
*A Maritime Archaeology of Ships* is a synthesis of discoveries and insights acquired over the course of one maritime archaeologist’s remarkable career. Dr. Jonathan Adams, the author of this volume, is a professor in the Archaeology Department at the University of Southampton, where he also serves as the Director of the Centre for Maritime Archaeology. Starting in the 1970s, Adams directed or participated in the study of some of the most spectacular and informative shipwreck investigations of the past four decades, including Henry VIII’s warship *Mary Rose* (lost in the Solent in 1545), the English galleon *Sea Venture* (inspiration for Shakespeare’s *The Tempest*, stranded on a Bermudian reef in 1609), the Dutch East Indiaman *Amsterdam* (lost on the south coast of England in 1749), and the early-sixteenth century ‘Kravel Wreck’ sunk off Sweden’s Baltic coast. These wrecks and many others provide the foundation for Adams’ study of the role of wooden ships – specifically ship conception, design, construction, use, and disposal – in Europe’s transition from the Medieval to Early Modern eras.

This work is, however, much, much more than a simple examination of shipbuilding technology from an archaeological perspective. As the second half of the book’s title – *Innovation and Social Change in Medieval and Early Modern Europe* – suggests, Adams provides a discussion of the broader social and political contexts, economic factors, the exchanges of technological knowledge, and the availability (or shortages) of materials that together contributed to changes in ships, commercial and naval enterprises, and ultimately to Europe’s maritime expansion. It is an ambitious endeavour that Adams undertakes, amalgamating a wealth of archaeological and historical sources and ranging from such topics as plank fastenings and frame assemblies to the widespread changes imposed on European societies by the growth of state navies and commercial fleets over the course of the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries.

The first three of the book’s nine chapters are devoted to providing the reader with contexts for his subsequent inquiries: archaeological methodologies and theoretical approaches in the maritime sphere; an overview of the importance of watercraft over the course of human existence; and an introduction to the principal wreck sites examined in this book and the manner in which they were located and studied. Adams draws heavily upon finds in the Baltic, where favourable preservation conditions have yielded astounding sites from nearly every decade of the early modern era, including such recent discoveries as the seventeenth-century *Ghost* and *Lion* merchantman.
wrecks, and the Swedish warships Mars (lost in 1564) and Svärdat (lost in 1676).

In subsequent chapters, Adams explores European shipping in the Medieval and Early Modern eras, with a focus on the major shifts in wooden vessel design and building practices. Both state vessels (represented archaeologically by Mary Rose, the Kravel Wreck, and Mars) and merchant craft (including Sea Venture, the English galleon Warwick, and the mid-nineteenth century Slufter Wrecksite 4, a British-built collier) provide the basis for his interpretations. Adams’ firsthand knowledge of most of these wrecks allows him to move beyond basic description and offer insights into the wider implications of what the archaeological record has revealed.

A separate and somewhat side-bar chapter is devoted to the elusive “hulk,” a medieval Northern European vessel type posited by scholars working from vaguely-worded contemporary documents and stylized depictions. No unequivocal example of a hulk has been found in the archaeological record, and after re-examining the other evidence, Adams concludes that “we were looking for what did not exist” (p.109), and that the term “hulk” in the late medieval era was applied in a haphazard fashion to an assortment of large merchant vessels of previously-defined types.

Adams’ book is superbly illustrated throughout by numerous black and white sketches, plans, ship diagrams, contemporary prints and paintings, and photos; a section of sixteen tipped-in colour photos and paintings, including a photomosaic of Mars, adds much to the scholarly and aesthetic content. The observant reader will note that the colour paintings of wrecks, and nearly all of the book’s archaeological plans, perspective sketches, and many photos are works generated by the author. Indeed, Adams is renowned among his professional colleagues for his ability to put his considerable artistic talents to excellent use when recording and interpreting shipwrecks.

*A Maritime Archaeology of Ships* is a landmark achievement that belongs in the libraries of all serious professionals in the field of medieval and early modern maritime archaeology and history.

Kevin Crisman
College Station, Texas


In 1959, a young Murray Ault applied for and obtained a job as a cabin boy on the Canadian Coast Guard ship C.D. Howe, the Department of Transport’s Eastern Arctic patrol ship. Intrigued by the tales of the Arctic he had heard from a friend who had done the job the year before, Ault saw it as an interesting way to earn some money in a gap year between finishing high school in Ottawa and heading to university. Ault was an observant young man. He kept a diary, took photographs and wrote letters home, all of which have been preserved. They are the basis of this interesting book, 55 years after his Arctic adventure. We tend to forget that our experiences of today, even of events that seem to us to be unremarkable, are the history of tomorrow. What was it really like back in “those days”? Diaries and books of this kind illuminate the past for us.

The *C.D. Howe* was an important ship that for twenty years represented the government of Canada in the North. She
carried medical and dental teams, hydrographers, scientists, Royal Canadian Mounted Police officers, and Inuit inhabitants returning from medical treatment in the south. The calls she made to many small settlements in the Arctic and the supplies she delivered made her visits the event of the year, even though her demanding schedule meant that her stay might be very short. Ault and the other cabin stewards worked hard cleaning the cabins, helping in the pantry and performing any other tasks they were assigned. He would also help the seamen take cargo ashore in the ship’s barge and, whenever he could, he would go ashore and talk with residents – and he took photographs!

The ship’s officers and crew – all except for Murray and three other cabin boys – were French-speaking Quebecers, while the medical and scientific staffs were English-speakers. At one point in the voyage, the cabin boys felt discriminated against, because they were forbidden to use certain areas of the ship. I think that this was more hierarchical than language-based. What were these boys, the lowest-paid members of the crew, doing fraternizing with the scientists and hydrographers who enjoyed officer status? But the professionals saw that these were well educated young men on their way to college and after a while, the restrictions were ignored. In fact, Ault spent much of his spare time helping Dr. L. Ochinsky, an anthropologist.

The 1959 voyage appeared to be typical: they ran into storms, into ice that they could break through themselves, and thicker ice that required the help of the icebreaker N.B. Maclean. They called at many minor settlements as far north as Ellesmere Island, as well as at major centres like Churchill and Frobisher (now Iqaluit). At the latter port, Ault was surprised to encounter family friends from Ottawa whose father was now the administrator of the Arctic. The families are still in touch, and the friends have contributed photographs and an appendix. Other appendices give details of the ship and its complement.

Ault went on to become a teacher and later, a government consultant, but his Arctic voyage in the C.D. Howe plainly had a great influence on him. His interest in the Canadian North and its people remains unabated. Now he has told us what the view from the deck looked like fifty-five years ago.

C. Douglas Maginley
Mahone Bay, Nova Scotia


The post-war world brought increasingly complex geo-political issues, and Canada found itself acting on the global stage in a manner that could scarcely be imagined only a decade before. The Cold War was in full-swing, and as part of Canada’s commitment to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the country positioned a brigade in West Germany in order to counter the Soviet Union and its allies on the crucial European front. Isabel Campbell’s Unlikely Diplomats: The Canadian Brigade in Germany, 1951-1964 documents Canada’s decision to commit troops on foreign soil and the many issues which policymakers faced in administering the force and understanding exactly what role the Canadians would undertake in the event of Soviet aggression.

Campbell has done a tremendous job incorporating the wide array of literature on Canada’s Cold War commitment and
especially the significant primary materials held by Library and Archives Canada as well as the Directorate of History and Heritage of the Department of National Defence. The archival holdings for key individuals, such as Lester B. Pearson (secretary of state for external affairs in 1948-1957, leader of the Liberal Opposition, 1957-1963, and prime minister, 1963-1968), were thoroughly mined, and there are very few (if any) gaps in the coverage of significant primary documentation.

The three key themes of the book are Canada’s evolving role on the global stage, the impact of nuclear deterrence, and Canada’s unique approach to global security. There is a great deal of overlap among the three, but the constant factors were Canada’s uncertain role as a middle power within NATO, which tracked into relations with both the British and Americans, always with an eye to retaining national independence. Canada viewed NATO as an avenue for negotiating relationships with its two most important partners, preferring to develop socio-economic ties as opposed to simply viewing NATO as a purely military alliance. As Campbell points out, Canada faced difficulties in attempting to bring the voices of smaller NATO countries into policymaking.

Each of the six chapters addresses the Canadian Brigade from differing viewpoints, ranging from Canadian perspectives on the post-war world, to grand strategy, and the experiences of troops while posted overseas. Canada’s relationship with the West Germans was at times ambiguous and even problematic. The Canadian Brigade was incorporated into the British Army of the Rhine (BAOR) but unlike British troops, the Canadians were not formally part of an occupation force. As Campbell notes, Canadian politicians did their utmost to explain to the German populace that their soldiers were not there as occupiers but rather to aid Germany against Soviet attack. At times, however, civilians failed to appreciate the finer points of this distinction, resulting in tensions between Canadian troops and local residents. Canadians struggled to establish a strong independent identity and voice within NATO while attached to the BAOR and subject to their priorities and logistical systems, which in many cases, did not properly account for legitimate Canadian needs and differences. At times, the British commanders even impeded the Brigade commander’s direct communication links back to Ottawa.

Troop experiences comprise a significant portion of Campbell’s work and these changed significantly over the period examined. In the earliest phases, the troops consisted primarily of reservists under short-term commitments and subject to fairly rigid discipline with few recreational outlets. Drunkenness, venereal disease, and other misbehaviour were commonplace. The Canadian government, however, then began to allow families to join Brigade members in Germany, while improving housing and recreational facilities, which curbed many of the earlier excesses. Of note was the gradual transition from reservists to regular troops in the late-1950s to early-1960s. This was due, in part, to the development of the army into a professional force, but also to the understanding that Canadian soldiers were serving in many ways as diplomats (hence the title of the book), and cordial relations with German civilians were an essential part of this role.

Campbell’s third theme addresses the complexity of developing a nuclear deterrence policy during this period. Canada’s record with nuclear weapons was ambivalent at best, and Canadian commanders were not at all certain that tactical nuclear weapons were useful tools or even advisable, given the likely prospect
of conducting conventional land operations with non-nuclear air support. Leaders at all levels were uncertain when, and under what conditions, nuclear weapons could or would be used. While Canada operated the Honest John missile system, this was not a brigade-level asset, leaving Canadian commanders in the unenviable position of potentially not maintaining positive control over a national nuclear asset.

One minor quibble concerning the suggestion there was a lack of effective ties between the military and senior civil servants. While this may have been the case in terms of the formal bureaucratic structure, individuals such as Lester Pearson had worked closely with senior officers since the interwar period and these relationships certainly had an impact on decision-making processes. These interpersonal ties, although challenging to trace through the surviving written record, would be an important subject to explore as the literature on the topic grows. This is not to detract from what is an excellent work and valuable addition to the historiography of Canada’s part in the early Cold War. Isabel Campbell’s Unlikely Diplomats: The Canadian Brigade in Germany, 1951-64 will be of interest to specialists and general readers alike.

Tavis Harris
Edmonton, Alberta


The basic argument of this book is that Britain had very limited naval or legal effectiveness in the Atlantic world in the early modern period, certainly not the clout it would have taken to suppress piracy in the 1720s, as is often claimed. The author provides a much later and very different explanation for the demise of piracy in this vast open ocean with meandering coasts of coves, islands, and ports, most of it very far from London.

Chet’s book is, in part, an historiographical essay. Borrowing from Linda Colley’s famous work on early modern identities of Britons (Yale, 2009), Chet agrees that London lacked cohesive recognition from a large portion of its subject population until the building of connective railways and the imposition of nationalist conscription in the Great War (pp.4-5). As a result, piracy, smuggling, and other maritime “perdation” continued in defiance of official, unprecedented, and counter-cultural attempts to end it. This widespread resistance was rooted in the belief “that maritime commerce was beyond the jurisdiction of landed government…and that activities sanctioned by common custom and common law…could not be legitimately declared unlawful by statute” (p.95). Similar to an explanation that Atlantic-Caribbean slavery ended when it became more profitable to employ low wage labour, Chet posits that so, too, did piracy end when free trade notions took hold in the first third of the nineteenth century, making maritime plunder less profitable than “legitimate” trade. Specific factors that contributed to the shift were affordable insurance (more on this below), a general expansion of markets along with a rise in profit margins, and improvement of convoy tactics. There is a chapter focused on lucrative smuggling of both contraband and the loot accumulated by pirates, a business carried out, Chet argues, by respectable merchant families and trade firms with no stigma attached and none imposed by official denunciation (p.79). Smuggling, like its cousin piracy, withered
only when it became unprofitable.

Chet takes on influential historians of Atlantic-Caribbean raiding (notably Marcus Rediker and Robert Ritchie) who make the 1720s suppression argument, citing a decrease in the number of trials and convictions of pirates, a measurement that Chet disputes. He provides cases of piracy from the mid-eighteenth to the mid-nineteenth centuries, depredations that he believes are numerous enough to controvert the supposed earlier eradication of piracy. He also challenges the assumption of a clear distinction between pirates and privateers, a British legal nicety that did not reflect activity in the real Atlantic-Caribbean world (p.49).

Sources used for this book include legal and government records on both sides of the Atlantic, merchant letter books, confessions and last words of convicted pirates, newspapers and periodicals, and importantly — early modern analyses of insurance premiums, as well as guides to insurance practices dating from the mid-eighteenth to the early twentieth centuries. Although Chet cautions against the haphazard nature of insurance rates (p.xiii), those rates are a crucial part of his argument: overall, rates tended to go down over time because of increasing competition among insurers, not because piracy had decreased. This downward tendency was stable except during times of war. Not until the mid-nineteenth century did insurers believe they were taking on risks for natural perils of the sea without much risk from pirates (p.14). Chet returns to insurers in a chapter describing how investors and merchants were able to incorporate companies with most of the risk or, as the chapter title indicates, “Holding the Bag.” What the state had considered legitimate trade since the early eighteenth century – trade that did not involve piracy, violation of monopolies, and commerce with enemies, or smuggling – became more profitable and attractive.

This reviewer remains unconvincing that there was not at least an appreciable dip in piracy in the 1720s – for complicated reasons and not in perpetuity – but I am persuaded that maritime perdation was highly resistant to state efforts to eradicate it. Chet has succeeded in reminding me that the past is a different country. The approach of examining the clout of early modern maritime states raises many new intriguing research questions. An unwieldy but probably productive contrast might be made between the Atlantic, where the British had limited effectiveness, and the South China Sea and especially the Indian Ocean, where the East India Company functioned as a state, possessing corporate sovereignty, even in the charter of the company’s first structure at the beginning of the seventeenth century (Philip Stern, The Company-State, Oxford, 2011). It seems a worthwhile task to contrast the company’s charter with the apparently less effective official constraints available in the Atlantic.

Patricia Risso
Albuquerque, New Mexico


Facing the Sea: Lightkeepers and Their Families is the third book to have appeared under the auspices of the Canadian Coast Guard Alumni Association (Newfoundland Division) to further their aim of preserving the history of the lightstations of Newfoundland and Labrador. The first two books consisted of colour plates and black and white sketches of selected lighthouses by artist Leslie H. Noseworthy. As the title of this latest effort suggests, it deals more
with the experiences of the people who lived and worked at the stations. It nonetheless shares with its predecessors the oversize format common to coffee-table books, to which end it is also heavily illustrated, this time with photographs and maps instead of paintings and sketches. There are no footnotes or endnotes, no index, and the bibliography gives new meaning to the word “perfunctory.”

Harold Chubbs spent thirty years as a Canadian Coast Guard technician based in St. John’s, while co-author Wade Kearley is a professional writer whose output includes non-fiction and poetry. Their book has 25 chapters organized by lightstation and beginning with Cape Race, after which the chapters proceed clockwise around the island from one station to another. The Cape Race and Southwest Belle Isle stations lead the way with five stories (or sections); most of the remaining stations get only one or two.

