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THE
ANNUAL REGISTER
VOL. 184—FOR 1942

THE
ANNUAL REGISTER

**A REVIEW OF PUBLIC EVENTS
AT HOME AND ABROAD**

FOR THE YEAR

1942

**EDITED BY
M. EPSTEIN, M.A., PH.D.**

NEW SERIES

LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO. LTD.
OF PATERNOSTER ROW
43 ALBERT DRIVE, LONDON, S.W. 19
NEW YORK, TORONTO, CALCUTTA, BOMBAY AND MADRAS
1943

CODE NUMBER: 19042

**PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN AT
THE UNIVERSITY PRESS, ABERDEEN**

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THE Editor of THE ANNUAL REGISTER once again expresses his thanks to *The Times* for permission to make use of matter published in its columns.

MB. WINSTON CHURCHILL'S WAR ADMINISTRATION

(TOOK OFFICE MAY 10, 1940)

WAR CABINET

<i>Prime Minister and Minister of Defence</i>	Rt. Hon. Winston Churchill, C.H.
<i>Lord President of the Council</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir John Anderson.
<i>Lord Privy Seal</i>	{ Rt. Hon. C. R. Attlee (till Feb. 19). Rt. Hon. Sir Stafford Cripps (from Feb. 19 till Nov. 22).
<i>Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs</i>	Rt. Hon. Anthony Eden.
<i>Secretary of State for Home Affairs and Home Security</i>	Rt. Hon. Herbert Morrison (in the War Cabinet from Nov. 22).
<i>Deputy Prime Minister and Secretary of State for Dominions Affairs</i>	Rt. Hon. C. R. Attlee (from Feb. 19).
<i>Minister of Production</i>	Rt. Hon. Oliver Lyttelton (from Feb. 19).
<i>Minister of Labour and National Service</i>	Rt. Hon. Ernest Bevin.
<i>Minister of State (to represent the War Cabinet in the Middle East)</i>	Rt. Hon. Oliver Lyttelton (till Feb. 19). Rt. Hon. Richard Gardiner Casey (from March 19).

DEPARTMENTS OF STATE

<i>First Lord of the Admiralty</i>	Rt. Hon. Albert Victor Alexander.
<i>Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries</i>	Rt. Hon. Robert Spear Hudson.
<i>Secretary of State for Air</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir Archibald Sinclair, Bt.
<i>Minister of Aircraft Production</i>	{ t. Hon. J. T. C. Moore-Brabazon (till Feb. 22). Col. the Rt. Hon. J. J. Llewellyn (from Feb. 22 till Nov. 22).
<i>Secretary of State for the Colonies</i>	{ Rt. Hon. Sir Stafford Cripps (from Nov. 22). (Rt. Hon. Lord Moyne (till Feb. 22). Rt. Hon. Viscount Cranborne (from Feb. 22 till Nov. 22).
<i>Secretary of State for the Dominions.</i>	VRt. Hon. Oliver Stanley (from Nov. 22).
<i>Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster</i>	Rt. Hon. Viscount Cranborne (till Feb. 22).
<i>Minister of Economic Warfare</i>	/ Rt. Hon. A. Duff Cooper. Rt. Hon. Hugh Dalton (till Feb. 22).
<i>President of the Board of Education</i>	Rt. Hon. the Earl of Selborne (from Feb. 22).
<i>Chancellor of the Exchequer</i>	Rt. Hon. R. A. Butler.
<i>Minister of Food</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir H. Kingsley Wood.
<i>Minister of Fuel, Light and Power</i>	Rt. Hon. Lord Woolton.
<i>Minister of Health</i>	Major Rt. Hon. Gwilym Lloyd George (from June 3).
<i>Secretary of State for India and for Burma</i>	Rt. Hon. Alfred Ernest Brown.
<i>Minister of Information</i>	Rt. Hon. L. S. Amery.
<i>Lord Chancellor</i>	Rt. Hon. Brendon Bracken.
<i>Minister of Pensions</i>	Rt. Hon. Viscount Simon.
<i>Postmaster-General</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir Walter James Womersley.
<i>Lord Privy Seal</i>	Rt. Hon. William Shepherd Morrison.
<i>Secretary of State for Scotland</i>	Rt. Hon. Viscount Cranborne (from Nov. 22).
<i>Minister of Supply</i>	Rt. Hon. Thomas Johnston.
<i>President of the Board of Trade</i>	{ Rt. Hon. Lord Beaverbrook (till Feb. 4). Rt. Hon. Sir Andrew Duncan (from Feb. 4). Rt. Hon. Sir Andrew Duncan (till Feb. 4). Col. the Rt. Hon. J. J. Llewellyn (from Feb. 4 till Feb. 22).
<i>Minister of War Transport</i>	Rt. Hon. Hugh Dalton (from Feb. 22)..
<i>Secretary of State for War</i>	Rt. Hon. Lord Leathers.
<i>Minister Resident in West Africa</i>	Capt. Rt. Hon. David Margesson (till Feb. 22).
<i>Minister of War Production</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir James Grigg (from Feb. 22). Rt. Hon. Viscount Swinton (from June 8). Rt. Hon. Lord Beaverbrook (from Feb. 4 till Feb. 19).

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**Minister of Works and Buildings and
First Commissioner of Works**
Attorney-General .

Solicitor-General .

Paymaster-General

Civil Lord of the Admiralty .

Financial Secretary to the Treasury
Financial Secretary to the War Office
Under-Secretaries of State :—

Air

Colonies

Dominion Affairs .

Foreign
Home
Home Security
India and Burma .

Scotland

War

Parliamentary Secretaries :—
Admiralty

Agriculture and Fisheries

Aircraft Production

Economic Warfare .
Education

Food

Fuel, Light and Power

Health .
Home Security
Information .

Labour

Pensions

Post Office

Production
Board of Trade
Overseas Trade

Supply .

War Transport

Treasury

Works and Buildings

Secretary of State .
Under-Secretary of State
Lord Advocate
Solicitor-General .

Rt. Hon. Lord Reith {till Feb. 22}.
Rt. Hon. Lord Portal {from Feb. 22}.
Rt. Hon. Sir D. B. Somervell, K.C.
Rt. Hon. Sir William Jowitt, K.C. {till March 4}.
Rt. Hon. Sir D. Maxwell Fyfe, K.C. {from
March 4}.
Rt. Hon. Lord Hankey {till March 4}.
Rt. Hon. Sir William Jowitt {from March 4}.
Capt. Rt. Hon. A. U. M. Hudson {till March 4}.
Capt Rt. Hon. R. A. Pilkington {from March 4}.
Capt. Rt. Hon. H. F. C. Crookshank.
Mr. Duncan Sandys.

Capt. Rt. Hon. H. H. Balfour.
Lord Sherwood.
Mr. G. H. Hall {till Feb. 4}.
Mr. Harold Macmillan {from Feb. 4}.
/Mr. Geoffrey Shakespeare {till March 4}.
Mr. P. V. Emrys-Evans {from March 4}.
Mr. Richard Law.
Capt. Osbert Peake.
Mr. William Mabane {till June 3}.
The Duke of Devonshire,
Mr. Joseph Westwood.
Mr. H. J. Scrymgeour Wedderburn {till March 4}.
Mr. Allan Chapman {from March 4}.
Sir Edward Grigg {till March 4}.
Major Arthur Henderson {from March 4},

Sir Victor Warrender.
Duke of Norfolk.
Mr. Tom Williams.
i Mr. F. Montague {till March 4}.
Mr. Ben Smith {from March 4}.
Mr. Dingle Foot.
Mr. J. C. Ede.
Major G. Lloyd George {till June 3}.
Mr. William Mabane {from June 3}.
Mr. Tom Smith {from June 3}.
Mr. Geoffrey Lloyd {from June 3}.
Miss Florence Horsburgh.
Miss Ellen Wilkinson.
Mr. Ernest Thurtle.
Mr. Ralph Assheton {till Feb. 4}.
Mr. Malcolm StewartMcCorquodale {from Feb. 4}.
Mr. Wilfred Paling.
Mr. Allan Chapman {till March 4}.
Mr. Robert Grimston {from March 4}.
Mr. George Morgan Garro-Jones {from Aug. 11}.
Capt. Charles Waterhouse.
Mr. Harcourt Johnstone.
Mr. Harold Macmillan {till Feb. 4}.
Mr. Ralph Assheton {from Feb. 4}.
Lord Portal {till Feb. 22}.
Mr. C. U. Peat {from March 4}.
Col. J. J. Llewellyn {till Feb. 4}.
Mr. Philip J. Noel Baker {from Feb. 4}.
Mr. James Gray Stuart.
Mr. Sir Charles Edwards {till March 12}.
Mr. William Whiteley {from March 12}.
Mr. Henry G. Strauss {from March 4}.
Mr. George Hicks {from March 4}.

SCOTLAND

Mr. Ernest Brown.
Mr. Joseph Westwood.
Rt. Hon. J. S. C. Reid, K.C.
Sir Thomas David King Murray, K.C.

ANNUAL REGISTER

FOR THE YEAR

1942

PART I ENGLISH HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE FALL OF SINGAPORE

THE visit paid by Mr. Churchill to Washington at the end of 1941 was continued into the first weeks of the new year. His conversations with Mr. Roosevelt were directed chiefly to co-ordinating still more closely the war efforts of Great Britain and the United States, and led to certain definite decisions in the political, military, and economic spheres. On January 2 the two countries, along with Russia, China, the Netherlands, and twenty-one other anti-Axis nations, signed a joint declaration pledging the use of their full resources against the Axis, and binding themselves not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemy. Immediately afterwards Sir Archibald Wavell was appointed Supreme Commander of the unified command of the South-western Pacific area, with the American Major-General Brett as his Deputy. A further result of the discussions was the announcement in a White Paper on January 27, of the setting up of three bodies, with representatives both at Washington and London, to deal respectively with munitions assignments, shipping adjustments, and raw materials. It was intended that by this means the whole of the munition resources of the United States and of Great Britain should be actually pooled, and the shipping resources of the two countries should be pooled in principle.

At the opening of the year the eyes of the British public were turned anxiously to the Far East, where the situation in Malaya was rapidly deteriorating. In a statement made on taking up his new appointment, General Wavell declared that, although the ground won by the Japanese in their treacherous attack could not be immediately regained, the tide would eventually

turn with inexorable strength against them. A more realistic forecast would have been that it was destined to flow strongly in their favour for a long time to come. Their advance in Malaya continued in the new year with the same rapidity as heretofore, bringing them almost daily nearer to Singapore. On January 4 the British withdrew further south in Perak, and a day or two later they abandoned to the enemy the Kuantan area on the east coast with its aerodrome. A further withdrawal in Perak was announced on January 7 and by the 9th Kuala Lumpur was seriously threatened.

From Libya, too, the news, although better, was not all that could have been wished. Certainly on January 2 the British succeeded in retaking Bardia, capturing nearly 8,000 of the enemy and releasing 1,000 British prisoners. This was followed by a vigorous attack at Halfaya on practically the last remaining enemy concentration in the east of Cyrenaica. At the other end of the province, however, General Rommel's forces, which at the beginning of the year had seemed to be threatened with imminent destruction, offered an unexpectedly strong resistance, and were being driven very slowly from Jedabia towards El Agheila.

With matters in this posture Parliament met for one day on January 8, in accordance with the arrangement it had made before Christmas. The Prime Minister being still abroad, Mr. Attlee, in his absence, gave a survey of the war situation. He said that in reviewing the events of the past four weeks they had to strike a balance of gain and loss. In Libya their forces were operating 600 miles from their starting-point—a fact which accounted for their slower progress recently. In the Atlantic the satisfactory decline in their shipping losses had continued. In Russia the offensive of their Allies was making steady progress, in which the tanks and aeroplanes sent from England were playing their part. Throughout the period their bombers had continued to operate against targets in Germany and German-occupied countries, so far as weather conditions allowed.

Turning to the Far East, Mr. Attlee sought to give an explanation of the British reverses, which by now were profoundly disturbing the mind of the public, and for which the blame was freely thrown on the authorities on the spot. He said that while the entry of the United States into the war on their side placed the ultimate issue beyond doubt, it did not offset the immediate advantage Japan had gained by reason of her strategic position and the initiative she had secured by a treacherous attack on two nations, one preoccupied elsewhere and the other unsuspecting and at peace with all the world. The fact that at the outbreak of war Japan had found British territories in the Far East less strongly garrisoned and equipped than they could have wished sprang not from any lack of prevision on their part, but from the fundamental difficulty that it was beyond their resources to be

strong everywhere. The possibility of an attack by Japan had been present in the mind of the Government ever since they took office, but the danger had seemed less imminent than that of attacks in other quarters. During the war the Government had sent what reinforcement they could spare to the Far East, but it was idle to suppose that even if they had increased their production to the utmost extent they could, after providing for their own defence and within the margin of time available, have produced and transported enough arms and personnel to equal the forces of a great military Power such as Japan. It was therefore unfair to blame local commanders for deficiencies for which they were not responsible ; the Government took full responsibility.

Mr. Attlee's survey had on the whole a reassuring effect on the House, and was subjected to very little criticism. Members were further cheered by a statement from the Foreign Secretary on his recent visit to Russia. Mr. Eden laid stress on the exceedingly cordial nature of his reception, and on the calm confidence which prevailed among the Russian people. He also assured the House that his conversations at Moscow had been of the highest importance, and were only a beginning.

In the course of his speech Mr. Attlee announced that the Government were taking new measures to deal with the problem of the defence of aerodromes in England, a question which had greatly exercised the public mind ever since the loss of Crete, and to which recent experience in Malaya seemed to have given new urgency. After several months of experiment, he said, it had been decided that, while the Army should continue to be responsible for ground defence as a whole, the R.A.F. should, as the Army's agent, and under military direction, undertake the entire local defence arrangements for the aerodromes in Great Britain. For this purpose a corps of aerodrome defence troops, under the administrative and executive control of the Air Council, would be formed with the title of the "The Royal Air Force Regiment," organised, trained, and equipped for the particular task of local aerodrome defence, with its own armoured fighting vehicles and artillery weapons, and its own Commandant, who would be Director-General of ground defence in the Air Ministry. The Commander-in-Chief of the Home Forces would decide the strength and location of the aerodrome garrisons to be provided, and the nature of the tactical methods of defence to be adopted, while each R.A.F. Station Commander would be responsible for the local defence of his station.

In the House of Commons on January 22, the Secretary of State for Air, Sir A. Sinclair, stated that the principal object of the new arrangements, in the working-out of which the representatives of all three Services had most cordially co-operated, was to get rid of the divided responsibility which previously had

been the greatest drawback in the defence of aerodromes ; and he maintained that this object had been successfully achieved by the new scheme. This was by no means the universal opinion, but it was shared by Lord Trenchard, the former chief of the Air Force, who strongly supported the scheme in a speech in the House of Lords on January 20.

Mr. Churchill arrived back in England on January 17, having been away for over four weeks. He found Parliament and public opinion gravely perturbed over the military situation in the Far East, and inclined to blame the Government both for allowing itself to run short of resources and for not using the resources at its disposal to the best advantage. Since the meeting of Parliament on January 8 the advance of the Japanese in Malaya had continued unchecked. On January 11 Kuala Lumpur was abandoned to them. None of the lines formed by the British was able to hold ; no sooner was one taken up than the Japanese made landings behind it and forced the defenders to retire further back. They were now at the frontiers of Johore, the last of the States to separate them from Singapore ; and with their great superiority both on land and in the air it seemed impossible for the British to stop them from reaching this place, save with the help of strong reinforcements, of the arrival of which there now seemed little chance.

On January 20 the Prime Minister was asked in the House of Commons whether he appreciated the very grave anxieties felt in all parts of the House with regard to the situation in the Far East, and the importance of having a discussion on it before it further deteriorated. He replied that he shared the anxieties of the House, though he also shared the growing confidence as to the outcome of the struggle. He announced that there would be a three-day debate on the war situation, on the motion for the adjournment, and that should it disclose any situation which seemed to involve a challenge to the Government, he would put down a motion of confidence. One member desired to move at once the adjournment on the matter of sending adequate air reinforcements for the defence of Singapore, but this was disallowed by the Speaker.

* At the same sitting it was suggested by a member that arrangements should be made for broadcasting important speeches in the House of Commons, in the same way as Mr. Churchill's recent addresses to the United States Congress and to the Canadian Parliament had been broadcast. The Prime Minister received the suggestion favourably, on the ground that it would on occasion save him from the necessity of delivering the same speech twice, once in the House and once at the microphone, a proceeding which, he said, involved no small difficulties of delivery ; and he announced that he would introduce a motion for this purpose. A number of members, however, raised objec-

tions, and on the next day Mr. Churchill stated that, after considering the matter, he had judged it better not to proceed with his motion.

On January 23 the Government received a message from the Australian Cabinet emphasising the gravity of events in the Far East and appealing for the despatch of war equipment, especially aircraft, and also demanding the creation of an Allied Empire War Council and an Allied War Council for the Pacific zone. A reply was sent the next day promising that these requests would receive immediate and careful consideration. Unfortunately, however, the Government was in no position to send at once the reinforcements asked for, and in consequence it was subjected to some rather bitter criticism in the Australian Press.

The succeeding days did not bring any improvement in the Malayan situation. A brief stand was made at the Muar River, on the frontier of Johore, but this barrier was also turned in the same way as the previous lines, and the Japanese continued their drive relentlessly towards Singapore, which they frequently bombed.

By this time, too, the situation in Libya had become disquieting. On January 14, it is true, Solium was taken, and on the 17th Halfaya surrendered, after a resistance much shorter than had been expected; the British losses at Bardia, Solium, and Halfaya combined were not more than 100 killed and 400 wounded. This, however, marked the limit of British successes in North Africa, and was soon followed by a turn of the tide. General Rommel, after retreating from Jedabia, succeeded in entrenching himself at El Agheila and in defying all the British efforts to dislodge him. What was more, he began to receive reinforcements much more rapidly than the British, in spite of the greater freedom of movement which they had gained from the capture of Halfaya. With these new accessions he was able on January 23 to take the offensive and reoccupy Jedabia. After some fighting, the British forces in this area retired before him, leaving the way open to Benghazi.

The news from Malaya and Libya came as a great shock to the public at home, and the British reverses there were taken by large sections as further proof that both the personnel and the methods of the Government needed to be overhauled. It was obvious that the general discontent would be strongly voiced in the forthcoming debate on the military situation, and accordingly the Prime Minister in opening it on January 27 prefaced his statement with an announcement that on the next day he would formally ask for a vote of confidence. The reason, he said, was that he expected some plain speaking and sharp criticism of the Government in the debate—which was quite as it should be—and this might give the impression abroad that the House no longer had confidence in the Government. If this was not the

case—as he himself suspected—he wished the fact to be placed on record unmistakably.

Mr. Churchill went on to defend the Government on much the same lines as Mr. Attlee had done on January 8, but somewhat more elaborately. He first made it clear that the country's output of munitions was immense and was still growing. In 1941 they had produced double the munitions equipment of the United States. Within the last six months tank and other branches of production had doubled or more than doubled, and from totals which were already huge. If with all this they had not been able to send sufficient troops or equipment to the Far East, the decisive reason was shortage of transport. Every scrap of shipping they could draw away from their vital supply routes had been used to the utmost to carry troops, tanks, and munitions to the Near East. The strategic plan decided on by the Government was to make their contribution to Russia, to try to beat Rommel in Africa, and to form a strong front from the Levant to the Caspian in order to meet the threat of a German descent on Suez through the Middle East. It followed from this decision that it was in their power only to make a moderate and partial provision in the Far East against the hypothetical danger of a Japanese onslaught. Even so they had concentrated 60,000 men at Singapore ; but priority in modern aircraft, tanks, and anti-aircraft and anti-tank artillery was accorded to the Nile Valley.

For this decision Mr. Churchill, going a step further than Mr. Attlee, took the fullest personal responsibility. If the House wanted to blame anyone for their reverses and mishaps they should blame him, not any one of his colleagues. He would be ashamed to drive away loyal and trusted colleagues and friends to appease the clamour of certain sections of the British and Australian Press, and if he were capable of doing so he would be incapable of rendering further service to the country or to the House.

With regard to the prospects for the immediate future, Mr. Churchill was distinctly pessimistic. He pointed out that for the time being naval superiority in the Pacific and in the Malaysian Archipelago had passed from the hands of the two leading naval Powers into the hands of Japan, and however long or short a time it would remain in their hands, it would be long enough for them to inflict very severe and painful losses on all the United Nations who had possessions and establishments in the Far East. Nevertheless, if they persevered, the boot would eventually be put on the other leg, as had happened in Russia, and therefore they should not allow themselves to be unduly disturbed if they heard that this or that place had been captured.

Mr. Churchill informed the House that as a result of his conversations with President Roosevelt it had been arranged to set up at Washington a body called the Combined Chiefs-of-the-Staff

Committee, consisting of three United States Chiefs-of-Staff and three high officers representing the British Chiefs-of-Staff Committee in London. In case of divergence of view it would be for himself and the President to adjust the difference. Arrangements were also being made for setting up a Pacific Council, representing Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and the Netherlands, and functioning either in Washington or in London, for the direction of the war in the Far East, but they had not yet reached the final stage. At the same time General Wavell would be given as free a hand as possible. Finally, for the better co-ordination of effort within the Empire itself, while technical difficulties made it impossible to form an Imperial War Cabinet, it was always open to representatives of the Dominions to take part in the deliberations of the War Cabinet where their own interests were concerned.

Mr. Churchill informed the House that the Forces in the North African campaign had up to date lost in killed, wounded, and missing about 18,000 officers and men, of whom the greater part were British. They had in their possession 36,500 prisoners, of whom 10,500 were German. They had killed and wounded at least 11,500 Germans and 13,000 Italians—in all a total accounted for of 61,000 men. Of the forces which Rommel had disposed of on November 18 little more than a third remained, while 852 German and Italian aircraft had been destroyed and 386 tanks. During the battle the British had never had in action more than 45,000 men against enemy forces—if they could be brought to bear—more than twice as strong.

The debate which followed, as Mr. Churchill had anticipated, was by no means devoid of plain speaking. In spite of the Prime Minister's explanation, there were still many questions to which a satisfactory answer had not been given. After making all allowances, were there not many mistakes which could have been avoided? Had the possibility of an invasion of Malaya from the land side been envisaged, and had a genuine effort been made to meet it? Was production at home as well organised as it might be? Were the right men in the right posts in the Government, and was not the Prime Minister himself carrying a burden too heavy for one man? Was enough being done to enlist the support of India?

Most of the speakers put their questions in a temperate manner, coupled with assurances that the Prime Minister still enjoyed their full confidence. One or two, however, struck a sharper note, and this was reckoned by the Government sufficient justification for the putting of the vote of confidence, which was duly moved by Mr. Attlee on the second day. Speakers continued to take the same line as on the previous day, drawing a distinction between Mr. Churchill and some of his colleagues, and placing the cause of national unity above their dislike of some of the

Government's proceedings. The Prime Minister in his reply paid a tribute to the constructive character of the debate as a whole, and declared himself ready to profit by the helpful suggestions that had been made. On one important point he declared himself already prepared to accede to what had long been the wish of a great part of the House—the appointment of a Minister of Production. Certainly he attributed his conversion to this point of view less to the arguments adduced at home than to his experience in America, and the fact that a similar post had been instituted there. This made it none the less welcome to the House, which showed its appreciation by carrying the vote of confidence all but unanimously—464 votes to 1.

In the course of his reply to the debate on January 29, Mr. Churchill took occasion to give the Government version of the events which led up to the loss of the *Prince of Wales* and the *Repulse* on December 9, one of the chief causes of the public discontent. It had been the policy of the War Cabinet and the Defence Committee, he said, to build up in the Indian Ocean, and based mainly on Singapore, a battle squadron to act, it was hoped, in co-operation with the United States Fleet in protection of Far Eastern waters. The decision to send such great ships as the *Prince of Wales* and the *Repulse* to Eastern waters was taken primarily in the hope of deterring the Japanese from going to war at all, or failing that of deterring them from sending convoys into the Gulf of Siam, having regard to the then position of the American Fleet at Hawaii. It was the intention also that these ships should be accompanied by an aircraft carrier, but unfortunately, through a succession of accidents, none was available at the time. The disablement of the American Fleet at Pearl Harbour further materially changed the situation. Nevertheless, Admiral Philips, who as Vice-Chief of the naval staff was fully acquainted with the Government's policy, decided on December 8, after conferring with his captain and staff officers, that in the circumstances, and in view of the movement of Japanese transports with a weak fighting escort towards the Kraa isthmus, drastic and urgent naval action was required. If successful such action would have presented the Army with a good prospect of defeating the landings and possibly of paralysing the invasion of Malaya at its birth. It was only after he left harbour that Admiral Philips was informed that fighter aircraft protection could not be provided in the area in which he intended to operate. In view of the low visibility, however, he decided to stand on. Later, when the weather began to clear he turned back, but he spent some time investigating a reported Japanese landing further south and presenting an even more serious threat to Malaya. It was while he was returning from this investigation that he was attacked, not by aircraft from a carrier but by very long-range shore-based, heavy two-engined torpedo bombers from the main

Japanese aerodrome 400 miles away. In the opinion of the Board of Admiralty, the risks taken by Admiral Philips were fair and reasonable in the light of the knowledge which he had of the enemy, when compared with the very urgent and vital issues at stake, on which the whole safety of Malaya might have depended.

On January 31 an Agreement on behalf of the Government was signed with the Emperor of Abyssinia at Addis Ababa, and the text was issued as a White Paper two days later. On February 3 the Foreign Secretary informed the House of Commons that the Government had agreed to finance the Emperor during the first year to the extent of 1,500,000?. and during the second year to the extent of 1,000,000?. Should the Agreement be prolonged beyond two years, the Government would grant him 500,000?. during the third year and 250,000?. during the fourth. Provision had been made for sending a military mission to Ethiopia and for maintaining there such British forces as might be necessary for strategic reasons, and also for the evacuation of Italian prisoners of war. In the House of Lords on the next day Lord Wedgwood declared that in the opinion of the Labour Party the Agreement was too favourable to the Italians in Abyssinia, but most speakers cordially approved of it.

Following the intimation given by the Prime Minister, the creation of a Ministry of War Production was announced on February 4. Lord Beaverbrook, as had been generally expected, became the first holder of the new post, and in his place Sir A. Duncan returned to his old post of Minister of Supply, being succeeded as President of the Board of Trade by Colonel J. Llewellyn, hitherto Parliamentary Secretary in the Ministry of Transport.

On February 10 a White Paper was issued setting forth the functions of the new Ministry. From this it appeared that the Minister of Production would carry out all the duties hitherto exercised by the Production Executive set up at the beginning of 1941, except those relating to man-power and labour, which would be transferred to the Minister of Labour. His duties would include the allocation of available resources of productive capacity and raw materials (including arrangements for their import), and the settlement of priorities where necessary. He would also exercise supervision and guidance of the various Departments concerned with production, though this would not affect the responsibility of the Ministers in charge of those Departments, and they would have the right of appealing either to the Minister of Defence or to the War Cabinet in respect of the discharge of those responsibilities. The Minister of Production would also handle, on behalf of the War Cabinet, discussions in the combined Bodies set up in England and the United States to deal with munitions assignments and raw materials as between the Allies.

On February 12 Lord Beaverbrook explained in the House of

Lords his own conception of his duties. He pointed out first of all that the pooling arrangement recently made between Britain and the United States had changed altogether the conditions of war production in Great Britain. The disposal of the raw materials of the Ministry of Supply depended now not on that Ministry itself but on the joint board that sat at Washington, and the same remark applied to ships. It would therefore be for the Minister of Production to dispose of the questions to which this arrangement would inevitably give rise, and this fact would probably make it necessary for him to journey abroad, not only to Washington but also, perhaps, to Moscow. The next task of the Minister of Production was to foster the development of the resources of Great Britain to the uttermost, and to get as much as possible out of the factories at home, though the responsibility for operating them still rested on the Ministers in charge of supply. It was for him to eliminate overlapping, correct errors, and co-ordinate the labours of those who worked for the different Ministers.

Lord Beaverbrook went on to give some account of the state of production in Britain at that time, chiefly in order to refute the tales of failure which were frequently put about. He did not deny that there was room for improvement, but he asserted that the situation was definitely not bad but good. In the last six or seven months the production of finished munitions, taken all round, had doubled. In January they had had a record output of tanks—three times as high as in January of the preceding year. Similarly with guns. New and improved weapons, such as heavier tank guns, were coming into use. If they could have kept for themselves all that they produced there would have been no shortage, but they had to send large supplies to other countries and to the Dominions. In 1941 they had sent 9,781 aircraft out of the country against 2,134 brought in, and about 3,000 tanks against 200 received. They had fulfilled all their obligations to Russia up to January 31 with the exception of one tank. In a further statement Lord Beaverbrook said that the charge of absenteeism often brought against the workers was greatly exaggerated; the worst figure he had seen was 25 per cent., and that was in factories staffed by many women who had not been accustomed to industrial effort. On the whole, he said, the workers were a section of the community who fought as hard, felt as deeply, and were as greatly attached to Britain as any other section.

An interesting sidelight on the economic dislocation caused by the war was given by the report issued on February 5 of a Committee set up by the President of the Board of Trade to advise him on problems connected with retail trade. The report, which dealt with the trade in goods other than foodstuffs, stated that in the clothing and footwear trades the consumers' coupons set the

upper limit of trading possibilities at about half the pre-war volume, while in other essential articles the "ceiling," as fixed by control of raw materials or manufacturing quotas, was at the outside 35 per cent., in most cases 20 to 25 per cent. There was great inequality in the incidence of contraction, the evacuation areas, such as Dover or Hull or some parts of London, suffering much more than reception areas like Bath or Exeter, and single traders more than multiple, so that in many cases the ultimate test of survival would not necessarily be the trader's degree of efficiency. Already during the first two years of the war a large number of small shops had closed down; in Glasgow, for instance, which had not been abnormally hit, about 25 per cent. of the small non-food shops had been closed, and the pace had visibly quickened in recent months. So far, the report stated, reserve stocks had materially eased the position for the retail trade as a whole, and its resilience had been greater than could have been expected, but the tightening and extension of controls was steadily encroaching on the powers of resistance, and when the full effects of contraction, previously masked and delayed, began to operate, the retailer's position would rapidly deteriorate. The prospect for retail trading in 1942 was therefore decidedly bleak, unless something was done to help it.

On February 10 the Prime Minister informed the House of Commons that after three months' experience certain improvements would be made in the War Service Grant scheme introduced in November, which would in consequence be brought more into conformity with the wishes expressed in the House at the time (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 97). In the first place there would be a reduction of 3s. 6d. in the compulsory allotment from the pay made by men claiming family or dependents' allowances, thus increasing the family resources by 3s. 6d. a week. The cost to the public of this improvement would be 17,500,000l. a year. The second improvement was an increase in the children's allowance of 1s. per week per child, and the third a similar increase in the allowances paid to certain classes of dependents. The annual cost to the public of these improvements would be another 5,000,000l. Finally, it had been decided to institute a system of post-war credits under which a sum of 6d. a day, or about 9Z. a year, would be set aside for all other ranks and ratings. This would be accumulated on behalf of the men and form a sort of nest-egg available for them after their discharge from the forces—this without prejudice to the question of making a war gratuity when the time arrived on appropriate lines. The cost of this bonus would be 32,500,000l. a year, bringing up the total cost of the improvements to 55,000,000l. a year, which would rise to over 60,000,000l. as the forces expanded.

On February 11 it was announced by Mr. Greenwood in the House of Commons and Lord Reith in the House of Lords that

the Government were at last about to establish a central authority for planning on the lines recommended by the Uthwatt Committee (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 59). The existing statutory duties in regard to town and country planning hitherto exercised by the Minister of Health were to be transferred to the Minister of Works and Buildings, whose title would be changed to "Minister of Works and Planning." This Ministry would be recognised as the Department which local authorities in England and Wales must consult on the general lines of town and country planning, and it would exercise the powers of the central Government under the Town and Country Planning Act. A similar function would be performed for Scotland by the Secretary of State for Scotland. To secure inter-departmental co-ordination the Minister would be assisted by a Committee of senior officials of all the Departments concerned with planning.

Whatever might be the value for the future of the new arrangement for war production, it was not able to save the country from some serious military reverses in the immediate present. In North Africa the thrust of General Rommel from El Agheila proved to be much more formidable than had been at first supposed. On January 23 and 24 R.A.F. and naval aircraft inflicted severe losses on a large enemy convoy in the Central Mediterranean, sinking a 20,000 ton liner. (The Admiralty about the same time revealed that H.M.S. *Barham* had been sunk in the Mediterranean on November 25.) Nevertheless, it soon became evident that Rommel had been strongly reinforced, and the British were for the time being unable to stop his advance. On January 28 German and Italian troops occupied Benghazi, while another column marched inland towards Mekili. On the night of February 2-3 the British evacuated Derna. It was not till they had withdrawn east of Gazala and Mekili that they at length made a stand, south of a line running between these two places.

If the news from Africa was none too cheerful, the position in the Far East had become unmistakably grave. The Premier's warning that more bad news was to be expected from that quarter was being abundantly fulfilled. By the end of January the British forces had yielded the whole of Johore to the enemy, and on February 1 they were withdrawn from the Malayan peninsula to the island of Singapore, for the better defence of which a great breach was blown in the causeway connecting it with the mainland. This precaution secured the defenders a respite of a few days. On February 4 General Wavell issued an order of the day bidding them hold fast and gain time for the great reinforcements which Great Britain and the United States were sending to the Far East. A considerable force—reported to number 20,000 men—did indeed arrive about this time and join the garrison ; but it was either too small or too late for its purpose. After a week of air raids and artillery duels the Japanese, on the

night of February 8, succeeded in making landings on a ten-mile stretch of coast in the north-west of the island, and securing bridgeheads. Under pressure of fierce dive-bombing, supported later by tank attacks, the defenders were gradually forced to retire. On the 11th a Japanese note was dropped demanding unconditional surrender. This was ignored, but two days later the enemy were already approaching the reservoir, and on the 15th the city with all the garrison capitulated.

The Prime Minister, in announcing the fall of Singapore to the nation in a special broadcast on the evening of February 15, described it as "a heavy and far-reaching military defeat." It was, indeed, as serious a reverse for British arms as the withdrawal from Belgium two years before, without the redeeming feature of an heroic defence. Hence it was felt by the nation at large as being not only a defeat but also a humiliation. Seeing that Hong-Kong had been able to endure a siege of a fortnight, it had been fully expected that Singapore, with its far greater resources, would manage to hold out a considerable time longer. Certainly it was necessary to suspend judgment in the absence of detailed information which could not for the present be obtained. What was certain, however, was that the position of Great Britain as an Imperial Power in the Far East had suffered a shattering blow, from which it was doubtful whether it would be ever able to recover.

While the public were following with tense interest the daily reports from Singapore and hoping against hope that some means might yet be found of saving the city, an event occurred which, though less serious in itself, gave an even greater shock to the confidence and the *amour propre* of the English people. In the night of February 11 the German warships *Oneisenau*, *Scharnhorst*, and *Prinz Eugen* stole out of Brest harbour, where they had been confined for many months, and steamed northwards. They were first sighted by British scouting planes at about eleven the next morning, when approaching the Straits of Dover. They were then hugging the French coast and were protected by an "umbrella" of hundreds of shore-based fighting aeroplanes. Although the Admiralty had had warning that the ships were about to make a dash for liberty, they had made no preparations to intercept them in the Straits of Dover—expecting them apparently to sail out into the Atlantic—and consequently had no adequate force ready with which to meet them there. The first assault was launched with a squadron of six old-fashioned Swordfish torpedo-carrying aeroplanes, which attacked with the utmost gallantry, though hopelessly outnumbered. Other aeroplanes and a number of ships, including motor transport boats and destroyers, gradually arrived and kept up the attack till dusk, but no large battleship was able to get to the scene of action in time. Some hits were scored, though owing to bad visibility

the extent of the damage could not be ascertained; certainly, **however**, all three German ships were able to reach their port of destination.

Whether the transference of the German battleships from Atlantic to Baltic ports was a bad thing for Britain was a question on which there might be a difference of opinion—the Admiralty professed to think that it was not. But there could be no question whatever that the best thing would have been to destroy them during their passage; and the public could not understand how this had failed to be achieved. For ten months now the ships had been systematically bombed in port; according to figures given by the Prime Minister 4,000 tons of bombs had been dropped in 3,299 sorties with a loss of 247 Air Force personnel and 43 aircraft, and undoubtedly the ships had been hit several times and repair work made very difficult. Yet now when they had ventured into close range of the British forces and an undreamt-of opportunity had been offered of finishing them off they had been allowed to get away, and Britain had suffered her worst humiliation at sea since the days when the Dutch sailed up the Medway. Naturally the public was exasperated beyond measure, and angrily demanded an explanation. Two questions in particular seemed to require an answer. First, why had three hours of daylight been allowed to elapse before the German ships were sighted; and secondly, was the contact between the Coastal Command and the Admiralty, and also between the other R.A.F. Commands and the Admiralty, as close as it should have been? In the House of Commons on February 17 Mr. Churchill announced that these and similar points would be the subject of a judicial inquiry to be presided over by Mr. Justice Bucknill (who had conducted the inquiry into the loss of the *Thetis* three years before). He would not guarantee, however, that the results would be made public; and in fact they were not, beyond a statement that no blame attached to anyone.

Besides promising an inquiry, the Premier announced that as soon as possible a full debate would be held on recent events. These concessions, however, were not sufficient to allay the public discontent. The conclusion which large sections both of the public and of Parliament had drawn from recent reverses was that it was necessary both to introduce new blood into the Ministry and to relieve the Prime Minister personally of some of his functions, in order that he might be able to concentrate his attention more completely on the supreme direction of the war effort. Demands for such changes were urged upon the Premier from quarters which he could not ignore. He was at first inclined to resist, and at one time it seemed as if the coming debate would precipitate a crisis. Before the date fixed for the debate, however, he altered his mind, and made a series of ministerial changes more sweeping than any which he had hitherto undertaken.

On February 19 a complete reconstruction of the War Cabinet was announced. Two of its members—Lord Beaverbrook and Mr. Greenwood—resigned from the Government altogether. A third, Sir Kingsley Wood, left the War Cabinet, but retained his office of Chancellor of the Exchequer. In their place the Cabinet received a newcomer in the person of Sir Stafford Cripps, who became Lord Privy Seal, and Leader of the House of Commons. Further changes within the Cabinet were that Mr. Attlee, hitherto Lord Privy Seal, became Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs and Deputy Prime Minister, and Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, while retaining his post of Minister of State, was recalled from Cairo, where he had been since May, 1941, to London. The other members of the War Cabinet—Mr. Churchill, Mr. Eden, Mr. Bevin, and Sir John Anderson—retained their previous posts. Thus the membership of the War Cabinet was reduced from nine to seven, of whom three were free from departmental responsibilities.

Lord Beaverbrook resigned on account of ill-health, but it was understood that he would soon go to the United States to assist in the work of pooling resources there. Sir Stafford Cripps had, in the middle of January, resigned his Ambassadorship in Moscow and returned to England. The Prime Minister had tried hard to find a place for him in the Government when he created a Ministry of War Production in January, but without success. He was succeeded in Moscow by Sir A. Clark Kerr, British Ambassador in China.

Three days later further sweeping changes in the Government were announced. Four more Ministers resigned—Captain Margesson, the Secretary of State for War; Lord Reith, the Minister for Works and Buildings; Lieutenant-Colonel Moore-Brabazon, the Minister of Aircraft Production; and Lord Moyne, the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Captain Margesson was succeeded by Sir James Grigg, a distinguished Civil servant, who had been Permanent Under-Secretary at the War Office since 1939; Lord Reith was succeeded by Lord Portal, and Lieutenant-Colonel Moore-Brabazon by Colonel J. J. Llewellyn, who only three weeks before had been made President of the Board of Trade. In this post Colonel Llewellyn was succeeded by Mr. Hugh Dalton, who gave up his own post of Minister of Economic Warfare to Lord Wolmer. Lord Cranborne, who gave up the Secretaryship for the Dominions to Mr. Attlee, succeeded Lord Moyne both as Secretary of State for the Colonies and Leader of the House of Lords. Shortly after, a number of further appointments were announced, of which the most important was that of Sir W. Jowitt as virtual successor to Mr. Greenwood, with the title of Paymaster-General.

The "reconstruction thus carried through satisfied all the chief demands of the Government's critics. The War Cabinet was reduced in numbers and a larger proportion of its members freed

from departmental responsibilities. **The** personal burden of the **Prime Minister** was lightened. An important place was found in the Cabinet for Sir Stafford Cripps, who now stood very high in the popular estimation, reaping the reward of the sturdy independence and devotion to principle for which he had more than once suffered in previous days. Finally, the Government was purged of the three members who had incurred the particular displeasure of the public—Captain Margesson and Lord Moyne for their "invasion complex," and Lieutenant-Colonel Moore-Brabazon on account of a disparaging reference which he once made to Russia, and for which the Labour Party had never forgiven him.

In commending his new Ministry to the House of Commons on February 24, Mr. Churchill took occasion to remind it that the War Cabinet of Mr. Lloyd George in the previous war, which had so often been held up to him as a model, had also in its time committed very serious mistakes and had been subjected to bitter criticism. Speaking of the war situation, he admitted that the immediate outlook was unpromising, and that probably a considerable period of punishment lay before them; but if they looked forward through and across that period to the major aspects of the war, he maintained that in spite of appearances their position had been enormously improved, not only in the last two years but in the last few months, as a result of the wonderful strength and power displayed by Russia and the accession to their cause of the United States with its measureless resources.

The tone of the debate which followed made it clear that the Prime Minister had fully restored himself to the good graces of the House. The new Ministerial appointments were generally welcomed, though one or two speakers confessed themselves rather taken aback by the setting of a Civil Servant in authority over those who had hitherto been his superiors. Attention was called to various deficiencies in the country's war effort, and a point on which special emphasis was laid was the need of a new approach to the Indian problem. Sir Stafford Cripps, in his reply, promised that all the points raised would receive the consideration of the Government, and informed the House that a Government decision on the Indian question would soon be submitted to it for debate.

The security of India was by this time being directly threatened, not only by the Japanese occupation of Singapore, which gave the enemy Fleet free access to the Indian Ocean, but even more by the progress of the Japanese in Burma, which was rapidly bringing them to the very frontier of India. The requirements of the Malayan campaign had not prevented the Japanese from launching concurrently an invasion of Burma, where also the British forces were woefully inadequate, numbering not more than 20,000 scattered throughout the country. Certainly they had here a larger air force than in Malaya, and were consequently

able to offer a more powerful resistance ; nevertheless, they were constantly outnumbered at the points of contact, and were gradually forced back in the same way as they had been in Malaya.

At the beginning of the year fighting took place at Tavoy, in the Tenasserim area, and on January 19 the British force there retired to the Kawkareik area, 45 miles east of Moulmein. Here they were attacked on January 21 by superior Japanese forces, and after a stiff resistance withdrew to a position nearer to Moulmein. Fighting developed here at the end of the month, and on February 1 the British abandoned Moulmein and retired across the Salween River. Here, protected by the width of the river, and strengthened with reinforcements from India, they succeeded in maintaining themselves for some time, inflicting heavy losses on the enemy. After the capture of Singapore, however, the Japanese were able to bring up fresh forces ; the British were gradually driven back, first across the Bilin River, and then across the Sittang, and by the end of the month Rangoon itself was in imminent danger of capture.

In England during January and February the weather was unfavourable for flying, and air raids on the Continent were sporadic and on a restricted scale. The most noteworthy raid was one carried out on the night of February 27-28 by joint forces of the Army, Navy, and Air Force acting in combination, on an important radiolocation post at Bruneval, near Le Havre. Parachute troops dropped from bombers were later supported by infantry, and having performed their tasks all were brought away by the Navy, along with a number of prisoners. There was no loss of naval or air craft, and very few casualties. Though of slight importance in itself, the operation had an excellent psychological effect, being taken as an earnest of bigger things to come.

On February 23 a new Lease-Lend Agreement was signed with the United States, which made rather more precise the conditions under which Britain was to continue receiving lease-lend aid, while leaving their final determination to a still later date. The most interesting feature of the Agreement was a provision that in the final determination of Britain's repayment to the U.S.A. the conditions should be such as not to burden commerce between the two countries, but to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between them and the betterment of world-wide economic relations. To that end they should concert measures for the expansion of production, employment, and the exchange of goods, for the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and for the reduction of tariffs and other trade barriers—in short, for the attainment of all the economic objectives set forth in the Atlantic Charter.

The Vote on Account for 1942 presented to Parliament on February 25 gave a total estimate for civil expenditure—excluding

the Post Office—of 444,000,000l., about the same as the total for the current year. Nearly a fifth of this sum was accounted for by old age and supplementary pensions, while the Board of Education took 57,000,000l. and the Ministry of Health 25,900,0002. The diminution of unemployment was reflected in a decrease of the grant to the Assistance Board from 19,600,0002. to 8,600,000/. Expenditure on roads was reduced from 10,700,000J. to 7,300,0002., but the estimate for the Ministry of Works and Buildings was increased from 909,0002. to 3,400,0002.

The Army Estimates were presented to the House of Commons by the Secretary of State for War on February 19, again in the form of a token vote. He said that while the equipment of the Army had made enormous strides in the last twelve months, it was still not entirely satisfactory. After the retirement from Belgium they had had to start again from scratch, and for some months under the threat of invasion they had to confine their efforts to equipping the maximum number of infantry units in order to meet the enemy, and there had been no time to build up a balanced Army comprising a due proportion of ancillary units. Since last autumn, however, they had been gradually remedying this defect. They were certainly growing stronger all the time ; whether they were growing stronger quickly enough was not so certain.

In the course of his speech Captain Margesson took occasion to refute statements which were being circulated in America by the detractors of Great Britain, to the effect that while the British were willing to accept arms and equipment from any and every source, they were not so willing to send out their soldiers to fight with them. This, he said, was an insidious and wholly false accusation. It had been asserted, for instance, that only an insignificant fraction of the Imperial troops in Libya were British. The fact was that in the Eighth Army there during the present battle 50 per cent, of all the troops employed were from the United Kingdom, one-third being provided by South Africa and New Zealand and more than a tenth by the Indian Empire. All the armoured tank brigades were from the United Kingdom, and the armoured car regiments were all from the United Kingdom except two which were from South Africa. Similarly with regard to casualties ; out of every 100 men killed or wounded in the land fighting since the beginning of the war up to January, 1942, 70 had been from the United Kingdom. As for naval warfare and among the Mercantile Marine the vast majority of casualties had been inflicted on British seamen, and the same was true of the British Air Force, in spite of the magnificent contributions of the Dominions and the Allied forces.

In introducing the Navy Estimates on February 26, the First Lord stated that owing to the successes of the Navy in the latter

part of 1941 the estimate of imports for the year, which at one time had seemed unduly optimistic, had been fully realised. Although U-boat construction was on an unparalleled scale and the U-boat fleet expanded month by month, nevertheless, since the beginning of the war losses in convoys were still just under one half of one per cent. Considerable losses had recently been sustained in the Far East and the Pacific—largely among ships designed only for the local trade of the China coast—and U-boats had gained some success by breaking new ground off the eastern seaboard of North America, but there were good hopes that these activities would soon be countered. During 1941 22 enemy surface raiders had been put out of action. Although the enemy had virtually nothing but coastal trade to protect, yet British aircraft, submarines, and surface warships in 1941 had captured, sunk, or seriously damaged no less than 2,500,000 tons of German and Italian shipping and other shipping under Axis control. Nearly half of the few enemy vessels which had attempted to run the blockade had been intercepted. Casualties suffered by the Fleet in its widespread operations had been and were being well replaced. The total of naval tonnage delivered in 1941 was as great as in 1916, and they had now in hand bigger programmes than in the last war. Since December 7 the Japanese had been able in a matter of days to falsify all the bases on which the existing strategical plans had been founded and a considerably higher rate of Allied loss had obtained since that date. Yet even if this should persist it could be more than offset by the vast programme of the United States and the not inconsiderable effort of Britain herself.

In introducing the Air Estimates on March 4 the Secretary of State for Air stated that since June the main task of the Royal Air Force had been to give the utmost possible help to Russia, and that valuable assistance had in fact been given, both in the direct supply of pilots and machines to the Eastern Front and in keeping a large number of German aircraft occupied on other fronts. With regard to the vexed question of co-operation between the Air Force and the other Services, he admitted that this was still capable of improvement, but he denied emphatically that any deficiencies in this respect were due to lack of goodwill or to any kind of friction between the Services. In proof of this he pointed to the readiness with which units of all branches of the Air Force were willing to risk their lives in order to assist the Navy in all its varied operations, or the land forces whenever opportunity offered; and he quoted passages from documents taken from captured German officers in Libya which paid tribute to the excellent co-operation in that field between the British ground and air forces.

In reply to a further criticism, that the policy of bombing industrial targets in Western Germany and the intervening

territories was not justifying itself on military grounds, he replied that this was not the view of the Air Ministry, and that such bombing would remain one of the main tasks of the Air Force. It was true that for some time it had fallen considerably short of the scale which they had planned on account of exceptionally unfavourable weather. None the less quarter by quarter they had dropped twice the weight of bombs dropped in the previous year, and had caused immense damage in the Ruhr district, in Wilhelmshaven and Emden, and in other centres of industry. The British Air Force, he said, was maintaining its technical superiority over the German, and it remained the one weapon on which they could call in the coming year to strike deadly blows at the heart of Germany.

On March 10 the Chancellor of the Exchequer once more came to the House of Commons for a Vote of Credit—this time for 1,250,000,000l., of which 250,000,000l. would be for the remainder of the current financial year and 1,000,000,000l. for the earlier part of the next year. Expenditure, he said, during the past six weeks had been at the rate of about 14,500,000l. a day, and it was clear that the last Vote of Credit would not suffice to carry them through the year. He expected the further credit to be exhausted by the end of June.

On March 12 the Prime Minister announced in the House of Commons that Mr. Lyttelton, who had by now returned from Egypt, would become Minister of Production in place of Lord Beaverbrook. He further stated that the powers of the new Minister would be somewhat wider than those laid down in the White Paper recently issued, which had been already withdrawn ; nor would another White Paper be issued on this occasion. Briefly, he would have full effective powers to concert and supervise the activities of the Production Departments, including the adjustment of existing programmes and the initiation of future policy, subject only to the right of the Admiralty to control the design, construction, and armament of all naval vessels and the naval programme.

On March 24 Mr. Lyttelton himself, in the House of Commons, made somewhat clearer the extension which had taken place in the scope of his office. He said that the powers which had been conferred on him were those which he had asked for, and so far as he had been able to see they were in the main adequate and precise. The reason for his thinking so was that he had been given the actual control of the three ingredients of war production, namely, raw materials, machine tools, and, in co-operation with the Minister of Labour, labour to use the tools and use up the raw materials. Between his own control of Labour and that exercised by the Minister of Labour it was impossible to draw a hard and fast line, but he was sure that they would work amicably together. He intimated that he would pay particular attention to the regional

organisation of production, which he regarded as the field where changes might most profitably be introduced.

On March 10 the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs made a statement in the House of Commons on the atrocities committed by the Japanese in Hong-Kong, after the capitulation in December. He said that the Government had been unwilling to publish the information received by them until it had been confirmed beyond all possibility of doubt, but unfortunately there was no longer room for doubt. Statements by reliable eye-witnesses who succeeded in escaping from Hong-Kong established the fact that the Japanese Army perpetrated against their helpless military prisoners and the civil population, without distinction of race or colour, the same kind of barbarities which had aroused the horror of the civilised world at the time of the Nanking massacre in 1937. Mr. Eden then gave some examples of these barbarities, and concluded by saying that two things would be clear to the House—one, that the Japanese claim that their forces were animated by a lofty code of chivalry, Bushido, was nauseating hypocrisy, and the other, that the enemy must be utterly defeated. This was a sentiment with which the House whole-heartedly agreed.

On March 19 the Prime Minister announced that Mr. R. G. Casey, at present Australian Minister in Washington, had been appointed to succeed Mr. Lyttelton as representative of the War Cabinet in the Middle East, with the same powers as his predecessor had possessed. Mr. Casey would be a member of the United Kingdom War Cabinet for all purposes, though his duties would lie outside of England. It would, added the Premier, be not impossible to make the Minister of State a member of the House of Commons or Lords, but there were precedents in time of war for Ministers who were his Majesty's subjects from the Empire holding office in Great Britain without being members of either House of Parliament.

On March 19 the Home Secretary informed the House of Commons that for some time past the *Daily Mirror* had been publishing matter which, in the opinion of the Government, was calculated to foment opposition to the successful prosecution of the war, and that consequently he had warned the publishers that if they continued to offend he would order the suppression of the paper under the powers conferred on him by Defence Regulation 2D. Like the suppression of the *Daily Worker* twelve months before, this proceeding was regarded in many quarters as arbitrary and high-handed, and as containing a veiled menace to the freedom of the Press in general. Strong protests were made against it in both Houses of Parliament on March 26, when it was pointed out that Regulation 2D dated from a time when there was an imminent danger of invasion, that its use, therefore, should be restricted to such times, and that in the absence of any

great emergency the Home Secretary should have acted under Regulation 2C which prescribed that the offending paper should be brought before the Courts. As in the case of the *Daily Worker*, the Home Secretary defended himself on the ground that a Court action was a long and leisurely proceeding, and he again protested that he had no designs on the liberty of the Press.

It was fortunate for the English people that, while things had been going so badly abroad, they were not subjected to undue trials at home. During the early part of the year enemy air activity over the country was very slight; in January the total number of casualties from air raids was 112 killed and 61 injured, and in February only 22 and 21. Food supplies also were on the whole well maintained. Major Lloyd George stated in the House of Commons on March 3 that food reserves were substantially higher than they had been twelve months before. This was due partly to the improvement in the position in the Atlantic in the second half of 1941, partly to the greatly increased production at home, and partly to the substantial help they had received from the United States. Even now, therefore, after two and a half years of war, they had not been called on for any real sacrifices.

Major Lloyd George warned the public, however, that further restrictions might soon be necessary ; and in fact a certain number were introduced soon afterwards. On March 11 notice was given that after April 6 no more white bread would be baked. On the next day it was announced that from May 1 reductions would be made in the petrol allowance, and that from July 1 petrol would be available only to those who could prove a genuine need. Horse-racing and greyhound-racing, already severely curtailed, were yet further restricted, and the clothes ration was cut down. It was made an offence to waste the slightest scrap of paper, and the appearance of countless streets was altered by the removal of all iron railings and gates in order to provide " scrap " for armaments. The penalties for " black marketing " were also made more severe, not so much because this practice greatly affected the food supply, as because of the irritation which it aroused among the public.

In the House of Commons on March 17 Mr. Dalton stated that the production of coal was very insufficient and the consumption excessive. They had scraped through so far with luck, but they might not always be so lucky. It was necessary that by next autumn they should build up their stocks of coal to a much higher figure than that at which they had stood at the beginning of the previous autumn. He therefore gave notice that a comprehensive scheme of fuel rationing would be introduced as soon as possible, and meanwhile he appealed to the public to be as sparing as they could in the use of coal, gas, and electricity.

With regard to the production of food, the Minister of Agriculture stated in the House of Commons on March 18 that taking

the country as a whole they **had** now nearly reached the limit of tillage acreage that they could manage with such supplies of labour, machinery, and fertilisers as were in sight. When the year's ploughing season was completed they would have something like 6,000,000 more acres under the plough in the United Kingdom than before the war. Whereas, however, before the war a great deal of the product went to the feeding of live stock, now practically the whole of it went to human consumption. There were similar increases in the production of potatoes, vegetables, and sugar. Milk production also, in spite of the many difficulties, had been kept up remarkably well. Their main task from now on would be to improve the general management of farms and to increase the yield for existing arable and remaining grass.

In the opinion of many people in England the Government had been regrettably slow in devising some new plan for ending the deadlock in the Indian political situation. While in Washington Mr. Churchill had received from a body of influential persons in India a list of proposals for bringing about better co-operation between the Indian people and the British Government, but he had been so fully occupied with other matters that so far he had not had time to consider them. In view of the menacing military situation in the Far East further delay was undoubtedly dangerous, and the new War Cabinet set itself immediately to grapple with the problem.

After two weeks of deliberation the Cabinet arrived unanimously at certain conclusions for present and future action in India. In the House of Commons on March 11 the Prime Minister described them as "an attempt by a constructive contribution to aid India in the realisation of full self-government." He did not, however, disclose what they were. The Government, he said, were apprehensive that, by making a public announcement at such a moment, their efforts might do more harm than good. They had first to assure themselves that their scheme would win a reasonable and practical measure of acceptance; a declaration which would be rejected by essential elements of the Indian world might provoke a fierce constitutional and communal dispute at a moment when the enemy was at the gates of India. They proposed, therefore, to send a member of the War Cabinet to India to satisfy himself on the spot by personal consultation that the conclusions on which they were agreed, and which they believed represented a just and final settlement, would achieve their purpose.

The member of the Cabinet chosen for this mission was Sir Stafford Cripps, the newly appointed Leader of the House of Commons. The reasons for this choice were not mentioned by the Prime Minister, but they were fairly obvious. Sir Stafford was *persona grata* with most leaders of opinion in India, including

some who were most hostile to British rule. Further, while he had kept clear of the controversies on India, he was known to favour a very liberal response to the Indian demands. It was clear, therefore, that if anyone could win assent to the Government's proposals in India, he would be the man.

By the time this announcement was made the danger both to India and to China had been brought appreciably nearer by the fall of Rangoon. Though held at bay by the British on the lower Sittang, the enemy had succeeded early in March in getting west of the river 50 miles higher up at Pegu, and thus turning the defences of Rangoon. It was thereupon decided to evacuate the city after destroying installations of value to the enemy. In the face of strong opposition the withdrawal was successfully accomplished to positions 50 to 100 miles north and north-west, between the Sittang and Irrawaddy Rivers.

The fall of Rangoon and the further penetration of the Japanese into Burma were accepted in England as the natural if not inevitable consequences of the loss of Singapore ; but this event itself still remained unexplained. There was ground enough for suspecting that it was due to gross mismanagement and incompetence in some quarter or other, nor was there as yet any sign that the Government had laid the lesson to heart and would avoid similar mistakes in the future. The public uneasiness was strongly voiced in a debate in the House of Lords on March 25, when a number of Peers, led by Lord Addison, urged the Government to institute an official inquiry into the events which had led up to the loss of Malaya. Lord Cranborne, in reply, said that the Government were just as anxious as their critics to get at the facts, but the truth was that the material for an inquiry was not yet available ; the reports they had so far received from Malaya were incomplete and in many cases conflicting. He also deprecated strongly the insinuation put forward in the course of the debate, that no serious attempt had been made by the Government or the Chiefs-of-Staff or the military, naval, and air experts to draw conclusions from what had happened because they might find it inconvenient and awkward.

Sir Stafford Cripps arrived in New Delhi on March 23 and immediately opened conversations with the Indian leaders. The War Cabinet's plan for meeting the constitutional aspirations of India was published on March 30. It provided for the setting up after the war of an elected body to frame a new Constitution under which India should become a Dominion associated with the United Kingdom and the other Dominions by allegiance to the Crown but equal with them in every respect. The right was given to any province of British India which was not prepared to accept the new Constitution to contract out. In a broadcast message delivered the next day Sir Stafford Cripps said that if the proposals were rejected the responsibility must rest with the

Indians themselves, and there would be no opportunity to reconsider the matter till after the war.

While the Indians had been discussing, the Japanese menace had been coming nearer. After the loss of Rangoon the British had prepared to defend central Burma against a Japanese invasion, and their prospects at first seemed not unhopeful. By this time a strong Chinese force had reached Burma and had taken up positions on the upper reaches of the Sittang River. The British also still retained the superiority in the air with which they had commenced the campaign ; according to a statement made on March 15 by Sir R. Peirse, the Air Officer Commanding-in-Chief in India, they had, in company with the American Volunteer Group, accounted so far for 270 enemy airplanes, with another 80 probably damaged, for the loss of 42 of their own. The British, in fact, commenced well by making a successful diversion on the Sittang River in the course of their withdrawal from Rangoon and driving the enemy from Shwegyin and other villages, after which they took up a position on the Irrawaddy River near Tharrawaddy. This place, however, was a hotbed of anti-British feeling, and they soon found it advisable to withdraw further north. On March 21 a successful raid was made on the Japanese aerodrome at Mingaladon, but about the same time the enemy badly damaged a British aerodrome in central Burma, and from this time superiority in the air seemed to pass into the hands of the Japanese.

In the meantime the Chinese had withdrawn along the Sittang River as far north as Toungoo. Here they made a stand for several days, but they were at last forced to evacuate it on March 31. Nor did the British have any better success. Crossing the Irrawaddy, the Japanese turned their positions and forced them back to Prome ; and from this place also they had been dislodged by April 2. Meanwhile, too, the Japanese had occupied the Andaman Islands, and with Fort Blair as a base they were infesting the Bay of Bengal and making it highly dangerous for British shipping. It was obvious that the whole east coast of India was now vulnerable to their attack.

In Libya during February and March practically no change took place in the military situation. After a few days of patrol and air skirmishes Rommel, on February 14, commenced an advance in force from the line which he had formed between Tmimi and Mekili. On the same day, however, in an air encounter 18 British fighters shot down 20 out of 30 of the enemy and damaged the rest, without loss to themselves ; and Rommel judged it prudent to withdraw without forcing an engagement. From that point the two armies remained facing one another in the positions which they had taken up between Mekili and the sea. The air forces were active on both sides, the British frequently raiding Benghazi and the Germans Tobruk ; in these

operations during March 89 Axis aircraft were destroyed and 42 British. On March 20 and 21 British patrols carried out a daring **raid** which took them as far as the enemy aerodrome at Martuba ; **and** this was followed by several other thrusts **deep** into the enemy's lines.

Meanwhile severe losses continued to be inflicted on the enemy by sea. On February 14 and 15 three Italian cruisers and a destroyer were damaged while trying, without success, to intercept a British convoy passing through the central Mediterranean. On March 2 two large merchant vessels were sunk in an air raid on Palermo harbour. Later in the month two U-boats, six schooners, and a motor vessel carrying troops were successfully attacked by submarines in the Mediterranean. On March 22 Rear-Admiral Vian, while escorting a convoy carrying important supplies to Malta with a force of light cruisers and destroyers, attacked a much stronger Italian force containing a battleship and two heavy cruisers, and drove it off with severe damage and little loss to himself. On March 16 a combined naval and aerial bombardment of Rhodes was carried out.

In the early hours of March 28 another " commando raid " was carried out on the coast of France, the objective this time being the dry dock and submarine base at St. Nazaire. Escorted by light naval forces and aircraft the *Campbeltown*, one of the destroyers handed over to Britain by the U.S.A., carrying in her bows five tons of delay-action high explosive, made her way into the harbour and rammed the main lock-gate with such force that she came to a stand only when her bridge was abreast of the gate itself. Immediately afterwards special service troops landed and demolished important parts of the harbour installations, while delay-action torpedoes were fired at the entrance to the U-boat basin. The effect of all these operations was to put the port out of action for the time being. Of the men who were landed nearly 150 were killed or taken prisoner ; otherwise there was little British loss.

Enemy air action over Britain was no more extensive in March than in the previous two months, causing 34 casualties, of which 21 were fatal. Again it was confined to the coastal areas, and it could not compare with that of the Royal Air Force over Germany and occupied territories, in spite of weather which made flying impossible on several nights in the month. On the 4th the R.A.F. for the first time visited Paris, severely damaging the Renault works, which were producing large quantities of vehicles for the German Army. Ten enemy ships were also sunk or damaged off the Norwegian, Dutch, and French coasts. In all these operations 66 enemy aircraft were destroyed and 102 British—32 by day and 70 by night. The R.A.F.'s crowning achievement during the month was the bombing, on March 28, of the **Baltic** port of **Lubeck, which** was **laid** almost **in** ruins.

The national accounts for the fiscal year which ended on March 31 showed expenditure to have been 4,776,000,000(M. and revenue 2,074,000,000l. Thus both expenditure and revenue had exceeded the, original Budget estimate by about 16 per cent. Income tax and surtax produced 8,500,0002. more than had been expected, excess profits tax and National Defence Contribution together 59,000,0002. more, and non-tax revenues 85,000,0002. more. A very large portion of the excess—126,650,0002., or approximately 44 per cent.—was provided by the Customs and Excise duties, which included the tobacco, beer, and wine and spirit duties and the purchase tax ; this seemed to indicate that in the matter of consumption the public were not laying to heart the Government's exhortations to practise " austeriy."

CHAPTER II

THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN TREATY

AT the beginning of April, three months after Mr. Churchill's visit to Washington, Mr. Harry Hopkins, President Roosevelt's personal representative, and General Marshall, Chief of Staff of the United States Army, came to London in order to discuss with the British Government the military situation and prospects.

It was known by now that Germany was making preparations for opening a huge offensive against Russia as soon as weather conditions would allow ; also that she was withdrawing troops from the west for the purpose. It was therefore necessary to consider afresh both how assistance could best be given to Russia, and whether England could take advantage of Germany's pre-occupation with her il astern Front in order to launch an invasion of the Continent.

The discussions, in which Mr. Averell Harriman, chief Lease-Lend officer in London, also took part, commenced on April 8, and continued for a week. No report of them was issued ; but from some remarks made by General Marshall and from other sources the public gained the impression that they had led to a certain change of outlook on the part of those in supreme control. Hitherto Government spokesmen had usually mentioned 1943 as the year when the Allies would launch an offensive against Germany which would finally give them the superiority. Now it seemed that the date was being pushed forward to the present year, and that plans were being made accordingly. This idea was confirmed by the new title, announced on April 13, of Chief of Combined Operations, conferred on Lord Louis Mountbatten, who in October had succeeded Sir Roger Keyes as head of the Commandos (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 84).

There were other indications which seemed to point in the same direction. In March a Committee of Ministers under the chairmanship of the President of the Council had carefully considered afresh the question of the duties of civilians in the event of invasion, and had issued new instructions on the subject. But in the middle of April the Government so far ignored the threat of invasion as to order the release of about one-third of the total number of whole-time civil defence workers and about one-sixth of the members of the National Fire Service for employment in the war industries. It was significant that, in giving reasons for this step, the Minister for Home Security, while mentioning the demands of productive industry for manpower and the wastefulness of keeping so many men merely "standing-by," set in the forefront "the need to replace defensive thinking by an offensive will to victory " ; and this idea became a favourite topic with Government spokesmen in the ensuing weeks.

Whatever hopes there might have been of attacking Germany, there was no question that England would still for a long time have to remain on the defensive against Japan, and perhaps even yield further ground. It was not yet certain even that the Japanese could be kept out of the western portions of the Indian Ocean, through which supplies were sent from Britain and America to the Near and Middle East. The Japanese Fleet was now ranging at will in the Bay of Bengal and was already making its presence uncomfortably felt there. On April 4 a strong Japanese force comprising at least three battleships and five aircraft carriers, together with a number of heavy and light cruisers and destroyer flotillas, was observed steering towards Ceylon. On the next day powerful air attacks were delivered on the harbours of Colombo and Trincomalee. Fortunately the defences proved adequate, and the raiders were driven off with heavy loss, though the British losses were also severe. Disaster, however, overtook a squadron which had sailed out of harbour before the raid to meet the enemy, the two 10,000-ton cruisers *Dorsetshire* and *Cornwall* and the aircraft-carrier *Hermes* being sunk at sea by enemy aircraft. The British fortunately were able to some extent to neutralise the advantage thus gained by the Japanese by a number of successful air raids on Port Blair in the Andaman Islands and on Rangoon, in which much enemy shipping and aircraft was destroyed ; and, thanks largely to the monsoon, the Indian Ocean remained on the whole clear of the Japanese throughout the summer.

In Burma the British, in spite of heroic efforts, continued to give ground. After the fall of Rangoon they were fighting at a terrible disadvantage, since reinforcements were now able to reach them from India only with the greatest difficulty, while the Japanese had obtained new facilities for bringing up men

and supplies. Troops now began, indeed, to pour in from China, but not in sufficient numbers to turn the scale. The Japanese were able to continue their advance with no less rapidity than before. On April 13 the British abandoned to them Migyaungye, at the approaches to the oilfields, and withdrew to Yenaungyang, in the centre of the chief oilfield, where they destroyed the installations. Round this place some heavy fighting took place, and after being taken by the Japanese it was recaptured on the 20th with the help of the Chinese. Leaving these to hold the place, the British then formed a line further north, from Kyaukpadaung to Meiktili, some distance south of Mandalay, and here they were left for a time in comparative peace while the Japanese turned their attention to the Chinese further east.

While the Japanese were advancing in Burma and threatening the coasts of India, the leaders of Indian opinion were considering the proposals for co-operation brought by Sir Stafford Cripps. These were framed on the principle of conceding to the Congress Party the maximum portion of its demands to which the Mohammedans and other sections might also be persuaded to consent, and which were consistent with the military situation. As Sir Stafford subsequently put it, they contained a clear and unequivocal promise of self-government in the future, along with an invitation in the present to the various communal and political sections of Indian opinion to come together on the Viceroy's Council for the immediate prosecution of the war in India. The success of the plan depended therefore on the willingness of both Congress and the Mohammedans to forgo a portion of their requirements. Unfortunately the idea of compromise proved to be distasteful to both parties; Congress was bent on obtaining full self-government immediately, while the Mohammedans clung equally tenaciously to their cherished idea of Pakistan, or separation. With both sections it was all or nothing. In response to criticisms from the Congress Party, Sir Stafford Cripps made certain concessions in the matter of defence. He would not consent, however, to their demand that the government of the country should be at once entrusted to a national Cabinet constituted on a party basis, on the ground that this would mean setting up a Congress dictatorship; and his scheme was thereupon rejected by Congress after three weeks of negotiation.

The failure of Sir Stafford Cripps's mission caused profound disappointment in England, where there was a genuine desire among all parties for a solution of the Indian problem. It was generally held that the Government and Sir Stafford had done their best, and that the chief if not the only cause of the breakdown was the intransigence of the Indian political leaders. Nevertheless, in responsible quarters care was taken to say nothing that might embitter feeling, and attention was directed

rather to the question whether some positive results might not be looked for from the discussions which had taken place.

This was the attitude taken up by the Government, as reflected in the statement made by Sir Stafford Cripps in the House of Commons on April 28, immediately after his return to England. Although, he said, the hopes built on his mission had been disappointed, yet there was no need to regret that the proposals had been put forward, or to blame the British Government for the failure to reach agreement. In his view, nothing but good would result from the fact that the proposals had been made, and from the almost equally important fact that the War Cabinet had sent one of its own members to discuss them in India with the leaders of Indian opinion, since this had demonstrated their sincerity of purpose. He was convinced that the decisions taken by the Government were just and that they had done all they could in an admittedly difficult situation to bring about an agreement and a better understanding between the peoples of the two countries. It was in fact the past exercising its influence on all parties that had been too strong for them, and they must now leave the leaven of better understanding to work quietly towards an ultimate and satisfactory solution of the political problem. For the time being there was nothing further that they could do. They must be patient and open-minded, willing to consider any proposals on which the Indian leaders could agree. Many of the Indian leaders would do their best to arouse the Indian peoples in their own defence, and perhaps by co-operation in defence they would move a step nearer the solution of their problem.

On the next day, in the House of Lords, the Duke of Devonshire, Under-Secretary for India, moved a series of resolutions to continue in force Proclamations issued under the Government of India Act, 1935, by the Governors of Madras, Bombay, and other Provinces. A month before, he said, he had hoped it would be unnecessary to renew the Proclamations; and he repeated that the delay in India's achieving self-government was due not to British unwillingness but to the difficulties inherent in the situation. Parliament took the same view, and passed the resolutions without comment.

At the beginning of April, the British and Italian Governments, after six months of negotiation carried on through the medium of the Swiss Government, agreed on the repatriation of their sick and wounded prisoners of war in accordance with the Geneva Convention. Although the number of Italian prisoners was much larger, the British Government, unlike the German Government in a similar case, made no difficulties on this account (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 77). On April 7 the Italian hospital ship *Gradisca* carrying badly wounded British prisoners **and** the protecting personnel, and the British ship *Llandoverly*

Castle carrying Italian prisoners to be exchanged, arrived in Smyrna, and the repatriation was carried out without a hitch.

