Infantry Units

Infantry was the most important arm on the Napoleonic battlefield. The infantry of the period were classified in several types; Line, Light, Militia, Grenadier and Guard infantry. Line infantry made up the bulk of a Napoleonic army and operated in the shoulder-to-shoulder close-order formations and utilizing volley fire in combat for both defense and attack. Light infantry was trained to use open-order formations in addition to close-order formations. Militia units (also landwehr, levies and national home guards) were usually hastily organized and poorly trained and equipped troops. Grenadier and guard infantry were generally the elite of the army and were usually formed from men picked for their experience and bravery. Grenadier and guard units moved and fought as line infantry, but with higher morale and improved training resulting in better standing potential.

Infantry can be considered a stand-alone arm that has both offensive and defensive properties. While not recommended, infantry is the only arm capable of engaging the enemy without the support of the other two arms, cavalry and artillery. A commander must attempt to use his infantry appropriately and to his advantage to begin or to end an engagement.

There is no one ideal infantry formation that will fit all the situations that the commander might encounter on the battlefield. The line formation is the basic formation in which infantry will bring about the most firepower towards the enemy, but at times the line formation can be awkward to maneuver on the battlefield. Much easier to handle than line formation is the column formation, which is the basic formation used by infantry for maneuverability. Columns however, are not intended for use in combat for they have a restricted frontage. Square formations are the best formations infantry can use against cavalry. While very limited in their mobility and firepower, an infantry square is very difficult to defeat with cavalry if formed by steady infantrymen; Against infantry, the square is a terrible formation as it lacks the needed firepower and uniformity to confront other infantry units.

Choosing a formation when in close proximity to the enemy, a commander will need to consider his options and determine which methods will work best when moving towards and closing to close quarters with the opposing forces. While line formations utilize maximum firepower and endure better against enemy artillery fire than do the deep ranks of the column or square formations, lines due lack the speed and maneuverability of the column. Normally, the column would be used to speed across the field; then the unit would deploy into line for combat. Should enemy cavalry be near, a square might be the best formation to be used by the infantry*.

Infantry in skirmish formations are only an accessory to the close order formations. Skirmishers can not be expected to hold the main battle line on their own, but rather, skirmishers cover it by taking advantages of terrain and their open order structure to protect the movements of close order formations that are responsible for holding the battle line and defeating the enemy.

Most of the infantry of the period were armed with the smoothbore flintlock musket, but some special infantry units were armed with the rifle or a combination of muskets and rifles. The muskets reliability and short range limited the effectiveness of the weapon, and in bad weather such as rain, the musket could almost be rendered useless. For this reason, the infantryman was also armed with a bayonet, which could prove to be a potent morale weapon when seen in mass. However, infantry units seldom crossed bayonets in close action. One side or the other usually broke before the actual contact could be made.

*While not as steadfast as a square formation, a line formation can also be used as a defense against cavalry attacks.

Cavalry Units

Cavalry as a whole came in two classifications: Heavy and Light. Heavy cavalry was essentially the primary battlefield cavalry used for shock attacks. Mounted on large powerful horses and in some cases the troopers wore steal breastplates (Cuirassiers), the heavy cavalry was intended to full fill the shock role. Mounted on smaller faster horses and with lighter equipment, light cavalry supported the heavy cavalry by operating on the flanks and pursue retreating units. Light cavalry could also substitute as the primary battlefield cavalry should the need arise. Light cavalry would sometimes be used for reconnaissance work and penetration duties.

Cavalry is an offensive arm and cannot defend a position without the support of infantry. The principal value of cavalry lies in its swiftness. The main function for the cavalry on the battlefield is to open the way for victory or to complete a victory by smashing the retreating or demoralized enemy and taking prisoners. Cavalry could also be put to good use by supporting friendly units in distress and covering the retreats of friendly infantry and artillery. Keeping cavalry in reserve to either follow up a victory or to cover a withdraw might be a consideration a commander needs factor into his battle plan.

Wide-ranging cavalry attacks against an enemy battle line that is in good order has little or no chance of success unless supported by infantry and artillery. Commanders might be tempted to push cavalry forward alone without support, but unless the enemy formations are demoralized and ready to break, this could prove to be a dismal mistake without the proper support of the other arms. Should cavalry take an enemy position, its success will only be temporary if there is no infantry available to hold the ground.

The main cavalry weapon was the saber – long straight trusting type sabers for the heavy cavalry and curved slashing type sabers for the light cavalry. Some cavalry units were armed with the lance, which required some extra training to use in combat. While the lance was less effective than sabers against other cavalry, it could be most effective against infantry if use properly under the appropriate conditions. As a secondary weapon, almost all cavalry units were armed with a carbine, which were

nothing more than a shortened musket. However, cavalry in battle seldom used their carbines and some units even discarded them altogether.

While cavalry can be a powerful tool on the battlefield, at the same time, cavalry was the most fragile of the three arms and care must be taken not to squander them. Also, the cost of raising and maintaining a regiment of cavalry was very expensive and equal to five to eight times more than that of infantry or artillery. The proportion of cavalry to infantry has always varied considerably within the different Napoleonic armies. Cavalry ratios can be taken at about one-eighth to one-tenth of an army's total strength. Note that some regions and circumstances might worsen this ration even further.

Artillery Units

There where two basic types of field artillery; foot artillery, where the crews walked alongside the guns and limbers; and horse artillery where the crews were mounted on horses for extra mobility. Artillery batteries consisted between six to eight cannon (Russian batteries consisted of twelve) and would be equipped with field guns that ranged in caliber from 3lb to 12lb, with 6lb and 12lb guns being the most common caliber used during the Napoleonic wars. While the 12lb cannon was considered the most powerful field gun on the Napoleonic battlefield, most batteries were equipped with the lighter and more manageable 6lb cannon. Some batteries would also be equipped with a few howitzers to complement their field guns. Horse batteries rarely had field guns larger than 6lb in caliber.

Artillery is sometimes referred to as being one of the most powerful arms of an army. Artillery has both offensive and defensive properties, but require the support of friendly infantry and cavalry to be successful. The main purpose of artillery on the battlefield is to overwhelm the enemy formations with cannon fire. If used in an offensive role, artillery fire should be concentrated where the main attack is to take place. Artillery fire should be used to first soften up the enemy positions at the area of attack, and then used to assist (a possible good role for horse artillery) the infantry and cavalry in their assaults. While the use of artillery on the battlefield is relatively simple, their positioning on the battlefield is significant. In the defensive role, batteries should be positioned along likely approaches of an attack. If the enemy advance in lines, batteries should attempt to enfilade the attacking units since enfilade fire upon lines have a better chance to produce more casualties. If the enemy advance in columns, the position of a battery is not as important since a column's front and flanks make for equal targets of opportunity. When used offensively or defensively, it was not considered constructive to engage in counter-battery fire. The main targets for artillery were the masses of troop formations rather than the individual guns of a battery that at times proved very difficult to hit.

Artillery in reserve should be placed in locations where it could be brought to the battle line in a quick manor but far enough were it could be safe from surprise breakthroughs, or better yet, positioned in such a way as to prevent a breakthrough from succeeding.

