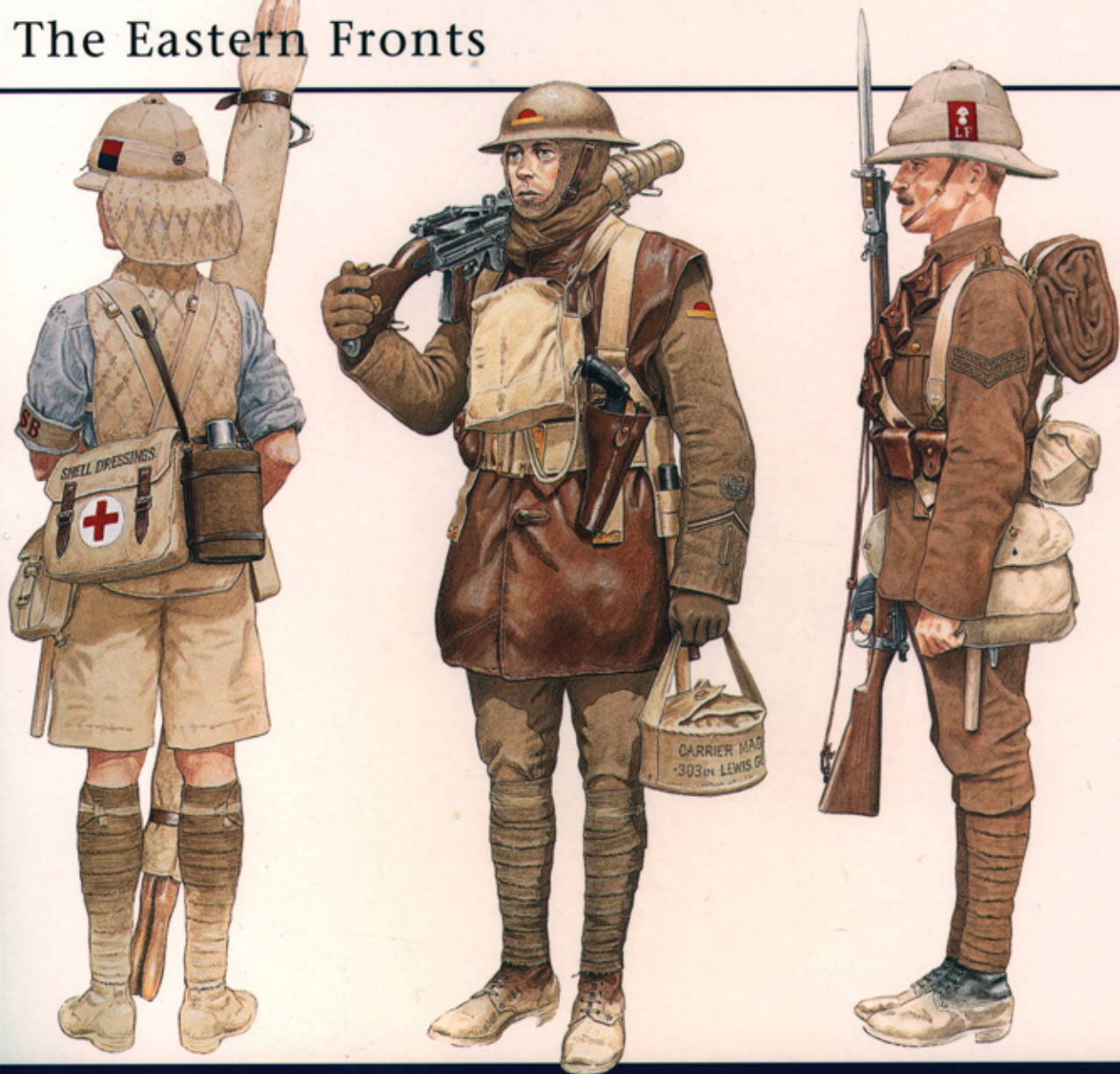


# The British Army in World War I (3)

The Eastern Fronts





**MIKE CHAPPELL** comes from an Aldershot family with British Army connections stretching back several generations. He enlisted as a teenage private in the Royal Hampshire Regiment in 1952. Over the next 22 years of infantry soldiering, many of them spent with the Gloucester Regiment, he held every rank and many regimental appointments up to WO1 and Regimental Sergeant Major. He retired in 1974, as RSM of the 1st Battalion The Wessex Regiment (Rifle Volunteers), after seeing service in Malaya, Cyprus, Swaziland, Libya, Germany, Ulster and home garrisons. He began painting military subjects in 1968 and has gained worldwide popularity as a military illustrator. Mike has written and illustrated many books for Osprey.

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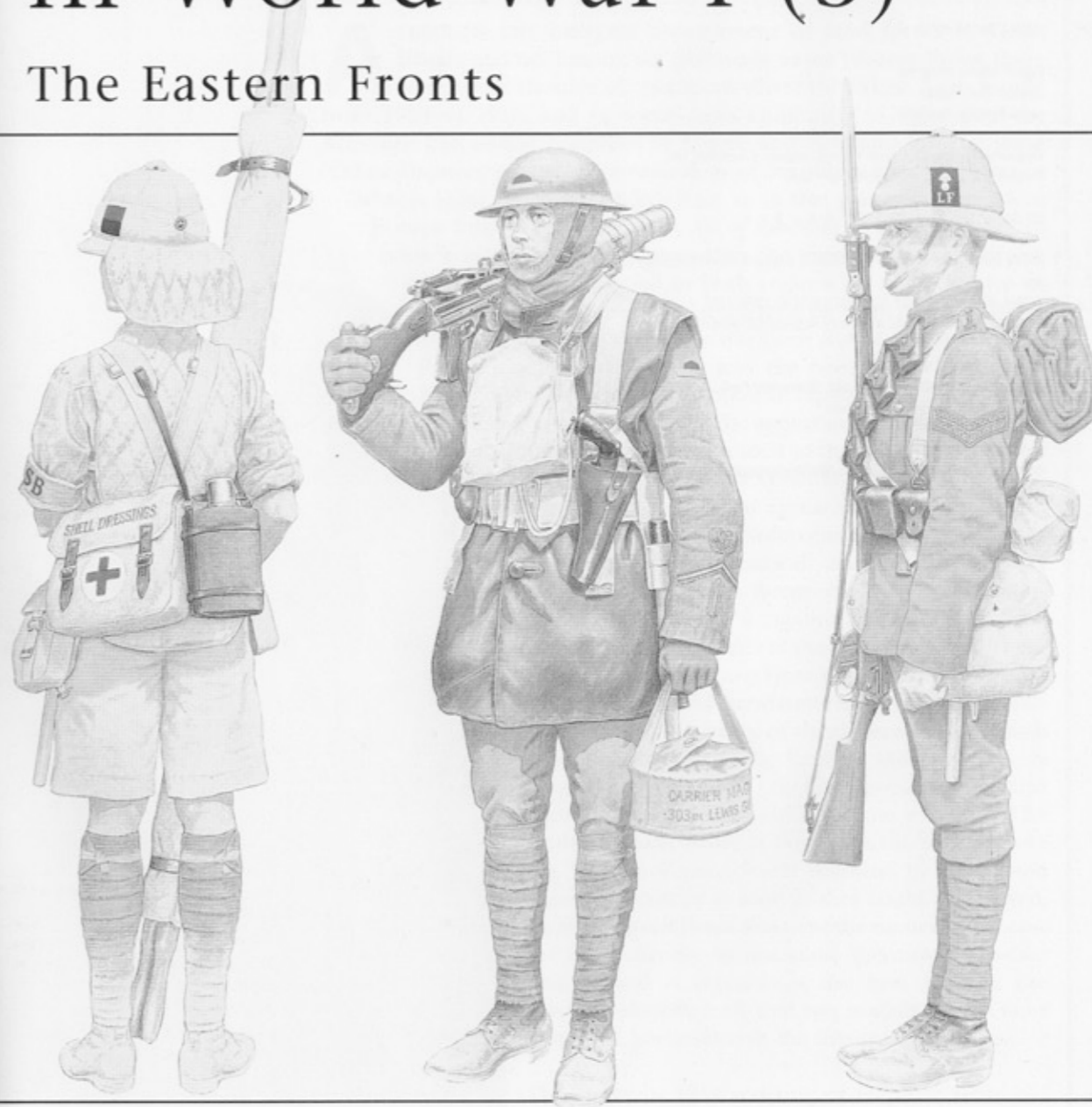
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# The British Army in World War I (3)

## The Eastern Fronts



Mike Chappell

Series editor Martin Windrow

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OPPOSITE The dress and equipment typical of the Territorial soldiers who went to India in 1914/15 to relieve Regular troops for other fronts. This drummer (bugler) of the 2/5th Battalion, Hampshire Regiment in 1915 has an obsolescent long Lee-Enfield rifle, although his equipment is the 1908 pattern webbing. Note his battalion's *topi* flash, a white '5' on a halved amber (left) and black patch. (Author's collection)

# THE BRITISH ARMY IN WORLD WAR I

## (3) THE EASTERN AND SOUTHERN FRONTS

### INTRODUCTION

ALTHOUGH THE GREATEST commitment of land forces by Great Britain and her Empire was that made to the Western Front, there were other theatres of operations where the British Army fought from 1914 to 1918, and in some cases continued to fight after the Armistice had ended hostilities in France and Belgium. Most of these 'Other Theatres' (to use the terminology of the official histories) were in what is today called the Middle East, or in that part of south-eastern Europe known as the Balkans. (It is sobering to note that as this book is being written, 90 years after the events described, British servicemen are deployed in both regions on active service or 'peace-keeping' duties.) But some were far from the main battle fronts, in places as diverse as northern Russia, Vladivostok on her Pacific coast, China, Africa, and the North-West Frontier of India. The purpose of this book is briefly to describe these campaigns, and to illustrate the appearance of British, Empire and Dominion troops committed to them.

Whereas the British Expeditionary Force on the Western Front remained to a great degree a truly British Army (with valuable reinforcement by the Canadian, Australian, New Zealand and South African divisions), the British forces which fought in other theatres were often a mixture of races from the dominions and colonies of the British Empire. These contingents were drawn from their peacetime armies (in truth, colonial gendarmeries), militias, or war-raised units; and many of them were led by British officers, who had to be familiar with their men's languages, religions, dietary peculiarities and customs before they could become effective. The British Regular Army at home was the first to go to the Western Front, closely followed by units from overseas garrisons as soon as they could be relieved. To the Western Front also went the modern weapons, the most effective ammunition, the most up-to-date aircraft and – arguably – the best leaders; the obsolete was often all that was available for 'Other Theatres', particularly in the first years of the war.

\* \* \*

The world in 1914 was one of empires: some old and in decline, such as Turkey's, and some relatively new, like Germany's. Early operations by the forces



of Great Britain and her allies (the Entente powers) involved the take-over of Germany's colonies in Africa and the Far East. Although a latecomer to the empire-building race Germany had, by 1914, acquired several sizeable tracts of east, west and south-west Africa, part of New Guinea, numerous Pacific island groups, and a leased concession in China – in all, 1 million square miles of territory and 14 million colonial subjects. All were rapidly seized by Allied military and naval forces, in the case of the Chinese concession with the assistance of the forces of the Empire of Japan. Only in German East Africa did the Entente come up against an effective defence – so effective that the local German forces led by Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck were still fighting after the Armistice in Europe.

Ottoman Turkey was courted by both the Central Powers and the Entente. Her decision to fight alongside Germany and Austria drew British forces to the defence of the Suez Canal, the oilfields of the Persian Gulf, and into two campaigns to knock the Turks out of the war.

Italy was also courted by both sides, deciding in 1915 to join the Allies. When it looked as if an Italian defeat at Austrian and German hands was imminent in 1917, a large British Army contingent went to her aid. British divisions were likewise sent to what became known as the Macedonian Front when danger threatened there.

By far the most ambitious campaign in the East was the attempt to force the passage of the Dardanelles in order to defeat the Turkish Empire, and to establish a direct route to southern Russia for the munitions and supplies that she so desperately needed. The operations on the Gallipoli peninsula were the brainchild of the 'Easterners', that group of politicians and military thinkers who believed that the war could not be won on the Western Front. Their scheme failed; the Turks fought on until late 1918, by which time Russia had collapsed into revolution and civil war.

Air-raid drill at the camp of an Indian Army unit in Mesopotamia, 1918. Sepoys run to the shelter trenches while a Lewis gun team search for an aerial target. (Author's collection)



### The Indian Army

In many of these campaigns formations of the Indian Army<sup>1</sup> were deployed, and it is important to remember the role played by British soldiers within them. Ever since the Great Mutiny of 1857, at least one battalion or regiment in each Indian Army brigade was British, as was most of the artillery that supported Indian Army formations. Since all the command and leadership in Indian units, down to and including companies, was exercised by British officers, it will be seen that

<sup>1</sup> See Elite 75, *The Indian Army 1914–45*

in any battles fought by the Indian Army a significant proportion of its soldiers were British.

On the outbreak of war British Territorial Force infantry and artillery units, mostly from the Wessex and Home Counties Divisions, were sent to India to relieve Regular Army units for service on the Western Front and later at Gallipoli.<sup>2</sup> In this way the main duty of the Indian Army – the maintenance of order within the sub-continent – continued to be performed despite the drawing off in 1914 of Indian Army formations for the Western Front and elsewhere. (The cold, muddy trenches of Flanders proved not to be the best environment in which to employ the sepoy, and they were mostly moved to the Middle East.)

Subsequent recruiting in India for the purposes of creating new units and providing reinforcements was poorly organized, and led to a certain dilution of standards in what had always been a long-service army formed from the 'martial races' of India with careful attention paid to segregation by race, religion and language. (Nevertheless, to a force with 2,300 British officers and 159,100 Indian officers and other ranks in 1914, the Indian Army added a total of 826,900 men recruited during the war.) The spectre of the 1857 mutiny was briefly resurrected when men of the 5th Indian Light Infantry ran amok in Singapore in February 1915, murdering some of their officers and a number of civilians. The mutineers were eventually court-martialled, and shot in a series of public mass executions. Poor leadership and German-inspired agitation were blamed for the conduct of the mutinous sepoy, who were unhappy with the prospect of fighting Turks – fellow Muslims. Similar breakdowns in discipline occurred among the Muslim sepoy of the 130th Baluchis at Bombay, and among Indian troops in the garrison of the Andaman Islands. However, those men of the 5th who remained loyal went on to serve in Africa without further cause for alarm. Despite these isolated incidents the system of underpinning with British troops worked: Indian Army formations usually fought well, and in the Great War there were no precedents for those occasions during the 1939–45 war when Indian prisoners-of-war turned their coats to fight alongside the Wehrmacht and the Japanese Army.

### Other armies of the Empire

The countries of the British Empire rallied to Britain's call in differing ways. There had been imperial defence conferences in the years before 1914, and these provided a framework for the mobilization of manpower. Nearly all the effort of Canada went to the Western Front. Australia and New Zealand formed an army corps, popularly known as the 'ANZACs', and transported them to Egypt, where they were to train before deployment to the Western Front. In the event they were used in the Gallipoli adventure before this happened, after which the cavalry elements of the corps were retained in Egypt for service there and in Palestine.<sup>3</sup>

The 'military' of the British colonies in Africa were in reality police forces. Raised and trained to keep the native populations in order, they were neither equipped nor prepared for war against a modern army. The difficulties encountered in East Africa soon pointed up the need for

<sup>2</sup> See MAA 245, *British Territorial Units 1914–18*

<sup>3</sup> See MAA 123, *The Canadian Army at War*, and MAA 164, *The Australian Army at War 1899–1975*

the non-European units which functioned best in that climate, and a programme of recruiting and training was put into action. This increased the strength of the King's African Rifles 15-fold, and drew in 400,000 natives to the labour service that provided the vital logistic support for the fighting columns.