As with the Noseworthy books, the coverage is selective, and the authors do not explain why they included some stations and excluded others. Among the most glaring omissions are Fort Amherst and Cape Spear, respectively the oldest and second oldest lighthouses in the province.

The book is badly marred by errors and typos, which begin with the very first story, a recounting of the role of the Cape Race wireless station in the RMS Titanic disaster of 1912. As but one example from this particular entry, the authors would have us believe that officer-in-charge Walter Gray received word of Titanic’s distress from his assistant Herbert Harvey, this despite documented evidence that operator Jack Godwin was on duty when the initial distress call came in, and that it was he who informed Gray. Elsewhere, they claim that Sophia Flynn and Netti Budgell, who were appointed as temporary keepers at Southwest Belle Isle in 1969 while their husbands recovered from accident, were “the first female keepers in the history of the region”? (p.87) Even setting aside the question of which region they mean, it was common even in nineteenth-century Newfoundland not only for keepers’ wives to mind the lights when the keepers were absent or injured, but also for their children to do so. The authors would also have us believe that in the 1950s the Associated Press kept a news boat at Cape Race for receiving news from passing liners, which was subsequently telegraphed to New York for publication. (p.15) The actual dates of this service were 1859-1866.

The book’s real value lies in those stories that are based on Chubbs’ conversations with lightkeepers and their families, which he had the good sense to write down and preserve for posterity. These provide genuine insight into work and life in what Kearley describes as “one of the most extreme environments on earth” (p.11). Anyone doubting this assessment need only read the “Entombed In Ice” story in the chapter on South Head Lightstation, or else view the photographs that accompany it. Built in 1925 on a narrow ledge some thirty metres above sea level, the station was reputed to occupy the smallest piece of land of any light station in the Newfoundland region. In windy weather, the waves struck the cliff so forcefully that dishes rattled on their shelves in the keepers’ duplex. The men and their families became inured to such things, but nothing could prepare them for what happened in January 1961, when as a result of rough seas and sub-zero temperatures, so much sea spray froze on the duplex that the people within were entombed for a day and got out only with the greatest of difficulty. Mercifully, the families were removed and South Head became a rotational station. This and other stories in the book prove beyond a shadow of a doubt that Newfoundland lightkeepers and their families were as hardy and as resourceful as
Those to be found anywhere on the planet.

This, then, is a book that should not be assessed on the basis of scholarly rigour. It should instead be read for the rich material it contains on living and working conditions in the Newfoundland lightkeeping service, material that will be useful when the long overdue general history of that service is finally written. In the meantime, the members of the Canadian Coast Guard Alumni Association (Newfoundland Division) are to be commended for their efforts in preserving these first-hand accounts by a disappearing breed of everyday heroes.

James E. Candow
Halifax, Nova Scotia


The discovery of HMS Erebus, one of the two ships from Sir John Franklin’s ill-fated 1845 expedition, caused a media sensation last year. The ship was located and identified by a team led by Parks Canada. This significant milestone for Canadian history was preceded in 2010 by the equally important discovery of the HMS Investigator, one of the ships that left England in 1850 to search for the lost Franklin expedition. Although Investigator did not find Franklin’s ships, it discovered the final portion of the Northwest Passage. During the journey, Investigator was trapped for year and a half in the frozen waters of Mercy Bay on Banks Island, where it was abandoned by its crew after they were rescued in 1853.

Best-selling author, Andrew Cohen, a professor of journalism and international affairs at Carleton University in Ottawa, provides a vivid account of Investigator’s journey in Lost beneath the ice. The book is divided into two parts; the first covers the ship’s voyage, and the second, the archaeological survey conducted by Parks Canada that led to the discovery and documentation of the shipwreck. Two additional sections present an extensive selection of high-quality historical and contemporary images which complement them. It should be noted that illustrations comprise the majority of the book, while the text takes up only about one-third of the publication.

Cohen’s account of the Investigator expedition is based on the personal diaries of McClure, the ship’s commander, Alexander Armstrong, the ship’s surgeon, and Johann Miertsching, a missionary who joined the expedition as an interpreter. Their diaries are combined with several secondary sources about the search for the Northwest Passage in order to reconstruct the journey and its historical context. Cohen’s various sources are presented in a short bibliography, and cited in the text through quotations or simply by the authors’ names when he references them. The author offers interesting insight into the “mercurial” and ambitious personality of Captain McClure and how it influenced the development of the expedition. His description of the hardships endured by Investigator’s crew is both impressive and moving. The author, however, emphasizes the role of scientific research in polar exploration, while the real motivation also includes economic, political, and territorial factors, which are summarized in just two sentences.

The second part of the book briefly narrates the search, discovery, and documentation of the shipwreck between 2010 and 2011 by Parks Canada underwater archaeologists. After outlining the historical relationship between Investigator and the modern Canadian Arctic Archipelago, Cohen justifies the search by the “benefits
that its discovery might yield for anthropology, archaeology, and history.” This overlooks the implications of this archaeological project in relation to the current assertion of Canada’s Arctic sovereignty over the Northwest Passage. The political and economic motivations that lie behind the project, especially at a time when climate change is making the Northwest Passage accessible for shipping traffic, deserve further explanation. Nevertheless, Cohen’s account is engaging and descriptive, focusing on the methodology used to document the shipwreck in the harsh Arctic environment. A more in-depth analysis of the preliminary results of the archaeological research of Investigator’s remains would have been useful.

The book is splendidly illustrated with high quality images and photographs, including a portrait of Captain McClure, nine pages of ship plans, and various paintings by S.G. Cresswell, the ship’s illustrator. Two contemporary maps show the route Investigator took, but unfortunately, they are too small to allow the reader to fully appreciate the detail – a larger map would be beneficial. The paintings illustrate various moments of the expedition, and become a perfect complement to the account, helping the reader visualize the events narrated in the book. The images selected to illustrate the archaeological project are also superb and perfectly depict not only the archaeological work conducted by Parks Canada but also the beautiful, but challenging working environment. All images are credited in the last pages of the book, making it a handy source for scholars researching the topic.

Andrew Cohen presents a well-written, accurate, and lively account of one of the most famous episodes of the age of Arctic exploration. Although this book is written for a general audience rather than scholars, it offers solid historical information along with a realistic description of archaeological work. Moreover, the number and quality of the illustrations compensate for the limited amount of text. Although a chapter exploring the connections between the current archaeological research in the Arctic and Canada’s sovereignty claims over the Northwest Passage would have been a valuable addition to the book, the abundant and exceptional colour illustrations will ensure this book a place in the library of any maritime historian or general reader interested in this captivating historical event.

José Luis Casabán
College Station, Texas


In the era of Queen Victoria, travel by large, swift, deep-sea ships to far countries was considered very exciting, with destinations such as Egypt or Aden seen as gateways to India, the Far East and Hong Kong. It wasn’t long before luxurious passenger liners were being built specifically for these trades and fitted out with the best accommodation as they followed their published schedules.

Ian Collard is a prolific author on the subject of historic merchant shipping and has written books on the Blue Star Line Fleet History and Mersey Shipping Through Time. Every page of this illustrated history contains stimulating photographs, as well as reproductions of posters, menus and sailing lists from that era.

A turning point came as early as 1844 when the inventive, Scottish-born shipowner, Arthur Anderson, and his
business partner, Brodie McGhie, developed the notion of deep-sea leisure cruising. Instead of speedily transporting passengers from point A to point B, Anderson proposed the idea of longer, circular, leisure cruises. He then invited William Makepeace Thackeray to take such a voyage and, most importantly, to write about the experience afterwards.

The author explains in detail the differences between passenger liners and these luxury cruise vessels. He also recounts how American-owned but British-operated steamships developed a regular transatlantic passenger service from London to New York. Carrying only First Class passengers, this service remained a significant presence in international shipping until the outbreak of the First World War in 1914 caused a disruption to global business.

Subsequent steamships were designed for a new and more sophisticated clientele and, from the late 1880s, set the scene for a growing number of British shipping lines that followed Anderson’s initiative and converted their vessels to offer leisure-only voyages. The outcome was that transatlantic cargo shipping gradually became more specialized and the demand for pleasure cruising grew strongly.

In this excellent book, Ian Collard relates how British cruise ships frequently sailed to new ports the world over and how, from the 1880s, most new passenger ships were designed solely for luxury cruising. This change in employment not only kept many an under-invested shipping company afloat during the depression years but also marked the establishment of British passenger vessels operating for no other purpose than leisure.

The author also examines in detail the turning point for British-flag passenger vessels which had survived the depression years by carrying alcohol-starved American citizens on so-called “booze cruises to nowhere.” He also describes how, during the war years, many merchant ships were converted into temporary armed cruisers of which a great number were sunk. Some were lost in heroic circumstances, such as the SS Jervis Bay, sunk by the German battle cruiser Admiral Scheer, which resulted in a Victoria Cross being awarded to the ship’s captain.

Essentially an illustrated study of the development of passenger liners in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Collard’s book compares and contrasts the differences between ships used solely for pleasure and normal line voyages where passengers were transported to a specific port or country. From a turning point in 1957, when more people crossed the Atlantic by air than by sea, the 1960s became the era of sea cruises. Passenger ships were quickly refurbished for the profitable and growing American tourist industry and, within the next decade, most deep-sea liner shipping companies ended their regular passenger services.

Almost every page of this book features four or five illustrations depicting known cruise ships and their fashionable passengers sailing between such unlikely cruising ports as Immingham and Oslo for the benefit of the British middle classes. The cruise of the magnificent 20,000 ton Scythia from the United States to the Mediterranean became such a sought-after annual classic that sailing schedules were manipulated and advertised as “133 days – the wonder belt of the world.”

The message of specialized shipping markets, past, present and possibly, even future, is that there are very few clear boundaries. Today shipowners still invest to meet a market need, and many of them work to very tight profit margins. During two world wars and the Falklands conflict, passenger ships and their crews maintained regular services and their endurance and unexampled courage contributed strongly to
the eventual victory.

One unusual case quoted by the author is the fate of the 1939-built, twin-funneled passenger ship *Mauretania*, which was converted to a war-time troopship within a year. After completing 48 voyages and carrying over 355,000 troops, the vessel returned to passenger service in 1962 and cruised out of New York to Cannes and Italy. This venture soon proved to be unprofitable, however, and in 1965, the ship was broken up at Inverkeithing.

This intelligent and entertaining book would be enjoyed not only by readers of maritime history, but also those interested in the global economics and politics of the twentieth century. Although sea cruising lay at the most sophisticated end of the specialised shipping industry, it also operated in a very narrow market where its principal assets were luxury ships that moved from port to port. Passengers turned out to be a dream cargo and they were sought after by shipowners rather than the traditional bulk cargoes, liquid cargoes, and even later, refrigerated goods.

Michael Clark
London, England


This small book is an offering in Heritage House’s “Amazing Stories” series, a mainstay on the BC Ferries, tourist racks, and local-focused book shops on Vancouver Island and the mainland. It is an abbreviated and more readable popular version of Brendan Coyle’s *War on Our Doorstep: The Unknown Campaign on North America’s West Coast*, published eleven years ago by the same publisher and now with his wife Melanie Arnis as a co-author. Brendan Coyle (not to be confused with the namesake actor of *Downton Abbey* fame) is a recreational diver who has worked in several fields of maritime industry and a self-professed historical enthusiast with a passion for military and naval matters on the West Coast. He grew up in New Westminster and now resides in Steveston, downstream at the mouth the Fraser River in Richmond on Lulu Island.

Given that the target audience is the general public, the book with its provocative title is unencumbered by footnotes or references and has a basic bibliography of sources and electronic websites. One might have expected to see Galen Perras’ *Stepping Stones to Nowhere: The Aleutian Islands, Alaska, and American Military Strategy, 1867-1945* (UBC Press, 2003) among other related books and academic articles there, which have appeared since original publication of *War on Our Doorstep*. Coyle, however, has conducted extensive secondary research, field visits to remote battlefields and other sites, and interviews with many veterans and participants for first-hand accounts. He and Arnis draw upon this work to construct a good narrative with factual information and just enough colour to engage the reader. The photographs and illustrations are essentially drawn selectively from *War on Our Doorstep*, many of them the same.

The subject matter in *Enemy Ashore!* follows familiar ground by focusing on Japanese submarine activities off the Pacific Coast of North America, Canadian preparations and involvement in the defence of the West Coast (particularly in the air), the Japanese seizure and American recapture of certain islands in Alaska, the highway built through British Columbia and the Yukon to the northern American state,
and incendiary balloons sent across the Pacific from Japan intended to set forests afire and undermine civilian morale. Each of these topics is presented in separate chapters, more interesting vignettes that are loosely connected by a short prologue and epilogue. The information provided is simple and straightforward, as other authors have covered the subjects in far more depth and detail. For the most part, the sensationalism suggested in the title and sub-title are largely avoided. At this point in the historical record, there is very little actually left secret about Japan’s war off North America, at least as presented here.

Coyle and Arnis provide a good introduction to a subject that might be unknown to casual or general readers. The book is an easy read, perhaps even possible in the 90-minute Saanich-Tsawwassen ferry ride or waiting in line for a missed sailing. Those looking for more are recommended to Coyle’s War on Our Doorstep, which some day might be revised and updated by Heritage House, and a growing academic literature on the involvement of British Columbia and the western and northern U.S. states in the war against Japan during the Second World War.

Chris Madsen
North Vancouver, British Columbia


With the ratification of the Treaty of Ghent in 1815 and the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817, the necessity for the United States and Great Britain to maintain large naval forces on the Great Lakes ended and so also ended a three-year naval arms race of gigantic proportions. The ships, mostly unsuited for ocean service, were sold or abandoned in backwater anchorages and by 1825 had rotted away and sunk. In Coffins of the Brave, Kevin Crisman has combined his own investigations of these vessels with those of eleven other nautical archaeologists to bring to light the history and uniqueness of these vessels of an often forgotten war.

Crisman has divided his work into four distinct sections. His introduction gives a concise review of the causes of the War of 1812 and specifically, the importance to both sides of the Great Lakes area. He then divides the Lakes into three main areas of conflict – the Upper Lakes Huron and Erie, Lake Ontario, and finally Lake Champlain.

Part One, the Upper Lakes, begins with a detailed discussion of the problems besetting both Great Britain and the United States at the beginning of the war due to the remoteness of the area involved and the administrative chaos in both Washington and London. Crisman begins a theme which will extend throughout the entire book in which he describes the work of the shipwright, who had to design vessels to the specific requirements of lake sailing while dealing with the problems of supplies and labour. It would be Noah and Adam Brown who would create the American fleet for Oliver Hazard Perry. Perry, in turn, would command the victory of Lake Erie and isolate the British in Upper Canada.

Having dealt with the military history, Crisman then presents four sub-sections by individual nautical archaeologists describing both British and American vessels involved in the Upper Lakes including the American brig Niagara, the British brig General Hunter, His Majesty’s hired schooner Nancy and the Royal Navy schooners Tecumseth and Newash. The brig Niagara is the only vessel of the Lakes fleets to be salvaged and reconstructed. The author gives a detailed
account of the salvage of the hull and the three variations of her reconstructions from 1913 to 1988 as modern naval architects tried to reproduce a vessel suited to lake service. Since *Niagara* is a working vessel, the author also describes the problems of modern sailors in manning of nineteenth-century ships. The British transport schooner *Nancy* is the only pre-1812 vessel believed to be extant. Built for the fur trade in 1789 and taken over by the military in 1812, she presents the only example of lake shipbuilding prior to the war available for documentation.

Part Two of *Coffins of the Brave* deals with the war on Lake Ontario, the smallest of the Great Lakes. Crisman follows his usual pattern of presenting a concise picture of the naval war. Lake Ontario became the centre of the war since it controlled all military movement east and west. In an attempt to control this movement, the British commander James Yeo, and his American counterpart, Isaac Chauncey, both accomplished extraordinary feats of logistics in building squadrons but neither seemed willing or able to bring about a decisive battle.