British Congreve Rockets

In 1805 Colonel William Congreve succeeded in developing the first military rocket for the British army. The Congreve rockets were inexpensive to produce, deceiving to the enemy, and very simple to transport because of their light weight, making it very easy for a rocket troop to keep up with the army in the field. Colonel Congreve believed that a small mounted troop without any vehicles could carry substantial firepower for the army. Each trooper would be able to carry several field rockets. The warheads were carried under the trooper's shabraque and the shafts were strapped to the saddle and carried like a lance. In fact, lance-heads and pennons (usually white over blue) were sometimes supplied. In one instance during the Peninsular campaigns in Spain, the 1st mounted rocket detachment under the command of Captain Eliot was mistaken for some new regiment of British lancers.[1] No doubt that it became a surprise to the French when these so called new British lancers began launching their "lances" at them.

The Congreve rocket had an effective range of about 1,800 yards and a maximum range of three miles. It was fired from a copper tube mounted on a tripod. The rocket consisted of a case of sheet iron with a cylindrical conical head screwed into it. The lower part of the iron case carried the main charge and featured a bushing, which allowed insertion of a 12 to 16 foot stick that served as a stabilizer and part of the means to launch. The explosive head ranged in weight equivalents of artillery, from six to thirty-two pounders. The rocket was more spectacular than dangerous because its accuracy was very poor. At best, it could be used to scare militiamen or to harass area targets.[2] Rockets could be armed with several types of warheads. The standard high explosive warhead was most popular, but an incendiary type of warhead or a kind of cannister shot combined with a bursting charge to be used against massed troop formations could also be used.

During the War of 1812, the British Congreve rocket had mixed results in some of the battles at which they were used. In some cases, they proved effective in winning the battle, while at others, they were nothing more than an irritation for the Americans. After the American victory at Chippewa in the northern campaign, the adversaries engaged again at Lundy's Lane, close to Niagara Falls. An American charge had just overrun a British battery that was positioned in the center of the battlefield on a hill and inflicting heavy casualties upon them. The field was about to be won when General Jacob Brown and his second in command, Winfield Scott, were both twice wounded. Brown's first injury, a musket ball through a thigh, was not as severe as his second: a heavy blow from the stick of a Congreve rocket. Although still conscious, the General was suffering from shock to such a degree that he ordered a withdrawal instead of the advance that would have gained the day. The British reoccupied the lost ground and held the battlefield.[3]

In 1814, retaliating for the looting of York, then the capital of Canada, the British landed an army on the Maryland shore near the town of Bladensburg. These

troops were ordered to advance upon Washington. American defenders just west of Bladensburg opposed them and a battle took place. At the battle of Bladensburg, British rockets were especially useful. Not only were they the first elements available to the British army to provide artillery support, but they helped route the defending American militia leaving the way clear to Washington. The British entered a near deserted Capital and set it ablaze. The British army then backtracked and prepared to advance on Baltimore. The army was landed at North Point approximately 13 miles southeast of Baltimore. The Americans attempted to stop the British advance at Boulden Farm about 6 miles from Baltimore on the North Point road. At the battle of North Point, the British once again deployed their rockets. This time the defending American militiamen had been instructed about these strange contraptions. However, the effects of the rocket were still felt among the American ranks. The British defeated the Americans and continued their push onto Baltimore were the siege of Fort McHenry was beginning to take place.

On the morning of 13th September 1814, the British fleet commenced bombarding Fort McHenry, and the siege would continue through the night. Francis Scott Key, one time American artillery officer held as hostage aboard the flagship, watched the big mortars of the bomb ships spew out their 200-pound loads to soar up in lofty arcs and swoop down on the fort and the flag of red, white, and blue fluttering from its staff. He saw the rocket ship *Erebus* spout broadsides of 32-pound incendiaries, "reaching out with fiery fingers for the houses in the fort, the ready ammunition in the batteries and the bastions, the plank platforms and the revetments, and the gunboats moored in the channel."[4] He thrilled to the valiant reply by the McHenry's gunners, fire that held the fleet at bay and beat off an attack by a landing party in barges. At the end of the night bombardment's awful grandeur – "the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air" – he beheld by the dawn's early light that the flag was still there, that the Star-Spangled Banner yet waved. Then he wrote down those immortal words of his, and a national anthem was born.[5]

At the battle of New Orleans, 1st January 1815, British Congreve rockets were some of the first shots fired during the battle. The British opened the battle with an intensive rocket attack against the American defensive positions. As the rockets rained down on the cotton-bale-barricades they began to affect the morale of the defending Americans. Seeing this, General Andrew Jackson rode his horse up and down the American line shouting, "Don't mind these rockets. They are mere toys to amuse children." Such reassurance fell flat when the missiles exploded two caissons, dismounted three guns, and set cotton bales afire. But the rockets' success, isolated and temporary, was of small account. It was to American musketry, rifle and artillery fire that final victory was due.[6]

The British Congreve rocket was also used in Europe during the Napoleonic wars. In October 1806, Boulogne was attacked and was seriously damaged by about 200 naval siege rockets. In 1807 Copenhagen was practically destroyed by some 40,000 rockets. Rifleman Harris of the 95th Rifles who observed the attack on Copenhagen wrote; "they rushed through the air in the dark like so many fiery serpents, creating I should think, terrible dismay among the besieged".[7] Danzig was another city attacked by British rockets. The rockets rained down upon the city three times in 1813 forcing it to surrender. The British and their rockets also launched a successful attack on Walcheren and Flushing. In 1813 at the battle of Leipzig, a British rocket detachment operated with a battery of RHA (Royal Horse Artillery). Here the Congreve rockets far outranged the 6lbs cannon of the RHA and a few French units experienced the terrifying effects of the rocket. The rocket troop performed so well at the battle that they were given the honor to inscribe "Leipzig" on their equipment. British rockets also performed well during the crossing of the Adour river, before the battle of Orthes (February 27th, 1814). At the crossing, rockets destroyed three French gunboats and forced a sloop to retire. The rocket troop was then among the first troops across the river, engaging a French column and forcing it to fall back. A British rocket detachment was also present during the Waterloo campaign of 1815. Wellington however, observed some rocket demonstrations in 1814 and later commented during the Waterloo campaign, "I do not want to set fire to any town, and I do not know of any other use for rockets."[8]

The overall effect of the Congreve rocket is an ongoing debate, but I personally feel that the field rocket is mostly misunderstood. Compared to field cannons, rockets were less effective against formed troop formations. Rockets were also not known for their accuracy. Especially when fired without the aid of their launcher. However, the field rocket had one distinct characteristic that even the dreaded large 12lb cannons lacked: the ability to give off showers of sparks and a loud screaming noise which only ended after the rocket had detonated. This could affect the morale of even the veteran soldier and drove terror into green militiamen. Cavalry were vulnerable because horses were especially susceptible to the distinctive characteristics of the rocket. It was this shocking effect that the weapon had on disrupting the enemy that gave the rocket its value on the battlefield. G. R. Gleig wrote: "You see it coming yet know not how to avoid it. It skips and starts from place to place in so strange a manner, that chances are, when you are running to the right or left to get out of the way, that you run directly against it; and hence the absolute rout which a fire of ten or twelve rockets can create..."[9]

The British had carried out experiments around 1810 on a shoulder fired infantry field rocket, but these were still in the development stages when the Napoleonic wars ended. Austria took an interest in the Congreve rocket and began introducing these rockets into service about 1808. Even though the Austrians developed a two-barreled field launcher, there seems to be no direct evidence that I can find that shows the Austrians had never used the rockets in action. It is most likely that the Austrians never deployed the rocket in battle.