In southern Africa the troops mobilized by the Union of South Africa were all white men. Africans were raised for labour duties, and 'Cape coloured' units saw service in German East Africa and Palestine. A similar policy was followed by Nyasaland and Rhodesia.

Elsewhere in the Empire militia, territorial and war-raised units were mobilized to allow the Regular garrisons to be sent on active service, and some of the former found their way to the war fronts. Some 7,000 Maltese labourers served at Gallipoli; 13,000 Cypriot muleteers served in Macedonia; the Hong Kong and Singapore Battery served in Egypt and Palestine; the Fijian Labour Corps served in Italy; over 100,000 men were recruited into the Egyptian Labour Corps, serving mostly in Palestine, and 25,000 Egyptians served with their Camel Transport Corps; troops from the West Indies served in Egypt, Palestine, Macedonia, Mesopotamia and in German West and East Africa. Most were employed as labour troops, an unglamorous role but one that was absolutely essential in the days before wholesale mechanization of armies.

Volunteers came in their tens of thousands from countries outside the British Empire, notably from South America and the USA; but these were individuals, the only formed unit being the Arab Scouts, raised in 1915 in Mesopotamia for intelligence and reconnaissance work.

## SEIZING THE GERMAN EMPIRE

As she grew into the role of a world power in the 40 years following the Franco-Prussian War, Germany sought overseas possessions to raise her to the dignity of other European imperialist nations. By the 1880s there was little productive territory left in what we now call the Third World, but

she acquired Togoland, the Cameroons and German South-West Africa in 1884, and German East Africa in 1886. Starting in 1884 she secured the Bismarck Archipelago in the Pacific, and a large tract of New Guinea. The groups of islands to the north-east were taken or purchased, including Samoa, the Marianas, the Solomons, the Marshalls, the Gilberts, the Carolines and the Ellice Islands.

In 1898 Kiachow and its surrounding territory were leased from China for 99 years; here Germany built a

naval base for a squadron whose purpose was to dominate the Yellow Sea, keep Japan from mainland China, and roam astride the trade routes to the Far East, from Kiachow to the network of Pacific island bases and coaling stations. A city was built at Kiachow called Tsingtao, and there grew up around it a harbour, railways, dry docks, and a fearsome system of forts and defence lines. By 1914 these contained 53 heavy guns, 77 lighter guns and 47 machine guns, manned by marines, the crews off the ships in harbour, and reservists among the civil settler population. When war loomed in Europe dependants were sent inland, and the German troops from the international force at Tientsin were summoned. On 4 August 1914 the naval squadron put to sea, and the garrison awaited its fate.

### China and the Pacific

The Japanese government had offered to 'assist' Great Britain in dealing with Tsingtao, and on 15 August they delivered an ultimatum to the Germans. This was ignored; Japan declared war on 23 August, and began a naval blockade of Kiachow four days later. The Japanese had been preparing for this operation for some time; they had detailed intelligence on the extent and locations of the German defences, and had an expeditionary force already prepared and trained for the assault on Tsingtao. It consisted of 4 'dreadnoughts', 4 battlecruisers, 13 light cruisers, 24 destroyers, 4 gunboats, 13 minesweepers, 9 guard ships and a vast support fleet. Land forces of 50,000 men, 12,000 horses, 102 heavy guns and howitzers, 42 field guns and 6 aircraft were ready to be landed. To this considerable force the British sent a brigadier-general, the 2nd Bn of the South Wales Borderers, and half a battalion of the 1/36th Sikhs - 1,400 men in all.

In the siege operations that went on until the surrender of Tsingtao in early November, Japanese casualties were 1,455 killed and 4,200 wounded; the British lost 14 killed and 61 wounded. The German defenders lost only some 200 killed and 500 wounded before their capitulation, after which the survivors were interned in Japan. Unlike captives of the Japanese in World War II, they were well treated. Before the fall of Tsingtao the Japanese had already occupied the Marshall, Palau, Mariana and Caroline Islands, and Australian and New Zealand forces had moved into Samoa, New Guinea, the Solomons and the Bismarck Archipelago. This put an end to Germany's short-lived Pacific empire, and to her hopes of dividing Britain's fleet.

Sepoys of the half-battalion of the 1/36th Sikhs being brought ashore by boats of the Royal Navy at Tsingtao, China, in September 1914. They are dressed in the Indian Army pattern of Service Dress - a serge uniform consisting of a shirt-like kurta and trousers. (Author's collection)

A quarter guard and regimental policemen of the 2nd Bn, South Wales Borderers at Tientsin, China, in 1914. (Author's collection)



## AFRICAN CAMPAIGNS

### Togoland

The involvement of the British Army in clearing German forces from the Pacific was minuscule, but this was not the case in the conquest of Germany's African colonies.

The first of these to come under fire from British forces was Togoland, a German protectorate surrounded by French West Africa and the British colony of the Gold Coast. The Germans had been in Togoland since 1844, but had not fixed its frontiers until 1899, by which time they had transformed it into a model colony. It was financially independent, an exporter of cotton, and entirely without defence forces other than a police force. Togoland's governor hoped that, in the event of war, the white races would go about their business as usual and confine warlike operations to Europe. Unfortunately for the Germans in Togoland, they had a powerful wireless transmitter at Kamina, and the British Admiralty wanted it (and the rest of Germany's world-wide communication network) out of commission.

A small French force of 8 Europeans and 150 African troops crossed into Togoland on 6 August 1914, closely followed by a British force of 57 European officers and NCOs, 535 African troops of the Gold Coast Regiment and 200 bearers, who landed at the port of Lome without opposition on 12 August. The Germans fled inland after refusing terms, and the British followed them up, clashing with German patrols before encountering entrenchments on 22 August. By this time the British and

French contingents had combined, and a confused battle was fought in dense jungle which cost the Allies 23 killed and 50 wounded. On 25 August the Germans destroyed their wireless station at Kamina and sought terms, eventually surrendering unconditionally. Within weeks the commercial life of the colony was resumed, under British control.

### The Cameroons

Germany's second colony on Africa's western coast was the Cameroons, which by 1914 had grown by a succession of treaties into an area larger than France and Germany combined. In this vastness 2,000 Europeans governed 500,000 Africans, maintaining law and order by means of a force of Schutztruppe, with

200 European officers and NCOs and 1,550 African troops, in addition to a police force of 40 Europeans and 1,255 African constables. German hopes of being left to get on with the business of running their 'protectorate' were dashed when the British and French made plans for its invasion, which drew on the meagre resources of the West African Frontier Force (the 'WAFFs'), which consisted of 242 officers and 118 NCOs seconded from the British Army and 7,733 African soldiers – *askaris*. Both these opposing forces were in reality imperial gendarmeries rather than true military forces.

On 25 August 1914 three British columns probed over the border from Nigeria. All came up against fierce German opposition, sustaining heavy casualties as well as losing two guns, five machine guns and much ammunition. These reverses were made all the more painful by the successes of French columns on the northern and eastern frontiers of the Cameroons.

A more realistic invasion began in September when a naval squadron began clearing the approaches to the port of Douala prior to the landing of a combined Anglo-French Cameroons Expeditionary Force. This was under the command of a British general officer, and consisted of 208 European officers, 435 European NCOs, 4,319 African askaris and over 4,000 'bearers' (porters). On 27 September 1914 the Germans accepted an invitation to surrender unconditionally, after destroying their wireless station. The remaining booty was considerable, however, and included the port facilities, 31,000 tons of shipping, a battery of guns and a floating dock. However, most of the Germans had in fact retreated into the interior along rail and river lines, inviting a pursuit through some of the most pestilential and inhospitable terrain in the world.

Supported by field guns put ashore from ships of the naval squadrons, the columns of the CEF fought the terrain and climate as well as the enemy rearguards. One officer described conditions thus: 'We found the troops suffering from the effects of the terrific heat, tactical unity completely lost in the dense elephant grass through which the officers were trying to lead their men, many of whom showed signs of hanging back under the constant bursts of machine gun fire, of which this was their first experience.' He wrote of British sailors and marines 'completely prostrated and incapable of further action, caused through their exertions in dragging the 12-pounder gun over the mud track and up to a hill position under a blazing sun.' The grim pursuit continued, punctuated with contacts and battles such as that at the town of Bare in March 1915, where the British lost 8 European officers and NCOs and 140 African soldiers.

The onset of the rainy season halted operations, and during the lull reinforcements arrived including the 5th Indian Light Infantry (the regiment that had mutinied at Singapore) and companies of the West India Regiment. The campaign resumed in October 1915, with British and French columns converging on the Germans from the north, west and east in the face of stubborn opposition. The colony's capital,



These 2.95in mountain guns of the Nigerian Artillery were employed in the campaign in East Africa. The gun weighed 827lb, and when broken down into pack-loads is reported to have been carried by porters. Nigeria contributed five infantry battalions and two artillery batteries to the West African Frontier Force in 1914. (Author's collection)

A British officer of the 1st Bn, Nigeria Regt superintends the entrainment of his men in West Africa, 1914. The barefoot askaris are armed with long Lee-Enfield rifles and wear an obscure pattern of leather equipment, with pangas – machetes – on their belts. (Author's collection)



Yaounda, fell on 1 January 1916, after the Germans had fled to Rio Muni, a Spanish possession, from which more than 800 of them were transported to internment in Spain. In the far north the fort at Mora continued to hold out until the terms of its commander were met (these included a loan of £2,000 to pay his soldiers). On 4 March 1916 the Cameroons were divided between the British and the French. The campaign had cost the former 4,600 casualties, of which 1,688 died, mostly from disease. The French dead numbered 2,567. It was perhaps fitting, therefore, that France took the larger share of the former German colony.

### German South-West Africa

If there had been few soldiers from Britain in the forces that wrested Togoland and the Cameroons from Germany, there were fewer still in the campaigns in southern Africa, where the colony of 'German South-West' (today's Namibia) lay beside the newly created Union of South Africa. In 1914 Louis Botha, the Union's first prime minister, released all 6,000 British Regulars stationed there and raised a South African Defence Force. London immediately requested the new force to seize German South-West Africa and its wireless stations. This was Germany's second largest colony, but was sparsely populated by natives and by fewer than 15,000 European settlers, including an all-European Schutztruppe of just over 3,000 men and several thousand reservists capable of mobilization. Although facing a force of more than five times their number, the Germans were confident that there would be a rebellion by the Boers of the Union as soon as Britain's attention was diverted by the war in Europe. Only 12 years had elapsed since the war that had ended Boer aspirations of independence; the memories of that defeat, and particularly of the ruthless methods employed by Lord Kitchener, were still too raw to be assuaged by the subsequent generous British investment in South Africa and the granting of political freedoms.

South African advances into German territory had scarcely begun when disaster befell a column at Sandfontein, which was outfought by a German force and forced to run up the white flag on 26 September 1914. But it was not this setback that put a halt to operations in German territory – it was the predicted outbreak of rebellion amongst the Boers. Some 11,500 rebels took up arms against their government, and were opposed by 30,000 loyalists. This brief civil war cost over 800 killed and wounded at a time when every able-bodied man was needed to fight the Germans in Africa and in Europe. It was to be well into December before the insurrection had been quelled and attention could once more be focused on German South-West Africa.

The South African force that set out for a second attempt at capturing the colony was a mixed bag, containing no element of the British Army other than some officers and former soldiers. Its units came from the South African Permanent Force, Active Citizen Force and Volunteers, from the South African Aviation Corps, the usual support services and the South African Police. Like the Germans they were to fight, all were white men. There were volunteers and policemen from Rhodesia, and even a squadron of armoured cars from the Royal Navy. Perhaps the most colourful units were the Commandos of the Mounted Burgher Corps, who were dressed and equipped in much the same

manner as those who had fought the British 12 years before. They were not the smartest nor the best disciplined soldiers in the world; to quote a contemporary view of the force from the future Air Marshal Sir Arthur 'Bomber' Harris: 'Dominion and colonial troops are, on average, with remarkably few exceptions, damned bad horsemen and damned bad shots.' But what the South Africans lacked in polish and skill they made up for in sheer numbers, overwhelming the Germans and forcing their unconditional surrender on 9 July 1915 after a series of pursuits and sharp battles.

The conquest of 'German South-West' was hardly a walkover; but compared to the campaigning to come in the attempts to take 'German East', it might in retrospect have seemed so.

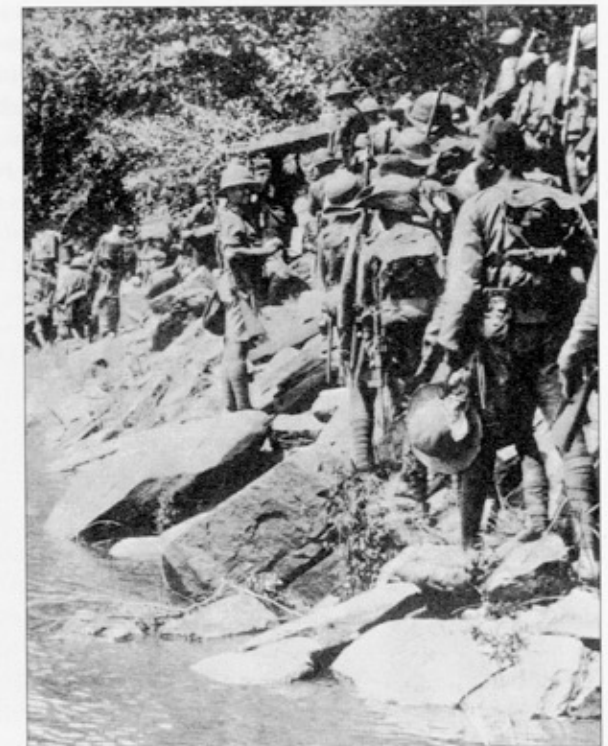
### German East Africa

German East Africa (modern day mainland Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi) was in 1914 bordered to the north by British East Africa (Kenya) and to the south by the Portuguese colony of Mozambique. Three huge lakes made up most of the inland borders of German's largest colony, which covered 384,180 square miles. The native population of over 7½ million were governed by 5,336 Europeans, a Schutztruppe of 260 Europeans and 2,472 African soldiers, and a gendarmerie of 45 Europeans and 2,154 African constables.<sup>4</sup>

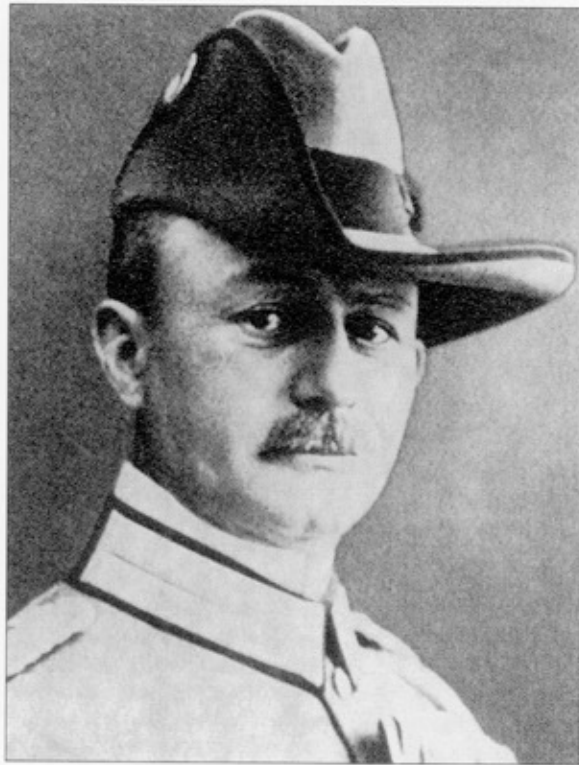
To superintend these forces there arrived, eight months before the outbreak of war, Oberstleutnant Paul Emil von Lettow-Vorbeck, a brilliant and energetic soldier of considerable experience in command of colonial forces in Asia and Africa. When war came he ignored the passive attitude of his governor, and crossed the border to attack targets in British East Africa, creating panic in a colony which was completely unprepared to defend itself. In a wave of patriotic fervour the British colonists assembled volunteer units such as Bowker's Horse, Wessel's Scouts and Wavell's Arabs. Eventually most of these exotics were formed into the East African Regiment and the East African Mounted Rifles, to reinforce the 62 British officers and 2,319 askaris who made up the units of the King's African Rifles – a force of 17 companies dispersed over the 318,941 square miles of Uganda and 'British East'. The first clashes with German troops cooled the war fever of these volunteers, leaving them with a healthy respect for Lettow-Vorbeck's soldiers.