The vessels examined by Crisman and his associates include the American wrecks *Hamilton* and *Scourge* and the brig *Jefferson* and the British frigates *Prince Regent* and *Princess Charlotte* and the unfinished ship-of-the-line *St. Lawrence*. As if to balance things out, Crisman also includes the diary of *Scourge* crewman Ned Myers to describe the storm which sent both vessels to the bottom.

In examining the submerged wrecks of the *Hamilton* and *Scourge*, Crisman includes the diary of *Scourge* crewman Ned Myers to describe the storm which sent both vessels to the bottom. Part Three of Crisman’s book deals with the war on Lake Champlain. Although not generally considered as one of the Great Lakes, Lake Champlain is included because of its importance along with the American victories at Baltimore and New Orleans in bringing about a neutral solution to the war on Christmas Eve of 1814. Thomas Macdonough had been the American commander on Champlain since 1812 and had been gradually increasing the size of the American fleet. Crisman then concisely details the British plans of June 1814 to seek protection of Montreal and Lower Canada by destroying American advanced bases on Champlain. Carefully detailed is the advance southward by British General George Prevost and his flank protection on the lake by Commodore George Downie. Greatly outnumbered, the Americans chose to fight a defensive battle in Plattsburgh Bay. The defeat of the British flotilla on September 11, 1814, caused General Prevost to withdraw his superior land forces fearing the exposure of his lakeside flank.

Currently four ships from the 1814 battle are known to have survived to the present day – the U.S. schooner *Ticonderoga*, the U.S. brig *Eagle*, the U.S. row galley *Allen*, and the Royal Navy brig *Linnet*. Like the surviving vessels on the Great Lakes, these survivors were examined by Crisman and his associates.

The most important theme of *Coffins of the Brave* is the nautical archaeological investigation of the War of 1812 wrecks. These detailed accounts begin with location of the wreck sites through interviews with local residents and archival research. Once a wreck was identified, extensive plans were drawn and photographs taken.

Accompanying these visuals are precise written explanations of the construction techniques used by the lakes shipwrights. These explanations verify statements in the history theme of the constraints placed upon the builders due to lack of traditional building materials and the geography of the lakes. Perhaps the most
interesting outcome of the archaeological studies is the drawing-board reconstruction of the ships. The reader is able to have a graphic representation of how the naval vessels actually appeared. Crisman concludes the archeological theme with a review of the efforts made by local and governmental groups to preserve and display the hulks when possible for public view. He also has written a brief statement concerning the archaeological legacy of the Plattsburgh Bay battle which, because it occurred in shallow waters, has enabled divers to plot the progress of the encounter from the artifacts lying on the bottom.

*Coffins of the Brave* is richly illustrated not only with the archaeological drawings and photographs but with prints, paintings, and sketches many dating from the War of 1812 period.

Kevin Crisman is currently an associate professor of nautical archaeology at Texas A&M University and is director of the Center for Maritime Archaeology and Conservation. In his opening to *Coffins of the Brave*, Crisman comments that he has taken many years to assemble this text. It has been well worth the wait.

Fred Hopkins
Linthicum Heights, Maryland


Writing a book that is nothing less than the complete history of human activities on an entire continent is an enormous challenge, even if the continent is Antarctica and thus, a continent with neither an indigenous population nor even a permanent one. In fact, the first human activities there did not take place until the late eighteenth century. It needs to be stated that David Day has met this challenge, not unlike the challenge Antarctica presents to any kind of human activity on the frozen continent, extremely well, but not without some shortfalls. The result is a book nearly as thick as the Antarctic ice shelf itself, covering the period from man’s first sightings of the continent to the era of the Antarctic Treaty of 1959 in a little more than 600 pages.

The book is organized chronologically and divided into 21 chapters ranging from the first voyages to the frozen South by James Cook, through the various expeditions of the heroic era of Antarctic exploration and the mechanical era to today’s era of the Antarctic Treaty regime.

Each chapter provides a narrative account of expeditions from each of the respective periods, nearly always including a discussion of the motives behind the expeditions and issues of territoriality and sovereignty, in other words, colonialism and decolonization in the Antarctic context. A short epilogue concludes the volume followed by an extensive bibliography, which might be the most useful part of the book for any historian familiar with the history of Antarctica.

When reviewing a book one must consider whether it contributes to the existing body of knowledge. The few historians specializing in the history of Antarctica, will find very little here that is new. Other readers, however, will learn a great deal since most Antarctic research is usually published in somewhat obscure journals or by publishers serving only niche markets.

This book provides a welcome compendium of Antarctic history, offering an excellent overview for the non-specialist and a handy resource for the specialist who wants certain information without unnecessary detail. Nevertheless, *Antarctica: A Biography* has a few shortcomings. The only maps included in
the book are one overview of the complete continent in the endpaper and a single map of territorial claims as of 1986. Additional maps are necessary for locating where the events mentioned in the narrative occurred and without at least some historical maps, it is difficult to understand the growth of geographical knowledge about Antarctica from the late eighteenth century on. Despite a very good index, a timeline would have been helpful for keeping track of such a rich and sometimes dense chronology of events. A section of 30, mostly well-known, black and white pictures and photographs completes the book, but these few images are hardly enough to illustrate the history of an entire continent. Although Day sometimes relies on interpretations that might be considered outdated by contemporary Antarctic historians, the very nature of such a monumental undertaking makes such nitpicking irrelevant.

Short on analysis and long on description, Day has written a book in the best tradition of Leopold von Ranke, the well-known German historian who dared to write the history of the papacy covering four centuries. His was a complete history that basically left nothing out, but limited itself to description rather than analysis. Like Ranke, Day is less strong in his analytical approach, but he has provided a comprehensive foundation for future historical analysis of Antarctic topics. Antarctica: A Biography offers an entry point for historians new to the frozen South and a one-stop reference for specialists. It is well written, for even casual readers, and is recommended for its eloquent overview of Antarctic history. For example, it would be an ideal companion for the long journey to the frozen continent of Antarctica.

Ingo Heidbrink
Norfolk, Virginia


The name Jules-Sébastien-César Dumont d’Urville (23 May 1790 to 8 May 1842) usually appears as a footnote, a reference in a wide variety of academic papers, but it is likely most English language readers know little about him. Edward Duyker brings d’Urville to life as one of the most multi-talented yet complex nineteenth-century explorers. Largely considered a botanist/mariner, d’Urville’s intellectual perambulations ranged much farther afield. Not only was he an explorer, surveyor, cartographer, entomologist, zoologist, anthropologist, geologist, hydrographer, and thermometrographer, as a mariner, he made historical journeys circumnavigating the world several times and visited the Antarctic twice (1837 and 1840). The last journey was his attempt to reach the south magnetic pole at around longitude 140°. D’Urville spoke or read French, English, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Chinese, Egyptian Arabic, Khoisan, and several Polynesian dialectics.

In 1820 d’Urville sailed the eastern Mediterranean, bringing back over 3,000 plant specimens, about 300 to 400 of which had never been described in European collections, plus approximately 900 rock samples. This enormous scientific enterprise resulted in the publication of Enumeratio Plantarum, a study written in Latin, describing the botanical specimens he had collected during his voyage. This led to d’Urville’s election to the prestigious Linnean Society. During his Mediterranean travels, he was also instrumental in the excavation and acquisition of the statue of Venus de Milo for France. From his voyages in the South Pacific, he was able to delineate the ethnographic divides of
Micronésié and Melanésié with respect to Polynesia, demarcations that stand today. In 1821, d’Urville was made Chevalier de la Légion d’honneur. In mid-life he commanded the two vessels that took France’s Charles X into exile in Britain in 1830.

While on his extended expeditions in the southern hemisphere, Captain d’Urville and his crew were plagued with dysentery, cholera, scurvy, and various forms of malnutrition and he was the first to use gelatin as a form of protein for his ship’s company. Personally, d’Urville also endured depression, gout, gastroenteritis, and debilitating headaches. His vessel, first called la Coquille and later renamed Astrolabe, suffered many calamities during his epic adventures ranging from lost anchors to threats of being overrun by hostile inhabitants in the New Zealand islands, to groundings on coral and amid Antarctic ice.

Intellectually gifted but socially inept, d’Urville was eccentric, politically injudicious and sometimes intemperate in his dealings with colleagues. His manner, described as “abrupt” and “brusque” contributed to an abrasive personality. He appears to have alienated many of those who controlled the fate of his divergent careers – hindering his rise in both the scientific and naval communities. One of his subordinates described him as “ambitious for fame and glory . . . vain [believing] himself much superior to other men of his corps. . . . I have never seen him miss the opportunity of glorifying himself . . . a rare occurrence with naval officers.”(p.199-200) Duyker refers to his attire as “relaxed,” usually consisting of tattered, threadbare britches and coat with a beat-up straw or woollen cap, not the typical dress of a French naval officer.

No one would have predicted that d’Urville would become a maritime Renaissance man. He had struggled with school as a child and failed his qualifying exams for entry into university. Instead, he matriculated as a cadet at France’s naval academy. He rose through the ranks of the navy, but always lagged behind his more personable and outgoing peers. The naval hierarchy considered him a scientist, while the scientific community largely thought of him as a naval officer at a time when the French Navy was far from its zenith. He was, in fact, both.

In 1834-35 d’Urville published a two-volume work, Voyage pittoresque autour du monde, using the literary device of a fictional mariner with adventures borrowed and rewoven from the voyage narratives of others. On his return to France in 1840, d’Urville was promoted to rear admiral and awarded the gold medal of the Société de Géographie, and earned praises from the members of the French academy of Sciences. He wrote the first three volumes of Voyage au pôle sud et dans l’Océanie and was working on the fourth book when he died with his wife in a bizarre train accident.

Duyker’s biography is an extremely detailed analysis of a multifaceted man during a tumultuous time in French history. The author skillfully recounts dramatic events such as hostile raids by natives, rampant illness onboard a vessel far from land, and surveying the Antarctic coastline under crepuscular light and severe weather conditions as d’Urville and the people around him dealt with the multiplicity of challenges. The moving story of his long-suffering wife Adélie and the loss of several of their children while d’Urville was at sea is tragic.

Dumont D’Urville, Explorer & Polymath is dense with detail that produces an avalanche of information. Costly, but beautifully bound and well illustrated, this scholarly biography is a rewarding read about one of the most erudite explorers of the nineteenth century. Duyker recounts an
important part of the French contribution to exploration, cartography, hydrography, entomology and anthropology in a neatly packaged and brilliantly narrated memoir of one extraordinary man.

Louis Arthur Norton
West Simsbury, Connecticut


This monumental work provides a complete account of the history of naval anti-aircraft guns and gunnery in the fifty years from the First World War to the post-Second World War period. The author states his purpose as: “This book is about the gun defence of surface ships, but fleet air defence also involved fighters, both carrier and land-based.” (p.54). He covers the experience of France, Italy, Germany, Holland, Japan, Russia, and Sweden whose navies developed anti-aircraft systems, but the main focus is on the America and British navies, since they were most active and most extensively documented.

The anti-aircraft gun and the supporting gunnery system were increasingly critical to the survival of ships at sea during the period, as aircraft succeeded the heavy guns of the battleship as the dominant naval weapon. The book follows the progression from anti-aircraft defence to the role of ships in aircraft direction and as radar pickets since the technology and tactics of air warfare at sea continued to advance.

In Chapter 1, “An Evolving Threat,” the author considers the evolution of aircraft from slow, lightly-armed biplanes through to massed air attacks on fleets of ships by the middle of the Second World War. Friedman describes how weapons technology evolved from rudimentary bombs and torpedoes through to the advent of guided weapons at the end of the war and their refinement into the post-war era.

Chapter 2, “Making anti-aircraft fire effective” introduces the reader to the complex set of physical problems involved in hitting a target (an aircraft) moving rapidly through three dimensions, while the gun platform (a ship) is moving through two dimensions, constantly pitching and rolling. During an action, there are numerous aircraft continually changing direction while the ships are maneuvering wildly. Complexity is heaped upon complexity as the author tries to disentangle for the reader the components of the process of hitting a maneuvering aircraft.

Chapter 3 describes the state of anti-aircraft defence up to about 1920 and is followed by other chapters devoted to key historical periods for the major navies. For example, there are inter-war chapters on the Royal Navy, the U.S. Navy and other European navies with more space devoted to the Second World War navies. The author divides the guns and their mountings into three basic streams and follows their progress: heavy (3-6 inches), intermediate (1.1 inch and 40 mm down to 20mm), and light (.50 calibre and smaller) machine guns. He also offers a useful “translation” between British and U.S. parlance for the processes of direction and control and for the equipment used to solve the problems of hitting and destroying aircraft. He traces each gun and the continual processes of automating and applying power to them, their mounts and ammunition systems, to make them faster. He also examines the refinement of radar systems and direction equipment as well as supporting calculation and communications equipment to make them more accurate and effective. During the large, pivotal sea battles of the Second World War, such as Leyte Gulf, Operation
Pedestal (the Relief of Malta), and preparations for the invasion of Japan, the problems and solutions were rapidly expanded to masses of aircraft and fleets of ships.

Chapter 10, “Axis Navies at War” covers the German, Italian, and Japanese experience. Chapter 11, “Post-War Developments”, looks at system refinements based on wartime experience. Friedman throws an interesting sidelight on one particular high-velocity gun and its direction system, the 3 inch/70, that the US Navy rejected but was successfully used by the RCN.

Each chapter describes the elements of the developing anti-aircraft gunnery comprising crews, guns, their mounts, and the power systems serving them; optical and electronic rangefinders, radars and direction systems; and the combat information and communication systems controlling the guns. The reader is never allowed to lose sight of most important element, the human being, who combines the essential functions of the system: vision, calculation, and movement. The ergonomics of all human processes from sighting, calculating, communicating, handling ammunition and firing the guns are described and illustrated in detail. Friedman attributes the failure of the British Pacific Fleet to achieve a good standard of effectiveness in 1945, at the apex of its development, partly to the inability of people to operate and maintain complex equipment. Supporting technologies of ammunition (shells), fuses and fuse-setting clocks developed rapidly during the war as did complex machines such as telescopes, range-finders and optical systems, and auxiliary equipment like gyroscopes. Radars were integrated into this process, accelerating more rapidly in the final stages. Finally, combat information centres began to include computers to calculate and plot aircraft positions, integrate the information, and then communicate it to the guns and other ships. By the post-war period, strategies for air warfare at sea had emerged.

The author skillfully combines text, photographs, and drawings to transmit masses of information covering various pieces of equipment. All photographs are black and white with breath-taking two-page spreads introducing each chapter. The rest are mostly a full or half-page with long captions. The dramatic image on the front cover is “The Channel Dash” by Barry Wilkinson, showing the 1942 attack of torpedo-carrying Swordfish on the Gneisenau and Scharnhorst, while the back cover shows 5-inch and 40-mm Bofors guns in action on the USS New Jersey.

The list of abbreviations contains some of the terms necessary to navigate the flood of acronyms and initialisms encountered. There are extensive notes, a bibliography, and an index. The appendix, “Gun Data”, offers detailed specifications for the artillery pieces. The bibliography lists Friedman’s primary information sources as well as published sources. Wonderfully voluminous notes, mostly based on primary sources provide rich, almost dramatic detail on the development and use of the guns.

This book goes beyond technology: the author’s grasp and knowledge of naval history, ships, and weaponry also enable him to trace the effects of economic, diplomatic, and logistical factors involved in the implementation of the systems. There are new insights; for instance, that the traumatic sinking of HMS Prince of Wales and Repulse in a single attack. Friedman attributes the loss, in part, to the Washington Treaty, which led to British ships being too “tightly-designed” and, therefore, unable to expand their anti-aircraft capability in the form of automatic guns and directors and, more critically, the back-up diesel generators needed to power them. The loss
of their main power early on left the RN ships unable to defend themselves.