Field Rockets on the Wargaming Table:

Rules governing rockets on the game table can be simple and to the point or they can be intense and

overdone. Personally, I'm in favor of the "keeping it simple and straightforward" rule. Three basic rules need to be addressed for dealing with rockets on the game table. The first one is movement, the second is firing accuracy, and the third is effect of that fire. For movement, the rocket troop should be treated as either a light battery with a faster deploy time or a cavalry unit with a deploy time. If the rocket troop has carries the rocket cart or tripod firing device, then the light battery movement rates should be used. If the rocket troop is not carrying such equipment (which was common) then cavalry movement rates should be used. As for calculating fire, this should be simple. The firing battery picks a point of aim and rolls two dice. One die being a random hit die (two of the six sides have hits, the other four arrows) and another die being used for distance of drift. Depending on the scale, the size of the drift die can vary. For games played at 1:30 or 1:33 scale, a D20 works well and for games played at 1:60 scale, a D10 works well. Each number represents the number of inches the rocket drifts if a hit is not scored. The arrows on the random hit die controls the direction of the drift. If a hit is scored on a target, enemy or friendly, a morale test must be enforced upon that unit and there should be a small chance that a figure is removed from game play. A roll of six on a D6 will cause the loss of one figure to the unit. If the unit is cavalry, there should also be another roll for disruption. On a roll of five or six, the cavalry unit is disrupted and will require on action to reform. If a hit is scored on building, chances of setting fire should be checked. Rocket detachments are represented by a single base (1" by 1½") with a crew (two or three figures for looks) and a rocket launcher model. One casualty will put a rocket detachment out of action and they are always counted as an unlimbered battery when being fired upon. Rocket units move as a 6lb royal horse battery (rated-A), but only require ½ an action to limber or unlimber. Rockets have a range of 35" and can use rapid fire. Rockets normally only fire once per action, but should they use rapid fire, a rocket detachment may fire three separate times in one action. For purposes of ammunition checking, rockets have the same restrictions as artillery.

1. A lancer regiment was a particular light cavalry unit armed with long lances. During the Napoleonic Wars, the British army was one of the only armies not to have lancer regiments in their cavalry.
2. Joseph Whitehorne, *While Washington Burned, The Battle for Fort Erie 1814*, p.190
3. Fairfax Downey, *Cannonade*, p.178
4. Swanson, *The Perilous Fight*, p.442
5. Fairfax Downey, *Cannonade* p.179
6. Fairfax Downey, *Cannonade* p.180
7. *Recollections of Riflemen Harris*, ed. H. Curling, 1929 printing
8. Terence Wise, Richard Hook, *Artillery Equipments of the Napoleonic Wars*
9. P.J. Haythornthwaite, *Weapons and Equipment of the Napoleonic Wars*

The Smooth-Bore Flintlock Musket

During the Napoleonic wars, the musket played an important role for all the countries involved in the conflict. The standard weapon of the British infantryman was the Land Pattern series of smooth-bore flintlock musket, known as the Brown-Bess. The Brown-Bess weighed about 13 pounds, had an overall length of approximately 56 to 62 inches (depending of pattern), and it fired a .75 calibre round lead ball that weighed roughly an ounce. The standard weapon of the French infantryman was the model 1777 smooth-bore flintlock musket and the modified version know as the Year IX musket. They weighed about 10 pounds, had an overall length of approximately 60 inches, and it fired a .69 calibre round lead ball. Muskets of the other countries varied only in detail. The standard weapon of the American army was the Model 1795 (based on the French musket). The main Austrian musket was the Model 1770 (replaced later with an improved lock version) and the main Prussian musket was the Model 1782. The Russian army, however, carried no less than twelve different types of muskets with up to 28 different calibres of which some were of foreign manufacture.

To load and fire the musket, the soldier first set the hammer at "half-cock". Then the soldier took a prepared paper cartridge containing powder and ball from his cartridge pouch and tore the end off. He then poured a small amount of the powder from the paper cartridge into the priming pan. After closing the frizzen (pan cover), the soldier then poured the rest of the powder down the barrel at the muzzle. This was soon followed by the lead ball (hence, the term muzzle loader). The musket's ramrod was then used to ram the projectile home. The hammer was then drawn back an extra notch on to "full-cock" and the musket was ready to fire. At which stage, pressure on the trigger would release the sear causing the hammer to fall and the flint to strike the frizzen forcing it backwards and producing a shower of sparks that ignited the powder in the pan. As the powder ignited with a flash, a small portion of it would pass through a touch-hole on the side of the barrel to ignite the main charge, which then sent the projectile on its way. A misfire occurred when the flash in the pan failed to set off the main charge because of a clogged touch-hole or other circumstance. In which case a second ignition attempt was made, otherwise the musket had to be unloaded which proved very difficult on the battlefield. Misfires were common when the musket became fouled with black powder residue from continuous firing or as a result of bad weather such as rain or snow.

Why was the smooth-bore flintlock musket inaccurate? This is a very good question and there were several factors that contributed to this; some were by design, others by situation. There was the slow flash time that is the delay associated with the falling of the cock and the ignition of the main charge. This could cause the musket to waver, especially should the shooter flinch due to the flash going off next to his face. This of course interfered with accuracy, a drawback compounded by the absence of rear sights on most muskets. Only a small projection on the end of the barrel serving as a front sight

was provided to aid the shooter, but this was usually obscured by the bayonet affixed to the end of the muzzle. Accuracy was further compromised by the continued tactical condition for speed and volume of fire. Musket balls had to be loose-fitting in these black powder arms. Otherwise the barrel would need to be cleaned after a few shots, a difficult procedure on the field of battle. Therefore, musket balls were always a bit smaller than the bore of the musket and this caused windage (the gap between bore and ball). Attempts to reduce this windage and make the musket more accurate were carried out, but test results had shown that this would be detrimental under battle conditions. Accuracy also suffered because the need for rapid firing the musket in battle. With a normal rate of two or three shots a minute, shots where made less effective as a result of inconsistency of loads due to haste in reloading the musket.

