Jersey Regiment*.

Indian auxiliaries: none.

French (total ca. 1,650)

Regular troops: *Regiments Bearn* (410 men), *Guyenne* (470), *La Sarre* (440); artillery train of about 140 gunners and 80 cannons and mortars.

Militia: 1,300 militia mixed with Marine officers.

Indian auxiliaries: about 260 Iroquois, Abenaki, Nipissing and Algonquin.

Montcalm left Montreal on 21 July and arrived in the vicinity of Oswego in early August. His approach had not been detected by the British because of the French use of night marches and careful concealment of their fleet of 200 bateaux carrying the artillery and supplies. The mouth of the Oswego River was guarded by three small forts: Fort Ontario, a wooden blockhouse on the east side of the river, and Forts George and Oswego on the west side. The British garrison was on half rations and many were on the sick list due to scurvy and dysentery. There were also over 300 non-combatants (women, children, servants and civilian contractors) in the fort complex.

On 11 August, Montcalm deployed his artillery (many pieces had been captured from the British at Monongahela the year before) to bring Fort Ontario under fire and ordered his men to dig approach trenches for the infantry, just as was normally done in European sieges. The British soon withdrew to Fort Oswego. It had masonry walls, but was dominated by Fort Ontario. (Fort George was not yet finished and so went unoccupied.) Montcalm's troops were soon dropping shells directly into the fort, and on 13 August the fort's commander, Lt. Col. Mercer, was decapitated by a cannon ball. The garrison capitulated the next day, after Montcalm promised lenient treatment. Fewer than 50 of the defenders had been killed by incoming fire, but almost as many again were killed by Indians who rushed into the fort when the gates were opened. An unknown number of women and children were also taken prisoner. The rest were taken to Fort Frontenac and then sent to Montreal. The forts were destroyed, as were the boats built by the British to contest French naval presence on the lake.

FORT WILLIAM HENRY

(3-9 August, 1757)

British

Regular troops: *35th Regiment* (ca. 600 men); about 30 gunners and engineers with 17 cannon and several mortars.

Militia and provincials: two companies of *Roger's Rangers* (c. 200 men); c. 1,600 provincial militia from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey and New York.

Indian auxiliaries: none

Note: only about 450 men were in the fort itself, which was small; the remainder were in a fortified camp on a hilltop nearby.

French

Regular troops: *Regiments Bearn, Guyenne, Languedoc, La Reine, La Sarre, and Royal Rousillon* (about 2,570 total); about 525 Marines, organized into one provisional battalion; 190 gunners and engineers with 30 heavy cannon and 15 mortars.

Militia: about 3,000 Canadian militia, organized into three provisional brigades.

Indian auxiliaries: c. 1,400.

Gov. Vaudreuil made two attempts to take Fort William Henry in 1757. In February he sent his brother, Rigaud de Vaudreuil, at the head of 1,600 men (300 regulars, 900 militia officered by Marines, and about 400 Indians) on a winter march to take the fort by surprise. At the time the fort was garrisoned by about 400 British, many laid low by cold and disease. The French traveled lightly and quickly and arrived undetected on 18 March. They had no artillery and only a few scaling ladders, so they could not breach the walls. They contented themselves with burning the boats left outside the fort, thereby denying the British a naval presence on Lake George that summer.

Montcalm tried again in the summer with a much larger force (described above). Arriving at the fort on 3 August, he opened a siege using standard European tactics of bombardment while digging approach trenches. After five days of bombardment, his aide de Bougainville held a parley with Lt. Col. Monro where he showed him an intercepted message from Gen. James Webb, who was at Fort Edward only 15 miles away. Webb's message stated he could not send Monro any help and advised him to seek the best surrender terms possible.

Fort William Henry capitulated the next morning, with the garrison granted the honors of war and allowed to march to Fort Edward under French escort, with the officers and men on parole not to fight against the French for the next 18 months. Montcalm, who did not want a repetition of what had happened the year before at Oswego, extracted a promise from the Indian leaders that the prisoners would not be harmed. The chiefs, however, lost control of their warriors as they raced into the fort to loot. By the next morning

many of the British sick and wounded had been killed in the hospital tents and, as the prisoners moved off for Fort Edward, they were attacked by the Indians. About 100 prisoners in all were killed, and another 300 taken away (they were eventually returned to Halifax via Montreal and Quebec). Montcalm and his officers personally intervened to save lives and ransom as many prisoners as they could, but the Canadian militiamen did nothing to stop it.

Montcalm was not able to exploit his victory because most of the Indians had left for their villages, and he knew Fort Edward had been heavily reinforced. He destroyed the fort and retired with the captured supplies and cannon to Fort Carillon. One outcome of the battle was the birth of the legend of the Fort William Henry Massacre.

LOUISBOURG

(June-July 1758)

British (about 12,000 total)

Regular troops: 2/1st, 15th, 17th, 22nd, 28th, 35th, 40th, 45th, 47th, 48th, 58th, 2/60th, 3/60th, 62nd (only four companies), 78th Regiments; 324 artillerymen; about 120 engineers and carpenters.

Militia and provincials: two companies of *Rogers Rangers* (about 200 men).

Indian auxiliaries: none.

French (5-6000 total)

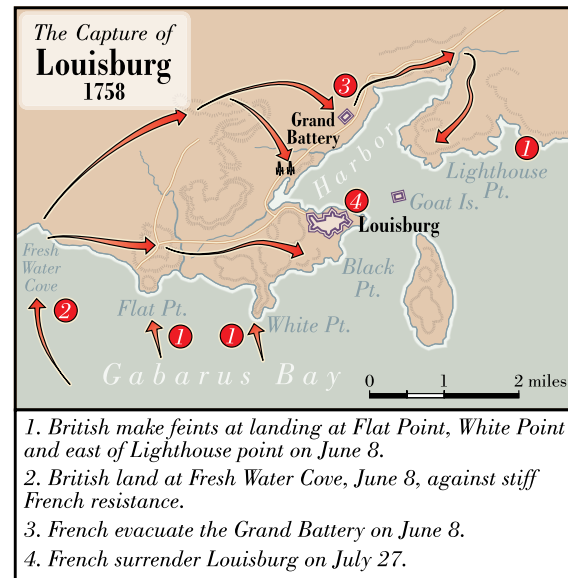
Regular troops: (c. 3,500) *Regiments Artois, Bourgogne, Cambis and Volontaires Etrangers*; 24 Marine companies; 120 artillerymen to supervise about 250 guns (gun crews drawn from the infantry).

Militia: about 400 militia; 2,500 sailors from the ships of the fleet trapped in the harbour, but not all could be armed.

Indian auxiliaries: none in the fortress.

Construction of the Fortress of Louisbourg began in 1719. It sat at the end of a largely landlocked bay, with adequate and ice-free shelter for a large fleet but only a restricted opening to the sea. After its capture by a British and American force in 1745, Louisbourg was restored to the French in 1748 by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which ended King George's War.

Gen. Amherst left Halifax (which had itself been built in 1749 in response to the treaty) in early June with a fleet that included over 120 transports and auxiliary ships, 23 men-of-war, and 16 smaller warships to carry his troops. They landed on 8 June while the fleet kept ten French warships bottled up in the harbor. The British quickly set up camp to the south of the fortress and commenced standard siege operations, isolating Louisbourg from overland communications, setting up batteries and digging approach trenches. The first British battery opened fire on the fortress on 19 June, though it would take until 25 July to silence the last



French guns and open a breach in the walls. The day after that the French surrendered. The garrison troops, sailors and most of the French non-combatant population, were transported back to France.

About 175 British troops were killed and 350 wounded in the 48 day siege; French casualties were about 100 and 250 respectively. After the fall of the fortress, Amherst left several regiments behind to begin demolishing it, in case it might again be returned to France at the end of the war. That proved no easy task, and it took until 1760 to reduce the fortress to ruins.

FORT CARILLON

(8 July 1758)

British (about 15,000)

Regular troops: (about 6,300) 27th, 42nd, 44th, 46th, 55th, 1/60th, 4/60th, 80th (Light) Regiments, 4th and 17th Companies; Royal Artillery.

Militia and provincials: (about 9,000) provincial regiments from Connecticut (four total), Massachusetts (seven), New Hampshire (one), New Jersey (one), New York (one) and Rhode Island (one); four companies *Roger's Rangers* (about 400 men).

Indian auxiliaries: about 500 Mohawks.

French (about 3,500)

Regular troops: (about 3,000) *Regiments Bearn, 2/Berry, 3/Berry, Guyenne, Languedoc, La Reine, La Sarre, Royal Rousillon*; 150 Marines; at least 36 guns in Fort Carillon: 12 x 18 pounder, 15 x 12 pounder, nine x 8 pounder.

Militia: about 250.

Indian auxiliaries: fewer than 25, though 300 Iroquois, Abenaki, Huron and Ottawa arrived a few days after the battle (followed by a further 200 Iroquois and Algonquin) and harassed the British in their retreat.

On 6 July 1758, the British landed at the northern end of Lake George and began a reconnaissance of the French positions. Brig. Howe, Abercromby's able field commander, was killed in a skirmish and command fell into the hands of the mediocre general himself.

Because Carillon was much too small to hold the entire defending French force, and because it could be approached from only one side, Montcalm had directed the construction of an abatis of cut-down trees about 300 yards in front of the walls, and placed most of his regulars behind it. Abercromby tried to take the abatis by infantry assault on the morning of 8 July, without waiting for his artillery to catch up because he had heard from prisoners the Duc de Levis was approaching with another 3,000 men. For several hours Abercromby sent his regulars in frontal assaults against the French fortification, while the provincials and Indians secured the rear and flanks. Though they several times came near to breaching the wall of trees and brush, the British finally retired in the afternoon after taking heavy losses. It was a battle of regular forces— few provincial and Canadian militia were killed or wounded. Over 450 British regulars were killed and another 1,100 wounded, against 100 and 275 French regulars.

Abercromby withdrew to the southern end of Lake George and did not attempt any further operations on that front. His sub-commanders, Cols. Bradstreet and Forbes, took detachments and captured Fort Niagara in late August and Fort Duquesne in late November. Technically, Fort Duquesne was blown up by its defenders the night before it would have been attacked, but Forbes built a new fort on the same ground, naming it Fort Pitt (modern-day Pittsburgh).

PLAINS OF ABRAHAM

(13 September 1759)

British (c. 4,500)

Regular troops: (c. 4,000) *15th, 28th, 35th, 43rd, 47th, 48th, 58th, 2/60th, 3/60th, 78th Regiments*; also the *Louisbourg Grenadiers* (a composite unit made up of the grenadier companies from the *22nd, 40th and 45th Regiments*, who had been left at Louisbourg); one light cannon.

Militia & Provincials: (about 500 men) six companies *Rogers' Rangers*.

Indian auxiliaries: none.

French (c. 4,500)

Regular troops (c. 1,500): *Regiments Bearn, Guyenne, Languedoc, La Sarre, Royal Rousillon* (all battalions were significantly understrength and had had their grenadier companies detached – their ranks were filled out by drafts of about 110 militia each); three light cannon.

Militia: c. 2,500 (550 filling out the ranks of the regular battalions).

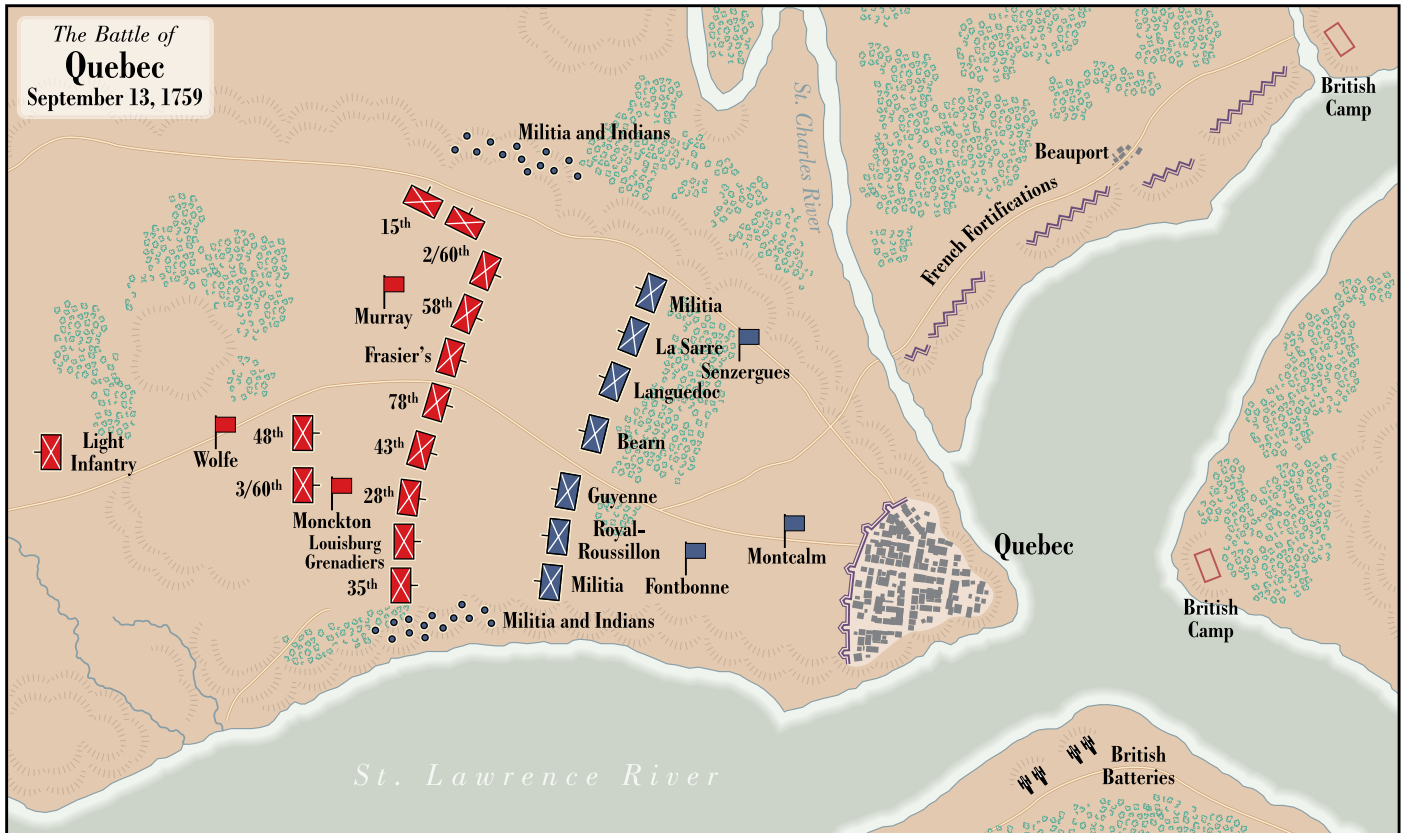
Indian auxiliaries: c. 500, mainly Abenaki and Huron.