*Naval Anti-Aircraft Guns & Gunnery* is far more than the title suggests; it brings alive the inner dynamics of modern sea battles. It is an important reference book for all libraries dealing with naval, air and defence history. We enthusiastically recommend it to readers interested in the history of aircraft, guns, radar, communications, and electronics in warfare.

Ian Dew and Kathy Traynor
North Bay, Ontario


The *Mary Rose* Trust has reissued this 2005 publication detailing the archaeological finds among the remains of the Tudor ship pertaining to life afloat in the 1540s. Editors Julie Gardiner and Michael J. Allen have assembled the work of 54 experts (including their own) who explored various aspects of the material found buried with the wreck as it was first uncovered in the late 1970s through to its lifting out of the Solent’s muddy bottom in 1982. This is the fourth volume in a five volume series describing the archaeological treasure trove recovered from the site.

Section one contains eleven chapters of various lengths concerning objects that lend insight into the lives of the men serving afloat (chapter 6, on money found in the wreck, is 14 pages while chapter 2, on clothing remains, is 88 pages). Each themed chapter contains the work of multiple experts examining artefacts relevant to the theme. The first chapter gives an overview of the ship, its loss and the salvage effort that culminated in its raising and preservation in a dedicated dry dock in Portsmouth. The lengthy chapter 2 covers clothing with a detailed discussion of items from fabric to socks, leather and cloth jerkins, through shoes, hats and fasteners. Each section is a precise analysis of the many variations of the article of clothing found within the wreck. A good example would be the “331 individual items of footwear” (p. 59) which constituted parts of two different types of shoe, along with a few ankle and thigh boots. The detail describing how the shoes were constructed and the source of materials is simply stunning. Chapter 5 explores the musical instruments found aboard, including percussion, wind, and stringed. These items provide significant insight into Tudor era instruments. The numerous carpentry tools found in the *Mary Rose* are described in chapter 8. A short seventh chapter covers the navigation and ship’s communication equipment. Here, as in other chapters, the place of origin of the items is debated, Italian or Flemish, giving insight into the era’s lanes of trade not only for material objects but also for knowledge. The *Mary Rose*’s navigational artefacts are “the earliest dated assemblage” (p.264) of such instruments in Europe. Furniture, stowage and implements necessary for cooking and serving food are dealt with in chapters 9, 10 and 11, respectively. All chapters in the book begin with a narrative providing context for the subject discussed within. Each section (by the different authors) within each chapter also has an introductory piece and ends with a summary, most often placing the insights gained from the found objects into a larger context. In most cases, the artefact-specific section reveals where the objects were made and how.

Perhaps the most dynamic chapter for this reviewer was the fourth, dealing with the barber surgeon and the tools of his
two trades. The description of a barber surgeon’s career and the use of medicines and his various implements of practice are brought to life with thorough background research and painstaking analysis of the artefacts, especially the wooden vessels containing medicinal items. The presence of wooden feeding bottles, urethral syringes and needles for suturing are only three of the many interesting elements among the collection.

Section two focuses on the use of biology and chemistry to explore the material discovered with the remains of the ship. Chapter 12 discusses the environment in which the wreck was found and how artefacts were extracted and analysed. Chapter 13 turns to the human remains removed from the ship. This includes a thorough examination of skulls and bones, dentition, and DNA (not for the squeamish). Although mainly British, there were clearly some Europeans among the crew. The effect of the work activity aboard ship appears in the surviving bones, as does a distinct impact of the bow men’s repetitive action on their left scapula. Battle wounds are also discussed, as in a noted skull defect, the probable result of an arrow (p.533). Chapters 14 and 15 continue the analysis of organic material with an examination of food stuff (mammal, fish, and bird) and the presence of pests, parasites and pollen aboard the ship, respectively. Chapter 16 examines the use of science in the study of artefacts from the archaeological site.

The final section, chapter 17, covers ongoing investigation of artefacts and future research goals while reviewing the overall findings presented in the book. At the date of original publication (2005) there was still a considerable amount of artefacts remaining to be identified and examined, leaving open the possibility that many other aspects of daily life aboard the Mary Rose awaited discovery. This volume (the entire series of five even more so) is a celebration of the science of archaeology and its critical place in our understanding of the past.

The volume contains 543 figures, 98 tables of data throughout the text and 71 colour plates divided between two sections. The figures include drawings and black and white photographs of some of the articles discussed in the surrounding text as well as photographs of replicas made after the original object and photographs illustrating the item’s use. Three general appendices record the contents of chests, catalogue textile fragments and give details of plant remains (the later in six sub-appendices). An extensive bibliography and index contribute to the volume’s importance as a reference tool.

This book is for naval, economic, social and material culture historians and archaeologists interested in the maritime history and way of life during the Tudor era. Lay readers will need to be willing to weigh through the technical sections, though they will be amply rewarded for the endeavour.

Thomas Malcomson
Toronto, Ontario


It might seem an impossible task to catalogue every ship and battle in which the Royal Navy has been involved over its illustrious history. John Grainger, however, has accomplished just such a task. His Dictionary of British Naval Battles, recently published by Boydell Press, is the most complete and comprehensive listing of Royal Navy ships, battles, and campaigns available anywhere in print. In this masterful work, Grainger has succeeded in
bringing together an enormous quantity of information in an eminently readable format. Having published over twenty books on maritime history and other historical topics, there may be no better author from whom we should expect a work of this high quality.

Grainger describes how he organized the various entries in the nearly 600-page book. Defining “British,” “naval,” and “battles” is the first task at hand. “British” includes ships belonging to the dominions up until the time when those various territories, such as Canada, India, Australia, and South Africa, among others, became independent nations. “Naval” includes those ships belonging to the government, so privateers are generally excluded, except in those cases where privateers were engaged by British vessels, such as the clash between Blackbeard and the British captain, Robert Maynard, in Ocracoke, North Carolina, in 1718. This entry can be found under “Pearl and Lyme v. Adventure, 21 November 1718” on page 344. Readers would have to know either the name of the British ship or the British captain in order to find this information rather than searching the index for “Blackbeard.” In a similar case, in order to find the entry on the sinking of the Prince of Wales and Repulse by Japanese aircraft in December 1941, one would look under the heading “Malaya” on page 278. Grainger specifically states in the preface that ships sunk by aircraft are not included in the dictionary, but because Japanese submarines were also part of this engagement, Prince of Wales and Malaya are included.

Grainger’s method of organizing the numerous entries is the best conceivable method for presenting such an overwhelming amount of data in a single volume. Being a dictionary, entries are in alphabetical order, but this might be by ship name, which is always followed by some other ship name or some other information, such as “Victory v. Embuscade, 28 May 1803” or “Dartmouth v. French warships, 4 February 1695.” Other entries might cover geographical locations or actual wars, such as “St. Pierre, Canada” or “First Dutch War.” Grainger’s work is a dictionary, not an encyclopedia, so a listing of all of the ships at Trafalgar, for example, is not (nor should it be) included. For general readers who are searching for a ship, a battle, or a specific sea captain, the exhaustive index should be enough to point to the proper page.

It is hard to imagine any historian, researcher, or the general reader with an interest in maritime history not having this dictionary within arm’s reach. It is a stunning achievement, combining meticulous and exhaustive research with an easy-to-read presentation that makes the book a pleasure to read. I challenge anyone to find a significant, or even a minor action involving a British ship that is not included in this book. John Grainger’s Dictionary of British Naval Battles is highly recommended to scholars and general readers alike. It is a book that should be included in every personal and professional library.

Jeffery M. Shaw
Newport, Rhode Island


It is said, sometimes attributed to Winston Churchill, that “The victors write the histories.” Thus, it is useful to have a book such as this written from the German
perspective. Lars Hellwinkell has done what appears to be a very useful, even-handed (and well translated) job of looking closely at the seizure, operation, defence and recapture of the French Atlantic ports, primarily Brest, the French Navy’s principal pre-war dockyard, St. Nazaire, Lorient and other secondary bases. Hellwinkell opens the tale with an examination of German plans from the outset, or at least from the time they decided to seize control of western France and the Low Countries in order to gain access to Atlantic ports instead of being forced to operate from the North Sea. This was a plan that the German naval hierarchy sold to Hitler and his commanders, based on Vizeadmiral Wolfgang Wegener’s initial assessment of the requirement in 1932. By 1938, the Army was being encouraged to prepare for a drive to the coast. Everything went almost perfectly to plan in 1940, as the French were forced to give up the entire coast, from the Belgian border to Spain, with minimal German casualties.

The French were faced with a very real dilemma: the English, albeit signatories of the Entente Cordiale in 1904, had been a traditional enemy, while the Germans were a more recent opponent dating from the Franco-Prussian War of the 1870s. Once Germany seized the French naval establishments, the occupiers needed French technical assistance and labour to retain maximum use of the facilities for their U-boat, destroyer and minesweeper operations. These sites also served as a base for large German raiders, such as Graff Spee, Gneisenau, and the converted merchant raiders sent out to aggravate and complicate the Allied ocean controls. Germany had initially identified Trondheim, Norway, as a major support base for Atlantic operations; however, once under German control, the French ports assumed primary importance.

Over four and a half years, French dockyard operating staff and workers were forced to help the occupier or else starve or be sent off to prison camps. The French Resistance did what they could to cause problems for the Germans, but even within the French regime there were arguments, sympathies, and a largely “hands off” attitude. The situation wasn’t helped when, a year or so later, the deadly RN attack on Dakar in North Africa killed many French people. Then came the massive bombing campaigns by the Royal Air Force and later, the USAF, designed to destroy the harbours’ usefulness, especially when the Atlantic U-boat campaign became a critical threat to the Allies. Those raids never really prevented the Kriegsmarine from using the facilities, but they killed an unacceptable number of French civilians in spite of warnings by clandestine radio (rare) and dropped leaflets. It was a Hobson’s choice for the Allies, and a major continuing problem for the occupiers.

One gets the impression from reading Hellwinkell’s detailed examination of the operations at various ports that many of the solutions tended to be made by local individuals. There were, indeed, many cases of atrocities – workers executed for slackness, attempts at avoiding work or air raids, and even poor attitudes. These abuses tended to be committed by commanders following orders from Hitler or his immediate staff. On the other hand, there were cases of other area commanders simply trying to preserve even a neutral attitude among their French workers, and finally, in the latter days of 1945, arranging truces with besieging American, British and Canadian forces so locals could at least receive food and medical supplies. At the end of the war, port facilities were destroyed by the Germans before surrendering. When one admiral queried whether this destruction served any purpose, he was promptly recalled to Germany and court martialed. Elsewhere, occupiers were able to negotiate with the local FFI
resistance. Many of the former U-boat bunkers remain in use today, simply because they were almost impossible to destroy in any practical way.

A thoroughly interesting and unusual book, Hitler’s Gateway to the Atlantic would be very useful as a different sort of reference source. A better map would have helped, but this is offset by a fascinatingly large collection of well produced photographs.

F.M. McKee
Toronto, Ontario


This is a fascinating book on several different levels: the unique and compelling character of the original author; the light it sheds on the culture and differences in shipbuilding technology of the day; and the interesting and insightful way that the present-day author has brought this tale to us.

Nicolaes Witsen (1641-1717) was the son of a prosperous Amsterdam merchant, educated in law, active in civic affairs (thirteen times Burgomaster of Amsterdam) and in diplomacy. Nothing in his background or professional life would suggest that such a man would be likely to write a shipbuilding treatise that would become a reference for every author on continental shipbuilding for more than a century. But Nicolaes Witsen was clearly a Renaissance man, and keenly interested in the most important commercial technology of his day, shipbuilding. Even more surprising, he was interested in the practical details of shipbuilding rather than the theory, and compiled his treatise from direct association with shipwrights.

As a result of this energetic and penetrating interest in technical detail, Witsen’s 1671 “magnum opus,” Aeloude en Hedenaegshe Scheeps-bouw en Bestier (Ancient and Modern Shipbuilding and Management) was a mass of detail and digression. According to the translator of Witsen’s work: “aside from its many intriguing qualities, the book has one major handicap – it is almost unreadable, due to its totally chaotic structure, which consists of numerous layers of discourse moving in endless concentric circles around a main theme, shipbuilding” (p.5).

Into this Dante-esque pit of apparent confusion, Hoving leads us like Virgil, steering us clear of the whirlpools of consuming detail, or the quagmires of digression, and concentrates on extracting the true essence of Witsen’s document, a detailed insight into the Dutch shipbuilding art and culture of the day.

Hoving’s book consists of two major sections: Chapter 2, entitled “How Ships Are Built in Holland Today” (that is, how they were built in 1671), and Chapter 3, “Contracts as Historical Sources.” In the first of these, Hoving brings clarity to the example of construction of a Pinas (a frigate-sized merchantman), through carefully selected extracts from Witsen, interspersed with explanatory paragraphs, supported by plentiful reproductions of original diagrams from Witsen’s plates, and supplemented by more comprehensively illustrative drawings by Hoving himself and G.A. De Weerdt. In the second major section, Hoving reviews a number of contract examples that Witsen presents for ships built between 1628 and 1642, highlighting the variety of contractual precision and shipbuilder/trade-centric latitude. There are even detailed outfit lists (sure to fascinate the retired pursers among our readership!). Regarding the lack of any
detailed contractual specification of the actual shape of the ship to be built, Hoving also introduces ship-model building as a research method. By this means, through careful adherence to the formulaic or proportional norms of Dutch shipbuilding as documented by Witsen, the shape of the ship evolves naturally from a fairly limited set of principal dimensions.

That this is possible is due to one significant difference between the English and Dutch shipbuilding traditions of the day. It is interesting to note that Sir Anthony Deane’s *Doctrine of Naval Architecture* (1670) was a close contemporary of Witsen’s. Deane documented and advanced a long-standing English practice of developing transverse sections (initially by models, then through drawings). Ships of the time were built frame-first, erecting the framework on the stocks and then planking it. Contemporary Dutch practice could be characterized conversely as shell-first; the keel and stern frame was erected, and then the planking was extended from the keel (garboard) outwards, each successive plank being fastened to its predecessor until reaching the turn of the bilge. Then the lower frames would be inserted into the ship and the upper futtocks raised. In a number of ways, this practice mirrored what is still common in modern clinker construction. It clearly left a lot to the individual discretion of the shipwright. As Hoving states, “In contrast to English practice, Dutch shipbuilders were kings of their profession, and they allowed no interference in their work. If a ship turned out to be a bad ship, they simply stated that it had ‘fallen off the ax that way’ – and there was no changing that” (p.177).

For those with a more historiographical than technical interest, the appendix includes an interesting discussion of “book archaeology,” noting that books of this era were no more standard, repeatable, articles than were ships. It documents variations of texts, including amendments to soften comments antagonistic to either the English (relative to the butchering of captured fireship crews following the raid on the Medway in 1667) or the Swedes (relative to the Dutch-Swedish Battle of the Sound in 1658). Clearly editorial pressure is not a new phenomenon.

With Hoving’s help, Witsen offers the modern reader a number of interesting insights into Dutch shipbuilding technology and culture of the day. The book is full of entertaining vignettes of the outlook and culture of the time, and the style of discourse. For example, from Witsen’s own (translated) words: “That the material from which one builds ships is wood, everyone knows. *Nec in navi cadentem linum attingere*, falling in a ship without touching wood, as the ancients said, when discussing a case which seemed impossible to them” (p.22); or on the harvesting of timber: “Never should a tree be cut as long as it bears fruit: it is with trees as with women, weak when they carry” (p.23); or from a contract: “The ship is painted with snakes and monsters to one’s own taste” (p.187).