To the casual reader and to the new comer to Napoleonic gaming, the dense formations of men marching shoulder to shoulder into battle might seem a little ridiculous, but throughout the war, the great majority of infantry were armed with the smooth-bore flintlock musket. This weapon, which was remarkably similar in all armies, continued to influence training and tactics used by the armies on the battlefield. To compensate for the low accuracy, mass fire was required. To achieve this, battalions were formed into dense line formations and fired volleys upon command. Because military doctrines of the time called for the highest volume of fire possible directed toward the enemy in a short period of time, soldiers where trained to march in close order. The primary formation used for an engagement was the line. This consisted of two or three ranks of men drawn up shoulder to shoulder with one rank close behind the other. From this formation soldiers advanced upon the enemy, marching to within sure range of their weapons, then stopping to deliver a volley. Likewise, it was in this formation that soldiers received an attacking force. They waited until the enemy was within optimum range, then fired off a volley. Volley firing from line formation was a very formal practice. All loading and firing was done by command, or, as a modern soldier would say, “by the numbers.” There was little or no aiming as it is understood today. The volley was delivered directly ahead or to the right or left oblique as commanded. The volley theory was to lay down a pattern of fire or beaten zone, and consequently rate of fire was prized much more highly than accuracy. While training, discipline and battlefield experience determined a regiments overall morale, it was still the volume of fire that often decided the conflict between two opposing battalions, because even the finest trained and disciplined troops can be halted or turned back by inflicting heavy casualties upon them.

In addition to the musket, there were also rifles. The role of the rifle was different than that of the musket. The rifle was designed for slow accurate fire by skilled shooters while the musket was designed for mass volume of fire. In the typical firefight between two formed lines, the musket outclassed the rifle, but in a shooting match, the rifle outclassed the musket. Both weapons had their own special purpose on the battlefield.

Infantry Columns

Players might have noticed that in *Napoleon’s Eagles*, there is no bonus for units attacking in column. A few rule sets tend to give a bonus to attacking columns and this is a major misunderstanding of the use of maneuver columns on the battlefield. Taking two battalions of equal strength and quality, one in line formation and the other in column formation, the battalion in line should almost always prevail over the battalion in column in a clash on the open battlefield. Now I’m not going to sit here and convey to the reader that the column formation was never used for attacking enemy positions. In fact, it has been documented that troops used the column formation to attack the enemy during the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic periods on several occasions. Attacking in column might be a good way to bring more then one battalion to assault a position with a reduced frontage. If more then one column could be brought to attack a single position, the volume of troops or the mass of the attack can have a positive or negative effect. Whether this mass attack was a good idea or not depended on the opposition that face the attacking soldiers. Columns made for excellent targets for musket and artillery fire and offered very little offensive firepower in return.

Not to be confused with Column of March, the Column of Divisions (sometimes incorrectly referred to as Attack Columns) was not only a majestic sight, but it was a primary maneuvering tool for generals on the battlefield. The use of the column formation was straightforward. Infantry would advance in column, utilizing its movement characteristics, and then deploy into line formation before making contact with the enemy. However, conscript and new recruits were frequently bound to the column formation due to their lack of discipline and/or training. The column was a much easier formation for new recruits to master than the line formation. This was the case for the French levies during the French Revolutionary wars. The masses of French levies would employ the column formation as a primary tool for movement and combat (levy en mass) because column formations rarely, if ever, had to stop and dress ranks, as opposed to line formations, which had to stop and dress ranks periodically. This was especially true when trying to maintain a line formation with inexperienced or moderately trained troops under enemy fire. In short, a battalion in column formation was able to traverse ground faster making the column easier to handle and maneuver on the battlefield than a battalion in line formation. It was a good deal easier to maneuver a number of battalions in column then it was to maneuver the same number of battalions in line. Division commanders would commonly practice combined formations using lines for fire combat and columns for maneuvering. The French army even combined the maneuverability of the column and the firepower of the line in one formation with some success. The formation was known as *Ordre Mixte*, but more about this formation later.

In 1772 Count Guibert published his famous *Essai General de Tactique* which was issued as a drill book in 1788 and 1791 to the French army. Guibert compares the column and line formations in detail and advises that the

column should be used for movement and the line for combat. He did concede that the column was useful for attacks against woods and fortified positions where a frontage could be limited, but for general fire action, he highly recommended that the line formation should be used at all times. The manner in which generalship treats column attacks is reflected in the historical evidence regarding the tactical employment of columns on the battlefield. Two direct quotes from French officers are illustrative of the employment of columns. Colonel Bugeaud: "The column is an order of march and maneuver, rarely an order of combat." Colonel Chambray: "Deploy infantry in lines in order to utilize their firepower, and it is firepower that is the principle factor in both the attack and defense." Napoleon himself told General Foy that on the field of battle, columns could not overthrow lines unless supported by overwhelming artillery.

Lets look at some of the major advantages and disadvantages of the column formation;

Advantages:

- The column formation was known for its ease of maneuver and flexibility (formation and facing changes).
- Compared to line formations, column formations required less training and discipline to execute and well suited for moving inadequately trained troops on the battlefield.
- The column formation had a faster rate of movement compared to that of the line formation do to the fact it had to stop less frequent to form ranks.
- With a columns reduced frontage, more battalions could press home an attack on a smaller frontage.
- The deep ranks of a column formation might seem intimidating to an inexperienced enemy unit awaiting the attack.

Disadvantages:

- With their deep ranks, columns made very good targets for musketry and artillery alike.
- Because of their small frontage, columns lacked the firepower found in line formations.

Even with the many column advantages, the two disadvantages listed above are overwhelming. A good case in point for this during the Napoleonic wars happened in 1806 at the battle of Maida where British and French forces engaged in battle on an open field. Sir John Stuart's small British expeditionary force defeated a slightly larger French force in a typical line verses column battle. French battalions were formed into columns and committed to the assault only to be thrown back by the devastating two-rank British firing lines. This fire was made more effective by the concentrated ranks of the French columns. The effect of musket fire from the British line formations was witnessed by a French soldier that participated in the battle. He wrote "The 42nd of the line suffered from the terrible fire of the enemy…". This musket fire was fiercely effective against the dense French columns, and it was the resulting casualties from this musket fire that stopped the French assault and not the overall quality of the French soldier. The battle of Maida was not the only example of this. The clash of column against line was repeated many times during the Peninsula campaigns. Here, Wellesley placed his infantry on reverse slopes to protect them form French artillery fire, which was a standard custom for the general. As a result, the French bombardment had little affect on the British lines, and when it came time for the French to proceed with their attack, they were repeatedly beaten back by volleys of musket fire before the columns could be deployed into line. The surprised French infantry would be caught in column formation as they traversed the crest of the reverse slop where the British sat waiting. During these actions, musket fire was a key element between the opposing units, and in situations where French battalions were deployed into line before closing to within musket range, they faired better than those battalions that were too late in deploying.

Should French columns, or any other country for that matter, be given a melee bonus? My answer to this question is simply "*No*". Most rule sets and gamers tend to give a bonus to attacking columns. This is a major misinterpretation of the use of columns on the battlefield. Contemporary gamers tend to believe that column attacks were prescribed by French doctrine and copied by other continental powers. This is a serious misconception. The use of massed column assaults by the French during the revolutionary battles was a necessity rather than a tradition due to the masses of untrained conscripts and was not a standard practice for the French army. If someone believes that columns deserve a melee bonus, I would have to ask that person to explain the precise reason for the bonus. That is, what aspect of the attacking column are you going to apply this bonus to? By just saying, "Well, they're attacking columns and they should be given some sort of bonus" isn't going to justify the means because there has to be a specific reason for the bonus and not just because they are columns. There has to be something binding about the column itself that warrants this bonus. Some of the built in bonuses of columns are that they move faster and are more manageable than a unit in line formation, but that should be covered in the movement portion of the rules. Columns also have a reduced frontage and therefore more then one battalion can advance upon a smaller frontage (see figure 1), and this should be covered by the mechanics of a game. But none of these bonuses just mentioned are direct melee bonuses, but rather they are situational bonus.