The Budget for 1942-43 was introduced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer on April 14, immediately after the Easter recess. He commenced by paying a tribute to the Lend-Lease assistance of the United States, which now constituted a vital factor in their war effort. This aid was now running at the rate of 100,000,000². a month, and the figures for assistance to the United Kingdom alone up to the end of March probably reached 600,000,000². He also expressed gratitude to the Canadian Government, which had provided without charge supplies up to a value of 1,000,000,000 dollars. This meant that their financial problems in North America, which in 1940 had been one of his chief anxieties, had been greatly eased. They could feel assured that the movement of munitions and other essential supplies to Great Britain from overseas would be conditioned not by their ability or inability to find the means of payment but by the requirements of military policy and the availability of shipping and other means of transport.

Dealing with the Government's efforts to control prices, which was an essential part of their war economy, he stated that so far they had on the whole been successful. Though there had been some small increases in a few of the less essential foodstuffs, the price level of the main staple foods had actually been reduced. Last April the food index had been 23 per cent, above the level at the outbreak of the*war ; now it was only 18 per cent. In the main, staple items of everyday expenditure had now been fairly steady for some ten months. Last April the Ministry of Labour cost-of-living index had been 28 per cent, above pre-war ; on March 1 it was 29 per cent. This considerable success in price stabilisation had cost the Exchequer 125,000,000². in the past calendar year—less than had been feared. Owing chiefly to the stability of prices, the range of wage increases had also been circumscribed, and increases in basic wages had not been of a kind calculated to produce the inflationary spiral which they sought at all costs to avoid. The overall increase in wage rates between April, 1941, and March, 1942, was approximately 6*per cent. He claimed therefore that the whole economic policy of the Government had attained a considerable degree of success ; while the danger of inflation was still present they had so far definitely held their own against its onset.

Expenditure for the coming year was estimated by the Chancellor at 5,286,000,000/., which was an increase of 510,000,000l. over the actual expenditure of the year just past. ' Out of this sum 444,000,000². would be for the civil supply services, including 234,000,000². for the social services, at least 125,000,000². for price stabilisation, and 32,000,000². for such things as improved pay and allowances for the fighting services, extra war service

grants, and increased pay for **members of** the civil defence services; 325,000,000l. would be for the fixed debt charge, and 4,500,000,000l. would be taken for the Vote of Credit.

On the revenue side the Chancellor reckoned that income tax would produce 915,000,000l., surtax 78,000,000l., death duties 90,000,000l., and excess profits tax and N.D.C. together 425,000,000l. Altogether he reckoned from inland revenue 1,524,000,000l. Customs and Excise revenue he estimated at 645,000,000l., or 59,000,000l. less than in the preceding year. Other items of revenue he reckoned at 75,000,000l., giving him a total for the year of 2,244,000,000l. This was making allowance for the remission of some 40,000,000l. of existing taxation—25,000,000l. to provide increased allowances for the earned incomes of married women, and 15,000,000l. for exempting so-called "utility" cloth and clothing and boots and shoes from purchase tax.

The Chancellor had already stated that for raising his 5,286,000,000l. of expenditure he aimed at getting some 786,000,000l. from foreign disinvestments, 2,100,000,000l. from national savings, and the rest, some 2,400,000,000l., from revenue. He was still, therefore, some 150,000,000l. short of this last-named sum. Income tax was already so high that he could not for the moment contemplate further exactions in this field; to those who thought that more could be raised from income tax he pointed out that if they were to take away every penny of income from those whose incomes at present exceeded 2,000l. per annum the gain to the Exchequer would be only about 30,000,000l., and that incomes below 500l. represented about 85 per cent. of all personal incomes after payment of income tax and surtax. He proposed, therefore, to fill the deficiency entirely by indirect taxation. There would be additional duties of 2d. a pint on beer, 4s. 8d. a bottle on whisky, 6s. a gallon on wine, and 10s. a pound on tobacco; members of the Services would, however, be able to get cigarettes at the old prices at their regular canteens. The entertainment tax would be doubled for most ranges of seats, and the purchase tax on a number of luxury and semi-luxury articles would be raised from 33s. to 66s. per cent. The Chancellor's proposals were favourably received, and were subsequently embodied in the Finance Act without alteration.

The influence of war industry in reducing unemployment was strikingly shown by the report, published on April 23, of the Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee on the financial position of the fund at the end of 1941. From this it appeared that the whole of the 115,000,000l. borrowed during the years of industrial depression to help in financing unemployment insurance had been repaid, and that at the end of 1941 the net balances in the two accounts of the Unemployment

Fund amounted to more than 84,000,000l. In 1941 receipts had been 76,600,000l. and expenditure 12,742,000l., of which 8,874,000l. had been for unemployment benefit, 3,024,000l. for administration, and 498,000l. for debt service. Income was now exceeding expenditure by over 1,250,000l. a week, and the total balance was expected to approach 160,000,000l. at the end of the year. Nevertheless, the Committee was averse to recommending that there should be a substantial reduction in the contributions, as was suggested by the British Employers' Confederation, or an increase in the rates of benefit, as was desired by the General Council of the Trades Union Congress. The reason was that the level of unemployment after the war was still unpredictable, and if the mass unemployment which followed the last war was repeated after this war, even such a balance as the Unemployment Fund was expected to hold at the conclusion of the present year might prove insufficient to meet its liabilities. Until they were reasonably sure that effective steps could be taken to prevent a recurrence after this war of the industrial dislocation which followed the last, it was their duty to conserve the resources of the fund. The only concession they would make was to recommend that the automatic increase of 1d. a week in the contributions from employers and employed under the agricultural scheme, which was to begin in July, should now be regarded as unnecessary. The report and recommendations were adopted by the Government.

On April 30 the House of Commons gave a second reading to a Bill amending the War Damage Act (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 8) in certain particulars. The chief change was that there should henceforth be a single risk period of indefinite duration, instead of successive risk periods each with its own contribution. This period could be terminated at any time by Treasury Order approved by Parliament. The original rule about five annual instalments would still stand. The Chancellor of the Exchequer in introducing the Bill stated that the assessment of the first instalment had amounted to a little over 40,000,000l., of which about 35,000,000l. had been already collected, and that with few exceptions the War Damage Commission had paid in full three out of every four claims, and for the rest, where the amount was appreciable, 60 per cent, of the amount claimed.

Throughout April British air activity over the Continent went on almost without cessation, no fewer than 67 major raids being made by daylight. According to the Air Ministry, these attacks had the effect of "pegging down" between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000 German soldiers, airmen, and civilians between Norway and Bordeaux and so indirectly brought considerable relief to Russia. Two blows were struck at the enemy which were considered to be of particular importance. One was the

destruction on April 19 of a factory in Augsburg which supplied a large part of the German U-boats with their Diesel engines. This was achieved in a daylight raid—the most daring and longest yet attempted—carried out by twelve bombers of which no fewer than seven failed to return. The other blow was a series of heavy raids on April 23 and the three following nights on the Baltic port of Rostock, one of the chief German bases of supply for the Russian front, and the home of the Heinkel aircraft works. Even more damage was done here than at Lubeck in the previous month. At sea also the Coastal Command opened its spring offensive early in May, and in six days succeeded in damaging at least eleven supply ships and a destroyer.

The Germans also at this time began to attack on a larger scale than for some months past. During the last week of April and the first week of May they carried out a number of rather heavy raids on Exeter, Bath, Norwich, and York, doing considerable damage to life and property, and making the casualty figures for April and May considerably higher than they had been for several months—938 and 998 for April, and 399 and 425 for May. These cities were devoid of war industries but full of precious historical monuments; and the Germans justified their attack on them as a reprisal for the damage done by the R.A.F. to historic buildings in Lubeck, ignoring the military objectives which had been aimed at there. As a reprisal the German raids were feeble; in the six nights, April 23-9, only 225 tons of bombs were dropped over England against 1,300 dropped in the same time over Germany by the R.A.F. In proportion to the weight of bombs dropped the German losses were also twice as high as the British.

On April 30 and for several days following, a determined attempt was made by German light surface forces, U-boats, and aircraft to prevent the safe passage through northern waters of two British convoys—one carrying important war supplies to Russia and the other consisting of homeward-bound ships which had already taken cargoes to North Russia. In the course of these operations H.M.S. *Edinburgh*, a cruiser of 10,000 tons, was struck twice by torpedoes, and had to be abandoned and sunk. In the end 90 per cent, of the supplies for Russia reached their destination, while of the home-bound convoy one ship was sunk. The Germans on their side lost at least one destroyer and several aircraft.

Through no fault of their own the British in Burma were unable long to hold the line they had taken up on the Irrawaddy below Mandalay. Towards the end of April the Japanese launched an attack on the Chinese from the Shan States east of Burma, which carried them with great rapidity to Lashio. From this point they turned back along the Burma Road and on May 1 **took** Mandalay, thus threatening the British from the rear.

The British therefore had no option but to make their way as best they could towards the Indian frontier. They began to retire along the valley of the Chindwin, constantly harassed by the Japanese and losing many men and much material, but fighting with great gallantry and stubbornness and avoiding encirclement. In the end about four-fifths of the British troops in Burma reached India in safety, having sacrificed, however, the whole of their heavy equipment. Burma was completely lost, the port of Akyab, the last British foothold in the country, having been abandoned early in the month.

Speaking to a Press Conference at Delhi on May 30, the British commander, General Alexander, said that the Japanese in Burma had had the advantage over his forces in the suitability of their equipment and their specialised training for jungle warfare. While they lived on the country and relied on pack ponies and porters for their transport requirements, the British with their mechanised transport were largely confined to the vicinity of roads, many of which were mere tracks unsuitable for heavy vehicles. The Japanese were also frequently helped by the inhabitants. It was true that not more than 10 per cent, of the population were actively pro-Japanese, and perhaps as many were pro-British, but the Japanese had organised their supporters long before the war, so that when the time came they could act as guides and Fifth Columnists.

The British reverses in Burma and the Bay of Bengal set critics at home once more searching for deficiencies in the supreme direction of the war. In an article in *The Times* on April 11 Sir E. Grigg, a former Under-Secretary for War, put forward the suggestion that matters might be improved if a single individual were placed at the head of the military organisation instead of the present Chiefs-of-Staff Committee. This idea found influential support in a debate in the House of Lords on April 15. It was indirectly combated by the Government in a White Paper, published on April 21, entitled "The Organisation for Joint Planning," in which the existing method of conducting the strategy of the war was clearly set forth. Emphasis was laid on the fact that the three Chiefs-of-Staff lived and worked together in the same offices and thus learned "to think and act in terms not of three separate units assisting each other for a common end, but of a single fighting unit animated by the same spirit and the same conception of a common task"; and that the same was true of the Joint Planning Staff which acted under their directions. The inference was thus left to be drawn that the substitution for the Chiefs-of-Staff Committee of a single individual was quite unnecessary.

The Government's memorandum was discussed by the House of Lords on May 5, when a number of speakers criticised various points and reiterated the demand for a single head of the military

organisation. The Lord Chancellor, in reply, maintained that the present system was producing very good results, and that the change advocated would fit in better with the dictatorship of Germany than with the British parliamentary system. Before adopting it therefore they should make sure that there did not lurk in it dangers and difficulties which might only show themselves after the decision had been taken. Whilst remaining firm on this point, however, the Government took note of the criticism that sufficient use was not being made of the services of scientists in the central control of the war; and it was announced by the Minister of War on the same day that a special scientific adviser would be appointed to the Army Council.

The Japanese threat to the Indian Ocean brought into relief the strategic importance of Madagascar, which lay right athwart the British lines of communication with India and the Far East. It was well known to the British Government that the Japanese had long had designs on the island. Assurances had been received from the French authorities that on no account would the place be handed over to the Japanese, but no reliance whatever was placed on them. Almost from the beginning of the war with Japan the Government had considered the advisability of occupying the island beforehand, and for some months they had been making preparations for such a step if it should become necessary. It was now decided that the time had come to strike. On May 5 a British naval and land force landed at Courier Bay in the north of the island, the approaches to which had been heavily mined, and marched towards the naval base of Diego Suarez. The French troops defending the base made some show of resistance, but the town of Diego Suarez on the north side of the harbour was taken on the same day, and that of Antisarana on the other side on the next day. The British losses were about 500 men. For the time being the British did not penetrate further, and they sought to gain French co-operation by announcing that their occupation would be purely military, and that the island would be handed back to France intact at the end of hostilities.

On May 13 the Home Guard celebrated its second anniversary, and to mark his appreciation of its services the King assumed the appointment of Colonel-in-Chief of the force. Its strength now stood at about 1,500,000 men, mostly well equipped and trained, and it had recently taken over from the Regular Army certain important duties of anti-aircraft and coast defence. It was described by the Prime Minister as "an invaluable addition to the armed forces and an essential part of the effective defence of the island," especially against the danger of invasion from the air.

On April 21 the President of the Board of Trade informed the House of Commons that, in accordance with the announcement

he had already made on March 17, he would in the near future introduce a comprehensive rationing of coal, gas, and electricity. The object would be to reduce the consumption of coal by an eighth, and so save about 10,000,000 tons a year ; and the basis of the scheme would be a report prepared for him by Sir William Beveridge, after a month of intensive labour. The report, which was published on April 28, stated that the only principles on which fuel rationing could be attempted with any hope of success were that the scheme should include all important fuels, *i.e.* paraffin as well as coal; that it should possess a points system with interchangeable coupons, fix the ration by assessment of present needs and not as a percentage of consumption in a datum period, and compel registration of consumers with suppliers to control distribution. The plan contained in the report was in consequence not a little complicated, and was estimated to require for its working some 15,000 temporary clerks.

After hearing Mr. Dalton's statement, a number of speakers questioned the necessity of rationing coal, on the ground that an easier way of meeting the need would be by increasing production ; and the Minister promised that he would not bring the scheme into operation before allowing Parliament to discuss it. In the course of the next few days he had interviews with representatives of the chief political parties, in which he convinced them both that it was absolutely necessary to cut down the consumption of coal, and also that this could only be effected by some kind of rationing. Most of them, however, still held that the plan submitted by Sir William Beveridge was too expensive and complicated, and that some simpler scheme could be devised.

The House of Commons discussed the question of fuel rationing on May 7, when the President of the Board of Trade informed it that the Government had substantially adopted the Beveridge scheme. He emphasised the urgent need of procuring a great reduction in consumption at once if they were not to be faced with a serious shortage at the opening of next winter. He admitted that the deficiency could be met by bringing some fifteen to thirty thousand miners back from the Army. This solution, however, he ruled out, as it would mean breaking up numbers of whole battalions, and that at a time when they might need all the fighting men they could call upon to shorten the war and bring victory. He stated that the Government were not tied to the Beveridge scheme, and were willing to consider alternatives.

In the debate which followed a number of speakers from the Conservative benches expressed strong dislike of a coupon system for fuel. One of them, Sir A. Gridley, proposed an alternative scheme, the essence of which was that while coal, coke, and paraffin should be rationed through the distributors, the consumption of gas and electricity should be cut down by means of

penal charges on any excess over a given quantity. Others **thought** that appeals for voluntary reductions might produce **the** desired result. Labour speakers for the most part approved of the coupon system, but called for a reorganisation of the industry in order to increase production. In replying to the debate Sir Stafford Cripps pointed out that Sir A. Gridley's scheme would provide golden opportunities for the creation of a "black market" in coal and coke, and that if they relied on voluntary reduction they would be in no position to know if it had actually been carried out; nor would they be able to attain a fair distribution, which was one of the chief objects of the scheme. He announced that the Government were earnestly considering the reorganisation of the coal industry, and that a White Paper containing its definitive plans would be published in a few days.

After the debate the Conservative opposition to a coupon system showed no signs of abating, and pressure was applied to the Government to withdraw it. This was so far successful that on May 13 Sir Stafford Cripps announced that a White Paper would not be issued nor would a debate take place, as had been intended, before Whitsun. Instead, the Government would submit to the House after Whitsun a proposal covering both the production and the consumption of coal and the reorganisation of the coal industry.

On May 19 the report was published of the Committee which had been appointed in February, under the chairmanship of Sir W. Citrine, to study the question of Regional Boards for production (*vide* p. 20). The Committee stated that an efficient regional organisation was an essential element in the effective prosecution of the war, provided there was a properly articulated system of devolution of executive authority. Its chief recommendation was that each region should have a regional director of production, a man of wide industrial experience and local knowledge appointed on a full-time basis, to concert and supervise the activities of the regional controllers of the Government Supply Departments. Before placing main contracts in any region the Supply Departments should inform the Regional Boards and consider any objections they might raise. The Regional Director of Production should have power to determine, after discussion with the Executive Committee or the Board, all disputed questions affecting the local allocation of machine tools, premises, raw materials, and labour. The Boards themselves should consist of the Regional Director as chairman, the Regional representatives of the Admiralty, Ministry of Supply, Ministry of Aircraft Production, and Board of Trade, the Regional Controller of the Ministry of Labour, and three representatives each of employers and workpeople. Each Board should subdivide its region into districts, each with its own office which should **act** as a production clearing centre for the district.

The Committee also recommended that a National Production Advisory Council should be established to advise the Minister of Production on general production questions, excluding such as were normally handled by the joint organisations of trade unions and employers. It should consist of eleven members, one from each of the Regional Boards, appointed by the Minister of Production from the two vice-chairmen of each Board, three representatives of the British Employers' Confederation, three of the Federation of British Industries, and six representatives of the Trades Union Congress, appointed by the Minister from nominations submitted by those bodies.

A memorandum was attached to the report stating that subject to one or two modifications the Government accepted its recommendations and would take immediate steps to give them practical effect. In the House of Commons the Minister said it was a matter of satisfaction that the views of the report tallied closely with those set forth by the Select Committee on National Expenditure in its eighth report. He also announced that he would take the greatest care over the appointment of the regional controllers, because he regarded that post as one of the most important in the field of national production.

On May 10, the second anniversary of his accession to the Premiership, Mr. Churchill delivered a broadcast address in which he dwelt on the great improvement which had taken place in the position of the nation since the dark days of 1940. He assured the public that the Government were no less permeated with the "offensive spirit" than they themselves, and were only waiting for a suitable opportunity to strike. He also took occasion to announce that if the Germans used poison gas in Russia—as they were reported to be intending to do—the British Air Force would at once be instructed to drop gas bombs on German cities, regardless of any reprisals which they might draw on England itself by so doing.

Before breaking up for the Whitsuntide recess the House of Commons, on May 19, heard from the Deputy Prime Minister a review of the war situation. Mr. Attlee pointed out that their strategic position in the Far East was very weak, as they could not provide adequate defences at every point which was threatened, nor would it be safe to effect a concentration of their major forces at one point before Japan had revealed her main objective. In the West the task of conveying supplies to Russia by the Murmansk route placed a great strain on their naval forces and mercantile marine. Still, every month increased their strength and gave them more cause for believing that their position would steadily improve and that in due course they would change from the defensive to the offensive.

The real purpose of the debate was to give members an opportunity of airing their views on the question of the organisation

of the supreme command. Mr. Attlee himself spoke at length on the subject, maintaining that in the existing organisation they had a workable machine which did not need fundamental change. This was not the opinion of most of the speakers who followed, but they were by no means agreed on the precise change which was required ; of those who advocated a president of the Chiefs-of-Staff Committee other than the Prime Minister some thought that he should be a Service officer, others a civilian, some that he should be a Minister, others not. A number of speakers showed a distinct animus against the Prime Minister, alleging that he used his position as Minister of Defence to impose his own ideas of strategy both on the Chiefs-of-Staff Committee and on the War Cabinet. This was emphatically denied both by Mr. Attlee and by Sir Stafford Cripps. Mr. Churchill himself, though his presence was loudly called for, did not put in an appearance during the debate.

Besides continuing to give Russia all the military aid in her power, England now entered into new and closer diplomatic ties with that country. Ever since Mr. Eden's visit to Moscow at the end of 1941 discussions had been going on between the two countries with a view to securing their co-operation, not only in prosecuting the war but also in the post-war organisation of peace and security in Europe. To clinch these discussions Mr. Molotov, the Russian Foreign Minister, on the suggestion of the British Government, came to England on May 21, accompanied by numerous diplomatic and military advisers. After a series of conversations between him and British Ministers, in which Mr. Maisky, the Russian Ambassador, played a prominent part, a treaty between the two countries was signed on May 26. Both Mr. Molotov's visit and the treaty were kept as secret as possible until he had returned to Moscow—after a visit to America—on June 11, when at length they were disclosed to the House of Commons by the Foreign Secretary.

By the treaty¹ the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics reaffirmed their determination to afford one another all possible assistance in the war, and not to enter into any negotiations with the Hitlerite Government, or any other Government in Germany which did not clearly renounce all aggressive intentions, and not to negotiate or conclude except by mutual consent any armistice or peace treaty with Germany or any other State associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe. The two countries also agreed that they would, when peace was re-established, work together for the organisation of security and economic prosperity in Europe, taking into account the interests of the United Nations, and guided by the two principles of not seeking territorial aggrandisement for themselves, and of not interfering in the internal affairs of other

¹For the full text of the treaty, see under Public Documents.

States. The two Governments went on to declare their desire "to unite with all other like-minded States in adopting proposals for common action to preserve peace and resist aggression in the post-war period." Meanwhile, "when the war was ended, they would take all measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe." The treaty was to remain in force for twenty years unless some long-term system of international security had been established in the meanwhile.

Mr. Eden added that he had also discussed all aspects of the war with Mr. Molotov, and that full understanding had been reached between the two parties with regard to the urgent task of creating a second front in Europe in 1942. He welcomed the signature of the treaty as affording an indispensable basis for European reconstruction, but pointed out that this did not mean that their two nations would alone be responsible for the peace of Europe when the war was won, that being a burden to be shared by all the United Nations.

Meanwhile Britain continued to send to North Russian ports the supplies which she had promised, in spite of the dangers caused at this season by the presence of ice on the route and the absence of any period of darkness which could afford a respite from enemy attacks. One large convoy had to run the gauntlet of continuous attack for five days, between May 25 and 30, from a strong enemy force of bombers, dive-bombers, and torpedo-carrying aircraft. It eventually reached its destination, however, with the loss of seven vessels.

The Annual Conference of the Labour Party was opened in London on May 25, under the chairmanship of Mr. W. H. Green, M.P., the first member of the Co-operative Party to hold that position. The first resolution before the conference, moved by Mr. Attlee, reaffirmed the party's belief in the necessity for achieving total victory over the country's enemies, and expressed warm approval of the part played by the Labour Party in the present Government and in organising the resources of the people for their supreme effort. This latter clause met with some opposition, and an amendment was moved to delete it. Mr. Herbert Morrison rallied the supporters of the amendment on being obsessed with a perpetual "minority" or "inferiority complex," and told them that they would do better to note the achievements of Labour Ministers than to spend so much time in writing down their stock. The amendment was vigorously supported in the debate, but on a card vote was defeated by 2,319,000 votes to 164,000.

On the third day the Executive at very short notice laid before the conference a proposal to extend the electoral truce by authorising the party to give active support at by-elections to

candidates belonging to other parties. Hitherto the electoral truce entered into at the beginning of the war had been interpreted to mean only that the Labour Party should not actively oppose candidates from other parties in constituencies which had previously been held by those parties, though of late Mr. Attlee had gone a step further by giving an official endorsement in one or two cases to non-Labour candidates. For a long time this arrangement worked satisfactorily, and all the independent candidates who had tried their fortune had been hopelessly defeated. Recently, however, the electorate had shown signs of becoming restive under its virtual disfranchisement; on March 26 an independent candidate was returned at Grantham, and on April 30 Independents were returned at Liverpool and Rugby. In all these cases the Government candidates were Conservatives. The Executive became apprehensive lest as the result of its passivity a new Independent Party might be formed, and it now sought powers to throw its whole weight on the side of non-Labour Government candidates. The proposal met with strong opposition, and after a somewhat stormy debate was carried only by 1,275,000 votes to 1,209,000—a majority of 66,000.

On the second day the conference considered a resolution affirming that after the war there should be no return to an unplanned competitive society, and that the socialisation of the basic industries and services and the planning of production for community consumption were the only foundations for a just and prosperous economic order. This was agreed to after an amendment urging the carrying out as a first step of the proposals contained in "Labour's Immediate Programme," adopted at the 1938 conference, had been defeated by 2,111,000 votes to 139,000. A motion approving the establishment of a National Board to plan and organise the coal industry was carried unanimously. A motion advocating a comprehensive scheme of social security after the war was also adopted, after an amendment to exclude from the resolution a scheme of family allowances had been defeated by 1,718,000 votes to 690,000.

In its concluding session on May 28 the conference rejected by an overwhelming majority a resolution to remove the prohibition against members of the Labour Party co-operating with the Communist Party. In defiance of the Executive, however, it carried by 1,244,000 votes to 1,231,000 a motion protesting against the continuance of the ban on the *Daily Worker*. Motions were also passed advocating continued collaboration with Soviet Russia after the war, endorsing the Atlantic Charter, and calling on both the British Government and the peoples of India to make a further effort to reach a settlement.

On the night of May 30 the Royal Air Force crowned a month of increased offensive with a raid of unprecedented intensity

on Cologne and its immediate neighbourhood. The number of planes sent over—1130—was twice, as great and their carrying capacity four times as great as that of the largest air force ever before directed on one objective. The tactics adopted were also novel; the whole of the attack was concentrated within a space of ninety minutes, in order to confuse the defenders and prevent them from taking aim. The havoc wrought was proportionate to the means employed, and threw into the shade the achievements of the R.A.F. at Lubeck and Rostock. The British losses were 45 planes, or about 4 per cent. Forty-eight hours later a similar high-speed raid was carried out by 1036 planes on a somewhat larger area in the Ruhr district, round Essen; on this occasion 31 British planes were lost. These raids attracted world-wide attention, and aroused new interest in the potentialities of the R.A.F. as a factor in the war.

By this time the lull in the fighting in Libya which had supervened in February had come to an end. In April and most of May, as in March, military activity had been confined to patrol skirmishes and air raids which had brought no change in the situation. Both sides, however, while retaining the positions which they had taken up in February, had been busy repairing their losses in the winter campaign and preparing to renew the conflict, regardless of the approach of the hot, season. The British as usual had been vigilant at sea, and had not failed to score some important successes; early in April a British submarine sank a large Italian cruiser in the Central Mediterranean, towards the end of the month four heavily laden Italian supply ships were sunk, and on May 12 British aircraft shot down off the coast of Africa thirteen German troop-carrying aeroplanes full of soldiers. Nevertheless, large reinforcements had managed to reach General Rommel from Italy, under cover of an intense air bombardment of Malta carried out through April and the earlier part of May. His force was now reckoned to be at least as large and well equipped as it had been at the beginning of the previous campaign, with not less than 600 tanks. The British had also been reinforced, and had provided themselves with a new and heavier type of tank, besides greatly improving their arrangements for repairs on the battle-field.

After some preliminary air raids on both sides, the offensive was resumed by General Rommel on the evening of May 26. A strong German armoured force with a large number of tanks made its way round Bir Hakeim, at the southern end of the British line, which stretched from Gazala to Bir Hakeim in a series of fortified posts with mine-fields between, and proceeded in a north-easterly direction towards Tobruk. At the same time an Italian force attacked Bir Hakeim itself, which was held by Free French troops. General Ritchie, who was himself on the point of launching an offensive, was not taken unawares,

and the British offered a stiff resistance. A major tank battle soon developed in the desert behind the British advanced line, with its centre at a place nicknamed "Knightsbridge," south of Acroma on the road known as the Trigh Capuzzo. The Italian attempt to take Bir Hakeim was beaten off with heavy loss.

The tank battle raged furiously for several days in spite of the great heat. The British Air Force wrought havoc on the enemy's communications, and in this quarter Rommel was unable to make progress. He was rather more successful in an attack which he made on the British line somewhat south of Gazala, piercing two gaps in the minefield, about ten miles apart, on each side of a fortified post. Through these he withdrew as much as he could of his battered armoured forces. The British claimed to have put out of action no fewer than 300 German and Italian tanks. Their own losses were also heavy, but being in possession of the field they were able to salvage a great number. Rommel's main forces still remained intact, but his first attempt to take Tobruk had been definitely foiled.

In a despatch which he sent home recording these events, General Auchinleck paid a tribute to the "skill, determination, and pertinacity" shown by General Ritchie and his Corps Commanders, and dwelt on the excellent performance of the American General Grant tanks. The Prime Minister found the despatch so cheering that he read it to the House of Commons in place of a statement of his own, adding that they clearly had every reason to be satisfied with the course which the battle had taken so far. And indeed, though General Auchinleck had pointed out that the issue was not yet decided, it seemed safe to assume that the Eighth Army was fully a match for its opponents and could be trusted to render a good account of itself. The King sent out his congratulations to General Ritchie, and the public awaited further developments with calm confidence.

The Government's promised White Paper on the coal problem was issued on June 3. As compared with the proposals put forward before Whitsuntide it was found to represent a complete change of policy. The plan of rationing fuel was deferred, and a solution was sought in a reorganisation of the industry, backed up by appeals to consumers for voluntary restriction. The Ministry of Mines was to be replaced by a new Ministry of Fuel, Light, and Power, which would absorb the Mines and Petroleum Departments of the Board of Trade and which would also take over such responsibilities for gas and electricity as were at present assigned to the Board. The first holder of the new office would be Major Gwilym Lloyd George, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Food, whose place would be taken by Mr. W. Mabane, Parliamentary Secretary to the Home Office. The new Minister would take full control over the operation of all coal-mines and the allocation of the coal raised. He would

be assisted by a Controller-General and by Regional Controllers for each separate district. He would also be advised by a National Coal Board appointed by himself and comprising representatives of coal-owners and miners, a number of pit managers and colliery technicians, and representatives of distributors and consumers. It would be the function of the Board to make recommendations on practically all matters affecting the running of the industry except finance. Similarly, the Regional Controllers would be advised by Boards of owners, miners, managers, and technicians on means of achieving maximum production. Questions of wages would lie out of the purview of the new Ministry, but the Government would discuss with both sides of the industry the possibility of creating new machinery for dealing with them.

Annexed to the White Paper was a rationing scheme which for the present was to be held in reserve, but which could be introduced at short notice if need should arise. It was in essentials the same as the Beveridge scheme which had been introduced before Whitsuntide, but somewhat simplified in details. It was estimated to require the permanent services of some 4,000 staff, besides some 8,000 temporary clerks for the preparation and issuing of the ration books. It was estimated that the allowances of fuel specified in it would entail no reduction for a quarter of the total households, but would mean a somewhat smaller supply for the remaining three-quarters.

A Bill embodying the Government's proposals was submitted to the House of Commons by Sir John Anderson, the Lord President of the Council, on June 10. He admitted that the Government would have preferred to introduce rationing at once. The reason they had not done so was because, as it involved complications and a certain amount of trouble and inconvenience, it was very important that the public should be reasonably satisfied of its necessity ; and recent discussions both in the House and outside had shown that conviction on that point at the present moment was lacking. It might be possible after all to get on without rationing ; and in any case the Government would not introduce it without giving the House the opportunity of further debate, if it desired. The primary object of the Bill was to procure an increase in production. If for this purpose the Government had not simply requisitioned the mines, the reason was not that they had any objection to requisitioning in itself, but because the experiment made on those lines in the last war had not been a great success.

The Government scheme for controlling the industry was obviously a compromise, and as such was little to the taste either of the owners or the miners ; it went much too far for the former without going far enough to satisfy the latter. Hence on its first publication it had been subjected to strong criticism both in

Conservative and Labour quarters. Both sides, however, found a good deal in the White Paper of which to approve ; the Conservatives were gratified by the postponement of rationing, and especially by the Government's promise not to introduce it without further consulting the House, and the Labour Party by the very real measure of control introduced. An announcement by the Government that the motion would be treated as one of confidence also acted as a check on factious opposition. Hence the objections to the scheme, after being fully ventilated in a two-day debate, were not carried to the division lobby ; an amendment from the I.L.P. calling for the nationalisation of the mines was defeated by 329 votes to 8, and the motion was then approved without a division.

Among the factors which were hampering production in the coal-fields was the discontent prevailing among the miners with the existing rates of wages. This had led recently to a number of local strikes and a good deal of absenteeism. At the end of May the Miners' Federation put forward demands for an increase of 4s. a week and a minimum wage of 41. 5s. After the Joint Consultative Committee representing the miners and the owners had failed to reach an agreement, the matter was referred to the Government. A Board of Investigation was set up which, on June 24, recommended an unconditional flat rate addition of 2s. 6d. a shift to wages of all workers over 21, and all underground workers between 18 and 21, and a national wage minimum for all workers over 21 at the rate of 83s. a week for underground workers and 78s. a week for surface workers, to take effect retroactively from June 1. These recommendations were immediately accepted by both sides.

On June 5, following the recommendation of the Citrine Committee (*vide* p. 38), a central co-ordinating committee was appointed to remodel the regional production boards which were charged with the local supervision of war industry. On June 30 the new regional machinery was brought into operation with the appointment of eleven regional controllers of production, who were also chairmen of the regional boards. Each board had an executive which was a replica of the Minister of Production's joint war production staff, and each was represented by a vice-chairman on the National Production Advisory Council. The boards subdivided their regions into districts to which there was a further devolution of executive authority.

At the "beginning of June the Minister of Production, Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, went to Washington in order to concert with his " opposite numbers " in the United States measures for linking together still more closely the war production efforts of Great Britain and America. On June 9 it was announced by the Prime Minister that as a result of their discussions there had been established two new bodies complementary to the already

existing Boards dealing with the allocation of munitions, shipping, and raw materials. One was a Combined Production and Resources Board, consisting of the chairman of the War Production Board in the United States and the Minister of Production in England, the function of which would be to combine the production programmes of both countries into a single integrated programme, adjusted to the strategic requirements of the war, and to all relevant production factors. It would work in close collaboration with the Combined Chiefs-of-Staff in order to adjust the production programme to meet changing military requirements. The other body was a Combined Food Board composed of the Secretary of Agriculture for the United States and Mr. R. H. Brand, the head of the British Food Mission in America. The function of this Board would be to utilise to the best advantage the food resources of both countries, which should be regarded as forming a common pool, and to collaborate for this purpose with others of the United Nations and with all nations interested.

On his return on June 24 Mr. Lyttelton stated that American production had passed the British about fifty days before it was expected to. The peak of British production was in sight and would be reached in a few months, the limiting factor being manpower. But in America no peak could be foreseen other than that provided by raw materials, and the programme was on such a vast scale that raw materials had become an important factor. He announced that aircraft production in the United States and Great Britain exceeded by a substantial margin the total production of the Axis including Japan, and this was leaving out of account Russian production.

On June 8 the appointment was announced of a Minister Resident of Cabinet rank in West Africa. The appointment was modelled on that of Minister of State in the Middle East, and its chief purpose was to ensure the effective co-operation in the prosecution of the war of all Services, civil and military, throughout the British Colonies in West Africa, which were becoming increasingly important for communications with the Middle East and the Americas, and as sources of raw materials. The first holder of the new post was Lord Swinton, chairman of the United Kingdom Commercial Corporation (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1940, p. 27), who thus occupied a position analogous to that of Mr. Casey at Cairo.

By this time the second phase of the battle in Libya was in full swing. Undeterred by his setback General Rommel on June 2 renewed the attack, and this time with very different success. He first managed to overrun the British positions between the two gaps, which he thus turned into a "bulge." Here he concentrated a formidable force with which to strike eastwards. The British offered a stubborn resistance, and prevented him from advancing further; but their own efforts to

push back the "bulge" proved unavailing. After a few days of very fierce fighting in this neighbourhood, Rommel directed his main effort to Bir Hakeim, where the Free French had already repulsed numerous assaults. A large force of Germans and Italians was concentrated round this place, which was also subjected to continuous dive-bombing. The British for some reason found it difficult to bring up reinforcements, and on the night of June 10 General Ritchie ordered the Free French garrison to evacuate it, after a most gallant resistance of sixteen days.

The results of the abandonment of Bir Hakeim proved much more serious than the British had anticipated. The Germans pushed north-east with unexpected strength and rapidity, and the British soon found themselves fiercely attacked in the neighbourhood of El Adem. They succeeded in barring the enemy's advance in this direction, but turning north he reached the Trigh Capuzzo road and joined the German forces from the "bulge." By this movement not only were the British compelled to give up "Knightsbridge," but the British forces at Gazala found themselves in danger of being surrounded, and succeeded in extricating themselves only with the greatest difficulty.

The abandonment of the Gazala-Bir Hakeim line was only the beginning of the British misfortunes. A new line was formed 30 to 40 miles further east, running from Acroma through El Adem to Sidi Rezegh, and well in front of the perimeter of Tobruk, from which the enemy was still 15 miles away. From here a British force issued on June 13 to give battle. In some unexplained way it fell into an ambush, and in the course of a few days, of its three hundred tanks no fewer than two hundred and thirty were put out of action.

This was a greater loss than the British could stand. From this point it was no longer a question of holding the enemy back or of maintaining a foothold in Libya, but of saving the Eighth Army itself from destruction. The utmost that the British could do was to draw back in good order, and with as little loss as possible. By June 19 the bulk of the forces had been successfully withdrawn to the Egyptian frontier, on a line from Solium to Sidi Omar. As in the preceding year a force of some strength was left in Tobruk, and it was confidently expected, both in Africa and in England, that it would render as good an account of itself as its predecessor. This hope was disappointed. After advancing close up to the British positions at Halfaya Pass, Rommel on June 20 turned back and assaulted Tobruk with great fury. His first onslaught carried him within the perimeter of the defences. The garrison resisted fiercely and inflicted great losses on the enemy. After twenty-four hours, however, the situation had become hopeless, and in order to prevent further bloodshed the officer in command surrendered.

The loss of the rest of Cyrenaica had already shaken the

British public out of the complacency which had been induced by the first successes of the Eighth Army and the optimistic official comments on the situation. But the surrender of Tobruk, with the loss of thousands of men and much valuable material, stung it to the quick and filled it with both anger and despondency, much as the loss of Singapore had done four months before. From a military point of view, it was true, the loss of Libya with Tobruk was not nearly so serious as that of Malaya with Singapore ; the possession of Libya, though useful, was after all not of vital importance for Britain, and the enemy was still a long way from Egypt, with the Eighth Army and the desert between. But the blow was felt more keenly because it was more unexpected ; it gave an even greater shock to the confidence of the public in the direction of military affairs both at home and on the spot. If this could happen anything could happen ; the enemy seemed suddenly to have developed a marked and decisive superiority over the British forces opposing him, and there was no telling how far he would be able to exploit it.

At sea also the British at this time were finding it increasingly difficult to maintain their position in the Mediterranean. On June 12 a convoy sailing from Gibraltar to Malta was sighted by enemy aircraft before it reached the Sardinia-North Africa Channel, and had to run the gauntlet of an air attack and the threat of an attack by two enemy cruisers and four destroyers. In the fighting which took place the British lost one light cruiser, four destroyers, and two escort vessels, and the enemy one heavy cruiser, two destroyers, and one submarine. In the air the British shot down 65 aircraft for the loss of 30 of their own. The convoy eventually reached Malta. Simultaneously, another convoy had been sent out to Malta from Alexandria, but on June 14 it found its way barred by a strong enemy squadron and had to turn back—not, however, before an enemy cruiser had been sunk by a British submarine.

Shortly before the fall of Tobruk the Prime Minister had left London by air for America in order to pay his third visit to President Roosevelt within a twelvemonth. In his absence it fell to Mr. Attlee to give a report to the House of Commons on the war position (June 23). Mr. Attlee stated that though the situation was difficult the fight for Libya was continuing, and that substantial reinforcements were arriving, while others were on their way. The House was anxious to discuss the situation, but it accepted Mr. Attlee's suggestion that the debate should be postponed for a few days until the position in Africa had become clearer, and also until perhaps the Prime Minister might have returned from America.

Speeches made at this sitting showed that the House was in a highly critical mood, and that it was determined if possible to find out the real causes of the British reverses. The events of

the next few days were not calculated to improve its temper. The line taken up by the British on the Egyptian frontier was rendered untenable by the fall of Tobruk, and was abandoned by them on June 25. They fell back in good order to Mersah Matruh, which had been General Wavell's outpost against the Italians in 1940. Rommel, however, soon showed that he was a different kind of foe from Graziani, and attacking impetuously, forced the British to evacuate this position also on June 28, claiming the capture of 6,000 prisoners. General Auchinleck, who had now assumed personal command of the Eighth Army, thereupon took up a line at El Alamein, 65 miles west of Alexandria, between the sea and the marshy depression of El Qattarah ; and here Rommel commenced a furious assault on July 1.

One cause of the British failure was not in dispute. It was the inferiority in striking power of the British tanks and anti-tank guns. Already in the winter campaign it had been shown that the light tank used by the British was not really a match for the heavier Mark IV of the Germans. At the beginning of this campaign the British had possessed a certain number of heavier American tanks, known as "General Grants/" which proved very effective. Once these were put out of action, however, the disparity between the British and German tank forces became very marked. The Germans on this occasion also brought into play a much improved anti-tank gun which did great execution on the British machines. Hence, on the ground the British suffered from an inferiority which was by no means compensated by their slight superiority in the air.

The question which above all agitated the mind of the public was, what was the reason for this inferiority, and who was to blame ? Was it the Government at home, or the local Commanders, or some intermediate person or body ? Most responsible people were content to reserve judgment on these questions till further information should be available. Certain members of Parliament, however, were not so patient. Led by Sir J. Wardlaw-Milne, a member of the Conservative 1922 Committee, who had on more than one occasion before this shown a strong personal bias against Mr. Churchill, they at once jumped to the conclusion that it was the Prime Minister who was chiefly to blame ; and in order to ventilate this opinion they gave notice of a motion that the House " while paying tribute to the heroism and endurance of the armed forces in circumstances of exceptional difficulty, had no confidence in the central direction of the war."

Mr. Churchill returned to London from Washington on June 27. A joint statement issued on the same day reported that his conferences with President Roosevelt had covered very fully all of the major problems of the war. In the matter of

the production of munitions of all kinds their survey gave on the whole an optimistic picture. The previously planned monthly output had not reached the maximum, but was fast approaching it on schedule. Transportation still constituted the major problem of the Allied Nations, owing to the toll taken by Axis submarines of cargo ships. The actual production of new tonnage was, however, greatly increasing month by month, and steps had been planned at the conference for further reducing the toll of naval and merchant shipping. Discussions had been held with the military advisers for assisting China, and operations had been planned for diverting German strength from the attack on Russia. There was no doubt in the minds of the President and the Prime Minister that the over-all picture was more favourable to victory than it had been at either of their previous meetings in August and December, 1941.

The debate on the vote of censure was fixed to open on July 1. By this time Mersa Matruh had fallen, Rommel had passed the aerodrome of El Daba, and Alexandria was obviously in imminent danger. Whether in such circumstances it was fitting to hold the debate at all was open to question ; and before it commenced a private member appealed to the opener to defer his motion till the present battle had reached a definite conclusion. Sir J. Wardlaw-Milne replied that he was willing to do so if the Prime Minister desired. Mr. Churchill thereupon remarked that the announcement of the motion had aroused great attention in all parts of the world. The stability of British institutions and the strength of the Government were by no means so well understood abroad as in England itself, and therefore in his opinion it would be even more injurious to withdraw the motion than to go forward with it.

Sir J. Wardlaw-Milne then formally moved the vote of censure. He maintained that the chief mistake to which their failures were due was the combining in one person of the offices of Prime Minister and Minister of Defence. The two tasks were too much for any one man, and he called for the appointment of a separate Minister of Defence who would give his whole time to that work. He also asserted that the Army in Libya was inadequately equipped, and that this fact reflected the greatest discredit on the Government at home.

After the motion had been seconded by Sir Roger Keyes, the first speech on behalf of the Government was made by Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, the Minister of Production. Mr. Lyttelton confined himself to the question of equipment. He now admitted that the equipment of the British in this campaign had been definitely inferior to that of the Germans, and that the Government had been fully aware of this. The inferiority was in weight rather than in quantity ; and the reason why they had no sufficient heavy material was that for some time after the

defeat of France they had had to devote their chief efforts to producing arms which would be serviceable for defence against invasion, and for which a lighter calibre was sufficient. He assured the House, however, that heavier weapons suitable for the Libyan campaign were now being produced in great quantities, and that they would soon reach the front.

The Minister of Production's speech was not calculated to make members less critical of the Government, and in the two days' debate which followed speakers expressed their mind with great freedom on its supposed shortcomings. Very few, however, even of the strongest critics supported the vote of no confidence. The debate was wound up by the Prime Minister himself. He did not minimise the gravity of the situation, which, he said, "confronted them with a recession of their hopes and prospects in the Middle East and in the Mediterranean unequalled since the fall of France." How this had been brought about he said little to explain. Certainly the loss of two hundred and thirty tanks on June 13—which he now revealed for the first time—had had a crippling effect on their forces, but it was not regarded in itself at the time as decisive; the Sollum-Halfaya line could still have been held, had it not been for the sudden fall of Tobruk (the news of which had reached him while he was in the United States). This, Mr. Churchill stated, was a complete surprise both to himself and to General Auchinleck. Tobruk had been provisioned for ninety days, and was expected to hold out until reinforcements could arrive. The decision to surrender was taken by the commander of the forces on the spot. Mr. Churchill insisted that the overpowering and driving back of the army in Libya was not due to any conscious or wilful grudging of reinforcements in men or material. During the last two years there had gone altogether to the Middle East from England, from the Empire overseas and to a lesser extent from the United States, more than 950,000 men, 4,500 tanks, 6,000 aircraft, nearly 5,000 pieces of artillery, 50,000 machine-guns, and over 100,000 mechanical vehicles—this at a period when for a large part of the time they were threatened with imminent invasion at home and during the rest of it were sending large supplies to Russia.

In conclusion, Mr. Churchill reminded Parliament that it ought to be a steady stabilising factor in the State and not an instrument by which the disaffected sections of the Press could attempt to promote one crisis after another. The duty of the House of Commons was either to sustain the Government or to change it. As for the suggestion that the offices of Prime Minister and Minister of Defence should be separated, he had already in a previous debate given reason why this was out of the question. The world was watching the issue of this debate, and nothing could hearten their friends more than to make the attempt to censure the Government recoil upon its authors.

Mr. Churchill had said little to allay the anxieties of the House ; he had thrown practically no light on the causes of the recent reverses, nor had he given any assurance that they would be removed. Nevertheless, the division lists testified once more to his power of swaying the House by his oratory. That the motion would be heavily defeated had been a foregone conclusion from an early point in the debate. The Government victory was, however, much more complete than had been expected. No fewer than 476 members voted against the motion, and only 25 for it, while of the members present about forty abstained from voting. The effect of the ill-judged attempt to weaken Mr. Churchill's position was to render it stronger than ever.

In reply to a challenge thrown out by Mr. Hore-Belisha earlier in the debate, Mr. Churchill expanded the remark in the official statement on his visit to Washington, that the over-all picture of the situation was more favourable than it had been six months before. He said this was due to three main facts, which more than counterbalanced their losses in Asia, their defeats in Libya, and the increased sinkings off the American coast. One was the steady resistance of Russia to the invaders of her soil, the fact that even yet no major offensive had been opened by the Germans there. The second was the growth of the air power on the side of the Allies. The third was the great improvement in the position of Australia, New Zealand, and India, due chiefly to the American naval victories in the Coral Sea and at Midway Island.

Luckily for Mr. Churchill the military position in Egypt did not further deteriorate. After its long retreat the Eighth Army at length turned at bay at El Alamein and—thanks chiefly to the efforts of a South African brigade—successfully repulsed the furious assaults made on it by Rommel from July 1 to 3. It then itself took the offensive and captured the Tel el Eisa height to the west of El Alamein, thus forming a salient in the enemy's line. This rendered it comparatively safe for the time being, unless Rommel should receive heavy reinforcements. On the other hand General Auchinleck was also unable to launch a real counter-offensive without much stronger forces than he had at his disposal. Egypt and the Suez Canal, therefore, though no longer immediately threatened, could not yet be considered out of danger.

The question how far deficiencies in equipment were hampering the British war effort was thrashed out in the House of Commons on July 14 and 15. From the statement made by the Minister of Production it did not appear that there was now at any rate any marked failure to produce the right weapons. He claimed that the British aeronautical industry led the world in adaptability to the changing conditions which air fighting brought, and that the lead in the air, particularly in regard to

quality, with which they started was being maintained. **In the field** of artillery they had no reason to fear comparison with the Germans ; gun for gun they could more than match them. He could also assure the House that they were making the right tanks now and were going to make them in the future. Altogether production was going well. It had enormously expanded even since the beginning of 1941, and was now absorbing nearly all the labour and raw materials available, though he admitted that still more could be made out of their existing resources by better planning, better design, and greater openness of mind.

Mr. Lyttelton's statement was supplemented on the next day by one from the Minister of Supply, Sir A. Duncan, who dealt more particularly with the question of tanks. He pointed out that the production of tanks was " a long-term proposition," and that they were still suffering from the weakness arising from the lack in pre-war years of sufficient research and experiment. Also for some time after the defeat of France they had had to think more of quantity than of quality. However, they had now reached a point when they could make sure of at least maintaining equality with the enemy. He assured the House that the lessons of recent events were being carefully studied by his Department, and that the forces in the field were being supplied with the weapons which they demanded.

There was no disposition on the part of the House to regard the picture drawn by the Ministers as unduly favourable. The subject on which in fact the greatest anxiety was felt at this time was not production but the shipping situation. For many months now not a single word had been said officially about losses at sea ; but alarming statements had recently been made on the matter in America and had been reproduced in the British Press, and Lord Woolton had warned the public that he might soon have to subject them to further food restrictions. The Government was urged from many quarters to give at least such information as might bring home to the public the seriousness of the situation. It consented finally to discuss the matter in a secret session of the House of Commons, which was duly held on July 16 ; but apart from this it continued to maintain the same rigorous silence as heretofore.

On June 16 the House of Commons after an interval of two years once more discussed Education Estimates. ' The Vote this year was for 57,763,118?., an increase of nearly 3,000,000L over the last one, due in part to the war bonus for teachers and the expansion of provision of school meals and milk. The President of the Board of Education, Mr. R. Butler, stated that in March nearly 99 per cent, of the children were receiving full-time education; the average attendance at the elementary schools was, however, only 84 per cent, as compared with 89 per cent, before the war. He announced that a Youth Advisory

Council had been formed to co-ordinate the work of the many existing youth committees ; also that serious consideration was being given by the Board to the question of bringing education into closer relationship with industry and commerce. He also announced that, in response to a request from the Governing Bodies Association of the Public Schools and from the Head Masters' Conference, the Government would appoint a Committee to investigate how the facilities of boarding-school education might be extended to those who desired to profit by them, irrespective of their means, and that Lord Fleming, a Scottish Lord of Session, had already been appointed chairman.

On June 17 the House of Commons again granted a supplementary Vote of Credit for 1,000,000,000²., the one voted in March being now almost exhausted. The Chancellor of the Exchequer stated that the daily rate of expenditure on fighting and supply services was still about the same as it had been three months before. On the same day the House discussed a motion brought forward by a Labour member calling for an inquiry into the position of old-age pensioners and widows with a view to improving their lot. The Chancellor of the Exchequer pointed out that various pension schemes were already costing the Exchequer 1,000,000². a year, and that the resources of the State were not unlimited. He promised, nevertheless, to carry out the inquiry asked for.

In its third report, issued on June 29, the Retail Trade Committee put forward a scheme for the orderly withdrawal from the retail trade of small shopkeepers who were not able to carry on under war conditions. The essence of the scheme was that a levy of, say, 1 per cent, of turnover should be raised from traders remaining in business which should go to the benefit of those who voluntarily withdrew. The benefit would be intended primarily to relieve the withdrawing trader from the burden of continuing contractual obligations entered into before the scheme came to birth and to safeguard his tenancy during the life of the scheme. This benefit should be paid at a fixed rate of 5 per cent, yearly on the turnover of the past twelve months. It was also recommended that the withdrawing trader should be given a certificate entitling him at the end of the period of emergency to prior rights of re-entry into the trade in which he had been operating.

On the night of June 25 another " thousand bomber " raid was carried out, this time over Bremen. Three days earlier a similarly concentrated but somewhat less heavy attack had been made on Emden. The weather being favourable, air raids over the Continent were fairly continuous throughout the month, though in Germany itself only five targets, were attacked—the Ruhr, Bremen, Emden, Essen, and Osnabruck. Enemy air raids over England were again not on a heavy - in 300 civilians being killed and 337 seriou

July 1 was the "vesting date" laid down in the Coal Act of 1938, and the Coal Commission duly took over all the leases, to the number of some 9,000, under which the various collieries of Great Britain were worked. From this date, as far as royalties were concerned, the coal industry of the country was fully nationalised. The four years allowed by the Act for working out the valuation of the holdings, of which some 26,000 had been registered, had not proved sufficient—partly owing to the dislocation caused by the war—and the owners had to be content with a token payment for the time being. During the first year of its activity the Commission had tried to work out schemes of amalgamation, in accordance with Part II of the Act, but they had suspended this activity on the outbreak of the war, at the same time expressing the hope that it would be resumed when the war was over, and when it would be still more necessary.

On July 7 the House of Commons approved a Vote of 8,600,0002. for the Ministry of Information and of 10,000,0001. for the B.B.C. These figures represented increases of nearly two-and-a-half millions and more than three millions, respectively, over those for the year ended on March 31, 1942. The increase in the case of the Ministry of Information was due chiefly to the growth of publicity services at home and abroad; in the case of the B.B.C. to the development of broadcasts to foreign countries and overseas. While still criticised in details, the Ministry in this debate was entirely spared the rough handling which it had received in previous debates. The Minister in the course of his reply stated that the B.B.C. now broadcast forty-three foreign language programmes—as compared with one in 1938—and it was estimated that these reached approximately 200,000,000 people every week. It was the largest and most trusted broadcasting instrument in the world, and was looked upon by the Axis Powers as a mighty enemy.

CHAPTER III

THE DEMAND FOR A SECOND FRONT

IN the debate in the House of Commons on July 1 some of the Prime Minister's critics had taken it for granted that El Alamein would prove no stronger a barrier to the Germans' advance in Egypt than Sidi Barrani and Mersa Matruh had been, and that in a few days Alexandria would be in their hands. These gloomy forebodings were falsified by the event. Rommel, it is true, made a vehement assault on the British lines between July 12 and 14; but he met with no better success than in his first attack on July 1. The Eighth Army had by now definitely recovered itself, and began to turn the tables. After beating back the

enemy, the British themselves took the offensive, and in the course of several days of fierce fighting gained a certain amount of ground and took over 5,000 prisoners. Though unable to hold all the gains which they had made, owing to the nature of the ground, they retained the initiative and kept the enemy on the defensive. In the air, too, they maintained their superiority, and continued to inflict heavy losses on the German supply lines. The Germans also, however, were able to entrench themselves very strongly at El Alamein ; and it soon became evident that neither side could hope to dislodge the other without receiving a great accession of force.

If the news from Egypt allowed the Government and the public in England to breathe more freely, the course of the war in Russia gave growing cause for anxiety. The Germans had launched their great offensive in that country, and after taking Rostov on July 4 had commenced to overrun the northern Caucasus region ; and by the end of the month they were threatening the oilfield of Maikop, the port of Novorossisk, and the vital centre of Stalingrad on the Volga. There was already an imminent danger that before the end of the summer they would succeed at the very least in crippling the Russian armies and establishing themselves on the Volga ; in which case they would be free to transfer vast forces from the Eastern to the Western Front, and so be able to counter any British attempt to invade the Continent, if not to invade England themselves.

Meanwhile, however, the preoccupation of the Germans with their Eastern Front continued to secure for Britain comparative immunity from air raids. German air activity over England in July, though not negligible, was still on a reduced scale, and mostly confined to the east and south coastal districts. The total number of casualties caused by them was 411 killed and 871 seriously injured ; and this cost them 55 machines. The British air invasion of Germany, on the other hand, continued to gather momentum. Particularly heavy night raids, involving the use of numerous 4000 lb. bombs, were made on Duisburg on July 21 and 25, on Hamburg on July 26 and 28, on Saarbrücken on the 29th, and on Düsseldorf on the 31st. Altogether during June and July 13,000 tons of bombs were dropped on Germany, as compared with 8,500 tons in the same period in 1941 and 3,500 tons in 1940. In their operations over the Continent in July the British lost 251 machines.

The Air Ministry declared itself highly satisfied with the results of the heavy bombing raids on German cities, and reiterated its opinion that this policy, if continued long enough, would have a decisive effect on the course of the war. As far as could be seen, however, the bombing was doing nothing to check the German advance in Russia, and this naturally was the aspect of the war which at the time occupied the attention of the public

almost to the exclusion of every other. Now, as ten months before, when the Germans were approaching Moscow, the question uppermost in the public mind was whether Britain could not do more to assist Russia ; and now, as then, the obvious solution which presented itself was an invasion of the Continent. In vain Mr. Lyttelton assured the public that Britain was sending even more tanks and aeroplanes to Russia than she had promised. Again there was a wave of sympathy for that country, and a clamour for a " second front," which was supported by the greater part of the Press, and reached its culmination in a huge demonstration held in Trafalgar Square on July 27, and attended, as it was estimated, by 60,000 people. On this occasion, however, the clamour was not accompanied by any demands for changes in the Ministry, or even criticism of the Government ; the purpose of the agitation was rather to assure the Government that the people would be behind it in any effort it might make to win the war, and was prepared to accept any sacrifice that might be demanded of it for this purpose.

It was about this time that President Roosevelt sent to London a mission comprising General Marshall, the head of the United States Army, Admiral King, the head of its Navy, and Mr. Hopkins, the President's personal representative, to discuss with the British authorities plans for a joint campaign. After ten days or more of discussion, by the end of July decisions had been taken affecting the whole future general conduct of operations not only in Europe but throughout the world. This fact, however, was not made known to the public till some weeks later. For the present the Government met the clamour for a second front with the reply that an invasion of the Continent would certainly take place, but not before the proper moment arrived. When that would be remained its own closely guarded secret ; nor did it indicate in any way what was in fact preventing it from undertaking the operation at once, when the need was so urgent and the conditions appeared so favourable. The public had to admit that the Government alone were in a position to know whether an invasion was feasible.. None the less, as it saw what it deemed a golden opportunity slipping by, it could not help fearing that once more the Government would prove true to its reputation of " too late " ; and for the first time since the Battle of Britain it began genuinely to doubt whether, after all, an Allied victory was absolutely certain.

Members of Parliament were anxious to discuss the question in the House of Commons, but the Government gave no opportunity. On July 30 Sir Stafford Cripps informed the House that the Prime Minister had considered carefully the question of making a statement on the military situation, but had come to the conclusion that he could not do so with advantage at the present juncture. A request was then put forward for a secret

session in which members could speak their mind freely ; but this also was refused by Sir Stafford on the ground that it would be unsafe to communicate the intentions of the Government even in secret to six hundred and fifteen people. Quite unexpectedly, however, a statement was made by the Government to Parliament in secret session on August 4.

The closing weeks of the session in the House of Commons were taken up chiefly with the consideration of the Votes for the various Departments. When the Vote for the Home Office was taken on July 21, an attempt was made once more by certain speakers to secure some limitation of the Home Secretary's powers of detention under Defence Regulation 18B, which related to disaffected British subjects. Cases were cited which on the surface seemed to involve a certain measure of injustice, and it was insinuated that the Home Secretary showed discrimination against the Right and in favour of the Left. Labour speakers, on the other hand, considered that Fascist elements were being treated with undue indulgence. Mr. Morrison again insisted that if he was to be responsible for the country's safety, he must have full discretion in these matters, and on a division his view was upheld by 222 votes to 25.

On July 22 the Minister of Labour gave a report to the House of Commons on the subject of factory welfare. He said that the policing of industry by the factory inspectorate, which had been transferred from the Home Office to the Ministry of Labour in June, 1940, had not only safeguarded the health of the industrial population, but had also increased the efficiency of production. The problems which had arisen for the Government from the tremendous movement of workers and the shortage of housing accommodation in the neighbourhood of new factories were being satisfactorily dealt with. The principle which had been established of having separate organisations for dealing with the workers inside and outside the factories was answering very well. There had been a certain increase in the accident rate, due to the large and rapid recruitment of inexperienced workers and the greatly increased pressure on the supervisory staff. The extension of canteens in factories and of " Workers' Playtime " had proved a great boon, and there had also been a great development of medical supervision and nursing services in the factories. These and other changes he hoped had come to stay. Owing to war conditions hours of work had often been excessive, but now production and man-power had reached such a stage that he hoped soon to be able to effect a general reduction. He had also taken steps to improve the conditions of labour of young persons in the building trade, which had given rise to some concern.

On July 23 the President of the Board of Trade reported in the House of Commons that the concentration of industry scheme which had been started fourteen months before had been carried

through with a smoothness and a speed far greater than had been anticipated, and had undoubtedly promoted industrial efficiency. Under the scheme close on 250,000 workers had been released for war work, and more than 55,000,000 square feet of factory space had been liberated for other uses. Closely connected with the scheme was the production of "utility" goods, first applied to the clothing industry, but which was now being extended to a wide range of articles, including pottery, holloware and umbrellas, and would soon include furniture and cutlery. He said the most difficult problem facing the Board of Trade was that of the non-food retail shops, owing to the great fall in the volume of turnover and the shifting of population. He had found that great opposition existed to the scheme put forward by the Retail Trade Committee (*vide* p. 55), and while he was anxious to take action on the matter he would not do so without the support of a substantial section of those affected.

On July 28 the Minister of Agriculture stated that owing to the increased calls on the country's shipping the need for producing as much food as they could at home was more urgent than ever, and he once more appealed to farmers to do their very best, even to work this autumn by night as well as by day. Steps had been taken recently for getting the results of research utilised more quickly in ordinary current practice ; in fact, they were making the maximum use of all the agricultural scientific knowledge they could lay their hands on. The results could be seen in the difference in the appearance of the countryside as compared with two years ago.

On July 29 the Minister of Health asked the House of Commons to approve a regulation which he had recently made increasing old age pensions by 2s. 6d. a week, at an estimated cost of 9,250,000l. for 1,125,000 souls ; also for increasing the scale rate for unemployed assistance at an annual cost of about 400,000l. He stated also that by administrative action the winter allowances would be extended to the end of April, with an increase in the amount of 2s. 6d., and that extra grants would be made to meet special needs for clothing, bedding, and other household supplies. The total cost annually of all these improvements was estimated to be 11,000,000l. These proposals were stigmatised by a number of Labour speakers as niggardly, and Mr. Pethick-Lawrence moved an amendment rejecting the draft regulations as inadequate. Mr. Bevin thereupon gave a pledge on behalf of the Government that the provision for old age pensioners would come up for discussion again later in the year, and in view of this assurance Mr. Greenwood, as Leader of the Labour Party, withdrew the amendment. This step was hotly resented by a large number of Labour members, led by Mr. Shinwell, and in the division no fewer than 49 of them voted against the motion, which, however,*was carried by 223 votes to 63. The incident

was discussed at a meeting of the Parliamentary Labour Party on August 4, when Mr. Greenwood received a vote of confidence by 66 votes to 4.

On July 30 the Secretary of State for India in the House of Commons gave the Government reply to the resolution passed on July 14 by the Working Committee of the Indian Congress Party demanding the immediate withdrawal of British rule from India. He said that this demand completely ignored the far-reaching offer made by Sir Stafford Cripps when he visited India, and by which the Government still stood, and that it would, if conceded, bring about a complete and abrupt dislocation of the vast and complicated machinery of government in India. No greater disservice to the cause for which the United Nations were fighting could be imagined. The Government therefore solemnly warned all who stood behind the policy adumbrated by the Congress Working Committee that the Government of India would not flinch from taking every step to meet the situation. Sir Stafford Cripps also a few days later in a public statement made a pressing appeal to Mr. Gandhi not to persist with the resolution.

On August 4 the Home Secretary laid before the House of Commons a Bill—which had already passed the Lords—removing from the jurisdiction of British courts all criminal offences committed by members of the American armed forces in the British Isles, and transferring them for trial to American military courts. He said that the American authorities had pressed for this course as being both expedient and constitutionally right, and the Government had concurred with them. Many members were far from being convinced by the arguments brought forward to support this view, and could not understand why the "American troops in England should be put on a different footing from those of the other Allies, who in the matter of criminal offences (as distinguished from those against discipline) were subject to the jurisdiction of the English courts. They would at least have liked more time to consider the matter, but when the Government insisted that the Bill should be passed through all its stages without delay, they somewhat reluctantly complied.

On August 6 the Government was urged by a number of speakers in the House of Commons to consider sympathetically the desire felt by Jews in Palestine and elsewhere for the formation of Jewish fighting units to join in the war against the Axis. The Minister of War stated in reply that the Government saw no need for the formation of a special Jewish army, as Jews of British and American nationality were liable for service in the British and American Armies, and other Jews had abundant opportunities of volunteering for service with the British Army. With Palestine the case was different, and in view of the threat to that country from the Axis forces the Government had decided to create at once a Palestine Regiment of the British Army, consisting of

separate Jewish and Arab infantry battalions, for general service in the Middle East. Other steps would also be taken to enable the Jews of Palestine to defend their country against the universal enemy.

On August 6 Parliament rose for a summer recess of four weeks. At about the same time Mr. Churchill left England on another of his adventurous journeys, this time setting his face to the East. He first flew to Egypt, where he met General Smuts, and from there he proceeded by way of Palestine, Iraq and Persia to Moscow, where he arrived on August 12. He spent four days in Moscow[^] discussing the political and military situation with Mr. Stalin, Mr. Harriman, and Allied military chiefs. He returned by the same route, and either on the outward or return journey took occasion to call on the Shah of Persia and the King of Egypt, and to pay a visit to the front at El Alamein, where the troops welcomed him with great enthusiasm. He arrived back in London on August 24.

Before he left for Egypt Mr. Churchill, as he afterwards informed the House of Commons, had had reason to believe that conditions among the Desert Army and the troops in Egypt were not entirely satisfactory. In its headlong retirement of four hundred miles the Eighth Army had lost 80,000 men and an immense amount of munitions, supplies, and transport, and its structure had become much deranged. Mr. Churchill found in the men a spirit of the highest confidence, coupled, however, with a certain bewilderment at the unkind trick which fortune had played them. He came to the conclusion that drastic changes were needed in the High Command, and, after consulting the Cabinet and military chiefs at home and General Smuts, on August 19 he replaced General Auchinleck as Commander-in-Chief by General H. L. Alexander, who had commanded in Burma earlier in the year, while the command of the Eighth Army, formerly held by General Ritchie, was given to Lieutenant-General Montgomery. Shortly afterwards the region of Persia and Iraq, which was defended by the Tenth Army, was detached from the Middle East Command and made into a separate Command with General Sir Henry Maitland-Wilson as Commander-in-Chief. This step was dictated by the growing seriousness of the German thrust towards the Caucasus.

In the work of intercepting the enemy supplies to Egypt, the air forces based on Malta continued to play an invaluable part, and on August 11 a convoy set out from Gibraltar carrying sufficient supplies, as Mr. Churchill afterwards stated, to ensure the life and resistance of the island for many months to come. An exceptionally strong escort was sent with the convoy, consisting of three aircraft-carriers trained to work in combination, and powerful cruiser squadrons and flotillas. Spitfires were also flown to the island from other carriers. The enemy made corre-

sponding efforts to bar the progress of the convoy, and as soon as it passed Sardinia it was attacked by three to four hundred German and Italian shore-based bombers, torpedo planes, and long-range fighters, while in the narrows, which were mined, it was attacked by E-boats and U-boats. In a running fight which lasted for three days, the British lost the aircraft-carrier *Eagle*, the cruiser *Manchester*, two smaller vessels and eight aircraft, but in return they inflicted damage on two enemy cruisers, sank two U-boats, and brought down over sixty aeroplanes. The convoy also suffered losses, but a substantial portion of it reached Malta.

The possibilities of an invasion of the Continent were put to the test on August 19 by a Combined Operations raid on a scale far larger than anything of the kind which had preceded. Several thousand land troops—mostly Canadians—took part, and they were accompanied not only by artillery but also by tanks. Just before daybreak landings were made at six places on the beaches round and in front of Dieppe, a part of the coast known to be very heavily fortified. Except at one spot the enemy were taken by surprise, but they managed to offer a very stubborn resistance. The road blocks for obstructing tanks were also found to be much more formidable than had been anticipated. Nevertheless the British attained their immediate objectives, which were to destroy certain batteries and a radiolocation post much used in German attacks on Channel convoys. British tanks also penetrated into Dieppe and did much damage there. The British remained ashore altogether for nine hours. During the whole of this time they enjoyed the protection of a large force of fighter planes, which was hotly engaged by the German air force, and fought the greatest Anglo-German air battle since September, 1940. In this encounter the British lost 98 aeroplanes, from 30 of which the pilots were saved, while they shot down at least 95 of the enemy. One British destroyer was also sunk, along with some small craft. The number of land casualties in killed, wounded, and missing was heavy ; the Canadians lost about 3,500 men out of 5,000, and half the total force failed to return. The home crossing, like the outward one, was made without incident.

The first accounts of the raid were somewhat optimistic in tone, and encouraged the public to hope that it might be a prelude to much larger operations of the same kind. In fact, it led to nothing, and remained but an isolated incident. The High Command announced that it had provided very valuable information, but forbore from following it up with any further action. The public could only guess what lessons the High Command had learnt ; but from facts which gradually came to light it was able to conclude for itself that the German defences were stronger than had been generally supposed, and that it would be highly inadvisable to undertake an invasion of the Continent without

the most thorough preparation. Hence the inaction of the High Command was accepted with resignation, and the clamour for a second front was not revived with any insistence, though the sense of frustration still remained.

In Egypt the British Air Force was very active throughout August in attacking enemy supplies. In particular it bombed Tobruk repeatedly, and not only destroyed much shipping there, but made the harbour itself almost unusable. Nevertheless the Germans, thanks to their more advantageous geographic position, were able to send over reinforcements to Africa more rapidly than the British, and it was Rommel who, at the end*of the month, found himself in a position to resume the offensive. On the 31st he attacked the British left flank at El Himeimat in some force, and succeeded in seizing some neutral ground between El Himeimat and the ridge of Ruweisat. The British, however, were fully prepared for the assault, and brought it to a stop before it had been able to penetrate their lines. After two days of fighting, during which they suffered heavy loss, the Germans began to withdraw, and save for a small salient in the centre, were finally driven back to their original lines. The British losses in the engagement were much less than the German.

At the end of the third year of the war, official figures were published of Axis and British aircraft losses since the beginning of the war. These showed that in combat between the two in all theatres of war, excluding air-machines destroyed on the ground, the Axis had lost 8,985 machines to 6,231 British, while in addition 725 had been shot down by naval ships or the Fleet Air Arm. In the third year of the war 1993 British machines were lost over Germany and Germ an-occupied territories, to 744 Axis, and in the Near East 1114 British to 1417 Axis. In the preceding year the corresponding figures had been 1173 and 662, and 360 and 1040. The superior skill of the British aviators was shown by the fact that in fighting over enemy-occupied territory the R.A.F. losses were in the proportion of about two to three to those of the enemy, whereas in the Battle of Britain the attacking *Luftwaffe* had lost five times as many aircraft as the defending R.A.F.

On August 14 the report was published of a Committee appointed by the Minister of Works and Planning in October, 1941, under the chairmanship of Lord Justice Scott, to consider conditions of building in rural areas, particularly the location of industry. The Committee—with one dissident—assumed that the Government desired a prosperous agriculture, the resuscitation of village and country life, and the preservation of amenities, as objects which, if necessary, should override economic considerations. It therefore made proposals for better rural housing, and for provision of facilities of access for all to the countryside, along with the preservation and extension of footpaths, and it recom

mended that industry should not be encouraged to come to the countryside, and where it did, its location should be strictly controlled. It advocated the establishment of a central planning authority with a Minister of National Planning at its head, and the drawing up before the end of hostilities of a five-year plan which should include town and country schemes for the whole of the country, a definite number of houses for rural workers, a survey of villages and hamlets to see what provision was made for social needs, programmes for electricity, water, and gas, and compulsory registration of title over the whole of England and Wales.