When the governor of British East Africa signalled London for assistance the problem was referred to the India Office. Two forces were hastily assembled and shipped to his aid: Indian Expeditionary Force 'C' was intended to reinforce the volunteers and KAR in the British colony, while Indian Expeditionary Force 'B' had the task of invading 'German East'. The latter formation consisted of the 27th (Bangalore) Brigade, an

Officers and men of a battalion of the King's African Rifles on the march in German East Africa, 1918. The askaris now carry SMLE rifles and wear 1908 pattern webbing, but without entrenching tools; the *panga* was their all-purpose tool, with which they could dig at an amazing rate. (Author's collection)



<sup>4</sup> See MAA 379, *Armies in East Africa 1914-18*



Gen Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck, whose four-year campaign in East Africa is estimated to have cost the British £72 million – equivalent to more than £2 billion today. The forces sent against him suffered over 60,000 casualties, of which 48,000 were caused by disease. (Author's collection)

Imperial Service Brigade (a formation from the Indian princely states), a pioneer battalion, a mountain battery, engineers and supporting units. Only one battalion, the 2nd Loyal North Lancashires, was British. Major-General Aitken, commander of Force 'B', confidently predicted that 'The Indian Army will make short work of a lot of n\*\*\*\*\*s.' His boast was to be proved horribly wrong.

After landings at the port of Tanga on the night of 2/3 November 1914, Aitken's 8,000 men were soundly beaten by Lettow-Vorbeck's 1,000 Germans and askaris in one of the most shameful performances ever recorded by forces of the British crown. With few exceptions the Indian troops behaved badly, running away in the face of German fire and abandoning their weapons. Many excuses were subsequently made, ranging from bad leadership to the appalling conditions suffered by the troops on the voyage to Africa; but when Force 'B' re-embarked on 5 November, having suffered 817 casualties, their evacuation was so hasty that they abandoned several hundred rifles, 16 machine guns, 600,000 rounds of ammunition, signal equipment and vast amounts

of clothing. General Aitken was sacked and sent home in disgrace, but the disaster at Tanga proved that the capture of 'German East' was going to be no easy campaign.

There now ensued a lull interspersed with raids and skirmishes, during which Lettow-Vorbeck regrouped his forces. He raised new units from volunteers whom he armed and dressed with the matériel captured at Tanga; he obtained ten 10.5cm guns and ammunition from a German warship before it was scuttled; and by late 1915 his force mustered 2,998 Europeans and 11,300 askaris. He saw his mission as to draw against him as many British forces as possible, who might otherwise fight on other fronts – and he was succeeding in this aim.

The British too were building up their forces, while taking every opportunity to mount operations across the borders of the German colony from Rhodesia and Nyasaland as well as from Kenya. One such was a waterborne assault across Lake Victoria in June 1915. The German town of Bukoba was taken after a brisk fight by the 2nd Loyal North Lancashires, the 25th Royal Fusiliers, the 29th Punjabis, part of the 3rd KAR, some men of the East African Regt and two mountain guns – about 2,000 men in all. In a bizarre episode reminiscent of sieges in the Napoleonic Wars, permission was then given to loot the town; the operation degenerated into a drunken orgy, reports of which found their way into the press at home and in the United States, to the shame and discredit of the British Army.

In late 1915 Gen Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien – a soldier of great ability, who had been sacked from the Western Front for pointing out to Gen French that defending Ypres would prove costly – was appointed to command British forces in East Africa, which were to be reinforced with

a British brigade, a South African brigade, 2,000 mounted Boer Commandos, two Indian Army battalions and 25 guns. Unfortunately Sir Horace developed pneumonia on the voyage out and had to be evacuated. In his place the former Boer rebel commander, Jan Christian Smuts, was appointed. If anyone understood the kind of guerrilla warfare being waged by Lettow-Vorbeck it was Jan Smuts, who had been one of the boldest and most resourceful of the Boer leaders. Overnight, at the age of 46, he found himself the youngest lieutenant-general in the British Army, commanding forces that were growing in human and material resources to dwarf those of his German adversary.

In his planning Smuts confided to his staff that he wished to avoid pitched battles, especially if they resulted in large South African casualties; he had no desire to return home with a reputation as a 'butcher'. His intention was to force defeat upon the Germans by means of a war of manoeuvre, a strategy familiar to him from his Commando days – but one that played directly into the hands of Lettow-Vorbeck, gratifying his desire to tie down large Allied forces in East Africa. These forces eventually included Belgian and Portuguese in addition to the British and Empire troops, who marched and countermarched in pursuit of the German columns in a terrain and climate that struck down men in their thousands and animals in their tens of thousands. By mid-1916 the Allied forces were suffering 31 non-battle casualties for every man killed or wounded by enemy action. Malaria, blackwater fever, dysentery, Guinea worm and chiggers were among the pestilential horrors that stalked through their ranks. Tsetse fly killed huge numbers of transport animals: in a single two-month period 19,000 horses, 10,000 mules, 11,000 oxen and 2,500 donkeys died.

The frustration of the pursuit was summed up by one soldier who wrote: 'It was so intensely annoying to be shelled day after day, week after week, by a fugitive enemy who ought at that stage of the campaign to have been almost at the end of his resources; while we, with the whole of the British Empire behind us, were powerless to retaliate.' In January 1917 LtGen Smuts handed over his command before proceeding to England, declaring that German resistance in East Africa would be brought to an end within a few months.

This optimistic prediction was not shared by Gen Hoskins, the new commander, who set in train some long-needed reforms; these included the replacement of white units with African troops, and improvements in ration scales, clothing and the recruitment of more African porters. Hardly had he made his presence felt than he was replaced by Gen van Deventer, another

Primitive roads, or no roads at all, in theatres of operation such as Macedonia, Palestine, Mesopotamia and Africa put great demands on animal transport – horses, mules, camels, donkeys, oxen and bullocks, such as those seen drawing this heavily laden cart. (Author's collection)





South African, who continued the pursuit of the German columns, engaging them in a series of bloody clashes usually fought on ground of Lettow-Vorbeck's choice. By early 1918 more than 90 per cent of the troops on both sides were black, officered by Europeans.

Finally, Lettow-Vorbeck (by now promoted to major-general) crossed the border into Mozambique, leaving behind his sick and wounded to the care of his pursuers. By this time his force was down to 200 Europeans and 2,000 askaris, but he found the poorly defended Portuguese installations brimming with the arms, ammunition and supplies he needed. In late September 1918 he crossed back into 'German East' and marched to 'invade' Northern Rhodesia. There, on 13 November 1918, the day after he had fought what was to be his last skirmish with a British force, news reached him of the Armistice. At a ceremony on 25 November, the last vestiges of the German colonial empire passed into history when Generalmajor Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck formally surrendered. He was feted by his British foes, one of whom stated: 'We had more esteem and affection for him than our own leaders'; another said that he had 'played the game all the way through' – about the highest compliment which that generation of Englishmen could pay.

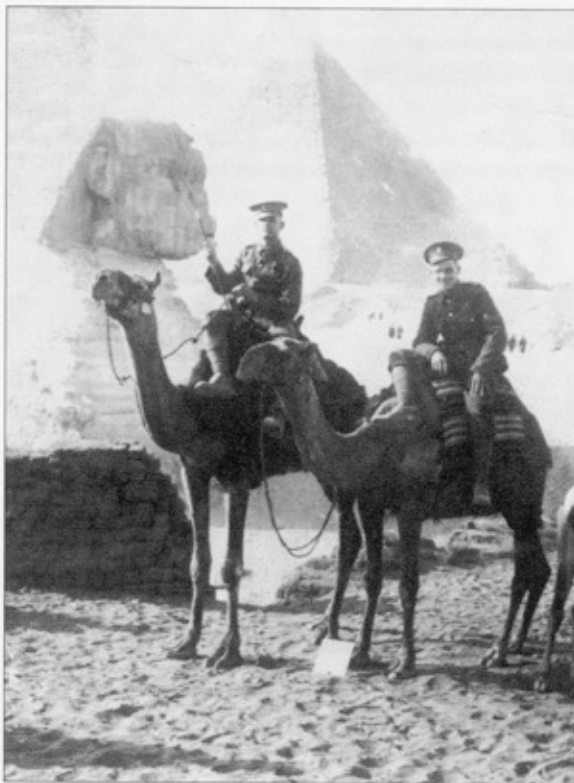
## CAMPAIGNS AGAINST THE TURKS

Prior to 1914 the Ottoman Empire had dwindled as its European possessions were lost. A revolution in 1908 set out to replace an incompetent ruler and to halt the further disintegration of the empire;

but Bulgaria declared itself free of Turkish rule, Austria annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina, Crete proclaimed union with Greece, and Italy invaded Tripoli. Large sums were paid in reparation for the loss of these lands, but the money did little to soothe Turkish outrage, and war broke out in the Balkans in 1912. By the time it was at an end Turkey had lost all its European territory but for a small area west of Constantinople, and the void left by the Turks became the political hotbed which sparked the coming World War. When it broke out, Turkey proclaimed neutrality; but public opinion favoured the Germans, who had courted Turkish leaders with investment and training for their armies. Britain and France were by then allied with Turkey's traditional enemy, Russia, and Germany was promising the recovery of possessions such as Egypt in return for Turkey joining the Central Powers. When two German warships were allowed to sail from Constantinople to bombard Russian ports, the Allies declared war on Turkey in early November 1914. She responded by sending an army to attack and cut the Suez Canal, the 'jugular' of the British Empire.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>5</sup> See MAA 269, *The Ottoman Army 1914-18*

Most soldiers off-duty in Egypt went to see the Pyramids and took the opportunity to have their photographs taken atop a camel. Here the brothers Aubrey and Horace Honychurch, of the British West Indies Regt, pose for theirs in 1916. Twelve battalions of their regiment were raised from 1915, and served in Egypt, Palestine, Macedonia and Mesopotamia. (Douglas Honychurch)



## 1914-16: the Sinai and Mesopotamia

In late January 1915 this Turkish corps of 20,000 men and ten batteries of artillery marched across the Sinai desert to strike at the Canal at various points along its length. They were met and defeated by troops of the 10th and 11th Divisions of the Indian Army, as well as by the firepower of the French and British warships stationed in the Canal. Backing these Indian formations were the Territorials of the East Lancashire Division, and units of the Australian & New Zealand Army Corps (the 'ANZACs'), but the opening battles were won by men of the Indian Army. Both sides dug and wired defences into which they settled.

Further east Indian Expeditionary Force 'D', a formation of divisional strength, had been sent to the Persian Gulf in November 1914 to secure the installations and oil refinery at Abadan. The Turkish fort guarding the approaches was destroyed, troops landed, and after a series of actions the British force took possession of Basra, evacuated by the Turks, on 21 November. A foothold had been gained in the Turkish territory of Mesopotamia, land of the two great rivers, Tigris and Euphrates (today, Iraq). Their confidence boosted by the ease with which they had taken Basra, the British viewed the Turkish forces ranged against them and determined that attack was the best policy. In December, Qurna was taken after a battle lasting several days but costing the British only 27 dead and less than 300 wounded; 42 Turkish officers and 1,000 of their men were made prisoner. In January 1915 a show of force was made against Turkish positions at Ruta. In April the Turks attacked the British positions at Shaiba but were repulsed after three days' bloody fighting; casualties were heavy on both sides, however, the British losing 20 per cent of their infantry alone while Turkish losses were put at 6,000.

Earlier reports had reached the British of a concentration of Turkish/Arab forces near the Abadan oil pipeline in western Persia. A small force sent to investigate was ambushed and severely mauled, after which the Turks cut the pipeline. At this time a change of command took place; the new man, Gen Sir John Nixon, brought with him fresh directives from Army HQ in Delhi on the future conduct of the campaign. Instead of the occupation of Basra, Nixon was instructed 'to retain complete control of the lower portion of Mesopotamia', a region that reached up the Euphrates to An Nasiriyah and up the Tigris almost to Kut. Meanwhile reinforcements arrived, and in April 1915 a 9,000-man force was sent to drive the Turks off the pipeline and get it back into operation.

In June 1915, after much vacillating at the highest levels, Nixon's forces set out up the course of the Tigris, fighting a second battle at Qurna. In July, after stubborn resistance, the Turks were driven from their positions at An Nasiriyah.



MajGen C.V.F. Townshend – centre, wearing cap – with members of the staff of his 6th (Poona) Division, Indian Army. After his surrender at Kut in Mesopotamia at the end of April 1916, Townshend and the officers of his command were well treated by the Turks; a far grimmer captivity awaited the 'other ranks' of his British and Indian units. (Author's collection)

Sick Indian Army sepoy from the siege of Kut, exchanged soon after the surrender. Despite their condition, in many respects these were the fortunate ones, who were to receive the care and treatment due to them; their Indian and British comrades who remained in Turkish captivity died in shocking numbers. (Author's collection)



Authority was then given for Nixon to drive on Kut – and the scene was set for the greatest military disaster to befall the British Army beyond the Western Front. The man ordered to lead the advance was the newly arrived MajGen C.V.F. Townshend, an extremely ambitious officer, (and an admirer of Napoleon), and who already had gained early fame for his defence of Fort Chitral in 1895. He now led an amphibious force based on the 6th (Poona) Division, which he commanded, in pursuit of the Turks, who obligingly fell back to allow him to extend his lines of communication with every mile his 'regatta' steamed up the Tigris. Al Amarah was taken, netting 2,000 Turkish prisoners and much booty. After a pause to build up men and materials, Townshend pushed on in September towards Kut, where the Turks had prepared defences which he later described as 'sort of Torres-Vedras like'. The battle fought before these on 28 September cost the British 12,000 casualties to the Turks' 3,000. Seventeen Turkish guns were taken, but the enemy retired from the field in good order, falling back upon reinforcements which included two fresh divisions.

In Britain and India all eyes were by then focused on the prize of Baghdad, a city of no strategic importance but one whose capture would be of great political significance. General Nixon also wanted the kudos of its capture, repeatedly saying that he had sufficient resources for an attempt. In late October 1915 he issued orders to Townshend for an advance to Baghdad; and in late November the forces of 'Chitral Charlie' came up against the main Turkish position at Ctesiphon (called 'Pissedupon' by the Tommies). The battle fought there from 22 to 24 November marked the limit of the British attempt to take Baghdad. The men of the 6th (Poona) Division managed to take the Turkish front line, but it turned out to be a Pyrrhic victory; their losses were so great that, in the face of advancing Turkish reinforcements, Townshend ordered a withdrawal to Kut.