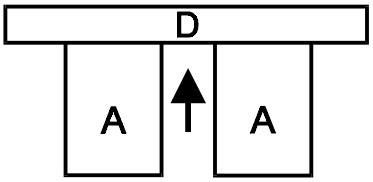

Figure 1

Some might argue that the depth of a column should count for something. Well, yes and no. Yes, because those deep ranks make for great musket and artillery targets. No, because if the front few ranks stop, so does the rest of the column. Inflicting heavy casualties upon a unit can halt even the finest disciplined troops. This was the case with

the French Old Guard at the battle of Waterloo, where the overwhelming firepower from British line formations caused devastating casualties upon the French formations which then slowed or stopped the attack**. However, the rear ranks of the column I would think, would support the forward ranks by filling in the gaps caused by the enemy fire and maybe possibly encouraging their fellow colleagues that they are being supporting every step of the way.

Lets Look at figure #1 again. Even though the rear ranks of the column do not normally participate in the melee, I still believe that it is possible they would help support the column as a whole. The entire column should be counted when comparing the relative sizes of the opposing units for morale purposes. Should they be outnumbered, I believe that it is possible that the defender's morale might suffer at the sight of so many advancing troops. If all units involved do their duty, that is if the defender stands their ground to receive the attack and the attacking units press home their assault, the actual resolution of the encounter will rely on the determination of the forward ranks of the opposing forces. Most infantry melees during the Napoleonic Wars were a test of steadiness and not a test of the bayonet. Actual bayonet to bayonet contact was an uncommon sight on the battlefield. However, it was known to happen from time to time. Especially in situations were the defenders might be in a fortified position, and the only way to dislodge the defenders was to literally push them out. The Great Redoubt at the battle of Borodino and the fight for Hougomont and La Haye-Sainte during the battle of Waterloo are just a few of the many examples of this. Still, in most cases it was firepower that was the principle factor in determining the outcome of opposing units.

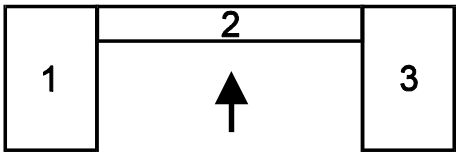

Figure 2

To make up for the lack of firepower of the column formation, the French army used a formation that was known as *Ordre Mixte*. The *Ordre Mixte* formation was formed by using three battalions (usually a three battalion regiment) or a demi-brigade. Using this formation, the two battalions in column would move with another battalion in line for fire support (see figure 2). At the same time, the battalion in line had its flanks supported by the two battalions in column. The formation moved as a group until the units separated for the assault. At times, Napoleon preferred the *Ordre Mixte* formation. When Napoleon issued detailed orders to his sub-commanders, he would suggest that this formation be used whenever possible. The formation combined some of the advantages and disadvantages of both the line and column formations. Had the three battalions been formed into columns, more flexibility would have been achieved at the cost of firepower, and if the three battalions had been formed into lines, a much greater volume of fire could be obtained at the cost of maneuverability. The *Ordre Mixte* was a compromise between the two and this was a successful formation used by the French army at various times during the Napoleonic Wars.

******The French Old Guard formations were not routed during the battle of Waterloo. Towards the end of the battle the French Imperial Guard infantry had been committed in hopes that they would punch a hole through the British battle line and route the Anglo-British formations before the Prussians could reinforce the battle in strength. During the Guard's assault, they were met by some of the finest troops in the British army including the 1st Foot Guards. The French Old Guard where overwhelmed and forced to stand their ground only giving ground tactically. When they refused the opportunity to surrender with honor, British artillery and infantry had been moved up to take position. Shortly afterwards, the French Old Guard were almost wiped out to a man. With the possible exception of the British Guards, any other unit of that period would have routed long before facing such a state of affairs.

Napoleonic Artillery Colors

Nothing is more frustrating then trying to find out what color to paint your Napoleonic field guns and you just can't find the relevant information. Many sources show and/or describe how to paint the uniforms of the artillery crew, but neglect to inform the gamer what color the field guns and wagons are to be painted. It seems that finding out what color the artillery was painted can be a task. Making it more of a burden is the plain fact that some sources differ, but this is to be expected. In fact, it is quite possible that two sources that give different information can both be correct. May not be likely for all cases, but it should be considered. Osprey books are an excellent source of information on uniforms, but seem to neglect to include some simple data such as what color the equipment was painted. Osprey books are still a valuable source and are highly recommended to any gamer and/or history-buff interested in this fascinating period.

The list below should cover most of the countries involved during the Napoleonic conflict, but the author would like to add here that the list may not be 100% accurate. The author is only as accurate as his reference books, notes, prints, documents and other sources available to him. Any errors are the responsibility of the author, and he welcomes any corrections and/or comments on this interesting subject.

American (War of 1812):
Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings. The author has also found references to light-blue carriages with black carriage fittings. Both configurations can be correct. In fact, other colors might have been used for a particular battery or gun. The American army was not exactly the best supplied armed force and artillery crews might have painted the guns with whatever color of paint or stain that was available. However, the author feels that the olive-green (French artillery green) color might have been

the preferred color. American field carriages were basically copies of French field carriages and the reference to the carriages being painted olive-green with black carriage fittings (French artillery colors) would seem to make sense.

Austria:
Yellow ochre carriages with black carriage fittings. Yellow ochre is a deep yellowish color and not a bright yellow.

Baden:
Gray or dark-gray carriages with black carriage fittings.

Bavaria:
Light blue or light blue-gray carriages with black carriage fittings.

Berg:
Berg artillery would be painted in the same fashion as the French artillery as they were equipped with French guns. Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings.

British:
Carriages were painted medium blue-gray with black carriage fittings. The British artillery used this style for some time. For example; Those gamers trying to determine what color to paint their field guns for the Zulu War of 1879, will find that the guns were painted in the same fashion as they were in the Napoleonic wars.

Brunswick (1809):
The artillery of Brunswick detachment in 1809 would be painted in the same fashion as the Austrian artillery because they were equipped with Austrian guns. Yellow ochre carriages with black carriage fittings.

Brunswick (1814-1815):
Artillery of the Brunswick army during 1814-1815 period would be painted in the same fashion as the British artillery because they were equipped with British guns. Medium blue-gray carriages with black carriage fittings. Some sources suggest that the British guns were repainted light blue with black carriage fittings.

Dutch-Belgian (1815):
Since the Dutch-Belgian army still had French field guns and equipment at that time, they were probably painted in the same fashion as the French artillery. Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings.

France:
Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings. Combining yellow orche and black paint in predetermined proportions made the olive-green color.

Hesse-Damstadt:
Medium-blue carriages with black carriage fittings.