On August 18 the Mine Workers' Federation, at the request of the Government, sent out an urgent appeal to every mine in Great Britain for a strenuous effort to increase production without delay. It stated that a few days before, representatives of the Government had laid before it facts which showed that there was an imminent danger of a great shortage in the ensuing winter both for industrial and domestic consumption. Coal output, it said, was falling per man employed ; lack of regularity of attendance without reason was on the increase ; unnecessary stoppages had occurred ; and some miners seemed unconcerned for the danger with which the country was faced. There were also other factors hindering production which reflected no credit on the men. They were not satisfied that all their members were doing all they could to produce the coal required by the nation ; and therefore they asked them voluntarily to do the things necessary for victory.

Parliament met for a brief session on September 8, chiefly for the purpose of allowing the House of Commons to hear a statement on the war from the Prime Minister. Mr. Churchill dwelt with much satisfaction on the great improvement which had taken place in the situation in Egypt since he had last spoken on the subject in July, and ventured the opinion that Egypt's safety was now assured at least for many months to come. This fact and the growing predominance of the Allied air power induced him to view the situation with cheerfulness, in spite of the grave threat to the Russian armies caused by the German advance in the Caucasus. He admitted frankly that in the opinion of the Russians, Britain and America had not done enough, so far, to lighten their burden, but he put this down in part to the Russian inability to comprehend the problems of the sea, and he thought he had convinced their leaders of the British resolve to come to their aid as quickly and effectively as possible, regardless of the losses or sacrifices involved.

Another reason for the Premier's cheerfulness was an improvement in the situation at sea. He was able to inform the House that the losses in July, August, and September so far as it had gone, though still heavy, were considerably less than in the

period preceding. This was due largely to the continued development and completion of the convoy system off the American coast. During these months, too, the rate of building merchant ships by the United Nations had definitely exceeded that of sinking. Warfare on the U-boats had also been more successful than ever before, very few days having passed without one or more being sunk or damaged by the British or their Allies. Whether they were keeping pace with the new construction of U-boats was, however, not so certain.

In view of the second front agitation and the general uneasiness over the situation in Russia (on which Mr. Churchill was careful to say nothing), the Government had made ample provision for the expression of opinion in the House by setting aside two days for the debate. To the general surprise, however, the House showed no desire to avail itself of this opportunity. Even while the Premier was still speaking several Conservative members left the sitting to attend a meeting, and as soon as he had finished, there was a general exodus. In vain Sir Stafford Cripps, as Leader of the House, rebuked this display of levity; after two or three brief speeches had been made, the debate came to an untimely end. The acquiescence of the House in the Premier's statement, however undignified, could only be taken as a mark of its confidence in the Government, and its effect was in no way impaired by a vicious attack made on the Premier by one of his critics in a subsequent debate.

At the same sitting the Prime Minister moved that an Address should be presented to the King expressing the deep sorrow of the House at the death on active service of his brother, the Duke of Kent, who had just perished in an accident in Scotland while flying to Iceland. [See under Obituaries.] Mr. Churchill paid a tribute to the Prince's devotion to duty and his readiness to waive all considerations of rank or ceremony in its performance. The motion was seconded by Mr. Greenwood, and supported by Sir P. Harris and Mr. McGovern, and carried *nem. con.*

On the next day, September 9, the House of Commons voted the Government a credit of 1,000,000,000l.—the third of that amount in the current financial year. This brought the total since the war began to 11,000,000,000l. The Chancellor of the Exchequer stated that war expenditure in recent weeks had been on an average 12,250,000l. a day. He pointed out that while Government expenditure on goods and services in 1940 had absorbed 44 per cent, of the national resources, the corresponding figure for 1942 would probably be about 54 per cent. Another striking fact was that this year 45 per cent, of expenditure was being met out of taxation, whereas in 1940-41, when expenditure was a third less, it had been 35 per cent.

On the next day, in the course of the debate on the Vote of Credit, Sir Stafford Cripps announced that the Government had decided,

in view of the rise in the cost of living, to grant increases in the pay and allowances of the fighting forces at the rate of 43,000,000l. a year. The bulk of the increases was to go to the "other ranks," and special attention was to be paid to married men with children, particularly those with more than one child. The principal change was a rise in the pay of men in all "other ranks" in all the forces of 3s. 6d. a week; increases in allowances and in women's pay were in proportion, and the period of promotion from second lieutenant to lieutenant would be shortened from eighteen months to six months. A large number of speakers described these increases as wholly inadequate, and there was much criticism of a White Paper recently issued by the Government in which an endeavour had been made to show that the soldier in the Army was on the whole as well off as he would be in civilian life. Invidious comparisons were also drawn between the rates of pay received by members of the British Army and those of the United States and Dominions forces now in the country. To this the Government spokesman replied that these latter rates "were fixed in accordance with economic conditions in those countries, and could form no criterion for Great Britain. It was also pointed out that the same disparity had existed in France between the pay of British and of French soldiers.

On September 10 the Prime Minister, in the House of Commons, defined anew the Government's policy in regard to India. He saw in the recent disturbances there a trial of strength between the Government of India and the Congress Party, and made no secret of his satisfaction that the former had proved victorious. He gave no hint of making any concessions to the demands of Congress or any other Indian party, though he did declare that the principles enunciated by Sir Stafford Cripps during his mission to India still stood in their full scope and integrity. Secure in the support of the Princes and the martial races of India, he defied Congress to do its worst; and he maintained that the situation in India at that moment gave no occasion for undue despondency or alarm.

Though the facts contained in the Prime Minister's statement could not be disputed, its unconciliatory tone made a painful impression on a considerable part of the House and it was not allowed to pass unchallenged. In the debate on the motion for the adjournment next day, Mr. Greenwood criticised it as not being calculated to improve Anglo-Indian relations or to have a good effect in the United States. Some Conservative speakers, on the other hand, thought that the Premier had struck the right note. The Secretary of State for India, in closing the debate, defended the action taken by the Government of India in suppressing disorder, which he maintained was the first consideration. Unlike the Prime Minister, however, he indicated that the Government had not said their last word, and would be glad to

welcome any practical proposals that offered any reasonable hope of agreement among the main parties in India.

The seventy-fourth Trades Union Congress opened at Blackpool on September 7. It was attended by over 700 delegates, representing nearly 5,750,000 organised workers, among them 1,000,000 women. The chairman, Mr. F. Wolstencroft, in his opening address, paid a warm tribute to Mr. Churchill, to whom, though opposed to him in politics, he expressed the gratitude of the working people " for the magnificent example he had set of grim resolution and unflinching devotion to duty." In the course of his speech he took occasion to remonstrate with those who sought to discriminate between the Nazi regime and the German people. He maintained that the vast majority of the German people were behind the Nazi gangsters in their policy of attempting the conquest and domination of Europe, and insisted that justice should be meted out to them.

The report of the General Council called attention to the many ways in which the unions were collaborating with Government Departments, and expressed the conviction that the methods of consultation with Ministries had had a material effect " in preserving national unity, assisting the war effort, and protecting the legitimate interests " of trade unionists. The Council also presented a long report on educational policy, containing some far-reaching proposals, such as the raising of the leaving age to 15 simultaneously with preparations for raising it to 16 ; a single code for all post-primary education ; maintenance allowances for all children in schools beyond the primary standard ; and abolition of secondary school fees. It also advocated the abolition in general of private schools ; day continuation schools for young persons up to the age of 18 ; adequate youth services ; and further education of the adolescent and the adult.

After a debate which revealed some difference among delegates on the question of Church schools, the General Council's memorandum on education was carried by acclamation. Its attitude towards the Communists did not meet with the same approval, and a motion calling on it to withdraw its ban on the nomination of Communists as delegates to bodies controlled by the Congress was defeated on a card vote only by a narrow majority—2,550,000 votes to 2,137,000. The action of the Council in endorsing the recent Order of the Home Office for the compulsory enrolment of women for fireguard duties was also called into question, but a motion for the reference back of its report on the subject was defeated.

On September 10 Sir W. Citrine reported to the Congress on the efforts which had been made by the General Council to procure from the Government some modification of the Trades Disputes Act of 1927, which declared a general strike illegal. At the suggestion of the Government the General Council had had a meeting

with representatives of the Conservative Party, but it had found them entirely unresponsive. Since then he had received a letter from the Prime Minister asking him strongly, in the national interest, to refrain from pressing the matter at the present critical time. It was clear from this, said Sir Walter, that the war was to be made the excuse for not dealing with a much overdue reform, and he announced that the Trade Unions would now discuss with their political colleagues of the Labour Party the action they should take. A resolution expressing profound dissatisfaction with the attitude of the Government and calling for renewed efforts to secure from it an undertaking to deal with the question in the next session of Parliament was carried unanimously.

Sir Walter Citrine also reported to the Congress the failure of his efforts when he was in America in the spring to bring about an alliance between the British, American, and Soviet trade unions. All that he had been able to effect was an Anglo-American union similar to the Anglo-Soviet union already existing. He attributed this chiefly to American prejudice against Soviet labour ; but he complained that he had found the British Government also the reverse of helpful.

On September 10 an emergency resolution was submitted by the General Council expressing " the unalterable resolve of the British workers to see the war through to the end in complete and final victory." An amendment was moved by the Amalgamated Engineering Union calling for the " immediate organisation of a second front," but this was defeated by 3,584,000 votes to 1,526,000.

The Liberal Party held its annual assembly in London on September 4 and 5. The chairman, Lord Meston, stated that the Liberal Party had benefited both from the reaction against the policy of " appeasement " and from the country's dislike of the State Socialism of which it was getting a taste. The conference declared its full support of the Government in the prosecution of the war, and indicated its attitude to many post-war problems. A suggestion that the Liberal Party should break off the electoral truce was vehemently combated by Sir Archibald Sinclair, who called on all Liberals to stand firmly by Mr. Churchill.

On September 16 the Education Sub-Committee of the Conservative Party's Central Committee on Post-War Problems published a report entitled " Looking Ahead : A Plan for Youth," which dealt with the 14 to 18 age group. It pointed out that many of the boys and girls of this age did not feel that they had any part or lot in the country, that they had no sense of national service, and that the voluntary organisations which had been concerned with this age group were beginning to feel that the problem was beyond their powers. It proposed, therefore, that all existing youth organisations should be combined in a Federation of Youth, membership of which should be made compulsory for

all between 14 and 18 ; that the Federation should be under the control of a new department of the Board of Education ; and that it should pay special attention to physical training, and to the cultivation of " toughness and endurance, initiative and alertness, and quickness of observation and action/" The report aroused a storm of protest, and was denounced in many quarters as an attempt to " nazify " British youth. On October 1 the Trades Union Council expressed " much concern at the tendencies revealed in the document/" and condemned the compulsory nature of the proposals as " a very serious inroad on the liberty of youth/* The report was criticised on similar lines by Conservatives also at a meeting of the Central Council of the National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations on October 1, and was generally repudiated by the Conservative Party.

On September 9 the Committee appointed in January, 1941, under the chairmanship of Mr. Justice Uthwatt, to draw up a plan for land development (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 59), presented its final report. The Committee, it was stated, had gone on the assumption that national planning was intended to be a reality and a permanent feature of the administration of the internal affairs of the country, and that it would be directed to ensuring that the best use was made of the land with a view to securing economic efficiency for the community and well-being for the individual. The great problem with which it had to deal, therefore, was that of compensation and betterment. Proposals for pooling land ownership as well as for nationalisation of the land were rejected, for the former on the ground that it would promote conflict between private and public interests, for the latter on the ground that it was not practicable as an immediate measure.

The Committee itself recommended the immediate vesting in the State of the rights of development in all land lying outside built-up areas (subject to certain exceptions) on payment of fair compensation, such vesting to be ensured by the prohibition of development otherwise than with the consent of the State accompanied by the grant of compulsory powers of acquiring the land itself when wanted for public purposes or approved private development. All land lying within the limits of a town should be excluded from the operation of this scheme. The compensation to be paid should be assessed for the whole country as a single sum (to be called the general compensation fund), which should be divided among claimants in accordance with the value of the development rights attached to their lands. The " development rights scheme " should be managed by the same central authority as controlled planning.

With regard to land in built-up areas, the chief conclusion reached by the Committee was that the simplest and only effective method of achieving the desired reconstruction was to confer on

the planning authority compulsory powers of purchase, much wider and simpler in operation than under existing legislation, over any land which might be required for planning or other public purposes. The purposes for which such powers or purchase should be conferred included especially the reconstruction of war-damaged areas and the re-development of obsolete and unsatisfactory areas, the acceleration of planning, and the provision of alternative accommodation for displaced persons. Compensation should be based on the standard of values at March 31, 1939, and valuation should exclude the effect of "public demand."

Finally, the report stated that in the view of the Committee it would be a mistake if there were created a Government Department concerned with national development, which would rank with existing Government Departments. What was wanted was thought at the centre, an informed vision, unified control of land use, and co-ordination between existing Departments. This could be best secured if there were set up a Minister—who might be called the Minister for National Development—specially charged with national development, without departmental cares, but with a highly qualified staff well informed as to the economic conditions and needs of the country.

On September 11, four months after the occupation of Diego Suarez, military operations were resumed by the British in Madagascar. The French authorities had refused to co-operate with them in keeping Axis submarines away from the island, and they therefore felt themselves reluctantly compelled to take the control of the whole of it into their own hands. A force under General Piatt landed near the port of Majunga on the west coast, which they took after a few hours. They then commenced to march on the capital, Antananarivo, meeting only what Mr. Churchill afterwards called "symbolical" opposition, though their advance was impeded by frequent road blocks. They also had to repair the bridge over the 1,600 feet river Betsiboka. On September 16, as they were approaching Andriba, half-way to the capital, the French Governor, M. Annet, broadcast an appeal for an armistice, and an aeroplane was sent to Antananarivo to bring his plenipotentiaries to Majunga. General Piatt's terms, however, were rejected by the Governor, and on the 18th the advance on the capital was resumed. On the same day a British force landed at the port of Tamatave, on the east coast, and commenced to march inland. The column from Majunga met with its only serious opposition on September 21 and 22, some 40 miles from the capital, but it was able on the 23rd to enter Antananarivo, where it was received by the inhabitants with strong demonstrations of goodwill, and even enthusiasm. The British Commander declared the island to be temporarily under military jurisdiction, and appealed for the co-operation of the local authorities in order

that there might be no interference with the normal life of the population.

On September 12 a fierce attack was made by the Germans off the coast of Norway on a convoy proceeding to Russia. The convoy, which consisted of British, American, and Russian ships, was the largest which had so far been sent to Russia, and its escort was correspondingly powerful. Over forty torpedo bombers took part in the first assault ; they were driven off by British fighter aircraft from carriers. The running fight continued for five days, in the course of which large numbers of enemy planes were destroyed as well as several U-boats. The whole of the escorting force reached Russia unscathed, along with the greater part of the convoy. On the way back the escorting force was attacked by U-boats and lost a destroyer and a mine-sweeper.

In Egypt there was little change in the situation during September. On the night of September 13 a daring raid—similar in many ways to that on Dieppe—was made by the British on Tobruk. Marines and other units were landed from two destroyers, and in the course of a few hours demolished certain vital harbour installations. One of the destroyers was lost, and a considerable number of men. On the same night British patrols, after a journey of five hundred miles across the desert, penetrated into Benghazi and Barce and did much damage to the aerodromes there. Two days later a small British force surprised the Italian garrison at the oasis of Jalo, south of Benghazi, and held the place for some time till German and Italian reinforcements arrived. On September 30, after some weeks of quiescence, the British at El Alamein made a determined assault on an enemy position at Deir el Munassib, between the Ruweisat Ridge and El Himeimat, where they had left a wedge in the British line after their attack at the beginning of September. With some difficulty the British succeeded in pressing them back from their advanced positions, and so removing a serious threat to their own lines.

Although after the raid on Dieppe the clamour for a second front subsided somewhat in England itself, the Government were left in no doubt that the Russians were waiting for it with the utmost impatience, in the hope of obtaining some relief from the terrific enemy pressure on Stalingrad and the Caucasus. Nor were the Government unaware that the loss of Stalingrad would be a calamity not only for Russia, but for Britain also, and might alter the whole course of the war to her grave disadvantage. Nevertheless, they judged that the time was even yet not ripe for an invasion of the Continent, and, while profuse in their praises of Russian heroism, contented themselves with continuing operations on the same scale as before. In the course of August and September a number of night raids were made over Western Germany particular attention being paid to railway centres. In

this period also American " Flying Fortresses " began to make daylight raids over France, with marked effect. On September 20 the Admiralty issued a statement that in the past six months there had been a great increase in mine-laying activity in enemy waters by the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force, and that these had taken a heavy toll of enemy shipping, and had caused the enemy's resources of man-power and tonnage to be diverted to the operation and maintenance of a large number of mine-sweepers. German air activity over England in these two months was on a smaller scale than in July, and was again confined mostly to the coastal districts. The numbers of killed and seriously injured were in August 403 and 509, and in September 207 and 238. These figures were published by the Ministry of Home Security.

On September 27, at a great meeting in the Albert Hall organised by the Industrial Christian Fellowship, the Archbishop of Canterbury proclaimed the right and duty of the Church to lay down principles not only for the conduct of individuals, but also for the action of corporate groups such as trade unions or employers' federations or national states. He was supported by the Archbishop of York and Sir Stafford Cripps. The question whether the Church was playing its part in the work of social reform had been warmly discussed at a Church Conference held at Malvern in the previous year, and the Archbishop's address was an attempt to remove from the Church the reproach that it was passively, if not actively, on the side of vested interests. As an attempt " to bring religion into politics " it aroused widespread and, on the whole, sympathetic interest.

CHAPTER IV

THE ALLIED VICTORY IN NORTH AFRICA

PARLIAMENT reassembled after the summer vacation on September 29, and on the next day the House of Commons considered a Bill for prolonging its own life for a further year—the eighth. The Home Secretary, in moving the second reading, again pointed to the difficulties of holding an election in war-time, and mentioned as an additional argument against such a course the fact that it was being warmly recommended in enemy propaganda. Members did not relish this renewed usurpation of power, however valid the excuse, and a number of speakers asked whether it would not be possible to hold elections for at least part of the House even in war-time. The Minister, however, did not agree with the suggestion, and the second reading of the Bill was carried by 215 votes to 9.

On September 29 the Government was questioned in the House of Commons with regard to its wages policy, apropos of a claim in the engineering industry for wage increases amounting to 100,000,000l. The Chancellor of the Exchequer replied that the Government desired to continue relying on the sense of responsibility of those concerned with wage negotiations, and their willingness to safeguard national, and not merely sectional, interests ; if this broke down, the Government would have to reconsider their policy. On the next day in the House of Lords Lord Gainford appealed to the Government to take in hand the regulation of wages, on the ground that unregulated increases in wages were bringing the country nearer to inflation. The Lord Chancellor in reply stated that the Government, after very careful consideration, had decided, for the present at any rate, not to interfere with the existing system of allowing wage rates to be settled by agreements made within the industries themselves. This system had been well tried and was working smoothly, and could not be exchanged for Government control without causing much friction. Further, if it were now scrapped, it might be difficult to restore after the war. He denied that the wage increases made so far had been such as to induce inflation. In industries other than agriculture the rise in wages had been 28*29 per cent., and in all industries between 31 and 32 per cent. If the actual increase in earnings was 47J per cent., this was due to higher production and longer working hours. This was a situation with which the Government was well able to cope, though of course it might have to change its methods if the increase assumed larger proportions.

In spite of the explanations of the Chancellor, the complaints made by Lord Gainford were repeated by a number of speakers in the House of Commons on October 21, and the Government was again urged to exercise stronger control over wages. Mr. Bevin, in reply, repeated the arguments of Lord Simon, but he laid greater emphasis on the necessity of having at hand some well-tried machinery for dealing with the situation which would arise after the war. He resented the imputation brought against Service men that they were jealous of their civilian confreres, and said that the main consideration of the men in the Forces was what they were coming back to, and those who were trade unionists were looking to their unions to maintain their standards for them till they came out of the Services.

On October 2 the Minister of Fuel and Power, Major Lloyd George, reported to the House of Commons on the efforts which were being made to raise the additional 11 million tons of coal which on the basis of current figures would be required to fill the gap between consumption and production in the coming year. He cited instances to show that appeals for voluntary reduction of consumption both by domestic and industrial consumers were

producing effect, and announced that these would be supplemented henceforth by a certain reduction in supplies. On the other side there were now about 5,000 more men working at the coal face than last year, and determined efforts were being made to increase the output per man. He therefore had hopes that they would be able to get through the winter without undue hardship and without rationing. To a somewhat insistent demand that men should be withdrawn from the Forces to work in the mines the Lord President returned a firm refusal, pointing out, among other things, that there were not more than 5,000 such in the country at that time.

On October 7 the Lord Chancellor announced in the House of Lords that it was proposed to set up without delay a United Nations Commission for the investigation of war crimes. The Commission would be composed of nationals of the United Nations, selected by their Governments, and it would report from time to time to those Governments on the crimes which had been committed, naming and identifying wherever possible the persons responsible. It would direct its attention in particular to organised atrocities. The aim was, by fixing the responsibility on individuals, to prevent the wholesale massacre of innocent people. In order to avoid the fiasco which occurred after the last war in connexion with the punishment of war criminals, named criminals wanted for war crimes would have to be caught and handed over at the time of the Armistice and as a condition of the Armistice. These proposals, he added, had the full concurrence of the Government of the United States, where they were being announced at the same time, and of all their European Allies whose replies had been received. These did not as yet include Russia, where demands were being made in the Press that Rudolf Hess, who had been a prisoner in British hands since May, 1941, should be brought to trial at once. The Government, however, declared this to be quite impracticable.

On October 7 the German High Command issued a statement in which it charged the British with having tied the hands of German prisoners captured at Dieppe on August 19, and again in a raid on the island of Sark on October 4, and announced that as a reprisal all British prisoners taken at Dieppe would be put in chains. The British Government, in reply, stated on the next day that they did not and would not countenance any orders for the tying of the hands of prisoners of war taken in the field, and pointed out that the action of the German Government in taking reprisals against prisoners of war in their hands was expressly forbidden by Article 2 of the Geneva Convention, to which Germany was a signatory. When the Germans nevertheless carried out their threat and put in chains 1,376 British prisoners of war, the Canadian Government, on October 11, acting in full agreement with the British Government, ordered manacles to be

put on the same number of German prisoners of war in Canada. Two days later the Prime Minister informed the House of Commons that the Government had requested the protecting Power—Switzerland—to lay before the German Government their solemn protest against their breach of the Geneva Convention, and to inform them that if they desisted from it the British Government would immediately withdraw its counter measures.

On October 7 the House of Commons debated a report of the Public Accounts Committee in which the conduct of certain firms of munitions contractors was adversely criticised. While the justness of the Committee's charges was called in question, its vigilance in protecting the public interest was commended. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, in winding up the debate, said that it would be a mistake to assume that the situation disclosed in certain cases reviewed by the Committee was typical of the whole. Over the vast majority of the field prices and profits had been reasonable, and on the whole contractors performed their work well and with a full sense of their responsibilities, and co-operated with the Departments both in production and in contract negotiations. Nor had the excess profits tax caused any laxity on the side of the Government; the Treasury was well aware that this tax was no protection against uneconomic or wasteful means of production, and its policy was that contracting departments should aim at securing fair and reasonable terms regardless of the effects of taxation on profits.

On October 8 the Secretary of State for India moved the second reading of a Bill prolonging the emergency legislation in India. He made it clear once more that the Government was perfectly sincere in its desire to see India achieve independence as soon as possible, but that it refused to be browbeaten or intimidated by the Congress Party. He again declared that the Cripps offer was not the Government's last word, and that they were prepared to receive suggestions from Indians who thought that some measure of independence could be granted during the war. Mr. Amery's statement was received by the House much more favourably than the Prime Minister's a few weeks before, though Mr. Greenwood still found its tone unsatisfactory ; an Independent Labour Party amendment for the rejection of the Bill was defeated by 360 votes to 17.

When the Bill was presented to the House of Lords on October 20, the second reading was moved by the Duke of Devonshire, Parliamentary Under-Secretary to the India Office, in a speech even more truculent than that of the Prime Minister on September 10. He maintained that the Congress Party was losing ground, and that its persistence in making trouble was due only to the encouragement which it received from what he called certain " leftist " elements in England. He severely reprimanded those who demanded some new move from the Government,

referring with special disapproval to an article in *The Times* advocating this course. The speech evoked only mild protest in the debate, but was severely criticised in the Press.

On October 9 the Secretary for Foreign Affairs informed the Chinese Charge d'Affaires in London that the Government was prepared to open discussions with the Chinese Government for the immediate relinquishment of extra-territorial rights and privileges in China, and for the settlement of all questions intimately connected therewith. The Government had already proclaimed more than once since the outbreak of the war their intention of taking this step on the conclusion of hostilities ; and their decision to proceed with the matter at once—in co-operation with the United States—was meant " to emphasise their friendship and solidarity with their Chinese Allies."

On October 13 Mr. Dalton stated in the House of Commons that he had lately been investigating complaints from small shopkeepers that they were not obtaining their fair share of supplies, and had found the evidence conflicting. But in any case there was a real danger that as supplies became shorter a large number of the smaller shops would be squeezed out of business, and this for many reasons the Government regarded as undesirable. Some positive action was needed to assure to the small trader his fair share of the available supplies—preferably if possible by means of voluntary action—and he proposed therefore, beginning with the clothing, pottery, and hardware trades, to set up joint committees of retailers, wholesalers, and manufacturers to advise him on framing a plan for the allocation of supplies and to supervise its working when approved.

On October 13 the draft was published of a new Pair Wages Resolution, prepared by the Government to replace the one passed by the House of Commons in 1909 to regulate wages conditions in Government contracts. The most important changes were that the standard of fair wages should no longer be solely the practice of "good employers" in the district, but that the employer would be required to observe such conditions as had been established for the trade or industry in the district by representative joint machinery of negotiation or by arbitration ; that the contractor should be required to observe " fair " conditions of labour as well as " fair " wages ; that questions regarding fair wages should be referred not to the Minister of the contracting department but to the Ministry of Labour and National Service ; and that the contractor should recognise the freedom of his work-people to be members of trade unions. It was not intended to Submit the draft to Parliament for the present, since, so long as the War lasted, the Government could take what steps it pleased under the Conditions of Employment and National Arbitration Order, 1940, made under the Emergency Powers Act ; but the Government accepted the view of the T.U.C. General Council

and of the British Employers' Confederation that it was desirable that a statement of its intentions should be made now.

On October 14 Mr. Lyttelton, the Minister of Production, stated at a Press Conference that the period of widespread expansion of resources in England was now passing, and that the main emphasis must henceforth be laid on securing the best possible results from the resources available to them—their own power and machine-tools and the materials allocated to them from the common pool of the United Nations. For this end he announced certain further restrictions on the freedom of private enterprise. One was to prohibit undertakings from accepting further orders for kinds of work for which they were inadequately equipped, so that their labour might be transferred where it could be employed more usefully. Another was to forbid any manufacturing undertaking to come into existence or change the nature of its activities without a licence. A third was to transfer bodily certain industrial undertakings—especially those engaged on less essential work—from congested areas to other regions. In such cases only the plant and the key-men would be removed, and the bulk of the labour would be left behind to be re-directed to other work near the workpeople's homes.

On October 20 the House of Commons voted another credit for war expenditure of 1,000,000,000*l.*, bringing the total to 12,500,000,000*l.* since the beginning of the war. The Chancellor of the Exchequer stated that since the granting of the last Vote in September (of which nearly half was still left) the daily rate of war expenditure had been 12,750,000*l.* Though the total expenditure for the half-year up to September 30 had been some 350,000,000*l.*, or 16 per cent, higher than in the first half of the previous year, the amount that had actually had to be borrowed was some 70,000,000*l.* less. This was partly due to the receipt of 155,000,000*l.* on account of the Canadian Government's contribution, but mainly to the higher and unprecedented level of taxation. He informed the House that some 750,000—out of a total of 15,500,000—holders of savings certificates had now reached the statutory limit of 500*l.*, and in order to encourage further this form of saving it had been decided to issue in January a new form of savings certificates which could be held in addition to the existing certificates up to a maximum of 250. The purchase price of the new certificate would be 1*½*., and it would increase in value till it was worth 23 shillings in ten years, which was equivalent to an over-all rate of interest of 1*½* 8*s.* 2*d.* per annum, tax free. A supplementary Vote of 7,000,000*l.* for supplementary pensions was also agreed to.

In the House of Lords on October 21 Lord Reith strongly urged the Government to appoint without delay a non-departmental Minister of Planning, as recommended both by the Scott and the Uthwatt reports. He was opposed by Lord Samuel, who

said that this recommendation was outside the terms of reference of the Commissions, but he also, along with other speakers, urged the Government to show that they were in earnest with planning by taking some definite action as soon as possible. Lord Snell, in reply, assured the House that the Government was in earnest, but pointed out that the recommendations of the Commissions affected a large number of Departments, and therefore time was still needed to study them. Lord Keith's comment was that whether or not the Government were still standing by the reports, they were certainly "standing still."

Allied air activity over the Continent in October was signalled by three raids of exceptional magnitude. On the 9th a force of over 100 bombers of the U.S. Army Air Force, escorted by nearly 500 British and other fighters, carried out over Northern France the biggest daylight raid yet made, the chief target being the locomotive works at Lille, where great damage was done. Over 50 enemy fighters at least were also shot down, for the loss of 4 bombers. On the night of the 13th the heaviest raid so far was made on Kiel, where several hundred aircraft went over the target in an hour. And on the evening of the 17th in the heaviest unescorted daylight attack of the war, 94 four-engined Lancaster bombers of the R.A.F. caused severe damage to the great Schneider armament works at Le Creusot, 170 miles south-east of Paris. In the Mediterranean between October 10 and 17 no fewer than 114 Axis aircraft were shot down over Malta for the loss of 27 Spitfires and 13 pilots. Enemy air activity over England during October was again very slight till the last day of the month, when a daylight raid was made on Canterbury with 50 planes, of which 11 were destroyed. The total casualties for the month, published by the Ministry of Home Security, were 229 killed and 370 seriously injured.

The subjugation of Madagascar was completed during this period. Turning southward from the capital (*vide* p. 71) the British, on October 4, occupied Antsirabe, and immediately afterwards were joined by the force which a few days before had left Tamatave on the east coast. The French continued to retire southwards before them, destroying bridges and blocking roads on their way. On October 14 the British took Ambositra, 142 miles from the capital, not without fighting. After another brief engagement Fianarantsoa, the most important town in the southern part of the island and where the Governor-General had for a time fixed his headquarters, was taken on October 29. After some fighting near Ambohimahasoo French resistance entirely ceased, and an Armistice was concluded at midnight on November 5. British casualties in the whole expedition since September 10 had been negligible.

On October 13 General Smuts, the Premier of South Africa, arrived in England in order to join in the consultations of the

War Cabinet. On October 21 he addressed an assembly of both Houses of Parliament, presided over by Mr. Lloyd George. Mr. Churchill was with them on the platform—a piquant combination to those who could remember the Boer War. The General paid an eloquent tribute to the " unbending, unbreakable spirit " of the people of Britain and the Allied Nations, and called for the fullest help for Russia. Another distinguished visitor whom England welcomed soon after was Mrs. Roosevelt, the wife of the President, who came to observe and encourage the women workers of the country.

In the course of his speech General Smuts took occasion to remark that now in the fourth year of the war the defence phase on the part of the Allies had ended and the stage was set for the last, the offensive, phase. Although this hint of a coming offensive was somewhat more definite than any previously given by the Government, the public, having been so often disappointed, attached little weight to it. On this occasion, however, the deed did in fact follow closely on the word.

Reinforcements for the Eighth Army (as Mr. Churchill subsequently informed the House of Commons on November 11) had already left England at the end of May or the beginning of June, when it was hoped that they would help to complete the victory that was then anticipated. Much further equipment had also been despatched before the fall of Tobruk; and on June 20, President Roosevelt, on hearing of that event, had immediately ordered a large number of Sherman tanks which had just come out of the factory to be diverted from the American Army for the use of the British Army in Egypt, to which they were sent under American escort; even so, and in spite of having made the utmost speed, they had not arrived in time for the second battle of El Alamein at the end of August. All this was mentioned by the Prime Minister to show how long a time was needed for the preparations for action in a distant theatre of war, and how unjust were the charges of lack of foresight and unpreparedness brought against the Government in the debate on July 1.

The plan of operations, at least in its initial stages, had already been expounded by General Montgomery to Mr. Churchill, when he was in Egypt in August. Supremacy having been established in the air, the idea was for infantry to make a breach in the enemy's front and clear the way for the tanks to break through and liberate the superior armour. A moonlight night would be necessary for this operation, and the infantry would have to be supported by an extremely powerful concentration of artillery. It would be necessary at the first stroke to effect a penetration on a six-mile front of about 6,000 yards, in order to get through the hostile minefields, trenches, and batteries. (In the last war it had been nearly always possible to make this initial penetration.) For the purpose of turning to full account the breach when made,

an entirely new corps, the 10th, of between 40,000 and 50,000 men, consisting of two British armoured divisions and a New Zealand division, and numbering from 40,000 to 50,000 men, was to be formed and to be given the best tanks and intensively trained. During these operations the Air Force was to break up any threatening counter-attacks before they could develop, thus giving the troops time to consolidate the positions won. The plan on the surface appeared daring in the extreme, but it was on the spirit of his men that the General relied to achieve the seemingly impossible.

More than two months after this interview General Montgomery's plan was carried out to the letter. The aerial preparation commenced on October 9 and was continued for a fortnight, in the course of which the British Air Force established complete superiority in the air, besides carrying out essential reconnaissance work. Then on the night of October 23, in bright moonlight, British infantry attacked the northern sector of the enemy line on a six-mile front, supported by the greatest concentration of artillery yet known in the African war; there was one 25-pounder to every 23 yards. The attack was effective, and before dawn the British had pierced the enemy minefield to a depth of several thousand yards. Through this breach the 10th corps then poured in with its tanks "like a thunderbolt," as Mr. Churchill described it. The manoeuvre was entirely successful. Hampered as he was by constant attacks from the air, the enemy was unable to withstand the British onrush or to make any effective counterstroke, and gradually he was forced back and the breach was widened.

After more than a week of "nibbling" on the northern sector, which carried the British several miles forward beyond a spot on the coast called Sidi Abd-el-Rahman, the salient in this neighbourhood had been sufficiently enlarged to make a major push possible. On the morning of November 2 a new attack in force was made by the infantry. This also was completely successful; not only was the enemy driven back in the northern sector, but he found that his southern sector was no longer tenable and he commenced to retire in haste from Deir el Munassib and El Himeimat. The final break came two days later; on the night of November 4 the British Headquarters in Cairo reported that the Axis forces in the desert, after twelve days and nights of ceaseless fighting, were in full retreat, and that their disordered columns were being relentlessly attacked by the British land forces and the Allied Air Force by day and night. The British losses in this engagement were about 13,000 and they took over 9,000 prisoners.

There could be no doubt that an important victory had been won; it remained now to make it decisive. When in Cairo on August 10, Mr. Churchill had given General Alexander a directive "to attack or destroy at the earliest opportunity the German -

Italian Army commanded by General Rommel, together with all its supplies and establishments in Egypt and Libya/' Having carried out the first item in this instruction, General Montgomery now set himself to achieve the second. A relentless pursuit was commenced of the fleeing enemy, accompanied by ceaseless interception of his supplies, *on sea* as well as *on land*. For weeks not a single enemy tanker had got through to the ports of Cyrenaica, and in the first ten days of the battle 50,000 tons of shipping carrying Axis supplies to North Africa had been sunk by British naval and air forces. Within two or three days the Axis defeat had been turned into a rout, and Rommel saved the greater part of his Afrika Korps only by abandoning his Italian Allies to their fate. The pursuit was pushed on with unparalleled rapidity. By the 7th the British forward troops had already advanced a hundred miles. On the next day a slight stand was made by the Germans at Mersa Matruh, but it was soon overcome. Egypt was cleared of the enemy by the 10th. An attempt to intercept his fleeing forces near El Daba was frustrated by bad weather, and the pursuit was carried into Libya. Halfaya Pass, Solium, and Fort Capuzzo were occupied in quick succession, and on the 13th the British had the supreme satisfaction of entering Tobruk and revenging the humiliation of June 20.

From the beginning of the Egyptian offensive the Royal Air Force in England contributed valuable if indirect assistance by a series of heavy raids on Northern Italy, one of the chief sources of the enemy supplies, and which now became the R.A.F.'s main target instead of Germany. Genoa was bombed on the night of October 22, and again, along with Turin, on the next night, and Milan both by day and by night on October 24. In November four heavy night raids were carried out on Genoa and four on Turin ; that on Genoa on November 7 was particularly severe. These raids interfered seriously with the enemy supplies to Libya, and were carried out with very little loss to the raiders. In a review of the campaign which he broadcast on November 29 the Prime Minister warned the Italian people that this was only a foretaste of what they might expect unless they threw over Mussolini and his anti-British policy.

The British victory in Egypt was naturally a source of great jubilation in England, and to celebrate it the church bells were rung on Sunday, November 15, for the first time since July, 1940. It also caused a revulsion of feeling in favour of Mr. Churchill and the Government, among that large section of the public which the defeat of the Eighth Army in the summer had rendered critical and unfriendly. Before these sentiments had had time to run their course, they were raised to a new height by a further achievement of British arms no less important in itself and much more unexpected. This was nothing less than a successful invasion of the French possessions in the north-west of Africa.

In the report which he gave the House of Commons on November 11, Mr. Churchill stated that already when he was in Washington at the beginning of the year President Roosevelt had suggested that French North-West Africa was a specially suitable field for American intervention in the Western theatre of the war, and he himself had fully concurred in the idea. Preparations were accordingly commenced for an invasion both of the Continent and of North-West Africa. It was soon found, however, that the latter alone would be feasible in the current year. Consequently when General Marshall, the head of the American Army, visited England in July along with Admiral King, the Commander-in-Chief of the American Navy (*vide* p. 58), it was decided to launch an attack on French North Africa while holding the enemy on the French shore. The expedition, for which orders were at once issued with extreme urgency, was to be a joint Anglo-American undertaking; the naval operations were to be entrusted to the British, the bulk of the land forces were to be American, and the Air Force mixed, while the supreme command of all arms was to be held by the American General Eisenhower, who had been in command of the American forces in Great Britain for some time.

It was, of course, a condition of the expedition that the British Army in Egypt should keep the enemy there engaged. As soon, therefore, as General Alexander struck, a huge Anglo-American armada assembled in Gibraltar, consisting of 500 transports, many of which had formerly been fast-sailing liners, escorted by 350 vessels of war. Directly it became apparent that the British in Egypt were victorious this force began to move. Part of it went to Algiers, part to Oran, and part to Casablanca and the Atlantic coast of Morocco. Rather unexpectedly no opposition was met at sea, though some French coastal batteries and naval units opened fire, and the landings were effected with the smoothness and precision characteristic of the British Navy, and with very little loss. On shore also little resistance was encountered, and before many days had passed news came that Oran, Algiers, and Casablanca were in Allied hands.

Scarcely had the British and Americans gained these successes in North Africa when the Russians inflicted heavy defeats on the Germans in the Caucasus and in the Stalingrad area. Thus in the course of November the aspect of the war underwent a marked change. The initiative on all fronts passed from the Germans to their opponents. The Mediterranean, though still blocked in the centre, ceased to be a closed sea to the British Navy, and the legend of German invincibility on land was finally dispelled.

On October 29 Mr. Herbert Morrison, in a public speech in London, made a vigorous defence of Great Britain against the charge frequently brought in some foreign countries—especially

the United States—that she was carrying on the war for purely selfish and "imperialistic" ends. He recalled the praise that had been bestowed on them in the same quarters after the Battle of Britain, and declared that their attitude and outlook from the start of the war to that day had been consistent and of a piece, and that if it was held honourable and worthy of applause two years before, it was not less so still. He pointed out that their treatment of Abyssinia had been the very reverse of what was commonly understood by "imperialistic," and so far had no parallel in the story of the United Nations. They had gone unselfishly on a forlorn hope to the help of Greece, and had honoured the Prime Minister's instant and unsought pledge to Russia at a cost which it was not yet time to count. Finally, they had made to India an offer of freedom which in its scope and sweep had no parallel in the history of the world. He did not think, therefore, that they needed to apologise to anyone for their three years' part in the war. They had made mistakes and suffered ill-fortune, but for this they owed no one an explanation except themselves.

Three days later Mr. Morrison, in a speech at Cardiff, supplemented this defence of Britain with a picture of her war effort, drawn, as he said, "for the enlightenment of our friends and ourselves." Britain's war output, he said, stood in the front rank of productive achievements on either side; it was greater per head than that of any country in the world, allied or enemy, especially in the field of shipbuilding. Eighty per cent, of her war production was shipped overseas, and so was every fighting man for whom shipping space could be found. A great part of America's war production was also transported to British shores. Just As in peace-time Britain was called the centre of the world's trade, so now she was the centre of a round-the-world traffic in arms which was no less extensive than her peace-time enterprise and infinitely more hazardous and adventurous. The Navy regularly patrolled over 80,000 miles of sea-routes, and kept guard constantly over the 2,000 to 3,000 British and Allied merchant ships that were always at sea. It swept mines from over 14,000 miles of sea-lanes. Its warships and the aircraft of the Fleet and R.A.F. had escorted over 120,000 voyages in convoy, and had brought safely to port over 199 out of every 200 ships in the convoys. It had at sea constantly 600 warships and auxiliaries. It had swept the enemy from the high seas, and had destroyed, captured, or damaged more than 125 of his warships and over 6,000,000 tons of his shipping. In their admiration for Russia some of them had come to think and talk as if Britain was in the present phase playing only a marginal part in the war. This was a superficial and misguided view. When they looked at the pattern of the war as a whole, and remembered the real meaning of the never-ceasing struggle at sea, they might begin

to realise that the rôle of Britain on the stage of world conflict was as near to the heart of achievement and the centre of action as ever it had been in the days when she stood alone.

On November 3 the House of Commons Select Committee on National Expenditure issued a report dealing with the organisation and control of the Civil Service—a subject which the extension of bureaucracy in recent years, and especially in war-time, had brought into prominence. The report stated that, judging by the experience of the last twenty-five years, recommendations for improving the efficiency of the Civil Service were frequently shelved, and that continuous and authoritative stimulus was required if effect in the spirit as well as the letter was to be given to needful changes. It proposed, therefore, that the Commons should set up a new Select Committee, to be appointed each session, "to conduct on behalf of the House a continuing review of the machinery of government, with special reference to the economic use of personnel." This Committee—which would be assisted by an assessor of comparable status to that of the Comptroller and Auditor-General—would have no executive power, but it would inquire, observe, criticise, and submit reports and recommendations, and in this way "provide not only a stimulus but a more co-operative understanding between the House, the Executive, and the public which should go far to maintain at the highest level the efficiency of the Government machine both in war and peace." Along with it should be created a new Ministerial post of a Parliamentary Secretary at the Treasury who would be exclusively concerned with Civil Service questions. The Committee held that in spite of certain drawbacks central control of the Civil Service should remain with the Treasury. Other recommendations of the Committee were that in the Treasury itself Establishment work should be separated from Supply at all levels below that of Permanent Secretary, and that there should be established a Civil Service Staff College for the post-entry training of Civil Servants after a few years' service. The report also stated that between April, 1939, and April, 1942, the number of whole-time non-industrial Civil Servants had increased by 72 per cent.—from 371,050 to 637,619. Excluding the Post Office, where the increase was only 4.4 per cent., the remaining departments had increased their staffs in this period by 137 per cent.—from 188,565 to 447,422.

Parliament was prorogued on November 10. The Bang's Speech was devoted chiefly to a review of the year which found much to mention in connexion with foreign affairs, but no piece of domestic legislation except the Act making possible an increased degree of mobilisation of the man and woman-power of the country. Almost the whole of this power, it stated, was now mobilised and they must rely henceforth on the constant and continuous drive for efficiency and economy in man-power

and material to increase the production of arms and supplies which were essential for victory.

The new session was opened on the next day. The King's Speech once more expressed the determination of all the peoples of the Empire to fight on to complete victory, and referred to the recent successes in Africa as notable steps in that direction. The Government, it stated, was making preparations for relieving distress in Europe after the war, and was examining post-war problems which would arise at home, especially those connected with town and country planning, pensions, and education. The only legislation definitely promised, however, was a Bill dealing with war damage suffered by public utility undertakings.

The jejunity of the legislative programme caused disappointment both in Parliament and in the country, and was severely criticised in the debate on the Address. In reply, Sir Stafford Cripps assured the House of Commons on November 18 that the Government fully recognised the necessity of making preparations betimes for dealing with post-war difficulties, and that it contemplated introducing legislation for this purpose in the course of the session. He went on to remind members that the Government represented all political parties, and therefore no one party, whether of the Left or of the Right, could expect to have everything their own way. It was essential that they should compromise, one side retarding their advance and the other quickening their pace, so that they could march abreast. On the same day in the House of Lords a number of speakers urged the Government to take at once some preparatory steps for carrying out the recommendations of the Scott and Uthwatt Reports, and Lord Portal once more assured the House that the Government fully intended to take action on the recommendations, but again pleaded for more time to study them.

On November 26 a woman member, Mrs. Tate, moved an amendment to the Address regretting that no mention was made in the Speech of an intention to compensate civilian women equally with civilian men for war injuries. She maintained that the existing system in such cases, of compensation on the basis of earnings, was fundamentally unjust, and she was supported in this view by several speakers from all parties. Mr. Attlee, on behalf of the Government, said that he sympathised with the demand, but pointed out that there were practical difficulties in the way of acceding to it. His offer of a Select Committee to examine the matter was indignantly rejected by the mover, and in the division no fewer than 95 votes were recorded for the amendment, to 229 against.

On December 1 a Labour amendment was moved to the Address urging the Government to make ready to fulfil the undertakings of the Atlantic Charter, and to take the necessary legislative and administrative action for implementing the

pledges which it had given to the public with regard to reconstruction. Mr. Greenwood, in supporting the amendment, said that to leave the task of preparation till the end of the war would lead to confusion, and by postponing or possibly destroying legitimate hopes would cause a bitter and dangerous disillusionment. He specified the succour of the overrun peoples as the most immediate duty which would face them at the end of the war. Sir W. Jowitt, the Paymaster-General, stated on behalf of the Government that they had already given much thought to this problem, and were ready and anxious to press on with discussions with their Allies. An Inter-Allied Committee had been set up in London more than a year before to work out plans for European post-war relief, and the preparation by Allied Governments of their estimates of requirements was well advanced. In the field of reconstruction the Uthwatt Report had been considered in detail, but so far only one definite decision had been reached. This was to reject the suggestion made both by the Uthwatt and the Scott Committees to Appoint as the central planning authority a Cabinet Committee under the chairmanship of one of the existing senior Ministers, and instead to constitute a separate Ministry of Town and Country Planning under a separate Minister, who would be assisted by a Permanent Commission.

Sir W. Jowitt's statement was criticised by subsequent speakers in the debate as containing for the most part only "chapter headings" of a programme. Mr. Eden, in closing the debate on the next day, admitted that there was some truth in the charge, but pleaded that at the present stage little more was possible, and assured the House that the Government had not said its last word. He went on to outline the Government's policy in foreign affairs. Maintenance of peace after hostilities, he said, would depend chiefly on the continuance of their co-operation with the United States, Russia, and China, and would demand a sustained post-war effort, if they were not to lose what they had fought for. These Powers, particularly the first three, would have a virtual monopoly of armed force, which must be used to prevent a repetition of aggression. However great the effort, their co-operation in peace must be as true and effective as it was in war. After Mr. Eden's speech the amendment was withdrawn, but on the next day the Independent Labour Party moved an amendment declaring that the King's Speech "offered no prospect of a New Order for the common people in England, in India, and the Colonies." This was defeated by 312 votes to 5.

Colonial affairs were debated in the House of Commons on November 26, and on December 3 in the Lords the question was raised whether the Atlantic Charter would be applied to the British Colonies. Lord Cranborne, the retiring Secretary for

the Colonies, without replying directly, pointed out that the charges of tyranny and exploitation frequently brought against the British colonial administration, especially since the fall of Malaya, were based on a complete misrepresentation of the facts. Whatever might have been the case previously, the old ideas of exploitation had of recent years given place to the new doctrine of trusteeship, and they could fairly claim that in this respect Britain was ahead of the rest of the world. The ultimate objective of their policy was to promote self-government in all the Colonies without exception, but it was necessary to proceed warily, especially with the more backward ones, and not to impose this gift on them before they were ripe for it. Improvement in the Colonies was concerned primarily with health, education, and agricultural production, and in all three fields yeoman work was being done. The territories of the Colonial Empire were moving along the same road as that by which the Dominions had progressed, and playing an ever-growing part in the British Commonwealth of free nations.

Immediately after making his speech in favour of compromise on November 18—some people thought, because of it—Sir Stafford Cripps, to the no small surprise of the public, left the War Cabinet. On November 22 it was announced that Colonel Llewellyn was resigning the Ministry of Aircraft Production in order to become Minister Resident in Washington for Supply, a new post which had become urgently necessary, and that Sir Stafford Cripps, at the request of the Prime Minister, had consented to succeed him, although as a Minister of Supply he would cease to be a member of the War Cabinet. His place in that body was taken by the Home Secretary, Mr. Herbert Morrison. Mr. Eden succeeded Sir Stafford as Leader of the House of Commons and Lord Cranborne as Lord Privy Seal. The Secretaryship of the Colonies vacated by Lord Cranborne was given to Colonel Oliver Stanley, who thus re-entered the Ministry after an absence of nearly two years.

On November 26 Sir John Anderson announced in the House of Commons that the Government, after stating more than once that it would make no further increase in the rates of Service pay and allowances laid down in September, had decided after all to introduce changes which would involve a new charge of some 5,500,000*l.* a year, in addition to the 43,000,000*l.* then allowed for. The chief points were that the basic rates of acting sub-lieutenants and certain other ranks in the Navy would be brought into line with the pay of corresponding ranks in the Army; that officers' outfit allowance would be increased by 10*l.*, and the additional allowances to officers for tropical outfit would be raised from 8*l.* to 10*l.*; and that children's allowances would be payable to the wives of soldiers, sailors, and airmen three months before the expected date of birth of a child instead

of from date of birth. The "minimum unit standard" of war service grants was also to be raised from 16s. to 18s. This last increase, it was stated, would require a review by the Ministry of Pensions of over 400,000 grants.

On November 21 the War Savings Campaign completed its third year of work. Since its inception it had raised over 4,500,000,000[^]., which included 1,000,000,000l. from the two major campaigns—the War Weapons and the Warships Weeks. The movement had now affiliated to it more than 300,000 savings groups, it had 600,000 voluntary workers, and there were 16,000,000 holders of savings certificates with holdings totalling over 800,000,000l.

On December 1, the day on which Sir William Jowitt outlined the Government's reconstruction plans in the House of Commons, the eagerly awaited report of Sir William Beveridge on social insurance was issued to the public. Originally, Sir William had been appointed in June, 1941, chairman of an Inter-Departmental Government Committee which was created by Mr. Greenwood, then Minister without Portfolio, to co-ordinate the various existing schemes of social insurance. He himself, however, had aimed further at producing a scheme of social insurance which should practically abolish want; and as this raised issues of high policy involving their own Departments, the Government officials on the Committee resigned in January, 1942, and thenceforth acted simply as his advisers and assessors, so that the report was signed by himself alone.

The report pointed out that provision for most of the many varieties of need through interruption of earnings and other causes had already been made in Britain on a scale not surpassed and hardly rivalled in any other country, save only in the field of medical service and one or two minor matters. But as they then existed, social insurance and the allied services were conducted by a complex of disconnected administrative organs which was both wasteful and troublesome. A number of suggestions were therefore made to improve the system. The chief of these were the unification of social insurance in respect of contributions, that is to say, enabling each insured person to obtain all benefits by a single weekly contribution on a single document; and the establishment of a Ministry of Social Security which would be responsible for social insurance, national assistance, and encouragement and supervision of voluntary insurance, and take over so far as necessary the present work of other Government Departments and local authorities in those fields. The former change would involve the supersession of the existing system of approved societies giving unequal benefits for equal compulsory contributions, and of the existing scheme of workmen's compensation, provision for industrial accident or disease being included within the unified social insurance scheme. Medical

treatment would also be separated from the administration of cash benefits, and a comprehensive medical service would be set up for all citizens, covering all treatment and every form of disability under the supervision of the Health Departments.

For achieving the more ambitious object of abolishing want by means of social insurance, even more drastic changes were proposed in the existing system. These fell under two main heads. One was a considerable enlargement of the benefits granted, whether by actual increase of their monetary value, or by extension of the time during which they were to be received. The other was an extension of benefit to new classes of recipients. Thus unemployment benefit was to be raised from 36s. per week for 26 weeks, followed by assistance on a means test, to 56s. per week for an unlimited period without a means test. A similar increase was proposed in the benefit for industrial and other disability. Old age pensions were to be increased to 2*l.* per week within a period of twenty years, and widows' pensions to the same amount, subject to reduction on account of earnings. There was also to be a funeral benefit of 20*l.* Among the new recipients of benefit were to be housewives, who would be covered by their husbands' contribution, and persons gainfully occupied but not as employees. An allowance of 8s. a week was also to be made for every child after the first.

Assuming that 1945 would be the first year of the revised benefits, the report estimated the total cost in that year at 697,000,000*l.*, rising to 858,000,000*l.* in 1965, when old age pensions would reach their full scale. Out of these sums 367,000,000*l.* in 1945 and 553,000,000*l.* in 1965 would be for social insurance, *i.e.* exclusive of pensions, and would be met from the social insurance funds with self-contained finance. The remainder would have to be found by the Exchequer. The rate of contribution proposed for employed males over 21 was 45. 3*d.*, with 3s. 3*d.* from the employer; there were corresponding rates for other classes. This was a great increase on the 1*s.* 1*d.* at present paid by male workers, but it was reckoned that under the new scheme they would benefit at the rate of 1*s.* for 3*d.*, instead of 9*d.* for 4*d.* as at present.

The report, with its bold challenge to current conceptions and arrangements, aroused widespread interest not only in England but also in foreign countries. The new proposals were generally recognised as representing the greatest advance in the field of social security since the introduction of unemployment insurance by Mr. Lloyd George in 1911. In the main the reception accorded to them was highly favourable, though naturally there were not wanting voices which criticised them as being either too socialistic or not socialistic enough.

While post-war problems were being debated at home, the Eighth Army in Libya had continued relentlessly its pursuit

of General Rommel, who, as in the previous year, made no pause until he reached the other end of Cyrenaica. Following close on his tracks the British on November 16 occupied Mekili and on the 21st Benghazi. A few days later they made contact with the enemy at Jedabia, and from here their advance was slowed down by mines and other obstacles. Reaching Mersa Brega they found Rommel strongly entrenched between this place and El Agheila, in a position which in its natural features greatly resembled that of El Alamein, and was almost as impregnable. Before attacking therefore General Montgomery made a pause to await reinforcements and prepare his dispositions.

By this time the British were engaged on the other side of North Africa also. After gaining control of Algeria, General Eisenhower had committed the task of occupying Tunisia to the British First Army under command of Lieutenant-General Anderson. On November 13 General Anderson advanced as far as Bone, where he established his headquarters. From here he sent ahead light forces, including parachute troops, to seize strategical points in the country before the Germans could bring over forces from Italy. These advanced elements by the end of the month had actually penetrated to within a few miles of both Tunis and Bizerta, which were also subjected to heavy attack from the air. By this time, however, the enemy had received considerable reinforcements, especially in the air, and early in December the British, whom General Anderson was still unable to support owing to difficulties of communication and lack of airfields, were forced to fall back from their most advanced points at Jedeida and Tebourba. They succeeded, however, in making a stand at Medjez el Bab, some 30 miles south-west of Tunis, where fierce fighting commenced about December 11.

The failure of the British to gain possession of the airfields in Tunisia destroyed any chance they might have had of driving the enemy out of that country before the end of the year. This disappointment was, however, to some extent compensated by another brilliant success in Libya. By this time General Montgomery, having completed his preparations, was getting ready to make a frontal attack on Rommel's lines, while threatening him with an enveloping movement from the south. The British were fully prepared for a repetition of El Alamein, but Rommel did not put them to the test. On December 13 he commenced to retreat hastily to the West, allowing the British to enter Mersa Brega and El Agheila without opposition. Thus the most formidable obstacle to the British advance to Tripoli was removed without a blow.

On November 26 questions were asked in the House of Commons about the status of Admiral Darlan. When this traitor and arch-enemy of England was first recognised by

General Eisenhower as Governor of North Africa at the beginning of the campaign, the public had with some hesitation accepted the plea that the step was purely one of military expediency, which indeed seemed to justify itself by its results. Now, however, that the Admiral was commencing to arrogate to himself almost dictatorial powers, it was becoming very uneasy over the matter, nor was it entirely reassured by President Roosevelt's statement that the arrangement was only temporary. The fact that energetic protests were raised by General de Gaulle and the Russian Ambassador also made it suspicious that some underhand dealing was going on. Mr. Eden refused to add anything to what was already known, or to set aside a day for a debate on the subject. After further pressure, however, he promised on December 3 that a statement would be made to the House in the next week in a secret session. The secret session was duly held on December 10, when a statement was made by the Prime Minister. Whatever may have been the effect on members of Parliament, the Press continued to show marked uneasiness.

Great as had been the exertions made by Britain to gain command of North Africa, the Government took the view that still greater exertions would be required in the coming year in order to follow up this success with an invasion of Europe. It therefore began to plan ahead betimes for this purpose. Already, on October 22, a proclamation had been issued making youths who had reached the age of 18 by that date liable to be called up ; hitherto, since the previous December, the lowest age had stood at 18J. On October 26 it was announced that deferments granted in a number of occupations to men under 25, and in others to men under 30, would be brought to an end. On December 8 the Minister of Labour moved the second reading of a Bill empowering the Government to call up youths for registration and medical examination at the age of 17 years and 8 months, so that as soon as they reached 18 they might be ready to commence training. Mr. Bevin stated that the Government still had no intention of sending youths abroad before 19, but the strain of modern war rendered a full year's training or thereabouts absolutely necessary. He further stated that male students entering Universities to take an Arts course would no longer be able to claim a year's exemption, as heretofore. Strong protests were raised against this ruling, on the ground that it would interfere seriously with the supply of teachers after the war ; but the Government refused to withdraw it.

In order to decide on the allocation of man-power for future operations, it was necessary for the Government to know exactly what supplies they could reckon on receiving from America in the coming year. For this purpose Mr. Lyttelton paid a visit to Washington in November. He found there the greatest

readiness to co-operate, and was able to bring home offers of very substantial assistance. In the House of Commons on December 16 he stated that agreement had been reached on a certain minimum import programme for Great Britain for the period ending in December, 1943, and that, subject to unforeseen emergencies, the United States Government had undertaken to supplement the British shipping resources and to allot to them out of their expanding production of merchant ships the tonnage needed to achieve the programme. Combined programmes, with suitable allocations, had also been drawn up with regard to escort vessels and nearly all major items of ground equipment; while the allocation of aircraft for 1943 was substantially higher than any figures previously discussed. The object of these arrangements was to secure the "optimum impact" on the enemy in 1943, and to settle the pattern of production and the allocation of man-power accordingly.

On December 7 the report was issued of a Committee appointed in January to inquire into matters concerning electoral registration and the distribution of Parliamentary seats. The Committee recommended a system of "continuous registration," by utilising the National Register system, introduced before the war, to secure that no elector was removed from the register of any constituency until entered on the register of another. A minority, however, were of opinion that the local government registers could be used for this purpose. The Committee also advised that, since the first General Election after the war would probably find large bodies of armed forces posted abroad, arrangements should be made betimes to enable them to exercise their franchise. In the event of a war-time election, use might be made of the National Registration Identity Cards to identify voters. With regard to redistribution, the Committee recommended that a review of the state of the constituencies, coupled with redistribution proposals where necessary, should be made during the lifetime of every Parliament, and that a permanent Statutory Commission should be created to do this. As evidence of maldistribution the report mentioned that in 1939 there were 119 constituencies which had ceased to discharge the function of returning "an equal share of representation in the House of Commons," 87 by being grossly over-represented and 32 by being grossly under-represented. By 1941 the 119 had grown to 164, the 87 to 128, and the 32 to 36.

On December 16 a debate took place in the House of Commons on a regulation recently issued by the Ministry of Health—No. 33B—dealing with venereal disease, of which there had been a somewhat alarming increase since the outbreak of the war. The regulation, while leaving notification still voluntary, made concealment rather more difficult. It was strongly attacked by some women members, who declared that it was merely tinkering

with a most serious problem, and demanded compulsory notification. The Minister of Health defended the regulation on the ground that it represented only part of the Government's policy, which included also public education and indirect action to discourage promiscuity. He promised, however, that if new powers were needed, he would not be slow to ask the House for them. A motion for annulling the regulation was negatived by 245 votes to 31.

On December 8 the Government received a communication from the Swiss Government suggesting that they and the German Government—to whom a similar communication was made—should free all prisoners of war in their hands from shackles on December 15 (*vide* p. 75). The Government welcomed the suggestion, and, without waiting for the German Government's answer, unshackled all German prisoners on December 12. This step was warmly approved by public opinion, a large part of which had from the first regarded the shackling as undignified, in spite of the provocation given.

On December 15 the report was issued of a Committee appointed in October, 1941, to consider the practicability and desirability of further developments in the use of water-power resources in the Scottish Highlands for the generation of electricity. For years past private enterprise had been seeking for powers to carry out such development—chiefly for the purpose of expanding certain electro-chemical and electro-metallurgical industries—but it had met with strong opposition, partly to prevent the exploitation of the local population, partly to save the natural amenities of the Highlands. The Committee's plan for getting over the former difficulty was that the responsibility for further development should be placed in the hands of a new body of five members, to be called the North of Scotland Hydro-electric Board, which should act as a non-profit-earning public service corporation. On the subject of amenity the Committee pointed out that in the majority of cases the undeveloped water resources were in the loneliest and most inaccessible parts of the British Isles, and it held therefore that a few localised interferences with natural beauties would be an insignificant price to pay for the solid material benefits which would accrue to the Highlands from the policy they recommended.

On December 17 a statement was read by the Foreign Secretary in the House of Commons and the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords condemning in the strongest possible terms the Nazi policy of exterminating the Jews in Europe, of which reliable reports had recently come to hand. Such events, it said, could only strengthen the resolve of all freedom-loving peoples to overthrow the barbarous Hitlerite tyranny; and the British and Allied Governments reaffirmed their solemn resolution to ensure that those responsible for the crimes should not escape

retribution, and to press on with the necessary practical measures for that end. The statement deeply moved the House, which after hearing it stood for a time in silence to show its sympathy with the victims.

After the British capture of El Agheila the military position in North Africa underwent no material change till the end of the year. The British continued their pursuit of Rommel's retreating forces along the coast road to Tripoli, without, however, being able to bring them to bay and so achieve their principal object of annihilating them. On December 16 advanced British elements, which had made a detour to the south of the coast road, penetrated to the coast at Wadi Matratin, between 50 and 60 miles from El Agheila, cutting off Rommel's rearguard from his main force, but they were not strong enough to contain the intercepted troops, which managed to fight their way out with some loss. By the 21st the British were at Nofilia, and on Christmas Day they occupied Sirte. They were held up for a few days at Wadi Bei el Kabeir, but this position was also abandoned to them before the New Year, which thus found them about 200 miles from Tripoli; the Air Force from Libya had already made contact with that from Tunisia.

In Tunis the British retained their hold on Medjez el Bab, in spite of fierce German assaults. On December 26 they succeeded at the fourth attempt in capturing and holding the Jebel Ahmera, an important height north-west of Medjez el Bab, but three days later they evacuated it again. Neither side seemed to be yet ready for large-scale land operations, which in any case were rendered impracticable by the heavy rains. Meanwhile, however, the Allied Air Forces displayed great activity, and repeatedly bombed the harbours of Bizerta and Tunis. British Naval and Air Forces also played havoc with enemy supplies at sea; on December 28 Admiral Cunningham asserted that on an average one enemy ship a day had been sunk in the Sicilian Straits in the preceding two weeks.

Towards the end of the year the British opened a minor offensive on a new front—in Burma. After a long period of probing by patrols, British and Indian troops on December 19 crossed the frontier from India and began to advance through swamp and jungle along the coast. They met with very little Japanese opposition, and by the end of the year had come within 25 miles of Akyab. The occupation of this strip of coast was of no importance for the reconquest of Burma, as there were no connexions inland, but it afforded India additional protection against invasion.

In December two actions of sufficient note to be announced by the Admiralty were fought in defence of convoys on the high seas. The first was in the early days of the month, when an important convoy on its way to England was threatened in the

Atlantic by a number of U-boats. It was defended by an escort of British, Polish, and Norwegian ships, along with British, Canadian, and United States aircraft, which in a series of thirty-five actions extending over four days and four nights sank two U-boats and damaged a number of others, and finally brought the convoy to Britain, not, however, without some loss. The second engagement took place on the last day of the year, when a small force of British destroyers escorting a convoy to Russia made contact in northern waters with a greatly superior force of enemy surface craft. Attacking with great gallantry it kept the enemy at bay till more powerful forces arrived in support, losing one destroyer itself and sinking one enemy ship, after which it brought the convoy safely to its destination.

A number of fairly heavy raids were carried out by British and American aircraft in December over Western Germany and Northern and Western France, besides two very heavy raids on Turin early in the month. Nevertheless, at the end of the year the public were still waiting for the fulfilment of the grandiose promises made by Air Ministry spokesmen in the summer, that before long Germany would be bombed on an unprecedented scale, and in all weathers. However, they could console themselves with the thought that British supplies, often conveyed at great risk, had contributed not a little to the successes which were then being won by the Russians, and which were giving a very favourable turn to the war situation, in spite of the check to the British advance in Tunis.

The political situation in French North Africa, where the partisans of Vichy seemed to be still in control, continued to be a source of anxiety in England. The assassination of Admiral Darlan in the middle of December and the appointment of General Giraud as his successor had not made the difference which had been expected; and the Prime Minister came to the conclusion that British interests in the country ought to be more directly represented. Accordingly, on December 30, he appointed Mr. Harold Maemillan, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, to be Minister Resident at Allied Headquarters in North-West Africa, with Cabinet rank and the duty of reporting directly to himself. This step was taken with the concurrence of President Roosevelt, who already had a similar representative there. Other Ministerial changes were announced at the same time. In accordance with the promise recently made by the Government, a Minister-designate for Town and Country Planning was appointed, in the person of the Postmaster-General, Mr. W. S. Morrison, who was succeeded in that office by Captain Crookshank, Financial Secretary to the Treasury. Sir W. Jowitt became Minister without Portfolio, being succeeded as Paymaster-General by Lord Cherwell (formerly Professor Lindemann), a distinguished scientist who since the beginning of the war had been Mr.

Churchill's confidential adviser on technical and scientific matters, especially those connected with aircraft construction.

The good record of the year in the matter of air raids over Britain continued till the end; in November the numbers of killed and injured from this cause sank as low as 24 and 38 respectively, and though somewhat higher in December they were still only 109 and 201 (official figures published by the Ministry of Home Security). Thus the damage caused by enemy action during the year could be considered as negligible; and meanwhile the repair of the damage done in the period of heavy bombardment was going on apace. On November 10 the Minister of Health stated that of over 2,750,000 houses in England and Wales which had been damaged by bombs since the outbreak of the war—more than one in five in the country—2,500,000 had been repaired by the local authorities and occupied, while 135,000 new houses had been brought into use. In other respects also the year had brought less hardship than had been anticipated. In spite of the intensified U-boat campaign and the increased military demands on shipping, the food situation in 1942 had deteriorated little if at all; if some foods had grown scarcer others had become more plentiful, while the more equitable distribution continued to make underfeeding much less common than it had been in peace-time. Lord Woolton informed the public with no small satisfaction that out of five hundred letters which he had received shortly before Christmas only one had asked for an increase in food rations. The danger of a coal shortage still threatened, but so far there had been sufficient. The one sphere in which restrictions were seriously tightened during this year was that of travel, whether by rail or road. Unfortunately the drastic reduction in the supply of petrol to private users had not brought greater safety on the roads; the number of casualties from motor accidents, though somewhat less than in the previous year, was still disquietingly high.

All in all, the year ended on a note of quiet optimism. The difficulties ahead were not under-estimated, but the public realised that the nation was better armed to meet them than a year ago, and that the combined efforts of the Allies held out good promise of victory over a system which showed more and more clearly that it was inhuman and devilish to the core.

IMPERIAL HISTORY

CHAPTER I

IRELAND

NORTHERN IRELAND

As a result of representations by Mr. de Valera Northern Ireland was exempted from conscription at an early stage in the war, and it therefore enjoyed all the economic advantages of the war industries boom of a belligerent country, while free from compulsory national service. Hence the paradoxical position of an "unemployed" roll of 17,000, despite the fact that the working classes as a whole were never so prosperous in their lives. Large numbers of men and women from Eire were working in Northern Ireland, but they all had to register and obtain permits, and when their services are no longer needed for the war emergency, they will have to leave the Six County area. Mr. Andrews, the Northern Ireland Premier, emphasised the Government's attitude on this point in a speech delivered at a luncheon of the Grand Orange Lodge in Sandy Row Orange Hall in Belfast on December 9. They had to make sure, he said, "that people who came from Eire to Northern Ireland to work during the war were not allowed to settle down there and become voters. A Unionist Government must always be in power in Northern Ireland."

Replying to the contention of Mr. Edward Warnock, K.C., M.P., in a letter to the Unionist Press urging him to go to Mr. Churchill and tell him that the people of Northern Ireland demanded conscription, Mr. Andrews stated on January 16 in the Northern Ireland Parliament that to present an ultimatum to Mr. Churchill on that issue would be "unthinkable, unpatriotic, and indefensible." In response to a motion raised by Mr. H. M. Midgely (Labour) on January 20, calling for a reconstitution of the Government on a basis calculated to inspire public confidence, as expressed by the recent by-elections, Mr. Andrews said that he would not "take any member of the Opposition into his Government." Mr. Andrews also refused to raise the conscription issue again. The motion was defeated next day (January 21) by 23 votes to 8.

Several thousand American troops landed in Northern Ireland on January 26, and were met by Sir Archibald Sinclair, British Air Minister, the Duke of Abercorn, Governor-General of Northern Ireland, Mr. J. M. Andrews, the Northern Premier, and British Army chiefs. On January 27 Mr. de Valera protested against the arrival of these troops. Replying, on January 28 in the Northern

Ireland Parliament, to this protest, Mr. Andrews denied Mr. de Valera's right to interfere in Northern Ireland's affairs. Later in the year Mr. Andrews had to reply to Mr. de Valera once again. Commenting in the Northern Parliament on March 18 on Mr. de Valera's broadcast from Dublin on St. Patrick's night, the Prime Minister stated that unified defence of Ireland, in association with the forces of the Crown, was possible if Eire was prepared to take its share in the war against the Axis Powers and to accept all the implications of belligerency. For Northern Ireland there could be no neutrality in this war. The very idea was abhorrent to them.

Northern Ireland was prepared for a possible invasion, said Mr. Andrews on April 1. A Northern Ireland Home Defence Committee had been established with Sir Basil Brooke, Minister of Commerce and Production, as chairman.

The wave of political crime which had swept the country for several months, and which led to several members of the I.R.A. being sentenced to long terms of penal servitude for unlawful possession of firearms and illegal documents culminated in an attack in the afternoon of April 5 from behind an air-raid shelter on four members of the Royal Ulster Constabulary. In the course of the fight Constable Murphy was killed. On April 30 seven men were returned for trial for the murder of Constable Murphy to the City Commission. Six men were condemned to death for the murder, but only one man was hanged, and the sentences on the other five were commuted to penal servitude for life.

An order rationing domestic coal was made on May 5 by Sir Basil Brooke, the Minister of Commerce and Production for Northern Ireland.

Mr. J. Milne Barbour, the Northern Ireland Minister of Finance, in a Budget statement made on May 12, estimated the total revenue to be raised from all sources for the coming year at 37,381,000l., to which he added 4,416,000l., representing Britain's contribution to the Civil Defence Forces in Northern Ireland.