Note: Bougainville had been deployed to the west of the plains with a force of about 1,500 men: the grenadier companies from the regular regiments (about 250), 150 Acadian volunteers, 4-500 militia, 200 militia cavalry, and 2-300 Ottawa and Huron. Those troops have not been included in the totals above.

Wolfe's troops climbed the cliffs at Anse au Foulon at about 4:00 in the morning, and by 8:00, 4,500 men and several light cannon were deployed at the edge of the Plains of Abraham. Montcalm was at his field headquarters in Beauport to the east of Quebec, and he did not move to investigate until almost 7:00. Between 9:00 and 10:00 he had deployed about 4,500 men, leaving about 1,500 to defend the city and the



Contemporary map of the storming of Quebec.



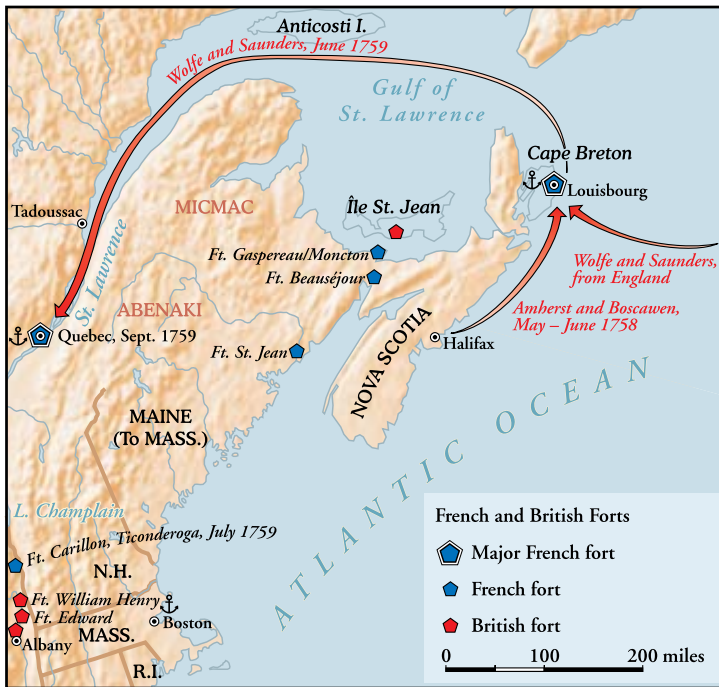
area to the east. The regular regiments, less their grenadier companies, had their ranks filled with militia and were in the center of the line, with Indians and more militia in the woods to the left and right.

Montcalm knew this was the British main effort. He also knew, given time and space, he could both outnumber and outflank the British by waiting for Bougainville to come from the west, and for further reinforcement from Beauport. He did not know Gov. Vaudreuil had already issued orders freezing the eastern troops in place. He did not want the British to consolidate and entrench themselves in front of Quebec, however, so about 10:00 he gave the order to advance.

The French marched forward in one great disciplined line of muskets. But Montcalm's militia fired singly and in small groups at a great distance and flung themselves down on the ground to reload, as per standard skirmishing tactics. Alas, that was not what was needed in what amounted to a European-style open field battle on the plains. It did disrupt their ranks and force the French to struggle to maintain their momentum while the British waited patiently. At a dis-

tance of about 35 paces, the British opened fire with double-shotted muskets, shredding the French ranks. After the second volley, Montcalm's army became a disorganized mob streaming back to Quebec. Their retreat was covered by the Indians and militia on the flanks, who remained inside the tree-line and opened a harassing fire on the advancing British. Both Wolfe and Montcalm were fatally wounded in the fighting, and in the confusion the British could not complete the pursuit and destruction of the French, nor could the French rally. In 20 minutes the fate of New France had been sealed.

Bougainville arrived at the western edge of the plains after the battle was over. He did not attack but instead held his position, and soon found himself covering the withdrawal of Gov. Vaudreuil and what remained of the French army. As the French headed west to Montreal, the city of Quebec prepared to open negotiations for surrender. The British lost 50 dead and 550 wounded, the French 100 dead and 600 wounded: relatively small losses for a battle that decided the fate of a continent.



SAINTE FOY

(28 April 1760)

British (c. 3,000)

Regular troops: 15th, 28th, 35th, 43rd, 47th, 48th, 58th, 2/60th, 3/60th, 78th Regiments (all significantly understrength); 20 light cannon and two howitzers.

Militia and provincials: none.

Indian auxiliaries: none.

French (c. 7,000)

Regular troops: (about 4,000) Regiments Bearn, 2/Berry, 3/Berry, Guyenne, La Reine, La Sarre, Royal Rousillon, about 700 Marines organized into two battalions; 12 light cannon.

Militia: about 3,000 Montreal militia, most of them mixed into the regular and Marine battalions to fill their ranks, with one all-militia battalion.

Indian auxiliaries: a small number of Huron, who did not participate in the battle.

The Duc de Levis and his small army traveled downstream from Montreal in bateaux and disembarked at Pointe-aux-Trembles, about three days' march from Quebec. On the morning of 28 April, his advance guard reached Ste-Foy, only six miles from the city walls, and encountered a small British force under Gen. Murray. As the French tried to deploy from their line of march as quickly as possible, Murray ordered an attack on the French left, hoping to turn them. That attack was itself bogged down in the mud and snow that still lay thickly on the battlefield. The French in turn attempted to outflank the British. After two hours of confused back and forth fighting, the British right became disorganized and Murray ordered a fighting withdrawal to Quebec, where he waited for relief by sea.

Ste-Foy was bloodier than the first battle of the Plains of Abraham. In 1760 the British had over 250 dead and 800 wounded, the French about 200 killed and 650 wounded.

While technically a French victory, de Levis could not follow up after Ste-Foy and retake Quebec, owing to a lack of siege equipment. And time in North America was on the side of the British.

S&T



He saw the victory: death of Wolfe at Quebec.



For Your Information

Did You Know

- Early in 2002 there were some 100 UAVs (unmanned aerial vehicles) deployed among US military units around the globe. Today there are more than 1,200 of those drone aircraft deployed.
- Army UAV “pilots” (specialty code 96U) train for 11 months at Fort Huachuca in southern Arizona. In their off hours in the barracks they’re encouraged to play Xbox and Playstation2 video games.
- At the time of this writing (mid-2005), the US Air Force fields three squadrons of UCAVs (unmanned combat aerial vehicles). That number of attack-drone squadrons is being increased to 15. There are 12 UCAVs in each such unit.
- The national anthem of the Peoples’ Republic of China is entitled “March of the Volunteers,” and its opening lines are: “From everyone’s oppression shall come our final roar! Arise! Arise! Arise! We are many, but our hearts beat as one! Selflessly braving the enemy’s gunfire, march on!”
- During his long career, legendary Royal Navy Adm. Horatio Nelson evolved three general principles for use when fighting French vessels. As he summarized them in letters to various of his friends, they were, in no particular order: 1) “Lay a Frenchman [enemy warship] close and you will always beat him”; 2) “You can always beat a Frenchman if you fight him long enough”; and 3) “When in doubt, to fight [a Frenchman] is always to err on the right side.”
- Though the mid-19th century Prussian army, then under command of von Moltke the elder, is usually given credit for devising “mission-oriented tactics” – whereby subordinate commanders are told what to try to

accomplish on the battlefield but not specifically how to accomplish it – the British Royal Navy should really be given the credit. In 1793, in recognition that coherent and timely signaling among ships was impossible once large fleet engagements had begun, Adm. Lord Richard Howe – known as “Black Dick” among the sailors because of his somber countenance, and Britain’s greatest naval hero prior to the rise of Nelson – added the following rider to the navy’s general battle instructions: “The different captains and commanders not being able to effect the specific intention [of the admiral in command of their fleet] are at liberty to act as circumstances require.”

- As the US military, along with the armed forces of several other major powers on the planet, are beginning to gear up for what’s increasingly being viewed as the imminent and unavoidable weaponization of outer space, new terms are entering into defense analysts’ lexicons. *Dazzling* is any temporary interference with a satellite’s optical capabilities (as opposed to permanent damage), while *jamming* is the general term used to describe any kind of electronic disabling attack against satellites. *Spoofing* takes place when a scrambled target position code is inserted into the data being gathered by an enemy satellite.
- The preference among the new generation of war-in-space strategists is to find as many tactics and weapons as possible

We need writers for this FYI column. If you can write tight, pithy articles of no more than 2,000 words on interesting, obscure, or otherwise little known aspects of military history, contact the FYI editor, Ty Bomba by emailing him at: <WhiteRook02@netzero.net>

that will allow for the disabling – rather than destruction – of enemy space weapons. The trouble with the full-destruction approach is it generally leaves a debris field in orbit that in turn may become a hazard for the attacking side’s orbiting satellites and weapons.

- A favorite potential new space-to-ground attack weapon among US war-in-space experts is being referred to by its nickname: “Rods From God.” The rods are just that, metal rods (exact composition classified), each no more than a few inches long and weighing no more than seven pounds, which could be sent hurtling from a satellite in orbit toward practically any target on or below the surface of the Earth. Descending from such a great height, the rods will strike at a velocity so high as to virtually guarantee the annihilation of any target.
- Gen. Max Hoffmann, the German staff officer and strategist generally credited with having been the architect of that nation’s World War I victory over Russia, was against the all-out offensive approach taken in the west by his superiors, Field Marshals Hindenburg and Ludendorff, in 1918. One alternative he suggested was to remain on the defensive against the Anglo-Allies while using all available German forces to complete the short advance necessary to take St. Petersburg. Once there, Hoffmann would’ve set up a client Russian government that would then have been used to raise a new pro-German Russian army. That force would have overthrown the Bolsheviks and reestablished general order in the east, all with German guidance and support. Soon thereafter, the new Russian government would have become the official ally of Berlin, thereby releasing its new army, and all of that nation’s vast natural resources, to actively support the German war effort against

From the Dustbin of History

“The art of war has no traffic with rules, for the infinitely varied circumstances and conditions of combat never produce exactly the same situation twice.”

—US Gen. George Marshall, 1939

the Western allies.

The Broken Hill Picnic Train Massacre

The only act of warfare to take place on Australian soil during World War I occurred on New Year’s Day 1915, just outside the town of Broken Hill in far western New South Wales. Broken Hill was then a town of about 30,000 people dependent on the mining of lead, zinc and silver. The town was connected by railroad with Adelaide, but not yet to Sydney. Since it was on the fringe of the Outback, the transport of goods between the town and its outlying stations relied on camel trains operated by “Afghan” cameleers who originated in the northwest frontier of British India. Mainly Muslim, the Afghans suffered from some discrimination and lived in two camps on the northwest and northeast edges of town.

Soon after the outbreak of war, the town began to suffer economically due to the loss of its markets in Belgium and Germany. By late 1914, following reports of German atrocities in Belgium, the employment of men of German and Austrian origin in the mines became an increasingly emotional issue, fanned by the summer heat.

For two of the Afghans in the northeast camp, the entry of Turkey into the war in late 1914, followed soon thereafter by the Allied invasion of Mesopotamia, caused them to question their loyalty to their land of residence. One of them, Gool Mahomed, who owned a horse-drawn ice cream cart, had served in the Turkish army, and felt obliged to die defending his faith in the new war. The other, the more elderly Mullah Abdullah, felt more personally persecuted. He acted as the *halal* butcher for some of

the Afghans, and had been prosecuted and fined by the local magistrate for slaughtering on unlicensed premises. His anger was directed particularly at the police inspector. The two fell in together and planned to ambush the New Year’s Day picnic train being organised by the Manchester Unity Friendly Society.

On the morning of 1 January 1915, they drove Mahomed’s cart west out of town, paralleling the rail line that headed toward South Australia via Silverton. At 10:00 a.m. the picnic train left Broken Hill station, bound for a park at Silverton, 13 miles away. The train was carrying about 1,200 passengers in 40 open goods wagons that had been fitted with bench seats. More passengers joined at Railwaytown station west of Broken Hill. The train then approached the western edge of town, passing a cemetery on its left.

On the right side of the train several passengers spotted the ice cream cart, suddenly flying a Turkish flag, and the two Afghans in a ditch nearby with rifles. Loud reverberations were then heard, which in view of the flag on the cart, some assumed to be the Afghans detonating explosives. Others said it appeared the duo were shooting at rabbits. The frivolity of all the passengers was dispelled when some rifle bullets began to take their toll. Despite the two snipers being so close to their slow moving target, however, casualties were light. Only two people were killed on the train, and six others wounded. A third fatality was the water pipeline inspector, who’d been riding his bicycle next to the pipeline and who had the misfortune to come between the Afghans and the train.

The train stopped and two men jumped off to run to the cemetery

caretaker’s cottage to raise the alarm. The train then moved forward again to get out of range, eventually pulling into a siding a mile down the line where a telephone call was made back to the railroad company offices. After digesting the news, the railroad staff and police began to organize for the defense of Broken Hill. Shooting clubs distributed their weapons, and soon thereafter the police, local militia and armed townsfolk began to move on foot and in cars toward the scene of the attack.

The train having disappeared from view, the Afghans retreated slowly on foot, heading east along the northern outskirts of town, past the western camel camp, firing at, but missing, several other people along the way. Halfway back to the northeast camp, they ran into a car full of police at a small rocky hillock known as White Rocks, which overlooked the Cable Hotel. A fierce gunfight ensued with the Afghans under good cover among the boulders on the summit, while the local forces, though steadily growing in number, dared not risk storming the bare hillock. A policeman was wounded, becoming the seventh non-fatal casualty of the day. The fourth and final fatality was not part of the battle, but an elderly man chopping wood in his backyard, who, oblivious to the nearby shooting, ignored the pleas from his family to come inside, and who was then picked off by the Afghans.

Eventually the defenders’ fire fell off and the townsfolk were able to rush their position. They found Abdullah already dead, but Gool Mahomed was still alive despite 16 wounds. He was taken to a hospital but died soon after.

With both Afghans dead, but emotions still running high, rumors

quickly spread suggesting the local German populace had instigated the ambush. That evening a mob of several thousand stormed the local German Club, burning it to the ground. When the fire brigade arrived, some even attempted to slash the fire engines' hoses. The mob then tried to march on the nearest camel camp, but they were finally persuaded to disperse by a firm stand by the police and military. The rest of the cameleers were quick to affirm their loyalty to the British Empire and dissociate themselves from the actions of Mahomed and Abdullah.