Italy:
Gray carriages with black carriage fittings. It seems more sensible that the Italians would have painted their field artillery in the same fashion as the French (Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings). But the author can not find any direct information to support this.

Naples:
Light blue carriages with black carriage fittings.

Poland (Duchy of Warsaw):
Polish artillery would be painted in the same fashion as the French artillery as they were equipped with French field guns. Olive-green carriages with black carriage fittings.

Portugal:
Finding reliable sources on what color the Portuguese used on their field artillery before 1808 is difficult. The field guns might have been painted with a brown paint or stained brown and with black carriage fittings.

Portugal (1808-1815):
Portuguese artillery in 1808-1815 would be painted in the same fashion as the British artillery as they were equipped with British field guns.

Prussia:
Medium-blue carriages with black carriage fittings.

Russia:
The author has found several references to two popular types of color schemes for Russian artillery. Scheme one: Apple green carriages with black carriage fittings. Scheme two: Apple green carriages with polished carriage fittings. Overall, the author strongly believes that the carriage fittings were painted black rather then just polished to better protect the metal from the weather, which would cause rust.

Saxony:
Dark-gray carriages with yellow carriage fittings. The yellow used on the carriage fittings would be a yellow ochre (a deep yellow). The Saxon army had one of the more unique artillery color schemes used during the Napoleonic wars.

Spain:
Spanish field artillery was rather difficult to research for the author as there were multiple references to the color of gun carriages. The author is unable to be completely sure of the official color that the Spanish used to paint their artillery. Some sources suggest gray carriages with black carriage fittings, while other sources suggest brown stained carriages with black carriage fittings. For the Spanish, field artillery that was brown or brown stained seems to reasonable, but, the author wouldn't recommend ignoring the idea of gray field guns and wagons. It also could be conceivable that the mention of gray was in reference to some possible field guns given by the British to the Spanish army.

Sweden:
Greenish-blue carriages with black carriage fittings.

Westphalia:
Green carriages with black carriage fittings. An interesting fact to bring up about the Westphalian field carriages was that they seem to have had bright yellow pinstripes on their wheels.

Wurttemburg:
Brown painted/stained carriages with yellow carriage fittings. The yellow used on the carriage fittings would be yellow ochre or a deep yellow.

Cannon Barrels:

Bronze cannon barrels (most common type) were just simply polished, and it is most likely that they were never painted. However, iron cannon barrels were normally painted black to help protect them from the weather (rust prevention). There are references describing that the British sometimes would paint their iron cannon barrels dark brown or dark red-brown instead of black.

Painting Tip for Bronze Barrels:

For painting bronze guns on the miniature, the author found if you paint the gun barrel a chocolate brown color (let dry completely), then lightly dry-brush with gold you get a nice look. After the gold has dried completely, give the barrel a coat of high gloss. The gloss coat will alter the affects of the gold and give the barrel a glossy bronze look. The overall look is very appealing. If the miniature field gun does not have a separate cannon barrel, you will have to determine for yourself what should be painted first. Carriage or cannon barrel?

Painting Tip for Iron Barrels:

For painting iron guns on the miniature, the author found if you paint the gun barrel black (let dry completely), then lightly dry-brush with a light gray, you get a nice affect. For those few British guns that were painted dark brown or dark red-brown, paint the gun barrel dark brown or dark red-brown and let dry completely, then dry-brush with a tan or beige color.

Painting Tip for Wheel Bands:

All carriage fittings would be painted except the wheel bands. These were never painted, and if they were, the paint would be worn off in a matter of miles. These should be painted a steel color. Nothing shiny resembling silver, but rather, more a dull metal color. If you can't find a plain steel color, just add a small amount of black paint to silver to get this affect.

Basing your Artillery

In *Napoleon's Eagles* I use a somewhat new basing method for the artillery. That is, one gun model with crew on a 1" x 1½" base represents one to three actual guns in the field. This means that a six gun battery would have two such bases and an eight gun battery would have three bases. Other rules sets might use one gun model on a stand that measures only ¾" x 1½", and this would represent two actual guns in the field. However, gamers will quickly discover that most cannon models of the proper size (with crew) will be hard pressed to fit on such a small base. That is why other miniature games base their artillery using one gun model (with crew) on one large base. That is, a six gun battery would typically have a base that measures 2¼" x 1½" and an eight gun battery would typically have a base that measures 3" x 1½". However, the visual effect of one gun model on such a large base looks unrepresentative* for the battery. Then on the other hand, having cannon models (and their crews) crammed on ¾" width bases looks somewhat congested, and that is if you can get the gun model and crew to all fit. On a base that measures 1" x 1½", there is plenty of room for the gun and crew. There is an added advantage to using a 1" x 1½" base. That is, your artillery becomes more flexible in your games. You can arrange six and eight gun batteries for certain scenarios with ease when compared to batteries that are affixed to one large base.

However, if your figures are already based, and you don't like the idea of re-basing your artillery, you might not have to. If your artillery is based for another game system, and that game system uses one of the basing methods mentioned above or something similar, you probably will not need to re-base your artillery figures to play *Napoleon's Eagles*. So long as the frontages are close in measurements, there will be little or no affect on game play. The biggest reason for this is due to game mechanics. With the exception of road column, there are only two artillery formations in *Napoleon's Eagles*. They are column and line formation. When an artillery battery unlimbers their guns, the unit forms a line formation to its front. When an artillery battery limbers their guns, the unit forms a column formation facing either to the unit's front or to the rear. So even if your artillery is based on one large stand, say 3" wide by 1½" deep (an eight gun battery), then to represent a column, just turn the stand sideways and point the gun models down the length of the stand in the opposite direction of travel. If your artillery is based on ¾" x 1½" bases, it would be just as easy to represent the column and line formations. However, by re-basing your figures from ¾" x 1½" bases to 1" x 1½" bases, you will find that you will have some extra guns and crew figures to make new batteries with.

*Some gamers overcome this deceptive image by placing two or more cannon models on the base. Using two cannon models for six gun batteries and three cannon models for eight gun batteries has a nice look and feel.

Bases for your Miniatures

Let's talk about mounting the figures on bases for a moment. There are many types of materials that players can be use for bases, such as balsa wood, metal, plastic, bass wood, and card stock to name just a few. Metal bases or bass wood bases with metal bottoms would be my recommended choices, and the advantage of using a thicker base over a thin one is that it is easier to pick up the figures. Picking up the figures by their bases reduces the risk of damaging (bending bayonets, deforming the miniature, harming the paint) the figures themselves.

There are some advantages to mounting figs on metal bases. The main advantage is that metal has magnetic properties. You can use spaced magnetic stripping in your storage containers to keep things in place. You can also make pre-fabricate magnetic platforms in the form of a unit in column. The magnetic force will hold the figure stands to the platform, and the advantage for doing this is that when you move the infantry unit, you can move the whole battalion at once instead of stand by stand. I recommend using the 1/16th inch thick magnetic stripping (comes in ½", ¾" and 1" widths) over the thinner magnetic sheets.