Hoving has done an admirable job of translating, editing and presenting Witsen’s work to us, although his occasional wry comments indicate that this has not been a simple task (“although this book cannot be read with the ease of a novel, I do not feel particularly apologetic as the original did not meet this standard, either,” and, later, “again, Witsen would not have won any prizes for clear formulation...”). Overall, it is an excellent book, bound to be of interest to both period modellers and those with a technical/historical interest in shipbuilding. To emphasize the applied nature of this technical expertise, Hoving chose as a dedicatory quote some words from one of Witsen’s successors in writing shipbuilding tomes, Cornelius van Yk, Master Shipbuilder in Delfshaven 1697:

“And certainly if by reading books
the arts could be mastered, I would master many more than the few I do now.”

Richard W. Greenwood
Victoria, British Columbia


One of the biggest challenges historians face is balancing the details with the overview. All too often, a historian can get caught up in the minute while forgetting the larger picture, or lose sight of the detail while painting with broader strokes. Olaf U. Janzen easily meets this challenge throughout War and Trade in Eighteenth-Century Newfoundland, a collection of articles published throughout his academic career.

The twelve articles are drawn from Janzen’s thirty years as a historian in Newfoundland, from his early work in the 1980s concerning Newfoundland during the War of American Independence through to later research on the role of the British Navy in Aboriginal migration. Presented in chronological order by topic, rather than date of publication, the articles present an interesting traverse through Newfoundland’s development in the 1700s.

In the introduction, Janzen lays out his areas of interest, namely the western coast of the island and the use of previously under-utilized French primary and second sources. He expresses an interest in the particular as well as the general, and this, I would argue, is the true selling point of the collection. Whatever the topic – piracy, settlement, war, and commerce – Janzen always maintains a sense of the local within the global, illustrating what was occurring in Newfoundland and placing it within international trends and processes. This is no easy task, as the eighteenth century was rife with global conflicts, shifting alliances, revolutions, and economic and social change. Janzen lays these out in his wonderfully clear style, never confusing nor overwhelming the reader.

Another clear theme is the imperial control and the challenges of asserting it – over both imperial competitors and the local peoples. “Local peoples” includes the Aboriginal Mi’kmaq Indians, as well as more recent settlers from France and England. Janzen’s articles touch on many points, including how the absence of the imperial power can have as much effect as its presence – illustrated in the establishment of French settlements at Codroy and the surrounding bays before 1755. Another example is the difficulty of imposing imperial control on communities rendered sparse and fragmented by their geographic locale as well as their primary industry which repeatedly frustrated the Royal Navy charged with protecting the dispersed English fishing settlements.

Another topic Janzen explores is the expression and definition of imperial boundaries, as seen in the Treaty of Utrecht and the subsequent British surveys under the command of William Taverner and Lt. John Gaudy, and later surveys by Hugh Palliser. Finally, there is the need to understand local peoples and their customs to get the best out of the relationships. This can be seen in Janzen’s comparison of French and British communications with the Mi’kmaq Indians, with reference to the practice of gift giving. All these themes are presented within the context of the local and the international and the interaction between the two.

As a collection of essays, rather than a single long essay, War and Trade in
Eighteen-Century Newfoundland naturally has a couple of irksome factors. The first is repetition. The best example is the Chenu family, whose story is outlined in full in three articles, in the second and third instances, repeated almost verbatim. As the three essays all present unique themes, this is unavoidable, but still unfortunate.

The second irritant is the lack of discussion referring to resources. Space in articles is precious, so it’s understandable that discussion of resources is limited, with more space dedicated to setting up and laying out the argument. In many of the articles, however, Janzen has deliberately used lesser-known French sources or unusual records from the Scottish archives, as he states in the introduction. The sources themselves can, of course, be located in the footnotes, but it would have been interesting to know why these sources had not been used previously and what they contributed to the study of Newfoundland history. These criticisms are minor, however, and result more from the nature of an essay collection than through any intentional omissions.

Such small points do not detract from an excellent piece of work, and indeed, the collected essays generally build to illustrate less well known aspects of eighteenth-century Newfoundland. The last two essays, concerning Newfoundland during the War of American Independence, work particularly well as separate entities, presenting as they do, two sides of the American attempts to disrupt British involvement in the fishery.

War and Trade in Eighteenth Century Newfoundland presents an interesting insight into some parts of Newfoundland’s lesser known history; but more importantly, it represents an engaging look into the work of Olaf U. Janzen.


Edward Jones and Shawn Roderick have tackled a huge subject in their new book Submarine Torpedo Tactics: An American History. Recognizing the highly technical and acronym-filled content of U.S. Navy submarine system technical manuals, the authors have attempted to distill and explain the history of the topic in an accessible publication.

Eelecting to attack issues chronologically, the authors begin with the history of the development of the self-propelled torpedo, then move into fire control techniques used to employ this new weapon as the techniques and weapons evolved from the First World War, through the inter-war period, and into the Second World War. Readers of classic Second World War submarine histories will recognize terms such as the “Is-Was” (the Submarine Attack Course Finder), the “Banjo” (a large hand-held slide rule), and the TDC (torpedo data computer); each device is pictured, and its use is outlined with examples. The authors take this opportunity to analyze the approach problem for a diesel submarine to reach the optimum firing position against a surface ship target in order to employ a spread of straight-running torpedoes, effectively illustrating tactics with diagrams. Issues covered include visual periscope ranging methods, as well as incorporation of the new technologies of both sonar and radar to aid in range determination. Excerpts of Second World War patrol reports are quoted at great length to illustrate tactical employment; at times the excerpts distract from the tactical discussion, particularly a
segue into German tactical computers and a German patrol report which was not adequately tied to the book’s topic.

Moving past the Second World War, the book increases its emphasis on the continued development of the submarine platform and its missions, at the expense of further delving into torpedo design improvements and concurrent fire control system development. A section discussing the development of Guppy diesel submarines describes fire control party organization, and introduces the time-bearing plot and the geoplot, but does not define an Ekelund range or show how such a range may be calculated from passive sonar bearing information. The discussion of the evolution of the Mark 101 fire control system is a bit confused, and is oddly concluded by discussing submarine electronic surveillance missions, including an excerpt from the book *Blind Man’s Bluff*. The remaining chapters of the book cover the evolution of the American submarine without discussing the evolution of the torpedo, or the tactics used to optimally employ it.

The book would benefit from the recognition of two completely different employments of submarine fired torpedoes: against surface ship targets, and against submarines. The history of employment versus surface ships, well covered in this book, evolved over the course of two wars, first through analysis of visual information only, then through the addition of radar and sonar information. The ability to stealthily torpedo a submerged submarine is a completely different tactical problem, requiring the development of an estimated target range, course, and speed sufficient for a homing torpedo to acquire the enemy submarine, without the use of active sonar, which could reveal the pending threat. Also required to successfully attack a submerged target was the development of a torpedo-mounted sensor capable of detecting a submerged target, ignoring any noise or jamming countermeasures, and homing on the submerged target to detonation. The book does not discuss the development of torpedo-mounted passive or active sonar to detect and close a target, nor does it discuss the addition of wire guidance capability, allowing the shooting submarine to provide updated information or new programming to a torpedo after it had been launched.

Also missing from the discussion is the evolution of the submarine fire control system as employed on nuclear powered American submarines, and how it improved over 60 years through operational experience, fire control party organization, expanded submarine platform capability, and improved torpedo capability. Thus, the transitions and relationships between manually generated solutions via hand plotting, computer generated solutions using programmed algorithms (Kalman automated calculations, or KAST, was mentioned without explanation), and fire control system solutions developed by manual manipulation of parameters, remain unaddressed. The authors provide a table of submarine fire control systems, but that table requires revision, as neither the CCS Mark 1 nor the Mark 117 fire control systems are listed; Sturgeon and Los Angeles class submarines are incorrectly listed as carrying the Ohio class Mark 118 system.

To summarize, this is the first book specifically written to discuss the evolution of American submarine torpedo tactics. It does a solid job of tracking the evolution of the American submarine platform, and of the tactics used to attack surface ships during two world wars. Future editions should concentrate on expansion of the synergy between torpedo technology development, sensor and fire control system development, and fire control party coordination, particularly in the nuclear submarine era. Which area leapt forward
first; how was the required solution accuracy determined based on torpedo capability; what about pre-programmed torpedo presets (e.g., search depth, search speed) to maximize weapon effectiveness; what were the capability gains from the transition from Mark 37, to Mark 48, to ADCAP torpedo? The present edition, however, with its bibliography, footnotes, glossary, and illustrations, should prove useful to both historians, and to laymen striving to understand the optimization of a complex multi-variable system as it evolved over decades.

David Ruff  
College Station, Texas


Any book about the death of a submarine is inevitably a lightning rod to a wide audience fascinated by the mystery surrounding submarine disasters, which like their aviation brethren, fuel speculation and conspiracy theories as there are usually no survivors to tell the tale. The USS Thresher disaster has always been seen to be different – how does a brand-new, state-of-the-art U.S. Navy nuclear-powered submarine come to be lost, without any survivors, 200 nautical miles off Cape Cod, Massachusetts, when it is simply conducting peacetime sea-trials? It is a story that captured worldwide attention and sympathy at the time, regardless of political or ideological affiliation, particularly for the young crew and their families.

In 1963, USS Thresher was the first of a new class of nuclear-propelled attack submarines that incorporated the latest technology in submarine design and was focused on a Cold War anti-submarine role. Events of the early 1960s, notably the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962, placed a high demand on the U.S. submarine fleet and there was enormous pressure to counter the Soviet submarine threat, particularly their ballistic-missile-firing submarines, with modern quiet submarine-killers. USS Thresher represented the culmination of this technology and the U.S. Navy was very keen to complete her first of class trials as they had already started constructing follow-on submarines of the class that would eventually number over 50 submarines. For reasons that remain speculative, USS Thresher suffered a casualty on 10 April 1963 when conducting deep dive trials after a refit, causing the submarine to exceed her maximum diving depth and subsequently implode, killing all 129 personnel on board, including some shipyard staff as well as the crew. This remains, to date, the largest loss of life in any one single submarine disaster, including the loss of the Russian submarine Kursk in 2000.

First and foremost, it important to understand what this book is and what it is not. Simply put, it is a testimonial to the men who were onboard USS Thresher on that fateful day and their surviving families. As the author clearly states, his goal was to “attach names and faces to the tragedy, to personalize, on some modest level, the epic event known as the Thresher disaster” (p.1). The author, D. Allen Kerr, who had previously served in the U.S. Navy and now writes for the Portsmouth Herald newspaper, compiled the personal stories of 24 of the 129 men who were lost, as a series of newspaper articles, in time for the fiftieth anniversary events commemorating USS Thresher’s loss in 2013. In addition to his research, by conducting personal interviews with some of the surviving family members
he brings together a number of poignant stories of perseverance by young families who had lost their husbands and fathers and how they coped with life after the disaster.

Understandably, because most of the people on board were young men, they did not have lengthy biographies or career accomplishments, yet Kerr succeeds in teasing out their personal stories to paint a picture of what they might have achieved had they lived, and in so doing, he brings home the depth of the tragedy even more. He also makes it clear that the 129 souls who lost their lives on 10 April 1963 did not do so in vain, since the U.S. Navy instituted a comprehensive submarine safety program (SUBSAFE) to address the issues uncovered during the subsequent investigation into the loss of USS Thresher (pp.76-79).

Extensively illustrated with personal pictures that really bring out the human aspects of the tragedy, the book is only 124 pages long, but it is handsomely bound and presents well. That said, it remains a collection of individual narratives, in a rather workmanlike compilation that reflects the initial intent of publishing a series of individual newspaper articles. Consequently, it has the tendency to become a bit of a hodgepodge of information, which is somewhat repetitive at times. For example, the flagpole over the Thresher memorial is 129 feet tall to represent the 129 men lost – a fact repeated in many individual narratives, as is the SUBSAFE program and reference to Robert Ballard’s discovery of RMS Titanic in 1985 (pp.45-46) as a cover story to explore the wreck of USS Thresher.

For readers, who, like me, are anticipating a twenty-first-century update on the cause of the disaster, this is not the book for you. The definitive account remains Norman Polmar’s excellent The Death of USS Thresher (Chilton Books, 1964) which continues to be updated as new information emerges. To be fair, Silent Strength – Remembering the Men of Genius and Adventure Lost in the World’s Worst Submarine Disaster is designed to tell the story of the human side of the disaster and to ensure its lessons are not lost over time. So as a memorial collection of personal stories intertwined around the loss of USS Thresher, it is quite appropriate for anyone with an interest in human side of a submarine disaster. At $29.95 US it may seem a bit pricey, but the proceeds are donated to a worthy cause - the Thresher Memorial Project.

Norman Jolin
Kanata, Ontario


After the unification of East and West Germany, the German deep-sea fishing industry was taken over by companies from Iceland and The Netherlands. Hochseefisher examines the lives of fishermen in the post-war era from 1945 until the decline of Germany’s deep-sea fishery in the 1990s.

During the second half of the nineteenth century, the sail-powered fishing industry was gradually replaced by steam. Once engineers and stokers began to work on board fishing ships, they changed the composition of the crews. The German deep-sea fishery arose between 1885 and 1930, in parallel with the extensive process of industrialisation in Germany but the major changes occurred in the actual
process of fishing itself. New machines and fishing techniques required skilled hands on deck.

In 1900, the waters around Iceland were one of Germany’s prime fishing areas. In the pre-First World War period, the deep-sea fishery employed a work force of about 6,000 men and a fishing fleet of 263 ships. By 1919, a mere 82 ships remained. Five years later the figure rose to 401 ships. After that, the size of fishing vessels increased, while the number of vessels declined.

During the Second World War, 244 fishing vessels were sunk, leaving only 58 ships actively fishing, but post-war rebuilding of the fishing fleet was tempered by Allied restrictions. Nevertheless, by 1950, the fleet numbered around 230 ships with much of the work still done by hand. After the so-called Cod Wars in the 1950s and 1970s, the idea of exclusive economic zones of 200 nautical miles became accepted and national interests limited the Freedom of the Seas. Thus, German trawlers set a course for South America in search of new fishing grounds. Political resistance and the lack of interest in exotic fish in Europe soon made it clear that this alternative was a dead end. In 1984 the decline of the German fishery became apparent. After 1990, foreign companies took over deep-sea fishing from German companies and the German “national” deep-sea fishery ceased to exist.

After the war, the deep-sea fishery employed some 30,000 men from East and West Germany; by 2012 this number had shrunk to about 100. In the early days the industrial production of ice was a major step forward, encouraging the establishment of fishing ports. Advances in industrialization reshaped the fishery thanks to the ongoing development of engines, ergonomic equipment, sorting machines and communication and sonar systems. New production concepts were developed as larger super trawlers were built, crewed by 80 to 100 men apiece who spent three to nine months at sea. Crews became more international as foreign fish workers were hired. Although the fishing fleets of East and West Germany had similar fishing vessels and worked the same areas, there were major differences in their crews. East German crews were larger than in the Western fleet, and working conditions were better, safety standards higher and crews remained together longer. West German deck hands learned their trade by doing it, while East Germans went through a two-year apprenticeship.

In East Germany, fishing, like everything else, was state owned, and fishing was done in flotillas. The West Germany fishery was in the hands of several companies, both large and small. On board ship, it was a highly specialized occupational world based on a strict division of labour. Fishermen were proud of their profession and considered themselves as the ones who did the real work. They saw their role as distinct from that of the skipper, mate, engineers, deckhands and radio-operator. Although crews were highly heterogeneous, comradeship was the most important social good of the collective. Accepting the social norms on board helped the team to function smoothly.

Kube’s study of the participants in Germany’s deep-sea fishery looks at cultural patterns, life at sea and on land, perception and self-perception. It is based on 39 interviews, 20 of them with deep-sea fishermen and 19 involving other people, including six crewmembers and 13 representatives from the wider fishing community. Hochseefischer takes a scientific approach to the life of fishermen and the result is a monolithic work on the history of a maritime profession from a biographical perspective.