Three days later a souvenir hunter discovered three blood stained documents hidden under a stone at White Rocks. Two were alleged "confessions" from each of the Afghans, explaining their actions; the third was Gool Mahomed's enlistment papers for the Turkish army.

As a result of the attack, the state and Australian federal government stepped up their internship of enemy aliens. While the attack prompted national sympathy, and while it was determined at the subsequent inquest the ambush would not have occurred if Australia had not been at war with Turkey, the affair actually had little effect on the home front. It was soon seen as just another colorful episode in the history of a rough Outback town. At least one Turkish newspaper, eager to provide good news in a year during which Allied troops invaded the Ottoman Empire at Gallipoli, trumpeted the attack in propagandistic style, multiplying Australian casualties tenfold as 40 dead and 70 wounded, for the loss of only two Turks. The attack was claimed as a major victory for Turkish troops over a train transporting soldiers to the front, and it had opened the way for a march on Canberra, "the heavily fortified capital of Australia."

—*Brendan Whyte*

Operation REINDEER South African Airborne Assault, 4 May 1978

Operation REINDEER marked a departure in the South Africans' anti-SWAPO (Southwest Africa People's Organization) counterinsurgency war in Namibia, as it was their first long-range cross-border raid. Previously, South African Defense Forces (SADF) had only engaged in short-range hot pursuits using platoon-sized forces, but REINDEER was a large-scale airborne attack 155 miles into Angola. The operation was also coordinated with two ancillary strikes closer to the Southwest African (Namibian) border. The first was carried out by a battalion-sized mechanized column striking the SWAPO base complex at Chetequera, 15 miles north of the border, riding in newly deployed Ratel armored fighting vehicles. The second was a heliborne sweep through some small base camps 12 miles to the east.

The old Portuguese mining town of Cassinga had been transformed into SWAPO's fortified main operational headquarters in southern Angola. Extensive trenches protected the headquarters and barracks there, which housed over 1,000 guerillas and their vehicle park. Also complicating matters for the paratroopers was the Cuban-manned Angolan Army armored force based at Tetchamutete, 10 miles to the south, and the potential for intervention by Cuban-piloted MiG fighter planes.

Under command of Col. Jay Breytenbach, who had founded the SADF's parachute battalion, REINDEER would be carried out by a force of about 300 men. While most of them were "part-time reservists," that designation actually disguised their high level of training and morale. The force was drawn primarily from the SADF parachute battalion, but also included members of the elite Reconnaissance Commandoes (the SADF's equivalent of the SAS), as well as some men from the elite *32 Battalion* (a veteran outfit made up largely of anti-communist Angolan refugees). The majority of *32 Battalion* was involved in the base camps sweep.

After an extensive preliminary bombardment by supporting aircraft,

the paratroopers were landed in several groups around the town on 4 May 1978. The main (western) group was to sweep through the objective while the others formed blocking positions to cordon off the battlefield. The key blocking group was a heavily armed, but otherwise under-strength, antitank platoon guarding the road from Tetchamutete. Just as important for the withdrawal was the 42-man security element who set up and guarded the hastily established temporary helicopter base 14 miles east of Cassinga.

The preliminary bombardment was made by South African Air Force (SAAF) Canberra and Buccaneer bombers. The strike set off several ammunition dumps in a wave of secondary explosions. Those in turn caused problems for the initial landings at 8:06 a.m., with the resulting thick smoke and dust causing the C-130 Hercules pilots to misjudge the drop zones, scattering paratroopers over a wide area. REINDEER's ambitious initial timetable of two hours from landing to withdrawal was now stretched to nearly five.

Fortunately for the interlopers, the local SWAPO commander fled as soon as the aerial bombardment ended. Leaderless, the guerillas were unable to put together an immediate (and potentially decisive) counterattack against the disorganized paratroops. Instead the majority of the defenders waited confused in their entrenchments for an expected overwhelming ground attack. And the attack did come. After much heavy fighting, the SADF cleared the town and camp at about noon, with Breytenbach in the lead. And it was no cakewalk—fighting got especially close and savage in the trenches.

Meanwhile, the other SADF groups on the ground had been busy, especially the antitank platoon. Having laid out their limited supply of mines and skillfully sited their rockets, the antitank troops settled down to greet the expected armored relief force from the south. Led by five T-34s, a column of BTR-152s rumbled toward the South Africans. The Cuban armor was spread out in attack formation on both sides of the road, where they ran into the mines.

After losing one T-34 and five BTRs, the Cubans halted, giving the antitank platoon time to withdraw. When the armor cautiously resumed

the advance, SAAF Canberras, Mirages and Buccaneers struck the exposed AFVs with devastating results. The warplanes soon destroyed another dozen or so BTRs and at least two T-34s before expending all their ordnance.

With the action on the ground completed, the withdrawal began for the REINDEER force as Puma and Super Frelon helicopters made their pickups. The troops pulled back in stages with the wounded going home first. None of the SAAF's helicopters were lost during the evacuation.

South African sources claim the REINDEER force to have suffered only three killed in action, one missing and one wounded, while inflicting about 1,000 KIA and WIA on the insurgents. Other sources have reported the paratroopers' losses as high as five killed and 11 wounded. Regardless of the actual count, the operation must be considered a success, as it led to the curtailment of infiltration from Angola into Namibia for 18 months. It also forced SWAPO to move their bases even farther from the border and site their compounds adjacent to Angolan army bases.

In true insurgent style, SWAPO strenuously denied the claim the operation had taken out their main headquarters, claiming instead the attack actually struck a refugee camp. That was self-evident, they said, as there were several young persons and women among both the casualties of the airborne raid and the hundreds of prisoners taken by the two supporting strikes. Surprisingly, the Cubans backed up the SADF's claim to have inflicted 16 killed and 63 wounded on their armored column.

(Note: technically speaking, the guerrillas were members of the *People's Liberation Army* of Namibia, while SWAPO was its political arm. Thus SWAPO could be invited to participate in elections late in 1978 even as the SADF continued fighting armed PLAN guerrillas.)

—Peter Schutze

Voyage of the USS OREGON

During the 19th century the US pursued its policy of isolationism. The army concerned itself with wars against Mexico, the Confederacy, and the Indians. The navy protected US merchant shipping and maintained overseas trade routes. But as the century closed, a new war was brewing. The once-mighty Spanish Empire was in its final disintegration, with rebels in the colonies of Cuba and the Philippines challenging the authority of Madrid. On 15 February 1898 the *USS Maine* suffered a terrific explosion, sinking with great loss of life in Havana harbor. America's yellow press was quick to inflate the *Maine* into a cause for war.

At the time of the *Maine's* sinking, the battleship *USS Oregon* was in Bremerton, Washington. The *Oregon* was one the first US warships to sport a panoply of 13 inch guns as main armament and, along with her sister ships *Massachusetts* and *Indiana*, she formed the backbone of the US Navy. Those three ships had all been laid down with an eye toward coastal defense, and had not been meant to compete on the high seas.

The Navy's high command decided she should join the Atlantic Fleet on the US east coast. Orders were dispatched for the *Oregon* to sail, and on 6 March the ship arrived at San Francisco to re-coal. There she was ordered to steam for Peru (remember, this was before the Panama Canal had been dug and the voyage from Pacific to Atlantic required a trip around the southern tip of South America). *Oregon's* commander had become seriously ill, though, and was replaced by Capt. Charles Clarke, formerly of the monitor *USS Monterey*.

A problem developed due to the storage arrangements for the coal within the ship. It was necessary to keep the best—Welsh anthracite—near the boilers so as to have a ready supply close by in case of an unexpected meeting with the Spanish fleet requiring a rapid increase in speed. The close proximity of the anthracite to the boiler fires sparked spontaneous combustion within the pile's interior. That in turn forced the crew to sweat in 150 degree Fahrenheit heat in order to tunnel into the pile, find the fire and extinguish it.

In spite of all that, the *Oregon* arrived at Callao, Peru, on 8 April. The next morning she passed through the Straits of Magellan and then put into Punta Arenas, Argentina, for resupply and standard maintenance. Punta Arenas was a friendly port, so the crew were able to replenish the coal supply from lighters brought directly alongside. It was there Capt. Clarke got his first information from Washington regarding the Spanish fleet. It was vaguely assumed the Spanish *Infanta Maria Teresa*, Adm. Cerveras' flagship, was somewhere within the coastal area of South America or in the Caribbean. What was known was the Spanish Navy torpedo boat *Temerario* had left Montevideo and was stalking the *Oregon*.

At that time there was great apprehension among seamen regarding torpedo boats. They assumed that new and supposedly deadly ship type was of such a fiendish nature with its torpedoes as to be able to blow out of the water any capital ship, while itself remaining unmolested. Of course, viewed from the perspective of the 21st century, it's obvious the *Oregon* could have blown the *Temerario* out of the water with a single salvo before the torpedo boat could have closed to danger distance. It's also to Clark's credit that he wasn't cowed by the torpedo boat myth. In fact, he overruled more timid subordinates who counseled him to avoid sealanes in which the Spanish boat might be operating.

So, on 30 April, the *Oregon* entered Rio de Janeiro harbor, there to be joined by the cruiser *Nictheroy*, just bought from the Brazilians, and later to be renamed the *USS Buffalo*. It was at Rio de Janeiro that Clark was informed a state of war legally existed between the United States and Spain. He was also informed the *Temerario* was still unaccounted for.

The Brazilians, while seeming to welcome the US warships, were in fact apprehensive, fearing to lose their status as neutrals. They urged the Americans to leave, and leave quickly. Among other things, the Americans had to repaint their ships in wartime gray at night and in secret, the Articles of War forbidding any "warlike preparations" in a neutral port. The Brazilians did, however, see to the guarding of the entrance of the harbor with their own vessels and also placed guards on the coal barges, as

there were rumors of many malcontents who were out to sabotage the American ships.

Along with news of Adm. Dewey's victory in the Philippines came a dispatch from the secretary of the Navy informing Clark about four Spanish cruisers and three "torpedo boat destroyers" leaving Cape Verde heading west. Clarke then stopped sending messages to Washington. The newspapers were hungry to publish information regarding his whereabouts—it being an era in which press censorship in war was considered ungentlemanly—and the most prudent course of action was to announce nothing. On leaving harbor Clark was informed by the Brazilians the *Nichteroy*, still officially one of their ships and not having yet been formally handed over to the United States, could not sail until the following day. Clark, again acting on his own initiative, ordered full speed ahead. He believed his key to success was the *Oregon's* superior mobility and firepower. (Later it was found that Adm. Cervera, far from hunting for safe harbor, knowing his obsolescent ships were no match for modern US vessels. One of his larger warships in fact sported only dummy guns.)

On 14 May, Clarke had an encounter with round-the-world sailor Joshua Slocum in the Caribbean, who, from aboard his 35 foot ketch, signaled they should join forces "for mutual protection."

The *Oregon* entered Bridgeport, Barbados, where she was made welcome. During the night she steamed out of the harbor, her lights blazing, to be turned off upon clearing land. Clarke ordered a change of course so as to confuse any Spanish agents spying on his progress. She steamed into Jupiter Inlet, Florida, on 24 May, thus completing a stupendous journey of over 14,000 miles in a mere 66 days. She then went on to see action off Cuba, shelling Cervera's fleet, and was later transferred to the US Asiatic Squadron.

The Americans quickly won the Spanish-American War of 1898, gaining victories in the Philippines and the Caribbean. That gave the US a new empire and brought Washington onto the world stage as a major player. At the same time, the *Oregon's* voyage impressed the Navy's high

command with the need for a faster way to move ships between the Pacific and the Atlantic, leading to the US construction of the Panama Canal.

The record setting voyage also delighted the public and inspired popular songs. "The Race of the Oregon," by John James Meehan, included the lyrics:

Lights out!

*And a prow turned toward the south,
And a canvas hiding each cannon's mouth*

*And a ship like a silent ghost released
Is seeking her sister ships in the east.*

When your boys shall ask what the guns are for,

Then tell them the tale of the Spanish war,

And the breathless millions that looked upon

The matchless race of the Oregon.

—Mike Haran

The Fall of Novo Georgievsk: End of Russian Dominance in Poland

The Russian general staff (Stavka) placed Gen. of Cavalry Nikolai Pavlovich Bobyr in command of the Novo Georgievsk fortress complex near Warsaw, in July 1915. Novo Georgievsk was built in the mid-1800s at the confluence of the Vistula and Narew Rivers. Its role was to protect the northern approaches to Warsaw while an equally strong fortification at Ivanogord protected the south. Throughout the 19th century those emplacements represented Russian dominance over Poland. They withstood uprisings and helped restore czarist control in the 1840s and 1860s.

In the 1880s, Russian engineers, assisted by French technicians, began a program of renovation to cope with artillery innovations. A series of outer forts and field works were added, built with reinforced brick flexible enough to absorb the best shot and shell of the time. Further renovations and maintenance proceeded only at a snail's pace; however, and by 1900 Novo Georgievsk was hopelessly behind advances in artillery and explosive munitions.

Recognizing those faults, and taking into consideration fluid movement had dominated in the wars that had taken place since 1870, Minister of the Army Vladimir Sukhomlinov in 1901 began a program aimed at diminishing, or even completely demolishing, the role of fortresses in Russia's overall defense plan. In his view, fortresses weren't conducive to a war of rapid movement. Instead, he saw them as centers for mobilization from which the army would deploy, or as storehouses from which armies would receive supplies. He pointed out fortresses in the Franco-Prussian and Russo-Turkish Wars had become traps for manpower and materiel that generals could otherwise have used to strengthen their armies in the field.

His plans were opposed by most of the army's high ranking officers. They saw fortresses as bastions of power that would at least slow an invading enemy and cause him to detail a sizeable force to conquer each such complex, thus further diluting the strength of his forward movement.

The opposition was more than Sukhomlinov could withstand. In 1908 an appropriation of 800 million Rubles was made to renovate the fortresses and to add 5,000 heavy artillery pieces to them. Novo Georgievsk underwent improvement, including the concrete hardening of some of the outlying forts, but by 1914 over half the emplacements were still not up-to-date.

Hardening was one thing that could be readily done; however, the relocation of the outer ring emplacements was impossible. When they were built in 1880, their sites, five miles from the citadel, were sufficient to protect the inner works against the cannon of that era. The range of 1914 artillery had doubled. The Germans' howitzers and mortars could stand beyond the cannon range of the outer ring defenders and hit any point within the complex.

Still, Bobyr could count on 1,600 guns mounted in a series of 18 forts, each of which was supported by at least two or three redoubts. Many of those guns were of heavy caliber, ranging from 150 to 250 millimeters. There were also eight and nine inch mortars, but they were of 1877 design. Added to those armaments were machineguns.