One more note about bases. Make sure you use a file to smooth the corners of your metal bases so they won't catch on your cloth table covering. Also, players may want to use magnet bases. To get a good magnetic attraction, the use of the thicker stripping over the thin sheets is needed. If you don't align the poles correctly, the figure bases will repel and you will be fighting with your figures to keep things straight. Especially with 15mm figures as they offer very little weight. There is also the possibility that magnets will weaken over time with use and rigors of transport.

Other ratios and scales for *Napoleon's Eagles*

There are two main reasons for the 1:60 figure ratio. First; the 1:60 ratio at the time was the most popular, and second; all my figures at the time were mounted on the 1:60 mounting system, and I didn't like the idea of popping-off all those little figures from their bases and re-basing them. If your figures are mounted for the 1:60 ratio system (*Empire* basing for example), you do not need to re-base your figures. While, *Napoleon's Eagles* will work with any size figure and ratio, all ranges are for 15mm figures at 1:60 ratio. The rules can be easily converted for use with 25mm figures. You can even convert these rules for 6mm figures if players like, but I would not recommend using 6mm figures as they will be too small to use comfortably. If players would like to use 25mm figures with *Napoleon's Eagles*, simply multiply all the ranges by 1.5. For example, a range of 4" would be 6". I thought about including two sets of ranges, one for 15mm figures and another for 25mm figures, but this would only add clutter to the rules/charts and adapting the ranges for 25mm figures is a simple process. If the players wish to use a different figure ratio, the scale of the game can be changed to any ratio with little or no modifications to the rules and charts. The popular 1:30 or 1:33 scale, one of my favorite ratios for the visual appeal, would require 2x the number of figures, double the table space, and twice the distance or range scales in the game. That is, one inch would equal 30 yards or 2x the distances presented in all the charts. The close action, firing, and morale rules/charts require little modifications if any, but basically everything is doubled.

Player Re-Rolls

This optional rule should help those players that are having a run of misfortune in their games. Give each army commander two to three free re-rolls or Mulligans per game turn (one game turn = six periods) to be used as needed. At any time during the game that a player is not satisfied with a die roll, that player may use one of their free re-rolls. The second roll is binding and the player must except the results of this second roll. Players may agree to change the number of re-rolls in a game turn, but regardless of the number of re-rolls the players happen to choose, both sides get the same number of re-rolls in a game turn. Re-rolls are not carried over from game turn to game turn.

Another idea is to give each side a set number of re-rolls for the entire game, and these are passed back and forth to each side as they are used. At the start of the game, the players decided on the total number of re-rolls both sides will receive and use poker chips or counters to represent them. As one side uses a re-roll, he gives a poker chip to his opponent, which he now can use. Should one side use up all their re-roll chances, then that side will not be allowed to call for a free re-roll until their opponent uses one of their chances and has to give back a poker chip.

Game Trophies

Gaming trophies can add a little flavor and player history to the games they play. What kind trophies am I talking about? Well, when a leader is lost in a game, then the opposing player should be rewarded with some sort of battle trophy. Giving the players a better feel of the dangers faced by placing leaders in jeopardy, the trophy should be the leader figure that was just lost during the game or some substitute agreed upon by the players. Leader figures on the table represent the center of their command radius and **is not** the actual position of the leader itself. The leader is somewhere within this command area and therefore the actual figure cannot be attacked. When attached to a unit, the actual position of the leader and center of the command radius is from that point. The only way a player can lose a leader is to commit it (being attached to a unit or leader influence). As an alternative to giving up a leader figure that was just lost, a player could offer to return an opponent's leader figure that was captured in a current or previous game.

Figure Losses

Casualties, manpower losses caused by combat, in *Napoleon's Eagles* do not necessarily represent physical fatalities. Players might prefer this alternative method of dealing with figure casualties during game play. Players can experiment by just marking the hits scored against a unit using casualty caps or rings without removing figures from the gaming table. Theses hits affect the unit's morale, but a unit fires and melees at full figure value until the unit is either routed or until the casualty markers equal the number of figures in the unit. At which point, the whole unit is removed from the gaming table.

Book Keeping

This has got to be one of my least favorite aspects about playing miniature and/or board games. Book keeping can clutter the game table and bog down players with endless amounts of paper work. One of the features I tried to include in *Napoleon's Eagles* is that you don't really need to keep track of anything on paper. You can play these rules with a few dice, a measuring tape, markers (or battle debris), and the game chart. No need to slow game progress down with writing things down all the time or cluttering the game table with unsightly pages of notes and causality lists. The only pieces of paper the players should need are the game chart and their orders of battle. The game chart will probably be in hand most of the time and the orders of battle will probably find its way to the floor or

shelf. Here are a few tips to keep the book keeping off the tabletop and out of the player's way.

1. Write the unit's ratings under the lead or flag stand. Players might find using a permanent maker and writing the ratings (B17C40 for example) on the bottom of the metal base useful. To change the ratings of unit later, all a player has to do is wipe it off with a paper towel or rag and a few drops of acetone and rewrite the new desired ratings. Writing the values on a sticker and placing the sticker on the stand with the ratings flipped up for easy viewing, or paint/decal the values right onto the base itself also work.

2. Retreat Status: To reduce the use of markers on the gaming table, players might like to experiment by using the unit's figure stands to keep track of the number of actions needed to recover.

Friendly Fire

Sometimes it was hard to determine who was who on the battlefield. Especially when a unit or leader was confused about their location, or could not properly determine if the troops they were preparing to fire upon were actually the enemy. Troop positions, misinformation, weather effects and battlefield smoke all added to this confusion. Also, the identity of units (friend and foe alike) when uniforms were similar in appearance did not make matters any easier. Even when uniforms were plainly different, questionable troop activities could bring incidents of friendly fire. Friendly fire was, and still is, all too common in the chaos of the battlefield and few Napoleonic miniature rule sets allow for friendly units to fire upon other friendly units, or worse, begin firing at each other. This is where the power of having an umpire to manage the game comes into play. Umpires add an advantage to games as they can introduce a little more confusion for the players. Making the normal or common miniature game a bit more realistic. Simulating friendly fire conditions in a Napoleonic miniatures game is a difficult and challenging prospect. Historically, some battles were more prone to friendly fire incidents than others and its up to the umpire to make the battlefield as unknown to the opposing sides as possible. Troop movements will also need to be unknown to leaders of the same side as well. That is, leaders on the right flank would not have a clear picture of what the leaders and troops of the center and right flanks are doing. However, to simulate undisclosed troop movements within the same army will not be an easy task for the umpire. For this, it is best to have as many players as possible to take command of the individual leaders on the game table. The troop movements between the commanders of the same side could be kept secret and unknown from one another. This way, players couldn't really know for sure if the troops on the right and/or left are actually friendly. The battle could even develop into a situation were a player is unsure if the troops opposing him are actually enemy formations. Especially if during the battle, troop positions become a little confused. As a whole, representing friendly fire on the game table will be a very daunting task for the umpire and players.

Napoleonic Books

For the reader, there are hundreds of excellent books available on the Napoleonic Wars. There are even several books written specifically for the wargamer. Listed below are just a few selected books that look at military theory (weapons, strategy, and tactics) of the Napoleonic period.

The Campaigns of Napoleon – by David Chandler, Macmillan, 1966 (still in print). If the reader only chooses one book to read on the Napoleonic period, this should be the one.