The town was reached on 3 December, and Townshend declared, 'I mean to defend Kut as I did Chitral.' By 7 December the Turks had encircled Townshend and his men, and the siege had begun. Trapped inside were 11,607 British and Indian troops, 3,530 'followers', and the 6,000 Arab inhabitants. Attempts at the relief of Kut were pressed with great courage. In one attack by the 2nd Black Watch, for example, only 2 officers and 15 men survived; these were attached to the survivors of a battalion of Seafortths and called 'the Highland Battalion'. In all, four attempts were made which cost 23,000 battle casualties, not counting the sick among the relieving force. Despite these almost superhuman efforts it became clear that the British force at Kut would have to be left to its fate. Negotiations for surrender began on 26 April 1916, with Townshend offering the enemy his force's



**OPPOSITE** Troops rest in the Gallipoli trenches while a lookout checks the Turkish lines opposite with a periscope. No-man's-land was very narrow in some sectors; the infantry endured all the dangers of the Western Front, with the added ordeal of the baking climate. (Imperial War Museum)

An officer of the Royal Naval Division with Australian troops in the trenches at Gallipoli, 1915. The RN Division was formed from sailors and marines for whom there were no ships, and first saw action in the defence of Antwerp in 1914. Having taken many casualties the division was evacuated to England, brought back up to strength, and sent out to the Dardanelles. (Author's collection)

weapons, £1,000,000 and an exchange with Turkish prisoners-of-war in return for a parole to India for himself and his men. All were refused, and on 29 April 1916 the 6th (Poona) Division destroyed its arms and ammunition and marched into captivity. Townshend and his fellow officers received courteous treatment at the hands of the Turks; but his soldiers did not. Of the 12,000 troops and 'followers' in the garrison at the time of the surrender, 4,000 died in captivity from neglect and cruelty at Turkish hands, including over 70 per cent of the British 'other ranks'. The surrender at Kut put an end to an inglorious chapter in British military history, but not to the apportioning of blame by witch-hunts at all levels. These resulted in changes in the leadership and organization of the forces in Mesopotamia, and a review of the tasks they were to undertake.

### 1915: Gallipoli

Far away to the north-west another bitter campaign against the Turks had been lost. Turkey's entry into the war on the side of the Central Powers was followed by a request from Russia in January 1915 for 'diversionary assistance'. Winston Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty, had sent warships to bombard the forts at the entrance to the Dardanelles, the straits leading from the Aegean to the Sea of Marmora, Constantinople, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea and the ports of southern Russia. When Churchill and other 'Easterners' failed to get support for landings at the Dardanelles, he sent a fleet to force the passage, unaided by troops, in February 1915. After some initial success in which Turkish shore batteries were destroyed by gunfire and landing parties of marines, the Anglo/French foray was stopped on 18 March by a combination of mines and gunfire which killed 700 Allied seamen, sank three battleships and crippled three more. It was clear to all that the Dardanelles could not be taken by naval force alone.

There had, however, been a change of heart in London, where Lord Kitchener had given orders for 70,000 troops to be sent to assist the Royal Navy in their venture. General Sir Ian Hamilton, commander of this force, had left London on the day of the naval battle with conflicting orders from Kitchener and Churchill ringing in his ears. He arrived at the base at Lemnos to find a scene of utter confusion. He immediately ordered his army corps (the Royal Naval Division, elements of the ANZAC and the 29th Division of British regulars) to Egypt, in order to reorganize and prepare for an assault on the Gallipoli peninsula. Watching the fleets of transports sail away, the Turks, who had been astonished by the failure of the naval force to press home their attack, set about preparing for the coming invasion.



Gallipoli: a water-cart of the 1/5th Bn, Highland Light Infantry from 52nd (Lowland) Division fills up at a pumping station. Great care had to be taken to purify water chemically before it was drunk in order to keep down the incidence of water-borne diseases. Even so, of the 250,000 casualties incurred during the Gallipoli campaign, the sick outnumbered battle casualties. (Author's collection)



When Hamilton's force steamed back to the Dardanelles they had a sound plan. The 29th Division was to land at Cape Helles to seize the Turks by the nose, whilst the ANZACs were to land at the narrowest part of the peninsula to cut off the Turkish forces facing the 29th. The Royal Naval Division would create a diversion further north, and French forces were to land on the Asian side of the Dardanelles. What took place is simply described. Despite great courage and endurance the British forces were contained in their beachheads, from the time of the landings in late April 1915 until their final evacuation in January 1916. Despite reinforcement by five divisions and further landings, nothing could break the resolute Turkish defence of their homeland, and the Gallipoli front bogged down into a trench stalemate. By the time the British steamed away from the Dardanelles they had sustained losses of 250,000 men killed, wounded, sick and missing – losses that equalled those of the Turks. It was later said that the evacuation was a masterpiece of planning, perfectly executed. It was also said that if the invasion of the Gallipoli peninsula had been planned with one tenth of the care given to its evacuation, it would have succeeded.<sup>6</sup>

### 1915–17: the Senussi uprising and the Sinai

In the Libyan desert a force was being assembled to launch a 'stab in the back' operation against the defenders of the Suez Canal. By November 1915 these had been reduced considerably by the demands for reinforcements for Gallipoli and Mesopotamia, and the defence of Egypt's western frontier had been left to the Egyptian coastguard.

Stirred up by Turkish agitators and armed with modern weapons delivered by German submarines, it was at this time that Sayed Ahmed, the Grand Senussi, chose to send his tribesmen across the Egyptian border to raise *jihād* and to bring about an insurrection in Egypt. The British hastily assembled a Western Frontier Force that included three Territorial infantry battalions, a battalion of Sikhs, three 'scratch' regiments of cavalry formed from the rear details of the Yeomanry units fighting as infantry at Gallipoli, a regiment of Australian Light Horse, Royal Navy armoured cars, and a battery of Royal Horse Artillery.

By late November 1915 the force had begun concentrating at Mersa Matruh, and by early December had started probing westward in search of the Senussi invaders. After a series of



OPPOSITE Behind the front lines at Gallipoli, soldiers check captured Turkish rifles and ammunition. (IWM)

Gallipoli: stretcher-bearers evacuating a casualty down a communication trench, where men of a unit of the 13th (Western) Division – a New Army formation – are resting. After the evacuation of the Gallipoli peninsula the 13th Division were sent first to Suez, and then to Mesopotamia in 1916. (Author's collection)



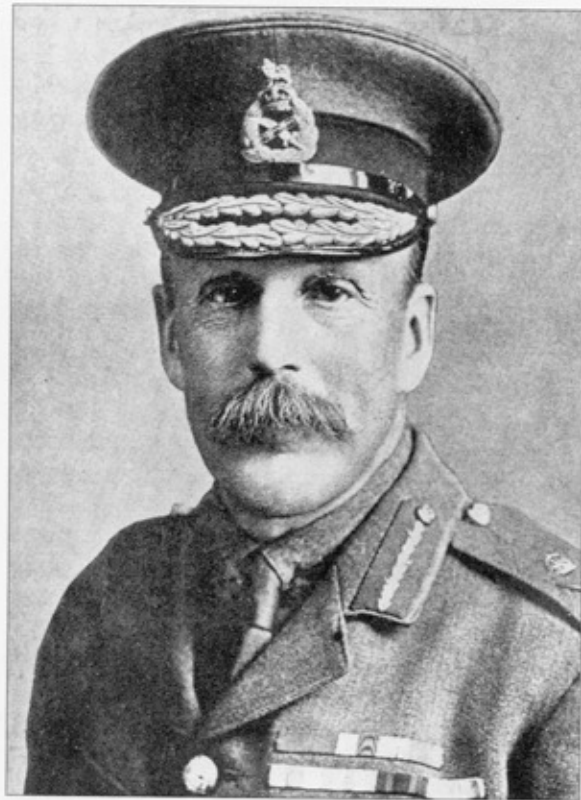
In the almost featureless terrain of Mesopotamia, men of the 2nd Bn, Norfolk Regt rest by their trench in 1917. The original 2nd Norfolks had the misfortune to go into Turkish captivity on the surrender of Kut in April 1916. Note their *topi* patches, showing a black stripe on a yellow rectangle. (IWM)



clashes the two forces met in battle at Halazin in late January 1916. After hard fighting the Sikhs broke through the Senussi line to bring about their retreat. The fight cost the British 21 killed and 291 wounded, and Senussi casualties were estimated at 200 killed and 500 wounded.

Following the Gallipoli evacuation there was by then no shortage of troops or naval vessels, and operations in the Western Desert went ahead with an advance along the coast and an attack on the Senussi encampment at Agagiya, which had been spotted by aircraft. On 26 February it was attacked by South African infantry, who forced the Senussi into a retreat during which they were charged by the Dorset Yeomanry with swords – an operation which cost the Dorsets half their horses and one-third of their officers and men, and led a Turkish officer with the Senussi to remark, 'C'est magnifique, mais ce n'est pas selon les regies' ('It's magnificent, but it's not in keeping with the rules'). The Turk is said to have been a student of military history...

The Senussi force was pursued beyond the Egyptian frontier and into Libya, thus putting an end to this Turkish-inspired attempt to



MajGen F.S. Maude, General Officer Commanding the 13th (Western) Division, then the Tigris Corps, and finally Commander-in-Chief Mesopotamia in August 1916. An able and determined officer, he organized and led a successful offensive beginning in December 1916, but died in November 1917. (Author's collection)

rouse the Egyptians into a holy war and rebellion against British rule.

In the Sinai Desert the British still confronted Turkish forces, having established a strong defensive position at Romani some 100 miles east of the Suez Canal. A railway had been pushed up to the position and a water pipeline was nearing completion. Elements of three British infantry divisions (the 42nd, 52nd & 53rd) held the position with two ANZAC mounted brigades and 36 guns. In early August 1916 a Turkish attack was contained and defeated, and a pursuit of the retreating Turkish force was conducted by the mounted ANZACs closely followed by the British infantry. By mid-August the Turks had been pressed back to El Arish, their starting point. In December 1916, after permission had been given to take El Arish, the position was assaulted and the Turks withdrew into Palestine, following a raid on their last Egyptian stronghold at Rafah in January 1917. In late March a British attempt was made to capture Gaza, but with the battle almost won the attacking forces were ordered to withdraw by a commander who thought it to be lost. A second attack on Gaza in April 1917 was repulsed by a reinforced Turkish garrison. The anticipated

victorious sweep into Palestine to the gates of Jerusalem had been halted for some time to come.

### 1916-18: Mesopotamia and Palestine

In Mesopotamia the War Office had assumed control of administrative matters as well as operations, and in August 1916 LtGen F.S. Maude took over as General Officer Commanding after being promoted over the heads of several officers senior to him. After ensuring that the base at Basra was functioning more efficiently, he moved his headquarters forward and set about reorganizing the forces available to him (one British and three Indian Army divisions), to permit rest and retraining with the new weapons being sent to Mesopotamia. By the end of 1916 there were 24 modern aeroplanes available to him, and great improvements were made in the lines of communication. In time order prevailed where there had been muddle, and morale improved amongst the troops, who by late 1916 were being well fed, fully equipped and properly housed. Medical care of the sick and wounded was improved. Maude, a Guards officer, was determined that until his Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force was functioning at peak efficiency he would not be pressurized into undertaking offensive operations. When all was ready he was determined to crush the Turkish Army on the Tigris front.

In early December 1916 he launched an offensive which saw Kut retaken in February 1917, Baghdad occupied in March, and the Turks pushed back as far as Tikrit by November. It was in that month that Gen Maude contracted cholera and died; but his offensive went on, relentlessly pressing the Turks back; they resisting stubbornly, but by the



time they sued for an armistice in October 1918 the British offensive in Mesopotamia had reached Kurdistan and the Caspian Sea. It was a prodigious effort in a region of the world where temperatures could rise to 71° C (160° F) – heat which sometimes killed men or drove them mad. Communications were limited to the rivers, mainly the Tigris, and on these the Turks fought savagely. More savage still was the behaviour of the local Arabs, who were widely loathed for hanging about the warring armies like vultures ready to pounce on the dead – and to cut the throats of the wounded – for their clothing, arms and equipment. They raided any convoys and depots that were seen to be poorly guarded, thus tying down on the lines of communications troops who might otherwise have been employed at the front.

\* \* \*

The Egyptian Expeditionary Force had also had a change in command: in June 1917 Gen Sir Edmund Allenby took over, fresh from his success at Arras on the Western Front. He moved his headquarters from Cairo to Rafah and set in train preparations for a further assault on the Turkish positions at Beersheba and Gaza. The attack on the former began on 31 October 1917, with Allenby's infantry taking the enemy defences full-on while cavalry of the Desert Mounted Corps swept around to attack the flank and rear – a manoeuvre that culminated in a mounted charge by units of the Australian Light Horse which swept over two lines of Turkish trenches, to capture Beersheba with 1,400 prisoners and 14 guns.

In early November, Allenby launched an assault on Gaza, which had been under bombardment for several days by artillery and warships. Six tanks supported the attacking infantry at 'Third Gaza', but fighting went on for several days before the Turks fell back and quit the defences that had held up the British for nine months.

In the desert to the east, British Army officers were attempting to stir up Arab resistance to the Turks. One of these was Capt



ABOVE LEFT Gen Sir Edmund Allenby, the last great leader of British cavalry, whose drive through Palestine to Jerusalem and onwards to Damascus proved the undoing of the Turks and led directly to their suing for peace in October 1918. His Desert Mounted Corps, commanded by the Australian LtGen Sir Harry Chauvel, fielded four divisions of mounted Australian, New Zealand, British Yeomanry and Indian Army cavalry. (IWM)

ABOVE Palestine, December 1917: the Mayor of Jerusalem (centre, with walking stick) surrendering the keys of the city to two sergeants of the 2/19th Bn, London Regiment (St Pancras) – the first British soldiers encountered by his party, which was complete with white flag and photographer. Within hours the ceremony would be repeated with more senior military personnel... (Author's collection)

T.E. Lawrence, later to be feted as 'Lawrence of Arabia'. He had earlier been instrumental in persuading an Arab group to raid and capture the port of Aqaba, an achievement which brought him to the attention of Gen Allenby. Charged with cutting rail communications in the Turkish rear prior to the assault on the Gaza-Beersheba line, Lawrence's Arabs in fact failed, but their activity was reckoned to have tied down 25,000 Turkish troops who might otherwise have opposed British forces in Palestine and Mesopotamia.<sup>7</sup>

Allenby kept up the pressure on the retiring Turks, and by early December 1917 the British had driven them back to Jerusalem, which they abandoned without a fight. At 8am on the morning of 9 December two sergeants of the 2/19th London Regt met the flag of truce party offering the surrender of the city, and two days later Gen Allenby entered Jerusalem on foot and proclaimed it to be occupied by his forces. His campaign had been a triumph – brilliantly conducted, absorbing Turkish reserves that might have been used in Mesopotamia, and aiding the Arab revolt against a Turkish Empire which had lost the holy places of Mecca, Baghdad and now Jerusalem. To the Christian peoples of the Allied nations – which by then included the USA – the taking of the holy city provided a badly needed lift in morale.