With the approval of the vast majority of the citizens of Belfast, the Government passed legislation, whereby the Belfast Corporation was permitted to exist and have control of policy, while all matters relating to contracts and expenditure were placed in the hands of three administrators—one a Civil servant and the other two, leading business men who accept no fee for their service. The new system which ended a sorry state of affairs and has already ensured purity of administration, economy, and efficiency, came into operation on October 1.

"But for the uncalled interference of Downing Street, the Northern Government would to-day be singing its swan song," said Mr. J. Beattie (Labour) in the Northern Parliament on November 25, condemning the postponement of a General Election in Northern Ireland for a year.

Speaking in Belfast on December 8, Mr. Andrews, the Northern Ireland Premier, said it would be necessary to use pressure on the British Government to have the Beveridge Scheme applied in Northern Ireland in whatever shape it emerged from Westminster.

During a debate in the Ulster House of Commons on December 22 it was stated that 3,200 houses had been destroyed in Belfast by enemy action, and in addition 53,000 houses were damaged, 3,962 of them badly. The Corporation had carried out repairs to approximately 41,000.

EIRE

The year 1942 was one of continuous desperate endeavour on the part of the Government of Eire to keep what few industries the country possessed from complete extinction, owing to the extreme shortage of coal, petrol, metal, and newsprint. The transport system of the country especially experienced serious difficulties all through the year. Like the Government of Northern Ireland, the Eire Government had to face trouble from the I.R.A. during the year.

On January 1 the export of porter and beer from Eire to Britain and Northern Ireland was reduced temporarily to about 75 per cent, of the quantity exported for the quarter which ended September 30, 1941.

On January 2 Mr. Justice Black, at a special meeting of the High Court, gave Mr. MacBride, B.L., permission to serve notice on the Attorney-General, on the Registrar of Military Court, and on the Governor of Arbour Hill Barracks, Dublin, a notice of motion to be heard on January 13 for an order of Habeas Corpus directed to the Governor of Arbour Hill Barracks to produce before that court three prisoners charged with murder, and also an order directed to the Registrar of the Military Court prohibiting that Court from proceeding to the trial of those prisoners on January 6. The prisoners were George Plant, of Johnstown, Fethard, Co. Tipperary, Michael Walsh, of Kilmacow, Co. Kilkenny, and Patrick Davern, of Glenbower, Co. Tipperary, who had been returned for trial on December 31, 1941, before a special Military Court at Collins Barracks under the Emergency Powers Act charged with the murder of Michael Devereux, of Maudlins-town, Co. Wexford, in Tipperary, on September 28, 1940. On January 16 the High Court unanimously refused the application for the order of Habeas Corpus directed to the Governor of Arbour Hill Barracks in the case of the three men charged with the murder of Michael Devereux. Notice of appeal was lodged with the Supreme Court. On January 21 an appeal was opened in the Devereux murder case in the Supreme Court, and on the same day a further adjournment until February 3 was granted by the Military Court at Collins Barracks in the case of the three **men** arraigned.

Speaking in Dublin at a general meeting of the Institute of Civil Engineers of Ireland on January 5, Mr. de Valera said that for the coming year it was intended to make the whole country, except Dublin, Dun Laoghaire, and perhaps a few other cities, practically self-sufficient with regard to turf fuel. Referring to the development of Eire's military strength, it was intended for one purpose only—"To defend ourselves against any aggressor, no matter who the aggressor might be. We cannot say that considerable progress has been made in that direction," he added.

On January 8 Mr. Lemass, Minister of Supplies, told a meeting of Pressmen that in a few weeks' time bread would be rationed. The outlook for newsprint was most gloomy, and apart from small shipments already arranged, there was little prospect of further supplies.

The Department of Agriculture on January 9 announced that on and from January 12 the export of store cattle would be prohibited until further notice. Only fat cattle for immediate slaughter and milch cows and springers might be exported. On January 14 Dr. Ryan, Minister for Agriculture, announced that from February 1 the export of store cattle would be resumed on a much larger scale, because there would be no restriction with regard to numbers. On January 16 Dr. Ryan prohibited the export from Eire of any cattle to Northern Ireland except under permit. A number of dealers, it was contended, were booking cattle to counties in Northern Ireland, and then re-booking them to Britain as stores. On January 23 the Department of Agriculture announced that cattle might be exported from Northern Ireland from the following Monday without export permits, and that the ban on the export of store cattle to Britain imposed a fortnight before would be removed as from the same day.

Replying to newspaper representatives on January 27, Mr. de Valera said that the Irish Government had not been consulted either by the British or by the American Government with regard to the coming of American troops to the Six Counties. The people of Ireland had no hostility towards, and no desire to be brought in any way into conflict with the United States. "For reasons which I referred to a few weeks before, the contrary is the case," Mr. de Valera went on, "but it is our duty to make it clearly understood that, no matter what troops occupy the Six Counties, the Irish people's claim for the union of the whole of the National Territory and for supreme jurisdiction over it will remain unabated."

Mr. McGilligan (Fine Gael, Mr. Cosgrave's Party, Dublin), raised the question on February 18 of the manner in which the censorship had been exercised in specific circumstances. He complained among other things that the *Kilkenny People*, for publishing a Bishop's pastoral asking, "What those accursed

bombers mean by bombing our poor country ? " was compelled to submit all the matter which it intended to publish in subsequent issues. The Bishop did not mention the nationality of the bombers, but the Government a week later accused the Germans of violating Irish Nationality. Mr. Aiken replied that the *Kilkenny People* was suppressed not on account of the Bishop's letter, but because of a leading article which was " a bad day's work for neutrality," and when the Editor promised not to offend again, he was let off, and never again asked to submit a single line. The protest was significant of the severity of what has been described as the strictest censorship in the world. The result is that while in Northern Ireland Catholic Bishops may speak their minds freely about German brutality, in Catholic Eire, Bishops' statements and even messages from the Vatican have been banned by the censorship.

On February 19 Mr. J. M. Dillon, Deputy Leader of Fine Gael (Mr. Cosgrave's Party), in the Dail and a vice-president of the party, resigned from that organisation. This was a sequel to his statement at the Ard-Feis that whosoever attacked America was his enemy, and that the survival of the Irish nation depended on the maintenance of the Irish-American alliance.

On March 1 it was announced in the Dail by Mr. S. T. O'Kelly, Minister of Finance, that he would Budget in May for about 44,000,000l., the highest Eire Budget so far.

On March 3 rationing of gas began to be operated in Dublin, supplies being only available from 7 A. M. to 8.30 A. M., from 11.30 A. M. to 1.30 P. M., and from 5.30 P. M. to 10.30 P. M.

On March 5 the Central Bank Bill became law. By its provisions the Central Bank was to be the principal currency authority in the State, but would not interfere in any way with the functions of ordinary banks. The existing Currency Commission would be dissolved, and its powers transferred to the Central Bank, while the existing Consolidated Bank notes would be withdrawn within a period of twelve years, and replaced by Central Bank notes. These notes amounted to about 6,000,000l.

On March 6 a sentence of four years' penal servitude was passed by the Special Criminal Court in Dublin on Thomas McAnaspie, Lower Gardiner Street, Dublin, who was found guilty of possessing ammunition and incriminating documents and of membership of an illegal body.

Broadcasting from Dublin on Saint Patrick's night, Mr. de Valera asserted that " the unnatural dismemberment of this Island stands in the way of its most effective defence." This defence Mr. de Valera defined as " a unified defence organised by the Irish people themselves."

On March 30 Mr. Sean Lemass, the Minister of Supplies, announced that there would be no coal in Eire for domestic purposes during the two months' ration period beginning April 1,

and nobody could say when coal for household purposes would again be obtainable.

In his address at the annual meeting of the shareholders of Independent Newspapers Ltd., on March 31, Dr. W. Lombard Murphy, the chairman, stated that, unless new supplies of newsprint could be imported, the whole of the newspapers in Eire would have to shut down. The Minister of Supplies had promised to give every assistance in his power to arrange for the import of newsprint if it were possible for him to do so.

Commenting on April 1 on a King's Bench decision that an Eire citizen in England resident there since 1934 was liable for military service in England, Mr. de Valera said that the present Irish Constitution, the Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act of 1935, and the other Irish laws related thereto, determined the national status of all persons born in Ireland and of Irish parentage. "In so far as the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914, purports still to apply, or is applied by British Courts to Irish citizens to-day," continued Mr. de Valera, "it runs directly counter to all the recognised international principles governing such matters."

By an order of the Controller of Flour and Bread Supplies it became illegal from April 6 to use in the manufacture of bread and flour confectionery for sale, any flour or wheaten flour which was not of 100 per cent, extraction. This did not apply to biscuits.

Mr. Stephen O'Mara, head of O'Mara Ltd., the great bacon curers, said in Limerick on April 28 that the total supply of pigs in Eire was only one-half of what it had been a year previously.

Mr. Sean T. O'Kelly, Minister of Finance, announced on May 6 that as a stimulus to employment he was proposing no fresh taxation for the coming year in his Budget speech. He proposed to raise 4,558,000l. by borrowing.

On May 13 the Electricity Supply Board assumed powers to restrict or ration the quantity of electricity supplied to the consumer generally or for any other purpose.

The *City of Bremen*, an Eire ship with a cargo of wheat bound for Dublin, sank off the Spanish coast on June 6. Twenty-two survivors were landed at Vigo, on the north coast of Spain, by a Spanish fishing-boat.

To the ringing call of a coach-horn blown by a scarlet-coated guard the first coach from Rathkeale reached Limerick on June 8, inaugurating a regular daily service. Viscount Adare was the owner of the coach and the promoter of this enterprise. This means of transport of an earlier age had been re-introduced owing to the shortage of petrol and coal.

Clothes rationing began in Eire on June 9. To protest against what they considered regulations ruinous to their interests in the scheme, about 8,000 persons employed in the drapery and allied trades marched to the Mansion House, where Mr. A. E. McGuire,

chairman of the Drapers' Chamber of Trade, addressed a crowd which, he said, represented all classes in Dublin.

The total revenue during the first quarter of the financial year ended June 30 was 8,888,9082., compared with 7,355,8381. for the same period during the previous years—an increase of 1,533,9502. according to the Exchequer figures issued on that day. The balance in the Exchequer was 1,460,1322. against 2,394,3752., and national expenditure totalled 9,762,6161. against 9,785,4162. in the previous year.

Allegations that the Government were making use of the Emergency Powers Act to depress the standard of living were made by Labour and Fine Gael speakers in the Dail on July 1, when Mr. de Valera moved the second reading of the Emergency Powers (Continuation and Amendment) Bill. The penalty for summary conviction was increased from 1002. to 5002., and the period of imprisonment from one to two years. For conviction on indictment the maximum penalty was increased from 5002. to 5,0002.

Dr. J. Hannigan, T.D., stated on November 2 that at least one person in every 100 in Eire suffered from tuberculosis, and that at least one death in ten was due to that disease.

The Department of Supplies served stop orders on November 2 on merchants or others who had accumulated substantial stocks of commodities for sale, if there was reason to believe that those commodities had been acquired in opposition to authority, and were intended for disposal, or partly for disposal in the black market.

To ensure a sufficient number of farm and turf workers for the peak period of 1943, the Government took steps to restrict emigration, to establish a register of such workers, and to provide a retainer of 5«. per week for them while unemployed in addition to any unemployment benefit or assistance due to them.

On November 8 Mr. de Valera made a special appeal at Longford for the preservation of unity at all costs among the Irish people. On the same day Mr. Lemass, the Minister of Supplies, stated at Limerick that the Government would acquiesce in the postponement of a General Election only if it was evident that such a course had general agreement.

Mrs. Margaret Buckley, speaking at the thirty-third Sinn Feinn Ard-Feis in Dublin on November 8 said, that owing to the bungling criminal inefficiency and neglect of the Fianna Fail Government, Eire which could maintain 8,000,000 could not feed a miserable 2,000,000.

Mr. Sean Lemass, Minister of Supplies, addressing the Con Colbert Cumann of Fianna Fail at Inchicore on November 23, said that it was now possible to count in weeks the period within which the cumulative difficulties of fuel and tyre shortage would produce complete or almost complete stoppage of transport.

On December 1 a better beet-harvest than had been expected was announced. On December 2 the Minister for Agriculture said that he was aiming at a tillage increase of about 600,000 acres for the coming year.

Irish Shipping, Ltd., announced on December 4 that the *Irish Pine*, a vessel of 5,621 tons, and carrying a crew of 33, was missing and presumed lost. No news had been received of the crew. This was the second shipping loss during the year.

Mr. de Valera announced in the Dail on December 9 that, "unless something extraordinary happens," a General Election would not be held before the reassembly of the Dail on February 3, 1943.

The Alliance and Dublin Consumers Gas Company announced on December 14 that on Christmas Day a continuous gas supply would be available from 7.30 A.M. to midnight, and on December 23 and 24 the supply would be continuous from 5.30 A.M. to 3 P.M. and from 1 P.M. to 9.30 P.M.

CHAPTER II

CANADA

CANADA'S determination to marshal her total resources for the more vigorous prosecution of the war dominated all her activities throughout the year.

At the opening of the Third Session of the Nineteenth Parliament at Ottawa on January 22, the Speech from the Throne delivered by the Earl of Athlone, Governor-General, foreshadowed the Government's legislative programme and announced that during the session opportunity would be afforded for the fullest discussion of Canada's war effort.

Mr. R. B. Hanson (Acting Leader of the Opposition), moving an amendment to the Address, urged immediate action by Parliament to acclaim full mobilisation and a full pooling of both manpower, materials, and wealth for which no further mandate was necessary; condemned the failure of the voluntary enlistment system, and advocated national unity represented by "a truly National Government."

The Prime Minister, Mr. Mackenzie King, replied that the political controversy was obscuring the magnitude and balanced nature of Canada's war effort, and threatened to impair its efficiency; attempts were being made to confuse in the public mind three things which should be kept distinct. The first related to total war effort to meet total war; the second to national selective service as a means to that end; the third to the application of compulsion without restriction of any kind, to conscription for service in the armed forces overseas. Total

effort to meet total war, and national selective service had always been the policy of the present Administration. In the case of compulsion, which also formed part of the Government's policy, only one definite limitation had been recognised, and that was the use of compulsion as a method of raising men for military service overseas. The only difference between those who supported the Administration and those who were seeking to create opposition, was a difference with respect to the application of compulsion in raising men for military service overseas.

So far as the Navy and the Air Force were concerned, the numbers who had volunteered had considerably exceeded the number it had been possible to accept for immediate service. In Britain, as in Canada, compulsion was not used as a method of raising fighting men for the Navy and Air Force. The question, therefore, narrowed down solely to the application of compulsion in raising men for the Army: narrower even than that, since compulsion was already being employed to raise men for service in the Army in Canada. The issue thus narrowed to conscription for overseas service related only to possible future contingency, since up to the present the active Army had secured the necessary recruits on a voluntary basis.

After referring to the difficult task of a correct balance in the use of Canada's resources between different aspects of the war effort, Mr. King stated that a necessary foundation of their whole effort was the maintenance of the security of Canadian territories and the adjacent lands of Newfoundland and Labrador. He stressed the contribution to the food supply of Great Britain as a vital aspect of the war effort, and reviewed the achievements of the Dominion's Navy, Army, and Air Force.

At the outbreak of war there had been some twenty ships and less than 2,000 men in the Royal Canadian Navy. At the beginning of 1942 the Navy comprised 350 ships and 27,600 men. At the outbreak of war the Permanent Active Militia included about 4,500 men. At the close of 1941 there were more than 260,000 men in the Canadian active Army, enlisted for service in any part of the world. About half that number were on active service outside Canada. A third infantry division, an army tank brigade, forestry troops, and other specialised units, and thousands of reinforcements were in Britain, in addition to the original corps of two divisions. In addition to the active Army, several thousand young men had, during 1941, been called up for military training in Canada. In the Reserve Army 140,000 men had been enrolled. At the outbreak of war the active strength of the Royal Canadian Air Force was some 4,000 all ranks. By the close of 1941 it exceeded 100,000 men. Canada's own Air Force in the field had expanded to twenty-eight squadrons already formed or in the final stages of formation in Britain. Thousands more of the Canadian pilots and air crews were serving as individuals with the

Royal Air Force. Canada's share in the war in the air had reached a stage where Canadian airmen had become a major factor in the armed strength of the British Commonwealth.

Canada had undertaken, in addition to equipping her own divisions, to help equip British, Australian, New Zealand, and Russian divisions. In two years of war Canada had experienced an industrial revolution. The country was now producing every type of machine and equipment called for in the munitions programme. In some directions this production had reached staggering proportions. Their shipbuilding programme involved an expenditure of over 500,000,000 dollars. They were engaged in a merchant shipbuilding programme so great as nearly to equal Britain's own programme. Canada was also engaged on the construction of destroyers. They were making guns of all kinds. Production was now going to be concentrated upon seven modern types of aircraft. One of the most spectacular achievements had been the production of army vehicles, of which 200,000 of all types had already been delivered. Canadian tanks had already been in action in Russia. The United States, as well as Britain, looked to Canada for a part of their supply of essential base metals. Production of aluminium, nickel, lead, and zinc had grown steadily in volume. Their steel production was still expanding. Since the invasion of Norway cut off all European supply, Canadian timber had been vital to Britain's war effort. Canada had sent to Britain vast quantities of wheat and flour, bacon and other pork products, cheese, eggs, and honey. For Britain, for many of the nations fighting for freedom, Canada was an arsenal, a shipyard, a storehouse for food as well as a full partner on the fighting front.

Turning to finance, the Prime Minister stated that their direct war expenditure from the beginning until December 31, 1941, had reached 1,721,000,000 dollars. In addition, the Government undertook to provide whatever Canadian dollars were necessary to pay the Canadian producers of war supplies for Britain. The curtailment of civilian consumption was absolutely vital to a total war effort. It was in order to spread the burdens of war as fairly as possible that the Government undertook to control all prices and, where necessary, to take other steps to control civilian consumption.

Recalling the international problems caused after the last war by the existence of huge debts owed by one Government to another, Mr. King said the Government, anxious to avoid similar difficulties in the post-war relations between Britain and Canada, proposed new financial arrangements. In so far as past transactions were concerned, the proposal was to convert the major portion of the pounds sterling which had accumulated to Canada's credit in London into a loan to the United Kingdom of 700,000,000 dollars. It was proposed that, during the war, the loan would

be reduced by the proceeds of any sales made to persons outside the United Kingdom of Canadian dollar securities now held by residents of the United Kingdom, and also by the proceeds of the redemption of any Canadian securities held in the United Kingdom. The new loan would not bear interest during the war. As soon as practicable after the war, it was proposed that the Governments of the two countries should arrange an appropriate rate of interest to apply from that time forward, and make provisions for retiring the loan. Under the arrangement the Canadian Government would purchase outright the remaining Dominion Government and Canadian National Railway securities owned by residents of Britain, estimated at 295,000,000 dollars.

"For the future," continued the Prime Minister, "in addition to the financial provision for raising and maintaining Canada's own Armed Forces, the Government will, as a part of Canada's direct contribution to the defeat of the Axis, ask Parliament to make provision for meeting Britain's shortage of Canadian dollars, by supplying, free of charge and without obligation, to Britain munitions of war, raw materials, and foodstuffs up to an amount of *one billion dollars*. Such provision would mean that thereafter Canada's direct war effort would include, in addition to her Armed Forces, an outright contribution of war supplies on a vast scale."

In again referring to the conscription issue, Mr. King explained that under the National Resources Mobilisation Act a limited measure of national selective service on a compulsory basis had been applied since October, 1940, in the selection of young men for military training. The Government now proposed to apply the compulsory powers of national selective service to other aspects of the war effort. He outlined the Government's record of policy in relation to complete conscription, and stated that the Government was of opinion that neither a General Election nor a referendum on the question of conscription was either advisable or necessary. In consulting the people by plebiscite the Government was not throwing on the people the responsibility of making a military decision. It was asking the people to give the Government full power to take whatever military decisions the Government believed to be necessary. In consulting the people, they were not shirking responsibility, they were asking for full responsibility. Legislation would, therefore, be introduced to conduct the plebiscite at the earliest possible date.

In the course of the debate, Mr. M. J. Coldwell (Acting Leader of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation Party), who had recently visited England with a group of Canadian Members of Parliament, after paying tribute to the spirit and achievements of the people of Britain, said that none would give more support to an all-out war effort than the C.C.F. Party, but demanded that it should be based on equality of sacrifice. His sub-amendment requested that "the forthcoming plebiscite should seek the support of the people of Canada for the complete and effective conscription of war industries, accumulated wealth, and financial

institutions, at the same time and on the same basis as the suggested extension of the conscription of man-power."

Mr. J. H. Blackmore (Leader of the New Democracy Party), dealing with the new financial arrangements, said that the Prime Minister had courageously faced the fact that Great Britain could not pay and that Canada could. "To the orthodox thinker it was impossible to say how that could be, but to a monetary reformer its possibility was quite obvious." Respecting conscription, he confessed himself perplexed by the arguments advanced, but added that Social Creditors had maintained that recruits for any branch of the Armed Forces could most likely be obtained in sufficient numbers by using the national credit to pay the soldiers, sailors, and airmen more attractive incomes and guarantee them and their dependents real security after the war.

Colonel J. L. Ralston (Minister of National Defence) said that under the programme of 1942, the Canadian Army overseas would be, in proportion, probably the most highly-mechanised and mobile army in the world. But it was obvious that a country of eleven and a half million people could not raise mass armies, and, particularly, it could not attempt to do so when the Army was just one part of the general pattern of food and weapons, air strength, and Navy. The programme for 1942 required a further 13,000 men for the Navy. The 1942 Army programme was to organise, equip, and maintain two corps overseas, and required the enlistment of a further 90,000 to 100,000 men during the fiscal year. That, in the opinion of the General Staff, was the maximum number of men who could be effectively trained during that period for service overseas. The 1942 programme for the Air Force called for between 70,000 and 80,000 men. The programme for the three armed Services involved the raising of between 172,000 and 193,000 men for general service, and to carry it out would bring total enlistments up to between 595,000 and 615,000 men. That did not mean that they would have Armed Forces of that size. There had been and would be wastage and casualties, and their actual strength would be diminished accordingly. Having regard to the anticipated forms of attack, the provisions for Canadian defence had been made up to the limit of their equipment and resources, and they were increasing their defensive strength just as fast as equipment became available.

In January they had had the biggest enlistment since the campaign in the summer. Some 11,700 men had enlisted in that month. There was not the slightest evidence that the time taken for the conscription plebiscite would hinder the Army programme.

Ultimately, the main motion in support of the Address was agreed to by 144 votes to 61.

Canada's diplomatic representation at home and abroad received considerable attention.

Arising from a question in the House, the Prime Minister stated (Feb. 5) that hitherto the Canadian Government had maintained diplomatic and commercial relations with Russia in exactly the same way as was done with many other countries with which direct diplomatic relations had not yet been established, that was, through the British diplomatic and consular services. An Agreement had, however, been signed that day between the Governments of Canada and of the U.S.S.R., providing for the exchange of representatives between the two countries. The Canadian High Commissioner in London, Mr. Vincent Massey, had signed on behalf of Canada, and the Russian Ambassador, Mr. Maisky, on behalf of the U.S.S.R. It was the belief of the Government that the establishment of direct relations, pursuant to the Agreement, would greatly facilitate the solution of common problems arising out of the war efforts of the two countries.

On February 9 it was announced that there had been requests from Norway, Poland, and Yugoslavia to have Legations established in Ottawa. Careful consideration had been given to those requests, and the Government had decided to accept them. Greece had indicated a desire to have a Minister resident at Ottawa, and the request was being considered.

Later, Mr. King further announced that the Government had agreed to a proposal of the Czechoslovak Republic to enter into direct diplomatic relations with Canada by the opening of a Czechoslovak Legation in Ottawa.

Relations with the French (Vichy) Government were clarified by the Prime Minister, who explained to the House (May 19) that after an exchange of views with the United Kingdom Government it was decided not to make any change in the representations. The French Minister in Canada and Canada's representative to France, who was then Charge d'Affaires of the Legation, would continue for the present. Nevertheless, the four French Consulates in Canada, whose functions had largely diminished, would be closed.

Mr. Pierre Dupuy, Canadian Charge d'Affaires to France, kept in continuous consultation with the Premier. Ultimately, the Prime Minister announced (Nov.) that diplomatic relations with Vichy would be broken off, as Marshal Plain's Government had proved to be merely a " puppet " of the Nazi regime.¹

¹ (a) *Foreign Representatives to Canada*.—Mr. Victor Podoski, formerly Consul General, assumed duties as first Polish Minister (March); Mr. Daniel Steen became first Minister for Norway (April); Mr. Frank Langstone was appointed New Zealand High Commissioner (April), but resigned in October; Dr. Izidor Cankar took up duties as first Yugoslav Minister (May); Mr. George S. Depasta, Minister for Greece (June); Dr. Frantisek Pavlasek became Minister for Czechoslovakia; and Dr. Calo de Millo Franco, Minister for Brazil (August); Dr. Edvarado Grove Vallejos became Minister for Chile (September); and Mr. Feodor Tarasovich Gusev, Minister for U.S.S.R. (Oct.).

(b) *Canadian Representatives abroad*.—Mr. L. D. Wilgress, first Canadian Minister to U.S.S.R. (Nov.); Major-General Victor Odium, formerly High Commissioner in Australia became Minister to China (Nov.); Dr. Warwick F. Chipman, Minister to

Canada's Second Victory Loan (the Fourth War Loan) of 600,000,000 dollars was launched on February 16. President Roosevelt joined in the appeal. His address was broadcast from a recording made in Washington. He praised the Dominion's war effort, and pointed out that one Canadian in every twenty-one was serving in the fighting forces. Lists closed on March 7 and over 979,000,000 dollars was subscribed.

The problem of security along the western coast-line had been considered by a Committee under Mr. Ian Mackenzie, Minister of Pensions and National Health. On February 16 all enemy aliens were ordered to leave the coastal areas west of the Cascade Mountains and to surrender cameras and radio equipment. On February 22 the Government, under pressure from the British Columbian members, agreed to expedite and extend the evacuation. Accordingly, Mr. Bang announced that the Minister of Justice would be empowered to exclude any person, regardless of nationality, from defence areas. All Japanese were ordered to leave the Pacific zone as soon as possible, placed under curfew restrictions and ordered to surrender arms, cars, cameras, and radios. This was followed by the formation of a Security Commission for British Columbia with extraordinary powers to control all alien evacuees. Shortly afterwards, following a visit to the Pacific coast, Colonel Ralston reported the organisation of forty units of guerrilla troops in different parts of British Columbia, to be increased eventually to 150 units. The nucleus of these troops were lumberjacks, trappers, and other hardy men in remote areas who were familiar with the terrain of the coastal Provinces. They would be sworn in under the Militia Act, and would be known as "Militia Rangers," serving without pay under local leaders. The Minister also expressed general satisfaction with the local defences, and disclosed the establishment of a battle training school in Western Canada.

Strengthening of the Government's position resulted from four Federal by-elections held during February. Mr. Arthur Meighen, twice Prime Minister of Canada, having recently accepted the leadership of the Conservative Party, resigned from the Senate to contest the York-South constituency in Ontario. He was sensationally defeated by Mr. J. W. Noseworthy of the C.C.F. Party. Mr. Louis St. Laurent, the new Minister of Justice (Quebec East), and Mr. Humphrey Mitchell (Welland), recently appointed Minister of Labour, both gained their seats with comfortable majorities. In St. Mary's, Montreal, Dr. Gaspard Fauteux (Liberal) was returned against Mr. Parillard, who represented a newly-formed anti-conscription "Canadian Party."

The first secret session of Parliament since 1918 was held on

Chile (Nov.); Mr. Justice T. C. Davis, High Commissioner to Australia (Nov.); and Brigadier George P. Vanier, formerly Minister to France, became Minister to Allied Governments in London (Nov.).

February 24, when the three Defence Ministers made statements to the House, and the war situation in direct relation to Canada was reviewed.

As further steps towards co-ordinating the war efforts of the United States and Canada, Canadian buyers of essential goods, if unobtainable in Canada, were granted priority ratings by the United States Government on virtually the same footing as American companies (Feb.). Both Governments later agreed to facilitate seasonal movements of farm labour and machinery from one country to the other as part of the plan to co-ordinate food and oil-producing crops (April), and a Convention between both countries was signed on May 4 eliminating double taxation of individual incomes, fixing tax reduction at the source on dividends, and regulating the taxation of dividends paid by Corporations.

Later (June) it was agreed that, in an effort to relieve the shortage of base metals urgently needed in the United States, the American Reconstruction Finance Corporation would finance the development of copper, zinc, lead, and graphite mines in Canada, and would finance the opening or enlargement of mines, particularly in British Columbia, Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick.

Relations with South American countries were also developed. Referring to recent Trade Agreements between Canada and Uruguay (1937), Guatemala (1938), Haiti (1938), and the Dominican Republic (1940), Mr. Mackenzie Kang said that at this time of war the actual value in terms of trade might not be considerable, but there was great value in the fact that the treaties themselves served to express goodwill between these particular Republics and the Dominion. When North and South America had been drawn together to a degree never obtained heretofore, it was particularly fortunate that they should have established diplomatic relations with those countries through the Legations which they had opened in Ottawa and which Canada had opened in Brazil, Argentina, and Chile.

The Minister of Trade and Commerce (Mr. J. A. MacKinnon) submitted his report on the first Government-sponsored Trade Mission to South America and said that its success had been unique inasmuch as they had accomplished their objective in each country visited. The objective was not immediate results, but the laying of the best possible foundations upon which after-war trade could be built. They could be shipping huge South American requirements now were it not that the munitions and supplies requirements of their war programme took first place. Shipping also mitigated against their exports and imports. The Minister gave statistics of trade between Canada and Argentine, Chile, and Brazil and outlined new Trade Agreements with each of these countries.

On March 6 Mr. Mackenzie King announced in the House of Commons that construction would begin immediately of the

highway through Canada, linking Alaska and the United States. Purely military reasons would guide the work, he said. Mr. King stated that, owing to the already heavy war commitments undertaken by Canada, the United States had agreed to defray the cost of construction and the war-time maintenance of the road. After the war the road, starting at Fort St. John, B.C., and following the general line of air-ports which Canada had constructed at Fort Nelson, Watson Lake, Whitehorse, and thence via Boundary and Big Delta to Fairbanks, would become part of the Canadian Highway system. Ten thousand soldiers and 2,000 civilian workmen, under the direction of the Public Roads Administration, completed this road of 1,671 miles, known as the "Alcan Highway," in slightly over six months.

The needs of the Services, war industry, and agriculture, led to new measures to ensure a better use of man-power. Mr. King tabled an Order on March 24 requiring all employers to return particulars of their insurable male and female employees by April 1, and on March 25 gave details of a comprehensive "selective service" plan for the Forces, industry, and agriculture, to divert labour from unessential to essential production, stabilise farm labour, and encourage recruitment for the Services. Dealing with the measures to bring women into industries, including recruiting campaigns, information, hostels, nurseries, medical and recreational facilities, specific training programmes, pressure upon employers reluctant to employ female labour, the Prime Minister said that some of these measures had already been applied. From now on they would be more extensively applied. To assist employers to meet their personal problem provision had been made for training in personal management. The Universities had agreed to co-operate. The Government were also undertaking an extended programme of reconditioning men to fit them physically for military service. The age limit for compulsory service had been raised from 24 to 30. It had also been decided to select the men to be called up for service by drawing lots over the whole field of those who were subject to the Proclamation. Liability for compulsory service, hitherto confined to citizens of Canada, would be extended to all residents in the Dominion.

In pursuance of the Government's agricultural policy to ensure reasonable returns to farmers, the Wheat Acreage Reduction Act was assented to on March 27. Mr. J. G. Gardiner, Minister of Agriculture, explained that the purpose of this Act was to encourage a reduction of wheat acreage and extend the production of coarse grains. Ceiling prices had been placed on certain farm commodities, but these did not include wheat, cattle, and hogs. It had been the established policy of organised agriculture, said the Minister, that the Government should have as its objective the establishment of prices for farm products equal at least to the prices for the average period between 1926 and 1929. It was to

improve the position of the farmer who depended largely upon wheat that the fixed prices would be advanced from 70 cents to 90 cents a bushel, with minimum prices on other grains.

During the session the Prime Minister tabled copies of the Exchange of Notes between the Governments of Argentina, Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, which brought into effect as from June 27 the International Wheat Agreement made at the conference held at Washington. The main points of the Agreement were the establishment of a Relief Pool of 100,000,000 bushels of wheat; control of production; export control of wheat and flour, and price control—all under the terms and conditions agreed to by the participating countries.

On April 21 the Prime Minister reported the setting up of the Pacific War Council. The meeting held the previous week, which he had attended by the invitation of President Roosevelt, was the third meeting the Council had held. The Council had been presided over by the President, and its proceedings were similar to those of a Cabinet. Mr. King was not at liberty to divulge them. The Council would continue to meet weekly, and the Minister at Washington, Mr. Leighton McCarthy, would represent Canada. In London provision had been made for the meeting from time to time of the counterpart of the Pacific Council, and Canada would be represented by the High Commissioner.

Strong national feelings on the question of conscription were brought to a head by the plebiscite which was held on April 27. In a Dominion-wide broadcast opening the campaign, the Prime Minister explained the necessity for this appeal for release of Ministers from the pledge against conscription for overseas service. He said the pledge had been given at the outset of the war for the purpose of preserving national unity. Without it Parliament might not have given such a prompt and wholesale approval to Canada's entry into the war, but now that its restrictive influence was producing a controversy threatening national unity its removal had become desirable for the elimination of a source of internal discord and of misunderstanding in other countries. If the Government had disregarded the pledge without appealing to the country they would have destroyed faith in their word, and in the very democratic institutions they were trying to uphold. An appeal to the House of Commons for release from the pledge might not have succeeded, because many members would have felt bound by their own pledges to their electors.

The Government in the plebiscite were not asking for a mandate for full conscription, which was a military problem and a proper subject for Parliamentary discussion, but were seeking complete freedom to decide this question in the light of considerations of national security, which in his view was no longer assured. The preservation of national unity was desirable for a nation, but more important was the preservation of its existence. A stage

had been reached when Canada with her immense territory and small population might need help as no other country needed it.

The result of the plebiscite was overwhelmingly in favour of releasing the Government from their conscription pledge. Large majorities in the Government's favour were returned in every Province except Quebec, where it was evident that the French Canadian element had once again banded itself together in a solid racial *bloc* against conscription.

Some tension within the Liberal Party was inevitable, and at a caucus held in May, from which twelve Liberals from Quebec stayed away, Mr. King faced a delicate situation. The Prime Minister later said that the caucus had been highly satisfactory from his point of view, and no sharp controversy had developed. However, the *Montreal Gazette* reported that when a Liberal member from Ontario interpreted the results of the plebiscite as a mandate for full conscription, Mr. King quickly intervened to challenge this interpretation, and asserted that if the plebiscite question had concerned full conscription, he himself would have cast a negative vote.

Mr. Cardin, Minister of Public Works, resigned from the Cabinet when the Bill to amend the National Resources Mobilisation Act by removing the ban on conscription for service outside the Dominion was introduced by the Premier on May 11. After a meeting of some forty French Canadian Liberals, the Committee of the party issued a statement declaring that a large majority of the Liberal members from Quebec and some from other Provinces entirely approved the strong attitude taken by Mr. Cardin. The late Minister declared that he had no intention of leading a new party or movement, and that he would continue to sit in the House as a private Liberal member. He would fight full conscription until the necessity of such a measure in the interests of the country was proven, but he would support all other war measures of the Government. A resolution along the same lines was adopted in the same month by the Quebec Legislative Assembly.

Eventually, the measure incorporating powers of complete conscription was carried in the House of Commons by 141 votes to 45, and in the Senate by 42 votes to 9.

A United Nations Air Training Conference was held at Ottawa, May 19-22, under the chairmanship of Major C. G. Power, Minister for Air. This was attended by delegates from fourteen nations, including Captain Harold Balfour (Britain), Major-General Barton Yount and Mr. Robert Lovett (U.S.A.), Major-General Shen (China), and Major-General Van Oyen (Netherlands East Indies).

The conference, opened by the Prime Minister, aimed at a comprehensive examination of co-operation and co-ordination in air training to ensure the best and quickest use of all existing

facilities, and the extension of air programmes to make the most effective use of all resources of personnel.

The work of the conference was done by six Committees, and at the concluding session it was announced that a Combined Committee on Air Training in North America would be set up with headquarters at Washington with advisory functions including exchange of information on air-training questions and advice on the standardisation of air-training methods.

On May 25 an announcement was made that the Empire Air Training Scheme, due to expire in April, 1943, would be extended to March 31, 1945.

Following the United Conference the British delegates met to discuss future plans and a new Agreement was signed (June 5) at Ottawa, effective for three years from July 1, under which Canadian air-training facilities would be used by the Empire countries on a greatly expanded scale. Important changes of organisation were made involving the formation of a single pool of trained personnel; increase in Canadian squadrons overseas; revised administration of control of Canadian personnel attached to R.A.F., and other features which would help to build up "air forces of overwhelming and terrifying intensity."

The first Royal Canadian Air Force Squadron arrived in the Far East at the end of May. This unit, equipped with flying-boats, was complete with pilots, air crews, administrative staff, and ground crews. Canadian Air Squadrons, with anti-aircraft units of the Canadian Army, also reached Alaska at this period to co-operate with the American forces operating against Japanese attacks at points in the North Pacific.

Mr. C. I). Howe, Minister of Munitions, reviewed the work of his Department in the House on May 14. He reported that the total value of war contracts placed exceeded 4 billion dollars, and that the assistance given to munition plants in the form of capital grants was 25 million dollars for April alone. The great majority of munition plants were fully tooled and staffed and were producing at the maximum scale. In many instances their production was substantially *in excess* of the planned objectives. Aircraft production had expanded to 400 aircraft a month, and more new plants were approaching production. Already 250,000 military vehicles had been shipped to combat areas; the manufacture of tanks was progressing according to schedule, and one 10,000 ton merchant ship was being launched every four days.

At Halifax on May 21 Mr. MacDonald, Minister for the Navy, laid the keel of the first of two Tribal Class destroyers. These were the first ships of their kind to be built in Canada as the foundation of a permanent programme of naval construction by the Dominion in her own yards.

The Fourth War Budget was presented by Mr. J. L. Ilsley, Minister of Finance, on June 23. Its outstanding feature was

a very sharp increase of income and national defence taxes to be combined in a single levy and collected at the source wherever possible. Excess Profits Tax was increased and heavier taxes imposed on liquor, tobacco, transportation, telephone services, entertainments, and a wide range of luxury articles. Mr. Ilsley placed the revenues for the fiscal year 1941-42 at 1,481,000,000 dollars, with total expenditure at 1,850,000,000 dollars. . For the fiscal year 1942-43 he showed that a sum of 2,000,000,000 dollars appropriated for war outlays, the gift to Britain of 1,000,000,000 dollars, Civil Estimates of 455,000,000 dollars, compensation to the Provinces of 85,000,000 dollars and other items involved commitments for expenditures totalling 3,570,000,000 dollars, but he said it would not be safe to make financial plans for an expenditure of less than 3,900,000,000 dollars. The Minister suggested that means might have to be found to finance additional purchases by Britain in excess of the gift, and reported that the net national debt at the end of the fiscal year (March 31) amounted to 4,062,250,000 dollars. Canada's total war expenditure from the outbreak of the war to March 31 was 2,299,750,000 dollars, which already exceeded by over 800,000,000 dollars Canada's total expenditure for the last war and subsequent demobilisation.

Mr. Mackenzie King attended a further meeting of the Pacific War Council held at the White House, Washington, on June 25, which had been called by President Roosevelt. Mr. Churchill, the British Premier, was also present with British admirals and shipping experts who joined their American colleagues to consider vital shipping problems. On his return to Ottawa, Mr. King made a report to Parliament in which he gave his impression that the current situation as regards shipping was one of the most critical with which the United Nations had been faced. He was confident, however, of the power of the Allies to rise superior to temporary set-backs. It was possible, said Mr. King, that instead of the war ending in 1943, "as all of us, I think, hoped it might, it may instead run on for two or three or more years. One thing is quite certain—that every country that is a member of the United Nations will have to put forth its utmost effort in helping to overcome the enemy."

The National Convention of the Commonwealth Co-operative Party was held at Toronto in July, when Mr. M. J. Coldwell was elected Leader in succession to Mr. J. S. Woodsworth who had resigned on grounds of ill-health and for whom he had been deputising for nearly two years. The delegates drafted a Socialist programme advocating radical solutions for labour problems in agriculture and industry. The convention also passed a resolution urging mobilisation for total war through the unlimited conscription of man-power, wealth, and natural resources, to be accompanied by Government control of all industries and the nationalisation of financial institutions.

The Defence of Canada Regulations Committee recommended to Parliament on July 23 the raising of the ban on the Communist Party, imposed in May, 1940, on the ground that changed conditions no longer rendered its suppression necessary. The Committee's chairman, Mr. J. E. Michaud, Minister of Fisheries, dissented, and resigned his portfolio. Later in the year Mr. Tim Buck, secretary of the Communist Party, who with a number of colleagues had been in hiding since 1940, surrendered to the police, and Mr. St. Laurent, Minister of Justice, announced that Mr. Buck and sixteen other Communists would be released conditionally.

Broadcasting received consideration by a Parliamentary Committee which presented its report to the House on July 25. This included a number of important recommendations for changes in the national system relating to the concentrated ownership or control of private stations ; closer integration of programmes, particularly between the English and French networks, and extension of liaison between the Government, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, and also radio authorities of the United Nations. Changes in personnel were later announced. These were the appointment of the Reverend Dr. James S. Thomson, president of the University of Saskatchewan, as General Manager of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation in the place of Mr. Gladstone Murray, who became Director-General of Broadcasting.

Authorisation was given to the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation to construct a new high-power short-wave station at Sackville, New Brunswick, to increase foreign broadcasting facilities, particularly in counteracting enemy wireless propaganda.

Arising from disclosures made by the report of a Royal Commission on the Canadian Hong-Kong Expedition of 1941 which had been presented by Sir Lyman Duff, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, a debate of some acrimony took place in Parliament (July 28). The Opposition speakers charged the Government with stifling free discussion by refusing to table the letter from Colonel Drew, who had submitted strong criticisms both of the report and of the actual organisation of the Expedition to the leaders of the four parties. The report reviewed the circumstances of the organisation, authorisation, and despatch of the Expedition, and found that " in spite of the disaster that overtook it soon after its arrival in Hong-Kong, it was an Expedition of which Canada can and should be proud." There had been widespread demand for full discussion in the Press and a free debate in Parliament, and a statement by Colonel Ralston concerning the reorganisation of the Higher Command did much to allay public uneasiness about the training system for troops stationed in Canada.

Shortly afterwards the Minister announced the organisation of

a combined American-Canadian Force on the model of the British Commandos for offensive warfare. Colonel Ralston said that the first contingent of Canadian troops assigned to that unit, known as the "First Special Service Force," in whose selection emphasis had been placed on youth, fitness, and hardihood, had already arrived in Montana, U.S.A., which was their training headquarters, and that various phases of training would be undertaken on both sides of the border.

Parliament adjourned on August 1. In addition to war legislation, Bills assented to included measures for the reinstatement of men in the Canadian Forces in civil life ; the carrying on and co-ordination of vocational training ; assistance to war veterans to settle on the land ; transfer of income and corporation taxes from the Provinces to the Dominion ; subsidies to Maritime Provinces, and war risk insurance.

Intense public interest was shown in the first reports of the Dieppe Raid in which Canadians had taken a prominent part. The Prime Minister, in a broadcast speech (Aug. 19), said that he spoke on a great day for Canada when the Canadian troops had been in the battle action for which they had been long preparing, and the Canadian people should be proud that their Army had had the foremost place in the Dieppe operations.

Reviewing cursorily the recent developments of the war, Mr. King said that the Dieppe Raid must not cause Canadians to lose perspective of the whole struggle. There had been grave reverses and new threats, and the United Nations had not yet begun to win the war. Their danger was not only plainer but greater than ever, but it was a moment for greater determination to win rather than for despair.

Colonel Ralston also issued a comprehensive account of the Dieppe assault, with details of all the Canadian military forces involved, and admitted that "for the lessons learned and the advantages gained, the forces engaged, and particularly the land forces, paid a very heavy price."

Dealing with the problem of man-power, Mr. King said that voluntary enlistment for the active Army, Navy, and Air Force would continue to be carried on by the three defence departments, but the work of calling up men for military service would in the near future be transferred from the Department of National War Services to the Director of the National Selective Service functioning under the Ministry of Labour. This change was designed to avoid undue dislocation of war industry through the drafting of men for the Army. He also announced that special surveys and registers of man-power would be made from time to time to provide a clear picture of the situation as required ; that there would be undertaken a special registration of women ; and that employers would be asked to report all additions and removals from their staffs since April 1.

In the execution of the **Government's labour programme**, Mr. Elliott Little, Director of National Selective Service, informed the Canadian Trades and Labour Congress at Winnipeg on August 25 that as part of plans for raising 250,000 workers by the end of the year, all unemployed men capable of working would be compelled to take employment, and that registration of unemployed women between 20 and 24 years of age, to be extended later to other groups, would begin on September 14.

On September 8 an Agreement was signed in London for wheat supplies to Russia. The Agreement provided that the U.S.S.R. could draw up to 9,000,000 bushels of Canadian wheat under a credit arrangement, the flour being of the same quality as that imported by Britain, with the British Ministry of Food acting as agent of the Canadian Government.

M. Maisky (who signed the Agreement with Mr. Vincent Massey) explained that Russia was not a wheat importer before the war, but that the overrunning of the Kuban had altered the position.

Several further contingents of Canadian troops and airmen arrived in the United Kingdom during the year. In September a contingent included an armoured formation, a complete hospital staff from French Canada, and the first Women's Division of the R.C.A.F. In the same month, Mrs. Jean Knox, Chief Controller of the Auxiliary Territorial Service, inspected the Canadian Women's Auxiliary Corps and assisted in the recruiting campaign in Canada.

The loss of H.M.C.S. *Ottawa*, a Canadian destroyer, with her commanding officer, officers, and 108 ratings, was announced by the Naval Minister on September 21. This was the third loss within a short period; the patrol vessel *Raccoon* with all hands, and the corvette *Charlottetown* with her commander and eight members of the crew, both being sunk by submarine action. Mr. Macdonald revealed that the Royal Canadian Navy in the Atlantic area had definitely sunk four German submarines, probably sunk two others, and made many promising attacks which may be counted as possible sinkings. He stated that U-boats had been attacked in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but denied that these had penetrated the upper reaches of the river, although merchant ship losses had been sustained.

Cabinet reorganisation took place on October 6, when it was announced that Major-General L. R. La Flèche became Minister of National War Services in place of Mr. J. T. Thorson, appointed President of the Exchequer Court; Mr. Ernest Bertrand, Minister of Fisheries, in place of Mr. J. E. Michaud, who became Minister of Transport; and Mr. Alphonse Fournier, Minister of Public Works, in place of Mr. P. Cardin, resigned.

Mr. King stated that by appointing the three new Ministers, all from Quebec, that Province's traditional equality of representation with Ontario in the Cabinet had been restored. The Cabinet,

as reorganised, represented Ontario (6), Quebec (6), Manitoba, British Columbia, and Saskatchewan (2 each), Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and Alberta (1 each).

Mr. Mitchell Hepburn unexpectedly resigned the Premiership of Ontario on October 21. This was followed by the resignations, as Provincial Secretary, of Mr. Harry Nixon, and Mr. P. Oliver, as Minister of Public Works, in protest against the succession of Mr. Gordon Conant, Attorney-General, to the Premiership of the Province. Mr. Conant gave as his reasons for not calling a General Election the resultant disturbances of the administration, the cost of taking the vote, and that "it could not possibly promote Canada's war effort." He pledged that in the administration of the affairs of the Province the successful prosecution of the war must transcend all other considerations.

Addressing the American Federation of Labour Convention at Toronto on October 9, Mr. Mackenzie King dealt with the significance of Labour in the world struggle, and described the Axis "New Order" as compared with the Allied conceptions of a new era of freedom. Outlining the practical forms of liberty and Social security after the war, Mr. King paid tribute to the toil and devotion of all war workers, "the key to victory is the partnership unbroken and unbreakable of the warrior and the worker."

In a further noteworthy speech at Montreal, opening the campaign for the Third Victory Loan (Oct. 16), Mr. King warned his audience of the tasks still before the United Nations, and throughout his appeal he reiterated his theme that "nothing matters now but Victory." Total subscriptions for the Loan reached 971,800,000 dollars, which was more than 220,000,000 dollars over the objective.

Mr. Donald Gordon, chairman of the War-time Prices Trade Board, in a speech at Monckton, N.B. (Oct. 22), outlined the Board's programme for the curtailment of non-war production, and said that it would be undertaken in an orderly, progressive manner. The first moves would be the elimination of obviously non-essential lines, and the standardisation and simplification of the lines to be continued. He forecast an extension of consumers' rationing once the curtailment was operative, and a scheme to pool profits of concentrated industries.

In Ottawa the Board had issued an order curtailing operations in the brewing industry. The Department of Munitions announced the indirect rationing of omnibus travel, an Order-in-Council was passed "freezing" in present employment workers in all Canadian coal-mines, the majority of base metal mines, and those engaged in primary steel production. This affected 75,000 workers who, in certain circumstances would be permitted to volunteer for active service, but would be exempt from compulsory military service.

Lord Bennett, the former Canadian Premier, visited Canada and addressed a joint audience of Canadian and Empire Clubs at Toronto on November 1. After reviewing the political system of the British Commonwealth, and Canada's part in the war, he expressed confidence in ultimate victory of the United Nations.

On November 10, by agreement between President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill, and Mr. Mackenzie King, Canada, in view of the close relations in the field of production between the Dominion and both the United States of America and Great Britain, became a full member of the Anglo-American Combined Production and Resources Board. Mr. C. D. Howe, Minister of Munitions and Supply, would serve with Mr. Lyttelton (U.K.) and Mr. Nelson (U.S.A.).

Three Federal by-elections were held in November. Major-General La Fteche (Montreal, Outremont), the Government candidate, was returned with a majority of 5,000 over Mr. Jean Drapeau, "the candidate of the draftees"; Mr. Frederic Dorion (Charlevoix, Saguenay) gained a majority of 3,000 over Madame Pierre Casgrain, wife of the former member, who had been appointed to the Quebec Supreme Court, and the Reverend Stanley Knowles, C.C.F. (Winnipeg, North Centre), contesting the seat of Mr. J. S. Woodsworth (retired), obtained a decisive victory over Liberal and Labour-Progressive candidates.¹

Notwithstanding comprehensive plans for co-operation between employers and employees, several disputes occurred in the war industries, but were settled by arbitration. On November 25 a strike occurred at the works of the Ford Motor Company of Canada at Windsor, Ontario, resulting in the temporary closing down of the Company's huge plant engaged in the manufacture of mechanised military equipment. The cause of this strike was the employment of women at rates of pay lower than the scale provided for by the collective agreement with the Automobile Workers' Union. Intervention by the Government resulted in the re-opening of the plant.

At the National Convention of the Conservative Party held at Winnipeg in December, Mr. John Bracken, Premier of the Province of Manitoba, was elected as Leader in succession to Mr. Arthur Meighen. The Convention considered the question of electoral reform and approved the Conservative programme of equal opportunities for all Canadians; social security; work for all; loyalty to the King and faith in the British partnership of nations. Resolutions of the delegates called for support of the Fighting Forces to the limit of resources; the formation of an Empire War Council; post-war reconstruction; payments for a cost of living bonus to veteran pensioners and dependents of men in the Armed

¹ As a result of these elections the party standing was: Liberals 173, Conservatives 38, New Democracy 10, Co-operative Commonwealth Federation 9, Independent Liberals 3, Liberal-Progressives 3, other Independents 7, vacancies 2.

Forces ; the establishment of a Central Farm Bank to provide credit to farmers at low rates of interest; uniform regulations for labour; the extension of collective bargaining and workers' rights of free association.

Immediately after the election of their new leader, the party changed its name to "Progressive Conservative," a condition required by Mr. Bracken before he accepted nomination.

Mr. Mackenzie King said that the Government would place no obstacle in the way of Mr. Bracken's entry into the Federal House of Commons.

Repercussions in the Manitoba Legislature resulted in the resignation of Mr. S. J. Farmer, Minister for Labour and Leader of the C.C.F. Party in the Manitoba Coalition Government, where Mr. Bracken was succeeded by Mr. Stuart Garson, formerly Provincial Treasurer.

Mr. Mackenzie King again visited President Roosevelt in December. At New York, *en route* to Washington, the Prime Minister delivered a speech to members of the Pilgrims' Society on the Defence of Common Liberties. He stressed the recognition so repeatedly demonstrated by Canada and the United States of their mutual problems and needs, and reviewed the growth of Canada's war effort which "could never have reached its present proportions but for the co-operation we have received from the United States from the very outset of the war." Mr. King also referred to an Exchange of Notes which had taken place that day (Dec. 2) between the Dominion and the Republic recording their agreement in the major objectives of post-war international economic policy.

During the year there were a number of Royal and other notable visitors. Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands arrived at Ottawa (June) to visit her daughter, Princess Juliana, and her children; King George of the Hellenes and his Prime Minister reached Montreal (June 28) and received an enthusiastic reception from the local Greek community; King Peter of Yugoslavia, accompanied by members of the Yugoslav Cabinet, were guests of the Governor-General (July 10) following the authorisation of the Government of Yugo-Slavia to raise and train an Army and Air Force in the Dominion.

Mr. T. V. Soong, with Madame Soong, and a Chinese Military Mission, conferred with the Canadian Prime Minister (Feb.) and General Sikorski, Polish Prime Minister, and four Army and Air Force officers arrived (March) by air *en route* for a conference with President Roosevelt, after which he visited Ottawa for consultation with Mr. Mackenzie King.

Dr. H. V. Evatt, Australian Minister for External Affairs, visited Ottawa (April) for consultation with the Prime Minister and members of the War Committee of the Cabinet, and Mr. Johan Nygaardsvold, Prime Minister of Norway, accompanied by

several Ministers, paid visits to Norwegian naval and air-training units in the Dominion (June).

Canadian Ministers and Government officials travelled to Britain during the year to exchange views with United Kingdom Ministers on the conduct of the war. These included Colonel J. L. Ralston, Minister for National Defence, Mr. C. G. Power, Minister for Air, Mr. C. D. Howe, Minister for Munitions and Supply, Mr. W. P. Mulock, Postmaster-General, and Mr. Humphrey Mitchell, Minister for Labour.

CHAPTER III

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—SOUTHERN RHODESIA

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

FOR the Union of South Africa the year 1942 opened with a note of high hope sounded by the Prime Minister, Field-Marshal Smuts, in his New Year broadcast. He reminded his listeners that the year to which they were saying good-bye had been one of failures as well as of great achievements. These achievements had given them every reason not only to be thankful but to feel sober confidence. Looking ahead, the Prime Minister appealed to his fellow-countrymen to "measure up the part South Africa must play in this great struggle."

That appeal did not fall on apathetic ears, for in every phase of war activity South Africa intensified and accelerated her efforts to forward the cause of the United Nations. Evidence of the determination of the Prime Minister and the people of the Union to make further sacrifices and hasten the day of victory was soon forthcoming when, on February 24, the Minister of Finance, Mr. Hofmeyr, introduced the Budget in the House of Assembly. As indicative of the continued acceleration of the Union's war effort Mr. Hofmeyr pointed out that in two years the national revenue had increased from 45,500,000l. to 79,500,000l. Far-reaching changes were announced, including the raising of the gold mines special contribution from 16 to 20 per cent., a special levy on trade profits, the subjection of income tax to a 10 per cent, surcharge, a compulsory savings plan, an increase in death duties and the introduction of a heavy tax on land sales.

During the course of his Budget statement Mr. Hofmeyr disclosed that the United States was now the Union's principal supplier with 38,000,000l. worth of goods in 1941 compared with the United Kingdom's 30,000,000l.; he observed, "in view of the extent to which our imports come to us across the Atlantic these facts are not without significance in relation to the success with which the Battle of the Atlantic is being fought."

How satisfactory was South Africa's effort in the field of war production was revealed by Dr. H. J. van der Byl, Director General of War Production, when he announced that production had exceeded the programme in a long list of materials, including field and anti-tank guns, armoured fighting vehicles, bombs and shells. The Iscor works, at Pretoria, doubled its steel ingot capacity, and new works at Vereeniging were by the close of the year about to begin production. One of the most valuable and most important services rendered to the Eighth Army in North Africa was the manufacture by South African industry of replacement parts of tanks and guns. In fact, the Union has indeed been a repair shop for the Middle East as well as a supplier of equipment and a provider of food.

In March commercial establishments demonstrated their willingness to co-operate with the Prime Minister in his quest for further man-power by tightening their staff requirements. Before the year ended several features of "austerity" life common to Great Britain, especially in the matter of catering, had been introduced, not because of any shortage of essential foods but with the object of conserving supplies in view of the increasing number of evacuees from the Middle East, and the unknown demands which might be made later upon the Union's food supplies. Air-raid precautions regulations, control of street lighting, and the question of evacuating children from certain parts of the Union, began to loom importantly early in 1942 following the military reverses in Malaya, Dutch East Indies, and Burma.

Both within and without the Assembly there was a growing consciousness of what the advance of the Japanese might mean to South Africa. One member of the House voiced a fear shared by many colleagues, that between the north coast of Sumatra, the Japanese Navy and South Africa there was Mauritius with no permanent fortifications of any sort; that from Mauritius one went to Madagascar and that there was no reason why Vichy France should not hand over that island to the Japanese. It was urged that the compulsory clauses of the Defence Act should be widened now. Earlier in the week the Prime Minister had stated that he saw no reason to give unsolicited assurances that South Africa would not participate in any occupation of Madagascar. About a month later, during the war debate, he took the opportunity of still further explaining the Union's attitude to Madagascar, and said that if the Indian Ocean became a war zone South Africa would become more of a war base than hitherto, adding "South Africa will welcome it. It will be a protection for us to know that if the struggle for the Indian Ocean comes to our coasts and frontiers we will not be alone. There will be strong forces which will make use of our hospitality and of our territories to meet the attack."

It was significant that on this occasion the Prime Minister not only confirmed that he saw no reason to depart from his policy to use non-Europeans in the Army as non-combatants if necessary, but addressing certain members who appeared anxious to exploit the Japanese menace to his embarrassment, he observed that "before the Japanese take this country, I will see to it that every coloured person and every native who can be armed will be armed."

Within two months, on May 5, a British force landed in Madagascar, and during the operations Rear-Admiral Syfrt, R.N., a member of a well-known Cape Town family, commanded the naval force. Although no South African units took part in the actual landing, Colonel Deney's Reitz, the then Deputy Prime Minister, said, "every real South African will acclaim the Allied move." The newspapers welcomed the landing as "a relief" and observed that action had been taken "just in time/

If there was relief and rejoicing in May because of the Madagascar achievement, the feeling of exaltation had soon to give way to anxiety and depression when in the following month the nation heard of the greatest disaster that had befallen the Union forces since the outbreak of war. Two brigades of the 2nd South African Division, under Major-General Klopper, with two composite South African battalions and four batteries of South African artillery had been trapped in Tobruk and within a few hours made prisoners by the Germans. The blow seemed all the heavier because Major-General Klopper was the youngest of the Union's generals and had been given command of the 2nd Division less than a month before his capture. But-not many weeks were to pass before Tobruk, in the words of the Prime Minister, was "properly avenged." Towards the end Of October the Eighth Army, under General Alexander, opened the big offensive before El Alamein, and on November 13 Tobruk was occupied. Springbok armoured units of the 1st South African Division, under the command of Major-General Pienaar, were fittingly enough the first to enter the town. Major-General Dan Pienaar, a born leader, did not, however, live long after he had seen Tobruk avenged, for on December 19 he and eleven travelling companions were killed when their aeroplane crashed in Kavirondo Gulf, Lake Victoria, on a flight from Egypt to Pretoria. [See under Obituaries.]

Rumours about what happened when Major-General Klopper and his troops were captured were silenced when in December the Prime Minister made a statement at Pretoria on the inquiry into the fall of Tobruk. He said, "I have seen the report and you may take it from me that no blame rests on South Africa or any of the troops who surrendered." In the avenging of Tobruk no less than in the vindication of Major-General Klopper, the Prime Minister played no small part. At the end of June he had made

one of his compelling broadcasts, appealing to South Africa to replace the men lost at Tobruk and behave in a manner worthy of the "heroes at the front." He asked for 7,000 recruits to come forward to fill the gaps. "Avenge Tobruk" became South Africa's battle-cry.

The Prime Minister's call to the manhood of the country was one of several notable speeches made during the year, some of which will be numbered among the finest contributions to the oratory of the war. Most outstanding perhaps was his address to both Houses of the British Parliament at Westminster on October 21. The occasion was as impressive as it was historic, for on the dais with Field-Marshal Smuts were his colleagues and veterans of the last war—Mr. Winston Churchill, Mr. Lloyd George, and Lord Simon. In this momentous speech the Union Prime Minister surveyed not only the war situation but applied his foresight to consideration of the problems which will tax statesmen when the guns cease to fire. In one phase he crystallised the desires and aims of the war-wracked peoples and pointed the way to the new world.

"We are passing," he said, "beyond the ordinary policies and political shibboleths. It is no longer a case of socialism or communism, or of the other isms of the market-place, but of achieving justice and fair play for all. . . . Without feeding on illusions, without nursing the impossible, there is yet much in the common life of the people which can be remedied, much unnecessary inequality and privilege to be levelled away, much common-sense opportunity to be erected as the common birthright and public atmosphere for all to enjoy as of right."

In this address, as in his other important utterances of the year, the Prime Minister displayed that wisdom and moderation which have enabled him to mobilise his countrymen behind him both in the fields of active service and of civilian co-operation.

Another notable speech of the Prime Minister, illustrating his inspiring leadership, was that at Potchefstroom on the occasion of the centenary celebrations of the Dutch Reformed Church of the Transvaal, on March 25. He pointed out that mankind was "standing at a great break or divide in history." Fundamentally, however, the world had no need of a new order or a new plan but only of the honest and courageous application of the historical Christian idea.

A survey of South African affairs would not be complete without reference to another achievement, namely, the successful countering of dangerous activities on the home front. The subversive intrigues which had been the cause of growing strife and confusion in 1941 (see ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 124) became so menacing that the Minister of the Interior emphasised the determination of the Government to stamp out the danger. Evidence of that determination was forthcoming early in the New Year when 400 policemen and detectives in Johannesburg and

along the Reef, suspected of subversive activities, were with surprise and rapidity rounded up and detained. After the arrests the Minister of Justice, Dr. Colin Steyn, speaking in the House of Assembly, disclosed that they had resulted from the discovery of documents which had come to light with the capture of Robey Liebbrandt while he was travelling by car to Johannesburg. Liebbrandt, a former South African heavyweight boxing champion, had been run to earth after a long chase. Dr. Steyn, in an interview he gave after the police "purge," said he felt confident that not only had the Liebbrandt gang been finally smashed but a shattering blow had been dealt at the subversive movement as a whole. In due time Liebbrandt appeared at Pretoria on a charge of high treason, and after the trial had entered its fifth week, it was adjourned shortly before Christmas.

It may be that Liebbrandt's activities were connected with those of the pro-Nazi and anti-British Ossewabrandwag movement, which was busy throughout the year unsuccessfully attempting to inflame public opinion. The wisdom of the Prime Minister in allowing these firebrands abundant latitude was proved by the fact that the Opposition broke up into contending groups each denouncing the others. This tendency reached its climax when the arch-Republican, Dr. Malan, fulminated in the House of Assembly against the Ossewabrandwag and its Nazi leader, Dr. Van Rensburg. Perhaps the best answer to the extremists was given in the House of Assembly on January 14 by Mr. Steytler, a member of the United Party, who said :—

We on this side of the House and thousands of Dutch-speaking South Africans, hundreds of thousands on the *phtteland*, realise to-day that, it is in our interest to stand by the Commonwealth of Nations. We are in this war up to the very end, and whatever we are asked to give we are going to give, even our lives, because what we give we shall give with the full consciousness that it is given for the freedom and the continued existence of our people.

During the month of December two important announcements were made. The first by the Prime Minister, speaking at Standerton, when he disclosed that after North Africa had been "cleaned up," Parliament would be asked to approve a proposal that troops of the Union should serve outside Africa. The second announcement, made in the closing week of 1942, revealed important changes in the Union Cabinet, Mr. S. F. Waterson, then High Commissioner in London, had been appointed Minister of Commerce and Industries in succession to Mr. Richard Stuttaford who was retiring, and Colonel Deney's Reitz, Minister of Native Affairs and Deputy Prime Minister, was to go to London to succeed Mr. Waterson. Major P. van der Byl, Minister without Portfolio, was to be the new Minister of Native Affairs.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

The year opened with a minor political sensation which ultimately led to a ministerial shake-up and the seeking by the Prime Minister, Sir Godfrey Huggins, of a vote of confidence from the House. The minor sensation was the resignation from the Government and the United Party, of which he was Vice-President, of Mr. J. H. Smit, the Finance Minister, because he felt that both the Government and the United Party had become increasingly influenced by the "ideals and sentiments of the extreme Left elements of the party and the Labour members of the Cabinet." Although the resignation was considered a sensation, it was nevertheless an open secret that for over a year Mr. Smit had not been in complete agreement with the Prime Minister. Mr. Smit felt that what he described as the "Leftish trend" had not been formally approved by the country. In February Sir Godfrey Huggins sought a vote of confidence from Parliament, not primarily because of the resignation of the Minister of Finance, but because of what was described as the "rising tide of criticism and growing public discontent with the Government's administration." The vote of confidence was carried by 18 votes to 10, but the Prime Minister bowed to criticism, firstly, by suspending the cattle price order which was a source of grievance, and secondly, by handing over the Department of Supply to the new Minister of Finance, Mr. Max Danziger, thus freeing Captain Frank Harris of the responsibilities of the Department of Supply and enabling him to devote himself entirely to the Department of Agriculture. The new Minister of Finance and Supply was soon concerned with problems of trading arising from shipping difficulties, and in May he gave a more detailed explanation of the Government's policy, disclosing that in future the Government would be compelled to become more and more the importing party. He observed, however, that the Government did not desire to take over the task of retailing.

Although in certain other parts of the Continent the principle of forced labour obtains, Southern Rhodesia has always been reluctant to follow the practice. But the necessities of war have made it inevitable, and in introducing their measure the Government explained that it would apply only to indigenous natives, and the conscription confined to fit men between the ages of 19 to 45. The Government would employ them and be responsible for their wages, housing, feeding and welfare. The wages paid would be the current rates. Moreover, a pledge was given in Parliament that the interests of the natives would be safeguarded and the Act repealed when the war ended.

On July 28 Sir Evelyn Baring, a son of the first Earl of Cromer, was appointed Governor of Southern Rhodesia. It will be recalled that when Sir Herbert Stanley's term of office ended in

January, 1942, it had been arranged that he should be succeeded by Lord Huntingfield (see ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 128), but in April it was learned that Lord Huntingfield's health prevented his taking up the duties.

A joint statement by the Prime Ministers of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia, issued on September 21, announced the establishment of a new South Africa Command embracing Southern Rhodesia. It was explained that the move had been made necessary by changes in the military situation and that it had been decided to co-operate the defence of the whole of Africa under two commands in Eastern and Southern Africa. Southern Rhodesia, therefore, would come under the Union of South Africa. The joint statement declared that "the Union Government will consult with Southern Rhodesia with regard to the emergencies and measures to meet them. The decision has been made after full consultation with all affected, particularly with the United Kingdom Government." The Prime Minister of Rhodesia welcomed the merger as a step which would not only add immeasurably to the Colony's security but increase Rhodesia's effective contribution to the Empire's war effort.

An indication of one important feature of Rhodesia's contribution was revealed in a statement made by the Chief Recruiting Officer, Mr. W. Addison, which showed that the number of European males on full-time military service represented 52 per cent, of those between the ages of 18 and 40. This figure it was observed "justified Rhodesia taking its place modestly beside other countries of the Empire."

CHAPTER IV

AUSTRALASIA

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

THE political history of Australia during 1942 was inextricably mingled with the general course of the World War, and happenings in the Southern Hemisphere are not to be understood apart from events chronicled in other sections of the ANNUAL REGISTER. Australia's work for the Allied cause won a high tribute from General Mac Arthur, the United States Commander-in-Chief in the Southern Pacific, when he issued a statement after half a year's experience in the Pacific area. His words were, "No nation in the world is making a more supreme effort than Australia." The General added that, in spite of relatively meagre resources, the nation's effort embraced all classes and all parties. "Such internal party differences as existed were largely based on the desire of one group or another to accelerate the war potential."

By the end of the year twenty-two Government munition factories were in operation in Australia, as well as 143 annexes to public and private engineering establishments. By comparison, there were only six Government factories at the end of 1941. During 1942 the capital expenditure upon Government factories and annexes rose from 34Z. million to 59J. million, the total number of workers upon Australian war contracts being just over half a million. An Australian tank, 3*7 inch anti-aircraft guns, and Bofors anti-aircraft guns were among the products. For the general war effort Australia had available five million able-bodied citizens, ranging from 14 to 65 years old. Of these, 1,500,000 were engaged in war service during the year.

Referring to the services of Australian troops overseas, Mr. Winston Churchill telegraphed to Mr. Forde, Minister for the Army, recording his pride in the fresh distinction won by the Australian 9th Division in the Battle of Egypt in October, a tribute which General Montgomery amplified in a message to General Morshead, the commander of the redoubtable 9th Division. Finally, there was Mr. Curtin's Christmas message to the Australian troops serving in all theatres of the war. The Prime Minister recalled that Australians and British subjects were imprisoned in Singapore and elsewhere, and other Allied subjects in the Dutch East Indies, the Philippines, and China. "They are going to be released. You cannot stop free men fighting in a free cause. Give Tojo that message in bullets, bombs, and shells !"

Mr. Curtin formed his Labour Ministry in the autumn of 1941 and he held office throughout 1942, with Mr. F. M. Forde as deputy Prime Minister and Mr. J. B. Chifley as Federal Treasurer. In Dr. Evatt, former Federal High Court Judge, and Mr. Beasley, Mr. Curtin found two able assistants. Dr. Evatt is only 48 years old, but he has crowded more into the years than many men into a lifetime. It may be added that the following State Premiers held office during 1942 :—

New South Wales
Victoria
Queensland
South Australia
Western Australia
Tasmania

The Hon. W. J. MOKBLL.
 The Hon. A. A. DITNSTAN.
 The Hon. W. FORGAN SMITH.
 The Hon. T. PLAYFORD.
 The Hon. J. C. WILLCOCK.
 The Hon. R. COSGROVB.

Mr. Forgan Smith resigned in September after a Premiership of ten years and was succeeded by Mr. Frank Cooper. It was also announced on March 23 that Mr. R. G. Casey, Australian Minister in Washington, had resigned to take up the duties of a British Minister of State, stationed at Cairo, and charged with the co-ordination of the war effort in the Middle East. Telegrams exchanged between Mr. Churchill and Mr. Curtin between March 12 and March 20 showed that *Nr. Casey's withdrawal from the

Australian service was not fully acceptable to the Australian Government.

The first happening of importance in the New Year was an Allied agreement to pool all resources and unify the command in the South-Western Pacific. This represented a policy of concerted Pacific strategy which Mr. Curtin's Government had advocated directly the danger in Malaya became plain. The Allied agreement gave Australia an assurance that the defensive interdependence of the United States and the Commonwealth was now a reality. With General Wavell in command of the Australian forces at Singapore, the agreement was doubly welcome. Already, the threat from Japan was very plain, as Japanese landings in New Guinea and the Solomon Islands were announced by Mr. Forde on January 23. Mr. Porde, at the request of the Australian War Cabinet, at once telegraphed to Mr. Churchill and Mr. Roosevelt, stressing the gravity of the threat and asking for help, which, as has been said, was immediately forthcoming.