Imperial Bayonets, Tactics of the Napoleonic Battery, Battalion, and Brigade as found in Contemporary Regulations – by George F. Nafzigner, Stackpole Books, 1996.

Weapons and Equipment of the Napoleonic Wars – By Philip haythornthwaite, Arms and Armour Press, 1999

The Art of Warfare in the Age of Napoleon – by Gunther E. Rothenberg, Indiana University Press, 1980.

With Musket, Cannon and Sword – by Brent Nosworthy, Sarpedon Publishers, 1996.

The Art of Warfare in the Age of Napoleon – by Gunther Rothenberg, Batsford Books, 1977.

The Background of Napoleonic Warfare – by R.S. Quimby, Columbia University Press, 1957.

Firepower – by Major General B.P. Hughes, Arms & Armour Press, 1974

Studies in the Napoleonic Wars – by C.W.C Oman, Scribmer's, 1930

Osprey Books:
With the Men-at-Arms series, Elite series, Campaign series, and Warrior series, the reader will discover that these books offer a wealth of information for the Napoleonic gamer. With full color uniform plates and unit descriptions, the Men-at-Arms series are an invaluable source for the uniforms and organizations of various Napoleonic armies.

www.ospreypublishing.com

Scenarios

In the future, I hope to compile a scenario list for *Napoleon's Eagles.* The scenarios should include such information as a brief description and circumstances leading up to the battle, a brief description of the battle itself, historical outcomes, orders of battle, and a map of the area of conflict. Any special conditions or optional rules will also be included if needed. Until then, I have included a few scenarios here. While these scenarios are not overly detailed and lack the histories and outcomes of the battle, there should still be enough information for the gamers to recreate the battle in miniature. Notes:
IR = Infantry Regiment, Bn = Battalion, LW = Landwehr
3xbat-9figs = three battalions each with 9 figures.

Battle of Chippawa, 5 July 1814

Those are regulars, by God!

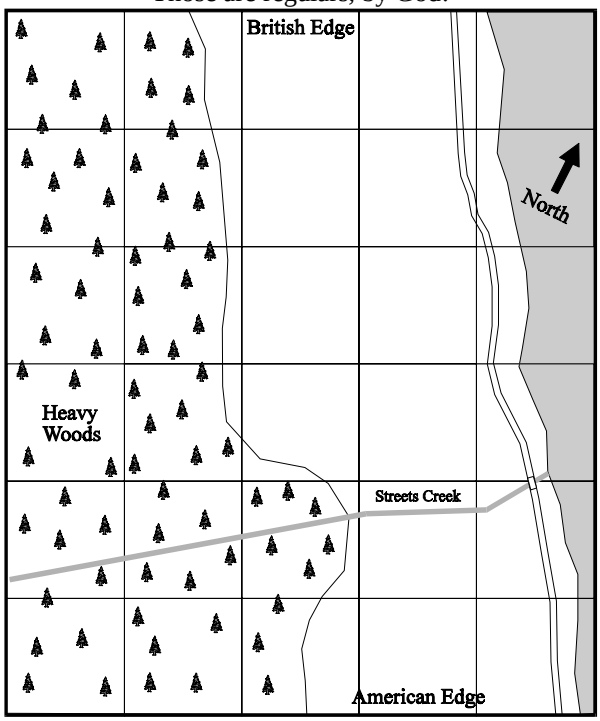

Table is 5 feet by 6 feet and all woods are dense. It takes two actions to cross the creek and only three figures may cross over the bridge per action. All units are capable of skirmishing. Ignore threshold checks, and no ammunition caissons for either side. Both sides get one group of 9 Indian figures (*12E20). Indians get a +4 to their morale and a +10MV when they are in the woods. Place Indians in a mass group formation. They cannot use line or column formation and have a move of 3" with no terrain effects in woods.

Game Turn 1: battle starts
Game Turn 3: AG2 arrives
Game Turn 5: At the end of game turn 5, the battle is over if not already finished. The side that controls the area around the bridge at the end of the game is the winner

British Group #1 (BG1):
May deploy up to 12" from the north edge of the table
British Division, Riall (+2MC +10MV CD=22")
- 1st Foot (Royal Scots) (B19C40) 10figs
- 8th Foot (B18C40) 10figs
- 100th Foot (B19C40) 10figs
- Converged Lights (B18B40) 8figs
- Lincoln Militia (C15D30) 6figs
- 19th Lt. Dragoons (A19-40) 4figs
- Foot battery (A19B20) 2x6lb
- Foot battery (A19B20) 2x12lb (light-24's), 1xhow

American Group #1 (AG1):
May deploy up to 24" from the south edge of the table
Commander, Brown (+2MC +5MV CD=23")
- US Brigade, Scott (+1MC +10MV CD=16")
  - 9th Infantry (B17C40) 10figs
  - 11th Infantry (B17C40) 10figs
  - 22nd Infantry (B17C40) 10figs
  - 25th Infantry (B17C40) 6figs
  - Pennsylvania Volunteers (C14D20) 6figs
  - Towson's foot battery (A19B20) 3x6lb, 1xhow

American Group #2 (AG2):
US Brigade, Ripley (+1MC +5MV CD=16")
- 21st Infantry (B17C40) 10figs
- 23rd Infantry (B17C40) 10figs
- 1st US Rifles (B17R40) 8figs
- Biddle's foot battery (A16B20) 2x12lb

Battle of Lundy's Lane, 25 July 1814

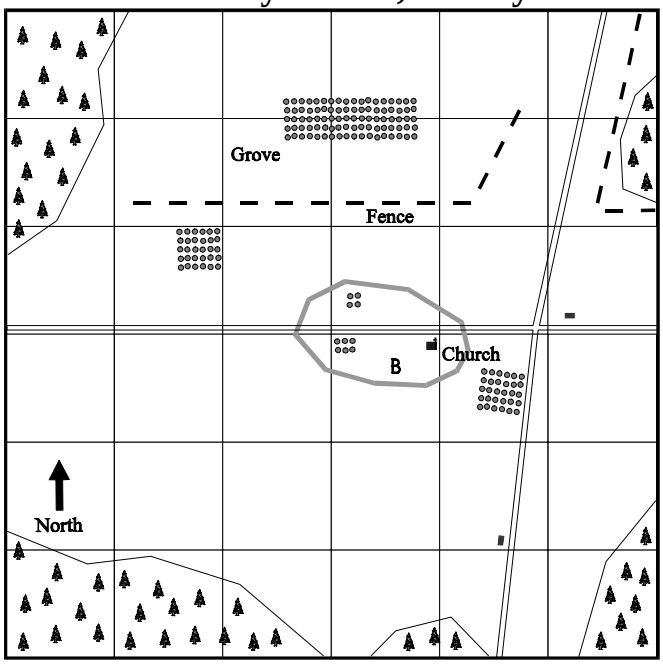

Table surface is 6 feet by 6 feet. All woods in the battle are heavy woods. There are no caissons for either side. All units are capable of skirmishing. Ignore threshold checks. The British setup first, then the Americans. The Americans receive 20 turn points while the British only receive 19.