The spring and summer of 1918 were spent on the reorganization and training of the forces in Palestine for a final offensive, and on raids in the direction of Amman. By this time Allenby had at his disposal four cavalry divisions and the equivalent of eight infantry divisions (including a small French contingent). Following a carefully-contrived deception plan aimed at convincing the Turks that he would strike at their left, Allenby sent



OPPOSITE The use of the steel helmet was not completely unknown in the Middle East. Here pipers lead men of 2nd Bn, The Black Watch into Beirut on 10 October 1918; the regiment's red hackle is attached to the left side of hessian helmet covers. The troops wear shirtsleeve order with kilts, puttees with hosetops, and 1908 pattern webbing. (IWM)

A 6in howitzer being hauled into position in Mesopotamia, 1918. This weapon – like many provided for theatres other than the Western Front – was obsolescent, with a maximum range of 5,200 yards compared to the 11,400 of the more modern mark used in France. (Author's collection)



Salonika, 1916: a sergeant of the 1st Bn, York and Lancaster Regt using a trench periscope. Note his haircut, and the 'Y&L' shoulder title. The 1st York & Lancs were with the 28th (Regular) Division, which was sent to Macedonia in late 1915 and remained there until the end of the war. (Author's collection)



his main effort against the Turkish right on the coastal plain. On 19 September 1918 he opened the battle that historians would dub 'Megiddo', from one of the towns taken. Infantry tore a five-mile gap in the Turkish lines through which Allenby sent his cavalry, which reached the Sea of Galilee and pushed on to Damascus, entering the city on 25 October. In those 38 days his forces had advanced 360 miles, fighting all the way and inflicting 80,000 casualties on the Turks. British casualties were 850 dead and 4,482 wounded. It had been a war-winning battle: Turkey immediately sued for peace.

## THE BALKANS

In early 1915 an uneasy peace prevailed along the Danube. In the previous year the Serbs had ejected the Austro-Hungarian invaders from their kingdom, and now the two armies were facing one another down across the broad river. But the Germans wanted the obstacle of Serbia removed in order to strengthen communications with their ally, Turkey. Overtures were made to Bulgaria, promising territory in Macedonia in return for declaring for the Central Powers and attacking the Serbs. An Allied force of 13,000 French and British troops, intended to aid the Serbs, was sent to Salonika in Macedonia in October 1915, but proved to be too little, too late. Away to the north the forces of Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria fell upon Serbia from all sides, driving soldiers and civilians alike across the border with Albania in a cruel winter retreat. From there, in early 1916, the survivors were embarked on Allied ships which took them to refuge in Corfu, Italy, and North Africa. Countless thousands of Serbs perished during the exodus; but the soldiers who survived eventually went to Salonika to make up more than one-third of an Entente force that grew in time to 300,000 men. By late 1916 they were once again fighting on Serbian soil.<sup>8</sup>

The first British formation to be embroiled in this theatre of operations was the 10th (Irish) Division, which disembarked at Salonika in an atmosphere of uncertainty. Greece, although technically neutral, favoured the Central Powers, and an Allied force marching over Greek territory to get to the border with Serbia did little to win them over to the Allied cause. After clashing with superior Bulgarian forces the British and French withdrew to an enclave around Salonika, where their force was built up to five British and three French divisions by December 1915. In the meantime Salonika was turned into an entrenched base, with a 70-mile defence perimeter encircling the port. As far as the Germans were concerned,

<sup>7</sup> See MAA 208, *Lawrence and the Arab Revolts*, which also covers the Senussi uprising.

<sup>8</sup> See MAA 356, *Armies in the Balkans 1914-18*



The officers and senior NCOs of the Army Service Corps units of the 10th (Irish) Division's 'divisional train' pose for a group photo in Salonika, 1917. These were all Scottish Territorial units, by then reorganized into 'wheel' or 'pack' companies. The officer standing second from the right is from the Cyprus Muleteers Corps. (Author's collection)

Transport in Macedonia: a British sleigh drawn through the mud of the Struma front by four mules. Note that the load carried - like that in the earlier picture of the bullock cart - is firewood. Just as throughout military history, this was an essential commodity before the advent of petrol-fuelled cooking stoves. (Author's collection)



the Allies had built themselves the 'greatest internment camp in the world'; but the defences ensured that those inside would never have to undertake a hurried evacuation and were in Salonika to stay.

In time Russian and Italian troops also arrived to swell their numbers, as the Serbian Army rebuilt itself. All about the Salonika enclave the region seethed with political discontent,

with Greece on the brink of civil war while the commander of the French forces intrigued to bring her in on the side of the Entente. From all of this the British contingent and its commanders stood aloof, alone amidst the boiling of French and French colonials from North Africa and Indochina, Serbs, Italians, Russians, Albanians and, eventually, Greeks in the Allied army of the 'Macedonian Front'. Nor was there even agreement between the British and the French regarding the importance of Macedonia. The British wished to withdraw their two army corps to reinforce other fronts, but the French strongly believed Macedonia to be a theatre where the Central Powers could be struck a decisive blow. When the Romanians declared that they would enter the war on the side of the Allies if they launched an offensive in Macedonia, the French case seemed proved.

Matters were brought to a head when an Austro/Bulgarian offensive was launched against the Allied enclave in August 1916. In the fighting that lasted until September the British formations held their part of the line as fighting flared around places with names such as 'Horseshoe Hill' and Machukovo. By mid-September the Allies were on the offensive, with the Serbian 1st Army driving west towards Monastir. In order to pin down the troops opposite them the British conducted 'raids' against Karajakoi, Mazirko Yenikoi, Bairakli Juma and Tumbitza Farm; but the serious fighting was done by the French, Russian and Serbian troops attacking the Bulgarian positions before Monastir, which was occupied on 19 November. When winter put an end to operations shortly afterwards the Serbs had suffered 27,000 casualties - one-fifth of their force - to capture the second largest town in Serbian Macedonia.

By the spring of 1917 plans had been made for an offensive by the troops of all the five Allied nations serving in Salonika. A series of attacks were to be made along a 140-mile front, with the British assaulting positions across the Struma valley in the east; but the British commander, LtGen Milne, decided that his principal effort should be a frontal assault on the main Bulgarian

(continued on page 33)

AFRICA

1: Askari, 4th (Uganda) Bn, King's African Rifles, 1914

2: Sergeant, 1st (Nyasaland) Bn, KAR, 1918

3: Volunteer, Bowker's Horse, 1914



Chappell ~ 04

GALLIPOLI, 1915

1: Seaman, Nelson Bn, Royal Naval Division

2: Cpl, 8th Bn, Lancashire Fusiliers, 42nd Div

3: Havildar, 1/5th Bn, Gurkha Rifles, 29th Indian Bde



1

2

3

Chappell - 04



MESOPOTAMIA

1: Stretcher-bearer, 7th Bn, Gloucestershire Regt, 13th Div, 1917

2: Regimental Sergeant Major, 13th Hussars, 1918

3: MajGen Sir H.T. Brooking, GOC 15th Indian Div, 1917



Chappell ~ 04

PALESTINE

1: Sergeant, 1st Regt, Australian Light Horse, 1917

2: Sergeant, Staffordshire Yeomanry, 1917



SALONIKA

1: Private, 1st Bn, Royal Irish Regt, 10th Div, 1916

2: Lewis gunner, 2nd Bn, Gloucestershire Regt, 27th Div, 1918

3: Nursing sister, Scottish Women's Hospital, 1915



Chappell ~ 04

ITALY

- 1: Private, 1/5th Bn, Royal Sussex Regt, 48th Div, 1917
- 2: Sergeant, Royal Artillery, summer 1918
- 3: Sgt, 7th Bn, Machine Gun Corps, 7th Div, autumn 1918
- 4: Quartermaster, 2nd Bn, Gordon Highlanders, 1918



Chappell ~ 04

RUSSIA

1 & 2: British infantrymen, northern Russia, winter 1918

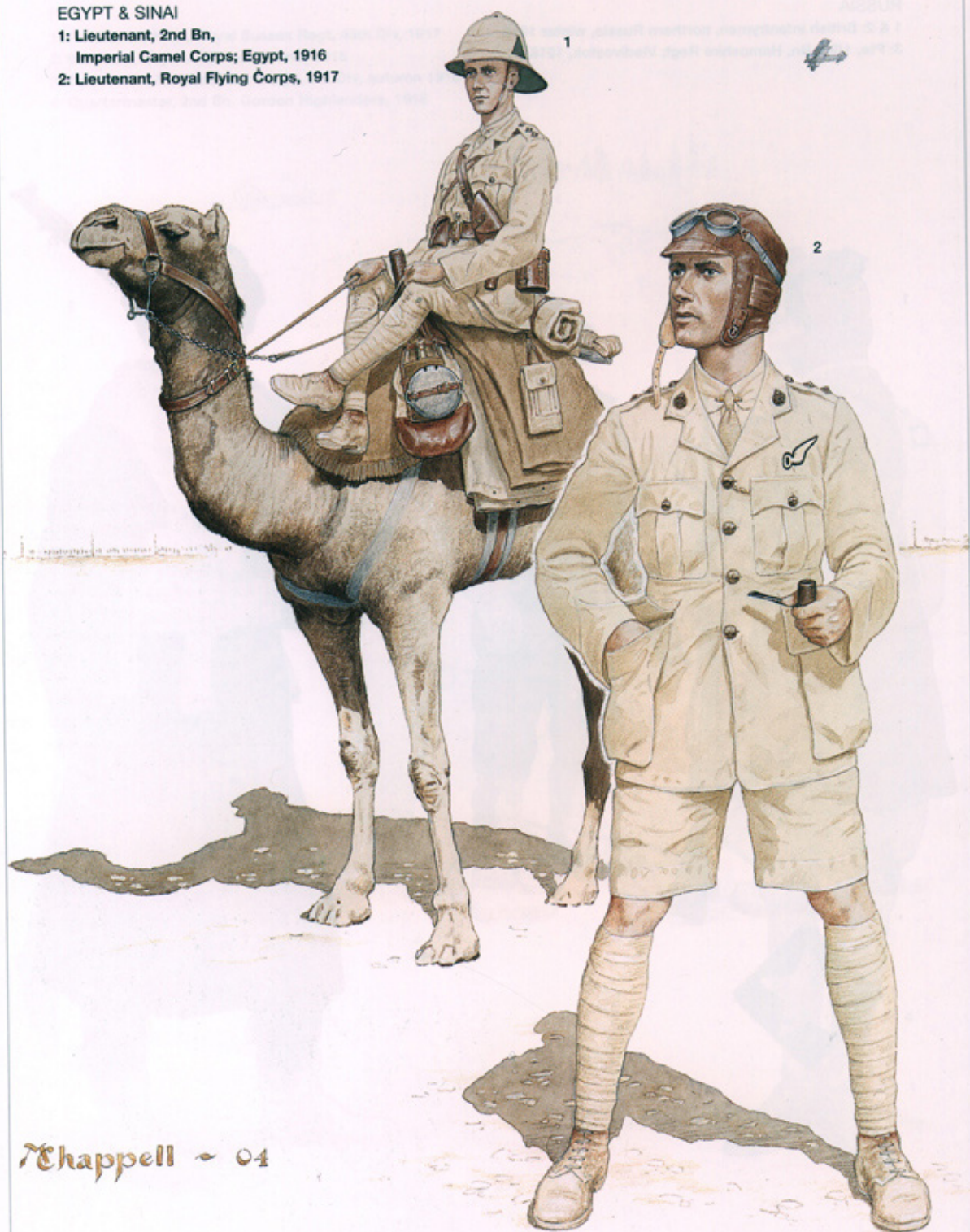
3: Pte, 1/9th Bn, Hampshire Regt; Vladivostok, 1918



Chappell ~ 04

EGYPT & SINAI

- 1: Lieutenant, 2nd Bn,  
Imperial Camel Corps; Egypt, 1916  
2: Lieutenant, Royal Flying Corps, 1917



Chappell - 04

defences in the north, near Lake Dojran. This position was one of the most formidable natural fortresses in Europe, a succession of fortified ridges climbing more than 2,000 feet above the lake. When the offensive began in late April the British attack was repulsed with heavy losses, as was a second attempt in early May. These failures were repeated all along the line, with little to show for 14,000 Allied casualties.

The summer of 1917 began a year that saw little more than minor actions along the front; but within the Allied enclave mutiny simmered among the French and Serbian troops, and in particular among the Russian formations, who were well aware of the revolutionary agitation in their homeland. In August a great fire gutted the old quarter of Salonika, destroying the British headquarters and several base facilities. Changes in command saw the departure of the autocratic Gen Sarrail, whose abrasive style of leadership and political intrigue had been the cause of much of the discontent; and eventually a French generalissimo was appointed who was to have an electrifying effect on the Salonika force.

General Franchet d'Esperey arrived in June 1918, and immediately set in train plans for an offensive that was to knock Bulgaria out of the war. This was launched in September, and by the 17th of the month a salient six miles deep and 20 miles broad had been driven into the Bulgarian positions. On the 18th the British advanced again in the Lake Dojran sector only to be repulsed as before, and with equally heavy casualties; but on 20 September the enemy began to retire to positions in their rear, a movement that became a rout as Allied cavalry began the 'unceasing and resolute pursuit' ordered by d'Esperey.

Provoked by revolutionary agitators and anti-war riots, the Bulgarian collapse followed quickly. Armistice talks began on 28 September and hostilities ceased on the 30th. The main British force was then deployed for a possible march on Constantinople, but d'Esperey led his French and Serbian troops on a pursuit of the German and Austro-Hungarian forces that reached Belgrade on 1 November. In seven weeks his forces had advanced over 400 miles.

For the British Army, service on the Macedonia Front had varied from the boredom of holding trenches in the malarial swamps of the Struma valley to the futility of the suicidal attacks on the impregnable enemy positions around Lake Dojran. All of this was endured, only for the troops to be denied a share in the glorious sweep through the Balkans to the Danube. Although they were often mocked as 'the gardeners of Salonika', for the British units that served there the Balkan front had been no easy war.

**An extraordinary photograph taken on the Salonika front in 1917, in the positions of a battery equipped with mule-pack 'screw guns'. No doubt it was the photographer's intent to catch this 2.75in mountain gun at full recoil; he also caught the instant when an enemy sniper's bullet struck the gunner at the right - note the puff of dust from the right side of his uniform. (Author's collection)**



## ITALY

The Italian front, like that in Salonika, was yet another to which British forces were sent when an ally seemed about to be crushed by the forces of the Central Powers. It was a front where for years the Italians and their Austro-Hungarian and German enemies remained locked in battles that produced few gains for a huge outpouring of life, materials and wealth.<sup>9</sup>

When most of Europe went to war in August 1914, Italy was one of those nations that declared themselves to be neutral, despite the fact that she had been committed to Germany and Austria-Hungary since their 'Triple Alliance' of 1882. In May 1915 she declared war on Austria-Hungary, swayed by Allied promises of Austrian territories after a defeat of the Central Powers. On mobilization most of Italy's forces were deployed on her frontier with Austria – an area which, apart from 20 miles on the seaward side, was a mass of mountains in which the Austrians held most of the advantageous ground. While the mountain troops of both sides fought for possession of vital peaks, the Italians launched their first major offensive on the coastal plain across the River Isonzo, aiming for Trieste. This began in late May 1915 and continued until early July, for very little gain and the loss of 15,000 men.

These opening battles set the pattern for two years to come, with Italian forces continuing to batter at the Austrian defences on the Isonzo front. When the 'Fourth Battle of the Isonzo' died down in December 1915 the lines remained much the same as they had been at the conclusion of the first; only the casualty lists had grown, as morale on both sides began to sink. A fifth battle began in March 1916, though not of the scale or intensity as those of the previous year. Once more, there were no gains. The courage and self-sacrifice shown by the soldiers of both sides became legendary, but the trench stalemate defeated the boldest initiatives as effectively on the Isonzo as it did on the Western Front.