The fall of Singapore on February 16 emphasised Australia's anxiety for the safety of the island Continent, as it released large Japanese forces in Malaya for service in other parts of the Pacific. Mr. Curtin described the fall of Singapore as Australia's Dunkirk—the opening of the Battle of Australia. On its issue depended not merely the fate of the Commonwealth but also the fate of the United States, and, indeed, of all the Americas, and therefore, in large measure, the fate of the English-speaking world. "Our honeymoon is finished," Mr. Curtin said, "now we must fight or work as never before."

Portuguese Timor was occupied by the Japanese on February 20, and throughout 1942 a small force of Australians struggled against enemy superiority. The unit raided the Japanese camps and ambushed detachments moving through the mountain fortresses, though the only Australian weapons were Bren guns, tommy-guns, and rifles, while the Japanese had field artillery, mortars, and aircraft at their command. On March 8 Japanese forces landed at Salamaua on the mainland of New Guinea, under an escort of cruisers, destroyers, and aircraft, thus increasing the threat to Port Moresby and commanding the Straits between New Britain and New Guinea, through which any Japanese forces from Java would have to pass before they could attack Eastern Australia. A pitiable side-issue in New Guinea was the revelation of Fifth-Column activities by a party of Lutheran missionaries, established near Salamaua. The missionaries acted as guides to the Japanese, used secret wireless installations in the Axis interests, and adopted all the devices of active spying. The fact that the German missionaries were naturalised alone accounted for the fact that they had not been interned, and this added to their offence.

The first act of war against the Australian Continent was an air raid upon Port Darwin on February 19, in which a number of civilians were killed. The first bomb dropped upon Australian soil hit a wharf and killed twenty labourers. Having temporary air supremacy, the Japanese bombers were able to cause severe damage. Within a month a change for the better was to be noted. On March 18 General Douglas MacArthur arrived in Australia from the Philippines and took supreme command of the Allied Forces in the South-West Pacific, Lieutenant-General George Brett being in command of the American troops in Australia. Already, American troops had been arriving in Australia, though the news was not made public. The transport of this large convoy across the Pacific was in itself a memorable achievement. Axis submarines operated continually, the last attack coming when the American convoy was only 300 miles from the Australian coast. By the end of the month General Sir Thomas Blarney, who had been serving with the Australian forces in the Middle East, returned to command the troops defending Australia. Speaking at a civic reception in Melbourne on March 31, Mr. Curtin announced that a portion of the A.I.F. had also returned in order to give the defenders a stiffening of battle-seasoned troops. Mr. Curtin paid a glowing tribute to the steps which General Blarney had taken to secure the return of the A.I.F., and said that with the aid of the British naval forces this great operation had been carried out without a single adverse incident. At the same time an Allied War Council was created in the Anzac area. General Sir J. D. Lavarack, General Blarney's deputy in the Middle East, was appointed commander of the First Australian Army and Lieutenant-General Sir Iven Mackay, commander of the Second Army.

The most serious threat to Australia arose from the Japanese sea-control which was established in the Pacific, following upon the attack upon Pearl Harbour, and the disaster to Admiral Sir Tom Philips's ships off the Malayan coast, but, before 1942 was over, naval control had been largely regained, and the slow job of ousting the Japanese from their forward stations was entered upon by Admiral King. The landing of American Marines on August 7 and the seizure of the airfield which the Japanese had just completed in Guadalcanal marked the beginning of the counter-offensive, though the naval fight on August 8, in which H.M.S. *Canberra* was lost, together with the U.S.S. *Quincy*, *Vincennes*, and *Astoria*, showed that the struggle was bound to be a long one. Six full-scale Japanese efforts to re-invade Guadalcanal were made and defeated, with heavy losses in transports and warships. During September the Japanese crossed the Owen Stanley range in New Guinea and came within 40 miles of Port Moresby. Undeniably, the enemy fought well. As General MacArthur said on September 9, the

Japanese were the greatest exploiters of inefficient and incompetent troops the world had ever seen. When attacked unexpectedly they had an extraordinary capacity to fight to the end. They believed that if they surrendered they would be killed or, if the enemy did not kill them, that they would be executed when they returned to Japan. "All I ask is that when you go into action you will kill one Japanese each," added General MacArthur. "If you do you will win. Always that fellow wins whose nerves do not go back on him, who never thinks of anything but the will to victory. That is what I expect of my men."

The country in which the Australians were opposing the Japanese contained some of the most treacherous jungle tracks in the world, and rain fell almost incessantly. The troops often had to wade knee-deep in mud. Nevertheless, General MacArthur's faith in his troops was fully justified before the end of the year. General Blarney himself went to New Guinea on September 28 and directed the fighting there under General MacArthur's general orders. General Blarney was in command of the Australians when the offensive in Papua began on September 27. In two months the Japanese had been driven back. The Americans had been sent to operate in Central and Northern Papua, completing a double pincer movement on the enemy's flank in difficult country through which the Japanese could not infiltrate. Before this plan could be successful new routes had to be opened to pack and wheeled transport and sea lines developed to maintain supplies. The fighting during October in the Owen Stanley mountains imposed immense strain upon the advancing Australians, but command of the sea and air proved the vital factor. Lacking this, the Japanese could not maintain their advance upon Port Moresby. All the time the United States Navy and Air Force was taking a great toll of the shipping needed to supply the Japanese forces on Guadalcanal, the air supremacy over Japan being particularly manifest. By Christmas the Australian and American troops on the Buna front in Papua had confined the Japanese to "a fortified citadel of resistance," no more than a mile long.

The Allied Fleet suffered severe losses in the battle of the Java Sea early in March, including the 7,000 ton cruiser *Perth*. The loss of the heavy cruiser *Canberra* in the battle of the Solomon Islands was announced on August 20, and on September 9 H.M.S. *Shropshire* was handed over to the Royal Australian Navy and re-named the *Canberra*, in memory of the lost cruiser. Captain Getting lost his life but most of the 816 aboard were rescued. Of the 193 casualties ten died of wounds, 74 were "missing, believed killed," and 109 were wounded.

Supplementing the co-ordination of Australian, British, and American military, naval, and air-force resources in the Pacific

area, the authorities announced the complete mobilisation of Australian resources, human and material, for the defence of the Commonwealth. For example, on February 10, Mr. Curtin announced drastic measures designed to stop profiteering of any kind and, in particular, profiteering by owners of capital. The sale or investment of capital, except for war purposes, was a feature of the Government scheme, the idea being that speculation, say by the purchase of real estate or jewellery, was highly undesirable in a time of crisis. Profits at the same time were pegged at a maximum of 4 per cent, on capital and re-invested reserves. Profits exceeding 4 per cent, had to be passed on to the consumer in the form of price reductions or became subject to taxation. The limitation of profits scheme was quickly the subject of sharp criticism, particularly as it was propounded without any reference to the Advisory War Council, upon which were representatives of the Opposition, and thus could be regarded as purely a Labour Party policy. Incidentally, the scheme included an effort to peg wages, and lock-outs and strikes were described as covered by the prohibition of absenteeism from work, the penalty for which was a fine of 100l. or six months' imprisonment, or both.

The Commonwealth 4 per cent, company profits tax was sharply debated for several months, and the Chamber of Commerce in Australia found many arguments for persuading the Commonwealth Government to modify or shelve the tax. Under this pressure the Government decided to take only 80 per cent, of the profits above 4 per cent., allowing the remaining 20 per cent, to be retained and be available either for dividends or as bonds, which could not be sold while the war continues. Businesses operating capital below 25,000l. were also exempted from the 4 per cent, limitation, unless their early profit was more than 1,000l., in which case they were assessed as though their capital was 25,000l.

As a further step in the direction of complete mobilisation Mr. J. B. Chifley, the Federal Treasurer, on March 8, announced a plan whereby the Commonwealth Government would exercise priority powers in respect of tax collection, particularly income tax collection. A conference of State Premiers with representatives of the Federal Government in April rejected the Commonwealth's proposal to make the burden of income tax, which was levied by both States and Commonwealth, uniform throughout Australia. The Federal Government largely relied upon income tax to finance war expenditure, and the varying income tax burdens in the several States made it difficult to levy a high tax, if a high rate was already being paid to the State. On May 15 Mr. Chifley, the Federal Treasurer, introduced three Bills into the House of Representatives at Canberra, the effect of which was to give the Commonwealth Government power to enforce

a uniform income tax, in spite of the opposition of the State Premiers. On June 4 the Australian Federal Parliament passed the Bill by 20 votes to 12, the change operating from August 1, by which time the necessary transfer of the State records and officials would be completed. Mr. Fadden, Leader of the Opposition, approved the principle of uniform taxation, so the eventual passage of the Bills through the House of Representatives was assured, but Mr. Fadden and Mr. Menzies were very critical of the details of the measures. On July 23 the Australian High Court, by a majority judgment, affirmed the validity of the income tax legislation and dismissed the application by the Governments of Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia for a decree invalidating the three Acts as *ultra vires* the Commonwealth Constitution.

The advance of the enemy in the Southern Pacific tended to increase Australia's sense of nationhood, and emphasised the need for clear guidance and sound control by the Central Government at Canberra. Plainly, Japan's advance towards Port Moresby and the seizure of islands between New Guinea and Timor had gravely increased the direct threat to Australia. The national danger persuaded Mr. Curtin's Cabinet that the time was ripe for certain constitutional changes, intended to transfer certain legislative rights from States to Commonwealth. A Bill authorising a referendum on constitutional reform was placed before the House of Representatives at Canberra on October 1. Dr. Evatt, Attorney-General, explained that the principal clause gave the Federal Parliament "full power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Commonwealth, its territories and places under its jurisdiction, for the purpose of carrying into effect the war aims of Australia as one of the United Nations, including the attainment of economic security and social justice in the post-war period, and for post-war reconstruction generally." As had been the case with the income tax reforms, there was strong State opposition, and Mr. Fadden, Leader of the Opposition in the Federal Parliament, spoke strongly on the subject on November 25. In consequence of the opposition, a Constitutional Convention was convened, and on November 30 unanimously adopted the proposal of the Premier of Tasmania (Mr. Cosgrove) that suitable powers for post-war reconstruction should be transferred to the Commonwealth by the States for seven years from the cessation of hostilities, at the end of which time, or earlier, a referendum should be held to obtain the electors' approval of permanent amendments to the Constitution. On December 2 the Convention approved the draft Bill transferring fourteen specific powers by the Australian States to the Commonwealth, subject to approval by the electors of the State Legislative assemblies. The Premiers attending the Convention promised to introduce the necessary

legislation before the end of January, 1943, and do their best to secure its speedy passage through the various State Legislatures. There was also an interesting debate at Canberra on October 1, when Dr. Evatt, the Federal Attorney-General, introduced a Bill to ratify certain sections of the Statute of Westminster.

Perhaps the most disturbing feature in Australian politics disclosed by the session's debates was the unhappy disunity between the political parties in Australia, and this, in spite of the non-party Advisory War Council being in existence. Mr. Curtin was betrayed into an unfortunate attack upon the non-Labour members of the War Council, which Mr. Menzies sharply resented on their behalf. A General Election is due in 1943 and it would seem that Government and Opposition leaders alike were unable to rid themselves of its influence. In view of the unity among all classes of Australian citizens on behalf of an all-out war effort, it was to be regretted that the political leaders were unable to banish evidence of party, as opposed to national sentiment. On December 18 the Commonwealth Cabinet decided to lift the ban on the Communist Party, which had been declared an illegal organisation in June, 1940. The difficult problem of compulsory service overseas was also the subject of debate, but had not been solved by the end of the year.

One other matter calls for record—the war finances of the Commonwealth, as disclosed by the Federal Budget. Mr. Chifley, the Commonwealth Treasurer, introduced his Budget on September 3. He estimated the total revenue for 1942-43 at 249l. million and the expenditure 549l. million, leaving 300l. million to be paid for by loan. The estimated war expenditure was 44:01. million, an increase of 120l. million over the previous year. The new taxation imposed would yield 58l. million in a full year. The Budget was passed by the House of Representatives at Canberra on September 23. In view of the large amount to be raised by loan, Mr. Curtin, at the time of the Budget statement, launched a Commonwealth "austerity" campaign, with a view to avoiding dangers of inflation which the financial situation foreshadowed. Critics of the Budget urged that many beneficiaries of war spending, well able to contribute to the cost of the war, were not taxed at all, while the highest incomes paid up to 18s. 6d. in the £.

The session of the Federal Parliament ended on October 9, and the Houses adjourned until early in the New Year.

DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

The Japanese advance in the Southern Pacific brought New Zealand into the zone of active warfare, though somewhat less definitely than it involved New Zealand's neighbour, the Australian Commonwealth. Fiji and Samoa were not invaded, as was New Guinea. As in Australia, the first reaction of New

Zealanders to the threat which followed the attack upon the American Fleet in Pearl Harbour in December, 1941, was anxiety lest the danger to the British Dominions in the Southern Hemisphere should be overlooked in the general stress of a world conflict. An unhappily worded cablegram from Britain was taken by some New Zealanders to imply that the Japanese advance in the Pacific could only be countered seriously after Germany and Italy had been defeated. Mr. Fraser, the New Zealand Prime Minister, was quick to deny the suggestion. Speaking on January 26, he said that his Government had been in constant communication with Mr. Churchill, and he could say that there had not been a hint that such an attitude was even being considered by the War Cabinet in London. On the contrary, he was assured that Mr. Churchill fully appreciated the danger in the Pacific. Mr. Fraser added that New Zealand's requirements in respect of war equipment had been emphasised both in the United Kingdom and the United States and the response had been satisfactory.

Nevertheless, the need for unity of effort in New Zealand became very plain as the year advanced and, on June 25, Mr. Fraser announced the formation of a War Ministry, including Mr. Holland, Leader of the Opposition. The Coalition followed upon {Urgent representations by the Returned Services Organisation, which deplored the continuation of party strife in a time of national crisis. The new War Administration included seven representatives of the Labour Party and six Opposition members. Speaking in the House of Representatives, Mr. Fraser explained that New Zealand was facing a grim war situation, and the merging of the Labour and National parties in a united war effort was the best possible evidence of New Zealand's determination to win.

Previously, Mr. Coates and Mr. Hamilton had been included in the New Zealand War Cabinet as representatives of the Opposition. In the new Government the Opposition had a full share in the portfolios and thus took complete responsibility for all decisions connected with the war, though members of the Labour Government retained their positions in the domestic Cabinet, which had no responsibility for business connected with the war effort. This was judged essential lest the Labour Party should seem to be holding up its schemes for social reform. The War Administration included :

From the Labour Party.

Mr. FRASER . Prime Minister and Chairman of the War Administration.

Mr. SULLIVAN . Minister of Supply and Munitions (Deputy Prime Minister).

Mr. JONES . Minister of Defence.

Mr. SEMPLE . Minister of Transport.

Mr. NORDMEYER . Minister of Health.

Mr. PAIKEA . Minister for the Maori War Effort.

Mr. MCLAGAN . Minister for Industrial Man-power.

From the National Party.

- Mr. HOLLAND . Minister for **War** Expenditure (Deputy Chairman of War Administration).
Mr. HAMILTON . Associate Minister of Supply and Munitions.
Mr. COATES . Minister for the Armed Forces and War Co-ordination.
Mr. BROADFOOT . Minister for National Service.
Mr. BODKIN . Minister of Civil Defence.
Mr. POLSON . Minister for Primary Production for War Purposes.

The New Zealand War Cabinet included Mr. Fraser, Mr. Sullivan, Mr. Jones, and Mr. Nash, who at the time was in America, with the addition of Mr. Holland, Mr. Hamilton, and Mr. Coates, representing the National Party. Mr. Fraser also held the Portfolio of Minister of Finance, while Mr. W. J. Jordan, High Commissioner in London, represented New Zealand on the British War Cabinet. At the time of Mr. Jordan's appointment (Jan., 1942), Mr. Fraser admitted that anomalies existed, as Mr. Jordan would not have a completely free hand and would have to consult his Government, but such difficulties could be overcome. So far as the war in the Pacific was concerned, New Zealand favoured a War Council meeting in Washington, which would include delegates from the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands, and China.

Unhappily, the union between Labour and the National Party did not prove lasting. In September there was a strike in the Waikato coal-field, and when efforts at settlement failed, the Government decided to take control of the mines for the duration of the war, 180 miners being sentenced to a month's imprisonment apiece for taking part in an illegal strike. When the miners returned to work, Mr. Fraser announced the Government's decision to suspend the sentences of imprisonment passed upon the miners. The caucus of the Opposition Party at once met and decided to withdraw its six representatives from the War Cabinet, on the ground that it was intolerable that an administration should be unable or unwilling to enforce its own laws. In this connexion it is to be remembered that, earlier in the year, another body of trade unionists had been sentenced to short terms of imprisonment in connexion with a strike in a freezing factory at Auckland. In this case, too, Mr. Fraser's Government intervened and the sentences were cancelled. The Opposition, therefore, had some grounds for believing that a principle was at stake. Mr. Hamilton and Mr. Coates, having been in office before the united War Administration was formed, were in a somewhat different position from Mr. Holland, Mr. Poisson, Mr. Broadfoot, and Mr. Bodkin, who resigned immediately. When portfolios in the War Administration were re-allocated Mr. Hamilton became Minister-in-Charge of War Expenditure, while Mr. Barclay was placed in charge of primary production, Mr. McLagan being in charge of national service, and Mr. D. Wilson of civil defence. In December, Mr. H. T. Armstrong, Minister

of Public Works, died, and Mr. James O'Brien entered the Cabinet as Minister of Transport and Marine, Mr. Semple taking over Mr. Armstrong's portfolios.

The Waikato strike was condemned by other Labour organisations in New Zealand and, in spite of the important political repercussions, must not be accepted as evidence that the Dominion was not in the war "to the hilt." In the autumn of 1942 more than one-quarter of New Zealand's males over sixteen years were mobilised, and camps and military aerodromes were arising in all parts of the North and South Islands. Moreover, it was plain, that in proportion to its population New Zealand's war losses were higher than those of any nation in the alliance against Germany, Italy, and Japan. In addition, 5,000 New Zealanders were serving in the Royal Navy and over 6,000 airmen had been sent for service overseas. On November 1 Mr. Jones, Minister of Defence, announced that the New Zealand Air Force squadrons had been placed under American command for service in the South Pacific, while Air Commodore Goddard was responsible for the air defence of New Zealand itself. The New Zealand Army in the Pacific area, led by Lieutenant-General Puttick, was also under American command, the Middle East Forces remaining under Sir Bernard Freyberg, V.C. During 1942 Commodore Sir Atwell Lake was Chief of the New Zealand Naval Staff. Always, the attitude of the Dominion was the reverse of defensive. As Mr. Fraser said on October 9, "when we entered the war, we entered it with all we had. We were convinced that the Mother Country was entering the war in the cause of humanity and that everything was at stake, and we threw everything we had into the scale. We have never receded from that." New Zealand's harbours, bases, and all her other facilities were at the disposal of the United Nations, not for protecting the shores of the Dominion, but to help the United Nations to defeat the greatest tyranny that had ever threatened.

The arrival of American troops in New Zealand was not made public until December 2, though the coming of unfamiliar grey transports at Dominion ports must have given many people an early inkling of the welcome news. Quickly, a vast camp was organised, New Zealanders willingly foregoing their claim to commodities in short supply, lest the new-comers should suffer. In general, the agreement made between the Australian War Council, the New Zealand delegation, and the Allied Service advisers on March 2 was adhered to throughout the year—continuous consultation and single-hearted action, in order that the success of the Allied arms in the Anzac zone might be assured. On August 26 Mr. Peter Fraser was in Washington and was entertained at a State dinner at the White House, which was virtually a Council of War, preparatory to the meeting of the Pacific War Council on the following day. Lord Halifax, Mr.

Cordell Hull, General George Marshall, and Admiral Ernest King were among those who attended the gatherings. In Washington Mr. Eraser was able to pay a broadcast tribute to the work of American soldiers in the Solomons, New Guinea, and elsewhere. During 1942 Mr. Nash, New Zealand's Minister of Finance, had his headquarters in Washington, though retaining his Ministerial portfolios. The New Zealand Parliament passed the necessary legislation. Brigadier-General Hurley, who was President Hoover's Secretary for War between 1929 and 1932, similarly came to New Zealand to represent the United States in the Dominion.

In November the news of the exploits of the New Zealand division in Libya during the victorious advance of the Eighth Army delighted New Zealanders, and the excitement was renewed on November 23 when General Freyberg's fuller account of a battle around Tobruk was published. Describing the capture of Hell Fire Pass (Halfaya), General Freyberg said that a surprise attack was decided upon and, just before daylight on Armistice Day, 110 men of the 21st Battalion went in with Bren guns and bayonets. It was a complete success. We had one killed and one wounded, and took 612 prisoners, some Germans, but mainly Italians of the Pistoia Division, whose motto is "Valiant even unto death." Solium fell automatically, and Egypt was clear of the enemy. The General added, "the courage and tenacity of our fighting soldiers remains of the highest order. The training, equipment, and efficiency of the force has stood the test of a most exacting campaign." Mr. Fraser had previously cabled his congratulations. "We are proud to know that the New Zealand Division has once again proved its qualities and maintained its world-wide reputation as a fighting force second to none."

During 1942 the Government called up all the single men and the married men with no children up to the age of 45 and, under a National Service Emergency Regulation, men from 46 to 50 were required to register for the purpose of interview, selection, and direction into suitable work. Women of 20 and 21 were also required to register, with a view to being drafted into suitable work. Service in the Home Guard was made compulsory. The Army also brought back from Egypt 57 officers and 64 non-commissioned officers for instruction purposes. Kang George gave great satisfaction when he ordered that the New Zealand Army Tank Brigade should be affiliated to the Royal Tank Regiment, with the right to use its colours, wear its tie, and play its marching tune. On March 12 the Government set up a Defence Construction Council, with the Prime Minister as chairman and Mr. James Fletcher, managing director of the Fletcher Construction Co. Ltd., as vice-chairman, Mr. Fletcher having very wide powers* in regard to the supply of materials and labour. Mr. Fletcher acted promptly, and, on March 14, standard wages for men engaged on building construction were announced by

Mr. Webb, Minister of Labour. Under the scheme carpenters were paid 3s. 5d. an hour, or 81. 15s. 6d. for a 54 hours' week. No overtime or holiday or Sunday rates were to be payable.

Thanks to the prices paid by the United Kingdom for wool, meat, and other New Zealand exports, the income of the Dominion was well maintained through the year, but civilian economies were nevertheless essential. On December 16 Mr. Eraser, in a talk broadcast through the Dominion, supplemented the direct war effort by launching a stabilisation scheme, designed to keep wages and other costs and prices at a constant level and thus avoid any risk of inflation. The Government proposed that the movement of prices should be measured by a war-time index covering 110 items of food, clothing, furniture, and other necessities of life. Thus the Prime Minister hoped to peg wages, salaries, business rents, and the farm produce, and allow no variation unless the cost of living increased by at least 5 per cent. Internal prices of farm produce were divorced from export values, any surplus due to sales on export account being paid into a Government pool. In May, 1942, the British Government offered wool-growers a 15 per cent, advance upon the prices previously paid for exported wool. The New Zealand Government thereupon proposed that 7½ per cent, of this advance should be withheld in the form of a reserve for post-war requirements, the fear being that the additional payment of 2,500,000l. a year could not be equated with an additional supply of goods and thus would have an inflationary tendency. The suggestion aroused strong opposition among the wool-growers and no decision was reached before the end of the year. It is agreed that the money belongs to the growers. The only question is whether they should receive the whole immediately or at some future time. If payment is deferred, the Government will get the use of the money. It will be in the nature of a special loan for the war period. In response to changing British needs, New Zealand, after achieving a record cheese production, switched over to butter, as the major pastoral product. The factory production of the Dominion also worked to capacity, producing a million uniform suits for the fighting Services, among other things. Hand-grenades, shell-fuses, tommy-guns, mine-sweepers, and training aircraft were other products which would have been regarded as outside New Zealand's capacity when the war began.

These varied achievements seem the more remarkable when it is remembered that the population of the Dominion is only a little over 1,600,000, while 140,000 men had been withdrawn for service in the armed forces. The war expenditure for 1942-43 was 133,000,000*.

An interim financial statement was made by Mr. Fraser on **April 30**. The Prime Minister explained that the 133,000,000.

was more than the whole cost of the First World War to New Zealand, and he proposed to borrow 46,000,000l. under a memorandum of security, 10,000,000l. under a lease-and-lend agreement, leaving 35,600,000l. to be borrowed in New Zealand. The contribution of the taxpayer to war expenses in 1942-43 was estimated at 34,400,000l., the total taxation for the year being 77,800,000l., or 47l. per head of population

CHAPTER V

INDIA AND BURMA

To an extent never before approached India and Burma during 1942 provided the newspaper press with front-page news. Burma, after stubborn fighting, came into Japanese occupation. India was thereby directly threatened with invasion and suffered some air raids along her eastern and south-eastern shores, while the enemy took possession of a mid-ocean portion of her territory. Her great and accelerating contribution to the war effort and the fresh renown of her sons on far-flung battle fronts were accompanied from the late summer by serious internal unrest. The historic offer of H.M. Government, through Sir Stafford Cripps, of post-war self-determination was rejected by the principal political organisations, and the largest of them, the Congress Party, embarked on a campaign of mass civil disobedience, which hampered war activities and resulted in sabotage and bloodshed.

The long succession of reverses to the arms of the United Nations in the Pacific in the first few months of Japanese aggression stimulated in Britain widespread acceptance of the view that, with the security of India threatened, we could and should bring her people into full moral support of the United Nations by conceding forthwith the demand for a "National Government," with virtual independence of British authority. The formidable difficulties arising from bitter Indian dissensions in the political field and by unpreparedness for responsibility for self-defence were greatly under-estimated in many quarters.

This attitude encouraged the continued pressure of Indian parties on the Government. At Washington at the beginning of the year Mr. Churchill received a telegram from thirteen eminent Indians, headed by Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, stressing the urgent necessity of making India's constitutional position and powers identical with those of British Dominions. A few days later the All-India Women's Conference resolved that "Britain's statements of her war aims cannot make any moral appeal to the peoples of the world so long as she refuses to alter her present policy towards India."

The threat to the peninsula grew apace. Aided by the Siamese and later by some disaffected Burmese elements, the Japanese invaded Burma, which was defended initially by little more than one division of British, Indian, and Burmese troops. These were reinforced by a further weak Indian division, and from February by contingents from China. The American Volunteer Group assisted the R.A.F. in stoutly defending Rangoon—the vital gateway for war supplies for the Chungking Government by way of the Burma Road. In the same month General Chiang Kai-shek, accompanied by his wife, visited the Viceroy at New Delhi to confer with the authorities there on matters of common concern to India and China. The Generalissimo also had long talks with the leaders of the Congress and other parties. On his way back to Chungking he saw Chinese troops actively patrolling their part of the Burma front. Japanese predominance by land and sea and in the air, however, eventually made Rangoon untenable. The civil Government moved north to Mandalay, and we evacuated the heavily bombed port and capital on March 8.

Three days later Mr. Churchill announced in Parliament the decision of the War Cabinet to send one of their number, Sir Stafford Cripps, to New Delhi with a plan for the future of India on the basis of which it was hoped that the leaders of the various political parties would participate in the conduct of the war under the existing Constitution. [See under Public Documents.] Sir Stafford reached India on March 22 and had discussions with the Viceroy and his Council, the British Indian political leaders, representatives of the Princes, and the Commander-in-Chief. The draft Declaration, the terms of which he made public on March 30, provided that after the cessation of hostilities an all-India Constituent Assembly, consisting of persons elected in British India and nominated by the Princes, would draw up a Constitution for a fully autonomous Indian Union. When the Constitution had been framed all Provinces and States would be left free to join therein or to make separate arrangements. [For this Declaration see under Public Documents.] Answering questions at a Press Conference Sir Stafford supplemented the draft Declaration by many specific examples of its far-reaching implications.

Unfortunately the negotiations coincided with further heavy Japanese blows to British prestige. On March 23 a vulnerable outpost of the Indian Empire—the Andaman Islands—which we had evacuated on March 12, was taken and occupied. The bombing of two south-east ports, Vizagapatam and Cocanada, on April 6, and the entry of a powerful Japanese naval force into the Indian Ocean, accentuated the fear of invasion, and there were large-scale flights from the cities of Calcutta and Madras. Meanwhile, in the Irrawaddy campaign the forces under General Alexander were fighting numerous skilful rear-guard actions and

carrying out a deliberately " scorched earth " polioy in the oil-fields. In such circumstances Mr. Gandhi, using his unrivalled influence in the Congress Party against a settlement, could talk contemptuously of the draft Declaration as a " post-dated cheque upon a crashing bank."

The first public rejection of the offer came on April 1 from the Hindu Mahasabha, and the second from the Sikh All-Parties Committee—both based on the main ground that it did not close the door to the possibility of the partition of India by the Moslem League scheme of Pakistan. Later, following the adverse Congress decision, the Moslem League refused acquiescence on the exactly opposite ground that the principle of the Pakistan plan was not unequivocally accepted. On April 10, after much lobbying and frequent talks between the leaders and Sir Stafford Cripps, the Congress Working Committee rejected the offer, declaring that the self-determination proposed was for an " tin-certain future," and was " fettered and circumscribed" by unacceptable provisions. The proposed principles for a settlement of the Indian Constitutional problem were rejected on two main grounds—objection to " provincial option " and to Indian States being represented in the constituent body by nominated and not by popularly elected persons. They also objected to the proposals for immediate participation in the existing Governmental framework. They sought in fact to base their rejection mainly on this aspect of the plan. The ostensible cause of breakdown, as Sir Stafford wrote to Maulana Azad, the Congress President, was in respect to his offer of division of functions during the war, between the Commander-in-Chief and the proposed Indian Defence Member. The real reason, he wrote, was the demand for changing the Constitution forthwith, in spite of the practical impossibility of any such legislative change in the middle of the war.

The story of the negotiations is told in documents included in " India (Lord Privy Seal's Mission) " [Cmd. 6350]. Sir Stafford at once returned to London, and stated in Parliament on April 28 that while the draft Declaration must be considered withdrawn, this did not close the door to closer co-operation in the defence of India or to the solution of the problem of self-government after the war. It was later made clear both by the Prime Minister and Mr. Amery, the Secretary of State for India, that although the detailed offer was withdrawn H.M. Government stood firmly by the broad intentions which inspired it. But the communal politicians for the most part remained unwilling to subordinate sectional interests to unity before the threat of invasion. An outstanding exception was Mr. C. Rajagopalachari, late Premier of Madras, who urged the Congress to open negotiations with Mr. Jinnah, in order to create a basis of co-operation in a National Government to be formed *ad interim*. This plea was

overwhelmingly defeated in the All-India Congress Committee, which refused consideration of "any proposals which retain even a partial measure of British control and authority." Consequently, on April 30, Mr. Rajagopalachari resigned from the Working Committee and later from the party. Thereafter he made overtures as an influential private individual to Mr. Jinnah, who, however, could not be deflected from his frequently reiterated policy and declaration of July 4 that the rejection of Pakistan would bring "chaos and disorder."

Amid the waning hope of any settlement by agreement, the Viceroy's further enlargement on July 2 of his Executive Council gave him eleven Indian colleagues and (apart from the Commander-in-Chief) three British, of whom one, Sir Edward Benthall, was a non-official. The Sikhs and Depressed Classes were represented for the first time by the inclusion, respectively, of Sir Jogendra Singh and Dr. B. R. Ambedkar. Sir Firozkhan Noon, already on the Council, was made the first civilian Defence Member, with responsibility for work hitherto discharged by the Defence Co-ordination Department, together with such other defence matters as were not included in the Portfolios of War (held by the Commander-in-Chief) and Civil Defence. At the same time announcement was made of the selection of the Maharaja Jam Sahab of Nawanagar (Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes) and Sir Ramaswami Mudaliar to represent India at the War Cabinet and on the Pacific War Council.

The further Indianising of the Central Government had no effect in checking the Congress drift to lawlessness Mr Gandhi was planning. At Wardha on July 10 he laid before the Working Committee a draft resolution demanding the withdrawal of the British from India and affirming that the party no longer felt obliged to observe a policy of non-embarrassment of the war effort. After considerable toning down, the resolution was adopted on July 14. While expressing regret at action which might embarrass the United Nations, it indicated that if the demand for British abdication failed the party would be compelled "to make use of all its non-violent strength for the vindication of political rights and the liberty of India" under Mr. Gandhi's leadership.

A week later Government lifted the long-maintained ban on the Communist Party and its newspapers in view of their change of front. Interdiction of the formation of private armies followed. Documents seized at the Congress offices in Allahabad and published on August 4 threw a sinister light on the inner counsels of the Working Committee. Mr. Nehru had argued that the Mahatma's policy would lead the world to believe that the party was "passively lining up with the Axis Powers." Mr. Gandhi's own complacent interpretation of the resolution adopted on **July 14** was that its intentions amounted to "open rebellion."

Meeting again at Bombay on August 5, the Working Committee reaffirmed and amplified, in an argumentative resolution of 1,200 words, the Wardha decision. The larger All-India Committee met on August 7 and 8, and on the latter day, after hearing Mr. Gandhi, ordained a "mass struggle on non-violent lines" under his leadership to enforce their demands for withdrawal of British power from India. Opposition came only from a handful of Communists and other dissentients.

In pursuance of warnings previously given, the Executive Council at New Delhi, now more than two-thirds Indian, took swift action. Orders were issued restricting the publication of factual news relating to mass civil disobedience, and empowering provincial Governments to supersede such local authorities as might act in a manner prejudicial to the defence of India. A detailed statement of Government policy showed that acceptance of the Congress demands would mean the betrayal of the United Nations, and in particular Russia and China, and also of the loyal and co-operating elements in India. [See under Public Documents.] Early on the morning of August 9 all the members of the Working Committee were arrested, Mr. Gandhi being taken to Poona for internment in the palace of the Aga Khan. Provincial Governors similarly arrested local Congress leaders who were publicly advocating the organisation of strikes and other activities hampering to the war effort.

Within a few hours of the arrests, rioting was rife in Bombay, and spread to other centres, notably Delhi, Ahmedabad, Madras, and Poona. Chiefly in Eastern India, and especially in Bihar, there were concerted attacks on railways, post and telegraph offices, and other media of communications. Up to the end of November 882 post offices had been attacked, many of them being burnt down. The police were compelled on frequent occasions to fire on riotous mobs and gangs of saboteurs. British and Indian troops were often called to the aid of the civil power and frequently stood by. Forty-nine policemen were done to death, some of them in the most brutal circumstances and over a thousand were injured. The number of police stations destroyed or damaged had reached 166, and of other Government buildings (apart from post offices) 420. The number of rioters killed was by this time approaching four figures. The damage to the railways, it was officially stated in December, had affected the convenience of the public and the transport of much-needed foodstuffs more than the war effort. Vital war industries had nowhere been brought to a standstill by the railway sabotage.

The damage, however, would have been most helpful to the Japanese had they seen their way to attempt invasion. As early as May 1 they had taken Mandalay, but they failed to cut off our troops, who fought brilliant delaying actions and made good their retreat to the Assam border by May 28. Meanwhile

the Civil Government had been transferred to India, with Simla as its headquarters. The Governor, Sir R. Dorman Smith, paid a visit to London to confer with H.M. Government.

The withdrawal from Burma, as General Wavell, the Commander-in-Chief, said on June 1, was dictated by the inability to supply and maintain the Forces in the absence of a satisfactory route between the two countries that could stand the strain of monsoon conditions. Vigorous efforts were made, and a road fit for fair weather use was, in fact, constructed, but in terrain so remote and difficult more could not be achieved in the time available. The work of large-scale civilian evacuation of Burma was carried out under most onerous and disheartening conditions. Many Indian and other refugees had been able to leave Rangoon by sea before it fell, and later from some small ports of the West or by air ; but the great majority of the homeless underwent the perils and privations of the long trek through dense jungles, across great rivers, and over alpine heights into Assam. Everything possible to mitigate their hardships was done. Rations and other necessities were dropped from the air. Supplementary to the provision in Assam of Government camps at convenient intervals, the tea-planters of the province and their wives rendered humane aid of the utmost value.

The Japanese set up a puppet Burmese Government, but with all ultimate authority in the hands of the military commander. Burmese who had escaped to India in the middle of November reported the increasing unpopularity of Japanese rule. Even those elements which had been disposed to welcome the invaders were now becoming disgusted with them, owing to the aggressive and insolent behaviour of the occupying soldiers, their lack of respect for the Buddhist religion, and their treatment of Burmese women. In spite of their prating of "co-prosperity," it was clear that the Japanese regarded Burma merely as yet another source for the raw materials they required. The Burmese were receiving little return for the stocks and goods the Japanese commandeered, and there were reliable reports that the prices of many necessary articles, such as cloth, kerosene, sugar, matches, and medicines, had risen to astronomical heights.

This object-lesson on the other side of the Bay of Bengal of the necessity to defeat Axis plans of world conquest did not bring a change of heart or policy in the Congress Party, but in the absence of the leading figures of the movement, and with firm handling by Government, the disorders abated and became sporadic. While, as the Viceroy said at Calcutta on December 17, they "resulted in a serious diversion of military forces and an interruption, deeply to be regretted, in the war effort," they seemed to have a rallying effect on the active co-operation of the vastly preponderant loyal elements in the population. The figures of army recruitment (which is entirely voluntary in India) were

practically unaffected by Congress efforts, and 18,000 more recruits were enrolled in August—the peak period of trouble—than in the corresponding month of 1941. The Duke of Gloucester's visit of inspection in the earlier part of the summer had been encouraging. Later, the turn of the tide in Russia, North Africa, and other areas of sharp conflict was the more heartening because India's own fighting men were winning fresh laurels and new glory for their Army. In the field of supply production continued to expand, and in the words of the Viceroy on December 17 "immense things " were achieved. The Indian States, from whence much recruitment flowed, maintained their whole-hearted support of the war effort, and some of their contributions in money and material were models of imaginative giving.

Towards the close of the year the problem of food supplies became acute in various parts of India. Among the main causes were war dislocations, the stoppage of rice imports from Burma being one of them, and speculative hoarding by grain dealers. The more fortunate areas showed some reluctance to meet the needs of " deficit " provinces, and of great cities such as Calcutta and Bombay. Government found it necessary to establish price and other controls, but these had not been very effective at the close of the year. A contributory disaster was a cyclone and tidal wave of abnormal violence which swept over the north-western part of Bengal in the middle of October, devastated 3,000 square miles of territory, destroyed the lives of 11,000 people and of 75,000 head of cattle, and caused great suffering to more than a million inhabitants.

It was announced on December 8 that Lord Linlithgow had consented to a third extension of his Viceroyalty—this time for six months—to October, 1943, making his total occupancy half as long again as the normal period. While this extension caused some surprise, as it was known that Mr. Churchill had been considering carefully the choice of a successor, there was widespread recognition of the value of the further application in the critical months ahead of Lord Linlithgow's patient efforts and long Indian experience.

The Viceroy had just left Calcutta after a brief cold-weather visit, when, on December 20, the city had its first air raid. This was followed by four others in the next few days. But comparatively little damage was done, and the Viceroy sent a message of congratulation on the calmness of the vast population to the Governor of Bengal, Sir John Herbert. For months before this our air attacks on Rangoon, Mandalay, Akyab, and other centres in Burma, and also Chinese air attacks on Lashio, the railhead for the Burma Road, had been hampering the enemy. Late in December British and Indian troops crossed the jungles from Chittagong into Western Barma, Moving in the direction of

Akyab they occupied a number of places without substantial opposition. The first serious contact with the enemy was at Rathedaung, 30 miles from the port of Akyab, which was held in some strength.

The preliminary figures of the 1941 Indian Census, published early in the year, were relevant to political discussions, turning so largely on communal interests and proportions. The decennial increase of population was no less than 15 per cent., bringing the total figure to close upon 38*9,000,000. Literacy above the age of 5 increased from little more than 7 to 12 per cent. The tendency in previous decades for the Moslem proportion of the population to expand was accentuated by a growth from 77,000,000 to 94,250,000, being 24*2 per cent, of the inhabitants of India. The Christian population, making allowance for those returned as of tribal origin, rose to 7,250,000, of whom only 135,000 (including British troops) were Europeans and 136,000 Anglo-Indians, namely, persons of mixed birth.

FOREIGN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

THROUGHOUT another difficult year of war the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation continued a wide range of activities, partly from Geneva and partly from the war-time centres established in the United States, Canada, and elsewhere. On the political side, virtually nothing was accomplished or indeed attempted. The League's programme, planned as carefully and realistically in these days as in times of peace, admitted the self-evident fact that, as a political force in international relations, the League had been almost non-existent since the outbreak of war. In its economic, financial, industrial, social, and other technical branches, however, the League's record was in the circumstances remarkable. It clearly indicated that something deeper than a mere obstinate instinct for self-survival was keeping the League alive.

The physical handicaps, which limited the scale of even the most useful activities, were of much the same character as in previous war years. Thus the membership had shrunk from fifty-four States in 1939 to forty-five in 1942. Twenty-four of these countries were actually in the conflict, and the territory of fourteen was under enemy occupation. Even greater proportionately was the reduction in the League's budget, which had fallen (in round figures) from 32 million Swiss francs in 1939 to 9½ millions in 1942. Nevertheless, in the circumstances, such reductions were not really surprising. The remarkable fact was that so many States Members were willing to retain their League membership and to make contributions—though only token payments in the case of the Governments of the occupied countries—towards the cost of its upkeep.

There were two reasons which inspired these forty-five Governments to maintain in working order the skeleton of the League's organisation. First, some of the current activities thus supported had an immediate usefulness, *e.g.* the health work and the suppression of those social evils which are apt to derive a new lease of life from war conditions. From this point of view alone, international co-operation through the League abundantly justified the comparatively small financial outlay involved. Undoubtedly, however, the dominating motive in the minds of most of the Governments was the second—the importance of having ready international machinery which could play its allotted part in post-war reconstruction.

Mr. Eden, speaking on behalf of H.M. Government in the debate on post-war reconstruction in the House of Commons, on December 2, put this point very clearly :—

" There are certain international services " (he said) " which have gone on during the war which have not died, and which may render great service after the war. There are the international health services and economic services and the work done by the International Labour Organisation. We shall need that work more than ever after the war. The I.L.O. has struggled manfully and with considerable success to remove certain of the evils which are among the root causes of war: low standards of living, insecurity, and unemployment. Unless we can cure those evils no peace structure can be enduring. The I.L.O. must be strengthened and developed. I should like to see it become the main instrument giving effect to Article 5 of the Atlantic Charter."

So, even in war-time, there was purpose behind all that was done during 1942 at Geneva and in other League centres. The small staff—on April 15 there were eighty-two officials on the League Secretariat and a comparable number in the International Labour Office—was so fully occupied that many had to discharge the duties of two or three posts. But the skeleton of the organisation remained intact. Remarkably efficient co-operation was established between the nucleus of staff remaining in Geneva and the branches " on mission " outside Europe.

Economic and Financial Questions.—As might be expected, the economic and financial side of the League's technical and research work was of prime importance during the year under review. The chief centre for this work was Princeton, New Jersey, although to a limited extent the Geneva headquarters continued to function. If any spur were needed, it was to be found in the knowledge that the League Committees and Secretariat, with their special experience of international problems covering a vast field, would have an invaluable part to play in co-ordinating those plans and studies for post-war reconstruction which were being increasingly discussed in many countries. In particular, world-wide interest in and discussion of the Atlantic Charter gave the League's economic and financial work direction and impetus. That the implications of the Atlantic Charter were being carefully studied by competent League experts was shown in the various technical reports which appeared in the course of the year.

Commercial policy, raw materials, relief and reconstruction, agriculture, international currency problems, and demographic and population questions were a few of the angles from which, in 1942, the Economic, Financial, and Transit Department of the League approached post-war planning. The studies of post-war settlement, diligently pursued at Princeton, were helped by a grant generously voted by the Rockefeller Foundation. Transport—especially the need for co-ordination under completely new conditions—was explored, notably in relation to

post-war relief and reconstruction. On this latter larger subject, a memorandum on post-1915 relief measures was drafted, with the intention of amplifying it with critical studies of the reconstruction schemes (Austria, Hungary, Greece, etc.) which were among the earlier achievements of the League after the last war. In this connexion, the League's exceptional experience would lend weight to its opinions on the immediate economic effects of reconstruction loans and the manner in which harmful results might be checked. The League was also considering the relation of the various forms of international lending on post-war relief and reconstruction, particularly the ultimate effects of some system of lend-lease on the financial and commercial relationships of nations.

A careful study of current agricultural developments in the war areas was included in the programme as one necessary preliminary to the formulation of any rational policy of reconstruction. Neither relief nor reconstruction can be considered independently of agriculture and nutrition. After the last war it took six or seven years for European agriculture to recover something like its former productive capacity, and, thanks to Germany's policy of plunder and impoverishment throughout Occupied Europe, similar problems in a far more acute form are bound to arise at the end of this war. Hence the importance of continuing and developing the agricultural studies successfully begun by the League in happier days.

The need for a "population policy," to replace the sophistries bound up with the whole Nazi racial doctrine, was the motive force which led the League to embark upon a detailed investigation of demographic problems. An arrangement was reached with the American authorities by which the Office of Population Research in Princeton University agreed to carry out the necessary research programme under the direction of the League's Economic Department. In view of the heavy volume of work involved, the inquiries were for the time being confined to Europe, but their arrangement was such that they could at any time be extended to cover other areas.

The three pivotal publications of the Economic Intelligence Service were produced as usual—the *World Economic Survey*, the *Statistical Year-Book*, and the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*. The *Survey*, mainly concerned with war finance and war economy, was prepared in Princeton. Here, too, much of the information for the other two publications was collected, although the final editing and printing were done in Switzerland.

Among special studies prepared by the Economic Intelligence Service was "The Network of World Trade." In a previous survey of "Europe's Trade" published in 1941, the League had shown the extent to which Europe was normally dependent upon external markets and external markets were dependent on her.

This further analysis of seventeen geographical regions and eight political groups of countries underlined the essential unity of world trade, due to the complexity of the trade of each area, and reached the broad conclusion that the success or failure of commercial policies after the war would depend largely upon an understanding of the inescapably multilateral nature of international trade. "Money and Banking, 1940-42," was a compendium of the published banking and monetary statistics of the world.

The League's Social Services.—The League's Health Organisation remained the most active of the bodies dealing with technical questions of a social and humanitarian nature. Epidemic diseases and the situation with regard to food supply preoccupied the attention of health administrations in nearly all countries, and inevitably the Health Section of the Secretariat concentrated on these subjects. The story was one of a triumph over difficulties. What most hampered the League's health work in the earlier stages of the war was the reluctance of Governments to disclose anything which might conceivably be found useful by the enemy, with the result that certain of the normal sources of information regarding epidemics tended to dry up. By 1942, however, the situation in this respect had improved considerably. Information, for example, again began to come through from the Occupied countries. Further, *ad hoc* arrangements led to a similar resumption in respect of the British and French possessions.

Early in 1942, owing to Japanese action in the East, the League's Epidemiological Bureau, which had functioned so efficiently at Singapore since 1925, had to close down. It was speedily re-opened at a new centre in Australia, thanks to the goodwill of the Commonwealth Government, and was soon continuing its work within the limits imposed by war conditions.

No hindrances were put in the way of the dispatch of sera from the Danish State Institute and the National Institute for Medical Research at Hampstead, which for many years had been associated with the League's health work. The Acting Secretary-General recorded in his report that, in recent months, seventeen countries had asked for advice and assistance from the League in dealing with their own public health problems. The list included not only a number of the United Nations, such as Great Britain and the Dominions and the U.S.A., but even Germany, Italy, and Vichy France. Apparently, even the League's enemies were not averse from tapping its long experience !

In the sphere of public health, as with other matters, the League was constantly looking to the world's future needs. Spade-work proceeded on the assumption that the field of nutrition would offer a great opportunity after the war. A statistical survey was conducted by the Health Section with the object of ascertaining the extent to which the rationing imposed on

European countries had already influenced the general level of health. A marked increase in infant mortality in Belgium, France, and the Netherlands, and a sharp rise in the curve for deaths from tuberculosis in nearly all Occupied countries, could be traced in a large measure to under-nourishment. From the evidence secured, it was possible to deduce certain guiding principles for practical application in the post-war period when large quantities of foodstuffs must be poured by the United Nations into starving Europe.

From the general epidemiological information collected, the virtual certainty of a marked increase in the incidence of contagious diseases was foreseen by the League experts. Smallpox, cholera, and typhus would be likely to spread westward, and malaria to increase its grip upon Southern Europe, Africa, and the Far East. Tentative plans were made at Geneva for reviving the Epidemics Commission which, in 1921-22, succeeded in uniting and associating national efforts and created a chain of quarantine stations, thereby stemming the tide of disease from Eastern Europe. The part to be played by the League's Malaria Commission, which had earned for itself world-wide authority, was also studied.

The activity of the League of Nations with regard to the control of the drug traffic was maintained in its essentials, and Governments, with few exceptions, faithfully fulfilled their obligations under the Drug Conventions. During September, meetings of two League bodies concerned with the international control of narcotics took place in London. The Permanent Central Opium Board, under the presidency of Sir Atul Chatterjee (India), had before it annual reports for the previous year submitted by fifty sovereign States and more than sixty colonial and mandated territories. That so much evidence should be available in war-time was perhaps the most remarkable feature of the meeting. In the light of these reports, the Board was able to consider certain questions of policy and the handling of special problems arising from the circumstances of the war. The Supervisory Body met to examine annual estimates relating to legitimate drug requirements for 1943, sent in by the respective Governments. On this basis the Supervisory Body's annual statement on world requirements of narcotic drugs was drawn up.

Social work (traffic in women and child welfare) was in the main confined to publication of reports and the provision of information required by Governments and private organisations. Such research work as a depleted budget permitted attempted to take account of the completely changed conditions which would prevail after the war, particularly in consequence of the splitting up of families.

International assistance to refugees was still one of the League's responsibilities. **Whilst** its burdens in this respect

had not been increased by the new categories of refugees created by the present war, the legacy of the past had not been completely liquidated. The legal protection of refugees, as well as their emigration, presented the League High Commissioner with ever-increasing difficulties, as a result of the extension of hostilities. However, with invaluable help from the private organisations, much was done to ameliorate the lot of thousands of wretched people assembled in certain areas, interned in camps or scattered in emigration ports. At the same time, it was not considered premature to think of adapting the existing organisation to the needs of the post-war situation. "The work accomplished by the League of Nations or under its auspices should enable the refugee problem to be solved after the second world war in a better way than was possible after the first," wrote the Acting Secretary-General in his report. And again, "It will perhaps not be easy to find another Nansen, but, by preparatory work, it may be possible to save the man or men to whom a similar mission is entrusted from having 'to improvise' everything."

The International Labour Organisation.—None of the bodies connected with the League of Nations displayed more numerous evidences of vitality throughout the year than the International Labour Organisation. Geneva and Montreal remained the chief centres of activity, but Branch Offices in Great Britain, India, the United States of America, and China, as well as correspondents in fifteen other countries, helped to maintain a system of steady co-ordination and liaison linking up all continents. Of especial importance, under present conditions, was the new unit which had gradually been constructed in London. This was able to maintain contact with the Allied Governments in London, to deal with colonial labour problems, and to furnish factual information about all social and industrial conditions in Great Britain which was required by the centre at Montreal. Further, it was an advantage that, in London, it was possible to have contacts with many members of the I.L.O.'s Governing Body as well as with groups of trade unionists from countries occupied by the Axis Powers. Also, a large number of the colonial territories of the world were, in existing circumstances, controlled from London. The London Office, in the best I.L.O. tradition, made the most of its opportunities. Perhaps even more meritorious, however, was the gallant manner in which the Branch Office in China resumed its work at Chungking after its enforced move from Japanese-occupied Shanghai. During the bombing season, which lasted from April to September, work was carried on from a suburban office a few miles out of Chungking. When bombing became more difficult in the autumn, the staff returned to the city office. Regular reports were sent to Montreal, and, at the request of the Chinese Government, the Branch gave its advice and assistance to the Ministry of Social Affairs on the

problems of war-time labour control and the formulation of a labour policy.

Time and again throughout the year statesmen of the United Nations paid high tribute to the value of the work (past, present, and future) of the International Labour Organisation, and the esteem in which it was held by the free peoples led to an impudent attempt on the part of the Nazi "Central Bureau for International Social Reconstruction" in Berlin to borrow its plumes. This Bureau, which employed a staff of 200 to spread propaganda based on the deliberate distortion of economic and industrial intelligence, started to issue a monthly publication entitled the *New International Labour Review*, which in format, type, and method of presenting information was an unblushing imitation of the authoritative *International Labour Review* produced by the International Labour Office. Its real objects, however, were to undermine the I.L.O. and to boost the Nazi New Order.

It was not deemed necessary to hold another International Labour Conference so soon after the successful gathering of thirty-five nations in November of the previous year. The resolutions of that conference, together with the comprehensive programme which had been outlined in the course of the discussions between Governments, employers, and workers of these nations, had sufficed to give the International Labour Office clear directions for its researches and studies during 1942.

Nevertheless, the Emergency Committee, taking the place of the peace-time Governing Body, met in London towards the end of April. Officially welcoming the delegates on behalf of the British Government, Mr. Ernest Bevin, the Minister of Labour, described the I.L.O. as "an organisation destined to play a tremendous part in rebuilding the world of the future." It could contribute effectively to a peace based on social justice and social security. A people's peace must follow a people's war. Mr. Bevin then strongly denounced the short-sighted policy of keeping the organs of international co-operation starved of money. Remarking that the work of the I.L.O. had in the past been handicapped by limited resources, he begged the Governments to realise that using it to the full was one of the best insurances for the preparatory work to enable the nations to transfer from war to peace—a far more difficult task than transference from peace to war. Sir Frederick Leggett, speaking as the British Government delegate, added that the British Government needed no convincing that the I.L.O. must play a vital part in the re-settlement of the world.

To ensure the continuation of the close collaboration already established between the League and the I.L.O., Mr. Alexander Loveday (Director of the League's Economic and Financial Department) came from Princeton to attend the session. Sir

Frederick Leith-Ross (chairman of the Inter-Allied Committee for Post-War Relief) also took part in some of the discussions. **The** chief outcome of the meeting was the decision to set up an International Advisory Committee of eminent authorities to help with the I.ti.O.'s planning.

The Joint Maritime Commission, meeting for the first time during the war, held an important session in London from June 26 to 30. Twelve countries were represented by equal numbers of shipowners and seafarers, and the delegates came from places as far apart as Australia, China, and Sweden. The resolutions, all of which were adopted unanimously, covered a wide field, *e.g.* safety measures at sea, seamen's welfare, practical steps to improve conditions for Chinese, Indian, and other seamen from Asia, Africa, and the East and West Indies ; also, the need for the shipping industry to be represented at the Peace Conference, and the study of an International Maritime Charter.

Finally, it may be added that the aid of the I.L.O. was sought in connexion with the organisation of the Inter-American Conference on Social Security, held at Santiago in September.

Under war conditions, the extensive range of technical activities carried out by the League and the I.L.O. were their own justification. But, in his report, the Acting Secretary-General added the caution that, in the long run, they would not be enough to ensure the success of any International Authority of the future. "The political conception," he said, "must remain supreme. . . . That is to say that the first need of the world is international security." For this reason, he concluded, "if wisdom and guidance and statesmanship cannot also contribute towards an enduring international peace, with a system sufficiently strong to maintain law and sufficiently flexible to assure equity, the rest will remain for ever precarious and at the mercy of another disaster."

CHAPTER II

FRANCE AND ITALY

FRANCE

AT the opening of 1942 the Darlan Ministry found itself faced with a new situation through the entry of the United States into the war against the Axis Powers. It would seem that from that moment Admiral Darlan decided to keep on good terms with America, if possible, and, being now less certain of an Axis victory, to tone down somewhat his collaboration with Germany. Consequently Admiral Leahy obtained from him certain concessions. On February 7 Mr. Sumner Welles announced that an American

protest had been made to Vichy with regard to the use of Tunis for supplying Rommel's troops, and on February 10 President Roosevelt sent a personal letter on the same matter to Marshal Pétain. The French Government made a conciliatory reply on February 24. The Germans, however, renewed their demands, and the supplying of the German troops in Libya via Tunis went on. As a reprisal the United States suspended the despatch of foodstuffs to North Africa from February till April. Matters were then smoothed over and the despatches were resumed.

If the Germans were displeased by Admiral Darlan's anxiety to keep on good terms with the United States, the trial at Riom annoyed them even more. After preliminaries which had dragged on for a year and a half the actual trial at last opened on February 20. General Gamelin, and MM. Daladier, Blum, Guy la Chambre, Robert Jacomet, and Pierre Cot (who was tried *in contumaciam*) were accused of having betrayed their trust and gravely injured the security of the State. The trial went on for more than two months; the accused, especially MM. Daladier and Blum, not content with vigorously defending themselves, turned on their prosecutors and called sharply into question the activities of Marshal Pétain in the last years of the Republic. The Germans had hoped that discussions at the trial would turn on the origins of the war (the responsibility for which, according to them, lay with the democracies); instead, the main question raised was the military unpreparedness of France. They were furious, and persuaded the French Government to suspend the trial indefinitely on April 14, when the accused were once more imprisoned in the chateau of Bourrassel.

A third reason which alienated German support from Admiral Darlan was that he showed himself incapable of checking the resistance of the French patriots against the oppressor. So far from weakening, it increased without pause. In spite of numerous arrests and executions in January and February, the clandestine news sheets multiplied; *Combat*, *Franco-Tireur*, *Liberation*, *l'Humanité*, found thousands of eager readers. Demonstrations of sympathy took place at the burial of English airmen killed in the French skies. The heavy British raid on the Renault works on March 3 served as a pretext to the controlled Press of Paris for sharp attacks on the English, but the French population were quick to grasp the purpose of the raid and they applauded it.

When the Germans in the spring began to prepare their offensive against Russia they desired to have at the head of the Government in France a man who should be entirely in their hands. Darlan had disappointed them, so they turned once more to Laval. In March the servile Press of Paris began to attack the "attentistes" (wait-and-see men) of Vichy, while the German Press declared that "the tergiversations of Vichy could no

longer be tolerated," and summoned the Government to declare its attitude once for all. The Germans communicated their demands to Marshal Petain, who soon yielded. On March 16 an interview took place between Petain and Laval, arranged by de Brinon. On March 26 Laval received Petain and Darlan in his residence at Chateldon. On April 1 Laval and Abetz met at Paris, and this meeting was followed on the next day by a new interview between Petain and Laval. Finally, on April 12 Petain, Darlan, and Laval conferred at Vichy. On the next day Marcel D6at (leader with Doriot of the tiny band of Nazis in Paris) made a speech at Paris in which he declared that " France had been governed for eighteen months by Leahy," and demanded the creation of a more " revolutionary" Government. On April 14 Berlin and Vichy both announced at the same time the return of Laval to the Government, and stated that he would be invested with extraordinary powers. On the 17th Darlan resigned, and the Laval Government was formed on the next day. Laval took the title of Head of the Government, and became also Minister of Foreign Affairs, of Information, and of the Interior. Among his colleagues were M. Cathala, Minister of Finance, the Academician Abel Bonnard, Minister of Public Instruction, and Hubert Lagardelle, Secretary of State for the Colonies, Admiral Platon and MM. de Brinon and B6noist-M6chin became Secretaries of State, and M. Paul Marion took charge of Information and Propaganda. Admiral Darlan ceased to be a member of the Government, but he remained supreme head of all the armed forces and successor designate to Marshal P6tain.

Laval's accession to power immediately provoked a number of reactions. On April 17 Admiral Leahy was recalled to Washington. A wave of sabotage spread through the country, resulting among other things in the derailing of a troop train at Caen on April 16, when 44 German soldiers lost their lives. There was a great increase in executions of hostages, as also in arrests. On April 20 Doriot narrowly escaped assassination at Rennes. At this juncture Field-Marshal Rundstedt, who had been appointed Chief Inspector of the Western Fortifications, arrived in Paris, and Laval in a broadcast address made a violent attack on England, dangled the Bolshevik bogey, and declared that his rise to power signified close collaboration with Germany. This was on April 20 ; on the 19th Marshal Petain had already proclaimed on the wireless that he was in accord with M. Laval.

Laval lost no time in showing what the object of the Germans was in choosing him as Prime Minister. It was to persuade the French workers to go and work in the factories of the Third Reich. From May onwards an intensive propaganda was conducted among the workers for this purpose. In June there was founded a " Comity d'Information Ouvrifcre et Sociale " (C.I.O.S.),

with M. Gabriel Lafaye as president, nominally to study labour problems, but actually to serve as a recruiting office for the German factories. In June there was further organised in Berlin a "Service for French Civilian Workers," with branches in all the large German towns, which looked after all affairs of the French workers in Germany. At the same time German labour exchanges were opened in France ; in the middle of June there were twenty-six of them in the district of Paris.

It was on June 26, in a broadcast speech in which incidentally he stated that he desired the victory of Germany, that M. Laval for the first time mentioned the exchange of workers for prisoners of war (Relive). He launched an appeal to French specialists to volunteer for work in Germany, promising that Germany would liberate French prisoners in exchange. He gave it to be understood that there would be one prisoner for one specialist; not till later did he admit that there would be only one prisoner for three specialists. He was expected to procure altogether 150,000 skilled workers for Germany. Throughout the summer a constant propaganda was carried on both by Germans and by Government circles in favour of this Releve. The great bulk of the workers refused to take part in it. After several months a few thousand volunteers had with difficulty been scraped together. The rebuff was so decisive that Laval on September 4 issued an edict instituting compulsory labour for all women between 21 and 35, and for all men between 18 and 50. On September 19 he had plenary powers conferred upon himself and immediately used them for transporting forcibly the recalcitrant workers to the German factories. By the end of the year the principle of the exchange had been abandoned. Everywhere thousands and thousands of workers were designated officially as having to leave for Germany. If they resisted they were sent by force. In compensation the Germans freed some thousands of prisoners, selected for the most part from among the ageing and sick.

Sensible of his great unpopularity, Laval attempted to consolidate his power by coming to an understanding with the chief Parisian Nazis, and he obtained the support of Marcel Deat, leader of the R.N.P. (*Rassemblement National Populaire*). He also sought to secure the loyalty of the Legion by appointing as its head one of his own creatures, Raymond Lachal. The "Legion of Volunteers against Bolshevism" which had been founded in 1941 through the impulse of Jaques Doriot and Eugene Deloncle, former head of the Cagoulards, was in July, 1942, absorbed by a larger organisation, the "Legion Tricolore," which was intended to furnish French volunteers for the German Armies. This body was officially recognised and received its blessing at a grand ceremony at Paris on August 28, at which Admiral Darlan and MM. de Brinon and Abetz were present. On September 26 one of the principal members of the Government, M. Benoist-Mechin,

was dismissed, apparently for having intrigued against Laval. In spite of all his efforts Laval's position remained very insecure, and he was kept in power only by the support of the Germans.

Laval removed the last trace of the Republican regime by suppressing the bureaux of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate on August 26. The Presidents of both Assemblies, MM. Herriot and Jeanneney, wrote public letters of protest. On account of this courageous attitude M. Herriot was on October 2 interned in his residence at Lyons. On August 28 the electoral system of the Conseils Generaux was abolished by decree.

Laval did nothing to stop the Germanisation of Alsace-Lorraine. On August 23 the Germans issued a decree conferring German citizenship on Alsace-Lorrainers who were serving in the German Army or the S.S., or were recognised as Germans "worthy of confidence." On September 20 this favour was extended to all Alsace-Lorrainers who had been decorated or severely wounded in the last war, and also to the widows and children of those who had been killed in the war. Compulsory military service in the German Army was introduced in Alsace on August 26, and in Lorraine on September 3, for certain classes. Biirckel, the head of the civil administration in Lorraine, made strenuous efforts to Germanise the territory. Names of French origin were suppressed and replaced by German names, the use of French was forbidden, and so forth. The Alsatians and Lorrainers resisted these attempts at Germanisation passionately and almost unanimously. Several escaped into the Vichy zone, and a number of young people were killed in trying to evade military service.

In the matter of anti-Semitism Laval showed himself the faithful follower of the Germans and he exerted himself to extend to the Unoccupied zone the procedures and measures already in force in the Occupied. On June 7 the Germans decreed in the Occupied zone the compulsory wearing by all Jews over six years of age of a yellow star on the left shoulder of their clothes with the word "Jew" in black letters. Between July 14 and 17 in Occupied France from 15,000 to 18,000 Jews, some foreigners, the others naturalised, along with certain non-Jewish political refugees, were arrested and thrown into concentration camps, to be deported subsequently to Silesia or Poland. This step was carried out with extraordinary brutality. Families were separated, the men being taken to the concentration camp of Compiègne, the women to that of Drancy, and the children to the Vélodrome d'Hiver. There were hundreds of suicides. In the Unoccupied zone the Government on August 3 carried out similar measures. Men, women, and children were separated and sent to Dijon, then from there to Germany. Numerous protests were made against this policy, especially by the Catholic clergy. The Bishops condemned from the pulpit the action of the Government. Cardinal Gerlier, Archbishop of Lyons, refused to authorise

believers to give up the Jewish children of whom they were taking care ; eight Jesuits were arrested for having refused to give up some hundreds of children. A joint protest was made by all the Cardinals and Archbishops of the Occupied zone. Pastor Boegner, President of the Protestant Federation of France, also addressed a protest to Laval, who, however, braved even the remonstrances of the Papal Nuncio, Monseigneur Valerio Valeri. He appointed as General Commissioner for Jewish Affairs M. Darquier de Pellepoix, founder of the anti-Semitic weekly, *La France Enchaînée*. All Jewish questions were under the supervision of the President of the Council.

During this time the Government and the Germans had to face a continually growing hostility. Laval's rise to power had the effect of ranging completely against collaboration the population of the free zone of which a part had up to then remained faithful to the person of Marshal Petain. The prestige of the Marshal suffered a grave decline. The Vichy Government, which had never had on its side more than a tiny fraction of the population of the Occupied zone, was now followed only by a feeble minority of that of the free zone. Acts of sabotage, arrests, and executions became more frequent, opposition groups developed and formed connexions with one another, and one after another gave their adhesion to General de Gaulle. On April 21 General Giraud, after escaping from the fortress of Koenigstein, entered Swiss territory. On May 4 the Laval Government announced that he was in the Unoccupied zone. The Germans pressed Laval to give him up, but he was not able to do so.

Executions were very numerous during the spring and summer. The victims were mostly innocent hostages, and French savants belonging to the Institute of Anthropology (*Le Musée de l'Homme*) were also executed. This did not deter the population, on the signal being given by the spokesman of Free France, from holding monster demonstrations on the first of May: 50,000 people marched in procession at Lyons, 30,000 at Marseilles, and thousands of others in other cities. On July 14 the Government issued a decree forbidding public manifestations. This did not prevent resistance from being carried on under every form, and it received a strong impulse from the fiasco of the "Relève."

The landing of the Allies in North Africa caused a crisis at Vichy. Darlan, along with all the high officials of Algiers and Morocco, went over to the American camp. The Vichy Government took the opposite line : not only Laval but also Petain ordered resistance against the Allies in Africa and denounced the action of Darlan. This did not stop the Germans, who feared an Allied landing on the French coast of the Mediterranean, from proceeding to the total occupation of France, which they carried out on November 11. The port of Toulon, where a large part of the French Fleet was anchored, was, however, left as a free enclave.

General Delattre de Tassigny, commandant of the military region of Montpellier, attempted a rising and called on his men to follow him, but he was arrested and condemned to ten years* imprisonment. On November 18 Laval obtained a fresh accession of power ; henceforth he was authorised to make laws and decrees by his mere signature. He re-formed his Ministry in order to eliminate all the partisans of Darlan. On November 19 Marshal Petain in a wireless address to the African Army advised the soldiers to disobey their leaders and to resist. On the next day Laval on the wireless once more proclaimed his belief in a German victory. In the meanwhile the Germans, assisted by the Vichy police, were establishing a reign of terror in the ex-free zone. General Weygand was arrested and deported to Germany; eminent Republicans like MM. Herriot, Jouhaux, and de Tesson met the same fate, and even Petainists of the first period, like the tennis champion Jean Borotra and General Doyen, were also carried off to imprisonment.

On November 23 M. Boisson, Governor-General of Western Africa, also deserted Vichy and rallied to Admiral Darlan. In face of the almost unanimous hostility with which they were surrounded, the Germans decided on a drastic stroke ; on November 27 they occupied the enclave of Toulon. They were not able, however, to prevent the sailors from scuttling their vessels, and almost the whole of the Fleet was destroyed. On the same day the Germans proclaimed the dissolution of the French Army which had been left by the Armistice. The P^{etain}-Laval Government was reduced thenceforth to a more complete state of vassalage than ever, without any counters for bargaining with the Germans—without either Fleet, Empire or Army.

In December the German terrorism was accentuated. New arrests were made, including such staunch Conservatives as MM. Louis Marin and Champetier de Ribes. The bodies carrying on an underground resistance were hunted down on all sides, and on one day at Lyons 800 Gaullistes were imprisoned. The one newspaper which had shown a faint spirit of independence—the *Figaro*—was suppressed. During this time Marshal von Rundstedt had established his headquarters at Montpellier, and the work of fortifying the Mediterranean coast was actively prosecuted. Petain, after some wavering, accepted the new situation in a letter to Hitler published on December 13. On Hitler's invitation Laval had conversations with him and with Count Ciano on December 19. He was stated to have been treated by the Chancellor with the utmost brutality, and he failed to obtain any concessions.

After the Allied landing in North Africa on November 8 a new regime was instituted in Algeria and French Morocco, and then in Western Africa. General Giraud, whom the American Commander had at first selected as head of the Government, gave

way to Admiral Darlan. Posing as the faithful interpreter of the real desires of Marshal Pétain, Darlan rallied round himself the Governors-General: Chatel from Algiers, Nogues from Morocco, and then Boisson from Western Africa. On December 1 he assumed the powers of Head of the State in Northern and Western Africa. He established an Imperial Council at Algiers which included Generals Giraud, Nogues, and Bergeret, and MM. Boisson and Chatel. The use made by the Allies of Admiral Darlan and his collaborators was violently criticised not only by Fighting France but also by a large part of public opinion in the Allied countries. To meet these criticisms Darlan made certain declarations in which he seemed to foreshadow the gradual abandonment of the Nazi-inspired regime which prevailed in Northern Africa. On December 24 he was assassinated by a young man named Bonnier de la Chapelle, who was executed two days later. The Imperial Council designated General Giraud as successor to the deceased Admiral, while General Juin became Commander-in-Chief of the French troops in North Africa. On December 23 twelve persons, nearly all of whom had given military assistance to the Allies, were arrested in Algiers—an event which showed the extreme confusion of the political situation in North Africa at the end of the year.

Throughout 1942 the Fighting French movement continually grew in importance and extent. General de Gaulle became even more than before the symbol of the spirit of resistance in the eyes of all Frenchmen. So clear did this become that the United States recognised the sovereignty of Free France over the French Possessions in Oceania and New Caledonia, then over French Equatorial Africa, and decided to send a Consul-General to Brazzaville. Some time later it appointed to the Fighting French headquarters in London two military attaches—Admiral Starke and Brigadier-General Bolte—who were to consult with the National French Committee on all military questions. This was equivalent to a partial recognition. After the British occupation of Madagascar the direction of affairs in the island was entrusted to General Legentilhomme, who became High Commissioner on November 10.

Free French forces, under Generals Larminat and Koenig, distinguished themselves in the fighting in North Africa, at Bir Hakeim in June and later at El Alamein. The "Normandie" air squadron took part in the fighting in Russia, and French airmen also joined with the British in the air battles in the West and in Africa, while the Free French merchant marine played an important part in conveying supplies.