Jacob Bart Hak
Leiden, The Netherlands

As his title suggests, Tim McGrath’s *Give Me a Fast Ship: The Continental Navy and America's Revolution at Sea* studies a largely unremembered phase of the American rebellion of 1776 – the war at sea that daring colonials fought against the Royal Navy on and across the Atlantic to the very shores of the mother country itself. Well researched and documented, *Fast Ship* tells naval history as it should be told, with sea battles galore and single-ship engagements, along with a roster of heroes, likely and unlikely, on both sides of the contest. And, McGrath does it all in a style reminiscent of C.S. Forester and Patrick O’Brien.

McGrath’s cast of players in *Fast Ship* is enormous. There’s John Adams of Massachusetts, for example, who McGrath calls the “midwife” of the American navy (p. 7). It was “landlubber” Adams, who piloted the legislation that created the U.S. Navy through an often balky Congress. Esek Hopkins of Rhode Island is named as the first “Commodore” and commander of an American fleet, though McGrath much prefers one of Hopkins’ subordinates, Captain Nicholas Biddle of Pennsylvania, for his superior fighting skills. Trained in the Royal Navy, Biddle is described as a man who “fear[ed] Nothing” (p.78). McGrath also praises British officers such as Andrew Snape Hamond, Richard Pearson of *Serapis* fame, and Sir George Collier of Penobscot notoriety. But, it is Americans like John Barry, John Paul Jones, and a virtually unknown Anglo-Irishman and converted Yankee, Gustavus Conyngham, who claim the most attention.

McGrath’s study of Barry is a virtual reprise of his earlier work *John Barry: An American Hero in the Age of Sail* (Westholme, 2010), but he more than rewards us with his mini-biography of John Paul Jones to whom *Fast Ship* owes its title. It was Jones who supposedly said: “I wish to have no connection with any ship that does not sail fast” (p. vii). McGrath’s sketch of Jones, whether hero or not, is remarkably even-handed. He praises Jones for his raid on Britain’s shores at Whitehaven in 1778, stating: “The last time a British seaport had been raided was in 1667, during the Second Anglo-Dutch War” (p.219). He also lauds Jones’s courage off Flamborough Head the following year in the famous confrontation between the *Bonhomme Richard* and HMS *Serapis*. McGrath describes Jones’s courage as “as natural to him as breathing…Pure warrior…he paid no heed to personal danger” (p.228). He tempers this, however, by suggesting that “Jones established little connection with his men … [he] wanted [his own] glory first and foremost” (p. 220).

A rare treat in *Fast Ship* is McGrath’s colourful sketch of the obscure Gustavus Conyngham. Calling him a terror to British shipping and the most successful of all Continental Navy captains, McGrath’s tale of Conyngham’s own capture, his incarceration in the notorious Mill Prison in England, and his various escape attempts, the last one finally successful, reads like the stuff of legend.

In a fascinating chapter entitled “Shubael Gardner,” McGrath also reflects on the tragedy of war in an ordinary man’s life and death. Gardner, a whaleman from the island of Nantucket which was “neutral” territory during the war, was disowned by his fellow Quakers for having served aboard an American ship of war. Restored to civilian life in 1782, Gardner shipped out of Nantucket aboard the whaler *Somerset*, which was promptly seized, crew and
vessel, by the American frigate *Alliance*, Captain Barry. Barry persuaded Gardner to resume his naval service as a gunner and master’s mate and he was subsequently killed in an engagement with the British ship of war, *Sybil*. Unfortunately for Gardner, he died after King George had ordered British forces to cease firing, and amazingly enough, after Congress, itself had found that *Somerset* had been illegally seized in the first place!

*Fast Ship* is replete with the requisite sea battles and single-ship engagements from *Glasgow* against the Continental fleet off Block Island (1776) to the Penobscot Expedition in Maine (1779), and from *Bonhomme Richard* vs *Serapis* off Flamborough Head (1779) to *Alliance* vs *Atalanta* and *Trepassey* off Nova Scotia (1781), all of which McGrath manages successfully. Nor does he shy away from the subject of mutiny in the Continental service. The revolt by British prisoners against the Americans aboard *Randolph* in 1777 was quelled by Captain Biddle with liberal use of the lash, the horrendous effects of which McGrath describes. Mutinies of American sailors against their officers occurred on *Ranger* under John Paul Jones in 1778, another under Jones on *Alliance* in 1780, and two under Barry on *Alliance* in 1781 and 1782. As keen commanders, both men responded with appropriate severity. McGrath suggests that the mutinies were caused by lack of pay and hard usage.

*Fast Ship* includes sections explaining recruitment and discipline in the Continental service, and details of the so-called Articles of War. McGrath also notes how the Navy was provisioned, the uses and practices of naval weaponry and gunnery, and how naval vessels were “worked.” His description of life in the “fo’c’sle” for ordinary seamen is particularly well done. A glossary of naval and nautical terms, colourful illustrations, maps, and charts of vessel positions during battles, including the strategies involved in ship maneuvering, are uniformly helpful. The extensive bibliography is useful and informative as well.

*Give Me a Fast Ship: The Continental Navy and America’s Revolution at Sea* should appeal to arm-chair mariners, scholars, and professional sailors alike.

William L. Welch
Natick, Massachusetts


(Editor’s note: This book was previously reviewed in vol. XXIV, no. 2 (April 2014), pp. 191-3; we received this second review and are printing it as it offers a different perspective.)

This is another high quality book by Seaforth, beautifully produced and organized and lavishly illustrated with images, including many from the board of the author, along with black and white copies of his own water colour paintings. There are also photographs of paintings and models from the National Maritime Museum along with lines and plans.

McLaughlan, more correctly Derek Andrews, did a wonderful job of initially researching what had to have been a very difficult subject, when considering the range of vessels referred to as sloops of war starting with fishing boats and eventually to purpose-built vessels. While McLaughlan was initially inspired by the chapter on sloops of war in Robert Gardiner’s book, *Line of Battle*, and later mentored by Gardiner, who suggested that he contact Derek Andrews, considered by many to be
the greatest expert in England on the sloop of war, and to whom the book is rightfully dedicated.

The book is based in large part on a lifetime of research done by Derek Andrews. When ill health deprived Andrews of the energy to write the book, he unselfishly turned his research notes over to McLaughlan for completion. Nonetheless, McLaughlan added to Andrews work and presents the findings clearly, logically and in an easy to read manner. While many books have been written on the rated ships, little has been published on the sloop of war or her counterpart, the French Corvette, despite the fact that by the end of the Napoleonic War, this class had became the most numerous in the Royal Navy. McLaughlan chose to begin the first of three books with the period 1650 to 1763. If he is able to write them, the next two will cover the periods 1763 to 1815, and from 1815 to 1950 respectively.

The book’s eighteen chapters focus on a number of aspects of the early history and development of the sloop of war. Rigging, fishing boats and related ship types, such as small warships, brigantines, advice boats and sloops (1689-1702), oared vessels, ketches, bomb vessels, fireships, sloops of war (and peace) and early and later corvettes are all discussed in relation to the sloop of war. McLaughlin also discusses the role of these ships in the numerous wars involving England, Holland, France and Spain (1651-1678), against France (1688-1714), the Commonwealth and Restoration navies (1651-1688), wars for trade and empire (1714-1763). Finally, the author describes and illustrates various aspects of sloop construction from early-seventeenth century vessels to 1763, covering both peacetime (1714-1728) and wartime naval vessels as well as privateers.

There are also six appendices which contribute to the overall usefulness of this book detailing a list of vessels, as selection of mast and spar dimensions, selected sloop plans, performance reports, a list of designers and builders and armaments. Most of the vessels, despite their widely differing hulls, rigs, armament and crews listed as being ketches, brigantines, sloops, advice boats, pinks, yachts and one specialised vessel, the bomb ketch were ordered by the Navy and were built in Royal Dockyards; but many were also either prizes, or were purchased in, invariably during a time of urgent need; however, they disappeared just as quickly afterwards, as has happened numerous times since, including the Second World War. The vessels were unrated, and not included in the formal establishment rules that divided the Royal Navy’s fighting ships into six rates.

Being unregulated, ship builders were permitted a degree of freedom to experiment, in large part this was trial and error, and resulted in countless combinations of rig and hull, however their performance was carefully studied, evaluated and where worthy, incorporated into later designs.

Long used to finding the rigging of vessels toward the back of a book, I was surprised to find it here as the first chapter, however the author put it where it is to provide a better understanding when considering the various hull types he discusses later. While today we understand a sloop to have a single mast, as described here, sloops could have one, two, or three masts carrying sails on two and occasionally three, but rarely ever, on a single mast.

The first chapter on sail plans discusses first “square” then “fore and aft” rigs including lateen, as well as examining the importance of the windward capabilities of the two rigs, their advantages and disadvantages. The author lays out the various sails and rigs with illustrations keyed to the discussion regarding each sail, including notes. For someone unfamiliar
with sails, their terminology and their use, this chapter is an excellent primer. McLaughlan indicates that while this section on sails is a brief overview, it is still worthy of careful study. The rest of the book, however, is certainly not a primer or an overview when discussing the development of the rigs, hulls, and their work. This has all been superbly brought together despite there being a lack of formal documentation more commonly found when researching the rated vessels.

Subsequent chapters continue to examine the development progression of the sloop of war, with each chapter well endowed with illustrations, water colour paintings, photographs of models and paintings depicting the various ships along with addition of countless plans and lines drawings.

An extremely well researched and written book on a complex subject, this book is highly recommended to historians, model builders, and anyone wishing to learn more of the progression of the development of this, the largest class of small ships in the Royal Navy at the end of the Napoleonic Wars.

N. Roger Cole
Scarborough, Ontario


Robert Parsons is a prolific author of books on the “nautical history” of Newfoundland (to use the publisher’s categorization). For the most part, his books are collections of “tales” and “stories” centred on life and work at sea in Atlantic Canada generally, and Newfoundland and Labrador in particular. Quite a few focus on shipwrecks and disasters. They are usually based on material gleaned from newspapers and magazines, Internet sites, and some reference works, with occasional forays into archives.

This book is no exception. It is an entertaining read, the sort of book that can be picked up for a story or two, put down and then picked up again. The focus is made clear in the title: these are tales of the service provided by Newfoundlanders during the Great War – in the Royal Naval Reserve, in the merchant marine, or in schooners delivering salt cod to distant overseas markets. Some of the stories have been taken from Parsons’ previous books and reprinted here, provided the tale had a bearing on the central theme of the Great War at sea. The stories are arranged chronologically in four main groupings: 1914-1915; 1916, 1917, and 1918 (which includes a couple of tales that carry the story beyond the war). Each grouping is preceded by a brief summary of wartime developments which Parsons regards as relevant to his narratives; the great naval encounters that dominate most works on the war at sea (such as Coronel and the Falklands or Jutland) are not mentioned.

The stories presented by Parsons are not without value to the historian. Through them, for example, we are reminded that Newfoundland’s service to the Empire during the Great War was not limited to military service at Gallipoli or on the Western Front. Several tales describe the experiences of Newfoundlanders in the service of the Royal Naval Reserve, maintaining the North Sea blockade which played so critical a role in the eventual defeat of Germany. Almost none of the stories focus upon those who served in the merchant marine on ships delivering sorely needed food and war materiel through the gauntlet of German U-boats and surface raiders. Instead, most of the stories relate to
two- and three-masted schooners which continued to deliver salt cod to markets in Southern Europe, the Caribbean, and Brazil while the war raged on in Europe. They too risked encounters with U-boats, armed merchant ships, or mines as they plied their trade, and Parsons dramatizes those which fell victim to these threats. In all, approximately forty stories, averaging just a few pages each, are told.

This means that there is little room for context or analysis; Parsons is a storyteller, not an historian. As a result, too many factual details which can easily be checked in today’s Internet world are fudged or distorted. Thus, HMS *Formidable* is identified as a “battleship.” Technically that’s true, but it was an aging pre-dreadnought battleship when it was torpedoed in the Channel near Portland in January 1915. Reservist Leander Green did receive a Distinguished Service Medal, but it is sheer speculation by Parsons that Green earned the medal during efforts to rescue *Formidable*’s crew (Green was serving in patrol cruisers in the North Sea at the time).

Perhaps Parsons can be forgiven for factual errors when dealing with specific actions; let’s blame it on the persistence of the “fog of war.” Other errors are not so easily excused. The United States did not declare war in April 1917 “immediately following the sinking of the SS *Lusitania*” (p.42); the liner was torpedoed nearly two years earlier, in May 1915. Nor did “several American citizens” die in that tragedy; the toll was 128 Americans among the 1,198 who lost their lives that day. More importantly, given Parsons’ determination to shed light on Newfoundlanders at sea, the risk to schooners that were transporting fish to overseas markets of encountering the enemy was quite small. Nor did those schooners keep “the vital food and supply lines flowing between Europe and North America,” (pp.86-87) a point Parsons makes repeatedly. Both points – the insistence that schooners ran a high risk of interception by U-boats and the essential service that those schooners performed in feeding a war-wrecked Europe – are nonsense. Yes, some schooners did encounter U-boats and were sunk. Yet most schooners in the fish trade escaped the notice of enemy submarines or armed enemy cruisers. The number that actually fell victim to enemy action was but a fraction of the total. Estimating what that total might have been during the war would have been a worthwhile exercise in historical research into the nature of Newfoundland’s sea service during the war, but Parsons never tries to suggest just how many trans-Atlantic passages were actually undertaken by vessels engaged in the fish trade during the war. Nor were those vessels performing a vital war service for the Entente Powers in Europe, carrying food and supplies to English ports. Instead, their destinations were generally ports in neutral countries like Portugal and Spain in Europe, or Brazil in South America, and their cargoes of salt cod were commodities in a trade which was extremely profitable to their owners and to their country. Some of their destinations were ports in countries like Italy and Greece which were neutral when the war began and did not enter the war until later. Most of the schooners that fell victim to enemy action had already delivered their cargoes of fish to market, and were on the return journey home, oft times with a cargo of salt, when they became targets of opportunity for U-boats patrolling the sea lanes entering or departing from the Straits of Gibraltar. What is particularly ironic is that the Newfoundland fishing economy did exceptionally well during the war, so much so that war-time shortages of steamer shipping (which to that point carried most of the fish to market) obliged the fish trade to fall back once again to the use of the very schooners to which Parsons gives so much attention. It is a real shame therefore that he says so little about
the conditions and circumstances which necessitated the use of schooners in the trade at all, and so much about those few schooners who became victims of the war at sea.

This imbalance between explaining the larger picture and focussing instead on the episodic is rooted in considerable extent on Parsons’ limited attention to the available literature on the several ways that the war at sea had an impact on Newfoundland. Mark Hunter’s recent book on the Newfoundland Naval Reserve (To Employ and Uplift Them [St. John’s, 2009]) is not cited, nor is Bernard Ransom’s older but still valuable essay on the Reserve which appeared in A Nation’s Navy: In Quest of Canadian Naval Identity (Montréal & Kingston, 1996), edited by Michael L. Hadley, Rob Huebert and Fred W. Crickard. Another source which appears not to have been consulted is Tin Pots and Pirate Ships: Canadian Naval Forces and German Sea Raiders 1880-1918 (Montréal and Kingston, 1991) by Michael Hadley and Roger Sarty; their book had much to say about schooners that were threatened or attacked by enemy ships, including a few of those covered (in less detail!) by Parsons. Also missing is the article by Charles Dana Gibson on “Allied Fishing Fleets and U-Boat Attacks in World Wars I and II” which appeared in the October 1991 issue of The Northern Mariner / Le marin du nord. And there is no question that better sources are available on the Newfoundland economy and society during the Great War than the few used by Parsons.

I have little doubt that Courage at Sea will sell well, especially now that the hundredth anniversary of the Great War is upon us. People will buy it, and read it, and many will find it entertaining. But they won’t be well informed by it, and those who hunger for a better understanding of the impact that the war had on those in Newfoundland and Labrador who made their living by the sea will have to stay hungry a while longer.