<sup>9</sup> See MAA 387, *The Italian Army of World War I*; and MAA 392 & 397, *The Austro-Hungarian Forces in World War I (1) & (2)*

Despite their spectacular beauty, the Dolomites and Alps were a hellish place in which to fight a war. With command of the heights so essential, costly battles were fought for them by specially trained mountain troops. Roads usable by motor and wagon transport only went so far; then every gun, round of ammunition and ration had to be 'packed' up to the fighting positions, either on the backs of mules or men.

(Author's collection)

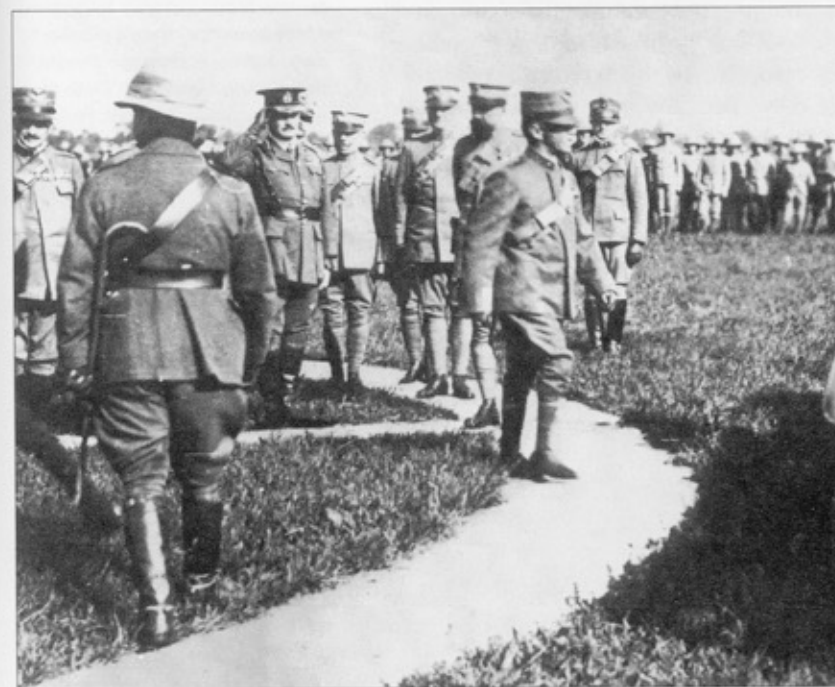


With intelligence reaching the Italians that the enemy were building up their forces in the southern Tyrol, formations were moved from the Isonzo to counter the threat, which became reality when the Austrians launched their opening attacks in May 1916. This 'Trentino offensive' drove a salient into the Italian line, but was exhausted by mid June. Although the losses on both sides had been heavy, they were immediately increased when the Italians launched counter-offensives intended to regain the territory lost in the Trentino, before once again striking at the Austrians on the Isonzo front. By the time these battles were concluded in the late autumn of 1916 the count for Isonzo battles had risen to seven, and morale in the Italian forces and on their home front was falling alarmingly. By summer 1917 ten separate battles had been fought on the Isonzo for no significant gains, but Italian hopes remained pinned on a breakthrough on this front – this time with the aid of British and French troops promised by those allies.

In the Trentino region the Austrians were once more readying themselves to break out of their salient and on to the Venetian plain, so it was to this front that the Italian high command turned. They aimed to pre-empt the enemy's plans with an offensive that began in June 1917, but achieved little beyond a further outpouring of Italian blood and a further plummeting of morale. Defeatist tendencies began to manifest themselves among the troops; Socialist and



Italy, 1918: a sergeant of the Machine Gun Corps poses for his portrait wearing a 'sports jacket and flannels' combination of KD jacket and SD breeches. Note his *topi*, badges of rank, overseas service chevrons, and the civilian-pattern leather buttons on his jacket. (Author's collection)

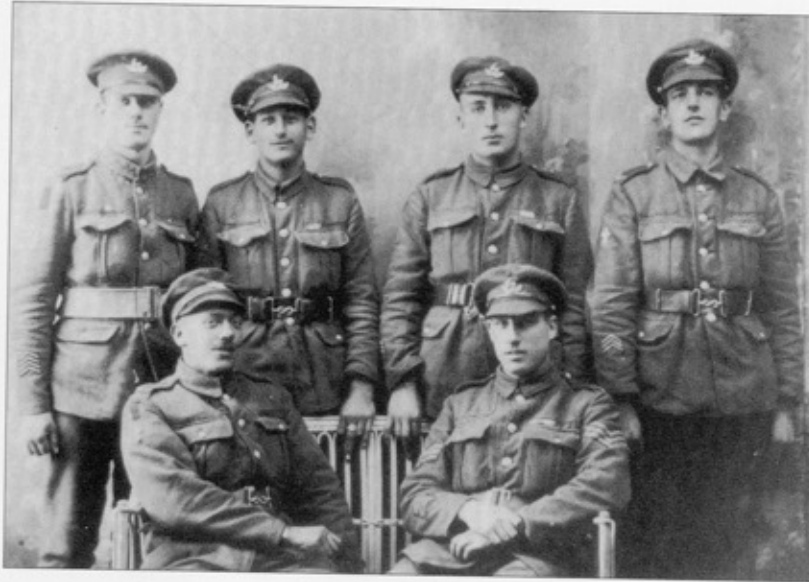


The commander of the British forces in Italy in 1918 was Gen the Earl of Cavan, seen here saluting the King of Italy after a review of British units. The staff officer at left wears a *topi* with Service Dress, and the soldiers in the background are in full Khaki Drill uniform. (IWM)



Communist party activists spread anti-war propaganda within their ranks as they faced the prospect of yet another offensive on the Isonzo – the eleventh.

In late October 1917 a combined Austro-Hungarian/German group of armies at last succeeded in breaking the Italian Isonzo front at Caporetto. Following an unprecedented artillery barrage, which included poison gases against which Italian masks were no protection, the Germans spearheaded assaults which drove in a crumbling Italian defence, and defeat



Italy, 1918: a group of battalion 'scouts' of the 1/6th or 1/8th Bn, Royal Warwicks, pose for a studio portrait. Both battalions were with the 48th (South Midlands) Division, a Territorial formation sent to Italy in 1917 and still there at the time of the Armistice. The scouts' pin-on metal fleur-de-lys badge is visible at front left and rear right, below the battalion arm patch; this vertical bar was red for the 1/6th and blue for the 1/8th Battalion. Note also the dark-coloured shoulder straps; these were faced with cloth in company colours – blue, red, yellow and green for A to D Coys respectively. (Author's collection)

became rout as units abandoned their positions and fled. Despite huge losses (10,000 dead, 3,000 wounded, 265,000 prisoners, 3,000 guns, 5,000 machine guns and masses of stores and ammunition), the Italian Army eventually rallied far to the south on the Piave River. On 27 October, while the Italians were in full retreat, orders were issued for an Anglo/French force to be sent to Italy in support of their ally.

By 18 November the first British divisions had arrived from Flanders, and by early December they had taken over a sector of the Piave front at Vicenza. The British force initially consisted of their Second Army, whose headquarters were established in Italy by mid-November 1917. Under command were XIV Corps (7th, 23rd & 41st Divisions) and later XI Corps (5th & 48th Divisions). Once the Italian front stabilized Second Army became 'British Forces in Italy', and was reduced to three divisions (7th, 23rd & 48th), the remainder returning to the Western Front.

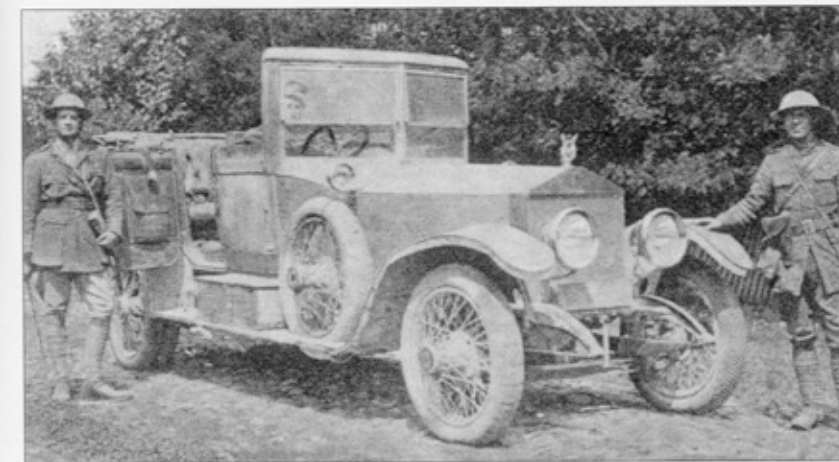
Since their gains had brought them to the Piave line in November 1917 the Austro-Hungarians had been content to set up defence lines along it; but German successes following the collapse of Russia tempted them to go on to the offensive in June 1918. Their army was war-weary, short of food, munitions and transport, whereas the Italian Army – under a new commander, and buoyed up by a tide of nationalist fervour at home – had recovered surprisingly well from the Caporetto disaster. Despite heavy fighting very little was gained by the Austrians, and those gains were soon contained. The British divisions in the line on the Asiago Plateau bore their share of the fighting, despite many units being well below strength due to the influenza pandemic then sweeping Europe.

Almost a year after Caporetto the Italians launched an offensive across the Piave spearheaded by the British XIV Corps, driving towards Vittorio Veneto. At first the Austro-Hungarians resisted, but by the end of October 1918 they were in disarray, and sued for peace after losing another 30,000 dead and wounded and 427,000 prisoners. By early November, Caporetto had been recovered and the Italian Army stood once more on the Isonzo as the Austrians marched home.

OPPOSITE Cdr Locker-Lampson (left) stands beside his Rolls-Royce staff car at the time of the Russian retreat from Galicia – present-day Ukraine – in 1916. His armoured cars were said to have 'performed signal service' in delaying the advancing enemy. (Author's collection)



Cdr Oliver Locker-Lampson RN, MP, commanded the squadrons of Royal Navy armoured cars sent to fight in Russia. Note the interesting insignia worn on his khaki uniform: the 'RNV' badge of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve on his khaki-topped cap with RN-style black ribbed band and gold-embroidered peak; and the collar badges of a Rolls-Royce armoured car. (Author's collection)



## RUSSIA

Perhaps the strangest British units to serve in Russia were the squadrons of Royal Naval Air Service armoured cars commanded by a British member of parliament, Cdr O. Locker-Lampson. Sent by sea to north Russia in the winter of 1915/16, they were held up by ice in the White Sea but eventually broke through. On landing they travelled all the way south to the Caucasus front, where they fought in support of the Russian forces confronting a Turkish army in Armenia. Locker-Lampson's men served there until early 1918 before returning to Britain and retraining as a unit of the Machine Gun Corps; subsequently they returned to south Russia via the Persian Gulf, and operated in the Baku area.

It was, however, after the fall of the Tsar, when the new Bolshevik regime concluded a separate ceasefire with the Central Powers, that Britain began sending troops to Russia as contingents in forces drawn from the Allied nations. For years

France and Britain had invested large sums of money and much matériel in Russia's war effort, and the initial mission of the expeditionary troops was to protect these stores and facilities at Murmansk and Archangel and to continue the war against the Central Powers from within Russia, but after the Armistice of November 1918 they were ordered to support the 'White' forces still fighting the 'Red' Bolsheviks.

A force sent to Vladivostok, eastern Siberia, in 1918 was mainly Japanese but included two British battalions (the 1/9th Hampshires and the 25th Middlesex). A much stronger British contingent went to protect north-west Russia from any German advance as part of another inter-Allied force which included French and American troops. First ashore at Murmansk in March 1918 were detachments of Royal Marines, followed by a 600-strong 'Syren Force' in June. 'Syren' was later reinforced to brigade strength; while 'Elope Force', also in brigade strength, landed at

Archangel. By August 1918 there were some 8,000 British troops on this front, together with 5,000 Americans, 1,300 Italians, 1,200 Czechs, Serbs and Poles, and 700 French; they were commanded by MajGen F. Poole, and from October 1918 by MajGen Edmund Ironside.

In time these formations began operations in aid of the White forces in the area; but the local Russian commanders, unable to find

enough willing recruits, turned to conscription, and by summer 1919 more than half of their men were press-ganged Red Army prisoners. In July 1919 mutiny broke out among them, and several of their British officers were murdered. (It was not only the White Russian units that were disaffected. Service in northern Russia was not popular with British units and at least one, the 6th Royal Marine Light Infantry, mutinied in July, refusing to go into the attack when ordered. On



North Russia: a British soldier dressed in a windproof 'Burberry suit' poses with skis and ski poles as he pulls a man-hauled sled. His clothing was part of the 'mobile scale' of issue, and includes a hood, smock, and trousers in gaberdine material as well as the 'Shackleton' boots, gloves, gauntlets and cap common to all scales. See Plate G2. (Author's collection)

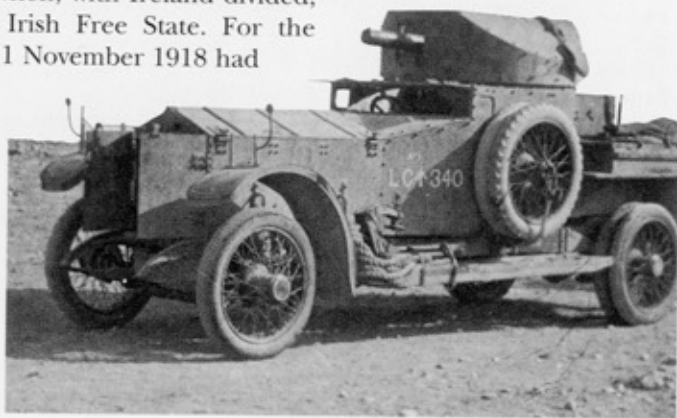
the other hand, two Victoria Crosses were won by men of British units in north Russia, one by Cpl Arthur Sullivan of South Australia serving with the 45th Royal Fusiliers, who rescued an officer and three men from a swamp while under enemy fire.) Shortly afterwards a decision was taken to withdraw British aid and troops from northern Russia, and by October 1919 the British had evacuated Murmansk and Archangel.<sup>10</sup>

Military missions had been sent to the Baltic states and to southern Russia to instruct White forces in the use of the military hardware that Britain had provided, including tanks. When it became clear that despite Allied intervention the Bolsheviks were going to succeed, these missions were withdrawn, as were the units with the Siberian expedition.

### Minor fronts

Ireland had been in a state of unrest in 1914, a situation that required a large British military force to 'aid the civil power' in keeping the peace. With the withdrawal of much of this force, Irish Republicans seized their chance and rose up in 1916 in the 'Easter Rebellion'; although this was quickly suppressed, a large force was maintained in Ireland thereafter at the expense of the war fronts. Within months of the Armistice an Anglo-Irish war began that was to last until 1921 when, with Ireland divided, the British Army quit the newly created Irish Free State. For the regiments stationed there, the ceasefire of 11 November 1918 had brought little peace.

This was also the case for those regiments stationed on the North-West Frontier of India. These had seen truly active service against tribal enemies from 1914 to 1918; and scarcely had the World War ended when a war with Afghanistan broke out, involving several Indian Army divisions and the many British units that formed part of them.