In France the underground movements joined up with General de Gaulle, and the instructions of Fighting France, especially for the celebrations of May 1 and July 14, were observed by the great majority of the population. In June a joint declaration was

made by General de Gaulle and the underground movements defining the programme of French patriots. It was this which decided the General to change the name of his movement on July 14 to *La France Combattante* ("Fighting France"). This was meant to show that it was not only the Gaullists who, outside the country, were struggling against the invader, but that there was an immense army of resisters in the mother country also. The link between the headquarters in London and the home country became closer still when one of the leaders of one of the biggest underground organisations, M. André Philip, arrived in England and became National Commissioner for the Interior. Other representative opponents of the oppressor in France, like MM. Brossolette and Vallin, the Deputies Felix Gouin, Pierre Bloch, and Mendes-France, General d'Astier de la Vigerie, and several others arrived in London in order to place themselves at the disposal of General de Gaulle.

Towards the end of the year the Free French Empire secured the adhesion of Jibouti and the island of Reunion. This meant that, with the exception of the North and West Africa block, of Indo-China, the Antilles and Guiana, the whole of the French colonial empire was united under the flag of Fighting France.

ITALY

While still in name an equal partner of Germany, Italy in 1942 came to occupy more and more the position of a mere satellite of that country. Both her relations with other countries and her part in the war were dictated from Berlin; Hitler's word was law to Mussolini no less than to the rulers of Hungary and Rumania. Even in North Africa, where she was fighting for her own possessions, it was the German Command which directed operations over the head of her own generals; and she was forced to send large contingents to Russia without having any say in the conduct of the campaign there. Only in the Balkans could she make some show of being on an equal footing with her more powerful partner. Her production also was placed at the service of the German war machine without much regard for the needs or requirements of her own people.

On January 27 Goering paid a week's visit to Italy, in the course of which he had interviews with the King and the Duce, and spent three days in Sicily "visiting the German troops there and assuring himself of their preparedness and their fighting spirit." The object of his visit was not stated, but it was generally supposed that he discussed, among other things, the question of providing Italian troops for the Eastern Front; certainly it was stated in Germany in March that the High Command had **demanded** 250,000 soldiers from Italy for this purpose. In March

Dr. Clodius visited Rome, and on the 14th of that month Agreements were signed for Italo-German economic and financial collaboration till the end of 1942. Germany was to increase her supply of exports to Italy of coal, iron, and steel, while Italy was to supply to Germany textiles, food, and some metals. It was also agreed that questions of the balance of payment should not be allowed to stand in the way of furnishing vital supplies. In the official report of the Agreements no mention was made of supplying Italian workmen for Germany ; but it was reported in Germany about this time that 270,000 more were expected.

The course taken by the war in 1942 was not calculated to give any great satisfaction to Italy. The Fleet did, it is true, succeed in convoying to Africa large bodies of German and Italian troops with their equipment, which enabled Rommel to drive the British back to Gazala in the spring and to inflict a crushing defeat on the British Eighth Army in the summer, but only at the cost of heavy losses from British submarines and aircraft. It was believed in British quarters that this success itself was largely due to the use by the Italian Fleet of Tunisian waters, but this was indignantly denied by Gayda, who asserted that all Italian convoys went straight from Italian bases to ports in Libya. The Italian Admiralty put forth fantastic claims of losses inflicted on British convoys to Malta on February 15-17, and again on March 22, but in fact nearly every British convoy to Malta during the year reached its destination with comparatively little loss, while the Italians who tried to intercept them often suffered severely. Many destructive British air raids were also made on Sicily and Southern Italy.

The British reverses in North Africa at the beginning of the year caused much jubilation in Italy, but as soon as the military position there had been stabilised the morale of the public sank very low in consequence of the hardships of the war and the very small gains it had brought to Italy. A certain improvement resulted from the meeting on April 29 and 30 between Hitler and Mussolini at Salzburg, at which Italy was promised German help "in all fraternity," and support in her territorial aspirations. Italian self-esteem was restored to some extent by the prominent part taken by the Ariete Division in the campaign in Libya which followed, and the defeat of the British Eighth Army revived Mussolini's hopes of recovering his African Empire. At the end of June he went to Africa in order to see that Italy obtained her share of the fruits of the victory which was confidently expected, but after staying a month he returned home empty-handed. Brazil's entry into the war in July caused great bitterness among the Fascists in Italy. In the battle of El Alamein in November the Italians were abandoned by their German allies, and surrendered to the British in large numbers. Official propaganda after this assumed a much more sombre and pessimistic tone, but it

continued to insist on adherence to the Axis as being absolutely essential for Italy. Replying to Mr. Churchill's peace appeal to the Italian people on November 29, Mussolini in an address to the Fascist and Legislative Chambers on December 2, pictured Britain and America as the implacable enemies of Italy; and on December 16 a new Agreement was made with Germany "for intensifying collaboration in the field of war production."

If for the Fascist Government Italy was merely a satellite of Germany, for the mass of the people it was no better than an occupied territory. The hardships caused by the British blockade were aggravated by the exactions of the Germans, who drained the country of much sorely needed skilled labour and food, while keeping Italy inadequately supplied with the coal needed for her industries. In both respects the situation was critical at the beginning of the year, and various measures were taken to deal with it. At the end of January a Co-ordinating Committee for Supplies Distribution and Prices was set up with the Duce as President, to control supplies and distribution of industrial and agricultural products, and the Ministry of Corporations was empowered to fix prices of other commodities as well as food, and of distribution services. In February a strict watch was kept over farmers to see that they delivered their quotas of wheat and other products to the State Pools, and a violent campaign was carried on against hoarding, speculation, and black-market dealings. These efforts brought little improvement, and on March 25 the Supplies Committee decreed a cut of 25 per cent, in the bread ration, bringing it down to 150 grs., or about 5 oz. a day, one of the lowest bread rations in Europe. To meet the labour shortage a decree was issued on February 25 ordering the civil mobilisation of all men between 18 and 25, and steps were taken to control internal migration not only from district to district, but from one class of work to another. In June registration was extended to all males from 14 to 70, and all females from 14 to 60.

At the end of May arrangements were made to grant special leave to soldiers to help in the harvest, and industrial firms allowed their employees twenty days* vacation to do agricultural work. The farmers, however, were greatly discontented at a decree issued on May 21 that the price of wheat for 1942 should remain the same as it had been for 1941, though costs of production had risen greatly in the interval. The supply of early vegetables and fruit in May and June did little to alleviate the distress as it was mostly sent to Germany, but the wheat harvest was somewhat better than in the previous year. The peasants, however, showed great reluctance to bring the grain to the Pools; in October a riot was caused in Apulia by endeavours to enforce the grain deliveries, and by the end of that month less than half the harvest had been surrendered. Meanwhile "black markets" continued

to flourish, in spite of the introduction in June of sterner measures for dealing with offenders, including the imposition in extreme cases of the death penalty.

Thus towards the end of 1942 the Italian people had to look forward to a winter even harder than the preceding one. To crown its miseries, a number of very heavy air raids were made by the British during November and December on the principal industrial centres in the North, notably Genoa, Milan, and Turin, in which immense damage was done to industrial plants, especially in Turin, and thousands of people were rendered homeless. Such was the terror caused by the raids that a mass evacuation commenced, which caused housing complications in other districts.

Outside of Government circles feeling remained very bitter against the Germans, who had 250,000 troops in the country, besides official representatives and members of the Gestapo. Their influence was paramount, and it was reported in June that Marshal Badoglio had sent a letter to the King complaining of the "complete subordination" of the Italian General Staff to the German Command, and stating that such a position was "undignified" and "dangerous for the morale of the Italian Army." For the Fascist regime, however, German support was indispensable, as it was also effective. The Fascist Party itself was honeycombed both with corruption and with internal dissension, nor was it free from disloyalty. A meeting of the National Directorate of the party, presided over by the Duce, on May 26 issued a statement describing the party as overgrown, and urging individual federations "to make a strict selection among their members so that they can banish all who, for any reason whatever, no longer deserve the honour of fighting under the banner of the Littorio." The hint was acted on, and in August it was announced that 66,066 persons had been eliminated from the party ranks, and that the purge was still going on. On the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of Fascist rule on October 28, some new social measures were introduced, and the King released some 40,000 prisoners of various types besides amnestying about 1,300 political "exiles."

In a speech delivered on March 26 Mussolini declared himself greatly concerned over the danger of inflation, one result of which was a rush to buy real property, and a month later he announced that measures would be taken to control any further inflationary tendencies. On June 6 the Council of Ministers approved measures submitted by the Finance Minister, Count Thaon di Revel, for the reduction of expenditure. They included a reduction of war grants to soldiers' dependents, a revision of war contracts, and a decrease in the Government subsidies for stabilising prices. At the same time grants to the Italian railways for 1943 were suspended, and the allocation for Public Works was reduced from 4 to 2½ milliards of lire. At the beginning of September a new War Loan—the fifth—was issued, bearing interest at 4 per cent.

Besides sending large forces to North Africa and Russia, Italy was compelled to keep a considerable number of troops throughout 1942 in the Balkans, in order to police the occupied parts and to combat the Yugoslav irregulars. The Italian Press made light of these operations, describing them merely as "mopping-up" activities; but the monthly lists of casualties in this campaign were till late in the year little lower than those of the African Front and higher than those of the Russian Front. The campaign was conducted by the Italians with great ruthlessness, especially after a flying visit by Mussolini to Gorizia in July. The Duke of Spoleto, who had been nominated King of Croatia in May, 1941 (and who on the death of his brother in March had become Duke of Aosta), still made no endeavour to assume his crown. In Greece relations between the Italians and Germans were said to be worse than anywhere else.

After a period of quiescence the irredentist campaign against France was reopened by the Press in the spring, and was continued through the summer. When the Germans occupied Southern France in November, Italian troops took possession of Nice and Corsica. In his speech on December 2 Mussolini boasted that it was he who instigated the occupation.

On March 27 a Minister Plenipotentiary was appointed by Japan to the Vatican, while the Apostolic Delegate in Tokio received full diplomatic privileges. This change was made chiefly for the benefit of the large number of Catholics who had come under Japanese rule in the Philippine Islands.

CHAPTER III

GERMANY

AT the beginning of 1942 Germany had not yet recovered from the excitement caused by the military reverses in Russia. For the first time the Army of the Third Reich had retreated, the "final victory" over the Russians, announced in October, 1941, was seen to be but another propaganda lie. The assumption by Hitler of the office of Commander-in-Chief of the Army (in addition to his Supreme Command of the Land Forces) indicated that all was not well with the military leadership. Nevertheless the spell of Hitler (which had caught the majority of the German people) brightened the dull outlook at the end of 1941 and restored the shaken confidence in the conduct of the war. It has yet to be learned whether the success of re-establishing the German front was due to Hitler or to the General Staff; but whoever may take the credit, the work was carried out, and from the beginning of 1942 to the middle of May the Eastern Front remained for the most part stationary.

As early as December, 1941, a German Spring offensive in Russia was announced, and by the beginning of 1942 preparations for it were in progress. The Russians, however, took the initiative (May 13) and gained ground in the Kharkov region. Though this ground was lost after the heavy German counter-attack which started on June 10, it served its purpose well, since the Russian offensive delayed the main German onslaught. This was launched on June 28 with the two-fold purpose of cutting off the Russian armies from their oil supply centres, and of depriving the Soviet Union of more coal and corn districts.

The German strategy in the Russian campaign also had wider implications. It was linked with the North African theatre of war, with the political undermining of the Near and Middle East, and with the German activities in French North Africa and Morocco. Though the German drive was primarily directed towards the lower Volga, its aim was to cut off the Russian forces in the Caucasus and to overpower them easily at a later stage. Then the road would be open towards the Mosul oilfields. Although any German plans in the Middle East had been frustrated in 1941 by the Allied occupation of Iran and Iraq, the hope for the conquest of the lands between the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf was still cherished. This strategic idea, supported by German diplomatic activities in Turkey and by propaganda in the Arab countries, formed part of a wider plan which included the North African theatre of war. The German attack therefore was directed against the lower Volga, aiming at the destruction of the Russian armies between Kursk (to the North of Kharkov) and the Sea of Azov. Within a few days the Germans succeeded in penetrating the Russian lines on a wide front south of Kursk. At the same time they redoubled their efforts in their attack on Sebastopol (besieged since the end of 1941) and on July 1 took this historic and redoubtable stronghold. The destruction of the Russian armies, however, which was the supreme aim of the German Command and which had been announced prematurely in boastful speeches in October, 1941, could again not be achieved since the Russian armies were skilfully withdrawn, and although much material was lost, the forces were saved from destruction. This proved to be decisive for the campaign. The Russian armies held the Don line north of the bend and recaptured the important bridge-head of Voronezh (July 20). South of the Don bend the Germans swept on—to the East towards the Volga, and to the South towards the Caucasus, after their re-entry into Rostov which they had abandoned in the beginning of December, 1941. This may well prove to have been the cardinal blunder of Hitler's strategy and was obviously not in his plan at the beginning of the offensive. Lured into the Caucasus by the lust for, and want of oil, as well as by the slight resistance purposely offered by the Russians, the Germans scattered their forces and took without

any great efforts the Black Sea coast down to Novorosisk, the Kuban District and the Western Caucasus District, including the Maikop oilfields. As soon as the Russians decided to stabilise the front, the advance of the German forces was checked, and the next important objective north of the Caucasus mountains, the oilfield of Grozny, was not reached.

On the surface the offensive appeared to be a tremendous success for the Germans, and victory communiques were announced to the German people with drums and trumpets in the pompous style of 1941. The Ukraine had fallen into their hands and it seemed difficult to conceive of a dyke on which their rolling tide would break. Stalingrad, however, proved to be this dyke and the Volga was not crossed by the invaders. The battle of Stalingrad will be recorded as a turning-point in history. For weeks on end attacks were made against the city on a tremendous scale, the *Luftwaffe* participating to the same extent as in the battles of 1940 and 1941, but the resistance of the defenders of the city could not be broken. In September Hitler boasted: "Stalingrad will fall—you can be sure of that." This promise, like so many others from the same source, remained unfulfilled. Instead, on November 19, a Russian counter-offensive was commenced from the north and also from the south of Stalingrad. When both armies met at the end of November, the 6th German Army, said to number at least 350,000 men, was cut off from the bulk of the German forces and so completely surrounded that its fate was sealed.

Two more Russian offensives near Rzhev and Voronezh indicated that the initiative in this theatre of war had passed to the Russians, the more so as German counter-attacks to stem the Russian tide and to set the Stalingrad army free had failed. The Russian advance, beginning at a slow pace, accelerated in speed and at the end of the year the German front from the Caucasus to Voronezh was shaken, and all signs pointed to the approaching Russian thrust against Rostov and Charkov.

Early in 1942 the British 8th Army was advancing for the second time after a beaten enemy westward through Cyrenaica. By the middle of the month, Rommel, the German C.-in-C. in North Africa, had retreated as far as El Agheila near the Tripolitanian border. Once again Hitler's basic strategy against Britain—the pincer movement towards Egypt—was endangered. Rommel was therefore reinforced by sea and air, and at the end of the month he commenced a counter-offensive. He succeeded in driving back the British forces to a line running south of Gazala in the East of Cyrenaica, where the German push was brought to a halt. After that the North African theatre of war was stalemate for four months. On May 26 Rommel took up the offensive again, which in spite of strong and heroic resistance proved successful to a degree not yet experienced in North Africa.

Even Tobruk, the bulwark in the 1941 campaign, fell and the German forces swept over the border of Egypt. Not until they reached El Alamein, 60 miles from Alexandria, could the British forces make a stand, but this proved to be a definite barrier to the German onslaught. The German attacks were repeated on August 31. After some initial local successes the Germans did not pursue their attack and the road was cleared for the British offensive which, after most careful preparation, was launched on October 23. After ten days the German front was completely pierced and the pursuit brought the British forces within a month after the opening of the offensive back to El Agheila, and eventually to Sirte, in Tripolitania.

The North African theatre of war formed part of that wide plan of German strategy, military as well as political, which was connected with the German aims in Russia. This field of operations stretched from the Atlantic coast of Morocco through French North Africa to the Arab countries, where it was linked to the Russian theatre of war, and it may be called the Casablanca-Mosul line. The main ideas underlying the German exertions were, in the East, to cut the Egyptian line of communication, so vital for the British Empire, to gain control of the near eastern oilfields and to reach the Persian Gulf in order possibly to join up with Japanese forces; and in the West, to obtain mastery over the Western Mediterranean, to use the North African Atlantic coast line as a U-boat base in order to destroy shipping between the British Isles and the Middle East and India as well as between South America and the British Isles. This conception of a strategy aiming at world domination seemed to make headway when at the beginning of July the German forces pierced their way to the Volga and Rommel hammered at the gates of Egypt. The German scheme received the first decisive blow when the British 8th Army swept Rommel's forces back at an extraordinary speed; the second when the German 6th Army was cut off in Stalingrad; and the third when the Allied Armies of Britain and the United States landed in Algeria and French Morocco on November 8. Owing to the resistance of the Germans and Italians in Tunisia, an Axis stronghold was maintained on African soil, and the powerful reinforcements brought over by sea and air indicated the importance which the German High Command attached to this last bridgehead on the Mediterranean coast.

Germany's sea warfare in 1942 indicated that the contest between the advocates of battleship and U-boat construction had been decided in favour of the latter. The German battleships and cruisers—although three cruisers, recalled from their hiding-place in Brest, succeeded in a daring escape through the British Channel—were mainly kept in harbour. The full weight of German sea warfare was carried out by submarines which were constantly being reinforced. They interfered to a considerable

extent with Allied supply lines in the Atlantic, in the North and Arctic Seas, and in the Mediterranean. At the end of 1942 the submarine was in fact the only offensive naval weapon left to Germany. High hopes were held out by Nazi propaganda of the results of the submarine war, similar to those which had previously been entertained of the certain success of the land and air forces.

It was particularly against the U-boat factories that the British air attacks on Germany were directed. The main targets were in the Rhine-Ruhr district, where the big armament works of Cologne, Dusseldorf, Duisburg, and Essen were subject to heavy and repeated attacks. The coastal towns of Emden, Wilhelmshaven, Bremen, and Hamburg with their large docks were likewise successfully raided, not once but many times. Furthermore, Augsburg, Lubeck, Rostock, Mainz, and Saarbrücken were on the list of the R.A.F. An indication of the effect of the British raid on Rostock was the announcement that the town had been closed to visitors ; calls, it was said, were useless anyway, as the population of Rostock had been evacuated. In fact a panic mass flight took place, and the same happened later in Cologne.

The German air warfare, apart from the land fronts, was concentrated on attacks on the sea routes. The attack on the British Isles, which had slackened considerably some weeks before the attack on Russia, was not resumed on a large scale in 1942. For the purpose of home propaganda, however, Germany retaliated for the heavy attacks on industrial towns in a way characteristic of Nazi mentality. Ruthless air attacks were directed against small towns without any military or industrial value, important because of their historic and artistic monuments which are revered all over the civilised world. This savagery made it obvious that the *Luftwaffe* was not strong enough to engage in major operations on more than one front, and it was hoped that the limited raids would be a source of comfort to Germans terrified by the visitations of the R.A.F.

The Anti-Comintern Conference held in Berlin in November, 1941, the high spot of the new order, was hailed by the Nazis as a great achievement of German foreign policy. At the end of 1942 the new order had little to show, despite the foundation of a European Postal Union and a European Youth Union, confined to the Axis and their satellite states. It is significant that at the European Youth Congress in Vienna at which the Youth Union was established, the alphabet of new virtues for youth was described as follows : A for Arrogance, B for Brutality, C for Cynicism, etc.

When at the beginning of October Goebbels admitted that the new order had failed to be understood by the European nations, it was like an announcement of bankruptcy. A few weeks later

a semi-official *ballon d'essai* hinted at a European Charter to be proclaimed by the Nazis, probably meant to be a counter-stroke to the Atlantic Charter. This met with no response, and German foreign policy was again faced by the old problems of France and South-Eastern Europe.

Much as the Nazis (like the former German Nationalists) hated and despised France, the more realistic wing was aware of the fact that an effective European order would not be possible without the genuine and voluntary co-operation of Germany's western neighbour. This opinion, held chiefly by Germany's representative in Paris, Herr Abetz, was contested by the S.S. group and by Army leaders like the military Commander of Paris, General von Stuelpnagel. As Hitler's predominating idea of foreign policy was the complete subjugation of France, German policy, even during the honeymoon of collaboration in 1940, was not inspired by a sincere attempt at reconciliation. That the French people did not respond to the hypocritical flatteries and promises made by Nazi propagandists of both French and German nationality was only to be expected after the humiliations imposed on France by and after the Armistice. Collaboration was a one-sided affair, in which to take was Germany's role and to give the role of France. For some time, however, there seemed to be a faint possibility that in the long run the sponsors of the more conciliatory policy might secure a partnership for France in Hitler's new order, even at the price of more French sacrifices. Early in 1942 some indications pointed to an increasing influence of this group, particularly when Marshal Petain, soon after a meeting with Goering, in a New Year's broadcast, spoke more frankly about French conditions. Shortly afterwards, however, a violent press and radio campaign was launched against Vichy and Petain by the Paris hirelings of the Nazis and by the Nazis themselves. The proceedings of the Riom trial caused angry criticism in Germany. The prevailing German attitude towards France was revealed when early in April the "Leader of Germans abroad," Herr Bohle, introduced the "Leader of Germans in France" at a celebration which took place in the Palais Bourbon. The mockery of the defeated could not have been more pointed. About a fortnight later under heavy German pressure, which had been preceded by intrigues in true seventeenth-century style, the Vichy administration of Admiral Darlan resigned and was replaced by Laval, whose record and outlook made him the most suitable German tool for collaboration at any price.

France became a supply shop of men and materials for the benefit of the Nazi war machine, and hardly any further attempts were made to hide this fact by honeyed phrases. After the German reprisals for the Allied occupation of French North Africa and the scuttling of the French Fleet at Toulon, France's position became little different from that of Norway or Greece. This

meant virtually the end of collaboration and the destruction of an important pillar in the facade of the new order.

A mere facade it was indeed. The idea of the new order did not fit in with the true Nazi aim of political hegemony, the heritage of the Pan-German League left particularly by Pan-Germans in the Austrian Empire before 1914. Their plan was that Germany, after breaking up the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, should carve out in the Danube basin several satellite states dependent on Germany. Hitler has carried out this programme, but instead of the "natural and fair order" which he promised in 1941 he has merely provoked new feuds between the South European countries in addition to the old ones. In South-Eastern Europe, as in France, Nazi "dynamics" met the wall of geographical, ethnic, and historical statics which barred the way to the new order. This could be concealed for a while, but here, too, in 1942 the facade crumbled and the real state of affairs became apparent.

The working of the new order was also illustrated in Germany's relationship to her Italian ally. Italy is supposed to be on equal footing with Germany, and according to official reports the relationship of the two cannot be surpassed in cordiality. In fact, however, cleavages between the two Allies are only too frequent. A scarcely concealed contest is being waged for the overlordship of the puppet state of Croatia. Italy was played off by Germany against France, and France against Italy, as long as the fiction of collaboration between Germany and Vichy existed. From partnership Italy has stepped down to vassalship; she is controlled and partially administered by Germany. Government offices in Rome are crammed with Germans, particularly Gestapo officials. The influx of German representatives into Italy had reached such dimensions that since March, 1942, a Nazi daily in German is being published in Rome. Northern and Southern Italy are occupied by German troops, and thirteen airfields between Milan and Trieste serve as bases for the *Luftwaffe*.

• In 1942 there was no evidence of the smooth working of the Alliance between Germany and her other ally, Japan. The Japanese took no steps to aid Germany, and the Nazis, in turn, did not make any efforts to support Japan. Nazi propaganda displayed Japanese successes to the utmost effect. There were indications, however, that all is not well between Germany and Japan. Germany seems worried about the Japanese conquest of the Dutch East Indies which had been allocated by the Nazis to be part of the future German Colonial Empire.

In the Occupied countries the resistance of the vast majority of the population grew during 1942, and so did the policy of brute force, undeterred by moral or legal restrictions, applied by the aggressor.

In all parts of Yugoslavia the war was continued indefatigably. In October another part of Slovene territory was formally annexed

by Germany. Twenty per cent, of the population of German-occupied Slovene districts disappeared, either, murdered or deported. The policy of shooting hostages was carried on in Yugoslavia at a frightful rate—but not only in Yugoslavia : the system was applied in 1942 to an increasing extent in all Occupied countries. In Poland mass murders were the order of the day in addition to the shooting of hostages. Great numbers of Germans were sent to Poland as settlers.

In Norway, on February 1, the notorious Quisling was proclaimed Prime Minister. This was meant as a demonstration of the spirit of the new order, but the effect failed. It is not yet known who was the adviser of this further breach of international conventions; but when Quisling paid a visit to Berlin eleven days after his investiture he met with a cold reception, of which he complained to neutral press representatives. The Norwegian nation, in spite of all odds being in favour of the German authorities and their Norwegian mercenaries, who are supposed to amount to 2 per cent, of the population, bluntly refused to accept Quisling's puppet Government. Soon two conflicts developed, the most serious since the beginning of the German occupation. They resulted in the heroic fight of the clergy under the inspiring leadership of Bishop Berggraf, and also of the teachers, and brought frightful hardships upon the defenders of inherited liberties. Quisling's henchmen, representing the scum of the population, competed with the Gestapo in perpetrating acts of cruelty and terror. The co-operation between German and Norwegian Nazis reached its peak in the horrible atrocities in Trondheim in October, when thirty-four murders were committed within four days.

In January a new Government was formed in the Protectorate Bohemia-Moravia, which included Moravec, the most outspoken Czech collaborator with Germany, and also for the first time, a German. This man, Bertsch, an assistant Under-Secretary in the Reich Ministry of Economics and a member of the S.S., obtained the all-important Ministry of Economics and Labour in Prague. During May, 1942, a Constitution which was to inaugurate a pretence of self-government in the Protectorate was prepared under the supervision of the deputy Reich Protector, Gestapo leader Heydrich. But he did not live to see this feat of propaganda accomplished. On May 31 he was shot by Czech patriots and died a few days later. While he was still alive a wave of terror was unleashed surpassing anything even that the tortured Czech people had suffered before. Within a fortnight 306 Czechs, including at least 45 women, were murdered. Victims were mainly taken from the intelligentsia. This conformed with the usual Nazi technique in all Occupied countries of eradicating all possible leaders of resistance. Early in June Nazi barbarism surpassed even its own blood-stained record, when a whole village,

Lidice in Bohemia, was burnt to the ground, the male population shot, the women deported for forced labour and the children taken to Germany for coercive education. Heydrich's successor, the police general Daluge, continued the policy of terror, and executions on a large scale became a daily event in Bohemia and Moravia. Here, too, the resistance was not overcome.

After the bestowal of German citizenship on the Luxemburg nation in August, 1942, a general strike broke out in the Grand Duchy, a most remarkable event, seeing that this was the first strike on a big scale which the Nazis had encountered so far. In addition to severe reprisals whole families of all classes were deported, and this measure was carried out in the most brutal way possible. But these methods did not break the spirit of independence of this nation of 300,000 people.

Neither was the spirit of the population of Alsace and Lorraine broken by the process of "re-germanisation." By the end of 1941 600,000 people had been expelled from Alsace and Lorraine or deported to Poland, and 80,000 people who left for France at the beginning of the war were refused the permit to re-enter. Eighty thousand Germans were settled in Lorraine. According to official announcements at least 100,000 people evacuated from bombed German cities were transferred to Alsace and several thousand families from Bessarabia and Volhynia were also settled there. Without formal annexation Alsace and Lorraine were virtually incorporated into Germany; by August, 1942, the whole code of Nazi law had been introduced into Alsace.

The Nazis claim that Alsace, Lorraine, and Luxemburg are German lands, which have only been misled by historical misfortune, the weakness of the former Germany, and the villainess of foreign countries. Although Denmark cannot be claimed to be German, the country is declared to be Germanic. Denmark was meant to be a show-piece of the new order and was, therefore, treated differently from Norway. The reaction of the Danish people, however, was the same as that of any other Occupied nation. In 1942, perceiving that voluntary co-operation could not be achieved, the Nazis decided to turn the screw tighter. In September, 1942, S.S. leader Werner Best was appointed Reich Commissioner in Copenhagen. Best, a trained lawyer, had previously been head of the legal department of the Reich Police Office; since 1940 he was Gestapo Commissioner in Occupied France, and since August, 1942, deputy Under-Secretary in the Foreign Office. Unimportant as Best's present post may seem, it is of great significance from his specific point of view. For he is a driving force in the struggle for the idea of a Greater Germanic Empire, which is now replacing the conception, already old-fashioned, of the Greater German Empire. According to the theorists, the Greater Germanic Empire should include all countries inhabited by a Germanic population, such as Norway, Denmark,

Holland, Flanders, the Baltic countries, and north-east France. So far Swiss territory has not been mentioned in public, but the repeated threats of Nazi newspapers and speakers against the Helvetic Confederation are significant. The Nazi attitude to Sweden is no different. The Greater Germanic Empire would, of course, be but a method of completely spreading Nazi rule over Europe. Best let the cat out of the bag by publishing a draft Constitution for Nazi Europe.

In the internal history of Germany, the chief feature of the year 1942 was the growth of power of the S.S.,¹ the most ruthless, barbarous, impudent, cruel and revolutionary body among the Nazis, and their acquisition of several more key positions in the Government.

A new branch for their activities was opened to the S.S. by the creation of special "Post Guards" whose purpose in a dictatorship is obvious. The S.S. man, Professor Brandt, was appointed Chief of the military and civil medical services. The S.S. influence on education was widened and the S.S. were given an authoritative voice in adult education. Through Best's appointment to the Foreign Office the S.S. gained a most important stronghold inside the Diplomatic Service. The S.S. organisation leads the ruthless battle against Christianity and the Churches and against all traditional ideas of ethics and of the family.

It is of no consequence that even members of the S.S. disappear, as in the case of Darre, Minister of Agriculture, and in that of Neumann, a Permanent Under-Secretary in Goering's Office. Darre, officially on leave for reasons of health, was replaced by another member of the S.S.—his Permanent Under-Secretary, Backe, who became acting Minister. Neumann was appointed Managing Director of the all-important Potash Syndicate. Two other S.S. men were given key-positions: a hitherto unknown Railway Engineer, Ganzenmuller, was sent as Permanent Under-Secretary to the Ministry of Transport and Sauckel, the Party Leader (*Gauleiter*) and Reich Governor (*Reichsatthalter*) of Thuringia was made Dictator for man-power supply.

In September, 1942, the Chief of the General Staff, Colonel-General Haider, was replaced by Lieut.-General Zeitzler, an S.S. leader. By this change the S.S. gained control of the planning of military warfare and of the Army in general. The last trace of independence of German Generals, whose myth has been thoroughly destroyed by Hitler, has gone.

In August, 1942, the vacancy in the Reich Ministry of Justice caused by the death of Minister Guertner in 1941, was filled by

¹ The S.S. (*Schutzstaffel*), the Black Guards, were originally a protective corps for Hitler and the leading members of the Nazi Party. Gradually they have grown into a class apart in the Nazi community. The S.S. contains the *Waffen S.S.* (armed section), a fully equipped army under the command of the General Staff, but with leaders of their own. Furthermore, the Police, including the *Gestapo* (Secret Police) is incorporated in the S.S. network.

the appointment of Herr Thierack, President of the People's Court, an out-and-out and ruthless S.S. man. His appointment coincided with the resignation of the acting Minister, the Permanent Under-Secretary of State, Herr Schlegelberger, who was succeeded by Herr Rothenberger, President of the Hanseatic Court of Appeal, another S.S. man. The second Under-Secretary, Herr Freisler, whose unbalanced mind has become notorious, took Thierack's previous place. Thus the legislation and administration of justice has been delivered over to the S.S., lock, stock, and barrel. By a special order of Hitler, Thierack was empowered to carry out reforms without any regard to existing law.

Legal reform according to mediaeval German conceptions has for long been a favourite subject of the S.S. Various speeches by Thierack and Rothenberger indicated that not only a thorough purge among judges is under way but also a complete turning upside down of statutory law both in the civil and criminal codes and likewise of Court procedure.

The changes in the Ministry of Justice were connected with a declaration passed by the Reichstag at its only meeting in 1942 on April 26, which made Hitler in the literal sense Lord of life and death of every German. This declaration, which gave Hitler the power (under the cover of protection of war effort) to prosecute, punish, or "wipe out" anybody displeasing to the ruling gangsters, had in view specially the judges. In spite of numerous earlier dismissals and replacements by reliable Nazis, there was still left a residue of legal conscience among judges, and now this was to be liquidated.

Juridical legislation had been infiltrated with Nazi poison long before the recent changes. In 1942 the number and competence of Special Courts was increased. There is no appeal against their sentences which amount often to death, sometimes to penal servitude, and only exceptionally to prison. A neutral estimate of daily executions in Germany placed the number at ten in 1942. Particularly severe was the special Criminal Code introduced for Jews and Poles.

Furthermore, the S.S. defines German social organisation policy. Himmler, head of the S.S. and probably the most powerful man in Nazi Germany, is Reich Commissioner for consolidating the German National consciousness (*Reichskommissar zur Festigung des Deutschen Volkstums*), i.e. he is the central authority for planning and settlement in the annexed and Occupied territories bordering Germany in the East and the West. This task cannot be fulfilled without serious upheavals in the social organisation of the country.

Economic changes during the war, and especially the closing of small factories and shops, have accelerated this process. By the comb-out of retail shopkeepers and artisans very many families of the lower middle class have been proletarianised.

Incidentally, this section of the population has always been the hot-bed of grumblers and defeatists, and their elimination may not have been altogether accidental.

The victims flocked into factories and special labour battalions. Another factor contributing to change the social structure in Germany was the influx of foreign workers. Some of these may be considered and treated by the Nazis as the lowest types of the human race, but they cannot be overlooked. The problems they present are formidable, and serious consequences for Germany may ensue from their presence in the country. According to official publications at the beginning of 1942, 22 per cent, of all those employed were foreigners, and at the end of the year every fourth worker in war production was not a German. In Berlin, for example, the vast majority of waiters are French or Italian, and the employees of the Zoo are entirely French.

The S.S. watches and spies everywhere in Germany. The terror it inspires prevents any organised opposition. Yet it is hardly likely that traditional ideas and their standard-bearers have altogether died out. That applies in particular to the Christian tradition; the violent attacks upon it are met by determined resistance. Some facts seem to point to the revival of regional tendencies; the dismissal of the Nazi Party Leader (*Gauleiter*) and Minister of State, Herr Wagner in Munich in August, the sudden death of Herr Siebert, the Bavarian Prime Minister, in November, and mass arrests carried out in Munich in October may not be unconnected with the revival of Bavarian patriotism. Goebbels and the S.S. weekly, *Das Schwarze Corps*, repeatedly attacked particularism, which hitherto was claimed as having been destroyed in 1933. Similar tendencies may be expected outside Bavaria likewise.

This indication and others can be deduced from Goebbels' regular contributions to the weekly *Das Reich*. The Minister of Popular Enlightenment provided indications of the trend of German morale and revealed the general discontent caused by the turn in the war which marked the year 1942 for Germany, and by the hardships of daily life, the shortage of food (even potatoes were difficult to come by) and the severity of rationing.

In January Goebbels exhorted the Germans to bear the hardships and set-backs of war in order "not to miss the great Chance." He did not once speak of victory; his theme always was an exhortation to hold out. Since the middle of February, Goebbels almost regularly wrote frankly about the problems which were troubling people, such as food, war losses, and the duration of the struggle. Goebbels went so far as to discuss even the war guilt, and, of course, blamed everybody but Germany whose innocence he stoutly defended. It would seem therefore that this problem had been engaging people's thoughts, and questions about it were being openly discussed. British air raids put public morale

to a severe test. According to Goebbels the people grumbled ; they were tired; they were indifferent. The people's nerves were undoubtedly affected by the permanent strain, monotonous food, and psychological tension. This showed itself in the complaints (winter and spring, 1942) about the rude behaviour of people in trains and buses, shops and restaurants. It is significant that at the time when the Russian and Libyan campaigns were being launched, a " politeness campaign " was likewise commenced, ending in a prize competition, and Goebbels himself presented the prizes to the winners with an appropriate speech. On this occasion as on hundreds of others, Goebbels and his brigade of propaganda speakers told the same tale in a thousand varied forms : " See it through and you get a splendid future ; if you don't stick it, you've nothing to expect but destruction by the enemy."

Only on this point has Goebbels been consistent. For the rest the tendencies of his propaganda changed violently. Whereas in times past he was wont to extol Germany's idealistic purposes in this war, in the autumn of 1942 he declared that the war aims were " a well-provided breakfast table " and " a crammed larder " for all. Linked with this theme was another—the campaign against " a small minority " of idle rich which was started in midsummer and was intended apparently as a diversion from hardships and disappointments to the familiar method of inciting the masses against the well-to-do and educated classes.

Equally instructive was his propaganda against Great Britain. When at the beginning of 1942 the British set-backs in Libya and the Far East led the Nazis to believe that the British Government might be inclined towards a compromise peace, anti-British propaganda was toned down. Hitler followed suit in his Reichstag address on April 26, and in July Goebbels was still hopeful. A week later, however, his tune changed. He announced that not Russia but Great Britain was the arch-enemy. The idea then seemed to be that the German successes in Russia might induce the Soviet Government to conclude a separate peace. The propaganda turned full blast against Great Britain in the late summer when the fear of a British attack in the West created obvious apprehension. Towards the end of the year, however, the danger of Russia had grown to such an extent that the well-known Bolshevik bogey had to be brought out and used again, with the consequent new attitude of hints to Great Britain to help Germany defend Western civilisation.

Such was the background of the destruction of the State and of Society which had been going on for ten years. It has often been overlooked that the Nazi state has hardly anything in common with the traditional states of European countries. In fact, it is for the most part a type of social organisation unknown to the Western world since the days when it was overrun by

Goths and Huns. The peculiar characteristic of this state is the division of power between the State proper and the Nazi Party, which may be regarded as a state beside the State. Indeed, on the last day of the year, 1942, a decree signed by Hitler proclaimed that the rights of the party are not derived from the State, but develop out of their own roots.

The typical representative of this new form of the State is the S.S. Unburdened by legal and moral considerations, the S.S. carries out the "will of the Fuehrer." Only in years to come will it be apparent how much is the "will of the Fuehrer" and how much the will of the S.S. itself. It was sometimes assumed outside Germany that there was a more civilised group within the Nazi Party. If ever there was such a group, it has meekly bowed to the S.S. spirit and practice. So have the professional Army leaders. If proof of this were necessary it may be found in the shackling of British prisoners of war (October 8), a piece of barbarism intended to impress both at home and abroad.

Nor does the S.S. terror leave untouched German Generals, however subservient to the Nazis they may be, nor Nazi Party officials. If indications were sought, they would be found, during 1942, in the murder of Field-Marshal von Reichenau, in January, and in the sudden and somewhat mysterious death of Herr Todt, the Reich Minister for armaments and munitions, in February, to say nothing of the disappearance of several air aces who were killed in suspicious flying accidents.

The spirit of destruction showed itself in the continued eradication of the Jews and of the Christian Churches. After the foundation of the giant ghetto in the Lublin District in Poland as early as 1940, and frequent deportations of Jews from Central Europe to Lublin and other Polish ghettos, the town of Theresienstadt in Bohemia was cleared of its "Aryan" population and made a centre, or rather a concentration camp, for all Jews in the Protectorate. Deportations of Jews to Eastern Europe went on during the year at an increased scale from Germany, Norway, France, Holland, and the Balkans.

The anti-Christian struggle did not slacken in 1942. A few examples of its tendencies may show which way the Nazi wind is blowing. In Berlin, the whole landed property of the Bishop's Cathedral was expropriated. Of many religious houses closed and confiscated by the Gestapo the most famous were two of the greatest Benedictine abbeys in Germany, Maria Laach (Rhineland) and Beuron (Wuerttemberg). An exhortation to the German people to deny God and reject the Churches was contained in a memorandum written by Martin Bormann, the "Party Chancellor" and successor of Rudolf Hess. In this document he declares that the Nazi point of view is irreconcilable with Christianity and that Christianity will disappear of its own accord. The Nazis issued a new hymn-book for Protestant congregations which by

reason of its distortions and inventions was but a neo-pagan caricature of the old Protestant hymn-book. The distribution of religious books and pamphlets inside the Army was forbidden. Most significant of all was a decree issued by the S.S. which declared that the Roman Catholic Church in the annexed districts of Western Poland had ceased to exist and which confiscated its landed property, including all Churches. Private religious associations may be formed in Germany provided that their ministers are approved by the Gestapo. The unrelenting struggle against the Christian Churches was combined with propaganda for a new German creed. This has not yet taken definite shape, but its purpose is to undermine traditional loyalties and pave the way for that nihilism which is the foundation of Nazism.

At the end of 1942 disillusion in Germany became more and more general. In October it was semi-officially announced that the Army Command had changed over to defensive warfare. Yet the Nazi system is based on attack ; the people have been told a thousand times that only attack brings victory. The general disappointment is therefore intelligible ; old loyalties have been shaken or uprooted, and anything but a hopeful prospect faces the nation which allowed itself to be delivered over into the hands of the adversaries of humanity. Such was the German balance sheet at the end of the year 1942.

CHAPTER IV

SOVIET RUSSIA—THE **BALTIC STATES**—POLAND—CZECHOSLOVAKIA
—HUNGARY — RUMANIA — YUGOSLAVIA — TURKEY — GREECE
—BULGARIA

THE UNION OF SOCIALIST SOVIET REPUBLICS

THROUGHOUT 1942 Soviet Russia continued to bear the main brunt of the war of the United Nations against Nazi Germany. More than ever before the military campaign during this year revealed the inner strength and cohesion of the peoples of the Soviet Union, and the ability of the Soviet political and military leaders to hold them together and direct their energies to a common aim. In the course of this struggle also Russia became more and more conscious that she was fighting not only for her own preservation but for that of European civilisation. She continued in consequence to draw nearer to the Western democracies, and, abandoning her former isolation, she showed herself willing to collaborate with them not only in the military sphere during the war, but also after the war in building up a new order on principles acceptable to all civilised peoples.

The military situation at the beginning of the year looked promising. The Russian counter-offensive which had commenced

in November with the capture of Rostov had already driven the Germans away from Moscow and brought the Russians within sight of a number of important strongholds, including Rzhev, Vyasma, and Smolensk in the central sector, and Kharkov and Taganrog further south. There seemed to be a strong likelihood that some, if not all of these places would fall to them in the course of the winter. These hopes were not fulfilled. The Russians were able to make progress in the intervening spaces between the railways, and even to restart some industries in the Donetz basin, but the key-points themselves and the railways leading to them defied their assaults. Their one notable success in the early months of 1942 was to surround the 16th German Army of 90,000 men at Staraya Russa and destroy most of it before it could be relieved. The spring found the Germans still closely investing Leningrad, and still in possession of the key-points from which they could launch offensives both in the central and the southern sectors in the summer. What the Russians had achieved was to deplete the German forces to such an extent that they had to spend a considerable time in collecting reserves, and so were not able to begin their offensive till the summer was already somewhat advanced, and when they did start, they could do so only in one sector, and not along the whole front, as in the previous year.

Early in January, Mr. Eden, the British Foreign Secretary, returned to London from Moscow, where he had gone before Christmas to lay the foundation of a more lasting political agreement between the British and the Soviet Governments. Whilst in Moscow Mr. Eden summoned the British Representatives in Turkey and Persia to assist him in an effort to establish better relations between the Soviet Government and the Governments of those countries. In reporting to the House of Commons on January 8 on this visit to Moscow, Mr. Eden stated that the pledges and assurances of the British and Soviet Governments that Turkey had nothing to fear from an Allied victory held good, and that the British Ambassador to Turkey had been charged to explain the position to the Government in Istanbul, where von Papen was doing his utmost to create apprehension and misunderstanding in regard to the Soviet Government. There was, he said, no secret arrangement concerning the Dardanelles. Similar assurances were given to the Iran Government, and these were embodied in the Anglo-Soviet Treaty of Alliance with Iran signed on January 29. [See under Public Documents.]

The treaty with Iran produced considerable irritation in Turkey, whose leading statesmen considered it dangerous to allow Soviet Russia to " bolshevisc " their eastern neighbour. Russia, on her side, had cause to complain against Turkey for the arrest and condemnation, on the flimsiest evidence, of two Soviet officials on the charge of having thrown a bomb on February 29 at von Papen in the streets of Istanbul, in spite of the most positive

assurances from the Soviet authorities that they had nothing to do with this attempt. For a time, and in spite of Mr. Eden's efforts, Russo-Turkish relations became strained again.

A further step in connecting the Soviet Union with the outside world was the signing on February 5 of an Agreement with Canada establishing for the first time diplomatic relations between these two countries.

On February 23 the Soviet Union celebrated the twenty-fourth anniversary of the Red Army, which was still advancing and inflicting heavy blows on the Germans. The British Prime Minister sent a message to "his Excellency," J. V. Stalin, expressing to him and the Army the admiration and gratitude of the peoples of the British Empire and their confidence in the victorious end of the struggle against the common foe. The manner in which the campaign of eight months had been conducted, it said, "reflected the greatest glory on the officers and men of the Red Army and enshrined its deeds in history for all time." This message was prominently published in Russia, and acted as a powerful encouragement and stimulus to further efforts, especially as Russia, though hitting hard, was beginning to feel the burden of tackling the whole might of the German land Army. Stalin published an order of the day in which he gave a review of the war, and which contained a passage frequently quoted afterwards :—

The foreign Press sometimes foolishly alleges that the Red Army's aim is to exterminate the German people and destroy the German state. This is, of course, a stupid lie and a slander against the Red Army. It would be ridiculous to identify Hitler's clique with the German people and the German state. History shows that Hitlers come and Hitlers go, whereas the German people and the German state remain. The Red Army does not and cannot entertain racial hatred for other peoples, including the German people ; it has been brought up to recognise the equality of all peoples and races, in the spirit of respect for the rights of other peoples, and this has led all freedom-loving peoples to become the friends of the Soviet Union and the enemies of Fascist Germany.

This order of the day contained one sentence which sounded like a reproach to the Allies : " The German Fascist Army is directly supported at the front by the troops of Italy, Rumania, and Finland. The Red Army, so far, has no such support." This sentence drew attention to the fact that in the eyes of the Soviet leaders the support given to the Russian armies either by way of sending supplies or co-ordinating the actual fighting on the various battle fronts was not adequate, and suggested the necessity of closer co-operation. On February 26 Mr. Litvinov stressed the same point: " The Russians are proud that it has fallen to them to smash the German war machine, but we do not insist on our exclusive rights. Others are welcome to a share/'

As Japan extended her sway in the Pacific, Russia began to suspect that country, with some reason, of wishing to include Siberia in her Co-Prosperity Scheme, and was therefore compelled

to keep a considerable army in her own eastern provinces. This caused a certain strain in Russo-Japanese relations, but without showing any sign of being intimidated Soviet Russia firmly adhered throughout the year to the neutrality pact concluded in April, 1941, and took due account of it in all the subsequent treaties concluded with the British and American Governments. When American airmen who had bombed Tokio landed on Russian territory they were interned. The Japanese, on their side, after occupying some of the Western Aleutian Islands, declared that this act was no threat to Soviet interests, and that they continued to base their relations on the neutrality treaty.

The celebration of the May Labour Day gave Stalin the opportunity of reviewing the position of the Red Army and the Soviet relations with Britain and America. "The international status of our motherland has been more firmly established than ever before. All freedom-loving peoples have joined forces against German imperialism, and they regard the Soviet Union as a force capable of saving the world from the Hitlerite plague. The first place among these freedom-loving countries is held by Great Britain and the U.S.A., to whom we are bound by ties of friendship and alliance and who are rendering our country constantly increasing military assistance against the German invaders."

This military assistance was growing steadily. On May 26 Mr. Cordell Hull received Mr. Litvinov and handed him new proposals for a Lease-Lend Arrangement, and on May 29 Mr. Molotov himself signed the arrangement in Washington. The amount of money covered by it was 300,000,000 dollars.

Mr. Molotov went to Washington *via* London, where he completed the negotiations for a Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain. [For full text see Public Documents.] Stress was laid in the very title of the treaty on the fact that it was directed against Hitlerite Germany and her European associates—an indication that due regard had been paid to the Soviet view of Germany and to Russia's position *vis-h-vis* Japan. The treaty was signed on May 26 and all its principal points (for which see English History) were published.

In speeches made at the ceremony of signing both Mr. Eden and Mr. Molotov emphasised the significance of the treaty for the future of Anglo-Soviet relations and their co-operation in Europe. The Foreign Office *communiqué* issued on June 12 stated that complete understanding had been reached with regard to the urgent task of creating a second front in Europe in 1942 and to the sending of supplies of war materials on an increased scale to Soviet Russia. Friendly messages were sent by King George and Mr. Churchill to Mr. Kalinin (Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the U.S.S.R.) and to Mr. Stalin.

After signing the treaty in London Mr. Molotov flew to

Washington, and an undertaking very similar to that reached with the British Government was signed with the U.S.A: Government. By June 13 Mr. Molotov was back in Moscow, and on June 18 the treaty was approved by the Council of the U.S.S.R. At the same time General Sikorski, with his eye on Article 5, expressed great satisfaction at the treaty and the agreement between the three countries. It left open the question of frontiers, stating only that the contracting parties, whilst thinking of their own security, should consider the interests of other states, so that the question of what were the true frontiers of Russia and Poland, of Rumania, of Finland, and so on was left*to be decided at the future peace settlement. In his report to the Supreme Council Mr. Molotov stated emphatically that Russia never aspired to occupy foreign territory. On his way back from Washington Mr. Molotov was again in London, and had a three hours' conversation with the Polish Prime Minister. There were indications that the treaty, especially the announcement that it contained no secret clauses, had allayed the suspicions of Turkey, whose relations with the Soviet Union gradually improved.

By the end of the winter the Russian offensive had largely spent itself, and after a period of comparative inaction on both sides in the early spring the initiative was gradually wrested from them by the enemy. On May 8 the Germans launched an attack on the Kerch peninsula, from which they expelled the Russians in a couple of weeks. They then commenced an offensive in the Kharkov sector, attacking the Russian left flank on the Donetz River. The Russians resisted stubbornly, and for some time the Germans made no progress in this quarter. Meanwhile, on June 5, they commenced an assault on Sevastopol, which they took on July 1 after a most gallant resistance. Having thus secured their flank, they pushed east in great force from the Kursk region and besieged the Russians in Voronezh. Here again the Russians made a determined stand, forcing the Germans to abandon the siege about July 20. On the 24th, however, they suffered a severe blow in the loss of Rostov-on-Don, which fell to the Germans after a very slight resistance. Immediately after this—and perhaps because of it—Marshal Timoshenko was replaced as Commander-in-Chief of the southern armies by General Zhukoff, who hitherto had commanded in the central sector. From Rostov the Germans advanced in two directions—eastward along the Don, and south-eastwards into the Caucasus. By August 4 they had occupied most of the Don bend and were attacking Kotelnikovo. In the Caucasus region they captured the Maikop oilfield on August 9, and a little later drove the Russian Fleet from Novorossisk.

Thus, at the beginning of August the military situation in Russia was already looking extremely serious. The spirit of the people, which hitherto had shown great confidence, became less

buoyant, and the Russian Press and broadcasts, and even official and highly placed spokesmen, began to express disappointment and bitterness at the British and American delays in carrying out the "clear undertaking" to open a second front contained in the Anglo-Soviet treaty of alliance. To allay this growing anxiety, to "speak his mind," but mainly to inform the Soviet leadership through personal contact of the practical arrangements made by the military leaders of Britain and America to create a diversion equivalent to a second front in Europe, the British Prime Minister himself undertook the long journey to Moscow in the middle of August. On August 17 it became known that Mr. Churchill, accompanied by British and American experts, had spent four days in Moscow conferring with Mr. Stalin and his military chiefs concerning plans for the coming operations against Germany. Reports from Moscow showed that the visit was a great success and had produced a considerable advance in the co-ordination of the efforts of the principal Allied Forces.

On October 3 Mr. Stalin sent a very cryptic reply to two questions put to him by an American correspondent on the second front and on Allied aid to Soviet Russia. "1. In Soviet estimates of the current situation a second front occupies a place of first-rate importance. 2. As compared with the aid the Soviet Union is giving to the Allies by drawing upon itself the main forces of the German armies, the aid of the Allies to the Soviet Union has so far been of little effect. In order to amplify and improve this aid only one thing is required: that the Allies fulfil their obligations fully and on time."

To the ordinary Englishman this statement by Stalin sounded almost like an accusation that the Allies were not fulfilling their obligations, and heated questions were asked about it in the House of Commons. It was, of course, meant to help the Allies in deceiving the German High Command on the preparations for a landing in Africa, as by this time he had obviously been acquainted by Mr. Churchill with what was coming in North Africa.

For some time after Mr. Churchill's visit to Moscow the German advance continued unchecked. On August 26 they reached Stalingrad and soon after established a foothold on the Volga. In the Caucasus about the same time they penetrated as far as Mozdok, threatening the oilfield of Grozny. The siege of Stalingrad went on through the whole of September and October. The Russians offered a heroic resistance, turning every factory into a fortress and contesting every street, and bringing reinforcements from across the Volga under heavy fire. In the Caucasus, too, they succeeded in holding up the Germans on the Terek River. Meanwhile they were preparing their counter-stroke, which had been timed for delivery after the British should have struck in North Africa,

This year, as last, the German campaign in Russia was accompanied by horrible atrocities. On November 2 a decree of the Supreme Council of the U.S.S.R, established an Extraordinary State Commission to investigate the crimes perpetrated by the German forces on Russian territory and to compile a record of the crimes, of the criminals, and of the damage and ruin they had inflicted on the economic and cultural life of the peoples of the Union. The question of the trial of war criminals ruffled for a time the ever-growing friendliness between Britain and America on the one hand and the Soviet Union on the other. *Pravda* demanded that all those Nazi criminals who had already fallen into the hands of the Allies should be brought to justice immediately. *Pravda* was especially incensed about the position of Rudolf Hess and the argument in England and America that he was a prisoner of war. In expressing its impatience with these arguments the *Pravda* asked suspiciously : " What is Hess at the present time—a criminal who must be tried and punished or the plenipotentiary representative in Britain of Hitler's Government enjoying inviolability ? " The attitude of the official organ of the Soviet Government *Izvestia* was no less outspoken. Referring to the lengthy joint Note presented to Stalin on July 23 by the Governments of Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia, Norway, Greece, Belgium, Holland, and Luxemburg and the Free French National Committee on the German atrocities, and quoting Mr. Churchill's speech in Edinburgh on the savage and bestial acts perpetrated everywhere and especially in Russia, *Izvestia* stated (middle of October): " The Soviet Government shares the view of the President of the U.S.A. that the clique of the Nazi leaders responsible for countless atrocities must be named, apprehended and tried ' in accordance with the process of criminal law. For its part it believes that it is necessary for an international court to try immediately any of the ringleaders of Fascist Germany who have already fallen into the hands of the authorities of the states fighting against the Hitlerites."

On November 7 Soviet Russia celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Revolution, and Stalin in his speech reviewing the war situation lamented how much Soviet territory and economic wealth could have been spared if a second front had been established in time, expressing at the same time his conviction that there would be a second front " sooner or later." He emphasised the tremendous importance of the *rapprochement* between the Soviet Union, Britain, and America, and "underlined the fact that the differences in the ideologies of the three countries were no obstacle to joint action. He particularly mentioned the visit of the British Prime Minister as having established complete Understanding between the leaders of the two countries.

President Roosevelt in his message to Mr. Kalinin emphasised that the common military effort must be a prelude to collaboration

in the fulfilment, of the mightier task of the creation of peace throughout the world.

Mr. Eden's message to Mr. Molotov mentioned the glorious resistance of the Red Army and the peoples of Russia which would be recorded in history for all time, and expressed the certainty that the knowledge acquired in the hard school of war would be applied to the task of reconstruction.

On November 12 the Under-Secretary of State of the Foreign Office informed the House of Commons of the extent of the aid given to Russia. More than 3,000 planes, more than 4,000 tanks, and more than 37,000 vehicles had been sent to Russia, and the total weight of miscellaneous equipment, including petrol, amounted to nearly a million tons. On November 13 Stalin expressed his satisfaction at the news of the successful landing in North Africa. In a letter to the same American journalist who had previously asked him about the second front he said :—

The campaign (in North Africa) is an outstanding fact of major importance, and it refutes the sceptics who affirmed that the Anglo-American leaders were not capable of organising a serious war campaign. Only first-rate organisers could carry out the landings and occupation of harbours from Casablanca to Bougie in such a masterly fashion. What particularly matters is not the immediate effect of relieving pressure on the Russian armies, but the fact that the initiative had passed into the hands of our Allies and that the campaign changes radically the political and military situation in Europe in favour of the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition ; that the campaign creates the pre-requisites for the establishment of a second front in Europe nearer to Germany's vital centres. There need be no doubt that the Red Army will fulfil its task with honour, as it has been fulfilling it throughout the war.

These were no idle words. On November 12 the Germans launched their last big assault on what remained of Stalingrad, keeping up the attack for five days with very little result. Immediately afterwards the Russian counter-offensive began with attacks from the north-west and south-west of Stalingrad. Both were successful, and before long the German Army between the Don and the Volga, which was besieging Stalingrad, was itself surrounded; another German Army which tried to relieve it was decisively defeated at Kotchnikovo. Other offensives were started in quick succession from Voronezh towards Rostov and in the central sector, and met with similar success. By the end of the year the German Sixth Army at Stalingrad was in a desperate position, the Russians were within a hundred miles of Rostov, and the Don bend and the Kalmuck steppes were being gradually cleared of the enemy.

In internal affairs one of the most important developments during the year was that, as the result of the Russian military achievements, the Red Army became very popular, and a spirit of greater trust and unity grew up between the political and the military leaders. Early in October the political Commissars in the Army, whose function it had been to maintain the spirit of

loyalty among the men and the junior officers, were abolished, partly owing to the need for more officers, but mainly because there appeared to be no need for their special service. Mr. Stalin himself took a great part in the actual campaign and stayed in Moscow during the most anxious days at the beginning of the year.

During the first twelve months of the war 752,000 new members were admitted into the Communist Party, the test being the possession of political, military, or practical ability.

The loss of the Ukraine and the Donetz basin with millions of their inhabitants made it necessary to organise a very thorough mobilisation of labour, the transfer of industry, and the development of agriculture in other areas. Urban workers not employed in occupations of an essential character were mobilised for work on the land. During the summer a million and a half young persons were working on the land as tractor drivers, mechanics, and the like. The Soviet administration made superhuman efforts to transfer most of the industrial plant from areas threatened to areas of safety, and in many cases succeeded in improving production in those branches which worked for supplying the Red Army. Intensive propaganda was carried on throughout the year for an increase in output, for careful workmanship, and for the reduction of absenteeism. Research work was carried on in agriculture and industry. The industrial centres of the Ural Mountains and of Siberia became very important scientific centres which helped to solve many problems of production.

The harvest was reported to be good, and targets were exceeded in several large areas such as Uzbekistan, Kazakstan, Turkmenstan, and Tadjikstan. 300,000 town dwellers in the areas near the fighting line helped to gather in the crops as early as was possible. The irrigation works started in Central Asia long before the war proved particularly useful, and the Hissar Canal, opened during the war, brought under cultivation 80,000 acres of good soil. Very successful experiments were made with growing potatoes, and the results were applied on a large scale. Energetic measures were taken to increase the stocks of cattle on the collective farms. Notwithstanding all these measures to ease the position in the rear of the fighting armies, the problems of food and fuel supply, of clothing, of housing accommodation, and of communications remained very acute, and though the population bore the hardships heroically, it suffered terribly.

In retreating before the advancing German armies the Red Army and the population continued their scorched earth policy, and during 1942 the Germans were unable to exploit the rich areas of the Ukraine and the Kuban. Because of the fierce resistance of the peasantry which stayed behind, the Germans could not expect that individual peasants would produce more than was required for themselves, and were compelled to preserve

the collective system, appointing their own men as supervisors of the collective farms with the duty of collecting as much "surplus" food for the Army and the people in Germany as would be possible. Agriculture was highly mechanised before the war, but the tractors and all other machinery had nearly disappeared. If they had had the machinery they would have required enormous quantities of petrol, which could not be made available until the Russian oil wells, also "scorched/" produced again. In the meantime all work was done by man-power and Russian peasants, and even women were used by the Germans as beasts of burden. In addition more than a million peasants were sent to work in Germany. Thus, in spite of all their efforts, the Germans were unable to extract from the Ukraine much more than they required for the army of occupation. Both in agriculture and in industry, however, the Germans made desperate efforts to render the Ukraine productive.

In connexion with the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Soviet Revolution the Soviet authorities published data on the development of education in the Soviet Union during these years. There were, in 1939, 15,800 secondary schools with 377,000 teachers and 11,000,000 pupils as against 1,950 schools with 42,000 teachers and 635,000 pupils in 1914. Higher educational institutions increased from 91 (1914) to 700 (1936), and the total enrolment in all schools in 1937 was 38,000,000 as against 8,000,000 (1913). The number of newspapers increased from 859 (1913), with a daily circulation of 2,700,000, to 8,500, with a daily circulation of 37,000,000 (1938). During the twenty-five years the copies of books and pamphlets published numbered 9,000,000,000. In 1938 alone 693,000,000 volumes were published. Books were published in 100 languages, forty of which had no alphabets and no written works before the Revolution. In the year of war 350,000,000 copies of books were published. Translations from the English are now most popular in Soviet Russia, and much effort is expended to establish a better understanding of things English.

THE BALTIC STATES

In February *The Times* published an article from its Stockholm correspondent which stated that the Estonian and Latvian population, while detesting the Germans, did not entertain very warm feelings towards the Russians either. This brought forth an indignant contradiction from the Dean of Tatrü University and a number of other prominent personalities in the literary world of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, who declared that in consequence of the Soviet occupation "thousands of Latvians, Estonians, and Lithuanians had for the first time enjoyed a cultural existence," and the peoples of their countries had drawn still closer to the people of Russia. Now Latvians, Estonians, and

Lithuanians were fighting in the ranks of the Red Army and in guerrilla detachments with the single desire of banishing as soon as possible from their land the Nazi horde of plunderers and of bringing back their old and free Soviet life. On March 11 it was announced that a Lithuanian division had been recruited in Russia from Lithuanians who had escaped from the country before the Germans occupied it, and on the same day the Moscow Radio broadcast a eulogy of 42 Lithuanian partisans who had been executed in Kaunas (Kovjxo).

In April it was decided in Berlin to re-expatriate to the Baltic States the Baltic Germans who had been recalled to the Fatherland by Hitler in 1939 and used to colonise the annexed parts of Poland. A beginning was made with the 50,000 brought from Lithuania. On May 15 Reichskommissar Lohse issued a decree re-establishing local self-government in the towns, communes, and rural districts where it had been abolished by the Soviet. In July Rosenberg, the Reich Minister for Eastern Affairs, authorised the General Commissars of the four general districts of the Reichskommissariat for the Ostland (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and White Russia) to issue decrees having the force of law within their respective provinces. In June there was published at Riga a complete collection of decrees and orders issued by the Reich Minister for the Eastern Occupied territories, the Reichskommissar for the Ostland, and the General Commissar in Riga. In May Rosenberg made a six-day tour of the three Baltic territories.

In the early summer the shortage of agricultural labour became acute in Latvia and Estonia, owing to German demands on manpower, and the Germans formed a plan for settling large numbers of Dutch colonists in the Ostland. In all three Baltic States they displayed their usual barbarity, impoverishing and decimating the native population. In Lithuania they showed particular hostility against the Poles and the Jews. On May 27 it was announced in Berlin that 400 persons, mostly Poles, had been executed in Kovno as a reprisal for the murder in Eastern Lithuania of two Germans. In September the Germans stirred up the Lithuanians to massacre the Poles. Towards the end of the year it was estimated that by disease, deportation and other means the population of the Vilna ghetto had been reduced from 80,000 to 12,000.

POLAND

The year 1942 brought a further marked deterioration in the living conditions of the population in Poland. The food situation there was by far the worst among all the Occupied countries. This statement, however, does not apply to Germans living in Poland, who received special food rations and possessed their own shops. The same was the case with the so-called *Volksdeutsche*, i.e. people who decided to join the notorious *Volksliste*

and declare themselves Germans. The German authorities realised that privileged food rations were by no means a negligible weapon in gaining adherents for the German cause. Their latest device was the creation of an organisation in the province of Poznan called *Leistungsverband der Polen* for those Polish workers who distinguished themselves in war production; these were to receive the same rations as the Germans. The Germans considered themselves as the overlords in Poland. As Arthur Greiser, the *Gauleiter* of Posen, wrote in an article in the *Essen National Zeitung* of April 29, "In this land the German is master" (*Der Deutsche ist der Herr in diesem Lande*).

The chief sufferers from the appalling food situation in Poland were undoubtedly the educated classes. People belonging to that class faced absolute starvation; they could only live by selling their belongings, and even if they could get a job, the Salaries for Poles in the German offices were less than meagre, ranging from 120 to 250 zlotys per month, the equivalent of from 51. to 10/., while a meal cost about 15 zlotys, and a pair of shoes about 250 or even 300 zlotys. Starvation and destitution constituted a veritable nightmare for the Polish town population. In the country the situation was slightly better, but the policy of exacting large deliveries of grain and other farm products resulted in a further deterioration of the standard of living of the Polish peasants.

The vitality of the Polish nation was undermined by hunger and poverty to an alarming extent. The birth-rate fell rapidly while mortality rose, especially among the young generation. Tuberculosis, scurvy, typhus, and other diseases were rampant. The Poznan district, renamed by the Germans the *Warthegau*, was called by the Germans themselves *Tuberkulose-Gau*. Typhoid fever reaped a rich harvest in Eastern GaUcia, Volhynia, and all the eastern provinces of Poland. It is difficult to assess the losses suffered by Poland from hunger and malnutrition, but it is safe to assume that they were responsible for a much greater number of victims than executions and concentration camps. These amounted to about 200,000, according to official Polish figures, while the losses due to the malnutrition and hunger or exposure must be estimated at about 1,500,000, or even more.

Terror continued to be an everyday phenomenon in Polish life. Man-hunts were organised in all large Polish centres either for political purposes ("purging" the country of dangerous political elements who escaped the net of the Gestapo) or for economic reasons (recruitment of man-power). New concentration camps were established in 1942 in nearly all parts of Poland. About 100 camps were set up for recalcitrant farmers who failed to deliver the prescribed exactions of wheat or other products. The Oswiecim concentration camp was still the worst of all, and it was estimated that about 30,000 people were kept there.

The mass deportations during 1942 affected chiefly the district of Lublin, while the mass executions took place in the Warsaw and the Upper Silesia areas. In the province of Lublin the Germans settled farmers from Germany, expelling Polish peasants to make room for them. The reason for this step, which was carried out during October, November, and December, was that regular battles had been taking place for a long period in the woods of that region between the German police and Polish guerrilla fighters. As the Germans were anxious to create a sort of " safety wall " in the Lublin area by settling there German colonists (as well as farmers taken from other countries like Holland or even Belgium and Norway), they decided to oust the Polish population from the whole region. It was believed that the Germans were constructing new fortifications along the Une of the River Bug, strengthening the lines already built in the spring of 1940. The reverses suffered by the German Army in Russia made it imperative to prepare a defence in depth in the Eastern Polish territories also. The Polish farmers took revenge for their expropriation by acts of sabotage, and burnt down fourteen villages which the German settlers had already occupied.

In the Upper Silesia area the Germans ordered several mass executions for acts of sabotage perpetrated against their lines of communication. As the Silesian territory was a sort of bottle-neck for German transport towards the East, it had to be closely guarded. Many Poles were hanged in public by order of the German authorities ; the same course was taken by the Germans three times during the autumn in the Warsaw district where, after railway sabotage, about 150 people were hanged along the railway lines leading to Warsaw.

The most appalling excesses of German sadism were directed against the Jews in Poland. Many " ghettos " created by the Germans in large Polish towns were abolished and the Jewish population was butchered or sent to an " unknown destination." Jews from Germany itself and from all the occupied countries were transported to Poland, and there, in accord with the German policy of exterminating the Jewish people, were either shot in cold blood, after having been made to dig their own graves, or killed off by poison gas or brutally done to death in other ways. Probably in many cases Jews were deported to the Ukraine or White Russia as " labour gangs," helping to clear the roads and railway tracks of snow. It is impossible to give the exact figures of victims of the German hatred of Jews. The official Polish figures speak of about 1,000,000 Jews exterminated in Poland, out of a total of over 3,000,000 who lived there before the war. The Warsaw " ghetto " was by far the worst centre of famine, of contagious diseases, and of terror. It was supposed that the Germans wished to reduce the size of the Warsaw ghetto, number-

ing about 430,000 Jews to 45,000, consisting mainly of Jewish workers, especially workers in the armament factories.

Like all the other Occupied countries, Poland was ruthlessly combed-out to make good Germany's shortage of man-power, supplying by far the largest of all the foreign workers' contingents. The official German sources in September, 1942, gave the figure of 1,500,000 Poles working in Germany. A new drive for getting slave labour was started in Poland in the autumn, by which it was hoped to drain Poland of some 300,000 new workers by the spring of 1943. The Polish workers in Germany were treated with special cruelty. They had no papers in their own language, and no schools for their children, they could not attend Sunday religious service, and they had neither the social insurance accorded to workers of other nationalities nor periods of leave. Deportations for forced labour in the East, to safeguard the German lines of communication, assumed much larger dimensions during 1942, owing to the increasing strain put on the German "hinterland" by the Russian campaign.

The resistance of the whole Polish nation to the German invader showed no signs of slackening or weakening. Polish underground papers were published in spite of the penalty of death imposed for reading or distributing them. The Allied victories in Africa in the autumn created a wave of enthusiasm all over Poland, which found expression in messages of congratulation sent to the Polish authorities in London by the underground organisations in Poland.

The free Poles continued to fight on the battle fronts in all parts of the world, determined as ever to come to the rescue of their oppressed brethren. The Polish Army increased rapidly during 1942. The Polish armed forces in the Middle East area were estimated at the end of the year to be over 150,000 strong. They were mainly drawn from the Poles released from Russia. Not only soldiers, but also civilians crossed the Russian frontier by thousands into Persia. Out of about 1,500,000 deported by the Russians during their occupation of the Eastern marshes of Poland, only about 150,000 left the country. Those who remained were concentrated in camps or given work in the factories or on farms. But their plight was still serious, and Polish authorities, together with American and British Red Cross organisations, made strenuous efforts to alleviate their lot.

Several thousands of Poles found refuge in Kenya and Uganda, where they were received most hospitably by the British authorities. Others went to Southern Rhodesia, and it was expected that the Mexican Government would extend hospitality to some 23,000 Polish refugees. About 5,000 Polish children found a haven in one of the great estates of an Indian Maharaja.

The Middle East Polish Army started their "re-education" in the use of the modern arms with which they were being equipped.

A special corps for the youngsters, called *Junaks*, was created, and a school for the Army cadets was organised in Palestine. Baghdad was buzzing with Polish activities as the headquarters of the Middle East Polish Army. At the same time some 400 Polish officers serving with the British Army in West Africa were engaged in training the coloured troops in Nigeria and other colonies ; Polish airmen serving with the R.A.F. " somewhere in West Africa," performed a memorable feat by ferrying over 1,000 planes from West African bases to the Libyan theatre of war. The Polish Air Force increased in size ; Polish pilots took part in bombing raids over Germany (there was in 1942 one entirely Polish bombing expedition over Germany), and Polish night fighters gained more and more experience. On December 31 Polish fighters celebrated the shooting down of their 500th German plane since June, 1940.

The Polish Navy suffered some losses in the Mediterranean, one Polish destroyer being sunk off Malta. Another Polish destroyer was badly damaged when convoying supplies to Russia by the Arctic route. Polish warships and merchantmen took an active part in all Allied operations. In the landings in North Africa the Polish Merchant Marine did valuable work, and its performance was mentioned by the First Lord of the Admiralty. The losses of the Polish Navy were replaced by the British ; two ships (one destroyer and one U-boat) were launched in British ports and were put in commission with the Polish Navy. At the end of December a new ship—the first Polish cruiser—was placed at the disposal of the Polish naval forces.

The Polish units in Scotland were re-organised and formed into a powerful, highly-mechanised modern army. Polish paratroops were trained on a large scale in Scotland. The whole Polish Army was burning with the desire to come to grips with the enemy and their morale was high.