Olaf U. Janzen
Corner Brook, NL


This book is a distinguished contribution to the literature on shipbuilding and dockyards. It is also a unique contribution to the history the Pax Britannica, more particularly to its earlier years after the defeat of Napoleon and the end of the War of 1812. Contrary to the general appreciation that the Admiralty scaled down its establishments ashore and afloat, in fact, it set in place new measures for maintaining the naval primacy upon which England’s national profit and power depended and the security of the British Empire could be sustained. One of those measures was the establishment, by Admiralty order, of a new dockyard for the construction of men-of-war at Pembroke on Milford Haven, in Wales.

From this decision many benefits flowed, and right until it was wound up as a naval establishment, over 250 warships went down the ways to those Welsh waters. Here in this remote quarter of the United Kingdom, a place not even connected by railways until mid-century, many of the most powerful future gun-carrying platforms met saltwater. The influence of these vessels on world history was profound in their collectivity. In their individual careers, given delightfully though necessarily briefly in this work, they did the magnificent and painful work of the Pax – and the wars to follow – and for this reviewer, it was a delight to see the essential
particulars of so many ships of war that have been so central to Canadian history, in particular aspects of Arctic exploration and Pacific Coast voyaging and survey. The author begins his book with these celebratory words facing his title page, from John Ruskin (1895): “For one thing this century will in after years be considered to have done in a superb manner and one thing I think only... it will always be said of us, with unabated reverence, ‘They built ships of the line’ ... the ship of the line is [man’s] first work. Into that he has put as much of his human patience, common sense, forethought, experimental philosophy, self control, habits of order and obedience, thoroughly wrought handwork, defiance of brute elements, careless courage, careful patriotism, and calm expectation of the judgement of God, as can well be put into a space of 300 feet long by 80 broad. And I am thankful to have lived in an age when I could see this thing so done.”

Lieutenant Commander Phillips is no stranger to those who know the activities of the Society for Nautical Research, for he was the chief energizer of its centenary activities. He also has served with distinction on the boards of the Hakluyt Society and the Navy Records Society. He is a tireless supporter for historical matters naval and maritime. He is editor of The Royal Navy Day By Day, the RN’s standard naval history reference book, now in its fourth edition, which is dedicated to Her Majesty The Queen and which is issued to every ship and establishment in the Fleet. His remarkable professional network has brought him into contact with all the leading departments of government or of private scholarship that have allowed him to enrich his text with a most delightful collection of photographs, including a handsome cluster of colour illustrations, many of which have not been published before. My eye was particularly drawn to the painting of the Erebus, a vessel much in the news these days, for it was Franklin’s ship, recently found in a surprisingly shallow icy passage in the Canadian high Arctic. The United Kingdom had transferred its sovereignty of these islands to Canada in 1880, and left it to other nations to press on with the transit of the Northwest Passage.

The Erebus, we learn, was a bomb vessel of 1826, and at 375 tons, not far off the size of Captain George Vancouver’s command, the Discovery. Mortar ships, now obsolete, were sometimes converted for surveying duties, and she sailed for the Antarctic. With the Terror, Franklin sailed to explore the possibility of a Northwest Passage. Erebus was abandoned 22 April 1848, the search for Franklin and his men commenced some time afterwards by 39 public and private expeditions, and finally, by Admiralty Order of 16 June 1854, Erebus was removed from the Navy List.

The lure of the Arctic passage has received disproportionate attention from Canadian history enthusiasts far beyond its strategic or commercial importance. Although the search for the Arctic grail is doubtless compelling, it is in the Pacific Ocean, and on the shores of British Columbia, where the solid importance of maritime influence is felt, and it is here that many of the vessels that came from the Pembroke yard found wide fields of activity. The fourth-rate Constance, a beautiful frigate built of good English – and Welsh – oak, was commissioned for the Pacific Station. She entered Esquimalt harbour, Vancouver Island, and came to anchor in Constance Cove, a momentous event presaging later naval events in British, Canadian and Commonwealth annals. Other Pembroke-built vessels, the fourth-rate Sutlej, wearing the flag of Rear Admiral John Kingcombe, 1862-1866, saw every port of call of importance in the eastern Pacific. She arrived back at
Spithead, and during a fleet review there, in 1867, a junior officer sensing the decline of sail as a motive power, commented: “We fired a salute and then, standing in under all plain sail and starboard studding sails, [we] passed right through the fleet; and all the men crowded the rails and yards and cheered us down the lines. For the days of sail were passing even then; we had come from the ends of the world; and the splendid appearance of a fully-rigged man-of-war standing in the anchorage moved every sailor’s heart.” It is this sort of detail and anecdote that gives true vitality to this book.

Then there is the screw sloop Alert, on Pacific Station for eleven years, and later famous in polar exploration and in lighthouse service in Labrador and Quebec. And what about the famous Zealous, the ironclad wearing the flag of Rear Admiral George Hastings, the first ironclad to sail the Pacific? She was six years in the Pacific without docking (a worry to all concerned with naval affairs) and her crews were exchanged over the isthmus at Panama in early 1870, another first. On the way home she hit a rock and that reemphasized the need for a dock on British soil, and that was part of the origins of HM Dockyard, Esquimalt, opened in 1887. The loveliest cruiser of the Pax, the second-class cruiser Amphion, had two tours of duty in the Pacific, never fired a gun in anger (showing the effectiveness of the Pax) and was paid off in 1904. There’s a street named for her in Victoria. She was one of those vessels struck from the Navy List by the Fisher “reforms” and it is interesting to note that Fisher’s own Renown, his flagship on the North America and West Indies Station and also in the Mediterranean, was constructed at Pembroke. Of shallow draft, she could steam through the Suez Canal and did so twice on vice regal duties. She was also a grand sight in Halifax, Nova Scotia.

There are amazing Pembroke stories to be found in this remarkable book. For example, there’s the account of the Royal Yacht Victoria and Albert, designed by the famed Sir William White, and built to replace the monarch’s fifty-year-old vessel of the same name. For reasons that are explained by the author, the vessel proved top-heavy when in dock, and that ended White’s career and spoiled the Yard’s reputation. The Queen-Empress refused to board her, and that was the end of that. George V and George VI had no such qualms, and she survived until 1954. Much of her furniture was transferred to the Britannia, coins under her masts were retrieved, and her figurehead still stands on the parade ground of HMS Nelson at Portsmouth. Then there’s the story of the ill-fated cruiser Curacao, sliced in two by the Cunarder Queen Mary in 1942. Many photographs from the author’s collection grace this book, giving us the appreciation of the immense labour of love exhibited by the author. His various references to the injuries and deaths suffered by the dockyard hands and artificers give this work its truly human dimension. He also recounts the lives of the dockyard superintendents and their families. This is good social history, too, for we have an appreciation of the dockyard as a working establishment.

Yes, they built ships-of-the-line in Pembroke, and in doing so, established a community. Sadly, like so much else in British naval history, all this has passed away. Even so, we have this fine book – as good a tribute to that time and place as could be written, a credit to the author, those who have aided his work, and the publisher. We all stand in his debt.

Barry Gough Victoria, British Columbia

In times of war and conflict, all belligerent players seek to develop tactics, weapons and strategies that best facilitate their own ideal outcomes. Often, the development of these tactics, weapons, and strategies is dependent on terrain, geography, and the availability of resources and technologies. During the Second World War, Italy, Germany, and Japan, as well as a number of other nations, delved into the research and development of unconventional submarine craft, types of vessels that could potentially be used for both offensive and defensive warfare. In *Axis Midget Submarines 1939-45*, the authors go beyond the infamous U-boat war in the Atlantic Ocean and other undersea endeavours by the Axis nations. Instead, they focus on the evolution of “midget craft” as the Axis means of overcoming their deficiencies in other combat areas. Aside from an introduction and origins page, the work is laid out in three simple chapters, with each one discussing the evolution of midget craft in Italy, Germany, and Japan respectively. There is no specific conclusion to the book: it simply ends with a bibliography and an index.

Italy was, perhaps, the first nation to seriously consider developing alternative submarine types, due perhaps to its naval experiences in the First World War and the limitations of the 1922 Washington Naval Treaty on capital surface ships. Italy started redeveloping its alternative naval program well before its entry into the Second World War. Because of Italy’s geographical position in the Mediterranean Sea, members of the Italian government and military knew their enemies would be the British and the French, and that Italy’s navy could not match the naval might of those two nations, especially Britain. During the years following the First World War, Italian naval engineers sought to capitalize on the success of one of their intrepid craft in that conflict. The authors present Italy’s efforts and involvement in this new form of undersea technology in a well-organized and detailed narrative, strengthened by numerous images and illustrations. They also clearly explain Italy’s successes and failures during the war.

Germany’s program to develop and use unmanned torpedoes and midget submarines came about late in the Second World War and was, in reality, a chaotic effort as German engineers and military persons flailed about with different concepts. Again, the authors present the rather dubious machinations by German developers very well, including their failures. Not only did their experiments result in the loss of men, but they distracted Germany from other submarine programs that were more successful. In this section, the historical narrative is once more backed up with an excellent series of photos, cutaway drawings, and illustrations.

Japan, much like Italy, knew who its next enemy would be, developing its midget submarine program in response. They determined which craft would be used as offensive weapons that would/could be deployed in the vanguard of any open-ocean, large-scale surface-fleet confrontations. As early as 1932, Japanese designers began construction on various types of weapons. Again, the authors take the time to not only discuss the original plans for such a fleet, but also to discuss how the roles of alternative fleets changed over time. Much like Germany, Japan’s efforts throughout the war changed as losses of both men and material mounted.

Although the authors do an excellent job in clearly presenting their
information, and provide extremely useful images, illustrations, and cutaway drawings (many provided by noted maritime artist Peter Wright), there are a few areas where the work could have been stronger. Firstly, there is the lack of citations within the text, and the authors’ almost complete reliance on secondary sources. Secondly, there is a lack of contemporary maps depicting areas of operations. While the narrative is good, associated maps would have provided readers with a better understanding of the attacks and misfortunes of the vessel operators and the outcomes for their intended targets. Lastly, there are places in the text where the authors could have chosen better words or terminology. They could have also occasionally provided a few brief explanatory sentences to clarify their meanings.

This work offers a quick and interesting read, illustrated by appealing artwork illustrating the evolution of a unique type of undersea warfare. Moreover, the authors’ academic degrees and combined 60-plus years of military and intelligence service provide their work with academic authority. While geared towards a general audience, the book would be better understood by readers with a basic knowledge of Second World War naval history. Although not intended as an academic reference, Axis Midget Submarines 1939-45 does offer a quick reference to a little-known aspect of the Second World War and a useful starting point for more detailed research.

Wayne Abrahamson
Pensacola, Florida

Marcus Redicker approaches maritime history from a unique perspective by drawing upon figures from the edges of this distinct society; that is, those from below-deck – the ordinary men who plied the sea some of whom were considered outside of the law. He divides them into three groups: slaves, pirates and what he terms the “motley crew.” These are stories of ordinary seamen of the merchant fleet or the British Royal Navy, but the setting is largely from the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries. Redicker’s graceful prose brings these people to life.

The author has written two very powerful books, one about the slave trade (Slave Ship, 2007) and another concerned with pirates and piracy (Villains of All Nations, 2004) and there is some obvious thematic and textual overlap. Redicker’s previous accounts of the capture, middle passage and inhumane consequences of the slave trade were extremely graphic and upsetting to read. They are reiterated here, but in a different and rarely presented context, that of the rebelling slave rising to the level of outlaw.

The author makes part of his point about slavery by invoking many disturbing images. For example: former free men and women shackled in the ship’s hold; prisoners surrounded by nets on deck to prevent them from jumping overboard; frequent horrendous physical punishments designed to spread fear and intimidation; ghastly executions to deter others from revolting; and victim’s limbs and bodily remains fed to circling sharks. The latter cruelty was particularly terrifying to the slaves because, according to their religious folklore, their dismembered bodies would not be admitted to the nether world. Often missed in discussions about the introduction of Africans into slave culture is the fact that many of those placed in bondage developed close bonds with each other, especially during the middle passage. When separated

Upon landing at the place where they were to be sold, they suffered great emotional stress.

Some insurrectionists were able to take possession of their ship, thus becoming outlaws or pirates in the sight of the law. Because of the extreme abuse that they suffered just for being primitive blacks, it is difficult not to develop great sympathy for the mutineers. Redicker writes about many slave ship voyages and incidents, but he devotes one chapter to exploring the famous Amistad rebellion from a fresh perspective. This is a valuable read. Many know of the event(s) and perhaps the outcome from the 1997 film, but few realize that there was a play about the rebellion written in 1839 called The Long, Low, Black Schooner and a publication about the events that year during the trial entitled A True History of the African Chief Jingua and His Comrades.

Redicker’s description of the culture of piracy cause the reader think differently about these maritime desperadoes. The pirates were extremely egalitarian. Often, they were more advanced in democratic ways and means than their contemporaries ashore. Their method of governing preceded the French Revolution by almost century. The crew elected the captain and “officers,” but if the captain oppressed or abused his men, he was in serious trouble. The pirate’s dark society constructed formal rules that were social pacts that enumerated rights and responsibilities among the captains and crew. These included the hierarchy of authority, enforcing discipline, distribution of plunder, and the policies with regard to punishments. The lash was used far less frequently than in the navies of the world and in merchant vessels. Disputes between crewmen were settled on shore, usually by fists, sword or pistol. Pirates kill and pillage for a living, but Redicker attempts to make the case that many of their victims were doing something similar. The difference being, the latter was sanctioned by the society of the times.

Finally, the author dwells upon “the motley crew,” disgruntled and sometimes-violent seamen who frequented the ports throughout North America. They were a pack of rebels of varied ethnic and racial composition, but also representative of the population from which sailors came. Their lot could be miserable, but many were trapped in their occupation. There were few attractive economic alternatives for such men and, after a while, a significant number found their lifestyle pleasurable. What is often forgotten is these men sailed the vessels that docked in foreign ports representing what these people in other parts of the world came to regard as prototypical North Americans. Redicker makes the point that “the motley crew,” often dismissed as ignorant ruffians, both produced maritime history and became the product of it. “Contemporary globalization makes it easier to understand the importance of the original transnational work, the deep sea sailor, and the centrality of the seas in human endeavor as a place where important historical processes such as the genesis of ideas and class formation have taken place” (p.178).

The author does sermonize at times – wandering off theme to make an obscure point – but despite this minor occasional flaw, I highly recommend Outlaws of the Atlantic. It is an extremely well written and intellectually stimulating book; a logical extension of Redicker’s earlier works. His look at history in general and maritime history in particular from “the bottom up” is thought provoking. It is a fresh viewpoint from which to investigate various cultures within a historical context.

Louis Arthur Norton
West Simsbury, Connecticut

At long last the full story of the Royal Australian Navy (RAN) in the First World War has been told. David Stevens is Australia’s preeminent naval historian and this book is his magnum opus; the result of several years of research, including a period of secondment with the Royal Navy Historical Section at Portsmouth in 2011.

The original history of the RAN in the First World War was published by Arthur Jose in 1928 but suffered from political censorship and a lack of proper access to essential documents. Part of this was the reluctance, by both the Royal Navy and RAN, to release information still considered to be classified, and also Jose’s own difficult manner (he chose to conduct his research and writing in Sydney while the bulk of the source material remained at Navy Office in Melbourne!). That said, the original history was a good document but suffered from too many gaps in data, some post-war victory jingoism, a reluctance to call into question political decision making (as the decision makers were still in positions of influence) and Jose’s tendency to describe at length those areas where source documentation was good to the neglect of others.

Now with the benefit of access to once-closed documents, in both Australia and England, modern research facilities such as the scanning and e-mailing across the globe of vast quantities of material and assistance from other like-minded researchers, David Stevens has been able to produce a much more in-depth and well-rounded history of what the RAN actually did during the First World War. Additionally, the political situation within Australia between the Naval Board, Government, the governor-general and the Admiralty can now be fully analyzed without fear or favour.