Men of the 7th Bn, North Staffordshire Regt advancing on the Baku oil wells in 1918 as part of the 'North Persia Force'. One of the two ammunition numbers (left) of this Lewis gun section wears an Indian pattern pith helmet, the other a topi, both with a large diamond-shaped pagri patch. The gun has the obsolete first-pattern mounting. (IWM)

OPPOSITE On all the Middle East fronts useful work was done – both in reconnaissance and direct combat support of infantry and cavalry – by the Rolls-Royce armoured cars of the 'Light Armoured Motor Batteries'. (Simultaneously these were also in action on the North-West Frontier of India.) This is one of the six cars operated by the unit commanded by the Duke of Westminster against the Turkish-backed Senussi incursion into the Egyptian Western Desert in winter 1915/16; they made a major contribution to the victory at Aqqaqir on 26 February 1916. (IWM)

The years following the ending of World War I were to see British soldiers deployed in many other parts of the world, in conflicts that usually stemmed from the geo-political chaos caused by the fall of four empires in 1917–18. These included the 'Chanak Crisis', when the British refused to withdraw their occupation forces from Turkey; unrest in Egypt; a revolt among the Shia in Iraq; and 'peace-keeping' in Kurdistan, Persia, and in Germany's former African colonies. For the British Army there was much work to do

beyond the frontiers of Europe before the last ghosts of the world upheaval of 1914–18 could be put to rest. In some regions it could be argued that they are engaged in it still.

## UNIFORMS & EQUIPMENT

In the struggle to clothe, arm and equip an army numbered in millions, priority was given to the Western Front. It was only when the British Expeditionary Force in France and Belgium had the latest rifles, grenades, machine guns, artillery, high-explosive ammunition, trench mortars, anti-gas equipment, aircraft, tanks, mechanical transport, medical and engineering facilities that these commodities became available to the British armies serving in 'other theatres'. Until then they made do with a variety of weapons that included the long Lee-Enfield rifle, primitive 'home-made' grenades, Maxim machine guns, obsolete artillery and very limited quantities of HE ammunition.

The uniform worn in many of the theatres mentioned in this title was KD (Khaki Drill) Service Dress, a uniform made from sand-coloured twilled cotton cloth or 'drill'. KD was made in a variety of patterns, ranging from those made in British factories to those made in India by native regimental tailors, 'darzis'. KD uniform originally consisted of a jacket and trousers, but by 1914 shorts had become almost universal. Several patterns of light sun helmets or 'solar topis' were worn as protection against the climate of Africa and the Middle East, as were 'cholera belts' of flannel, quilted 'spinepads', and sunshades which attached to topis or other helmets. Mounted troops wore breeches and puttees with KD uniform. In extremely hot weather jackets were often removed and shirtsleeves rolled in what was termed 'shirtsleeve order'. KD was worn in China, Italy, Salonika, Gallipoli, Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Africa, and in southern Russia in hot seasons. In the temperate or winter seasons serge Service Dress was worn, or a combination of SD and KD – to produce such oddities as topis and greatcoats worn together. Anyone who has experienced those parts of the Middle East where the noon temperature can be well over 35° C

<sup>10</sup> See MAA 305, *The Russian Civil War (2): White Armies*

## British & Empire formations serving in Eastern & Southern theatres

### Regulars

5th Division	Italy, Dec 1917–Mar 1918
7th Div	Italy, Nov 1917–Nov 1918
27th Div	Macedonia, Feb 1916–Sept 1918
28th Div	Macedonia, Jan 1916–Sept 1918
29th Div	Gallipoli, Apr 1915–Jan 1916

### Territorial Force

2nd Mounted Div	Gallipoli, Aug–Dec 1915
Yeomanry Mtd Div	Palestine, Jly 1917–Apr 1918
42nd (E.Lancs) Div	Suez, Sept 1914–May 1915; Gallipoli, May 1915–Jan 1916; Sinai, Jan–Feb 1916
43rd (Wessex) Div	India, Nov 1914–Nov 1918
44th (Home Counties) Div	India, Dec 1914–Nov 1918
45th (2/Wessex) Div	India, Jan 1915–Nov 1918
48th (S/Midland) Div	Italy, Dec 1917–Nov 1918
52nd (Lowland) Div	Gallipoli, June 1915–Jan 1916; Suez, Apr–Aug 1916; Palestine, Mar 1917–Apr 1918
53rd (Welsh) Div	Gallipoli, Aug–Dec 1915; Suez, Sinai, Palestine, Dec 1915–Sept 1918
54th (E.Anglian) Div	Gallipoli, Aug–Dec 1915; Western Desert, Palestine, Dec 1915–Sept 1918
60th (2/2nd London) Div	Macedonia, Dec 1916–June 1917; Palestine, Jly 1917–Sept 1918
74th (Ymry) Div	Palestine, Apr 1917–Apr 1918
75th Div	Palestine, Oct 1917–Sept 1918

### New Army

10th (Irish) Div	Gallipoli, Aug–Sept 1915; Macedonia, Oct 1915–Sept 1917; Palestine, Oct 1917–Sept 1918
11th (Northern) Div	Gallipoli, Aug–Dec 1915; Suez, Feb–June 1916
13th (Western) Div	Gallipoli, Aug 1915–Jan 1916; Suez, Jan–Feb 1916; Mesopotamia, Mar 1916–Oct 1918
22nd Div	Macedonia, Nov 1915–Oct 1918
26th Div	Macedonia, Nov 1915–Oct 1918
41st Div	Italy, Nov 1917–Mar 1918
63rd (RN) Div	Gallipoli, Apr 1915–Jan 1916

### Indian Army

1st Mtd Div	Palestine, Apr–Oct 1918
2nd Mtd Div	Palestine, Apr–Oct 1918
6th, 7th & 11th Cav Brigades	Mesopotamia, Nov 1914–Oct 1918
3rd (Lahore) Div	Mesopotamia, Jan 1916–Mar 1918; Palestine, Apr–Oct 1918
6th (Poona) Div	Mesopotamia, Nov 1914–Apr 1916
7th (Meerut) Div	Mesopotamia, Jan 1916–Dec 1917; Palestine, Apr–Oct 1918
10th Indian Div	Suez, Dec 1914–Mar 1915
11th Indian Div	Suez, Dec 1914–May 1915
12th Indian Div	Mesopotamia, Apr 1915–Mar 1916
14th Indian Div	Mesopotamia, May 1916–Oct 1918
15th Indian Div	Mesopotamia, May 1916–Oct 1918
17th Indian Div	Mesopotamia, Aug 1917–Oct 1918
18th Indian Div	Mesopotamia, Dec 1917–Oct 1918
Indian Expdtny Force 'B'	East Africa
Indian Expdtny Force 'C'	East Africa

### Dominion & Empire forces

<i>Australian Imperial Force</i>	
1st–13th Light Horse Regts	Egypt, Gallipoli & Palestine
14th & 15th Lt Horse Regts	Palestine
Australian Camel Corps	Egypt & Palestine
1st–28th Inf Bns	Egypt & Gallipoli
Royal Australian Engineers	Egypt, Gallipoli, Palestine & Mesopotamia
Australian Medical Corps	Egypt, Gallipoli & Palestine
Australian Flying Corps	Egypt & Mesopotamia

<i>Canadian Army</i>	
Canadian Army Medical Corps	Gallipoli, Egypt, Palestine & Macedonia

<i>Newfoundland</i>	
1st Newfoundland Regt	Gallipoli

<i>New Zealand</i>	
12 regts Mtd Rifles	Gallipoli, Egypt & Palestine
Royal New Zealand Artillery	Gallipoli, Egypt & Palestine
Corps of NZ Engineers	Gallipoli, Egypt & Palestine
18 regts of Infantry	Samoa, Egypt & Gallipoli
New Zealand Medical Corps	Samoa, Egypt & Gallipoli

<i>African colonies</i>	
West African Frontier Force	
Nigeria Regt, Gold Coast Regt,	German West & East Africa
Sierra Leone Bn, Gambia Coy)	German W & E.Africa
West African Regt	German E.Africa
Somaliland Camel Corps	German E.Africa
King's African Rifles	German E.Africa
East African Mtd Rifles	German E.Africa
East African Regt	German E.Africa
Nyasaland Defence Force	German E.Africa
Northern Rhodesia Police	German E.Africa
Northern Rhodesia Regt	German SW & E.Africa
Northern Rhodesia Rifles	German SW & E.Africa
British South African Police	German SW & E.Africa
1st Rhodesia Regt	German SW.Africa
2nd Rhodesia Regt	German E.Africa
1st & 2nd	German E.Africa
Rhodesian Native Regt	German SW.Africa & Egypt
Southern Rhodesia Volunteers	

<i>West Indies</i>	
British West India Regt	Egypt, Palestine, Macedonia & Mesopotamia
West India Regt	German W & E.Africa
<i>South Africa</i>	
5 regts Mtd Rifles	German SW & E.Africa
(Permanent Force)	
19 regiments Mtd Rifles	
(Active Citizens Force)	German SW.Africa
11 Volunteer Mtd Corps	German SW & E.Africa
13 mtd 'scout' units	German SW & E.Africa
Defence Rifle Assoc Cdos	German SW.Africa
10 regts SA Horse	German E.Africa
Artillery (PF, ACF & Vols)	German SW & E.Africa, Egypt, Palestine
10 regts of Infantry (ACF)	German SW.Africa
14 detachments of	
Dismounted Rifles (ACF)	German SW & E.Africa
Vol Infantry regts	German SW.Africa
13 regts SA Infantry	Egypt, German E.Africa & Nyasaland
SA Aviation Corps	German SW & E.Africa
SA Royal Engineers	German SW & E.Africa
SA Medical Corps	German SW & E.Africa, Egypt

(100° F), but can drop at night to below freezing, will appreciate the need for such mixed clothing issue. (The weather at Gallipoli at the time of the evacuation was so bad that thousands of men suffered from frostbite.)

There were many exceptions to the 'uniform' rules, especially regarding headwear. Wide-brimmed felt hats were worn by Australian, New Zealand, South African, some Indian and some British troops; many variations of turban (*pagri*) were worn by sepoy of the Indian Army; 'pillbox' caps and straw hats were worn by African askaris; and the ratings of the naval battalions of the Royal Naval Division wore a hybrid naval cap in khaki cloth.



The Armistice of November 1918 did not bring peace to the North-West Frontier, where the Third Afghan War broke out in 1919. Here Territorials of the 1/25th Bn, London Regt rest during operations against Mahsud tribal raiders in southern Waziristan. The *topi* patch is a dark circle on a white diamond; the uniform is KD tunic and shorts, with 1908 pattern webbing and SMLE rifles. (Gary Russell)

### Cold weather protective clothing

When the expeditionary force for north Russia was in the planning stage, advice was sought from the Polar explorer Sir Ernest Shackleton, who was appointed by the War Office in August 1918 with a commission as a major and the title 'director of equipment, clothing, rations and transport of the mobile columns and director of clothing for the SYREN Force'. Shackleton placed orders in Norway and the United Kingdom for clothing, sledges, dogs, skis and polar equipment. His design of 'Arctic Kit' included '4 sets Wolsely [sic] underclothing... 1 Burberry suit... 1 Arctic cap... 1 pair blizzard goggles... 1 pair skis... 1 large woollen overcoat... 1 pair Shackleton boots'. The boots were made of canvas with hard leather soles that froze as hard as iron. They were worn over socks, thick stockings and moccasins, all of which were wrapped in rags before putting on the boots. They were reported as being difficult to walk in, and were hated by the troops. The 'Burberry suit' consisted of a blouse, hood and trousers in a light-coloured gaberdine material of the sort that had been worn by the Scott and Shackleton expeditions. There were also sheepskin-lined coats, mufflers, sweaters, mitts and gauntlets, and 'Canadian lumberjacks' stockings'.

The clothing was issued on three scales – mobile, semi-mobile and sedentary – according to the nature of the work to be performed. The mobile and semi-mobile scales were very similar and built around the Burberry suit. The sedentary scale included the boots and fur cap of the other scales, specially warm underclothing for the normal Service Dress, and a large greatcoat lined with sheepskin.



How Khaki Drill uniform was supposed to look – demonstrated by the regimental sergeant-major of a Territorial artillery unit in India, 1915. (Author's collection)

The battalions posted to Vladivostok received winter clothing from Canadian sources, consisting of sheepskin-lined coats in a variety of colours (black, tan and brown), 'knee boots' and moccasins; fur caps were of the 'Nansen' type. The cold weather clothing issued to Cdr Locker-Lampson's men of the RNAS Armoured Car Division seems to have come from Admiralty 'foul weather' stores and consisted mainly of duffel watch coats, sea-boots and Balaclava woollen helmets.

#### Equipment & insignia

Many obsolete patterns of personal equipment were pressed into service, mostly the 1903 Bandolier equipment, until current patterns became available. The patterns used by some African units in 1914 were particularly odd (see Figure A1); they appear to conform to no regulation pattern, and were perhaps locally made.

The rash of 'battle insignia' that became fashionable on the Western Front were taken east and south by formations moving from the United Kingdom or the Western Front, and were later seen on Service Dress in Italy, Macedonia, Palestine and Mesopotamia.<sup>11</sup> Pagris – the turban-like bindings around topis or felt hats – were the place chosen to display coloured patches in regimental colours, or devices that were part of a formation scheme of battle insignia. (KD uniform did not lend itself to the attachment of coloured cloth patches, due to the necessity of frequent laundering.) One of the most comprehensive schemes of battle insignia were the coloured cloth patches of the Australian divisions, which neatly identified unit

and brigade by their colours and division by their shapes.<sup>12</sup>

In Salonika strips of coloured tape were worn around the base of shoulder straps to indicate the wearer's division: 10th, green; 22nd, black; 26th, blue; 27th, buff or yellow; and 28th, red. Some of the divisional signs chosen by formations serving in the East had interesting origins. The 54th (East Anglian) Division chose an umbrella turned inside out, after a successful raid on a Turkish position at Gaza codenamed 'Umbrella Hill'. The 74th (Yeomanry) Division, an infantry formation formed from dismounted yeomanry regiments, took a broken spur as their sign. The 75th Division's key referred to their capture of Nebi Samwil, 'the Tomb of Samuel' – a height considered the key to the Turkish defence of Jerusalem. The 11th (Northern) Division was serving in Egypt when the order was issued to choose signs, and took the ankus or 'Key of Life'. The 17th

(Indian) Division had as its sign an Assyrian lion – very apt for Mesopotamia. The 18th (Indian) Division simply displayed an elephant.

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How Khaki Drill uniform frequently looked... Two gunners pose in shirtsleeve order, one with the felt hat extensively issued in Salonika, the other with a topi. (Author's collection)

<sup>11</sup> See MAA 182, *British Battle Insignia (1): 1914–18*

<sup>12</sup> See MAA 123, *Australian Army at War 1899–1975*

## THE PLATES

### A: AFRICA

#### A1: Askari, 4th (Uganda) Battalion, King's African Rifles, 1914

Campaigning in sub-Saharan Africa wore down European troops at an alarming rate, with casualties caused by disease far exceeding those incurred in battle. By the end of the campaign in German East Africa most of the 'British' troops in this theatre were Africans, whose health stood up much better to marching and fighting in the punishing terrain and climate. This soldier at the outbreak of war serves in one of only three KAR battalions in being at that time – the 2nd had been disbanded. He is armed with an obsolescent long Lee-Enfield rifle and bayonet, and carries a *panga* (a native knife similar to a machete) on his right hip. Note his unusual leather equipment, with its large number of pouches for five-round chargers. Note also his puttees and sandals, and the Arabic number '4' on his cap. Coloured badge backings are recorded at various dates for some but not all battalions (see MAA 379, *Armies in East Africa 1914–18*).