The activities of the Polish Government in London were manifold. In the political domain the maintenance of friendly relations with the Allied nations was the chief care of the Government. General Sikorski visited the United States twice during 1942, and had long talks with President Roosevelt, concerning not only the question of punishing the German criminals in Poland but also some essential problems connected with the future security of Poland. During his December visit he discussed the project of creating a federation of the peoples of Central and Eastern Europe, the pivot of which would be Poland and Czechoslovakia, already united by an Agreement concluded on January 23. [See under Public Documents.]

Relations between Poland and Russia remained friendly, although the problem of the Eastern provinces of Poland continued to be an obstacle in the way of complete collaboration. M. Kot, Polish Ambassador in Russia, was replaced by Count T. Romer.

General Kukiel became Minister of National Defence, and General Boruta took over the command of the Army in Scotland. General Anders was C.-in-C. of the Polish Army in the Middle East.

Poland took an active part, with other members of the United Nations, in the formulation of the policy for exacting retribution for the German crimes in Occupied countries and the measures for depriving the Germans after the war of the spoils accumulated by them from the plunder of Europe. The Polish Ministry of Social Welfare rendered assistance to the Polish refugees scattered in many parts of the world.

Many Polish books appeared in 1942 in Great Britain and the United States, where a Polish Institute was organised in New York. Polish periodicals likewise were in circulation in England, and new papers were established for the Middle East armed forces. Polish authors published several books in English (Litynski, Pruszyński, Fiedler, Poznanski, Sopoćko). Polish musicians gave concerts in Great Britain and the United States, while exhibitions of modern Polish sculpture and painting were organised in the former country.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Protectorate of Bohemia-Moravia

On January 20 Dr. Krejci, the Premier, re-formed his Cabine with a view to co-operating more energetically with the Protector Heydrich in the Nazification of the country. The principal newcomers were Dr. Bertsch, a Reich German, who took the newly created post of Minister of Economics and Labour, and Colonel Moravec, a former officer of the Austrian Army and a fanatical pro-Nazi, who became Minister of Education and Popular Culture. Both Ministers soon made their presence felt. Dr. Bertsch stopped all building activity in the Protectorate and sent large numbers of Czech workers to construct fortifications along the Atlantic coast, especially in Norway. He also took steps to increase war production and to extend the metal industry and coal output at the expense of other industries. Colonel Moravec undertook a drastic reform of the school curriculum and the preparation of revised text-books which would inculcate the new ideology in such subjects as history, geography, and civics. New Institutes for economic and scientific research were also founded. In June a "Curatorium for the education of Czech youth" was founded, with Colonel Moravec as president, to train about a million Protectorate youths "to serve a useful purpose to the Reich and the New Europe." About the same time the number of Middle Schools, which trained for the professions, was reduced by 40 per cent. On the other hand, the National Union (Narodni Sourucentisr), formed originally to support President Hacha, was allowed to languish, and was dissolved in the summer.

On May 26 Heydrich himself announced that the entire youth of the country was to be conscripted, and that other far-reaching changes would be made in the administration. On the next day, as he was motoring out of Prague on his way to Germany, a bomb was thrown at his car and he was seriously wounded. His place was taken by Group-leader Dalxige. A state of emergency was declared and a reign of terror at once commenced. Heydrich died of his wounds on June 4, and in the next few weeks numerous demonstrations in his memory were held in the country, culminating in a mass meeting of 200,000 people held in Prague on July 3 which was addressed by President Hacha, Dr. Krejci, and Colonel Moravec. Meanwhile executions had taken place daily of persons charged with harbouring or aiding the murderers. The brutality of the Government culminated on June 10 in the razing to the ground of the village of Lidice, near Kladno, with the shooting of all the men and the sending of the women to concentration camps. On June 18 the Berlin wireless announced that the assassins of Heydrich had been discovered and shot, but the terror went on unabated. On June 19 General Elias, a former Prime Minister, was shot on a charge of plotting high treason, and two more generals on the next day, and on June 27 a tribunal was established to try Czech politicians who had proved themselves to be enemies of their nation. About the same time the village of Lezaky suffered the fate of Lidice. On July 3 the state of emergency ended, and for a short time there was a lull in the terror. In the latter part of August, however, it broke out again, and from then to the end of the year scarcely a week passed without numerous executions. The Universities, which had been closed in November, 1939, for three years, were not reopened when the period expired.

Slovakia

Slovakia in 1942 continued to act in close collaboration with Germany, under the presidency of Mgr. Tiso. It was stated in April that nearly half the able-bodied men of the country had been placed at the disposal of Germany, either as soldiers in Russia or as workers in the Reich. Progress continued to be made in the economic development of the country, largely with German aid. Among the major undertakings planned by the Government were the construction of waterworks on the River Wah (Waag), for which 112 million crowns was set aside for 1942, and the settlement on the land of 1,000 Slovak families which had returned from Hungary, at a cost of 110 million crowns. The money for these and similar operations was obtained largely from the confiscation of Jewish property. In May it was stated by the Minister of the Interior that about 90,771 hectares of land, to the value of 610 million crowns, had been taken by the State

from the Jews ; also that out of a total of 90,000 Jews formerly living in Slovakia, 32,000 had already been deported.

The pro-German policy of the Government was the reverse of popular with the mass of the population, and to keep himself in power President Tiso had to resort to a system of suppression and terrorism carried out by the Hlinka Guards, which now numbered nearly 300,000. In April demonstrations against the Hlinka Guard, accompanied by rioting and shooting, took place in Eastern Slovakia. On August 17 an attempt was made on the life of President Tiso ; the assailant escaped, and the matter was hushed up.

Government in London

On January 23 the Czechoslovak Government in London, in pursuance of a declaration made on November 11, 1941, concluded with the Polish Government in London an agreement establishing a Polish-Czechoslovak Confederation, the purpose of which was to effect a common policy between the two countries in regard to foreign affairs, defence, economic and financial matters, social questions, transport, and posts and telegraphs. [See under Public Documents.] It was hoped that the Confederation would form a nucleus for a larger union embracing other States with which the interests of Czechoslovakia and Poland were linked, and both Governments expressed their satisfaction at the Greek-Yugoslav Agreement which had just been concluded, and their belief that security in the area between the Baltic and the Ægean depended primarily on the collaboration of the two Confederations. On June 10 it was announced that four mixed commissions had been set up to study questions regarding the economic, military, social, and cultural organisation of the Confederation.

On August 5 the British Government, in order to avoid any misunderstanding, published a White Paper confirming the undertaking already given to Dr. Benes on November 11, 1940, that in the post-war settlement Britain would not be bound by any arrangements made at Munich in 1938 regarding the frontiers of Czechoslovakia. Shortly before the Czechoslovak Legation in London had been raised to the rank of an Embassy, and the British Minister to the Czechoslovak Government also became an Ambassador.

On May 29, immediately after the attempt on Heydrich's life, the Government addressed a Note to all the Allied Governments enumerating the crimes committed by Heydrich since his becoming Protector in September, 1941, and stating that they would take all possible steps to obtain retribution.

HUNGARY

At the beginning of the year Hungary received pressing requests from Germany to furnish a largely increased number of men for the Eastern Front. Herr Ribbentrop visited Budapest on January 7 and General Keitel a fortnight later. Both were received with great demonstrations of friendship, but the Government showed no eagerness to comply with their military demands. The excuse was that Hungary needed all the man-power available to her for the work of agricultural production. Eventually a considerable contingent of Hungarian troops was sent to the Ukraine in the spring, but not nearly so large as Germany had demanded.

On February 16 Admiral Horthy, who had been Regent since 1920, sent a message to Parliament relinquishing his right to appoint a deputy Regent. The Government thereupon introduced a Bill proposing his son Stephen as deputy Regent. The proposal was bitterly attacked by the extreme pro-Nazi factions in Parliament, but in the end it was carried unanimously. The new deputy Regent was killed in action on the Eastern Front in August. Shortly after his appointment Dr. Bardossi, who had been Premier since February, 1941, resigned, ostensibly on account of ill-health, but really in order to make way for someone better qualified to deal with the question of production. He was succeeded on March 11 by Miklos Kallay, a jurist and economist, who had been Minister of Agriculture in the G6mb6s Cabinet of 1934.

The first task which the new Government took in hand was to assume new powers for expropriating Jewish owners of landed property, in addition to those conferred by the agrarian law of 1940. Under that law the Government was required to give compensation to the full value of the property, half in cash and half in bonds. Certain classes of Jews, such as those who had performed meritorious war service, were also exempted. By the new law the whole of the compensation was made payable in bonds bearing interest and sinking fund at 3½ per cent, for thirty years. Most of the exemptions were also cancelled, and the term "Jew" was made to include all "non-Aryans." Forest land was also now brought under the law. In this way the amount of Jewish land to be expropriated was raised from about 285,000 hectares to about 700,000 hectares, and the non-Jewish land-owners affected by the law of 1940 obtained a further respite. The expropriated property was to be distributed to smallholders. The Bill was passed by Parliament in June, and the new law was promulgated on September 6. On August 26 a decree was issued prohibiting Jews from taking part, directly or indirectly, in commerce and industry. On September 3 an Order was issued that, if there were sufficient places, Jewish students might be

admitted to University laboratories up to a maximum of 6 per cent, of the total number of students. On December 5, however, the Minister of War ordered the conscription of all Jews for labour, service at the Front.

The Government's policy of assisting Germany with supplies, was very unpopular with the peasants and workers, who tried in every way to thwart it. Early in April six of the largest industrial plants in the country were seriously damaged in anti-Axis demonstrations. In August a large number of decrees were issued to stop food hoarding on farms and make the peasants give up all their corn to the authorities. Extraordinary precautions were taken in the Backa region, the harvest of which was earmarked for Germany, to prevent arson and sabotage. In the middle of September the Government, owing to lack of collaboration by the peasants, appointed sixty-five commissioners with almost unlimited powers to supervise the collection of grain. There was a deficit in the harvest of 5,500,000 quintals, and the bread ration was reduced on November 30 to 5 oz. a day.

The reference by Mihai Antonescu to Transylvania in his speech at Bucharest on March 19 (*vide Rumania*) was deeply resented in Hungary. Relations between the two countries became more strained than ever, and it was rumoured in the summer that Hungary was trying to make a pact with Bulgaria against Rumania. On June 18 a clash took place between Rumanian and Hungarian troops at Tinda, near Cluj (Koloszvar).

Early in the summer M. Kallay agreed to send more Hungarian troops to Russia, bringing their total number up to fourteen divisions. Hungarian divisions advanced with the Germans to Voronezh, and suffered severely in the Russian counter-attack in the winter.

In the Budget for 1943 presented on October 23 expenditure was estimated at 4,267 million pengO and revenue at 4,047 million pengO. This did not include war expenditure.

RUMANIA

Rumania throughout 1942 continued to be the unwilling ally of Germany in that country's war against Russia. It was a partnership in which she had everything to lose and nothing to gain. Her territorial aspirations as far as Russia was concerned had been already satisfied by the acquisition of Bessarabia and the Bukovina, and she was not anxious to retain even the province of Transdnistria of which Germany had made her a present. The territory on which her eyes were fixed was the part of Transylvania which Hitler had in 1940 transferred to Hungary, and of the return of this there was no mention. She had the further mortification of sacrificing in the steppes of Russia the troops which she might one day require in a war against Hungary

for the recovery of Transylvania. No wonder, therefore, that Germany's demands for more cannon fodder and more food supplies caused intense discontent and led to a strong popular movement for severing ties with that country.

By the beginning of 1942 Rumania had already lost practically all the divisions which she had sent to the Russian front, besides her entire mercantile marine, which had been destroyed by Russian naval and air raids. Nevertheless, when the Germans demanded sixteen more divisions General Antonescu, the Dictator, was unable to refuse, as they held over his head the threat of a restoration of Horia Sima and the Iron Guard. The news of the demand naturally caused dismay among the people. Demonstrations were held in Bucharest calling for peace and the fall of Antonescu, and the leaders of the Peasant and Liberal Parties sent a manifesto of protest to the Dictator. The country, they said, was suffering from a long and continuous haemorrhage, the prolongation of which in present circumstances would lead to its extinction. While there was still time, Germany should be informed that Rumania had done everything which she could do without exposing herself to grave disasters. There was great unrest also in the Army, and it was reported that several high officers had been dismissed and shot. The prisons were soon full of deserters, and near Craiova guerrillas derailed a German troop train. Nevertheless, a number of divisions were sent to the Russian front.

German demands for food supplies were no less insistent than for man-power and caused perhaps even greater hardship. In January numbers of peasants died of starvation and cold, and bread riots occurred at some places. The Government took steps to increase production, by instituting police supervision for the spring sowing and pressing all classes of the population into agricultural work. Even so, however, the grain quotas fixed by the Germans were not attained. In June the Germans demanded that the Government should take all consumption under its direct control, but the Government found courage to refuse, and the economic negotiations which were being carried on between the two countries broke down.

In the summer campaign in Russia Rumanian losses were again enormous ; a Turkish statement put them at an average of 1,000 a day. In October it was officially estimated that the total number of killed, missing, and wounded amounted to 350,000, and it was believed in fact to be considerably higher. The war became more unpopular than ever, and on September 6 Marshal Antonescu found it necessary to issue a proclamation appealing for more sympathy and support for his war effort. This had little effect, and on September 17 a decree was issued imposing the death penalty for acts of sabotage against installations of national importance, for the delivery of inferior materials to the defence

industry, and for the collection of information of importance to enemy countries. On the 23rd Marshal Antonescu issued a decree abolishing all constitutional law and proclaiming himself the sole law-giver of Rumania. About this time resistance to the Germans within the country began to assume a more organised form, under the leadership of a man who called himself Vlaicu. Armed bands under his orders operated in Oltenia and the Bihor mountains, where they attacked pro-German officials, destroyed crops, and damaged installations useful to the Germans.

Desperate efforts were made by the Germans to increase production in the Rumanian oilfields. To render matters easier for them, on August 21 the oil law of 1937 which prohibited foreign companies from exploiting more than one-third of newly discovered oilfields was repealed. A new law was passed which permitted collective prospecting by a number of companies, so as to divide the risks and initial expenditure.

Rumanian bitterness against Hungary over the question of Transylvania showed no sign of abating during the year. At a demonstration organised by the Faculty of Law in Bucharest on March 19, Mihai Antonescu, the Acting Foreign Minister, said that the armistice and peace between Rumania and Hungary would be respected by Rumania so long as Hungary respected it, but the Rumanian people knew how to maintain hatred in their hearts as well as love. In July a mixed German-Italian Commission visited Transylvania to inquire into disturbances caused by the requisitioning of food by the Rumanian authorities from peasants of Hungarian origin. On August 1 the German and Italian Ministers in Bucharest found it advisable to request the Antonescu Government publicly to recognise the Vienna award of 1940 as irrevocable, to postpone all territorial claims till after the war, and to stop attacks on Hungary. Marshal Antonescu thereupon made the required declaration.

In October economic agreements were made with Turkey providing for the exchange of Rumanian oils and wood-pulp against Turkish cotton and other goods.

A census taken in January showed that out of 750,000 Jews formerly living in the provinces of the Old Kingdom only 240,000 were left, the rest having been deported, murdered, or sent to concentration camps. By the end of the year all Jews had been cleared out of the villages, and large numbers had been sent from concentration camps to camps in Russia. In November Dr. Maniu protested against the persecution of the Jews, and the Church also intervened to stop their transference to Transnistria.

YUGOSLAVIA

Of the three States which were formed out of Yugoslavia after its conquest by the Germans in 1941, Croatia and Serbia retained

their **puppet** Governments throughout 1942, but in Montenegro **the** Italians had already installed a military Governor in October, 1941. Both in Serbia and Montenegro a large part of the population continued to carry on the war against the Germans and Italians which had been commenced by the Yugoslav Government in 1941, and sought to overthrow the Governments which had been imposed upon them. In Croatia also there was great popular discontent and much guerrilla fighting, and the pro-Nazi Government was able to maintain itself in power only with the help of German and Italian armed force.

In Croatia the Pavelitch Government tried hard to keep up the fiction that the country had regained its independence after being for many years subjected to Serbian domination. On February 23 a meeting was called of the Sabor, or Assembly, which had last sat on October 29, 1918. It consisted on this occasion of 205 members, of whom 31 per cent, were peasants and 10 per cent, representatives of trades and workers. The Poglavnik Pavelitch read before it a message in which he said that this meeting was a direct continuation of the one interrupted in 1918. It passed measures annulling all Yugoslav laws passed between December, 1918, and the spring of 1941 which were at variance with the interests of the Croatian people. On April 10 the first anniversary of Croatian independence was celebrated by a march past of Croatian troops in Zagreb, headed by German and Italian guards of honour, and followed by peasants in national dress. The new State was also recognised not only by Germany and Italy, but also by Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, Slovakia, and Spain. In August the Ustachi movement was reorganised and its militia made part of the Armed Forces of Croatia.

The Poglavnik showed particular solicitude for the peasant class, professing to follow in the footsteps of Stefan Raditch, the creator of the peasant ideology. He also treated the Moslem element with marked consideration, allotting to it fourteen seats in the Sabor. With the Orthodox Church he declared he had no quarrel so long as it was not aggressively Serbian. The German minority obtained further privileges, its Leader receiving the legal status and authority of a State-Director, with the rank of State-Secretary. The special antipathy of the Government was reserved for Serbs and Jews. All the Serbian primary schools were closed, and thousands of Serbs in the country were massacred in the course of the year. In January some 9,000 Jews were expelled from Zagreb, and in April Marshal Kvaternik, the head of the Croatian Army, boasted that of a Jewish population of 35,000 only 6,000 remained, and these were in labour camps.

With all its efforts the Pavelitch Government failed to win the confidence of the mass of the people. This was due partly to its own tyranny and corruption, partly to the heavy burden imposed on the country's resources by the German and Italian

occupation. It was stated at the beginning of the year that 125 million dinars a month was being contributed to the upkeep of the German occupation troops. Both food and clothing became very scarce among the population. The masses still followed the guidance of their former leader, Dr. Matchek, who had remained in the country after the occupation, and who steadily refused to co-operate with the Axis Powers.

In September great unrest broke out in the country. An attempt was made on the life of Pavelitch, and 100 persons were executed as " Communist " conspirators, though really they were all Catholics and Nationalist Croats. About the same time twenty Croat hostages were put to death for the murder of a German officer by persons unknown. Air Marshal Lohr, the new Commander of the German forces in the Balkans, paid a long visit to Dr. Matchek and tried to persuade him to take office, but without success. Hitler thereupon summoned Pavelitch to Germany and ordered him to reconstruct his Government, which he did, getting rid among others of Marshal Kvaternik.

In Serbia an attempt by the puppet Premier Neditch to raise a Serbian Army at the end of 1941 proved a fiasco, and at the beginning of 1942 the insurgents under General Mihailovitch gained several successes in South-Western Serbia. The Germans thereupon in February drafted fresh forces into the country and compelled the insurgents to remain on the defensive. On April 2 the Germans issued an ultimatum to General Mihailovitch, stating that if he did not surrender within five days the members of his family and those of the other commanders would be taken as hostages and held responsible for their activities. No notice was taken of this threat. Throughout the year the execution of hostages was carried out relentlessly by the Germans and their Allies. In April seven out of the eight German divisions in Yugoslavia were replaced by Bulgarians, who behaved if anything even more cruelly ; they announced that for every Bulgarian soldier killed 170 Serbs would be executed, and for every officer killed a whole village or town would be destroyed. Several towns and villages were in fact laid waste in the course of the year. The Serbian resistance, however, so far from being crushed, became stronger and better organised. It was stated by the Yugoslav Government in London on August 25 that there was a well-organised guerrilla army in Yugoslavia consisting of between 80,000 and 150,000 chetniks, under the command of regular officers. There was also a smaller force of Communists, or pro-Russians, besides other bands, which all acted independently. Between them they kept pinned down in Yugoslavia about thirty Axis divisions. The Germans and their Allies revenged themselves for their ill-success on the civilian population, whom they treated with the utmost barbarity.

In Montenegro also, there was fighting throughout the year.

In Slovenia, which had been brought directly under German and Italian rule from the first, there was much underground resistance, and the inhabitants were treated with great harshness, many thousands being deported and several villages being razed or burnt. In a message which he broadcast on November 2 General Mihailovitch asserted that nearly a million Yugoslavs had been killed in the struggle with the invaders, and that entire portions of Serbia and Slovenia were in flames and ruins. In the Backa region, however, the Hungarians adopted a more tolerant attitude, and their intelligentsia openly expressed regret for the excesses committed in 1941, as being unworthy of a civilised people.

On January 15 an Agreement for the constitution of a Balkan Union was concluded between the Yugoslav and Greek Governments in London. [See under Public Documents.] Co-ordination was to be established in the political, economic, and military spheres, and the adhesion in the future of other Balkan States was hoped for. On January 12 General Simovitch resigned the Premiership and was replaced by M. Yovanovitch, while General Mihailovitch, who was fighting in Yugoslavia, was nominated Minister of War. A further reconstruction of the Ministry took place at the end of the year. On September 2 it was announced that the Legations in Russia and the United States would be raised to the rank of Embassies.

TURKEY

Turkey found no occasion during 1942 to modify her policy of neutrality in regard to the World War. In the words of her Prime Minister, when addressing the Grand National Assembly on August 5, Turkey had contractual or actual relations with States in both the opposing camps, and her attitude would be equally friendly and loyal towards those States. Her Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain, he added, was an expression of reality itself and constituted a fundamental factor in Turkish policy ; but another clear and loyal demonstration of her policy of neutrality was shown in her pact with Germany, which reaffirmed the mutual understanding and friendship existing between the two countries. That the sympathies of the Turkish people as a whole were with the democracies there was no reason to doubt, and by November 1, at the opening of the fourth session of the Sixth Grand National Assembly, the course of events enabled President Inonu to make it clear that, in spite of neutrality, Turkey leaned to the principles of the Atlantic Charter rather than to those of Germany's New Order. A political institution based on the domination of one side, he declared, could be neither established nor maintained; " the opportunity for all nations, great or small, to live independent

and self-respecting will be recognised even after these cruel struggles, and the adoption of that ideal, which is the essential principle of our policy, will fill us with joy."

The growing discomfiture of Germany as the year progressed would "have brought greater satisfaction to the Turks, if it had not been due to such a preponderant extent to the success of Russian arms. The first reaction of the Turkish Government to German reverses on the Eastern Front had been the tightening up of its defence against Axis propaganda. More than a dozen Axis agents suspected of conducting an espionage organisation in Iraq, Syria, and Persia were arrested in January, and the importation of two German propagandist papers was prohibited ; in August four Italians were condemned to death for espionage. British efforts to create in the mind of the Turkish Government greater confidence in Soviet policy appeared at one time to be producing a more cordial atmosphere in Turco-Russian relations, but Anti-Soviet prejudice was being sedulously fostered by Germany, and various incidents gave both Government and people occasion to question the sincerity of Russian intentions. Four Turkish ships were sunk at different times by unidentified submarines in the Black Sea, and although the fact that none was carrying goods for Germany suggested the equal probability of a Rumanian assailant, the suspicion remained that the sinkings might have been due to Soviet vessels. A more serious strain on Turco-Soviet relations was imposed by an attempt, on February 24, to assassinate the German Ambassador, von Papen, in Ankara. A bomb exploded within a few yards of Herr and Frau von Papen, who were knocked down by the blast. The man who threw the bomb, alleged to have been a Yugoslav Communist, was killed. Of the four men arrested for complicity in the plot, two who were Soviet subjects were sentenced to twenty years' penal servitude, while the other two, both Turks, received sentences of ten years each. The Court admitted in its judgment the lack of positive proof, but added that it was conscientiously convinced that the accused men had conspired to assassinate the Ambassador. Considerable resentment over the verdict was shown in Russia, where any connexion with the affair had been strenuously denied during the four months that had elapsed between the attempt and the passing of the sentences. The two Russian suspects had taken refuge in the first instance in the Soviet Consulate in Istanbul, but had been handed over to stand their trial. Umbrage was felt in Turkey over the Russian attitude to the trial, and the Turkish Ambassador to Moscow was recalled on the plea of ill-health. A successor, however, was forthcoming on July 1, and left for Russia a month later, whereas the Soviet Ambassador was absent from Ankara for nearly four months, and did not return to his post until early in November. The closing weeks of the year saw an improvement

in Turco-Soviet relations to which the efforts of the two Ambassadors may have contributed, as well as the fact that the bomb trial was still *sub judice* in that, after being quashed by the Supreme Court, it was pending before the Criminal Court in Ankara.

In spite of transport difficulties and the growing shortage of shipping British trade with Turkey continued to show steady progress during the year. By the end of May Turkey had received from Great Britain two destroyers, and two submarines, of the four ships of each type ordered in 1939, in addition to tanks, aeroplanes, rolling-stock, and foodstuffs. For the first six months of 1942 Turkish imports from the sterling group, apart from war material, amounted to 15,000,000/. as compared with 3,600,000/. during a period of eight months in 1940. On January 14 a contract was signed with the United Kingdom Commercial Corporation for the building of a jetty 500 yards long at Alexandretta and for the completion of one at Mersina.

In support of its protestations of goodwill towards the Turks, as well as to offset the expansion of Anglo-Turkish trade, the German Government entered into fresh economic agreements with Turkey. Already, between February and April trade delegations from Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Hungary had visited Ankara to negotiate Trade Agreements on a compensation basis, and in each case the condition insisted upon by the Turkish Government that Turkish products could be shipped only after the arrival in Turkey of goods to their equivalent value from these respective countries had been accepted. The negotiations with Germany took place in Berlin during June and July, when the Nazi Government undertook to place at the disposal of Turkey a credit of 100 million Reichsmarks for the purchase of war material, together with machinery and spare parts for Turkish industries ; a further Agreement arranged for the purchase by Turkey of rolling-stock and railway material to the value of 19,000,000/.T. Until the middle of June, it may be noted, trade between Germany and Turkey had been restricted by the severing of railway communication between Bulgaria and Turkey ; in that month the repairs to the line undertaken by the Germans were completed. The final details regarding the war material to be supplied under the new Turco-German Agreement, which was to implement the arrangement made in 1939 that had lapsed as a result of the Anglo-Turkish Alliance and the outbreak of the war, were not settled until December 31, when Germany, it was understood, agreed to supply tanks and other vehicles in sufficient quantity to equip an entire mechanised division. The credit was to be redeemed in ten years by yearly instalments of 12,500,000 Reichsmarks payable in Turkish products.

Although Turkey was able to keep out of the war, she could

not escape its economic effects. In March President İnönü warned his countrymen that the war would probably last a long time and pointed out that the Army had been practically mobilised since its beginning. In January military service was extended to three years ; men were called up at the age of 20, and liability for service lasted for twenty-six years. The country, although in a favourable position in regard to markets for its exports, found its imports handicapped by difficulties of transport, and a shortage of commodities resulted. As a sequel to mobilisation Turkey had become an importer of wheat on a serious scale. The cost of living early in the year had risen 60 per cent, since 1939. In January the rationing of bread at the rate of one-and-a-half pounds daily was introduced for labourers, but by May, in spite of the importation of 70,000 tons of wheat and flour, this ration had to be cut by one-half on alternate days. March saw an order issued for bread to be made as to 75 per cent, of wheat flour and 25 per cent, of maize flour ; at the same time the brewing of beer was reduced by 50 per cent., high-priced liqueurs and cigarettes were withdrawn from the market, and the sale of tea and coffee was prohibited temporarily for the purposes of stock-taking. The Government, under Dr. Saydam, resorted to an increasing number of restrictions with a view to meeting the growing stringency in the economic resources of the country, and it was found necessary to organise in the towns and villages " unions " of every two hundred houses to appoint a committee of five persons for the purpose of keeping the people informed of the regulations and to assist in the distribution of supplies. Few commodities escaped some form of control; goods disappeared from the shops, and bribery and black-market dealings on a large scale were rampant. In June, for the first time for twenty years, disorders arising from food shortage were reported.

On July 8 the death was announced of the Prime Minister, Dr. Saydam. He was succeeded by M. Sarajoglu, who, as Foreign Minister, had negotiated the Anglo-Turkish Alliance. One of the first steps taken by the new Prime Minister was to reverse his predecessor's economic policy ; the tight control exercised by the State on foodstuffs and other essential commodities was relaxed. Government was empowered to purchase only 50 per cent, of the grain crop on large farms, 35 per cent, on medium-sized farms, and 25 per cent, on small farms ; its buying prices were increased by 50 per cent., and farmers were allowed to sell all the remainder at any price they could obtain. Before the end of the year the resultant yet further rise in the cost of living and the economic situation in general caused the Government to introduce a "tax on wealth," which was officially described as a revolutionary step to protect Turkish economy from collapse, and at the same time to meet the urgent financial needs of the country. The tax, according to the official explanatory statement,

was to serve three ends : to provide necessary revenue and prevent inflation ; to curb profiteering and tax evasion ; and to supply much-needed labour. In regard to the lack of labour, the statement continued, between 5,000 and 10,000 workmen were urgently needed for works essential for national defence, and the Government expected to obtain them from classes of salaried people who might be unable to pay the tax. The law, when its details were ultimately made known, would, it was understood, tax war profits only ; in the case of business firms it would take into consideration profits made during 1941 and impose taxes amounting to from 50 to 70 per cent.

On December 25 the Eastern Pact, or the Pact of Saadabad, between Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan, and Iraq, signed on July 8, 1937, entered upon its second period of validity, until June 25, 1948, in virtue of the clause which provided for its automatic extension for five years, if none of the signatories denounced it six months before it was due to expire. On February 19 a Turkish *Halkevi*, or " People's House," was opened in London; it was the first to be instituted outside Turkey, where already several hundreds serve as centres of education and cultural activity. The British Council was responsible for the opening in Ankara of a Book Exhibition and later, in June, of an exhibition of photographic enlargements, drawings, and diagrams forming a comprehensive survey of the British educational system. Early in the summer the Nazi Government invited a delegation of Turkish delegates to visit Germany ; in September another delegation visited England, subsequently leaving by air for the United States, in each case on the invitation of the respective Government. On his appointment as Prime Minister on July 9, M. Sarajoglu retained the Portfolio of Foreign Affairs and reconstructed the Cabinet with only two changes, in the Ministries of Commerce and Agriculture. In August M. Menemenjoglu became Foreign Minister, and M. Recip Peker was appointed Minister of the Interior on the death of Dr. Fikri Tuzer. A Japanese naval mission under Admiral Nomura visited Turkey in September, and was in Istanbul while Mr. Wendell Willkie, on a special governmental mission from the United States, was in Ankara.

GREECE

For Greece in the throes of Italian and German occupation the dominant features of 1942 were the tragic dearth of food and the growing resistance of the people to their oppressors. Already in 1941 international arrangements had had to be made for the importation of foodstuffs to mitigate the stark privation caused by the German requisitioning of crops and stores, and throughout the year under review reports of the steadily mounting

numbers of deaths from starvation emphasised the necessity of amplifying the measures so far adopted for the relief of the starving population. At the end of February the Greek Government in London stated that, according to the International Red Cross, some 40,000 persons had died from famine or malnutrition in the last three months of 1941 and January, 1942. A later estimate in December put the number of deaths from hunger during the fifteen months of Axis occupation at 100,000 out of a population of one million in Athens and the Piraeus. On April 21 it was announced in the House of Commons that the Swedish Government had declared itself willing to place Swedish tonnage at the disposal of the parties interested, and that the Governments of Great Britain, Canada, and the United States had immediately declared their readiness to authorise monthly shipments of 15,000 tons of wheat or flour from Canada to Greece. Until the consent of the German and Italian Governments to this scheme had been secured, the previous shipments of food from Turkey would be continued. The necessary arrangements were finally completed by the end of June, and by the middle of December the Swedish Red Cross was able to announce that Swedish ships had carried 76,000 tons of Canadian wheat and 3,000 tons of other commodities to Greece. On September 9 the Greek Government in London stated that the sum of 1,849,1602. had been spent up to that date on food relief in Greece, and that in addition the Vanderbilt Committee of New York had spent 1,500,000 dollars for the same purpose. The serious shortage in some of the Greek islands led to an arrangement in May—to which the agreement of the Axis Governments was secured—for the special despatch of 500 tons of foodstuffs to Chios, Mytilene, Samos, and Nikaria, to be distributed under the supervision of a delegate in Turkey of the International Red Cross. In Greece itself the puppet Government of M. Tsolakoglu was reported to be trying to increase production by directing the surplus population of the towns back to the country to meet the shortage of agricultural labour. Uncultivated fields were rendered liable to confiscation; Greek peasants had to deliver 25 per cent, of their produce to the Government and the remainder could be sold only to the Agricultural Bank or other agricultural concerns. Towards the end of the year it was understood that both Italy and Germany had felt obliged to send consignments of grain to Greece. In the meantime there had been a steady drain of Greek labour to Germany, part of it on a nominally voluntary basis and part compulsory.

Guerrilla warfare was waged uninterruptedly throughout the year. At first it was prominent mainly in Macedonia, where bands aggregating five thousand men, based on the Rhodope Mountains, were reported to be active in the districts of Salonika,

Xanthi, Drama, and Kavalla, engaged in the cutting of communications with Bulgaria. Other bands operated from Mt. Olympus and Mt. Parnassus, as well as in the Peloponnese, among them being a certain number of British soldiers. As the result of one successful ambush of a train near Mt. Parnassus (among the many that took place during the year) it was stated that 300 British prisoners had been released and had joined the guerrillas. On another occasion as many as a thousand Germans were reported to have been killed by the derailing of a troop train in the Salonika district. In Crete, too, British troops who had failed to be evacuated were to be found co-operating with Greek insurgents. In view of the importance of this island to the Axis campaign in Libya the guerrilla warfare was particularly embarrassing to the Germans and evoked savage reprisals. Over 3,000 Cretans were said to have been executed during the first nine months of the year. Sabotage had also broken out in Athens, where the University had been closed owing to what was described as the undisciplined behaviour of the students ; one bomb exploded in the Italian camp in one of the suburbs and another, in September, had wrecked the Nazi headquarters in the capital, leading to the arrest, in reprisal, of nearly two thousand persons, of whom over a score were executed. In the latter part of the year the Germans took over the defence of the Greek coasts and ports, the Italians, who had previously been in charge of these districts, being transferred to the Dodecanese or back to Italy. A military train conveying ammunition and some 700 Italian troops was derailed early in December as a result of sabotage, the ammunition exploding and many of the soldiers being killed. About the same time Greek bands blew up a railway bridge at Gorgopotamos near Lamia ; in reprisal, the Germans shot more than 300 Greeks and burned part of Lamia.

During the early summer the King of the Hellenes and his Prime Minister, M. Tsouderos, were absent from London on a tour that took them to Egypt, Palestine, the United States, and Canada. On June 15 King George addressed Congress in Washington. The purpose of the visit was to establish more complete understanding between Greek communities overseas and the legitimate Greek Government in London, which had left Greece when the country was overrun and had taken refuge on British territory. The Government was reconstructed at the beginning of May, when M. Canellopoulos, one of the younger Greek politicians of progressive views, who had shortly before escaped from Greece to Egypt, where half the Greek Cabinet was domiciled, was appointed Deputy Prime Minister, and Admiral Kavadias Under-Secretary for the Navy, in succession to Admiral Sakellariou, the former Deputy Prime Minister, who now became Commander-in-Chief of the Greek Navy. Shortly afterwards M. Simopoulos,

who had combined the posts of Ambassador in London and Under-Secretary of Foreign Affairs, handed over the latter portfolio to M. Agnidis. In Cairo M. Tsouderos found occasion to speak of the King's desire and his own to broaden the popular representation of the Government. His Government, he added, considered itself for the duration of the war the custodian of the freedom and domination of the Greek people, and, when Greece within her new frontiers was in a position to put her house in order, the Greek people would have the final say in determining the conditions of its new life. In June M. Canellopoulos became Minister of Defence, remaining in Egypt until he came to London in October. In November M. Agnidis succeeded, as Greek Ambassador in London, M. Simopoulos who had died earlier in the year. The diplomatic missions of Great Britain and Greece in the respective countries were raised in May to the rank of Embassies, and those of the United States and Greece in September. On August 18 Sir Michael Palairret presented his credentials as the first British Ambassador to Greece to King George I I, and on October 30 Mr. Drexel Biddle was accredited the first American Ambassador to Greece.

The puppet Government in Greece maintained an uneasy existence under its first leader, M. Tsolakoglu, its merits being regarded by the German and Italian authorities in Greece with conflicting views. By April most of the original members were reported to have resigned, and portfolios were gradually accumulated in the hands of two or three Ministers, the most active of whom was M. Kotzamanis, who at one time held six Ministries. No successor to M. Tsolakoglu agreeable to both the occupying Powers could be discovered, but when his resignation, on the plea of ill-health, was finally announced in November, M. Logothetopoulos, reputed to be a whole-hearted supporter of the Nazis, was appointed Prime Minister.

The Greek Government in London entered into a number of important agreements during 1942. On January 15 was signed the Greek-Yugoslav Agreement, which in the expectation of the signatories was to serve as the basis of a Union of all the Balkan States. [See under Public Documents.] The two Governments, for the purposes of their own co-operation, established three main "organs of the Union"—one political, to co-ordinate foreign policies, one economic and financial, and the third military, to arrange for common defence and common types of armament. A permanent Secretariat was to co-ordinate the work of the three organs. While the two Governments undertook to carry out preparatory work, it was recognised that the Agreement could not be ratified until after the war. It remains to be seen whether Turkey and the other potential members of a Balkan Union will wish to be adherents of a Greek-Yugoslav Pact rather than the original founders of

a Union in the elaboration of which the six countries concerned will have played their part on an equal footing in a joint conference. An Agreement between Greece and Great Britain was signed on March 1, relative to the organisation and employment of the Greek armed forces, the air arm of which was already in action in the Libyan campaign in February. The two Governments agreed that among the objects of the war were " the complete liberation of Greece and the re-establishment of her freedom and independence/' and that the Greek armed forces should be maintained and supplied by Great Britain on a lease-lend basis. A similar Lease-Lend Agreement between the United States and Greek Governments was signed on July 10. On January 1 Greece had adhered to the Declaration by the United Nations signed in Washington, endorsing the principles of the Atlantic Charter and pledging the signatories not to make a separate peace or armistice with the enemies ; on January 13 she was party to the declaration issued by a conference of some of the Allies in London on the subject of atrocities and war criminals.

BULGARIA

Throughout 1942 the major preoccupation of King Boris and his Government appeared to be to ward off or to minimise the worst consequences of their decision of March 1, 1941, to enrol Bulgaria as a satellite of Germany. Upon the Prime Minister, M. Filoff, devolved the task of protesting in public the whole-hearted devotion of the country to the Axis cause. Thus, on March 28, he announced in Parliament that Bulgaria, now in a state of war with all its risks and dangers, was ready for all sacrifices, and on September 15 he declared that all the national forces of Bulgaria must take up the fight against Bolshevism. The earlier statement was made on the return of King Boris from a visit to Hitler's headquarters (March 28), the purpose of which, in view of the previous threats emanating from Berlin that the Bulgarians could not expect to keep their territorial acquisitions unless they made a more effective contribution to the war against Russia, was understood to be to counter the German demand for Bulgarian co-operation in the Russian campaign. The subsequent course of events suggested that King Boris had succeeded in his mission ; for all the bellicose words of her Prime Minister, Bulgaria sent no forces to the Russian front, either during the summer offensive that took the Germans to Stalingrad or in the later series of reverses for German arms. On the other hand, the greater part of the German troops that had been in occupation of the Bulgarian and Greek frontiers with Turkey, of Bulgarian airfields, and of various key positions were withdrawn, and Bulgaria took over extended duties in the policing of Serbia and the Greek districts

that had been allotted to her. At the same time the German economic grip on the country was tightened, and King Boris and his Government began to give evidence of greater Nazi zeal than they had done previously. Anti-Jewish measures on approved Nazi lines were drawn up for later application, and arrests and executions of so-called Communists increased. In the Occupied territories of Greece the process of Bulgarisation was intensified; Greek schools were closed, Greek tobacco workers were replaced by Bulgarians, and it was reported that Greeks had been deported to Bulgaria for forced labour.

If the German authorities were prepared to accept the strong Russophil leanings of the Bulgarian people and the symptoms of unrest in the country as a cogent argument against Bulgaria's military participation in the Russian campaign, they were resolved, in exchange, to extract the greatest possible advantages from the economic dependence of the vassal State. The reconstruction of the Cabinet on April 11, brought about by the resignation of the Foreign Minister, who with other Ministers resented the humiliating position in which the country found itself, was utilised to bring into the Government those who could be relied upon to further the economic policy dictated from Berlin. While German business men were gradually concentrating in their own hands a large part of the trade of the country, the Bulgarian Government was obliged to assume direct control of the principal foodstuffs in order to strike some balance between the growing discontent over the food situation at home and the fulfilment of German demands. The harvest, with the exception of the potato crop, was reported to be poor ; but, although prices rose, there was no evidence of the food situation being at any time acute.

The marked growth of restlessness in the country as the year progressed was probably to be accounted for by the cumulative effect of the turning of the tide in Russia, the repressive measures of the Bulgarian Government and of the German Gestapo, whose numbers in the country increased, and the general deterioration in the position of the Axis Powers, rather than by any actual shortage of food. From May onwards reports of " Communist " activities, arrests and mass executions became more and more frequent. In June General Zainoff was sentenced to death on the charge of espionage on behalf of Russia, and the following month the number of persons arrested in a single district was stated to have run into thousands. Early in September an attempt was made at Skoplye (Southern Serbia) to assassinate M. Gabrovski, Minister of the Interior, who was credited with " being the chief agent in the Cabinet for carrying into execution German policy, of the advantages of which to Bulgaria the Prime Minister was the fervent exponent. In keeping with the growing resentment against German tutelage

Bulgarian treatment of the Serbs, which at first was marked by great ruthlessness, improved and gradually gave place to attempts at fraternisation; in some parts of Macedonia Serb insurgents were supplied by aeroplane with food and ammunition. Meanwhile acts of sabotage in State works, mines, and war factories continued, and disturbances in Sofia itself led to the proclamation of a state of siege before the year was out. Students were among those affected by the general unrest, and during December the Sobranje was called upon to sanction the infliction of the death penalty on minors for spreading subversive ideas in schools. Already in October it had been reported that twenty-two students had been sentenced to death by court martial for acts of sabotage against railway tracks and objects of military importance.

The equivocal position of King Boris and his Government caused Turkey to keep watch on her relations with Bulgaria, which were regulated outwardly by the Non-Aggression Pact of February, 1941. Although the official attitude of the Bulgarian Government was correct,* the Turks had reason to suspect a tendency in Bulgaria, not wholly restricted to German agents, to exacerbate feeling between the two peoples. Thus in Macedonia patriotic celebrations of the Macedonian rising against the Turks in 1903 were encouraged, and in August a decree was issued declaring that mosques would be tolerated only in towns and villages of which at least 20 per cent, of the population was Moslem. On June 5 a Turco-Bulgarian Agreement was signed in Ankara regulating technical matters arising out of the resumption of railway communications between the two countries. In this connexion the Bulgarian Government claimed that a stretch of Greek territory south of Svilengrad should be regarded as within the Bulgarian border and, for that reason, should be excluded from Turkish railway control, in contradistinction to two other stretches which came under Turkish administration as part of the railway line from Uzun Kopru to the Bulgarian frontier. When the Turkish Government refused to take any step that would amount to recognition of the annexation of Greek territory, and was apparently supported in its attitude by Germany, Bulgaria gave way.

The Bulgarian attitude to Russia during 1942 may be regarded, on the other hand, as having been more directly influenced by German pressure. In spite of the fact that Bulgaria was a signatory of the Tripartite and Anti-Comintern Pacts, diplomatic relations between the two countries were maintained. At the end of March, on the return of King Boris from his visit to Hitler, the Prime Minister in a speech to the Sobranje delivered an attack on the Soviet Government. On September 15 Bulgarian police raided the Russian Consulate at Varna. The Moscow authorities had already, on September 7, notified the Bulgarian Government of their decision to close the Consulate ;

but the police raid was followed by a statement in a Berlin radio broadcast that the closure had been the result of Bulgarian insistence as a result of the compromising documents discovered during the raid—a statement formally denied by the Soviet Government on September 24.

CHAPTER V

LESSER STATES OF WESTERN AND NORTHERN EUROPE : BELGIUM
— NETHERLANDS — SWITZERLAND — SPAIN — PORTUGAL —
DENMARK—SWEDEN—NORWAY—FINLAND

BELGIUM

THE Belgian people in 1942 continued steadfastly to refuse all participation in the "New Order" which the Germans tried to force on them. In June King Leopold was "invited" by Ribbentrop to constitute a collaborationist Government headed by Leon Degrelle, under threat that otherwise there would be no improvement in the wretched food situation. This was in truth desperate; in October the Swedish Committee for the Relief of Belgian Children described the conditions as being as bad as, if not worse than, those in Greece. Whereas in 1914-18 the ration standard laid down by the Commission for Relief in Belgium was 2,230 calories, in 1942 the rations allowed by the Germans were equivalent to 1,380 calories for adults and 1,450 calories for children and adolescents. Nevertheless, the German invitation was not accepted. The workers, of whom over a million were at the beginning of the year engaged in German war industry, showed the same spirit by committing frequent acts of sabotage, which brought down upon them savage reprisals from the German authorities. On August 18 Brussels University was closed because of the hostility of the professors to the "New Order."

Industrial conscription for work either in Belgium or in Germany was introduced on October 10 for all men between 18 and 50, and all unmarried women between 21 and 39. A protest was raised against the decree by the Belgian Government in London, but before many weeks had passed thousands of young workers had been sent for forced labour to Germany and Norway. In November between five and fifteen trainloads of deportees left daily for Germany. At the same time deportations of Jews were carried out on a large scale, and extensive evacuations of civilians took place from a defence line along the coast about 12 miles deep. The city of Bruges became full of refugees.

In September M.M. Delfosse, de Schrijver and Balthazar, who had been respectively Ministers of Communications, Economic Affairs, and Labour at the time of the German invasion, arrived in London to join the Belgian Government. M. Delfosse became

Minister of Justice, M. de Sohrijver was entrusted with an economic mission to the United States, and M. Balthazar went on a mission to the I.L.O. in Canada. On October 2 M. Pierlot took over the Portfolio of National Defence from M. Gutt, who, however, remained Minister of Finance and Economic Affairs.

It was stated in December that the number of secret newspapers disseminated in Belgium had increased from 78 in 1941 to 132, with a total circulation of 500,000.

The people presented a united front against the enemy and against the Belgian quislings—a small gang led by a few disreputable politicians, adventurers, and journalists. The population received strong moral support from the patriotic attitude of the clergy, leading intellectuals, the secret newspapers, and the teaching profession. The magistracy struggled to safeguard the national laws, which were infringed at every point by a flood of German decrees.

The total cost of the occupation in the thirty months ended December, 1942, amounted to the enormous sum of 123,000,000,000 francs (984,000,000l. at the pre-war rate), or twice as much as the whole public debt in the 110 years of the country's independent existence. The operation of the Belgo-German clearing account left a matter of 20,000,000,000 francs (160,000,000*.) to the credit of Belgium, but the Germans refused to settle the account even by setting it off against the war contributions.

On June 16 the Governments of the United States and Belgium signed an Agreement for reciprocal assistance *in* the conduct of the war.

The Belgian Government continued its efforts in the Congo, whose contribution to the war increased throughout the year. There was an expansion of trade with Great Britain, and economic relations with the United States underwent considerable development after the conclusion of the Lease-Lend Agreement in June. Essential oils, beeswax, and other Colonial products not hitherto exported to the United States now found a market there. Much of the copper and tin output of the Congo was also sent to the United States for smelting. Purchases by the Congo included American chemical products, machinery and various industrial equipment,* preserves, and ready-made clothes. The Congo stimulated the development of its great natural resources, its man-power, and the mobilisation of its financial assets.

THE NETHERLANDS

The year 1942 brought a new tribulation to the Dutch people in the conquest of her Far Eastern territories by Germany's partner, Japan. The oppression of the mother country also became more agonising and brutal. Yet this small nation continued to maintain with unabated spirit, both in Holland and in

the Butch East Indies, its life-and-death struggle with its giant enemies.

While following with tense anxiety the news of events in the Netherlands East Indies in January, the people in Holland had to face a threat of the Nazification of their country by the appointment of the Dutch Nazi Leader, Mussert, as Chief of State. The appointment, at this time, of the Norwegian Quisling to be Head of the Government in Norway lent additional force to this threat. It was not submitted to passively. During the night of February 17 time-bombs exploded in Nazi centres in Amsterdam and wrecked some buildings. The Germans understood the meaning of this demonstration, and although severe reprisals were taken, no Quisling Government was established in Holland.

The German military authorities wished to avoid creating restiveness amongst the population, as this would put an additional strain on the German garrisons, much depleted through the sending of troops to Russia, and, moreover, would cause a decline in production. A sign of the urgent need of Germany for every ounce she could squeeze out of the Dutch was the fact that all current coins were withdrawn and replaced by zinc ones. The systematic and barefaced plunder of the country went on, causing terrible hardships during the cold winter months. Hatred against the oppressor and his Dutch Nazi henchmen grew fiercer than ever, and a plot was hatched, to be put into execution, if possible, on May 10, the second anniversary of the German invasion of Holland. But the plot was discovered, and in the early days of May the execution of altogether 96 Dutchmen was announced by the Germans, and in addition 460 hostages were taken—all persons well known in Dutch public life—and 2,500 former officers of the Dutch Army were arrested and imprisoned. So serious was the situation held to be by the Germans that the notorious Heydrich was installed at The Hague, while Himmler, Chief of the Gestapo, also went to Holland a week later. The situation was also considered at many conferences held in The Hague and in Berlin, at which a turning-point in German policy towards Holland seemed to have been reached.

For two years the Germans had tried to win the Dutch for the Nazi cause by a show of friendliness, harping on the theme of "Germanic brotherhood." They had reinforced their blandishments with threats and bullying, but they still hoped to win an obedient satellite. After two years of these vain efforts the conclusion was reached that the Dutch were a hopeless case and that a radically different policy towards them was needed. A scheme was evolved for settling in the Baltic States and in the Ukraine a large part of the Dutch population. Both short and long term aims of Germany would be served in this way. Dutch farmers and artisans would be of great value in the fertile but neglected areas of Eastern Europe and provide sorely-needed foodstuffs.

Butch skilled labour was wanted in **Germany proper**. Also,* the **Dutch** had proved too unreliable to leave in important positions on the North Sea coast. Another reason given by the Germans was that the Dutch as " Aryans " would form a "Blood Wall " against Slav penetration into Germany proper. Lastly, the Ruhr has always regarded the Dutch, living at the estuaries of the natural outlets of the industrial basin, as undesirable occupants of a territory which ought to be under strict German control, while the German Navy, having to protect an enormously expanded German Merchant Navy—to be based in the harbours along the North Sea—would require control of the coast.

According to Nazi calculations the Dutch population, which increased from 3,000,000 to 9,000,000 in the last hundred years, would increase by another 3,000,000 in the next hundred years. In view of the permanent loss of the Dutch East Indies, the only way of finding room for them would be by the emigration of 3,000,000 Dutchmen with their families to the " Eastland." The resettlement was to be carried out by the " East Company," founded at The Hague and headed by a notorious Dutch Quisling, Rost van Tonningen, formerly Financial Commissar for Austria of the League of Nations, now also President of the Dutch Central Bank. This Company was provided with funds appropriated from Dutch firms with interests in the East Indies.

The bleeding-white of Holland began immediately with typical German thoroughness. From the beginning of May Jews were forced to wear a badge showing a yellow star, and on July 23 an organised deportation of Jews began. Every day 600 Dutch Jews aged between 18 and 45 were transported eastwards and their property was confiscated by the Nazis. There were altogether 180,000 Jewish citizens in Holland, and by the end of 1942 a third of them had probably been deported. About 500,000 Dutchmen were sent to work in Germany, only a few of whom went voluntarily. According to the latest official figures, published on April 1, when 230,000 Dutchmen were working in Germany, 60,000 were in the building trade, 25,500 in the metal industry, 21,000 in transport, 17,000 in farming, and 15,500 in the textile industry.

Another significant proof of the intention of the Germans not only to sap the strength of the Dutch people by the transfer of the more robust part of the nation abroad, but also to mix the weaker remainder with German blood, was a decree of Hitler, published on June 23, which aimed at encouraging marriages between the Dutch and the Germans. The purpose of the Order was stated to be the " preservation and furthering of the valuable German inheritance," and it gave privileges to illegitimate children of German soldiers. Mixing with " alien " races was forbidden, and a number of other " racial " prescriptions were **laid down**, all with **the** same intention, to reduce **the** status of the

Dutch people to that of a "Germanic" clan. Although they regarded the Dutch as more suitable for farming and industry, and although they were bent on destroying the Dutch seafaring character, the Nazis seemed willing to leave inland and coastal traffic to Dutch skippers. The Dutch Merchant Navy was now urged to "remember the glorious days of the Hansa," when Dutch ships plied in Scandinavian and Baltic waters, and parts of Dutch harbour installations were transferred to Baltic harbours.

In consequence of these trends of German policy the many acts of sabotage committed during the summer—always punished with executions, on one occasion with the execution of five hostages and the seizing of still more hostages—were all directed against the Germans, and less against the Dutch Nazis. Indeed, the Dutch Nazi Leader, Mussert, found difficulty in saving himself from being pushed into the background. He offered Hitler military and labour conscription in Holland as a bribe for his appointment as Chief of State, but he was always rebuffed and his disappointment became obvious in his speeches.

The autumn with the battles for Stalingrad and the landing in North Africa brought another startling change in German policy in Holland. Germany's passing "from the offensive to the defensive" led to the inclusion of Holland's coastal provinces in the gigantic defensive zone called "West Wall," stretching from Bergen to Biarritz, which was specially reinforced in Holland, Belgium, and the North of France. Maps showing the territory to be evacuated in due course—a coastal belt about 35 miles broad, including the towns of Utrecht, Amsterdam, Haarlem, The Hague, Rotterdam, and many more—appeared in the Dutch papers of October 22. It was explained that the belt was divided into a number of districts which were to be evacuated one after another. Often very short notice only was given, with the result that the population was reduced to an appalling state of nervousness by this culminating worry of Nazi occupation. Movement of population was rigorously restricted, no removals were allowed, treasured possessions were requisitioned, and a panicky "trek" started to the inland districts, where accommodation became very scarce and prices began to soar. The panic was overcome with difficulty, but by the end of the year some parts of the coast had already been evacuated completely and a number of houses had been demolished. Compensation, it was stated, would be paid "after the war." "Evacuation" had become a nightmare for the whole population in Holland at the end of 1942.

The Dutch Nazis threatened even more dramatic changes. Their share in the responsibility for the Dutch people's tragedy increased after December 13, when the eleventh anniversary of the founding of the Dutch Nazi Party was celebrated. Mussert was appointed "Führer" of the Dutch people. The title

however, was meaningless, since Seyss-Inquart, Reich Commissar for the Occupied territory, when announcing Mussert's appointment, made it clear that he would remain in supreme authority. But the Dutch Nazis were to be consulted concerning appointments of civil servants, which meant that the police would be completely Nazified—to keep the population under control—and that all judges would be replaced by Nazis.

It was also announced that the Dutch Nazi Party would see to it that Holland took a far greater part in Germany's struggle to dominate Europe, and a Dutch Nazi broadcaster said that Hitler wanted 100,000 Dutch volunteers on the Eastern Front. More labour for Germany's war factories was also wanted, while, to give only one instance of continued German plunder, the Dutch stock of cattle was to be halved during next year, when 40 per cent, of the meat would be sent to Germany. Long lists were also published of everyday commodities which would not be manufactured any longer and so would not be on sale any more. The state debt doubled to 1,000,000,000.2. and the floating debt rose from 221 million guilders in 1939 to 2,957 million guilders (nearly 400,000,000*.)

The Government in London.—As a result of the events in the N.E.I., important changes were made in the Government, which at the end of the year was made up as follows :—

Prime Minister and	Professor P. S. GBRBRANDY (Calvinist).
Co-ordination of Warfare	
Foreign Affairs	. Dr. E. N. VAN KLEFFENS (no party).
Home Affairs	. H. VAN BOBYEN (Calvinist).
Social Affairs	. Dr. J. VAN DEN TEMPEL (Socialist).
Communications	. J. W. ALBABDA (Socialist).
Education	. G. BOLKESTEIN (Liberal).
Justice	. J. R. M. VAN ANGEREN (Catholic).
Navy-	. Lieut-Admiral J. T. H. FURSTNER (no party).
War	. Jhr. O. C. A. VAN LIDTH DE JEXJDE (liberal).
Finance	. J. VAN DEN BROEK (no party).
Colonies	. Dr. I. L. J. VAN MOOK (no party).
Trade and Shipping	. P. A. KERSTENS (Catholic).
-Without Portfolio	. Jhr. E. F. M. J. MICHIELS VAN VBRDUYNEN (Catholic).

A moderate Nationalist Indonesian, Prince Ario Soejono, also appointed Minister without Portfolio in the Cabinet, died during the turn of the year. He was the first Indonesian Cabinet Minister ever appointed in the history of the Kingdom.

An Extraordinary Advisory Council was set up in London to advise the Government for the duration of the war. Meetings were held in secret and not all the names of the members were known. They were selected by the Government from persons prominent in political, economic, clerical, and professional life,

As a mark that the Netherlands Government, in spite of the temporary loss of the main part of the Netherlands Kingdom, was still recognised by them as representing an Allied nation

which was distinguishing itself in the struggle against the common enemy, the United States and Great Britain, on May 7, raised the status of the Diplomatic Mission of each Government to the rank of an Embassy.

Relations with Russia were put on an official basis on July 10, while the first Dutch Ambassador was appointed on December 9. A similar agreement was reached with China, where Holland so far has been represented by a Minister.

Queen Wilhelmina went in a special plane to Canada on June 18 to pay a state visit to Washington, this being her first flight in an aeroplane and her first visit to America. It coincided with the signing of a Lease-Lend Agreement between the United States and the Netherlands. Queen Wilhelmina's visit to Washington, where she addressed Congress on August 6, was a great success. President Roosevelt presented to her a submarine chaser under the provisions of the Lease-Lend Act as a tangible expression of American admiration for the Netherlands Navy. The Queen flew back and arrived in England on August 26, five days before her 62nd birthday, which was marked by a memorable celebration in the Albert Hall.

Prince Bernhard flew to Canada some time afterwards, in the last week of October, to tour the Dutch Territories in the Caribbean and South America. This was the first royal visit to the Dutch West Indies for more than a century, and was much appreciated.

THE NETHERLANDS EAST INDIES

During the first weeks of the war in the Far East the N.E.I. suffered only bombing raids, and it was not until January 11 that the Japanese invaded N.E.I. territory. The first landing was made on the rich oilfield island of Tarakan (North-East Borneo). Demolition was carried out by the small Dutch garrison, which then withdrew. The next day landings were made in the Minahassa (North Celebes). A big enemy convoy which, in spite of heavy losses, sailed through the Macassar Straits (between Borneo and Celebes) reached the important oil centre of Balikpapan (South-East Borneo) on January 24. Demolition had been completed two days previously. Soon the Japanese had taken possession of the few inhabited towns in Borneo and had also landed in South Celebes. The naval base of Amboyna (east of Celebes) was attacked on January 30 and taken in a few days. On February 10 the capital of Celebes, Macassar, fell, and on February 14 the important oil centre of Palembang in Central Sumatra was attacked with parachute and seaborne troops. In both towns vital installations were destroyed before occupation by the enemy. From Palembang the enemy struck south at Sunda Straits and at the same time the island of Bali, at the other extremity of Java, was occupied.

The battle in the Java Sea ended on Friday morning, February 27, with the destruction of the Allied Fleet. The Japanese made three landings on the north coast of Java and penetrated swiftly inland, supported by their Air Force, which had driven the Allied Air Force from the skies. On March 5 the capital, Batavia, fell, after the harbour installations, like those of the naval base of Surabaya, had been destroyed. Bandung (Headquarters) fell on March 8 and that date marked the end of the campaign, although it took the Japanese some time to occupy the majority of the islands of the archipelago, where guerrilla fighting continued for months.

In the period immediately following their victory the Japanese behaved badly and tried in every way to destroy the prestige of the white man. Conditions subsequently improved. Most Dutchmen between 16 and 60 were interned. The Governor-General, Jhr. Tjarda van Starkenborg Stachouwer, remained with his people. There was no evacuation of Dutchmen, apart from a dozen heads of certain Departments and the Lieutenant Governor-General, Dr. H. J. van Mook. The Commander-in-Chief, General Ter Poorten, also remained, but the Commander-in-Chief of the Navy, Admiral Helfrich, and the Commander-in-Chief of the Air Force, General Van Oyen, left with all their personnel which could be evacuated. Queen Wilhelmina subsequently declared that " thousands of men, Dutch and Indonesian " had been re-equipped and were in action in Australia and elsewhere.

The Japanese immediately started to repair the wholesale destruction inland and in harbours, but the results were negligible, especially in regard to oil. But a huge plunder began of other precious raw materials to be found in this wealthy land, only restricted by lack of shipping, transport, and harbour facilities.

The Japanese plan to convert the N.E.I. into a colony was obvious from many of their schemes. One was to start cotton plantations to feed the Japanese textile industry. The natives would then be forced to buy Japanese cotton goods. Very few Indonesians were found to act as Quislings, and they were not allowed to pose as leaders. In spite of all Japanese blandishments the Indonesian people kept very much aloof, and this compelled the Japanese to establish an administration with a large staff of Japanese officials, many more than were required by the Dutch, who used Indonesians for many responsible posts.

It goes without saying that the Japanese aimed at eradicating all vestiges of Dutch government as quickly as possible and replacing all Dutch institutions by Japanese. Since Japanese is such a difficult language, a simplified form was introduced, but without success.

SWITZERLAND

Switzerland in 1942 remained on friendly terms with the Axis Powers and of necessity retained her close economic ties with Germany. She continued, however, to maintain herself in the highest possible condition of military preparedness in order to meet a possible attack from that country. Speaking at a Press Conference in July, General Guisan, the Commander-in-Chief, stated that their neutrality remained the first condition for the maintenance of their vital relations with foreign countries, and their mobilisation was the proof that it would be defended by a well-prepared Army; and he dwelt on the need for more intensive training to meet surprise attacks. Though he did not mention Germany, that was obviously the one country from which Switzerland had anything to fear.

The Government was equally on the alert to suppress all activities within the country which might compromise Swiss neutrality or endanger Swiss independence. On May 7 a warning against subversive activities was issued to Nazis and Communists, and on the next day, sentences ranging from six years to six months were passed on a number of Swiss citizens accused of espionage on behalf of a foreign Power. On August 4 a Decree was passed providing that in future all citizens suspected of military espionage, or working against the State, would be tried by military courts, and that the circulation of "false rumours of a nature likely to disturb the population/" or the conducting of propaganda "harmful to Swiss neutrality" would be punishable offences. On September 28 the penalties for the latter offence were made more severe. On December 10 an attempt made by a Socialist Deputy to get this Decree rescinded was defeated in the Federal Assembly by 124 votes to 24. On September 26 two N.C.O.s were sentenced to death for espionage. On November 3 67 persons were charged at Zurich with subversive Communist activities, and 61 of them received sentences of up to two months imprisonment. On December 29 the Government suppressed a quasi-Fascist organisation called the *Eidgenössische Sammlung*.

The repressive policy of the Government was not carried so far as to interfere with the legitimate freedom of the Press. On August 28 it protested against the action of the Vichy Government in rescinding visas which had been granted to a group of Swiss journalists who desired to visit England to study conditions there, pointing out that in 1941 Swiss journalists had visited Germany for a similar purpose, and that equality in the presentation of news was a fundamental principle of Swiss journalism. On October 23 it protested even more vigorously against threats uttered by the Reich Press Chief against the Swiss Press on account of its criticism of Nazi-ism. This criticism was much more outspoken in the German than in the French section of the Press,

but there were limits to the forbearance of the latter also. When on October 27 the French censorship requested the Swiss papers circulating in France to make drastic changes in the announcements issued by the Allied Governments, they decided to stop their service to France rather than submit to such interference.

The accounts for 1941, presented on April 17, showed a deficit of 60 million francs on the ordinary expenditure. The amount spent on national defence was 1,317 million, of which only 475 million was covered by taxation. Economic conditions in the country continued to deteriorate in consequence of war conditions. Difficulties were placed in the way of the transit of goods for Switzerland both at Marseilles and Genoa, with the result that large stores of goods bought for the Swiss Government accumulated at these ports. Transport within the country was also interfered with by German demands for through traffic and for rolling stock (which, however, brought prosperity to the railways themselves). The cost of living continued to rise, and at the end of August was 42'3 points higher than in 1939. In the summer the farmers demanded an increase in the maximum prices for meat and milk. This was bitterly opposed by the urban population, and the Government effected an uneasy compromise by raising prices for the producers and offsetting the increase by subsidies.

On September 22 M. von Steiger, the Minister of Justice, informed the Nationalrat that at least 100,000 persons were trying to enter Switzerland from France, though in the opinion of the Government not more than 6,000 to 7,000 could find shelter there. Counting refugees admitted before September, 1939, there were now 9,600 in the country, and expenditure on them since the beginning of the war had amounted to about 1,000,000L., of which the Government had contributed 250,0002. In view of these considerations it was decided on October 3 that no more French refugees should be allowed to enter Switzerland "save in entirely exceptional cases/

On March 11 the International Red Cross at Geneva transmitted a telegram from the British Red Cross to the Japanese Red Cross asking for its intervention on behalf of prisoners in Hong-Kong. On December 8 the Swiss Government offered to act as intermediary between the British and German Governments to procure the unshackling of prisoners. On April 15 the Swiss Minister in London protested to the British Government against the breach of neutrality committed by British aeroplanes in flying over Switzerland during the nights of April 11 and 12. Similar protests in stronger terms were made on October 25 and November 24, and on December 9 the Minister was instructed to draw the British Government's attention to the necessity " of at least respecting assurances repeatedly given."

On December 17 Signor Enrico Cellini, a Conservative Catholic

from Ticino, was elected president of the Confederation for 1943. The 651st anniversary of the Swiss Confederation on August 1 was celebrated quietly, and was not observed this year as a public holiday.

SPAIN

Although still spared the actual horrors of war Spain during 1942 was a profoundly unhappy country. Because of the intimate connexion between her Civil War and Hitler's bid for domination over all Europe, the real interests of the Spanish people were bound to be submerged in the maelstrom. What is more, the shadow of invasion—the threat of becoming once more a battle-field—loomed larger as the war itself took on an ever greater resemblance to the Napoleonic campaigns. Outwardly General Franco's regime might appear to be efficiently husbanding the dynamic force of the "national revolution" and laying the foundations for the exploitation of Spain's rich resources in happier times. Of the ascendancy of the *OeneraUsimo* himself there was certainly no question; and he was still earning the world's admiration for his skilful tight-rope act both in the domestic and international sphere. But below the surface—and indeed at times patently for all the world to see—there was misery and despair; in the spring of 1942 a British engineer on his return from a business visit reported that "the plight of the ordinary people is worse than that of any of the Occupied countries of Europe—with the possible exception of Greece." Economic conditions showed a marked improvement later in the year, but unity or cohesion seemed as far off as ever.

One platform alone subsisted on which the disparate elements of the "new Spain" could come together. All were united on the desirability of "keeping out of the war," and so General Franco's foreign policy was deservedly popular. That he missed no opportunity of exploiting the position of non-belligerency assumed after the collapse of France must be conceded: with the continual invocation of the totalitarian gospel, however, and the recruitment of Spaniards to go and fight for Hitler in Russia, his policy could not possibly deserve the name of neutrality. (A piquant commentary on the peculiar situation was provided by the splitting up of the regular New Year's Day Diplomatic Corps reception ceremony into two functions. Turkey, Switzerland and, surprisingly, France, were among those whose representatives were included with the British and American Ambassadors; Sweden and Eire, on the other hand, were with the Axis representatives.)

To understand General Franco's difficulties and preoccupations in Spanish internal affairs it is necessary to bear in mind certain facts peculiar to Spain. First must be recorded the national characteristic of refusal to compromise. Because of that intransigence, during 1942, as in 1941 and 1940, there was not the slightest

sign of any reconciliation of the regime with the millions of ordinary Spaniards who, though politically inactive, maintained their allegiance to the Republic. Moreover, as sharp a cleavage as ever was to be observed between the conservative property-owning classes, only anxious to get back where the thread of history was snapped by the advent of the Republic in 1931, and the social-revolutionary elements of the *Falange*. The former, including the Church, the Army, and the paladins of rural feudalism or industry, have been typically Spanish in their inclination to concentrate on safeguarding their own group-interests and letting the public interest go hang. But the point to be particularly noted is that neither upper nor middle-class leaders nor *Falange* stalwarts succeeded in securing any mass backing: Fascism of the German or Italian kind had just not taken root in Spain. General Franco admitted this quite frankly in the words he used in a speech on the occasion of a visit to Montserrat on January 20: "We have a Chief. We have an Army. What we need is a people. . . ."

Obviously, this failure to evoke any enthusiasm for the "revolution" and the obstinate factionalism of Spaniards were the subject of grave concern and distress to the *Gaudillo*. Thus it was that, during the year, he took time off from affairs of State whenever he could to go speechifying on this theme of the need for national unity. In Madrid on March 28, for instance, he orated:

Solidarity is necessary to save Spain and ensure her greatness. Among well-disposed people solidarity is called forth by force of reason, but on the ill-disposed it will be imposed by reason of force. Spaniards, follow this road; open your hearts to hope! Thrust aside intrigues and calumnies. . . .

Unity was the *leitmotif* of all the speeches made on the occasion of the tour through Catalonia and Aragon in January celebrating the third anniversary of the capture of those provinces in the Civil War. The other theme on which he laid stress was the important rôle assigned to the *Falange* as the "backbone of the Government"—"the only basis on which the Spanish regime will be built." This illustrated better than anything the tragic dilemma. The *Falange*—the imitation-Fascist Party, ostensibly enjoying the same ascendancy as its German and Italian counterparts—showed itself to be, so to speak, an association of "frothblowers"—and no one is more conscious of this than the *Gaudillo* himself. Yet General Franco was compelled, in the absence of any other political support, to translate into legal terms the *de facto* domination of the *Falange* which was the legacy of the Civil War. At the same time he made no bones about speaking himself the *Falange* idiom, because he knew it would find favour in Berlin and also because it chimed well enough with his own clerical-reactionary and anti-democratic leanings. The *Falange*

leaders played up to him. Thus Jose Luna, deputy-secretary of the party, in a speech threatening all kinds of violent measures against the Jews, did not fail to acclaim General Franco as the Leader whom alone they were bound to follow. He is indeed the national leader, like Hitler or Mussolini, and no less identified with the ideology of the party : a fact which can with difficulty be squared with the British official policy of " appeasement."

Through Senor Serrano Sufier, Foreign Minister, and the Press Attaché at the German Embassy, Abel Lazar, the Nazis were able to maintain their hold over the press and radio. A version of events in the war palatable to the Axis was therefore the only one the average Spaniard was likely to get. But news gets through, sooner or later, and the Government found itself unable to conceal the fiasco of the Blue Division in the winter campaign in Russia. Official (but unpublished) figures gave the casualties as 8,000 out of a total of 14,000, apart from wastage. The relatives of the dead, incidentally, were not informed until many weeks afterwards. No wonder *The Times* correspondent in Madrid commented that " the lack of enthusiasm had given place to despair."