The result is an absolutely outstanding piece of historical research covering the full gambit of RAN activities during the First World War. The well-known action between Sydney and Emden, the capture of German New Guinea and the submarine AE2’s actions in the Dardanelles campaign are all well covered, but so are the little known range of the RAN activities in the North Sea, South East Asia, Pacific Ocean, East African waters, Caribbean, off the U.S. east coast, Mediterranean and in home waters. The activities of men and ships previously consigned to the footnotes of history are now covered fully and often for the first time.

The layout of the book is excellent and provides several chronological chapters which are easy to read and well-illustrated with maps and photographs (including several that have never been published before). Stevens makes use of extensive first-hand reference material including diaries and letters written by RAN personnel, as well as official records (all of which are comprehensively foot-noted for further research if the reader so wishes).

Of note is the extensive use of records from the “lower deck,” and from junior officers, which give a deeper appreciation of what it was like to serve at sea in the RAN during the war – it’s not just what the admirals and politicians thought or wrote. Each chapter finishes with a vignette of a notable sailor, officer or civilian administrator who played an important role during the war – or, in the case of Able Seaman “Dinkum” Minogue, someone who stood out from their peers due to their unique (i.e. downright odd) character.

There is something for everyone in the book from the development of naval aviation through to the often-forgotten
administration and logistics efforts across the globe to support Australian units in the many and diverse locations where they operated. The home front is also covered well with the analysis of recruiting and training issues, dockyard construction work and the ongoing efforts to ensure a regular supply of coal to RAN vessels, often in the face of tense and bitter industrial disputes during 1916-17. The interaction with other navies, particularly the Imperial Japanese Navy that operated in Indian and Pacific Oceans throughout the war, also gets its fair share of analysis.

For the Canadian reader, there are references to HMAS Australia operating off the west coast of Mexico in 1914, with HMCS Rainbow, searching for von Spee’s elusive East Asian Squadron, and also the convoy escort and patrol work conducted in 1915-16 by HMA Ships Melbourne and Sydney on the east coast of Canada. The two cruisers were frequent visitors to Halifax, where some of the Australian sailors deserted and joined the Canadian Expeditionary Force – with at least two being killed in action at Vimy Ridge.

I could find very little to fault in this extensive review of the RAN in the First World War. There are some very minor typographical errors, but you need a fine tooth comb to locate them. The book is written in a style that makes it easily read and understood by all, regardless of whether they are admiral, professor, student or just vaguely interested in what the Australian Navy did during the First World War. The bottom line is – read it. You will not be disappointed!

Greg Swinden
Evatt, ACT, Australia


From the high middle-ages onwards cartographers in the western world began to illuminate their maps with the images of towns, churches, castles and other conspicuous landmarks. In the beginning, these images were basically decorative, only secondarily serving as sources of information on, for example, itinerary maps. Much later, mapmakers began to decorate sea charts as well; they used only the margins of their charts to disseminate commercial data – preferably regional products – that might be useful to their customers. One image you will never find on these maps and charts, even on the high seas, is a picture of a ship. The only exception is pictures of Noah’s ark, used at the time as a theological motif symbolizing the importance of the (Roman Catholic) Church.

During the fourteenth century, ship illustrations started to be used more widely as (secular) decorative elements on sea charts, a custom that lasted until far into the seventeenth century. The reasons for using such pictures, the scale upon which they were used, and their relation to the purpose of the chart as a whole, have remained relatively unknown. Author René Tebel became intrigued by the phenomenon and made it the subject of his thesis at the University of Vienna in 2004. The Deutsches Schifffahrtsmuseum considered his study very suitable for publication in their series Schriften.

Tebel did not set himself an easy task. He had to master a great number of specialist studies on cartography, art history,
and early shipbuilding; the book has a 53-page bibliography with more than one thousand titles, most of them in German and published before 2004. Books published since 2004 have not been included, which means the bibliography might have missed more recent titles. Finally, the author had to study in detail many hundreds of maps and charts, among them some relatively unknown specimens.

In the first two sections of his book, Tebel first dwells on the use of ship pictures as a decorative motif in general over the centuries, then addresses the ship as a means of information about such things as the qualities of a port or the results of a voyage of discovery. In the third part of his book he focuses on the decorated charts as sources for the study of ship typology.

The book is profusely illustrated. Sometimes surprisingly clarifying pictures have been borrowed from unknown books unearthed by the author. It is really a great pleasure to glance through the colourful wealth of Tebel’s study. Despite being a pioneering and admirably organized collection of data on maps and charts from the early period of mapmaking, especially those decorated with ship motifs, Das Schiff im Kartenbild has a number of obvious drawbacks. Tebel does not draw a firm conclusion from all his painstaking research. Even for a German-speaking author, his rather complicated style and use of language, do not make his subject matter easily accessible, a problem that even carries over into the English-language summary. Nor does his exuberant use of notes heighten the readability of the main text. A strict editor might have done a great job here. And if you expect – as I did – to find the specific names of at least some of the ship types that sailed the seas in those early days, you are cherishing a false hope. The author speaks about “rowed ships of the Mediterranean” or “square-rigged ships from the Atlantic,” not about galleys or carracks, let alone taking a chance on giving his contemporary pictures a specific name.

On the Deutsches Schiffahrtsmuseum website, one can find a digital catalogue which is accessible via an entrance code on the last page of the book, to find the official name of a map or chart, where to find it, whether it has been reproduced, relevant literature, etc. – but that is not an easy road either.

Ergo conclusio: a book filled to the brim with data and knowledge, in text and illustrations, on maps and charts from the twelfth to the seventeenth centuries, decorated with maritime motifs – and at the same time, a rather inaccessible treasure-chamber.

Leo Akveld
Rotterdam, The Netherlands


Retired Captain Rodney Watterson, USN, has written an important study of the shift from the lash to prison as the major tool in dealing with behaviour deemed criminal by the United States Navy. After reviewing the navy’s use of summary punishment flogging as a response to sailors’ recalcitrant behaviour, and the lash’s demise, Watterson focuses on the navy’s shift to a reliance on incarceration. The story of Portsmouth Naval Prison, at Portsmouth Navy Yard, New Hampshire, under the command of Thomas Mott Osborne during the progressive era dominates the second half of the book.

From the beginning of the United States Navy, the officers in command of its
ships and vessels employed the cat of nine tails and iron fetters to punish sailors who disobeyed orders, attempted to desert, talked back or engaged in any of the numerous other behaviours deemed to undermine discipline and order aboard ship. The lash was the inherited tool, which remained after the King had been thrown off and the Thirteen Colonies became the United States. The new country and infant navy formed a set of Articles of War, assessing guilt and assigning punishment through the captains’ discretion for minor issues with seamen and via courts martial for officers and more serious offenses by seamen. This approach was taken directly from the Royal Navy.

After describing the heavy reliance on flogging in the early navy, Watterson turns to the effort to abolish the use of the whip to punish. This movement is fraught with ambiguity as a desire to dispense with a method many found repulsive clashed with the concern over the void it would leave in with behaviour deemed inappropriate. The act which abolished the lash in the navy came into law in September 1850. Confinement, badges of dishonour, prolonged “police duty” and loss of pay were some of the alternatives that officers used to enforce their sense of order. Watterson examines punishment reports and courts martial in the post-lash period and finds inconsistency in the assignment of the alternative punishments. As the Department of the Navy struggled with this problem, they came to the decision to use prison confinement for major offences. These offenses were divided into two categories; those that broke civilian laws (i.e. murder, embezzlement) and those that broke naval law (i.e. desertion, disobedience). Those who broke the civilian laws were placed in civilian prisons, while those offending naval laws went to the navy’s facilities. Minor offences, (i.e. dress violation, first offence for drunkenness) in which the offender appeared to be open to reform, were kept out of the prison to encourage their retention and redemption within the service. One set of offenses which appear to have deeply troubled the navy and landed those convicted in the naval prison were moral offenses (primarily homosexual activity).

The navy relied on state and federal facilities, prison ships and detention barracks at first. This make-shift arrangement eventually fell to the navy’s desire to have its own prison system. The early progressive era’s call for rationalization and efficiency further encouraged realignment and solidification of the naval prison system. Ultimately, one prison was established in Mare Island, California (for the Pacific theatre) and Portsmouth Naval Yard became the prison on the east coast (for the Atlantic theatre). The Portsmouth Prison opened in 1908, but its early record of reintegrating reformed men back into the navy was not good. The use of standard prison methods (i.e. total silence among prisoners, lock-step marching as prisoners moved through the facility, chains, depersonalizing prison garb) were eventually viewed from the progressive movement’s perspective as antiquated and in need of reform.

Enter Thomas Mott Osborne, whose term as warden at the infamous Sing Sing penitentiary introduced the world to his reform methods of prisoner representation and self-governance. His time there raised his profile as a prison reformer in America, but it ended in a cloud of controversy over his method, and a scandal over homosexual activity in the prison and in his own life. He rose above this with his own spin on the events published in articles, books and speeches, preserving his reputation as a major successful prison reformer. Based on this reputation, Secretary of the Navy Josephus Daniels, and Under-Secretary F. D. Roosevelt brought Osborne to the
Portsmouth Navy Prison, in August 1917 and encouraged his reforms. Osborne introduced his inmate self-government and representation initiatives, instituted sports and theatre programs (including a travelling theatre group of prisoners who performed for local organizations) and removed the marine prison guards stationed in the prison to outside the prison. His reforms quickly met with an aggressive backlash. Osborne’s two main opponents were every officer who commanded the marines at the Naval Yard and officers in command at sea who found their sailors regarding time in prison as easier than life afloat. As opponents to Osborne and criticism of Daniels’ handling of the United States Navy in the First World War mounted, Daniels and Roosevelt’s supportive relationship cooled and finally ruptured. Osborne was removed from Portsmouth Navy Prison, in March 1920, under similar overcast skies as those that drove him from Sing Sing. His career as a prison reformer continued; consulting, writing and speaking about his successes and the continued need to reform America’s prison system.

Watterson draws out the controversy of reform and resistance within the service to those reforms. It is the resistance that ultimately prevails as the commandants that followed Osborne removed most of his reforms. A major element in the story is the power of Osborne’s personality to blindly push forward, shaping and reshaping all objections and criticisms of his methods, casting doubt on the person engaged in the criticism. He was a forward-thinking person of the progressive stripe, but he also had an inability to work collegially with those who did not accept his perspective. His use of Daniels and Roosevelt (and their use of Osborne) is another major force in how reform unfolded at Portsmouth.

An unresolved tension exists within the book between the presence of homosexual behaviour between sailors on ships, prisoners in confinement (both at Sing and Portsmouth Naval Prison) and Osborne’s own potential homosexuality. The book clearly presents the picture that during Osborne’s time at both penal institutions homosexual activity became widespread and problematic to prisoners, prison administrators both below and above Warden/Commandant Osborne, but less so to him. The question that is left ambiguous in Watterson’s work is Osborne’s own involvement in homosexual activity both within and outside the prisons. His penchant for dressing in disguises to enter the world of the sailor and the prisoner, to live among them, sometimes in secret and openly at others, is at first a wonderful method of collecting data on those he will lead, or reform. As Osborne’s story is unwrapped for the reader however, this activity develops more of a voyeuristic role, if not potentially, a homoerotic activity. This tension parallels the navy’s struggle with “morality” crimes.

Nine figures and twelve tables hold statistical evidence that supports Watterson’s description of early naval punishment and life at Portsmouth Navy Prison. Heavy use of archival material from Daniels, Osborne, and the Portsmouth Navy Prison give an impressive depth and grounding to Watterson’s perspective. Twenty images appear in a group in the middle of the book. One of the images is of Osborne dressed as a sailor for one of his undercover trips aboard a naval vessel. This book adds to our understanding of the evolution of punishment in the United States Navy, especially with regard to the development of a naval penal system and its first attempts at reform. It is also an important examination of Thomas Mott Osborne, one of the Progressive Era’s most controversial prison reformers.

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General William (“Billy”) Mitchell occupies a high place in the United States Air Force’s pantheon of heroes. After distinguished service in the First World War with the then-titled U.S. Air Service of the U.S. Army, Mitchell began a campaign for an independent American air force with responsibility to control ALL American military aviation assets. Thomas Wildenberg provides a detailed look at this forgotten controversy in the U.S. military.

After the First World War, Mitchell and other officers of the U.S. Air Service (later named the U.S. Army Air Corps [USAAC] and by the Second World War, the U.S. Army Air Force [USAAF]) looked at the British Royal Air Force (RAF) which had been formed in 1918 by the merger of two British military air arms – the Royal Flying Corps and the Royal Naval Air Service. The conclusion Mitchell and others formed from the RAF – one military air service had to control all military assets. Thus, in 1919, began the controversy over creating an independent U.S. air force that would control all military air functions including bombing, air-to-air combat, reconnaissance, fleet protection, close air support for troops on ground, maritime patrol and coastal defense, search and rescue, transport, etc.

Mitchell and others carried on this tug-of-war for years, even after Mitchell resigned from the USAAC having been court-martialed as a result of his charges that the U.S. Navy (USN) and USAAC were incompetent and negligent in American air policy. The argument for an independent air arm was bitterly opposed by the USN and Marine Corps (USMC) who wanted, justifiably, to control air assets vital to their respective missions. Nor did the US Army want to lose a significant part of its service.

Ultimately, both Mitchell and the USN won their respective arguments. Mitchell proved that bomber aircraft could sink battleships. In 1921, he carried out tests on captured German battleships that exposed the threat air power posed to the traditional surface fleet. This threat was conclusively established in December 1941, when Japanese bombers sank HMS Repulse and HMS Prince of Wales. Further, by the end of the Second World War, the USAAF was operating almost independently of the U.S. Army. Mitchell’s dream of an independent American Air Force came to fruition in 1947 when the USAAF became the U.S. Air Force.

But Mitchell’s idea of an independent air force controlling all military aviation assets failed. The USN won its side of the dispute; it retained control of Naval Aviation and the USMC retained control of its aviation branch. In addition to the air branches of the USN and USMC, it was realized after the Second World War that the American Army had its own unique aviation requirements. The result is that each of America’s five military branches – Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard – is in charge of its own aviation requirements. This structure has been replicated in other nations: Great Britain’s military services, British Army, Royal Navy, and Royal Marines, each have aviation units in addition to the Royal Air Force. Countries such as Australia, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and Thailand each have army aviation, an independent air force, and naval aviation. (Canada had the same tripartite military aviation structure until unification of its armed forces in 1968.)

Thomas Wildenberg, a noted naval
historian, details the struggle that lasted between 1919 and 1941. He provides a brief but accurate biography of Billy Mitchell which places the protagonist of this narrative in his historical perspective. Wildenberg drew on primary sources – some oral history, archives, and many government documents – as well as secondary sources in writing his book. The result is an in-depth treatment of the interwar controversy over air power and is unlikely to be bettered in a short account. For those who want to read more about Billy Mitchell, Wildenberg, unusually but quite helpfully, includes a section titled “Other Biographies of Billy Mitchell,” which contains an annotated bibliography of the eleven prior biographies of Mitchell. The illustrations are quite relevant and add to the narrative. One appendix is a helpful timeline that shows the overlap between U.S. presidents, secretaries of war and navy, U.S. Army chiefs of staff and chiefs of naval operations, and the various heads of the two services air arms. The writing is clear and concise and rarely confuses the reader. The end notes are both informational and referential and document Wildenberg’s assertions.

This book is not for the strict maritime enthusiast, but rather, the reader interested in the development of air power during the period 1919-41 will find this to be a most useful addition to the bookshelf. One caveat: it must be remembered that Wildenberg is a naval historian and therefore, writes from a naval perspective. It would be interesting to find the Army/Air Force perspective on Mitchell’s career and the struggle for an independent air arm for a comparison. That said, Billy Mitchell’s War with the Navy can be recommended.

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