Stavka also provided Bobyr with three new units to add to his garrison of six artillery battalions and one aerial company. They were the 11th Siberian Division and the 58th and 63rd Infantry Divisions. The entire garrison amounted to 92,000 soldiers, which was more than enough to man the parapets. But morale was a problem. Though the Siberians were first-line soldiers, they lost more than half their number to a German bombardment at Przasnysz on 10 July, and had received few replacements since then. The other two divisions consisted of second- and third-line soldiers. The men in these units had in fact been promised they would not see frontline action because of their advanced age (many were over 40).

Another factor that had an impact on morale was the lack of a withdrawal route. Soldiers will often fight harder if they are confident a way is open to escape should their best efforts fail. There could be little doubt among the defenders as to what their fate might be: Novo Georgievsk was isolated. Stavka had evacuated Ivanogord and Warsaw on 5 August. Because the loss of those places had severed all rail links to safety, Bobyr, Stavka and the men of the garrison knew evacuation of the fortress was no longer possible. The general staff had earlier estimated 1,100 rail cars would've been needed to remove the troops, cannon and munitions. Even if the Germans had left the fortress with communications, then, no such amount of rail transport was available to the Russians.

Even considering all those drawbacks, however, it was not unlikely Novo Georgievsk might have been able to hold. More than once in history, seemingly hopeless positions had held successfully because the besieger had made mistakes.



Russian howitzer crew in action.

On 28 April, the armies of the Central Powers, Germany and Austria-Hungary, had launched a drive in Galicia at Tarnow-Gorlice. That offensive had swept across the region and then turned north onto the Polish plain by early June. The Russians had retreated before the onslaught. Everywhere along the front, units reported depletions of artillery shells, machinegun and rifle ammunition, along with the weapons that used those munitions. Russia's industries had failed to replenish the stocks used in the first year of war. At the same time, German forces from East Prussia had attacked in another offensive from Memel to Bialystok. That drive had also met with success, forcing the Russians to retreat. To Stavka the two offensives' objectives were apparent: they meant to link up and cut off the entire Polish salient and the armies stationed there. The Russian general staff decided to abandon Poland to save their armies.

By early August, then, Novo Georgievsk had been completely surrounded and the German army was beginning to mass around it. The Russian generals who'd earlier argued fortifications would become traps for advancing enemy armies remained happy because they had stopped Sukhomlinov's plan and it appeared the Germans were having to use a sizeable force to neutralize Novo Georgievsk. Stavka hoped that effort would weaken the forward movement of the enemy drives in northern and southern Poland.

The German general staff knew how powerful Novo Georgievsk might prove to be; however, they weren't about to stop their main effort. They also knew how vulnerable fortresses were to modern artillery. Consequently, their plan took advantage of both old and new.

In the new category, their general staff appointed Gen. of Infantry Hans Hartwig von Beseler, conqueror of the Antwerp fortress, to command the besieging force. Beseler came to the eastern front bringing with him his state of the art siege train, which included five 420 mm cannon, nine 320 mm mortars, and four 210 mm mortars. They were supported by batteries of 100 mm cannon and 77 mm field pieces.

For the old, Beseler was given *Landwehr* and *Landsturm* units as assault infantry. They were second- and third-line organizations composed of older men, many in their late 30s. Such units normally guarded behind-the-lines roads and installations and were called on to fight only in time of an invasion of the homeland. Like the soldiers inside the fortress, they had not expected to see frontline duty. The confrontation was therefore one in which the soldiers on both sides came from the same older generation.

Beseler's artillery experts placed their pieces along the northern perimeter of the fortress. Before the bombardment began, fate stepped in when patrols probing the defenses of the outer forts captured a party of Russians. Interrogators soon found they had captured the fortress's chief engineer, who'd been on an inspection tour. Among his possessions they found a plan of both the outer- and inner-ring fortresses complete with indications of their weaknesses. Beseler's staff quickly changed their plans to concentrate their efforts on Forts 15 and 16. Those structures didn't contain any reinforced concrete.

The bombardment of Fort 16 was scheduled to begin on 13 August at 4:00 a.m., with the infantry assault starting at 9:00, but a dense fog formed over the area, making artillery observation impossible. The entire effort was postponed until the fog cleared. Finally at 8:00 a.m. the sun shone through. Observation balloons soared into the air, and within seconds ranging rounds began falling on Fort 16. By 10:00 a.m. the bombardment reached its peak. The massive 420 mm cannons' 2,000 lb. shells had devastating effect. Without concrete hardened walls, many positions simply disappeared in a cloud of dust and debris when hit. Russian counter-fire was ineffective against the well

placed guns. The surviving defenders abandoned the works and fled toward the inner defense ring. German reconnaissance patrols reported the trenches were filled with dead and wounded.

A little after 1:00 p.m. the infantry attacked. The *1st Company* of the *10th Landwehr Regiment* encountered thoroughly demoralized defenders. Many of the Russians threw away their weapons and gave up. *Companies 2 and 4* had greater difficulties when they came up against emplacements the bombardment had missed. With some of the 60 machineguns that survived, the Russian defense tore holes in the assault lines. The *10th Company's* attack was initially repulsed because the *Landsturm* supporting their left were unable to move ahead because their flank was exposed to incessant small arms fire. To save the *10th* and keep the advance going, the Germans brought up *3rd Company*. Then *1st Company's* advance got behind the Russians and the defenders were faced with the choice of death or surrender. Fort 16 fell, creating a gap in the outer defenses. Into it poured the German infantry followed closely by supporting batteries of 100 mm guns.

On 18 August the newly repositioned German guns opened fire on the inner-ring forts. The defenders surrendered in large groups; their morale broken. The citadel was brought under fire early on the following day. Gen. Bobyr had no choice but to surrender his command.

The nearly 90,000 casualties the Russians incurred included 30 generals, but the most staggering loss was in equipment. Some 1,600 cannon were captured along with 350 replacement barrels, and German search teams found food and equipment stores valued at over 30 million Marks, along with close to 1 million artillery shells. There was also 440,000 pounds of copper, bronze and brass.

Though the Russians generals had sabotaged Sukhomlinov's efforts to abandon fortresses, they had never gone against his plan to use them as storehouses. Both Ivanogord and Novo Georgievsk had huge logistical stockpiles. Ivanogord's commander blew up those supplies prior to evacuating. Bobyr had only begun destroying his stores shortly before having to surrender. Not only were the Germans astonished by their windfall in capturing them, so was Stavka. They had been unaware of the size of the stores. The ultimate irony, then, comes from the fact Novo Georgievsk truly could have been the trap the Russian generals had wanted it to be *if* the supplies it held had been released to the logistically starved Russian armies in the Polish salient.

—Michael P. Kihntopf

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Warsaw 1943:

The Jewish Ghetto Fights Back

by Kelly Bell

In April 1940, Adolf Hitler's SS began building a wall in occupied Warsaw. Poland had been conquered by the *Wehrmacht* the previous autumn, and the Polish capital was now an occupied city. The Führer decided the best means by which to implement his planned destruction of European Jewry was to first imprison them in urban ghettos.

Polish Jews were forced to pay German contractors to build high walls around a hammerhead-shaped enclosure in the heart of Warsaw, roughly 300 by 1,000 meters. Topped with barbed wire and studded with countless shards of broken glass, the wall encircled an urban neighborhood into which the SS crammed 380,000 Jews from Warsaw and its environs. By the end of 1940, the teeming slum was a grim netherworld of starvation, cold, disease and outright murder. Patrolling Germans and their viciously anti-Semitic Ukrainian collaborators casually gunned down anyone imprudent enough to raise his head over the wall. The Jewish inmates were usually not trying to escape, but rather attempting to procure food and medicine in Warsaw proper, which they could smuggle back into the ghetto. Many of the smugglers were children small enough to squeeze through apertures in the wall or slip unnoticed through the gates.





By the spring of 1942 the ghetto's guards had become such lethal marksmen that prisoners seldom ventured near the borders except at night. Some SS troopers took to strolling ghetto streets and pumping bullets through baby carriages, doors, windows and the limp forms of those who had collapsed from starvation and illness. Two officers named Josef Blosche and Heinrich Klaustermeyer became particularly adept at that pastime, and when they tired of shooting they were fond of creasing their faces into compassionate-looking masks and offering emaciated Jews flasks of coffee or milk that were laced with arsenic.

But simple barbarism was too inefficient for the Nazis. By mid-1942 they had finished constructing their mass-extinction centers outside the towns of Treblinka, Belzec, Sobibor and Auschwitz. On 22 July 1942 the SS began plastering posters on buildings throughout the slum to inform the Jews they were to be "resettled." Within days masses of people of all ages were packed into cattle cars and taken to the killing complexes. The round-the-clock deportations ended 13 September. By then 300,000 victims had been shipped to assembly line deaths. Those Jews who remained in the ghetto decided the time had come to resist.

Fighting Back

The Jews remaining in the ghetto were bereaved, unencumbered and vengeful. A 24 year old named Mordechai Anielwicz came to the forefront during the organization of the *Zydowska Orgawizacja Bojowa* (Jewish Fighting Organization, or ZOB). Before the war, Anielwicz had grown up quickly in one of Warsaw's poorest neighborhoods. His scarred knuckles, fearless demeanor and keen wits caught the attention of his comrades as they laid plans. His ideas on how to arm, train and deploy the Jewish fighters-to-be were promising, since he had been an urban warrior all his life by necessity. Before long the Jewish patriots came to regard him as their leader.



*Founders of Jewish Fighting Organization,
ZOB: the Zuckermans.*

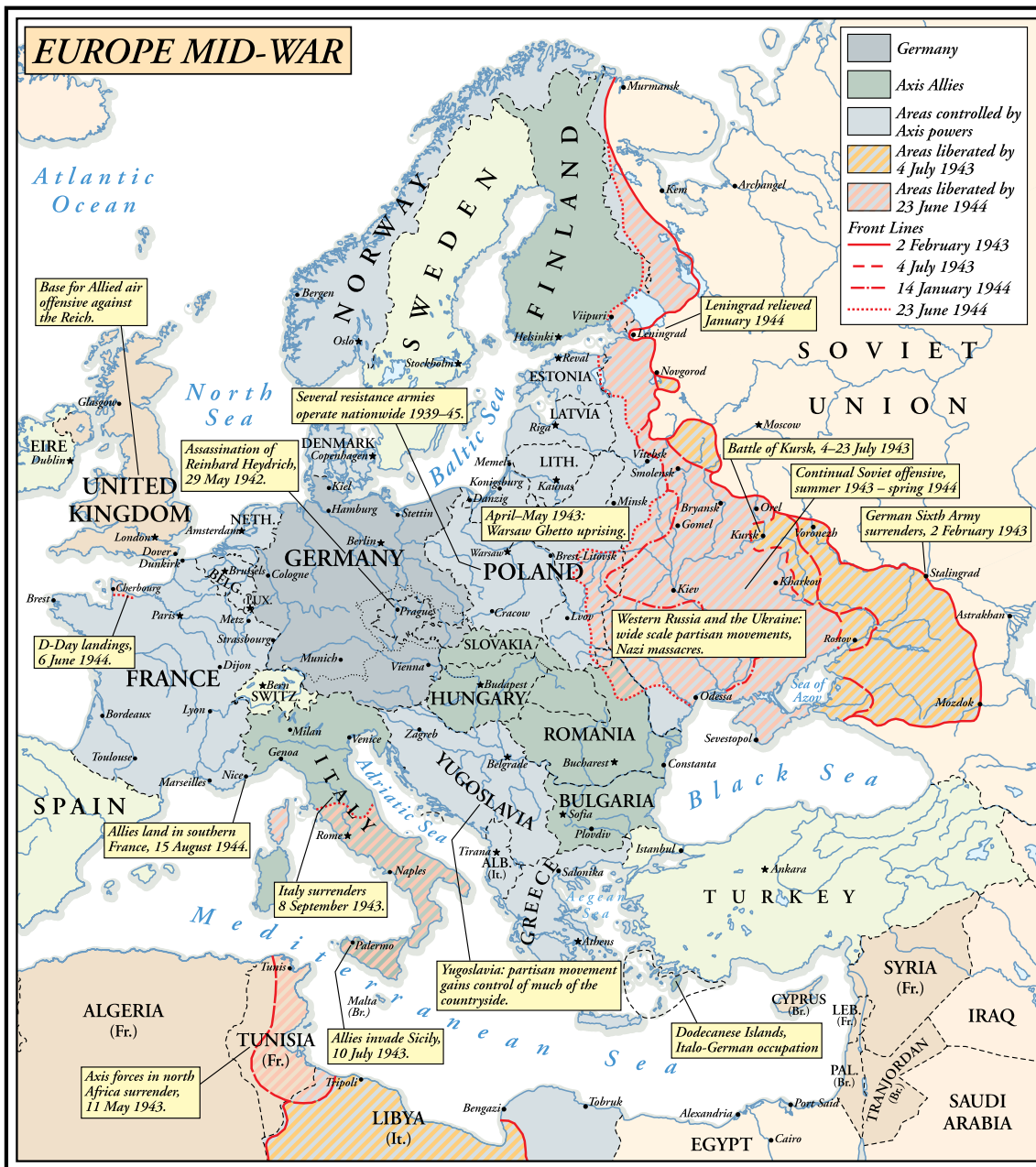
Armed resistance of the Nazis broke out as early as 18 January 1943, when a line of Jews waiting to be loaded onto a death-bound train pulled out pistols and opened fire on their surprised persecutors. The SS swiftly pulverized that outbreak of resistance, but it was a beginning. Now that their victims were shooting back, the Nazis took on a different attitude and, after four more days of frustrating cat-and-mouse clashes with the insurgents, the SS fled the ghetto.

Knowing the Nazis would return in force, the Jewish fighters hastily enlarged existing cellars into bunkers. Aside from the fighters, they could accommodate wounded and noncombatants. Anielwicz, however, decided against using the bunkers for defense. He feared such positions might make his troops feel too secure and thereby lessen their resolve to resist. Urban guerrilla warfare, not passive defense, would be the key to resistance. Anielwicz also worked closely with a blond, blue-eyed Jew named Arie Wilner. Because he looked so "Aryan," Wilner could infiltrate into outer Warsaw and obtain arms via the black market. Anielwicz and Wilner had hoped the Polish underground, known as the Home Army, would supply the Jewish rebels with weapons, but the Home Army feared a premature outbreak of resistance would lead to the Nazis leveling the entire city.