#### A2: Sergeant, 1st (Nyasaland) Bn, King's African Rifles, 1918

By 1918 the KAR had increased to 22 battalions which were armed, clothed and equipped in a more up-to-date manner, as demonstrated by this NCO. His rifle is the Short Magazine Lee-Enfield and his equipment is the 1908 pattern webbing. He wears boots with his puttees, although in the British service many African units went barefoot by preference. Note his straw hat, shoulder titles '1' over 'KAR', and badges of rank.

#### A3: Volunteer, Bowker's Horse, 1914

This was one of the hastily-raised units of settlers formed in British East Africa, and eventually drafted into the East African Mounted Rifles. At first dressed in hunting clothes and armed with their own weapons, the men of the EAMR were eventually issued with British uniform, weapons and equipment, but managed to retain a somewhat unmilitary appearance. This volunteer shortly after the outbreak of war is identified by the 'BH' badge on the side of his Wolseley-pattern *topi*. He wears an issue KD jacket, 1903 pattern bandolier equipment, and is armed with an SMLE, but has retained civilian breeches and boots and a non-regulation pistol.

### B: GALLIPOLI, 1915

#### B1: Seaman, Nelson Bn, Royal Naval Division

The troops landing on the beaches at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 wore serge Service Dress and carried Field Service Marching Order equipment, with rifle, bayonet and 150 rounds of ammunition. Some wore *topis* and others caps. This seaman's khaki-topped cap bears a ribbon or 'tally' with the legend 'NELSON', and he displays 'RND' shoulder titles on blue backing. His equipment is the 1908 pattern webbing and he is armed with the SMLE rifle.

#### B2: Corporal, 8th Bn, Lancashire Fusiliers, 42nd Division

The 42nd (East Lancashire) Division was one of the first Territorial formations to go overseas, disembarking in Egypt in September 1914. In May 1915 the division landed at Cape Helles, 14,224 strong; on concentration back in Egypt after the evacuation of the Gallipoli peninsula it mustered 6,669



The Wolseley sun helmet, commonly called the *topi*, worn here by an officer of the 1/1st Bn, Fife & Forfar Yeomanry fighting as infantry at Gallipoli, September–December 1915; the regimental patch on the *pagri* is a red diamond on a blue square. Many of these Territorial cavalry units were dismantled and employed as infantry. After withdrawal to Egypt, this battalion became the 14th Bn, Black Watch (Fife & Forfar Yeomanry) in 224 Inf Bde of 74th (Yeomanry) Div, transferring to the Western Front in May 1918. (Author's collection)

all ranks. This corporal of the 8th Lancashire Fusiliers is depicted at the time of the landings. Note the regimental patch on the side of his *topi*, his 1903 pattern bandolier equipment, his greatcoat in its strap carrier, and the long Lee-Enfield rifle and bayonet.

#### B3: Havildar, 1/5th Bn, Gurkha Rifles, 29th Indian Brigade

This brigade arrived at Gallipoli in April 1915; one of its constituent units was the 1/5th Gurkha Rifles, one of three Gurkha battalions that took part in the attack on the Turkish positions at Chunuk Bair in August. This sergeant of the 1/5th displays the KD uniform and equipment worn for that operation. Note the green-banded *pagri* on his hat, his '5G' shoulder titles, 1903 pattern bandolier equipment and kukri knife. The white strips pinned around his sleeves were an identification sign for the Chunuk Bair operation.

### C: MESOPOTAMIA

#### C1: Stretcher-bearer, 7th Bn, Gloucestershire Regiment, 13th Division, 1917

The 13th (Western) Division was a Kitchener's (New Army) formation which served in Gallipoli before being sent to Mesopotamia in March 1916. It was the only completely British formation on that front. This stretcher-bearer of the 7th Gloucesters wears KD uniform shirtsleeve order. Note the regimental patch and the 'back-badge' worn on his *topi*, which has a neck curtain attached, and his quilted spine-pad. His webbing equipment is of 1908 pattern; note also the folded stretcher, medical satchel and waterbottle, and



his stretcher-bearer's brassard. The 7th Gloucesters, like the 1/5th Gurkhas, had also fought in the assault on Chunuk Bair in August 1915. Of the 1,000 officers and men of the 7th who went into the attack, only 181 survived alive and unwounded. All the battalion's officers and senior NCOs became casualties, but the remaining junior NCOs and private soldiers fought on.

#### C2: Regimental Sergeant Major, 13th Hussars, 1918

This British regiment served in Mesopotamia with the Indian Cavalry Division. Their RSM wears an India-pattern pith helmet, and a KD jacket with cord breeches and leggings. Note his Sam Browne belt, .455in Webley revolver, 'pistol case' and ammunition pouch; his warrant badges on the forearms, regimental collar badges, overseas service chevrons and ribbons for Indian and South African service.

#### C3: Major-General Sir H.T. Brooking, GOC 15th Indian Division, 1917

General Brooking's division was formed in May 1916, replacing the 12th Indian Division on the Euphrates front. Brooking wears the KD version of a general officer's Service Dress with the appropriate badges of rank. His divisional staff brassard displays the white 'star of India' that was the divisional sign of the 15th.

### D: PALESTINE

#### D1: Sergeant, 1st Regiment, Australian Light Horse, 1917

The units from the Australian Light Horse were perhaps the most colourful troops in Palestine. After serving as infantry in Gallipoli these regiments were reunited with their horses, and served with distinction in Palestine. This NCO, from a unit serving with the ANZAC Mounted Division, is in full Mounted Marching Order. Australian Service Dress differed considerably from that of the British cavalry, having a comfortable tunic in flannel wool in the style of a Norfolk jacket, and leather leggings. His insignia include a hackle of ostrich feathers, and the AIF 'rising sun' badge on the left brim of his hat; the white and light blue shoulder patch of the 1st Light Horse, with a brass 'A' marking him as a veteran of Gallipoli; AIF collar badges, and badges of rank. His 1908 pattern bandolier equipment has extra pouches; he carries a bayonet, water bottle, messtin, haversack, and slung SMLE. Wallets, blankets, groundsheet, feedsacks, picketing peg and ropes are strapped to his saddle, and his horse carries extra ammunition around its neck.

#### D2: Sergeant, Staffordshire Yeomanry, 1917

This British unit served with the ANZAC Mounted Division in 1917, and the mixed British/Indian 4th Cavalry Division in 1918. On the *pagri* of his *topi* this soldier wears the device of the Staffordshire knot, which is repeated on the NCO's badge above his sergeant's chevrons on the right sleeve of his KD jacket. His shoulder titles are 'T', over 'Y' (for Territorial/Yeomanry) over 'STAFFORD'. He is equipped here for dismounted action, with 1903 pattern bandolier equipment, SMLE rifle and bayonet.

Corporal, 1/4th Bn, Hampshire Regt in Mesopotamia, 1915 – cf Plate C1. In shirtsleeve order of a 'greyback' shirt and short KD trousers, he has a sunshade and tinted goggles on his *topi*, which bears the black-and-amber flash of his battalion. Note the method of wearing the quilted spine pad. (Author's drawing)



ABOVE Photographed relaxing in Cairo, 1916, this soldier of the 1st South African Infantry Brigade will shortly be en route to the Western Front. His shoulder titles are '2', over arcs 'SOUTH AFRICA' over 'ZUID AFRICA' enclosing 'INF', and he wears the collar badges of the newly-formed 2nd South African Infantry Battalion. The colours of the *topi* patch are unknown; those of some South African battalions in East Africa will be found in MAA 379, *Armies in East Africa 1914-18*. (Author's collection)

RIGHT Lieutenant, 5th Bn, Connaught Rangers with 10th (Irish) Division in Palestine, 1917 - the typical KD Service Dress of an infantry officer. Note the *topi* flash of the 5th Connaughts, a yellow 'V' on a green triangle, and the sleeve patch of green over yellow bars. (Author's drawing)

#### E: SALONIKA

**E1: Private, 1st Bn, Royal Irish Regiment, 10th Division, 1916**

Macedonia was another front where extremes of climate were experienced. In the hot summer this soldier is dressed in shirtsleeve order and wears one of the felt hats that were extensively issued in Salonika, with his regimental cap badge pinned to the brim. He wears 1914 pattern leather equipment in Field Service Marching Order, and his SMLE has a breech cover to keep out dust and grit.

**E2: Lewis gunner, 2nd Bn, Gloucestershire Regiment, 27th Division, 1918**

Muffled against the winter cold, this man wears a leather jerkin over his Service Dress. His equipment includes 1908 pattern webbing Battle Order, a 'small box' respirator (gases were, by this date, being used in Macedonia), and a steel helmet. He is armed with a .455in revolver, and carries his Lewis gun and a pannier of its magazines. By this date the divisional mark of the 27th (Regular) Division, a strip of yellow cloth, was worn on the sleeve. Above it the 2nd



Glosters displayed a red semicircle, and this combination was repeated on the steel helmet.

**E3: Nursing sister, Scottish Women's Hospital, 1915**

This unit, led by Dr Elsie Inglis, also served in the Balkans from 1915, and some shared the full horror of the Serbian winter retreat. This nurse of the unit wears the uniform in which they arrived in Serbia in April 1915.

#### F: ITALY

**F1: Private, 1/5th Bn, Royal Sussex Regiment, 48th Division, 1917**

The British troops arriving in Italy in 1917 were dressed and equipped for the Western Front. This soldier serves in the

pioneer battalion of the 48th (South Midland) Division, a Territorial Force formation. He wears his regimental cap badge on a white diamond - the divisional sign of the 48th - on his helmet; crossed pick-and-rifle pioneer badges on his collar; and company patches - here in red for A Coy - on his sleeves. Note the wound stripes and good conduct chevron on his left sleeve.

**F2: Sergeant, Royal Artillery, summer 1918**

When the hot weather of the Italian summer arrived, KD uniform was issued in place of SD. This Royal Artillery sergeant wears his newly issued suit of KD without insignia other than his badges of rank, and his sole equipment is his small box respirator.

**F3: Sergeant, 7th Bn, Machine Gun Corps, 7th Division, autumn 1918**

By this time *topis* had been issued in addition to KD, which our subject wears with shorts and puttees. His shoulder titles are 'MGC' over 'I' (for Infantry); his overseas service stripes, badges of rank, and divisional signs - a white disc on a black square. The divisional history states that 'every man's tunic soon carried the divisional sign below his shoulderstrap' (August 1918).

**F4: Quartermaster, 2nd Bn, Gordon Highlanders, 1918**

Also serving in the 7th (Regular) Division were the 2nd Gordon Highlanders, whose dress made no concessions to the extremes of climate: hot or cold, the kilt was worn. However, there were exceptions, such as this lieutenant, whose duties as the unit QM require him to ride. He wears a khaki Balmoral bonnet with the Gordons' badge on a patch of tartan, and KD Service Dress with breeches and leggings. Note his Sam Browne belt, badges of rank, divisional signs, overseas service stripes, wound stripes, and medal ribbons marking his long service all over the Empire. The prime duty of this commissioned veteran was the feeding of the battalion, closely followed by supplying all they needed to live in the field and to fight.

#### G: RUSSIA

**G1 & G2: British infantrymen, northern Russia, winter 1918**

G1 depicts an anonymous British sentry in the 'sedentary scale' winter clothing described in the text: fur cap, voluminous sheepskin-lined coat, 'Shackleton' boots, gloves and mittens. His equipment is the 1914 leather pattern, and he is armed with a

**North Russia, 1918: a British sentry dressed in the 'sedentary scale' of clothing devised by Sir Ernest Shackleton, the Arctic explorer - see Plate G1. He wears a fur-lined cap; a heavy canvas greatcoat lined with sheepskin fleece; 'Shackleton' canvas overboots; and gloves, with gauntlets hanging from tapes around his neck. He is conventionally equipped with an SMLE rifle and 1908 pattern webbing. (Author's collection)**

Russian 7.62mm Moisin-Nagant M1891 rifle and bayonet. Beside him, G2 wears the gaberdine Burberry 'mobile scale' winter clothing, with its windproof blouse, trousers and hood, as well as snow goggles, gloves, mittens and Shackleton boots. Note the snowshoes, SMLE rifle, and cotton bandolier of ammunition.

**G3: Private, 1/9th Bn, Hampshire Regiment; Vladivostok, 1918**

On arrival in Siberia this unit was 'issued with Arctic clothing supplied by the Canadian authorities, including knee boots, moccasins and wool-lined overcoats'. This soldier has conventional 1908 pattern webbing, SMLE and bayonet; the regimental cap badge of the 'Hampshire Cyclist Battalion' is displayed on the front of his 'Nansen' fur cap. The Canadians also kitted out the 25th Bn, Middlesex Regiment, who arrived in Siberia in July 1918; however, most of the coats provided were black in colour, making the 'Die-hards' perfect targets in the snowbound landscape. 'What with huge fur boots, black pointed caps and long black coats, there was nothing to indicate the British Tommy', complained one of their officers.

Shown inset is the white Polar star sign worn by the men of the 'Russian Relief Force'. It was always worn on a blue backing, the shape of which indicated the wearer's unit - in this case a Royal Engineer.

#### H: EGYPT & SINAI

**H1: Lieutenant, 2nd Bn, Imperial Camel Corps; Egypt, 1916**

Probably the oldest but most effective form of animal transport in the Middle Eastern theatres of operations was the camel.

An Imperial Camel Corps was formed in Egypt in 1916 and consisted of four battalions and supporting units, all mounted on camels. The 2nd Bn of the Corps was recruited from British Yeomanry regiments. This lieutenant from one of these units, depicted in Mounted Marching Order, wears no insignia other than his badges of rank, and the triangular green battalion patch on the *pagri* of his *topi*. Note the manner in which his saddle is rigged. Strapped and hung about it, and his person, are all the items that the young officer needed to eat, drink, sleep, stay warm, feed and picket his mount, read maps and, when necessary, fight.

**H2: Lieutenant, Royal Flying Corps, 1917**

Moving from one of the most ancient forms of transport to one of the most modern, this figure depicts an RFC subaltern in typical hot weather flying gear. Note his flying helmet and tinted goggles, his KD uniform with badges of rank, RFC collar badges, and his observer's brevet (a winged 'O').



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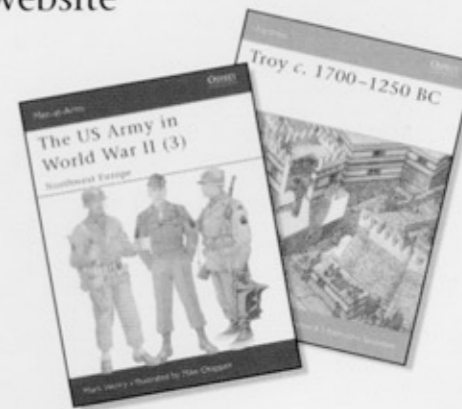
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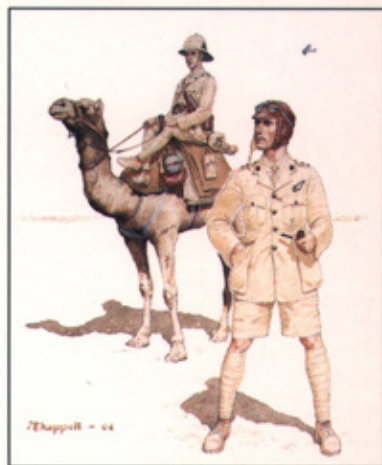


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