Some merchants in Poland's black market were Nazi sympathizers, and they tipped off the Gestapo to Wilner, who was arrested in his gun-filled apartment. Following prolonged and unsuccessful attempts to torture him into betraying his comrades, the SS decided to execute Wilner. But because of a clerical error he was instead imprisoned in one of the city's civil jails. The ZOB slipped into the lockup late one night, freed Wilner and carried him to momentary safety. Though unable to walk due to the Gestapo's tortures, the youthful freedom fighter quickly resumed working for his people.

Another "blond" Jew named Yitzak Zuckerman replaced Wilner as the resistance's black market agent. Time was dwindling as Zuckerman worked feverishly to arm the ZOB while the SS coiled to strike. As springtime crept across the ghetto, the Nazis found they were increasingly the target of hit-and-run attacks. A spirit of defiance was spreading. Despite the *de facto* siege, many of the ghetto's residents were determined to celebrate Passover. The sacred day was 19 April, but the Nazis had no intention of allowing the Jews to worship in peace.

Early on the morning of the 19th, 850 SS troopers of Brigadefuehrer (Major-General) Jurgen Stroop's *28th SS Regiment* entered the walled inner city and marched down Zamenhoff Street. They were engulfed by a shower of grenades, Molotov cocktails and bullets. Not prepared for that level of resistance, the invading column scattered. Despite the best efforts of officers to lash their Ukrainian auxiliaries back into



the fray, that first probe was hurled out of the ghetto in 30 minutes. When the smoke cleared, the Jews could celebrate a brief triumph over the forces that had been working toward their annihilation.

The Reich Strikes

At that point Reichsfuehrer-SS Heinrich Himmler, Hitler's high official for internal security, personally ordered Stroop to take hands-on command of the campaign. Stroop was a hard, brutal soldier who had little patience with subordinates who failed him. The units he earmarked for assaulting the ghetto resistors were the SS Panzer Grenadier Training and Reserve Battalion #3, the resident SS Cavalry Training and Reserve Division, the SS Police Regiment #22's 1st and 3rd Battalions, the regular army Light Anti-Aircraft Alarm Battery # III/8, a detail of engineers from the Reserve

Rembertow Division, Reserve Engineer Battalion #14, and 335 Ukrainians calling themselves the 1st Trawniki Battalion. There were also 533 Warsaw city police officers and firemen who were conscripted for the action. It was an *ad hoc* grouping of rear area units, but surely, the SS commander figured, it would be enough to deal with a motley array of poorly armed Jews.

On the evening of the 19th, Stroop tried to surprise the ghetto's defenders by sending in a tank and two armored cars. The rebels used their Molotov cocktails to immolate the tank and one of the armored cars, along with their crews. The surviving vehicle made a prudent retreat.

As dispatches of the morning's fighting reached Berlin, Himmler grabbed a telephone and rang up his man in Warsaw. The Reichsfuehrer-SS was fearful re-

sistance in the ghetto would trigger more insurrections throughout Poland. With German forces in the east already hard pressed by the Red Army after Stalingrad, a nationwide rebellion could turn into a catastrophe for the Reich. Himmler was responsible for security in German-occupied Europe, and he would have some serious explaining to do when the Führer called him on the carpet. So Himmler put pressure on Stroop to crush the rebellion at once.

Stroop accordingly devised a plan to send small units of well-armed SS to independently assault and destroy individual Jewish strongholds. Almost 2,000 troopers moved in with armor and artillery in support. In one skirmish, ZOB fighters gunned down panicked Germans and Ukrainians in a counterattack at a warehouse in which burning Molotovs were thrown about freely. In retaliation, the Nazis began using incendiary charges to ignite the buildings.

Such was the level of the resistance the SS were unable to take prisoner a single resistance fighter. They did prove effective at rounding up 2,000 non-combatants and herding them to the rail yards for deportation. When the throng at the terminal became too large to manage, the SS began marching the captives into a large courtyard and pumping bullets into them. In a grisly game, a number of Jews burrowed beneath the corpses. With the killers distracted by the uprising, they ignored the ghetto's gates, and many survivors were able to crawl from beneath the lifeless bodies and escape.

Meanwhile, Stroop was trying to establish an SS stronghold in the ghetto's center that he could use as a base for further clearing operations. The ZOB was concentrated around the slum's perimeter, and the SS man thought all he would have to do was break through that cordon in order to regain control. But it

was at that point another resistance group, the Jewish Military Organization (JMO), joined the fray.

The Fight Expands

Though numerically smaller than the ZOB, the JMO had begun preparing for resistance earlier than its colleagues, and hence was better armed. Operating independent of the ZOB, they seldom stayed long in one location. They would attack an isolated SS detachment, inflict casualties, then withdraw as soon as the enemy stopped to deploy. Though Anielwicz could no longer call himself the overall rebel commander, he was nonetheless delighted by his comrades' entry into the fight.

The JMO was headquartered in a large building in the central ghetto. Its fighters had fortified their base, installing a pair of heavy machineguns on its roof. An SS column with armor support targeted the fortress, but as the Germans and Ukrainians neared the big structure the lofty gunners returned a lethal plunging fire. The unsuspecting Nazis were gunned down in droves, while some opened fire on street-level shops where they incorrectly assumed the Jews were positioned. As the SS troopers emptied their weapons into deserted ruins the panzer crewmen panicked and drove away, leaving the foot soldiers bereft of support.

At that moment, somebody hoisted a Polish national flag next to the rooftop gun nests. Another guerrilla ran up a flag with a Star of David emblazoned on it. The Warsaw Ghetto was thus the first Jewish controlled territory in almost two millennia.

As the surviving SS troopers shuffled back toward the ghetto gate and what they thought was safety, they were being watched. They got yet another shock when they were again showered with Molotovs and grenades. Those not incinerated or blown to bits scrambled through the egress.

That action, aside from being a Jewish tactical victory, had political impact. The Nazi command realized the Polish and Jewish flags were high enough to be seen outside the ghetto's wall and might incite the rest of Warsaw to rise in rebellion. The second day of the uprising, 20 April, was Hitler's 54th birthday. With an anxious Himmler awaiting results, Stroop sent in fresh troops in numerous small detachments. His idea was to force the Jews to fight in multiple locations simultaneously, thereby diluting their strength. But the Jews figured out Stroop's strategy and attacked the Nazis as they were marching through the gates, before they had time to deploy. In minutes a third of the latest wave of invaders lay in the streets, dead or wounded.

Elsewhere, an SS company, bent on removing the taunting flags, made straight for the JMO headquarters. Running a gauntlet of small arms fire, they left their dead and wounded where they fell as they stampeded for the building. Nazi combat engineers used a flamethrower to set the rooftop afire, but the Jew-



The Warsaw Ghetto wall.

ish machineguns remained undamaged and beat back the attack.

Still, the invaders seemed to be achieving moderate territorial gains as the day's bloodshed continued. The Jews were falling back. SS troopers poured into a courtyard in hot pursuit and then the pavement beneath their jackboots erupted as a Jewish sapper ignited dynamite charges emplaced beneath the cobblestones. The blast killed over 100 Nazis and shattered their morale. It had all been a cleverly planned resistance ruse.

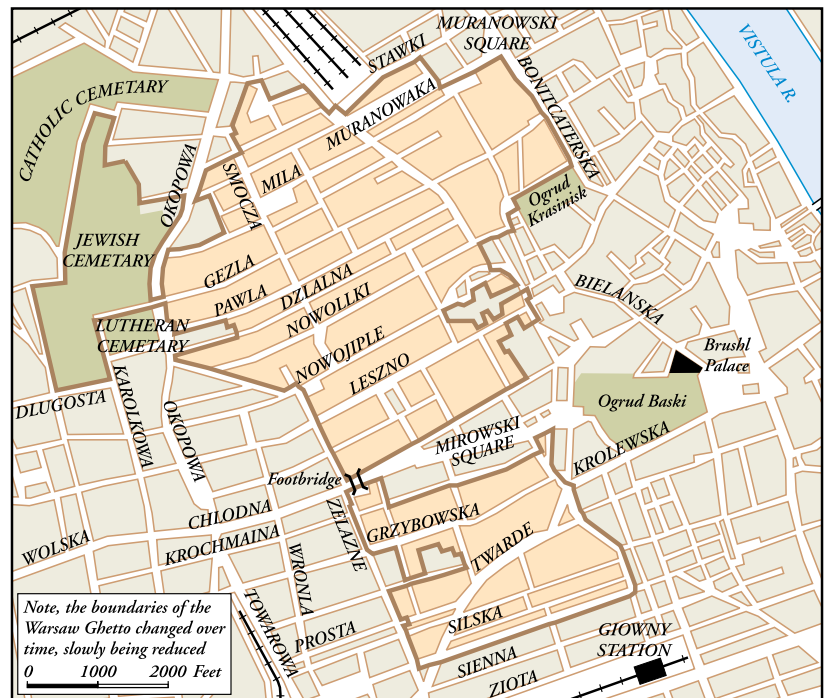
Another German column churned down a street in the ghetto's brush-making district and was virtually annihilated when it ran into a hastily arranged ambush by ZOB guerillas. When Stroop learned of those latest defeats he sent an entire regiment into the sector. With artillery, heavy machineguns and flamethrowers, the SS hosed down buildings with lead, steel and flame in fruitless efforts to flush out the enemy. They finally drew fire from a rooftop, but it was only a small rearguard. Once again, the resistance fighters had slipped away. By nightfall the Jews remained firmly in control of their ghetto.

Berlin is not Pleased

By this time Stroop was close to panic. He had lied to Himmler, telling him just nine soldiers had died in the fighting instead of the 300-plus who had actually fallen. It was only a matter of time before Berlin learned the truth. For his own sake Stroop had to crush the rebellion first. Stroop's remaining ace-in-the-hole was his artillery. Until that moment, he had refrained from using his big guns for fear of destroying the ghetto's gentile-owned armaments factories. With his own neck on the line, though, Stroop ordered a barrage, regardless of the damage to the Reich's war production.

Upon being notified of the new move, distraught factory executives rushed to their plants and ordered the remaining workers to surrender while the buildings still stood. As trucks lumbered along picking up dispirited Jewish factory workers, snipers opened fire on guards. Shortly afterward rebels bushwhacked an SS convoy ferrying troops out of the central ghetto. Tumbling from the blazing transports, the Nazis were cut down by sharpshooters. As the defenders were distracted with targets in the streets, other Nazi assault troops were emplacing barrels of gasoline against rebel strongholds. After affixing detonators to the drums, the sappers primed the charges and scurried to a safe distance.

The exploding fireballs quickly turned the area into a swirling inferno. Subterranean bunkers collapsed under tons of burning debris. Huddling refugees were burned and buried alive. Some fighters on upper floors were trapped by flames and hurled themselves out of



windows, often to their own deaths. Others who tried to surrender were gunned down in cold blood by infuriated SS troopers. Some ZOB soldiers charged straight through startled Nazis, guns blazing, and escaped deeper into the ghetto.

Anielwicz realized he had made a mistake in not digging a more extensive bunker system. Now the urban guerrillas had nowhere to take cover except in structures that would soon be reduced to cinders. When they tried to gain entry to the existing hideouts, they received a shocking reception. The women, children, elderly, cripples and deserters huddled in those holes refused to open the concealed doors for the armed rebels. They believed the SS would continue combing the smoldering ghetto ruins as long as armed resistance persisted. If the fighting died out the Nazis might think the resistance had been snuffed and leave the ghetto. The noncombatants were anxious for the revolt to end, and considered the partisans *persona non grata*.

Scorching Earth

As Anielwicz tried to resolve the awkward development, the JMO was becoming similarly hard-pressed. Nazi attacks on its headquarters had killed a number of its key members, and shellfire had knocked out one of the precious rooftop machineguns. JMO commanders knew their men were exhausted and hungry, but still game to fight. Removing the remaining gun from the roof, they left the flags as bait to lure the Germans into attacking. The remaining rebels hid on the ground floor and waited for the enemy to charge the building. For a quarter of an hour the SS held back, suspicious of the suddenly silent structure. Then a German-look-

continued on page 45

The SS

The *Schutzstaffel* (protection squadron or elite guard), abbreviated SS, was one of the foundations of Adolf Hitler's Third Reich. It was originally established in 1925 as his personal bodyguard. Under the leadership of Heinrich Himmler, it grew to become a multifaceted empire within the Nazi state. To describe the full complexity of the SS organizational empire is beyond the scope of this article, but by the outbreak of World War II it was composed of several branches.

The *Waffen SS* (service or armed SS) was effectively a fourth branch of the *Wehrmacht*, the German armed forces. The *Waffen SS* fielded several dozen combat divisions, recruited from Germans and also volunteers from various subject peoples. In the last two years of the war, Hitler would use several of the more elite *Waffen SS* divisions as a "fire brigades," fighting at the most critical parts of the Reich's frontiers.

The *Allgemeine SS* (general SS) controlled the Reich Central Security Office (*Reichssicherheitshauptamt* or RSHA), which combined an array of police, counterintelligence and Nazi Party ideological agencies into a grand cartel of state terror. One of the more feared agencies of the RSHA was the *Geheime Staatspolizei*, the Secret State Police, better known by its abbreviation *Gestapo*. The *Gestapo* had gotten its start as the political section of the Prussian State Police, but the Nazis took it over and expanded its jurisdiction to the entire Reich. Section IVB4 of the *Gestapo*, under Karl Adolf Eichmann, was responsible for the final solution to the Jewish problem. Nothing in the Third Reich was clean-cut, however, and various other SS organizations were also involved in a long list of crimes against humanity.

Himmler assigned higher SS and police leaders to run security operations in conquered areas. They commanded an array of police, security and collaborator units in a reign of terror, though Nazi rule tended to be less heavy-handed in western Europe than in the east. Interestingly, Himmler would absorb the civilian German police into the RSHA hierarchy and employ them in much of the dirty work.

Running amok on the eastern front were the *Einsatzgruppen*, special groups responsible for mass shootings of Jews, communists, partisans and anyone else the Nazis labeled as disposable. Their personnel were drawn from the entire SS. And, of course, the most sinister of the bunch was the concentration camp administration, which was a separate branch of the SS. It had its own security force, the *Totenkopf* or Death Head units.

Weighing in as another part of the RSHA was the *Sicherheitsdienst* (SD, the Security Service). That organization started as the intelligence branch of the SS, but soon grew into a network of agents and informers responsible for ferreting out enemies of the Reich. *Obergruppenfuehrer* (four-star general) Reinhard Heydrich, chief of the SD and later the RSHA, claimed to have a file on every single resident of Germany—including Hitler. Heydrich and his immediate superior, *Reichsfuehrer-SS* Heinrich Himmler (*Reichsfuehrer-SS*, was a special rank Hitler created for Himmler). Himmler saw the SS as a pseudo-religious fraternal order dedicated to, among other things, safeguarding the Third Reich and its conquests from undesirables, hence the final solution. As for Heydrich, he did much to plan the mass execution of the Jews and others before being assassinated by Czech partisans in May 1942. His death, of course, did not stop the Reich's machinery of mass killing.

When dealing with people who did not meet the Nazis' ethnic/ideological standards, the SS was literally above the law. Mass murder, torture and consignment to fatally brutal slave labor camps were routine means used to deal with those not in accord with the doctrine of the continent-wide security apparatus. The SS was indeed the ideal instrument to be used to deal with the uprising in the Warsaw ghetto.



An SS patrol moves through the ghetto.

Einsatzgruppe	
	Personnel
<u>Staffel</u>	
1. Pz. Div. (SS) - 1. SS - 1. Div.	4/40
2. Pz. Div. (SS) - 2. SS - 2. Div.	5/50
<u>Personnel</u>	
1. Pz. Div. (SS) - 1. SS - 1. Div.	5/50
2. Pz. Div. (SS) - 2. SS - 2. Div.	5/50
3. Pz. Div. (SS) - 3. SS - 3. Div.	5/50
4. Pz. Div. (SS) - 4. SS - 4. Div.	5/50
5. Pz. Div. (SS) - 5. SS - 5. Div.	5/50
6. Pz. Div. (SS) - 6. SS - 6. Div.	5/50
7. Pz. Div. (SS) - 7. SS - 7. Div.	5/50
8. Pz. Div. (SS) - 8. SS - 8. Div.	5/50
9. Pz. Div. (SS) - 9. SS - 9. Div.	5/50
10. Pz. Div. (SS) - 10. SS - 10. Div.	5/50
11. Pz. Div. (SS) - 11. SS - 11. Div.	5/50
12. Pz. Div. (SS) - 12. SS - 12. Div.	5/50
13. Pz. Div. (SS) - 13. SS - 13. Div.	5/50
14. Pz. Div. (SS) - 14. SS - 14. Div.	5/50
15. Pz. Div. (SS) - 15. SS - 15. Div.	5/50
16. Pz. Div. (SS) - 16. SS - 16. Div.	5/50
17. Pz. Div. (SS) - 17. SS - 17. Div.	5/50
18. Pz. Div. (SS) - 18. SS - 18. Div.	5/50
19. Pz. Div. (SS) - 19. SS - 19. Div.	5/50
20. Pz. Div. (SS) - 20. SS - 20. Div.	5/50

Gen. Stroop's report: SS order of battle.

ing Jew in a stolen SS uniform strolled out the front door and approached the Nazis. After convincing them he was a fearless German who had earlier entered the building alone to scout it, the resistance fighter lured the Nazis inside after telling them the JMO had fled. As a platoon of the enemy followed their bogus guide, the hidden Jews opened fire, killing a dozen SS and hounding the survivors. Stroop handpicked a second unit to take the stronghold, but the highly decorated lieutenant who led the charge, Otto Dehmke, was killed at the beginning of the attack when he held onto a primed grenade too long. Unnerved and leaderless, his men fell back.

Resuming his scorched earth tactics, Stroop had his men fire the neighborhood around the JMO headquarters. Soon the afternoon was filled with the screams of people trapped in the conflagration. Many jumped from upper floors rather than burn. Others threw down mattresses first in hope of softening their landings. Those who did survive the fall were immediately shot by the Nazis. Many shot themselves or gulped poison, while others tried too hard to find exits and were surrounded by flames. Slowly but surely, Stroop was grinding down the resistance.

Using sound-detecting equipment and dogs, the Nazis hunted the remaining insurgents. The few who were still hale were taken for deportation, while those too badly burned or otherwise injured were shot or beaten to death with rifle butts.

Anielwicz and his surviving men used the enemy's preoccupation with committing atrocities to duck unnoticed into a cavernous bunker excavated by smugglers before the war. After settling into the well-equipped robbers' den, Anielwicz sent word to Zuckerman, pleading for more weapons and ammunition. Despair of receiving substantial support from the Polish underground, Zuckerman began circulating a flyer throughout Warsaw and its environs. It urged all locals to actively aid the rebellion. A copy of the call to arms fell into Stroop's hands just after he received a cable from Himmler, castigating him for not having already crushed the rebellion.

Stroop issued draconian decrees forbidding Warsaw's populace from entering the ghetto or assisting Jews by any means. To make an example, he had an entire Christian family shot for hiding a Jewish child. He called on the *Luftwaffe* to bomb sections of the ghetto suspected of still containing insurgents, and at that point the Home Army finally began attacking SS patrols and providing the Jews with arms. Non-Jewish civilians also started donating whatever they could to abet the valiant resistance.

By now, the Nazi attacks had succeeded in disrupting the rebels' lines of command and communication. Anielwicz could not coordinate his surviving units. Stroop decided it was safe enough to have his men launch another attack. The SS general intended to burn all but a narrow strip of territory in the central ghetto,



Himmler's man: Gen. Stroop (third from left) views the burning Warsaw ghetto.

forcing survivors into the slender corridor. By 24 April, 2,500 people had been captured via that tactic, and the rail depot was again swamped, so Stroop's first order of the day on that Easter morning was for his men to force captives into the courtyard of Pawiak Prison and shoot them in groups. He also decided the collaborationist Jewish police had outlived their usefulness. Many among those officers had become wealthy by taking bribes from Jews who had no choice but to trust in their empty promises of safe passage out of the city. The Jewish police were jarred back to merciless reality when they too were lined up in the penitentiary's plaza and shot in the back.

Later that day, two JMO operatives dressed in SS garb sauntered into a German supply depot and opened fire. A great deal of confusion developed as Nazis running to the fray could not tell foe from friend. As the Germans blazed away at each other, the Jews grabbed as many gun and ammunition crates as they could carry and bolted back to the ghetto. Despite the bravado, however, the resistance was slowly but surely being crushed.

Final Curtain

At month's end Anielwicz had a letter smuggled from his bunker for delivery to the Polish government-in-exile in London. It outlined the ongoing genocide and sundry Nazi barbarism, and called on the Western powers to do all in their ability to cripple Germany before European Jewry ran out of time. The missive did not reach England until a full month after the ghetto uprising's end.

Anielwicz realized the game was finished and decided to go out in a blaze of glory. On 1 May his band attacked a Nazi patrol amid the rubble. The guerillas chased off the astounded Nazis and it appeared the Jews were still fighting after all.

The incident renewed Stroop's dread. He hurried to the ghetto's main gate to personally oversee the round up of one of the last groups to be taken for deportation. Suddenly a young rebel jerked out a revolver and pumped three fatal rounds into an SS officer. Stroop joined in the instant fusillade that tore into the young man.

That afternoon the SS tortured a child into revealing the entrance to Anielwicz's last bunker. Over the next two days the Nazis used bullets, bombs and gas to slay most of its occupants. The fighting had simmered down to sniping from a few die-hard holdouts, and to the escapes of a few survivors, most of whom were shot as they emerged from the sewers through which they had fled. By that time the Home Army was ardently assisting the Jews, but it could not penetrate the German defense cordons well, another example of too little, too late.

On 5 May, Stroop's top aides informed him approximately 45,000 Jews had been killed or captured during the uprising. About 300 German troops had been killed and another 1,000 wounded in suppressing the uprising. Unknown to the Germans, Anielwicz had survived the assault on his bunker at 18 Mila Street and was still alive in its reeking depths. On the 9th the Nazis returned and, to play it safe, pumped the cellar full of gas and wiped out the few pathetic survivors, including Anielwicz. The Germans then dynamited the bunker.

Stroop recorded armed resistance as late as 10 May, but the rebellion was over. Over the next few days tiny knots of Jews trickled out of the ghetto and into the forests bordering Warsaw in hope of joining the Home Army. An uneasy quiet descended on the ghetto's charred, smoking ruins, but it was shattered on the 16th when Stroop had the huge Warsaw synagogue blown to bits. That evening he sent a cable to Himmler: "The former Jewish quarter of Warsaw no longer exists."

Jurgen Stroop was awarded the Iron Cross First Class for his actions against the Warsaw Jews, and was promoted to command all SS forces in Greece. After the war he was returned to Warsaw and tried for war crimes. He was hanged 16 March 1952. Zuckerman escaped the ghetto and went on to fight alongside the Polish underground and participated in the general uprising of the city of Warsaw in August 1944. He would survive the war and later settled in the new state of Israel, where he kept alive the spirit of the ghetto fighters.



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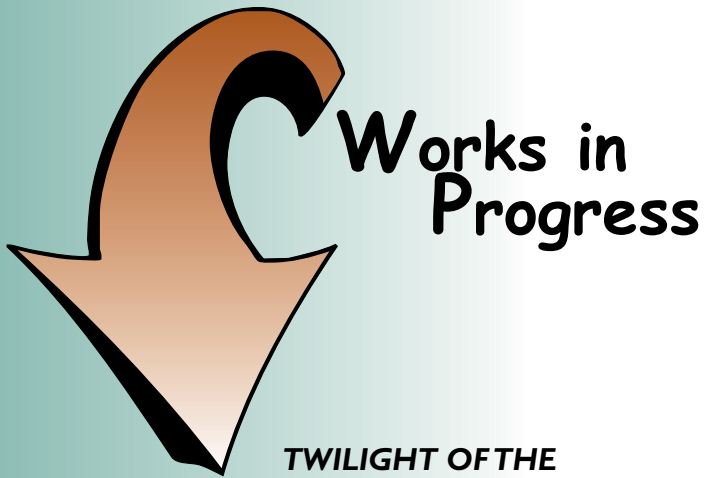
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TWILIGHT OF THE OTTOMANS

The Middle East in World War I had lots of mobility and color, in stark contrast to the western front. The Turks' mad dash toward the Suez Canal in 1915, the futile heroism of Gallipoli, the British push toward Baghdad which initially met with disaster at Kut and then finally won through, and the often forgotten fighting in the Caucasus. Then there were the colorful personalities, such as worthies as Lawrence of Arabia, Gen. Allenby, Grand Duke Nicholas (an under-appreciated commander), and Wassmuss of Tangistan. At stake was the fate of the once mighty Ottoman Empire, along with control of the Middle East, with all the implications that still has today.

The game map stretches from Egypt to the Caspian Sea, Adrianople to the Persian Gulf. Game turns are quarterly. The Ottoman player controls Turkish, German and Austro-Hungarian forces; the Allied player commands the British, French, Russians and Persians. Units are corps with divisional breakdowns. There are also numerous specialist units: armored car brigades, air wings, armored trains, camel corps, the German *Asien Korps*, Bolsheviks and others.

Each player starts a scenario with a designated number of victory points (VP). He can trade those VP for reinforcements. The idea is each player has a choice as to how much the powers he controls can commit to the war. For the Allies, that means diverting troops

from the European front. For the Ottomans, mobilizing more units means straining the antiquated Turkish state. You gain VP at the end of each turn for holding strategic objectives because that measures your progress in the war as it's taking place. For example, the Allied capture of Baghdad and Jerusalem in 1917 gave them a considerable morale boost. If the Turks could have seized the oil in southwest Persia, they would have put a dent into Allied war-making capabilities. It also gives players a reason to hold on to objectives as long as possible.

The game is basically corps-level. Divisions are there mainly as a form of step reduction, to garrison the many objectives on the map, and to cover a flank or two. Players can also build expeditionary corps with enhanced offensive strength and mobility. Expeditionary units also reflect the effects of a few superior lower-level leaders, such as Kemal Ataturk and Gen. Yudenich.

Different movement rates represent a range of command-control and logistical issues. The British are a little faster because of the higher degree of motorization in their army. Interestingly, the Germans also made some attempts to motorize the formations they sent to this front.

Airpower was coming into its own during this period, so there are aerial units. Naval bombardment and amphibious invasions were also a critical part of the campaign, so they're also present. An important design decision was to make all the support units function in the same way: air, gunfire and headquarters provide extra combat factors to units within range. That minimized the rules length and streamlined the system.

Logistics were a critical part of the campaign, largely because they were poor to abysmal on both sides. So supply units, and logistical support of various game functions, are critical. You can see with a quick look at the game map the Ottoman rail net is inadequate. The Turks have several inconvenient gaps in their net, making it difficult to move forward troops and supply units. For the Allies, the situation isn't much better. The British had to build up Basrah as a port before they could move up the Tigris-Euphrates. Pushing a

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rail line across the Sinai was a major engineering feat. The Russians also made prodigious efforts in their rail communications. Indeed, the Russians were successful in the Caucasus because they paid attention to logistics.

Supply units can double the attack and movement factors of friendly units. But they may not move in their turn of expenditure, as that represents the time needed to build depots, emplace artillery, and all the other preparations for Great War major offensives. So players will have to prepare a turn ahead of time for each "Big Push."

Both sides can mobilize assorted rebels. They represent not only uprisings, but also an array of irregular forces. Both sides made considerable use of guerrillas, propaganda and subversive means of warfare. You can make psychological warfare attacks to force an uprising in the enemy's rear areas, and bring in such leaders as T.E. Lawrence.

Game turns are quarterly because of the way campaigns were actually fought. Usually there was a period of logistical buildup, then two or three big battles, followed by one side falling back (sometimes routing) or counterattacking. Then the front would consolidate along the new line. Still, it was possible to do something decisive if commanders and troops were prepared. The Persian front was wide open, and in play-testing both sides scramble for Persia from the Gulf to the Caspian. The British even get the *Dunsterforce* mechanized brigade for a mad dash in 1918 to grab the Caucasian oilfields.

The random event rule allows for the introduction of a range of political and military factors that would otherwise require extra rules. Some of the events are critical to the game, such as "Russian Revolution." It can happen, in two phases, any time between 1916 and 1918 (or never), so players have to always think about the potential for chaos on that front.

The Great War in the Middle East did much to shape today's conflicts in that part of the world; this way you can get in on it from the beginning.

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UPDATE: France's Global Reach

By William E. Welsh



Gazelle helicopters armed with HOT missiles on patrol.

France will continue to have a strong say in global affairs in the 21st century, thanks in large part to its armed forces. France is a permanent member of the UN Security Council and is one of the few nations in the world whose armed forces have the versatility to project substantial power to remote corners of the globe by land, air and sea. The French armed forces can deploy globally due to the large number of forward bases they maintain in Africa. Some of those bases are strategically located on the western approaches of the Middle East. In addition, the French arms industry continues to manufacture first-class weapons systems for all three branches of its military, as well as for export.

By far the most important development for the French armed forces in the past decade has been the decision made by President Jacques Chirac in February 1996 to switch from conscription to a volunteer army. Military conscription officially ended in France in November 2001, and French defense officials report having encountered little or no problems attracting good recruits during the restructuring period. The French army also switched from a divisional to a brigade structure to allow for rapid response and quick deployment to global hot spots.

As of July 2004, France has 238,000 active military members: 132,000 serving in the army, 42,000 in the navy, and 64,000 in the air force. The annual military budget is \$32.4 billion Euros (\$39 billion US dollars).

Of the roughly 34,000 French troops currently deployed overseas, nearly a third of them are located in the following hot spots:

- Ivory Coast – 4,300
- Kosovo – 2,650
- Afghanistan – 1,500
- Chad – 1,000
- Bosnia-Herzegovina – 550
- Central African Republic – 200
- Other – 650 military and police observers in the places listed above as well as Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea-Ethiopia, Georgia, Israel, Lebanon, Liberia, Macedonia, Sinai, and Western Sahara.

France also has about 7,000 ground troops in the Caribbean and 10,000 more in the Southern Indian and Pacific regions. More than 5,000 troops are based in African nations such as Djibouti, Gabon and Senegal under bilateral agreements.

As for the French Navy, its warships perform routine patrol in the Gulf of Aden and the Gulf of Oman. They monitor commercial sea lanes, interdict suspicious vessels and escort friendly shipping. French naval forces are also stationed in the Caribbean as well as the Indian and Pacific Oceans.

Primary Weapons Systems

The French Army's main punch comes from its *Leclerc* battle tank. The *Leclerc* entered operational service in 1992. It is armed with a 120 mm smooth-bore cannon, a 12.7 mm coaxial machinegun, and a 7.62 mm anti-aircraft gun. It has a top speed of 44 miles per hour.

Though similar in many ways to the main battle tanks of other Western powers, the *Leclerc* has a crew of three instead of four. The smaller crew is achieved by the tank having an automatic loader. The loader contains 22 rounds and the crew can select from among five different types of ammunition.

The *Roland* provides short-range air defense by firing missiles which are effective against low to medium altitude threats. It is mounted on chassis similar to that of the AMX-30 MBT, the *Leclerc*'s predecessor.

The 40,000-ton, nuclear-powered aircraft carrier *Charles de Gaulle* is perhaps the most controversial of France's new weapons systems. The nation's only carrier, the *de Gaulle* replaced the conventionally powered *Foch*, which was sold to Brazil. The *Charles de Gaulle* can handle up to 40 aircraft, including the new *Rafale* attack aircraft, the older *Super Etendard*, and the US-built E-2C *Hawkeye* airborne early warning aircraft.

The carrier initially was scheduled to enter service in the year 2000, but its propeller blade broke during long-distance trials, delaying its operational deployment until 2001. What's more, French engineers had to extend the landing deck to accommodate the take-off and landing of the E-2Cs.

Critics charge the nuclear carrier is slower than the conventional carrier it replaced, contains poorly designed nuclear reactors, and has a number of faulty electronic systems. To support their charges, they note the French have decided to forego building another carrier by themselves, opting instead to team with the British on the project.

The *Rafale* is a twin-jet combat aircraft capable of carrying out both short and long range missions that include ground and sea attack, air defense, air superiority, reconnaissance, high-accuracy strike and nuclear strike deterrence. The *Rafale M*, the version designed for carrier-based operations, can handle payloads in excess of nine tons on its 13 hard points. In the 1990s, the French Navy purchased two E-2Cs from Northrop Grumman Corporation, which now operate from the *de Gaulle*. For land-based air support, the French continue to rely on the *Mirage* fighter.

French Armed Forces, 2005

Army

- Regional HQs x 5
- Task Force HQs x 4
- Armored Brigades x2
- Mechanized Infantry Brigades x2
- Light Armored Brigades x 2
- Mountain Infantry Brigade x 1
- Airborne Brigade x 1
- Airmobile Brigade x 1
- Foreign Legion: 1 x armored, 1 x parachute, 6 x infantry, 2 x engineer regiments
- Marines: 21 x regiments
- Special operations command
- Combined French-German brigade
- MBT: c. 610 tanks
- Artillery: c. 800 guns
- Helicopters: c. 420

Navy

- Aircraft Carriers x 1
- Helicopter Carriers x 1
- Destroyers x 12
- Frigates x 20
- Submarines x 10
- Amphibious Ships x 9
- 58 naval aircraft, 30 naval helicopter gunships
- Marine commandos and fusiliers

Air Force

- Fighter Squadrons x 5 (Mirage 2000)
- Fighter-Ground Attack Squadrons x 6 (Mirage, Jaguar)
- Recon Squadrons x 2 (Mirage F1)
- Electronic Warfare Squadrons x 2 (C-160, DC-8)
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Leclerc tank on maneuvers.



The goal of the French Defense Ministry is to have the following strength levels for its armed forces by 2015:

- Army – 136,000 soldiers in 85 regiments (reinforced battalions) divided into 15 brigades equipped with 420 *Leclerc* main battle tanks, 350 light armored tanks and 180 helicopters.
- Navy – 45,500 sailors, 81 ships, and two aircraft carriers.
- Air Force – 63,000 airmen, 300 *Rafales*, 52 transport aircraft and 84 helicopters.

From Kosovo to Afghanistan

After three decades of distancing itself from the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the French government agreed to go to war alongside NATO to stop Serbian “ethnic cleansing” of Albanians residing in Kosovo in 1999. All three branches of France’s armed forces contributed to Operation Allied Force, the 78-day NATO campaign against Serbia.

The French sent 2,400 ground troops to Macedonia, ordered the aircraft carrier *Foch* to the Adriatic Sea, and instructed the air force’s strike aircraft to participate in the allied bombing campaign. France had the second largest air contingent in Operation Allied Force, with nearly 100 planes participating in round-the-clock strike missions. *Mirage* and *Jaguar* fighter-bombers flew from Istrana in northern Italy, while *Super Etendards* launched from the *Foch*. The French aircraft carried a variety of munitions, including the 1,000kg laser-guided bombs, 500lb GBU-12s and 1,000lb GBU-16s. In addition, French Navy aircraft used AS-10 laser-guided missiles to hit hard targets.

By the end of the bombing campaign, 10 June 1999, French pilots had flown 563 (7.5 percent) of NATO’s 7,454 strike sorties. The pilots were frequently frustrated in their attempt to bomb Serbian targets by shortcomings in a number of areas such as suppression of enemy air defenses, air-to-air refueling, offensive jamming capabilities, and air and satellite reconnaissance.

The French military fought alongside United States armed forces in Afghanistan against the Taliban and Al Qaeda. From 23 October 2001 to 30 September 2002, French aircraft flew numerous reconnaissance and strike missions in Afghanistan during the US Operation Anaconda. Strike aircraft operated from Tajikistan as well as from *Charles de Gaulle* on station in the Indian Ocean. During that period, French *Mirage 2000D* and *Super Etendard* destroyed 33 targets linked to either the Taliban or Al Qaeda.

Meanwhile, a reinforced company of French infantry secured Mazar-e-Sharif while US engineers repaired the town’s airfield. At its peak, the French army had about 5,500 troops on the ground in Afghanistan. Currently, French troops are helping secure the airport at Kabul as part of the International Security Assistance Force. In addition, French special forces are involved in operations against Taliban holdouts in southern Afghanistan.

African Affairs

The French are not comfortable playing second fiddle to other world powers when it comes to their former African colonies, where they continue to hold considerable political sway. The largest contingent of French troops in Africa are stationed in the Ivory Coast. More than 4,300 French troops, together with 6,000 UN peacekeepers, are deployed along a cease-fire line that divides the country. That line separates the government of President Laurent Gbagbo in the south from two rebel armies, the Patriotic Movement of Ivory Coast and the Movement for Peace in the north. The Ivory Coast, was plunged into civil war in September 2002, when the rebel armies launched a failed coup attempt. Since then, the rebels have repeatedly attacked French forces with small arms and mortar fire.

In the heart of the continent, France attempted to stabilize a deteriorating situation in the Democratic Republic of Congo by committing 1,000 of its troops to head an Interim Emergency Multinational Force for 90 days, beginning in July 2003. The latest chapter in that troubled African nation’s history stems from fight-

ing among the Lendu militia, backed by the Congo government, and Hema militia, supported from neighboring Uganda and Rwanda. The latter two countries want to control the Congo's gold, oil and timber. The interim force consisted of mechanized units and was supported by Mirage aircraft.

France intervened in Chad in August of 2004, deploying 200 of its 1,000 troops based in the country to border regions to ensure the protection of refugees from Sudan's Darfur province, and to prevent possible incursions by Sudan's Janjaweed militia. The French routinely ferry supplies by airlift to about a dozen refugee camps inside Chad where nearly a half million refugees from Darfur are now living. French forces operate from airstrips in the capital city of N'djamena as well as Abeche on the Sudanese border. Mirage aircraft at N'djamena have the capability to enforce a no-fly zone over Darfur should Chad decide to exercise such an option with the backing of the United Nations.

Meanwhile, 200 French troops are helping to maintain civil order in the Central African Republic, a country racked by nine coups or coups attempts since gaining its independence almost a half century ago.

The Congo is the only one of these four countries that is not a former French colony. The other three declared their independence from France in 1960. As with many former French colonies, the party in power appears as eager to continue close relations with its former rulers as does Paris in keeping a close watch on its economic and political interests.



Sources: Army Magazine, Center for Defense Information, CNN, TheFree Dictionary.com, Jane's International Defense Review, Embassy of France in the United States, French Ministry of Defense, International Herald-Tribune, The Military Balance, Naval Technology: The Website for Defence Industries, New York Times, Regional Headquarters Allied Forces Southern Europe, StrategyWorld.com, U.S. Department of State, The Washington Post, World Socialist Web Site.



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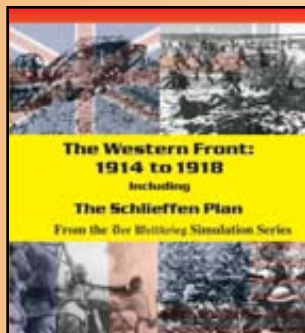
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May 1915: 1st Isonzo

The first battles along the Isonzo are a futile foreshadowing of what is to come.

May 1916: Strafexpedition

The Chief of Staff of the Austro-Hungarian army, Conrad von Hotzendorff, feels the time is right to strike a blow against Italy. He ignores the advice of German Chief of staff von Falkenhayn, who sees the main threat coming from the Russian front.

The Italians in the southern Tyrol have neglected their rear area defenses. That, and the fury of the Austro-Hungarian attack, puts the Italian army in peril. Cadorna, its commanding general, rushes reinforcements to the front. It is a dicey affair, but the Italian lines hold; the threat along the Isonzo is checked.

May 1917: 10th Isonzo

In endless offensives, valiant Italian infantry go over the top and into the maelstrom of the Isonzo. Each battle differs from the last only by its increasing intensity and skyrocketing casualty list. In the end, both armies are exhausted. The Italians have become weary of the war, but the Austrians believe one more effort on the Isonzo can break through.

October 1917: Caporetto

When the Central Powers strike, they break through the Italian lines along the headwaters of the Isonzo. German and Austrian units pour through the mountain passes and into the Italian rear areas. Caporetto is an overwhelming victory for Germany and Austria; but Italy is not fully defeated, and her citizens rally.

June 1918: Albrecht & Radetzky

Conrad's attacks across the Piave are initially successful, but his divisions then bog down. The Austrians are unable to push their bridgeheads far enough forward to keep their pontoon bridges out of range of Italian artillery. Unable to reinforce their spearheads or maintain viable supply lines, the Austro-Hungarian armies fall back, awaiting the inevitable Italian counterattack.

Components: one 22" x 34" mapsheet, 560 die-cut counters, standard and scenario books, player aid cards.

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Calculated Risk: Hostage Rescue at Kolwezi

by Gary Romano



Kolwezi, 1978: 2nd REP prepares for the drop to rescue the hostages.

In May 1978, 2,000 Katangan “Tiger” rebels infiltrated the Zairian border with Angola. That initial move would set off a series of events starting as a minor regional fight but soon became an international crisis and, in the end, required intervention by western forces in the heart of Africa.

Katanga was a province of Zaire (the former Belgian Congo) with a history of insurrection against the central government. The intent of the Tigers in 1978 was to succeed where they had failed in 1960. Then, the Katangans exploited the confusion surrounding the Congolese declaration of independence to form their own break-away state. Katanga contained much of the Congo’s mineral wealth and so its independence would have crippled the country. The Congolese government defeated the rebels and garrisoned the province with the army to prevent further uprisings.

The rebels fled to Angola where they fought as mercenaries, first for the Portuguese and later the *Marxist Movimento Popular Libertação de Angola* (MPLA). The Katangans sided with the MPLA not

out of any ideological predilection for Marxism but rather for practical political reasons. Zaire (as the Congo had renamed itself in 1971) supported one of the insurgent groups fighting against the MPLA, the *Frente Nacional de Libertação de Angola* (FNLA). When the MPLA took control of Angola in 1975 they rewarded their Katangan supporters by providing them with modern arms. There was also training from the communist block advisors who supported the MPLA. The stage was being set for the Katangan resurgence.

The Tigers Strike

At dawn on 13 May 1978, the Tigers launched the first major attack of their new campaign. The target was the city of Kolwezi which was important for the Zairian economy. It was a major rail center, was the center for significant mining operations, and was a regional agricultural trading center. The well-trained and well-organized Tigers quickly defeated the local government garrison and captured weapons and supplies. Among the booty was five armored cars.

Following their victory at Kolwezi, the Tiger's went on a rampage of pillage. They looted property and assaulted civilians, setting up kangaroo courts to try alleged Zairian government collaborators. The majority of these crimes were perpetrated against the Zairians, but the Tigers also attacked the 2,500 Europeans who were involved in Kolwezi's mining operations—and this brought the raid into the international arena.

Responding to the challenge, the Zairian government launched a counter-attack on the morning of 16 May. The Zairian Army's 311th Parachute Battalion attempted an airborne landing, but the Tigers shot them before they hit the ground. By nightfall, the fighting was over as small bands of paratroopers escaped into the jungle.

With its counterattack stymied, the Zairian government appealed to the international community. It received positive responses from Belgium, France and the United States. The western decision to support Zaire was not easy, but tempered by Cold War geopolitics. There was some fear that the Tigers were proxies in an Eastern-block invasion of mineral-rich Zaire. But there were also some sympathy for the Tigers who were perceived as having a right to pursue independence from the regime of Zaire's President Mobutu that had a reputation for extraordinary brutality.

Zaire's former colonial ruler, Belgium, initially took the lead by sending airborne commandos to the country. However, the Belgians were not there to fight as much as to make a show of force. Brussels hoped that the mere presence of the paratroopers would force the Tigers to the bargaining table. In Washington, President Jimmy Carter alerted the 82nd Airborne for possible deployment to Africa.

While the Belgians waited for negotiations to commence, Zairian military intelligence intercepted a radio communication between the Tigers in Kolwezi and their counterparts in Angola. The rebels were instructed to kill hostages they had taken and force Kolwezi's remaining civilian population to return with them to Angola. Based on this intelligence, France and the US decided to directly intervene.

The Legion Paras

On the evening of 18 May French forces, with the support of the US, launched Operation *Léopard*. France's 2^{me} Régiment Etranger Parachutiste (2nd REP, the 2nd Foreign Legion Airborne Regiment), led by Lt. Col. Philippe Erulin, was selected to liberate Kolwezi. That unit, formed after World War II, fought in the First Indochina War where, among other things, it made an airborne assault into the besieged base at Dien Bien Phu. Later, the 2nd REP was sent to Algeria to fight in the counterinsurgency. Subsequently, the 2nd REP saw action in Chad and Djibouti.



Col. Erulin directs operations in Kolwezi.

With US air transports flying them to Zaire, the 2nd REP was prepared to air drop into Kolwezi on the afternoon of 19 May. When Lt. Col. Erulin reached Zaire, half of his headquarters company and three companies of airborne infantry accompanied him. The remainder of the regiment was still in transit. Rather than waiting and possibly risking the Tigers executing the hostages, Erulin decided to attack. He quickly developed a two-wave attack plan. Part of the headquarters and Companies 1, 2 and 3 formed the first wave. The second wave would have the balance of his headquarters plus the 4th Company and the mortar and reconnaissance platoons as they arrived.

The first wave's landing zone (LZ), designated Alpha, was an open field on the north side of the Old Town, over-grown with elephant grass and termite hills. As the paratroopers hit the ground, they came under small arms fire. But the shock effect of the surprise airborne landing forced back the Tigers. By the time the rebels had recovered, the Legionnaires had consolidated their position and easily pushed their war foreword from the LZ. The 2nd REP now proceeded into Kolwezi's Old Town.

Moving quickly, 1st Company reached Kolwezi's school without encountering enemy fire. The company observed numerous corpses in the streets, evidence of the Tiger's actions. In response to the

French advance, the Tigers fled, leaving behind 100 former hostages. The liberated civilians informed the Legionnaires of the location of the Tiger's headquarters in the nearby convent of Notre Dame de Lumière. Proceeding with caution, the Legionnaires secured the convent. Again, the Tigers retreated before contact, leaving behind maps and plans detailing their Zairian operation.

Meanwhile, 2nd Company was ambushed during their advance to Kolwezi's hospital, but they quickly repelled the rebels. The hospital was secured, though the Tigers had already destroyed the majority of its medical equipment. The Legionnaires moved to the Gecamines mining company where they found trucks that would be used for transport.

Three rebel machinegun teams opened fire on 3rd Company as it approached the railway station. But Legionnaires quickly disposed of them then split up to assault individual objectives. A squad from 2nd Platoon moved to seize a railway bridge in the center of the city. On the way they were confronted by two of the armored cars the rebels had captured when they first took Kolwezi. The French destroyed both with anti-tank weapons. The 1st Platoon made it to the Hotel Impala without significant resistance only to find a charnel house waiting for them: the hostages housed there had been executed by the rebels. Next, 2nd Platoon outflanked and eliminated rebels holed up in the city's technical school, freeing 30 hostages in the process. Then 3rd Platoon stormed police headquarters, freeing 35 hostages and killing their captors.

Transport problems further delayed the deployment of 2nd REP's follow-on force. As evening approached, Erulin opted to hold with the force already on the ground rather than risking a night drop of his second wave. Throughout the night, isolated bands of rebels attacked the French positions without success.

Second Show

At dawn, Erulin's second wave landed. The 4th Company was dropped at DZ Bravo, an area to the east of the New Town. The remainder of his headquarters unit as well as the mortar and reconnaissance platoons landed at LZ Alpha. 4th Company moved out to secure the former Zairian army headquarters compound where they found 40 dead hostages. The remainder of the 2nd REP spent the morning of 20 May in street fighting. By mid-day the French had cleared the city and the Legion paratroopers were pursuing the fleeing rebels.

They met little resistance, with one exception. 4th Company, sent to secure the nearby town of Metal Shaba, ran into a company-sized ambush. As the Tigers opened fire, a platoon sergeant was killed and two other paratroopers wounded. The Legionnaires were pinned down and called in support. Using trucks commandeered from the Gecamines mining compa-



An MPLA soldier pauses for the camera.

ny, 2nd REP sent a section of 81mm mortars forward and opened fire. In return, the Tigers reinforced the ambush with more infantry and two light tanks. The rebels were finally routed after 4th Platoon's anti-tank weapons destroyed both tanks.

Meanwhile, Belgian paratroopers landed at the airport outside the city and began to coordinate the evacuation of the recently liberated European hostages. 2nd REP continued to patrol around the vicinity of Kolwezi until 27 May. The regiment fought a few more engagements with small bands of Tigers which fought delaying actions while the remainder of the rebels retreated towards Angola.

Following the Tiger's withdrawal, Angola negotiated a treaty with Zaire, and per the agreement, Luanda ceased supporting the rebels. Shattered and lacking support, the Katangan Tigers no longer posed a threat to Zaire.

Mission Accomplished

The fighting for Kolwezi in 1978 was shaped by three key factors: the training of the Katangan rebels, the Katangan's squandering time once they had seized the town, and the bold French strategy. The training the Tigers had received in Angola allowed them to

quickly defeat even the best of the Zairian army. This lesson was not lost on the Zairian military. Following the 1978 fighting, Zaire requested and received training from France and Belgium to improve the quality of their ground forces.

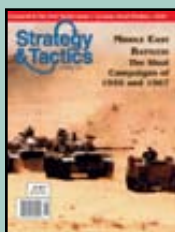
But despite their initial victory, the Tigers did little to capitalize on their position, either by press their attack deeper into Zaire or setting up a defense of Kolwezi itself. They did not entrench nor set up a very well organized defensive perimeter. Instead, they wasted their time attacking the civilian populace, alienating the people they were claiming to be liberating.

On the French side, 2nd REP attacking with no reserves and against multiple objectives, maximized momentum for shock effect. The Legionnaire's lack of back-up might have spelled disaster had the rebels been better coordinated. But by striking at many locations at once, the paratroopers overwhelmed the ability of the defenders to act. The 2nd REP demonstrated how to defeat a much larger foe possessing significant training and modern weaponry. The result was a minor but nonetheless significant victory against terrorism.



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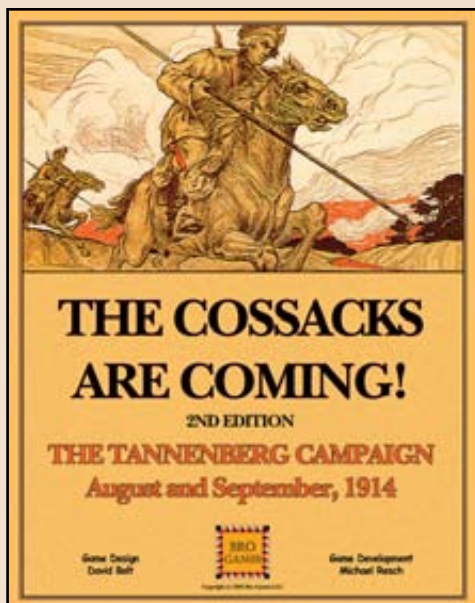
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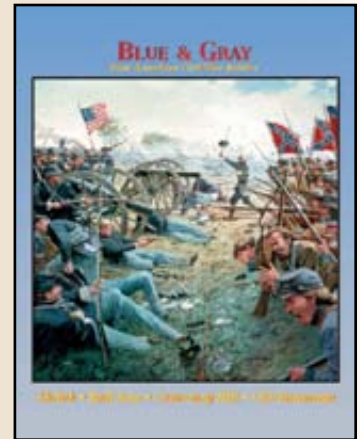
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Blue & Gray

Refight five of the crucial battles of the American Civil War: First Bull Run (new), Shiloh, Second Bull Run (new), Cemetery Hill, and Chickamauga. Brigades and divisions slug it out—brother against brother. Players maneuver the counters representing the infantry, cavalry and artillery units that actually fought at each battle. This updated edition of the SPI classic makes for an enjoyable set of games for an afternoon or evening of fun.

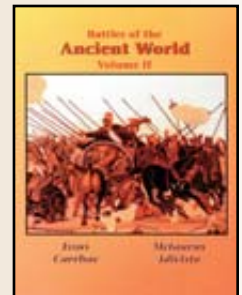
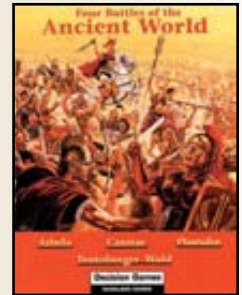
Components: 360 counters, 8-page rule book, (4) 22" x 17" maps, 1 die. **\$35.00**



Battles of the Ancient World, Complete set

Includes Volumes I, II & III A Total of 14 battles in one box!

Volume I has four decisive battles—Arbela, Cannae, Pharsalus and Teutoburger Wald—presented in easy, quick-playing wargames for each volume. The average playing time is 30 minutes to two hours. Each game utilizes short standard rules which are divided into introductory, basic and advanced to provide a span of simplicity and detail for every experience level. **Components:** 400 counters, (4) 17" x 22" mapsheets, rule book. **Volume Two** adds more battles to the popular *Ancient World* series. Scenarios include: Issus, Metaurus, Carrhae and Idivisto. **Components:** 8 page rulebooklet, 4 22" x 17" Maps, 420 die-cut counters. **Volume Three** rounds out this collection with the following scenarios: Megiddo, Qadesh, Lake Trasimene, Munda, Boudicca, and Adrianople. **Components:** 520 die-cut counters, three 22 x 34" mapsheets, rules/scenario booklet and player aid card. **\$69.95**



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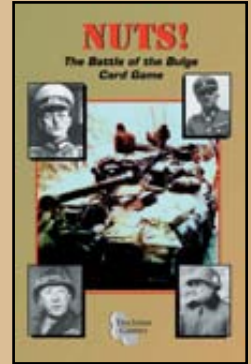


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An Evening of Fun!

NUTS!

NUTS!: The Battle of the Bulge is a card game for two, three, or four players. Each player has a hand of cards, from which he may play cards each turn, and a draw deck, from which he may bring new cards into his hand. The cards include combat units, events, and significant pieces of terrain. Combat units are rated for Infantry, Armor, and Artillery combat strengths, leg or mechanized movement, and cohesion. Events are the situations from the actual battle. Terrain cards represent the significant geography of the battle (e.g. Bastogne, Meuse River, and Ellsborne Ridge) that was used to speed or slow the Germans attack. **NUTS!** comes in two 150-card sets (North & South). Each set is complete and can be played on its own, or the two sets can be played together.

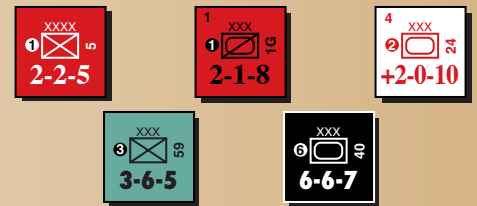


Components: Rulebook, 300 full color cards (North & South sets).

\$40.00

Operation Kremlin

Operation Kremlin, designed by Ty Bomba, uses the corps-army level units that were historically available for this campaign. The orders of battle are extrapolated from both sides' historic organizational charts of mid to late 1942. Each hex represents approximately 10 miles (16.2 kilometers) from side to side. Airpower is represented abstractly, representing the effects of one side or the other having local air superiority. Each full game turn represents one week. **Operation Kremlin** gives wargamers the opportunity to discover what would have happened had the Germans struck for Moscow in 1942.



Components: One 34 x 22 inch mapsheet, rulesbook, 176 die cut counters, storage bags and 1 die.

\$35.00

Beyond the Urals

Beyond the Urals is a two-player strategic-level simulation of a campaign that might-have-been in Russia during World War II. Each hexagon on the map represents approximately 20 miles (32.4 kilometers) from side to opposite side. The Soviet units are armies, while all German units are corps. Air power is represented abstractly, with two counters representing the effects of German tactical air superiority. Each full game turn represents one week.

Components: One 34 x 22 inch mapsheet, rulesbook, 176 die cut counters, storage bags and 1 die (ziplock).

\$25.00





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Another Classic Game from Decision Games

Wacht Am Rhein

The Battle of the Bulge,

16 Dec 44 – 2 Jan 45 (New Edition)

On 16 December 1944, Hitler's armies suddenly seemed to regain the insurmountable skill that brought them victory in the first years of the war. For months, Hitler had worked to reorganize and re-equip the beaten divisions streaming back toward Germany. A massive surprise counterattack — code-named "Wacht am Rhein" — against the weak Ardennes sector of the American front was prepared.

Wacht am Rhein, 2nd Edition, is a tactical simulation of that enormous battle. The 2,380 counters represent every formation, at company and battalion levels, which fought in both armies. Infantry, armor, anti-tank, recon, engineer, assault gun, howitzer, rocket, parachute, ranger, glider and headquarters are all included. The four maps are an accurate representation of the Ardennes. Compiled from 1944 German staff maps and the 1943-1944 1:50,000 US Army maps, they show primary and secondary roads, trails and other terrains in relation to their suitability for armor and infantry. Towns and villages, bastions of the American defense, as well as creeks and rivers, which can't be crossed by vehicles without a bridge, are accurately positioned.

Players use single maps for small scenarios, or fight a campaign game that utilizes all four maps and portrays all three weeks. In it, the Germans race attack in the face of ever-increasing concentrations of Allied infantry, armor and air power. Extensive supply, weather and air power rules are included.



WaR2 has undergone modification to its combat, artillery and supply subsystems to accurately depict tactical warfare. An exploitation mode has been created for mechanized units to take advantage of breakthroughs in the enemy line during the combat phase. That movement is mixed with the opponent's to recreate the fluidity that existed during the first week. Further changes include the addition of high-ground vantage points, which enable units to more effectively spot for artillery, as well as constricted terrain, which represents steep gullies and ravines.

The order of battle has also been revamped to provide an accurate depiction of the armies. Units are in the organizations within which they actually fought, not the administrative formations that were quickly discarded due to the demands of battle.

Contents: 4 22x34 inch maps, 2380 die-cut counters, rule booklet, scenario booklet, player aid cards, and dice.

\$150.⁰⁰

**ships as 4 items on ship chart.*



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