The unhappy lot of these conscript " volunteers" did not prevent the Press, in accordance with orders from Berlin, conjuring up the spectre of the Bolshevist danger : " if the Allies win Communism will sweep Europe." General Franco himself thought it necessary to intone the same theme in a speech at an Army officers' ceremonial gathering at the Alcazar in Seville on February 14. He declared that Germany had been for twenty years the bastion defending Western civilisation, and went on: " If the road to Berlin were opened then not merely would one division of Spaniards participate in the struggle but one million Spaniards would be offered to help." (This outburst, incidentally, was not published in Germany.) Besides the continual fulmination against Russia there was all the time an under-current of complaint about " Anglo-Saxon " mischief-makers supposed to be " throwing in millions with the aim of dividing Spain." Business relations with Britain and America had by this time, it is true, created a solid weight of vested interests opposed to the Axis connexion. Behind the smoke-screen of abuse, there were many Spaniards who appreciated that it was only the trade and financial Agreements made with Britain and the United States which were keeping them alive at all. Among these, probably, was General Franco himself. The Falange leaders, however, for the most part, swallowed Axis propaganda unquestioningly. On February 7 there was a nasty rioting incident in Tangier which showed how easily the Germans could work up anti-British feeling. There had been a bomb explosion on the quay on the previous day, and the Madrid office of the German News Agency had immediately spread the tale

that it was part of a consignment of arms and explosives being delivered in innocent-looking luggage from Gibraltar. As a result, some Falangist hooligans and their Moorish dupes began to smash up the premises of British business houses, one of the principal hotels and the Post Office which were British property. The local Spanish authorities appeared not to notice what was happening. As in the case of the demonstrations against the British Embassy in Madrid the previous summer, strong British protests to General Franco were made, but there the matter ended.

There may possibly have been something more behind this episode than a clumsy attempt to embitter Anglo-Spanish relations. For any question affecting Morocco—and Tangier had now been incorporated into the Spanish Protectorate zone—involved relations with France. It so happened that the Wilhelmstrasse, under the impulsion of Herr Ribbentrop, was engaged in complicated intrigues and manoeuvres to play off the Vichy Government against Spain and Spain and Italy against France. The fact that there was acute economic distress in the Spanish zone of Morocco might be made to provide an excuse for desperate remedies. It was scarcely a coincidence that just at this time propaganda for the cession of Oran to Spain was conspicuous. General Aranda, president of the Royal Geographical Society, set the tinder alight when he declared in a speech at the Society's meeting on February 4 that "the only solution was to absorb the much richer French Protectorate into the Spanish zone." The General, a close friend of Franco and not reputed to be by any means a fire-eater, went on to exclaim: "The crisis will be solved in due time, since we hold in our hands a drum which we know how to beat." To represent Britain as the common danger might well be the first step in overcoming French resistance to Spain's demands.

At all events this speech by Aranda was followed on the next day by a meeting near Larache between General Nogues, the Resident-General of the French Protectorate and General Orgaz, High Commissioner for Spanish Morocco. A week later Marshal Pétain, unable to go himself, sent his wife and his *chef de cabinet civil*, M. Dumoulin de la Bartfete, on a mission to discuss these affairs with General Franco himself. Although in the background there was always this Spanish claim to a wedge of territory of French Morocco, relations between Madrid and Vichy France continued close and cordial. Apart from the ties of personal friendship with Pétain, no doubt General Franco was still nursing the project of a Latin *bloc* of States that might hold the balance of power in Europe after the war. This policy required, above all, the maintenance of the closest association with Portugal. The original Treaty of Friendship and Non-Aggression of March, **1939**, at the close of the Civil War, had been reinforced by the **protocol** of July, 1940, under which the two Governments under-

took to consult one another about the means of safeguarding their interests in the event of a threat to the Peninsula or to the independence of either country. It was arranged, therefore, that Dr. Salazar, the Portuguese Premier, should be called into consultation, and just before the meeting with the Vichy mission—on February 14—General Franco and Senor Suner met him in Seville to discuss common problems. The Ambassadors of both countries were also present. The Spanish Press carried a number of inspired articles on the theme of peninsular solidarity and foreshadowed a closer alliance, an extension of the existing treaty and protocol. This new treaty was not actually concluded until the end of the year. But *ad hoc* decisions were taken to meet possible contingencies in the spreading war. One of the subjects which no doubt General Franco wanted to discuss was the behaviour of the Latin-American States which at the Pan-American Conference at Rio de Janeiro in the middle of January, with one or two exceptions, had united to back up their North American partner and broken off relations with the Axis countries. This was a severe blow to the Falange Party and its numerous agents in Spanish America who had been assiduously playing Hitler's game in trying to give a political twist to the spiritual and cultural bonds of *Hispanidad*. Government spokesmen were naturally reticent on the subject; it was not until April 22 that any official utterance was reported. Seftor Sufier, in an interview with a Copenhagen journalist, was dilating upon the Communist danger, and after repeating his Leader's pledge at the Alcazar ceremony in Seville, he went on:

It causes us sadness to see the Spanish-American countries, which have the blood and the spirit of Spain, willing to adopt attitudes which are the essential negation of the transcendental ideals of the Hispanic world. . . .

It seems unlikely, however, that the *OeneraHsimo* got much consolation from Dr. Salazar. For when in the following September Brazil went a step further and declared war on the side of the United Nations Salazar found it quite compatible with Portuguese neutrality to send at once a congratulatory message.

These diplomatic moves were followed by military conversations. On March 15 General DAvila, Chief of the Spanish General Staff, arrived in Berlin. A week later a Spanish Military Mission proceeded to Lisbon, and a Portuguese Mission was on the way to Spanish Morocco. The pessimists concluded that Spain was being briefed for her part in Hitler's Spring offensive, the long-threatened plan for sealing up the Western Mediterranean, with an assault on Gibraltar and the establishment of a powerful Axis bridgehead at Dakar. Portugal's part in this was to provide all facilities, through her close co-operation with Spain, while at the same time remaining formally neutral and thus obstructing any Allied counter-move.

This may well have been the hope and purpose of Sefior Sufier, Foreign Minister, and his Falange cronies. But General Franco and the Army leaders wanted no such thing. Spokesmen of the Army and the Church, still the most powerful organisations in the country, were now plucking up courage to oppose overtly the Sufier group. Already, on February 27, the Cardinal-Archbishop of Toledo had spoken in vigorous language of the wisdom, indeed the necessity, of sticking to the policy of "neutrality." The Bishop of Madrid, in an equally forthright pronouncement, rounded on the party in an address to the Falangist Youth Front, and explained that it would strike no roots in Spain unless its work was actuated by a sincere religious spirit and it was subservient to the will of the Church. The counter-offensive by the hierarchy of the Army was more discreet but no less emphatic. One result was a number of incidents which led to a revival of chronic rumours abroad that the Army leaders were preparing a *coup* to oust the Falange from power. Given the actual political complexion of Nationalist Spain—a one-party State and General Franco identified with Falangist ideology—such a thing was virtually impossible. Nor was it really necessary since, by careful selection, the *Caudillo* had gradually seen to it that old and trusted colleagues were in fact in key positions.

There were, nevertheless, numerous signs of uneasiness among the Falangist leaders. Radio Valladolid, for example, started a series of broadcasts frankly admitting the economic misery and hardships which were provoking widespread discontent. The idea was presumably to bid for more substantial popular support. At the same time the rift with certain sections of the officer class was to be covered over by loud assertions of solidarity.

"This widespread chattering," it declared, "is making breaches in the morale of the country. The Nationalist State is based on the Army and the Falange. Outside these two there are the indifferent, the Reds, those who sigh for the past, the upper middle-class, the black-marketeers, and the gentlemen who hanker after the Monarchist hremophiles and the devout persons who have some reason or other for feeling disgruntled. . . . Our enemies seek to separate the Army from the Falange. The Falange is not a political institution; it is the very State itself. . . ."

Up to a point this skirmishing between the Falange and the other forces on which his regime was based was not distasteful to General Franco, whose own position, as the essential link, was thereby fortified.¹ That the *Caudillo* himself saw those other forces gaining strength was the inference to be drawn from an inspired article in *Arriba* early in February in which the writer, on behalf of General Franco, made overtures to the Monarchist Movement, the group of "true" Monarchists who had co-operated in the Glorious National Movement. On February 28, the first anniversary of the death of ex-King Alfonso, members of the Government, including Senor Serrano Suner, attended a Requiem

Mass. The response to these gestures was not long delayed. On March 12 a spokesman for Don Juan, the Pretender, made a significant speech at Lausanne, on the occasion of a commemorative service for Don Alfonso in which he described the Monarchy, "now as formerly above party class interests," and declared that, when the present crisis was over "future modifications of modern States might find in it a national basis and guarantee of survival."

The meaning of General Franco's manoeuvres became manifest when on July 18, the anniversary of the Glorious Rebellion, he suddenly announced the creation of a new "legislature"—the Cortes de Espana, wherein "the doctrinal principles of the Falangist Movement were to be brought into harmony with the glorious traditions of Spain." This new body was not to have any of the traditional attributes of a Spanish Cortes; in the speech introducing it he made it clear that it had no relation with the institutions of Liberalism. It was to be, in fact, an assemblage of Government nominees and notables, a rubber-stamp. But its creation at that particular moment was significant. Here was an admission that the "national revolution" in its Falangist guise had proved abortive, that an infusion of fresh blood was necessary from other sources. It was a bid for a *rassemblement* of all groups and sections of opinions prepared to accept the totalitarian pattern. The question of closing the ranks had, indeed, suddenly become urgent because Axis diplomacy had conceived the idea of attempting to snatch the Monarchist card out of their opponents' hands. This had a galvanising effect. Spaniards were not going to stand for a Monarchy restored by the grace of Adolf Hitler. Even the most ardent Monarchists were aghast at the suggestion. Their leaders were astute enough to realise that to saddle Don Juan with the appalling economic distress, as well as the unpopularity of German protection, would ruin the cause for all time.

Though the Cortes seemed no more likely to strike roots in the country than did General Primo de Rivera's National Assembly of 1928, it was a useful rallying force. The Government went ahead with the plans for the election of *procuradores* in the autumn. The details of the methods of selection are in themselves not important. But it should be placed on record that the purpose of bringing in representative figures of the old days to counter-weight the Falangist "radicals" was undoubtedly achieved.

While General Franco was thus engaged in broadening the basis of his dictatorship, or at any rate trying to do so, he had to keep a weather eye on the international situation. In June, when Rommel and the German Afrika Korps were bearing down upon Egypt and the Mediterranean situation looked black indeed for Britain, the hopes of the pro-German group represented by Sefior Sufier revived, and the Spanish Government had to reckon with a summons from Hitler to a more active policy.

Franco himself could not safely leave Spain for any councils of war. But he sent Senor Suner on a mission to Rome to secure, if possible, Italian backing for Spanish claims in Morocco in return for Spanish support for the " Corsica, Tunis, Savoy " claims on France. On his way through France he was to have seen Laval, who might have had an offer to make to buy Spain off. But the French Premier was too busy to see him, and passed him on to Herr Abetz, Hitler's Ambassador. The latter made it clear that the final decision on these matters would be made by Berlin. Senor Suner stayed more than a fortnight in Rome, the excuse for the long stay being that there was at that time no Spanish Ambassador to the Quirinal so that there were " many outstanding questions to be discussed." Whatever decisions were reached, there was no change in the Government's declared policy of non-belligerency, which indeed suited Hitler's book as much as the similar Italian policy in the first nine months of the war. Both the Spanish and Portuguese dictators publicly voiced their displeasure at the Anglo-Soviet Pact. But they acted as if the German-Russian War were a separate affair. The Spanish Foreign Office three times during the summer issued emphatic denials of the charges made in North and South America that Spanish vessels in the Atlantic were giving aid to German submarines by wireless or by re-fuelling facilities. The only evidence of Berlin's new ascendancy, following German successes in Africa and Russia, was an intensification of the propaganda depicting Hitler as the defender of religion against the onslaughts of a pagan Bolshevism. Meanwhile the country swarmed with plain-clothes German agents, German officers were seen everywhere, and a commission working under German experts set to work studying the mineral resources of Spain in relation to the Axis war effort.

But if General Franco thought* it prudent to give the Suner faction their head to some extent in the matter of external policy, he was not prepared to tolerate indefinitely the chronic friction between Army and Falange at home which was rapidly becoming a public scandal. The imperative need for political unity was once again the theme of a series of speeches in the course of a tour in his native Galicia in August. Then, suddenly, the situation inside the Cabinet itself, owing to the violent animosity between Senor Suner and General Varela, the Minister of War, became intolerable, and Franco struck. On September 3 Madrid announced the most important changes since the beginning of the regime. Suner was dismissed from the post of Foreign Minister and replaced by General Jordana, who had been vice-president and Foreign Minister of the original Burgos Junta. At the same time, however, General Varela was removed and his place taken by one of the younger generals whom the Civil War had brought to the front, General Asensio. Colonel Galarza, Franco's old

friend to whom he had entrusted the Ministry of the Interior in May, 1941, disappeared from the Government, his place being taken by Senor Bias Perez Gonzalez, chief prosecutor of the highest political tribunal. It was a perfect example of the Hitler technique of settling troublesome quarrels by sacking both parties! There was no question, however, but that it signified that Suñer was in disgrace. For he was also displaced from the post of president of the Political Junta of the Falange, and Jose Luna, the deputy secretary-general, was dismissed. This was a triumph for the more moderate, or at any rate less fanatical, section of the party led by the secretary-general Senor Jose Luis Arrese. The meaning of these changes, from the point of view of internal policy, was underlined by the fact that General Franco assumed active direction of the Political Junta of the Falange himself.

As regards foreign policy it meant a change of "climate," of style and atmosphere rather than of substance. This was made clear by the Government's official statement on September 22 which promised action consistent with "the spirit of our crusade, Civil War, the anti-Communist sense of our Movement, with the necessities of the new European Order and our historic solidarity with the Hispano-American countries." The statement on domestic policy was a pledge of determination to enforce rigorous discipline in order to maintain the spiritual union of all Spaniards.

One of General Jordana's first acts was to make overtures to the Salazar Government in Lisbon with a view to consolidating the tentative arrangements for a closer alliance made in the spring. This took shape in the "Iberian bloc" which was announced following his visit to Lisbon at the close of the year. Jordana had the reputation of being friendly to Britain, and the Spanish Government had no difficulty in accepting the assurances given by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt on the occasion of the landing of British and American troops in North Africa. "Spanish interests in North Africa will not be compromised nor the existing *modus vivendi* in Tangier affected." The German occupation of the "Vichy" zone of France, which brought them to the Spanish frontier, was also calmly received, for it had long been discounted. The Government's reaction was to publish a decree of partial mobilisation, but, after all, this was no more than Sweden, Turkey, and Switzerland had already done.

The close of the year found General Franco in a very strong position against all possible rivals. One of these, General Aranda, the hero of the siege of Oviedo, was on December 2 removed from his post as director of the Military Academy in Madrid; some months before the egregious Queipo de Llano had been deprived of all his offices and sent to "forced residence" at Malaga. Sutler was chosen, it is true, as a member of the new National Council of Falange; but his wings had been clipped. Finally,

the *OeneraUsimo* secured his position by making his peace with the Monarchists and the Church. At the first meeting of the new National Council of Falange on December 8 he made an "unequivocal profession of our political creed." After lumping together the Russian, Italian, and German revolutions as "movements all within the framework of a general rebellion of the oppressed masses of the globe," he went on to acclaim the Spanish revolution in the same sense and then to foreshadow the Clerical-Fascist regime, perhaps with a Monarchist façade, at which he is aiming :

" You know quite well," he said, " that this regime has not closed the door against our installing some day, if the interests of Spain demand it, the traditional regime which has given days of glory in the history of Spain, so long as it is understood that it should be subordinated to the realisation and permanence of our national revolution."

On December 31, after over a year's deadlock, it was announced that discussions with the Vatican about filling a number of the score or so of vacant sees had at length produced a measure of agreement, and that the Pope, on the proposal of General Franco (according to the formula agreed upon), had now appointed new Bishops of Barcelona, Urgel, Salamanca, Jaen, and Ciudad Real.

General Franco has the reality of power in Spain, the Falange only the appearance. In spite of the heavy mortgage which the German connexion still imposes, we seem to be witnessing already the reverse process to what happened in Germany. In 1942 the reactionary elements were engaged in kicking away the ladder by which they climbed back into fortune's favour.

PORTUGAL

Portugal in 1942 succeeded once more, under the guidance of Dr. Salazar, in maintaining her neutrality and in making a financial profit out of the war. Her international position, however, remained exceedingly uneasy, and in spite of the abundance of money living conditions in the country became much worse. There was in consequence more discontent with the Government than in the earlier years of the war ; this, however, did not prevent the fifty-third birthday of Dr. Salazar on April 28, as also the anniversary on May 28 of the *coup d'etat* of 1926, from being made the occasion of further nation-wide tributes to the achievements and still more to the continuity of the regime.

At the beginning of the year the Government received an assurance from the British Government that the Australian and Dutch troops which had been landed in Portuguese Timor at the end of the preceding year (*vide* ANNUAL RBGISTEB, 1941, p. 232) would be withdrawn on the arrival of the Portuguese troops which had already been despatched from Portuguese East Africa. This

"honourable arid dignified" solution of the difficulty between the two countries, as Dr. Salazar called it, was warmly welcomed in Portugal. On February 20, however, shortly before the expected arrival of the Portuguese reinforcements, the Japanese troops, acting, as they asserted, in self-defence, landed on the Portuguese half of the island and took possession, promising to withdraw when they had attained their objectives. An energetic protest against this act was lodged in Tokio; Dr. Salazar, speaking to the National Assembly on February 21, described it as a flagrant violation of the sovereign rights of Portugal, and contrasted it with the loyalty, fair-mindedness and friendliness of the British Government. The Portuguese troops sent to Timor remained at Goa in Portuguese India, waiting for the Japanese to fulfil their promise of evacuation.

On February 12 Dr. Salazar paid an official visit to Seville to confer with General Franco and to strengthen the ties between Portugal and Spain formed by the Non-Aggression Pact of 1939. This step was probably taken as a counterblast to the prominent part played by Brazil in formulating the pro-Allied policy of the Rio de Janeiro Conference in January. Certainly it was followed by an intensification of the Government campaign against Communism, supposed to be represented by Russia. On March 10 the semi-official *Diario da Manhã* described Communism as "the most absolute totalitarian slavery, the lowest and vilest of all political regimes," and at the same time bi-weekly anti-Communist broadcasts were instituted by the Portuguese Legion in order to put before the nation the dangers of a Marxist ideology and the best way of combating the menace. The campaign made little headway and reacted unfavourably on Dr. Salazar's own position. In April the Cardinal-Patriarch issued private instructions in which he warned the Portuguese clergy not to identify Communism with the Russian nation nor anti-Communism with any "crusade" organised by another Power. On June 5 the Clerical organ *Novidades* admitted that the only adequate answer to Communism lay in the establishment of social justice, and lamented that there was not the same collaboration between people and Government in Portugal as there was in Great Britain. In a public speech on June 25 Dr. Salazar stated that the Anglo-Soviet Treaty had caused "great confusion and fear in all minds," and hinted that Great Britain might use an eventual victory for the spread of Communism. On the other hand, *Novidades*, on July 14, representing undoubtedly the more popular view, said: "It is impossible to forget that Russia has assumed a leading rôle in European politics." Dr. Salazar's speech on June 25 caused some resentment, and in an interview on August 7 he sought to remove the impression it had created that he favoured an Axis victory.

The intimacy of Portuguese-Brazilian relations was further

marked on May 3, the anniversary of the discovery of Brazil by a Portuguese, by a postal agreement under which correspondence between the two countries would be carried at internal rates. The entry of Brazil into the war on the side of Russia gave a severe shock to the Government, if not to the people, but it did not alter their feelings towards that country ; on August 23 the Government, in the name of the Portuguese people, expressed to Brazil their sentiments of fraternal esteem and moral solidarity, and commended their defence of what they considered to be their honour and right, and the Portuguese Ambassador in Rio declared that Brazil and Portugal would never find themselves in opposite camps. On the other hand, relations with Spain were also drawn closer by means of cultural exchanges and promises of co-operation after the war.

Public anxiety lest the war should spread to Portugal was manifested by the action of the Catholic Youth Congress in April in removing from its shrine for the first time the famous image of Our Lady of Fatima and carrying it to Lisbon in an intercession for world peace ; also by the prayers offered at her shrine on May 13—the 25th anniversary of the first appearance of the Virgin of Fatima—by 100,000 pilgrims, including the Cardinal-Patriarch of Lisbon. The Government also took precautions against the event of war. On March 2 a Territorial Civil Defence organisation was created under the Ministry of War. On May 18 a warning was broadcast of the danger of Fifth Columnists, and on June 21-23 large A.R.P. exercises were held in Lisbon, designed to cover " all emergencies possible in actual warfare." Further reinforcements were sent to the Azores, the Cape Verde Islands, and Mozambique; and by a decree of June 2 the Minister for Colonies was authorised to fix his residence temporarily in any colony, and to legislate from there, should " the high interests of the nation " so require. Two days later the Minister for Colonies left Lisbon for Angola and Mozambique. At the latter place he presided over the formal transfer of the Mozambique Company's territories to the State on July 19.

The Budget, introduced on January 1, estimated revenue at 2,851,600 contos and expenditure at 2,850,300 contos. The actual figures for 1941, published in July, were 3,021,000 contos and 2,826,000 contos. National defence, at close on a million contos, claimed over 34 per cent, of the revenue. In the trade figures for 1941 the most noticeable feature was a phenomenal increase in the export of wolfram—from 18,200 contos in 1940 to 542,000 contos—due chiefly to a rise in price. In order to check speculation, on February 15 the Metal Control Board was made sole authorised purchaser of wolfram. At the end of January bank deposits totalled 11,000,000 contos (110,000,000l.) against 6,000,000 a year earlier. To absorb this idle capital a new loan of 1,000,000 contos at 3 per cent, was announced in June, and the

first issue in July of 300,000 contos was taken up by the following day. Early in the year the shortage of coal, petrol, heavy oil, and imported commodities generally had already become acute, and drastic cuts were made in railway services and public and private lighting, while from mid-February private motoring was practically banned. The petrol crisis was eased by the purchase at the end of May of 100,000 tons of oil from Venezuela and the chartering of French and Spanish tankers.

The rise in prices led to labour discontent which found vent in an interview on April 20 between Dr. Salazar and representatives of 400,000 workers. They complained that the cost of living had gone up 44 per cent, without any corresponding increase in wages, and charged the regime with failing to implement its principles of social justice as embodied in the corporative system. Dr. Salazar defended the corporative system, maintaining that it was the best for Portugal in spite of its defects, and showed such sympathetic understanding of the workers' case that he was elected an honorary member of all the 290 Syndicates in Portugal. He promised some revision of salaries, and the beginnings of a family wage system.

The 1941 figures for births and deaths published in April showed a great decline in the birth-rate, especially in the large towns, and a rising death-rate, with 47,000 deaths of children under five. *Novidades* of June 10 attributed the low birth-rate largely to economic causes, alleging that it had become almost impossible for the average person to face the expense of a family.

On February 8 General Carmona was at the age of 72 re-elected President for another seven-year term by 822,882 votes out of a total electorate of 906,880. He assumed office on April 15.

DENMARK

Throughout the year the Danish Government formally retained control of the country's internal administration; this meant that the Government was directly responsible for the safety of the German "protectors" within the frontiers of Denmark and for the due delivery to them of goods both inside and outside the Danish borders. Sabotage of the German war effort was, therefore, a national crime and the perpetrators were prosecuted in Danish courts of law.

During 1942 this unhappy state of affairs was exploited in ever-growing measure by the German masters of Denmark, who were no longer so careful about concealing the mailed fist as during the first eighteen months* of the occupation. In every sphere they tightened their grip, only to discover that the determined resistance of the Danes grew proportionately stiffer. Throughout the year the V-army struck its blows, and these were often shrewd ones. Almost daily the Press reported fires

and explosions, the causes of which were described as " unknown," " obscure," or "mysterious." On the railways locomotives and goods trucks were derailed in great numbers. Telegraph and telephone wires were cut. War material was damaged or stolen. Less spectacular, but no less effective, was the silent " go slow " sabotage in factories and ports.

On September 2 a clear indication was given of the effectiveness and proportions which the sabotage had then assumed. The Prime Minister broadcast a stern warning to the Danish people, and particularly to Danish youth, to refrain from sabotage. He defined sabotage as destruction or damage of values which were directly or indirectly of importance to a belligerent. Sabotage was therefore not only destruction or damage of war material proper, but covered also illegal activities aimed at disturbing means of communication or supplies from utility works, or which disturbed civil means of production or the destruction of socially important achievements within the sphere of interest of a belligerent.

After this complete " guide " as to the forms which sabotage might take, the Prime Minister emphasised that it had so far proved possible to prosecute saboteurs of German Army property in Danish courts, although the present Danish penal code did not allow as severe a punishment as German martial law. If, however, the Government was unable to suppress sabotage by invoking the present legal powers, it might be questioned whether current laws were adequate, or even whether Denmark would even be permitted to administer justice at all.

A blunt German threat to take over if sabotage was not effectively checked by the Danes themselves was clearly the immediate reason for the Prime Minister's appeal. It was followed a few days later by a direct appeal to the workers. The speaker was the chairman of the Danish T.U.C. He reminded his comrades of the ideals of the Danish Labour Movement, and declared that sabotage had never been a weapon for the hands of Danish workers. For Danish workers only one thing was important: to overcome present difficulties with their organisations intact.

That the chairman of the trade unions should appeal to his comrades in this way was the best indirect proof of the extent and effectiveness of sabotage by the month of September. Since then it increased still further. Another interesting feature was the German threat to abolish the trade unions if the workers did not stop sabotage.

As sabotage went on, the Germans were compelled to use more drastic measures, but they got little support from the Socialist Premier, V. Buhl, who had succeeded Stauning at the death of the latter on May 3. Accordingly, on November 9, Hr. Buhl was displaced by the Germanophil and self-centered Foreign Minister, Erik Scavenius, who also retained the Portfolio

of Foreign Affairs. The first act of the new Prime Minister was to table a "Power of Attorney" Bill, which Parliament had to pass. The new law gave powers to the State Council (the King and his Ministers) to issue, by means of Royal Decree, "interdictions and orders for the preservation of calm, order, and security in the country to the extent deemed necessary, and to obstruct actions which, in these grave times of occupation, might endanger the interests of the country." Under this Act, punishment was to be kept within the framework of the Danish Civil Penal Code, and the law was to be valid only for the period during which the present Cabinet held office.

At the beginning of December Parliament passed a new Bill dealing with the protection of vital factories and plants against sabotage. Special anti-sabotage guards would exercise a limited police authority, and expenses were to be borne by the individual managements. The anti-sabotage guards were to number in all approximately 15,000, and were scheduled to take up duty on February 15, 1943.

Sabotage activities in 1942 were ably sustained by an improving underground Press and by secret wireless transmitters. The chain letters of the first two years were superseded by stencilled monthlies, one of which was properly printed as from June. Besides expert guidance on sabotage and useful information about Nazi collaborators and extracts from suppressed books and publications, these papers contained political comment which did not appear in the ordinary Press. These papers had no need to publish foreign news, as listening-in to broadcasts from abroad was not forbidden, and the vast majority of Danes regularly listened to the B.B.C. English and Danish transmissions as well as to the Swedish wireless.

A great number of underground workers paid the price of their activities. In June seven schoolboys of Aalborg, supposed to have belonged to one of the numerous Churchill Clubs, received sentences of imprisonment ranging from one and a half to three years. They had committed several serious acts of sabotage against the German Army, such as thefts of weapons and ammunition, wanton damage and arson. *De Frie Danske*, & clandestine newspaper, may be permitted to tell the end of this story of the schoolboys :—

Most of the boys, who were members of the Churchill Club, are now serving their hard sentences in prison at Nyborg. Three of the Club's members, the brothers Kaj and Alf Houlberg and Knud Andersen Hornbro, are still kept under arrest in Aalborg because they have appealed to the Supreme Court. The names of these young men have again been mentioned with pride in Aalborg.

The detention prison was overcrowded, and the three boys were kept in one cell, where they were allowed to make model aeroplanes to pass the time. One day, a younger brother of Kaj and Alf succeeded in bringing a metal saw into the cell. The boys then sawed through the bars in such a way that you had only to give them a hard push in order to remove them. For many nights they climbed out of the window, balanced along a wall until they reached a tree

outside the prison walls. They contacted their friends in town and got them organised again, and carried out intensive sabotage against German military establishments.

The confidence of the boys grew, and soon their excursions began at 10 P.M. One night, when the R.A.F. was coming over and the sirens were sounded, they were caught. They dared not go to a public shelter for fear of being recognised. Two policemen stopped them in the street for failing to take cover and brought them to a police station, where they were immediately recognised. The third boy was arrested soon afterwards.

It must be added that the boys' undaunted resolution was not appreciated by the High Court, and two of them received sentences of ten years' imprisonment, and the third of fifteen years.

On November 6 Hr. Axel Larsen, the chairman of the illegal Communist Party, was arrested. Since August, 1941, when the party had been banned, he had been hidden by friends and had continued to direct extensive underground activities. On his arrest, he was charged with participating in the publication of illegal periodicals, especially *Frit Danmark*, which, according to the official statement, contained exhortations to sabotage.

At the time of the appointment of Hr. Scavenius as Prime Minister, hundreds of persons were reported to have been arrested, including a number of well-known people. One of these was Professor Ole Chievitz, a famous surgeon, who had led the Danish Red Cross Ambulance Units in Finland in 1918, and again in 1939-40. According to the official statement he had been concerned in the financing of illegal activities, and primarily in finding funds for the publication *Frit Danmark*. He had held meetings in his home which had been attended by Hr. Axel Larsen and Hr. Christmas Moeller, the Conservative Leader. Others arrested were the Director of Danish Libraries, Hr. Th. Doessing, and the Copenhagen City Librarian, Hr. Fl. Dahl.

"Overground" resistance to the Germans was as strong as ever throughout the year. Politicians, leading personalities at the universities, in schools and in churches, in the youth movements and in editorial offices, were openly critical of developments under the occupation, exhorting the people to remain united against the invader and warning them against New Order propaganda.

Dr. Vilhelm la Cour was in July sentenced to seven months' imprisonment for having persisted in activities "gravely disturbing to Danish relations abroad." This, the Court said, he had done in spite of repeated warnings from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Another patriot, Hr. Peter Gudme, was sentenced to four months' imprisonment for a similar offence.

The author, Soya, was sent to prison for **two months** for publishing an **allegorical legend about the German plunder of Denmark and the eventual defeat of the German monster.**

The Editor-in-Chief of *Nationaltidende*, Hr. Aage Schoch, was dismissed after three German requests, and after having twice been suspended. In his paper, Hr. Schoch had minimised the importance of Denmark's adherence to the anti-Comintern Pact. He had also published a sermon on the murder of the Innocents at Bethlehem, which the Nazis evidently considered too close a parallel to their own massacres of women and children.

A play by Kaj Munk, which had as its theme the story of Niels Ebbesen, the Danish national hero, was banned. Niels Ebbesen was the knight who in the fourteenth century killed the commander of a German invasion army and finally succeeded in driving the Germans out of the country.

Throughout the year, the Danish Nazis, who gained nothing by the Cabinet reshuffle in November, made great efforts to raise the Jewish question, but in vain. The 6,000 Jews in Denmark constitute no problem, and the Germans paid heed to the vigorous replies on this topic which were made by numbers of Danish pastors.

On the whole, Danish Nazis had a bad year. In February their "Foerer," Frits Clausen, announced that it had proved necessary for the party to form protective squads to guard party meetings and party premises from attack. The detachments were duly formed and armed with spades. Nothing, however, has since been heard of them. A large-scale propaganda drive was planned by the Nazis for September and October, when 1,100 Nazis of the so-called "Free Corps Denmark" arrived home on leave from the Eastern Front. Their return took place a few days after the Government anti-sabotage campaign had been launched and the political atmosphere was tense. In some quarters it was thought that the Free Corps members had returned to carry Frits Clausen into power, and, in spite of specific instructions to the contrary, the young "Swastika Volunteers" behaved very provocatively and succeeded in bringing about a number of clashes all over the country. However, on October 12 the Free Corps left again for the Eastern Front as planned. In the meantime, important political developments had taken place.

At the end of September the Germans showed their dissatisfaction with the Government (the King and his Ministers) by recalling their envoy in Copenhagen, Herr von Renthe-Fink, and sending home the Danish Minister in Berlin, Hr. O. C. Mohr. On October 2 the German commander in Denmark, General Luedke, was replaced by General Hermann von Hanneken, a truer follower of the Nazi system. His first action was to expel the Danish Army garrisons from Jutland.

On October 6 the new session of Parliament was opened by the Prime Minister, Hr. V. Buhl. He emphasised that Denmark would continue to remain non-belligerent, implying that Denmark would send no troops to the Eastern Front and neither

would she arm merchant ships ; that unemployment in Denmark was negligible and therefore Denmark could send no more workers to Germany or German-occupied Europe, *e.g.* Norway; that national solidarity was essential if Denmark was to count on a free and independent future, and that Denmark was doing# what she could to combat sabotage.

This did not satisfy the Wilhelmstrasse, and on October 3 Hr. Erik Scavenius was summoned to Berlin. The German Foreign Minister, Herr von Ribbentrop, demanded a Danish Government willing to comply with German wishes and with Scavenius as Prime Minister. A reply was requested not later than November 10. Prolonged consultations took place between the Cabinet and the Special Parliamentary Committee, representing the five Coalition Parties, which control the majority of Parliament's 219 seats.

Two days after Scavenius's visit to Berlin, a new German Minister arrived in Copenhagen. He was Dr. Werner Best, a high ranking S.S. man, well versed in the theory and practice of Nazi domination of Occupied countries. His presence intensified the German nerve war against Denmark.

Since October 19 King Christian had been gravely ill in hospital after a serious riding accident, when he was thrown from his horse during his customary early morning ride through Copenhagen. The cause of this accident remains obscure. On October 27 Crown Prince Ferderik took over the conduct of the Government, and during the political crisis he firmly maintained, as his father had done since the beginning of the occupation, that no Government could be accepted which did not possess a Parliamentary backing.

Most of the new Cabinet members suggested by the Germans were quite unacceptable. As it was clear that the Germans would not be satisfied with a minor reshuffle, Prime Minister Buhl offered to go, and suggested that Scavenius should be his successor. Scavenius is reported twice to have refused to take office, and to have accepted only after an intimation from German quarters that he would be free to choose his own Ministers so long as the four "strong members" (Prime Minister Buhl, Finance Minister Alsing Andersen, Church Minister and Conservative Leader V. Fibiger, and Minister for Home Affairs and Liberal Leader Knud Kristensen) were excluded. Parliament had now to choose between the hated Germanophil, Scavenius, a Reichskommissar and the despised Frits Clausen, the Danish Nazi Leader. That the Germans would have forced this last alternative upon the Danish people, is, however, unlikely, in view of Clausen's complete failure to establish himself as a factor in Danish public life. Parliament chose Scavenius as a political expediency, as the lesser evil, and this decision was endorsed by the King and Crown Prince. Two days later the Power of

Attorney Bill was passed by Parliament. In December it was reported that the German Commander in Denmark had demanded the disarmament of the Danish Army and the handing of their equipment over to the Germans, but no confirmation of this was received in London. It is, however, believed that a large quantity of woollen Army blankets were surrendered.

As for the economic situation, by the end of the year the Danish National Bank had paid out to Danish farmers, shipowners, industrialists, and others some 2,300 million kroner (115,000,000l.) since the invasion began. This represented payment for goods delivered or services rendered to the Germans. In return, the Bank had accumulated a "credit" of the same size on the so-called "Clearing Account" with Berlin.

The cattle stock, which Danish farmers did everything possible to maintain, was further reduced in the course of 1942, the total reduction since the occupation amounting by the end of the year to 20 per cent., as compared with the last pre-war figure. The pig and poultry populations which, in 1941, had declined, respectively, to 50 per cent, and 33 per cent, of their normal strength, were still further reduced in 1942.

With few exceptions, Danish industries were starved of fuel and raw materials by the Germans; this was done with the intention of creating artificial unemployment, which would compel workers to "volunteer" for work in Germany, and many factories were in fact closed down. An average of 40,000 to 50,000 workers were employed in Germany during the year.

Fuel rations for domestic consumption were dangerously low. The cost of living index in 1942 went up by 65 per cent., whereas wages were increased only by 20 per cent. The prices of many commodities (although a "ceiling" had been fixed and almost all necessities rationed) were therefore beyond the means of the low wage groups, particularly in the larger towns. This had an appalling effect upon the health of the children.

No survey of Danish affairs under the occupation would be complete without mention of the Free Danish Movement, since the action taken by the Free Danes throughout the world proved to be of great moral value to the Home Front. The great event of the year was the arrival in England in May of Mr. John Christmas Moeller, the Conservative Leader. A member of the Coalition Government from April 9, 1940, he was forced out of office on October 3 of the same year, and out of Parliament on January 10, 1941. With his wife and son, Christmas Moeller escaped to Sweden in a small sailing-boat. In August he was elected chairman of the Danish Council in London, and during November and December he visited the Danes in the United States and Canada, strengthening the Council's relations with Hr. Henrik Kauffmann, Danish Minister in Washington, who was dismissed by the Copenhagen Government after he had placed

Greenland bases, for defensive purposes, at the disposal of the U.S. Government for the duration of the war.

On January 2 Hr. Kauffmann voiced the true feelings of Danes at home and abroad by adhering to the principles of the United Nations' Declaration of the previous day. [For this Declaration, see under Public Documents.] Hr. Kauffmann's action was fully endorsed by the Danish Council in London and by other Free Danish organisations.

Hr. Erik Scavenius reacted on January 7 with a long statement. Even if Denmark had been free she would not have adhered to the Declaration, but would have followed her traditional policy of neutrality, he said. Hr. Kauffmann was guilty of harbouring a double purpose : to sow disunion among the Danes and to establish himself as a sort of Danish Government in exile, representing something called Free Denmark. Scavenius concluded by quoting a Royal instruction to the Foreign Minister regarding the duties of Danish officials in foreign countries. This instruction, which was probably written by Scavenius himself, stressed the point that there was no Free Denmark, as distinct from the Occupied country, and that the King could not accept homage from diplomats who, at the same time, disregarded the Government.

The tactics of the pro-German Scavenius, and to some degree of the Stauning Cabinet as a whole, were clear. The King, as symbol of Danish unity and determination to stand up against the invaders, was, under German pressure, to be formally associated with the actions of the Government, and, therefore, anyone who condemned the Government was disloyal to the King.

A few weeks later, Hr. Scavenius was compelled by events to turn the spotlight on to the Danish Minister in London, whose breach with Copenhagen in December, 1941, had been tremendously popular. On March 20 Count Reventlow was dismissed from his position because on March 3 he had assumed the office of Honorary President of the Free Danish Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. At the same time, all those officials in the diplomatic and consular services who had sided with Count Reventlow and Hr. Kauffmann were also dismissed.

On March 11 the British Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs stated in the House of Commons that because of his break with Copenhagen and his assumption of the Honorary Presidency of the Association of Free Danes, His Majesty's Government had decided to recognise Count Reventlow as continuing to be responsible for the protection of such Danish interests as were not under enemy control. He added that His Majesty's Government had recognised the Danish Council.

SWEDEN

Throughout 1942 the Government continued to maintain an attitude of strict impartiality towards all the belligerent Powers. It protested against all alleged violations of its territory or rights, whether committed by Germany, Britain, or Russia, and it prohibited the publication in the Press of matter which might be offensive to any of them. In a speech made at the beginning of August the Minister of Defence remarked that it would be better to be on bad terms with both sides than on bad terms with one and good terms with the other ; but on the whole the Government managed to maintain good relations with both.

While anxious to keep the country at peace the Government was determined not to make any sacrifice of its freedom, and, if its neutrality were threatened, " to meet force with force," as the Foreign Minister declared on November 7. With this end in view, it continued to pay particular attention to the national defences. On January 12 it announced a five-year plan for the development of defence involving an annual expenditure of about 750,000,000 kr., and including increased mechanisation of the Army, the building of more submarines and a third 7,000-ton cruiser, and an enlarged Air Force. The scheme was laid before the Riksdag on April 8, when it was explained that it had not been possible to complete more than two cruisers during the previous five-year period, and it was agreed that the money thus released should be used for strengthening the destroyer flotilla.

The Budget, introduced on January 12, provided for a " normal " expenditure of 2,324,480,000 kr. on current account and 364,470,000 kr. on capital account, against a prospective total revenue of 2,327,450,000 kr. There were in addition a special Budget, chiefly for defence expenditure, of 1,335,000,000 kr., and a supplementary Budget for 297,480,000 kr. on current account. For meeting the " normal " expenditure there was to be a 10 per cent, increase in direct taxation and increases in railway fares and postage. It was reported in July that there would probably be a deficit this year of about 1,600 million kroner, which would raise the total deficit to about 6,000 million kroner. The National Debt was now about 1,000 kroner per head of the population, against about 400 in 1939, in spite of greatly increased taxation.

Apart from the financial burden of rearmament, the economy of the country continued to suffer severely from the blockade conditions imposed by the war. With the consent of the British and German Governments a limited overseas trade went on through Gotenborg, but it was only a fraction of the normal peace-time volume. In April the great ironworks " Svenska Metallwerken " reported a decrease in production owing to severe restrictions and increased scarcity of metal. Output in

the shipyards also had to be restricted owing to shortage of supplies. On account of growing difficulties in the supply of metal it was decided in the summer to reduce the silver content of coins and to issue iron coins in place of copper. An Agreement made with Italy on January 1 provided for a greatly increased trade exchange between the two countries, but circumstances prevented its fulfilment. On December 19 a new Trade Agreement was made with Germany, under which Sweden was in the coming year to receive, among other things, 5 million tons of coal and coke, and send to Germany large quantities of timber products, cellulose, and paper. By an Agreement made with Hungary on September 9, Sweden was in the next twelve months to export to that country iron and steel and other goods worth 24 million kr. and import foodstuffs and other products to the value of 40 million kr. At the end of June sixteen Swedish sea-captains refused to sail to Rotterdam to fetch coal for Sweden "owing to the constant attacks by the R.A.F. and the deficient convoy protection afforded by the Germans." Up to the end of 1941 Sweden had lost from sinkings 135 vessels of 328,217 gross tonnage. In January a new Agreement was made between the employers' unions and the trade unions providing for an increase in wages equal to 50 per cent, of the increase in the price index.

While studiously correct in its dealings with Russia and with Germany, the Government no less than the public continued to show the liveliest sympathy with the suffering populations both of Finland and of Norway. At the beginning of the year it facilitated the export from Denmark to Finland of 1,900 tons of butter and 5,000 pigs by arranging for them to be paid for through the Danish-Swedish Clearing Office in Stockholm. A Trade Pact concluded with Finland in April provided that goods to the value of 35 million kr. were to be exported to Finland in the next eight months, while Finland in return was to export to Sweden only "to the extent possible in present conditions." At the same time a credit of 35 million kroners was granted to Finland to purchase foodstuffs from Denmark. The public showed similar eagerness to help; in March a home for Finnish children was established on one of the Royal estates near Stockholm, and several Swedish townships and industrial concerns undertook to look after Finnish children, while up to July 1 18,400,000 kr. had been collected by the Swedish Committee for help to Finland. Sympathy with Norway was shown by the celebration all over Sweden of Norway's National Day on May 17, and by numerous articles in the Press. Some of these were very outspoken, and the Government found it advisable in March to ban ten papers for articles which they had published on prison conditions in Norway. On March 17 the Supreme Court lifted the detention order on ten Norwegian ships in Swedish ports which had been leased to the British Government by the Norwegian Government in London,

The Swedish Nazis showed renewed signs of activity in April, holding meetings and forming new societies. The Social Democrats replied by holding their own May Day celebrations, along with the trade unions, for the first time since the outbreak of the war. In June and July several Nazi meetings were broken up by hostile crowds. About the same time charges were made in the Press that there were pro-Nazis among the senior officers of the Army, and that they were poisoning the spirit of the Army. On August 30 the Minister of Defence stated that the names of all whose loyalty to the State was questionable were well known. Their numbers were small, and all necessary measures had been taken to see that they could do no harm to the national interests. On the next day an investigation was ordered into possible Fifth-Column activities in the Army, and on November 12 it was announced that the "untrustworthy elements" had been sent home. On August 15 it was reported that a secret Nazi organisation had been discovered in the Stockholm police force, and a Commission was appointed to investigate this matter also. It was stated later that the Chief Police Constable would be prosecuted.

The Municipal Elections held in September resulted in a loss of 22 seats by the Conservatives and 30 by the Social Democrats, and a gain of 35 by the Peasants' Party and 16 by the Communists.

NORWAY

On February 1 the German Governor Terboven appointed Major Quisling head of the Norwegian administration which had been functioning since September, 1940. All the Ministers except three remained in their offices. On February 7 the new Prime Minister issued a decree vesting in himself the authority constitutionally belonging to the King and Parliament. The German Government had, however, already stated, somewhat superfluously, that foreign policy would "naturally" be conducted by the Reich, as Norway remained Occupied territory.

The so-called "Act of State" by which Quisling was placed in power led to a remarkable incident which foreshadowed the coming struggle between his Government and the Church. On the morning of February 1 a quisling clergyman took possession of the Trondheim Cathedral and attempted to hold a service there in honour of Quisling's appointment as "Minister-President." The public boycotted this service, but turned up in thousands in the afternoon to hear the Dean, Dr. Fjellbu, who should have preached in the morning. The police barricaded the building and tried to disperse the crowd in the square, but they held their ground, singing Luther's hymn, "A sure stronghold is our God." Dean Fjellbu preached an outspoken sermon to the congregation which had managed to get into the Cathedral before it was

barricaded, and a strong protest against the action of the police was made by the seven Bishops of Norway, headed by Dr. Berggrav, Bishop of Oslo.

The new Prime Minister at once threw himself with all energy into a task which had baffled the most strenuous efforts of the German authorities—the Nazification of the Norwegian youth. To overcome opposition from the teachers he first, on February 5, established a Nazi "Teachers' Front" (*Laerersamband*), which was to replace all existing teachers' organisations, and which all teachers were required to join. Then two days later he issued a decree—to take effect on March 1—ordering all boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 18 to serve in the youth formations of his party, the Nasjonal Samling. These orders met with the same hostile reception both from teachers and pupils as similar orders issued previously by the German authorities. Out of 14,000 teachers, 12,000 refused to join the new organisation. The Education Department thereupon declared that resignation from the "Teachers' Front" would be regarded as equivalent to resignation from the teaching profession, and those who had not withdrawn their resignation by March 1 would be dismissed from their posts, lose pay and pension rights, and be sent to compulsory labour in northern Norway. Meanwhile, too, on February 26 it closed all the schools, on the ground of shortage of fuel.

When March 1 arrived the bulk of the teachers were still standing firm, and the authorities, acting under German instructions, proceeded to take drastic measures. Wholesale arrests of the teachers were carried out, and a number of them were sent to concentration camps, or made to work alongside of Russian prisoners of war, under appalling conditions. By the end of March some 1,300 male teachers had been arrested. They were sustained in their resistance by sympathetic demonstrations on the part of the public, and by the end of March not more than 500 had joined the *Laerersamband*.

Meanwhile the children had been receiving no instruction since the end of February, and the Ministry accordingly ordered some of the schools to open on April 9, adding that no teacher would be forced to join the *Laerersamband*, but that those who refused to sign an acknowledgment of membership would receive no salary. The bulk of the teachers elected to teach without pay, and when school reopened on April 9 each one read a declaration to his or her class explaining why they were opposing the Government and declaring that they would never "ask the pupils to do anything which they considered wrong, or teach anything which in their opinion was not in accordance with the truth." The pupils as before sided wholeheartedly with the teachers and did all in their power to support them. At his wits' end, Quisling sought assistance from Ter boven, who ordered the

chief of the S.S. and Gestapo forces in Norway, Rediess, to break the teachers' resistance at all costs. Rediess thereupon threw 700 teachers into concentration camps, and as this did not suffice, towards the end of April crammed 500 of them into a small prison ship at Trondheim and sent them to an unknown destination in the Arctic Circle, there, it was thought, to be subjected to all the tortures which the Gestapo could devise.

The attack upon the schools brought Quisling into deeper conflict with the State Lutheran Church. On February 15 a joint warning was sent by the Bishops to the Church Department of the Government, pointing out the disastrous effects on family ties which would follow the compulsory enrolment of youth in the organisations of the National Socialists. The Government retorted on February 26 by compelling Dr. Berggrav, the Bishop of Oslo, to resign and depriving him of his title of Bishop. The other Bishops supported Dr. Berggrav and resigned in a body on March 2, and the Deans rejected a request from the Church Department that they should deputise for them. On March 22 the clergy read in nearly all the churches a statement declaring that they made respect for the Church's views on education a condition of their remaining in office, and forthwith resigned. The Church Department thereupon announced that if the resignations were not withdrawn by April 11 they would be dismissed. Bishop Berggrav and other Church leaders were arrested, and seven acting Bishops were appointed from among the National Socialist clergy. By April 11 only two clergymen had recanted, and the acting Bishops thereupon began to draw up lists of laymen suitable for ordination. By May 27 only 61 out of the 1,100 clergy had consented to take orders from the State ; the rest continued to officiate without drawing State salaries.

At the annual meeting of the National Socialist Party on May 25 Quisling boasted that the front formed by the teachers and clergy was now broken. Events, however, did not seem to bear out his statement. An Episcopal Conference held at Oslo in July formed a " temporary Church Board " which issued a manifesto stating that the break with the State was necessary because the present holders of power would not recognise the Church's spiritual independence. The German authorities by this time had begun to withdraw their support from Quisling, and in August frustrated an attempt made by him to dissolve the new Church Board. Most of the teachers were also released in the summer, and when the schools reopened for the autumn term on August 19 no written declaration was demanded from the teachers that they would consider themselves members of the National Socialist Teachers' Association, though an annual deduction of 20 kroner was made from their salaries to cover the membership fee.

On October 14 the Church Department began to appoint new congregational councils in the parishes in place of those elected by the parishioners, which frequently had to be compelled by force to hand over their keys, documents and records. On October 15 the Department threatened to deprive the clergy of their positions if they continued to refuse their State salaries. The clergy preferred, however, to retain their freedom and depend on voluntary assistance.

One of Quisling's plans was to establish a corporative assembly called *Riksting*, consisting of representatives of various vocations organised on a Nazi basis. One of the chief of such organisations was to be a new Norwegian Labour Front, formed on the pattern of the German "Arbeitsfront." A meeting of the *Riksting* was summoned for September 25, but in the fourteen days before that date between 150,000 and 200,000 workers sent in their resignation from the Trade Unions which were to form the Labour Front, and this compelled Quisling to give up his plan. This set-back intensified the dissensions which had already broken out in the summer within the Nasjonal Samling, chiefly between those who were in favour and those who were against volunteering for service with the Germans in Russia. Many of the latter left the Party and escaped to Sweden. In September the *Hird* (Norwegian Nazi police) was brought more directly under German control by the appointment as its chief of the head of the Norwegian Gestapo, who was directly responsible to the German Gestapo.

While the teachers this year were singled out for special persecution, there was no relaxation in the oppression of the rest of the people. A large part of the Norwegian food supplies was again requisitioned by the Germans, and they also used Norwegian forced labour for building fortifications along the coast as a protection against invasion. The people continued to show their hostility to the Germans in every possible way, and numbers of the occupying troops became so dejected that they deserted or even committed suicide. In October the Germans threatened to shoot hundreds of workers unless they withdrew their resignations from the Quisling Labour Front. The village of Televaag was destroyed in May for the shooting of a Gestapo official, and the same fate subsequently befell a number of other villages for similar reasons. On October 6 a state of siege was proclaimed at Trondheim because of sabotage, and numbers of persons were executed in the course of the next few days.

On October 25 a decree was published ordering the confiscation of all Jewish property, and on October 26 all male Jews in Norway were arrested, including 14-year-old boys, men over 80, blind men and invalids.. In the middle of November the mass deportation of Norway's 1,500 Jews to Poland was

started. The Provisional Church Council sent an open letter to Quisling condemning in vigorous language the persecution of the Jews.

On September 25 the British Air Force made a raid on Oslo while Quisling was addressing a meeting there and forced him to take shelter. A fine was thereupon imposed on the inhabitants as being "morally responsible." Exemption was offered to anyone who would join the Nasjonal Samling, but not one application was made.

During 1942 the increasing Nazi terror was marked by the execution of 105 patriots and the arrest of thousands of others, many of whom were deported to Germany. At the same time, the Norwegian people had to suffer from a rapid deterioration of the food situation, which left them by the end of the year with little to eat except bread, potatoes, turnips and dried fish. Eggs, cheese and green vegetables were unobtainable, meat a rarity, and fats, milk, and fresh fish scarce and irregular in supply.

Despite these trials, resistance grew during the year. In addition to the organisations previously mentioned, the great sporting associations, with 300,000 members, continued their boycott of all Nazi-organised sporting events. Lawyers, doctors, and other professional groups rejected all attempts to bring them under Nazi control. The clandestine press flourished, spreading all over the country the news which is received by patriots who listen on illicit wireless sets to the Norwegian broadcasts from London.

On July 21 the Norwegian Government in London issued a statement of peace aims in which it abandoned the pre-war project of a Nordic defensive bloc, declared its attachment to its Atlantic Allies, Britain and the United States, and advocated the establishment of a revived and greater League of Nations, with Norway acting as a "bridge between the Atlantic Powers and the Soviet Union."

The Norwegian Government extended its social services for Norwegian seamen, military personnel and civilians in Great Britain. A centre for Norwegians in Edinburgh—Norway House—was opened by King Haakon during the course of a visit to Scotland in November, when he also opened a Norwegian Exhibition at the National Gallery, Edinburgh, and a Norwegian residential elementary school, with accommodation for 70 children, at Drumtochty Castle in Kincardineshire. A Holiday Home for Norwegian seamen was opened near Hereford, and steps were taken to extend the medical and convalescent services provided for Norwegians in Great Britain.

The Norwegian National Day, May 17, was celebrated by special meetings in London and other towns in Great Britain and by Norwegians all over the world. August 3, King Haakon's 70th birthday, was celebrated by a Norwegian "People's

Procession " in Hyde Park, followed by a meeting at the Royal Albert Hall, London. On September 1 the Norwegian-British Institute, Rutland House, London, was opened by Crown Prince Olav of Norway and Mr. Anthony Eden, British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

One or two changes were made in the Norwegian Government during 1942. Colonel Ljungberg resigned from the post of Minister of Defence in March and was succeeded by Hr. Oscar Torp, Minister of Finance, whose post was taken over by Hr. Paul Hartmann, Minister without Portfolio. In October a Ministry of Supply and Reconstruction was established, with Hr. Anders Frihagen as Minister. Major Arne Sunde continued as Minister of Shipping, the Supply Department having been transferred to the new Ministry. Hr. Olav Hindahl became Acting Minister of Commerce as well as Minister of Works.

FINLAND

The food situation, which at the end of 1941 was catastrophic, became a little better in the new year, thanks to assistance from Germany, to a credit from Sweden with which food was purchased from Denmark and Hungary, and to better distribution. Conditions, nevertheless, remained very hard ; in May 40,000 persons were being fed from the State and Helsinki soup kitchens. Owing to military requirements there was a great shortage of agricultural labour, and much of the arable land remained unploughed.

Having obtained her immediate objectives by the acquisition, in 1941, of Eastern Karelia, and a strategic frontier with Russia, Finland was not anxious to continue the war. A section of the population would certainly have been glad to get out of it as soon as possible. The Government, however, had no intention of abandoning Germany, especially after the conclusion in February of a Trade Pact with that country which gave general satisfaction. In his presidential address at the opening of Parliament on February 3, M. Ryti said that Finland's relations with the Reich were close and cordial, not less so because the systems of government of the two countries were not alike, whereas Bolshevism still remained the greatest danger to Finland and Europe. On March 13, the second anniversary of Finland's acceptance of Russia's peace terms in 1940, M. Tanner, the Minister of Industry and Commerce, declared that Finland could not possibly make a separate peace with Russia. On June 4 Hitler, accompanied by Marshal Keitel, paid a visit to Marshal Mannerheim at his headquarters on the occasion of his 75th birthday, and the Marshal paid an official visit to Berlin on June 27. Finnish troops, however, while holding the line in Karelia, took little part in active operations. In August several Finnish papers strongly denied the rumours that Finnish battalions were fighting with the German

armies on the Don, asserting that the Finns in the German Army were volunteers, most of whom had joined before the war. In July the Government forbade American Consular officers to represent American interests in Finland, a step to which the American Government retorted on July 16 by requesting Finland to close all her Consulates in the United States not later than August 1.

While fighting alongside of Germany, Finland was anxious to stand well with the democracies, especially the United States and Sweden. On July 24 a message was broadcast on the U.S.A. wave-length from the Government wireless station at Helsinki in which emphasis was laid on the fact that for six months the Finnish armed forces had only been endeavouring to hold the lines against Russia without making any aggressive moves. On September 18 the Finnish Legation in Washington stated that Finland desired to cease fighting as soon as the threat to her existence had been averted and guarantees had been obtained for her lasting security. On November 16 the Finnish Minister for Social Affairs stated in Stockholm that Finland was not fighting for any European new order, that the Finnish people were democratic, and that they had no plans for a Greater Finland. They were, he said "compelled" to fight, and were bearing a heavy burden. This speech was adversely criticised in the Finnish Press.

In internal affairs the chief problem of the Government, after that of the food supply, was the resettlement of the inhabitants of the reacquired Karelian province. Friction arose between the Government and the Peasant Party over the amount of compensation for war damage to be offered to the Karelians, and although a compromise was eventually reached, there was still much discontent with the Government, partly on account of its economic policy, partly of its attachment to Germany. In June it secured an extension of its emergency powers, including the right to regulate labour conditions and wages, for two years, but when it asked for plenary powers in December, 31 members voted against it out of 167, which was equivalent to a rejection, five-sixth of the votes being required for this purpose.

On June 26 M. Tanner, who had now become Finance Minister, gave a gloomy picture of the financial position, stating that the national debt had risen since the outbreak of the war from Fmk. 2,000 million to 25 milliards, of which only 5 milliards had been raised by the sale of State bonds, while the rest had been met by increasing the note issue. The Budget introduced in September provided for an expenditure of Fmk. 18,200 million against an estimated revenue of Fmk. 16,700 million. The expenditure was Fmk. 7,000 million more than in the previous year, the increase being partly due to the fall in the value of the Finnish mark.

On December 14 the Foreign Minister announced that Finland

would not this year meet her war debt obligation to the United States. In November a new Trade Pact was made with Sweden providing for imports from that country to the value of kr. 18,000,000, along with a credit of kr. 10,000,000.

CHAPTER VI

THE MIDDLE EAST : IRAN (PERSIA)—AFGHANISTAN—IRAQ—PALESTINE AND TRANSJORDAN—SYRIA AND THE LEBANON—ARABIA

IRAN (PERSIA)

ON January 29 a treaty was signed at Teheran, after four months of negotiation, between Iran on the one side and Great Britain and the Soviet Union on the other. [See under Public Documents in this volume.] Its provisions gave full effect to the promises made by the Prime Minister in December (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 244), that under it Britain and Russia would undertake to respect the complete independence of Iran, to come to her aid if another country should attack her, and to safeguard her interests at the conclusion of peace. Iran on her side undertook to assist in defending herself against aggression, and to provide the Allied Powers with all facilities for conveying troops or supplies through Iranian territory and for procuring materials and labour. The Allied Powers were to be permitted to maintain on Iranian territory such land, sea, and air forces as they considered necessary, but their presence would not constitute a military occupation, and would disturb as little as possible the normal life of the country and the application of Iranian laws and regulations. The Allied Forces were to be withdrawn from Iran not later than six months after all hostilities between the Allied Powers and Germany and her present or future associates had been suspended by an armistice or armistices, or on the conclusion of peace between them.

The treaty was at first coldly received by the general public, among whom there was much scepticism both as to the sincerity of Iran's new Allies and their ability to defeat Germany. Gradually, however, the excellent behaviour of the British and Russian troops in the country, and the improvement of the Allies' prospects, led to a change of feeling in their favour.

The British made full use of the permission given them by the treaty to convey supplies across Iran, and with the help of American engineers effected great and rapid improvements in road and rail communications in the eastern half of the country. In the western half, however, brigandage, which had broken out afresh after the removal of the strong hand of the ex-Shah Riza Khan, was still rife, and the food situation in the country was also bad, largely as a result of the failure of the Government to effect better

distribution. Complaints were made in the Mejliss of a lack of energy and firmness on the part of the Prime Minister, Mohammed Faroughi, in dealing with these problems, and on March 9 he made way for his Foreign Minister, Ali Soheily, a younger and more vigorous man. On March 12 the new Cabinet received an overwhelming vote of confidence in the Chamber.

The new Government pursued the same pro-Allied policy as its predecessor, and on April 11 ordered the banishment to South-East Iran of six leading citizens charged with conducting Axis propaganda. On April 14 it broke off diplomatic relations with Japan and expelled the Japanese Minister and the members of the Legation, which had been acting as paymaster for Axis agents and as a centre of anti-Allied propaganda. On April 25 it announced that it would regard such propaganda, or the sheltering of Axis subjects, as actions directed against the interests of the State. Iranian friendship for Great Britain was greatly strengthened by a visit to Teheran of the Duke of Gloucester in the latter half of May. On May 2 assistance under the Lend-Lease Act was extended by President Roosevelt to Iran. On June 25 diplomatic relations were established with China.

Ali Soheily was not more successful than his predecessor in dealing with the problems of brigandage and food supply, and on July 31 he also resigned. He was succeeded on August 2 by Qavam es-Sultaneh, a veteran of the pre-Riza Khan days. On August 10 the new Premier stated in Parliament that the Government would continue to adhere to the treaty with Britain and Russia "with the utmost cordiality and willingness." He obtained a vote of confidence by 109 votes to 7. At the end of November it was announced that the Government was engaging an American financial mission to assist in the reorganisation and administration of the national finances. On December 9 rioting broke out in Teheran, due largely to a temporary bread shortage, and British troops came to the capital to protect oil installations and military stores and establishments.

AFGHANISTAN

On June 25 diplomatic relations were opened with the United States. On July 2 the King, in a speech in Parliament, reaffirmed the country's policy of neutrality, "provided Afghanistan is left unmolested."

IRAQ

General Nuri esh-Said remained in office throughout the year, and under his wise administration the course of the State was so guided that there is little to record. The Rashid Ali revolt was finally liquidated with the trial in May of six of his colleagues on charges of high treason. Of these one was acquitted and the other five convicted. Three of them were sentenced to death

and hanged. The other two were sentenced to terms of imprisonment. Although Nuri Pasha remained Prime Minister there were changes in the Cabinet in October (Oct. 8). The differences that led to these were in the economic field and the new Cabinet differed from its predecessor only in respect of three of its members. In foreign policy there was no change, an attitude of " non-intervention " in favour of the Allies rather than neutrality of the most benevolent character being observed. One consequence of this policy of assistance in every direction except that of armed intervention led to the treatment of Iraq by the United States Government as an Ally and the extension to it on May 3 of the advantages of the Lease-Lend legislation. In the course of the year also an Iraqi representative was appointed to Washington. From this step a clearer acquaintance with Iraqi interests on the part of the American Government is anticipated.

In internal affairs the most important step taken was probably the decision that the ruler of Iraq must under the Constitution be a male. Evidence of social progress is the amendment of the Labour Code of laws of 1936. Under this measure paid holidays for employees, workmen's compensation, arbitration in labour disputes, the prohibition of the employment of young children, and the control of the employment of expectant and nursing mothers were all instituted.

PALESTINE AND TRANSJORDAN

The history of Palestine in the year 1942 was in one respect similar to that of Syria and the Lebanon. With the German successes in North Africa and also in Southern Russia the fears and anxieties of the population grew, and, when the tide of warfare turned, these fears were relieved and spirits rose. So far as direct warfare was concerned Palestine fared better even than in previous years, for hardly a hostile aeroplane was seen or heard and no enemy bomb fell on Palestine soil. The anxiety aroused by the advance of the German forces displayed itself in part in the form of an agitation for the arming of the Jewish population. In Palestine this agitation was a genuine one for the defence of Palestine and in particular of its Jewish population which ran the risk of massacre in the event of a German invasion. The agitation quickly spread to Zionists elsewhere, especially in North America and South Africa. There it took on a different aspect, one not so much for the defence of Palestine as for the creation of a " Jewish " Army with its own flag and the other attributes of a State, except that of a Government, even one in exile, to take its place by the side of the other small armies as that of one of the Allies.

The British Army had for some time been open for non-British

recruits. Jews of military age, free from obligations to their own Governments, were of course accepted, and several thousands had volunteered for such service. In Palestine also equivalents of a Home Guard had been formed and some thousands of Palestinians and other residents in the country, Jews in larger numbers than Arabs, had been admitted to it. None of these measures, however, satisfied the political aims that lay behind the agitation for a "Jewish" Army, and in August the Government decided to go further. The demand for a "Jewish" Army was obviously unacceptable. Outside of Palestine no new step was necessary. There was no obstacle in Britain or elsewhere to the entry into the Army of any Jew who was eligible for military service. For the Jews in Palestine and similarly for the Arabs, however, it was decided (August 6) to raise a regiment to be known as the Palestine Regiment, of unlimited size, to be used primarily, though not necessarily, for service in and near Palestine, and at the same time to increase the numbers of the Palestine Volunteer Force and the Jewish rural special police which to some extent perform similar duties to those of the British Home Guard. But already by the end of June over 12,000 Palestinian Jews, both men and women, were serving in the British forces in the Middle East.

Earlier in the year, in February, Palestine Jews and their kinsmen beyond the seas were deeply moved by a catastrophe in the Black Sea which led to the loss of some 760 lives of Jewish refugees from Europe, all on board with one exception, who had hoped to reach Palestine and find safety there. Even in the period of endless horror in which this tragedy fell the eveAt touched the hearts of non-Jews as well as Jews everywhere. There had long been a traffic in illicit immigration, partly spontaneous, partly organised, in some cases by European Governments, intended in the main for the rescue of the victims of Nazi and other European cruelties. The vessel in question, the *Struma*, had never got within hundreds of miles of the Palestine coast. Being unseaworthy it is doubtful whether she could ever have done so. Sailing from Constanza in Rumania, after two months she reached Istanbul where she was detained by the Turkish authorities and had to undergo considerable repairs. An attempt by the Zionist Organisation to get permission from the Palestine Government for the passengers who were not qualified under the Immigration Regulations to be admitted to Palestine failed in respect of all on board except the children between 11 and 16. The Turkish Government, however, refused permission for these children to land in Turkey *en route* for Palestine, and sent the vessel back into the Black Sea, where she was shortly afterwards sunk by a mine or torpedo or otherwise. On February 27 the Jews in Palestine observed a period of mourning for the loss of life.

The first part of the year saw a recurrence of terrorist violence in which British and Jewish police officers were in most cases the victims (Jan. 20 and 23). These acts were attributed to a very small group of Jewish terrorists, most if not all of whom were captured or killed.

Although extremist political views were somewhat prevalent, or at any rate vocal, in Palestine Jewry, there were signs of a more realistic approach to the problems which beset the country in more than one section of the Jewish population. The Arabs were almost without exception quiescent, immersed in questions of domestic economy, and gave politics a rest. The Government policy was to preserve the *status quo*, part of the programme foreshadowed early in 1939. Since the rise of National Socialism in Germany there has been an appreciable immigration of Jews from Central Europe, experienced in the practical problems of government, aware of the necessity of compromise, of consideration for other points of view, and with a knowledge of the working of democratic government. This section of the Jewish population had for the most part never been Jewish politicians, and in so far as they were Zionists had been more concerned with the successful settlement of Jews in Palestine than with the acquisition of political privileges. Hitherto in the administrative and representative machine of Palestine Jewry they had had no place. Elections in Palestine Jewry occur only at long intervals and most of these Central European immigrants had settled in the country subsequent to the last elections. One opportunity was given at Haifa in the course of the year and this resulted in the appearance of a new Central European Party which came out second of the large numbers of parties that always contest elections in Palestine, almost threatening the position of the Socialist Zionist Party which had been long in control. Another symptom of a possible realisation of the possible lines of agreement between the Arab and Jewish points of view was the revival of activity on the part of Dr. Judah Magnes and the small party of intellectuals who share his view that the position of the Jews in Palestine can be secured only with Arab agreement and that co-operation between reasonable Jews and reasonable Arabs is possible. On the other hand, the official Zionists in the course of the year showed themselves more extreme, and demanded far more than they had agreed to accept when British policy was defined in the Mandate and on later occasions.

The economic situation in Palestine was in many respects similar to that in neighbouring countries. The staple industry, citrus growing, was temporarily destroyed; the Army and military works, coupled with recruiting, provided employment for everybody capable of accepting it and also flooded the country with money. This latter consequence, coupled with the scarcity of non-necessities and the inadequate supply even

of necessities, led to a great increase in the cost of living. A Jewish investigation in the course of the year showed that half of the Jewish children were underfed. The Government had in previous years dealt with the first of these difficulties by subventioning the citrus growers by way of making loans to them, and this policy was continued for the season 1942-43. It succeeded in keeping alive, in the anticipation of better days, the greater part of the profitable orange groves. The export of citrus fruit which had before the outbreak of war exceeded 15£ million cases (1938-39) fell to less than 110,000 in the season 1940-41. The following year, however, showed an increase as a consequence of new markets being opened in neighbouring countries. To deal with the phenomenal rise in the cost of living the Government requisitioned all crop surpluses of maize, durra, sesame, wheat, and barley, supplemented the supplies thereby obtained by imports from abroad, and introduced maximum prices and rationing for these and other commodities.

Advantage was taken of the state of the London Money Market to convert the Palestine Loan of 4,475,000£. from 5 per cent, to a 3 per cent, basis. One and three-quarter million pounds were converted into the new stock. The balance of the loan was repaid. Another form of loan to the Government—this one solely to support the British war effort and also to absorb, if possible, excess wealth—was the putting on sale of Savings Certificates on the English model. Another financial measure which came into force in the course of the year was the introduction of an income tax of, however, a much lighter character than the parallel taxes elsewhere. Palestine will benefit also in the future from the new railway line that has been constructed between Haifa and Tripoli by way of Beirut. The construction of this link puts Palestine in direct railway connexion not only with the Lebanon but also with Turkey and Europe. The line was opened on December 20.

In the meanwhile Transjordan was quietly developing and progressing, fortunate in having been free from all internal disturbance for the past decade and longer. The war brought the construction of a first-class road from Amman to the North, a reconstitution of the road built by the Romans and a main highway as far back as history stretches. A second first-class road, completed before the outbreak of war, runs alongside the pipe-line from the Palestinian to the Iraqi frontier, connecting Haifa with Baghdad. The general rise in prices brought prosperity to Transjordan which is not to a large extent dependent on imports from outside. This prosperity is seen in the improvement in the small agricultural holdings on which the greater part of the population depends. At the same time greater responsibility is being devolved by the Mandatory Power on the Amir and his Government. Apart from the Arab Legion there are

now only six British officials in the service of the Transjordan Government, the remainder of the staff being recruited from local nationals.

SYRIA AND THE LEBANON

Although not in a region of military operations, Syria was a great part of the year 1942 in close proximity to one, and at times of German successes some anxiety was felt by the local population and by those responsible for its safety. The country had been in the hands of the Fighting I>ench, with the British behind them, since June, 1941, and henceforth, being in effect under martial law, its history contained few incidents. The French promise, with British and United States support (Jan. 19), of independence for Syria held the field throughout the year, but the Syrians, remembering the past, gave more heed to the supporting statements than to the original promise, and preferred an unequivocal declaration of independence by the British and United States Governments. However, the accrediting by those Powers of Ministers to the Syrian Government (Great Britain, Feb. 9 ; U.S.A., Nov.) was a step in that direction and was welcomed on that account. The union of the Alawite territory and the Jebel Druze with Syria, one of the long-desired objects of the Syrian Nationalists, also gave satisfaction. The Syrian Government at the same time took steps to appoint representatives in the neighbouring states.

When the year opened the administration of Syria was in the hands of a Government that had been nominated by the French without much consideration for public opinion. In April there was a change. A new Ministry under Husni Al-Barazi was appointed. The new Prime Minister was a prominent Syrian Nationalist and a former member of the National Bloc, and, consequently, nearer to the point of view of that party than had been his predecessor. The effect of his appointment was to diminish the suspicion of the French that still persisted.

One of the major troubles of the Syrians during the year was the scarcity of staple foods, above all, wheat. This was inevitably increased by the presence in the country of large armies. The problem of supplies was, with the great pressure on available transport, a serious one throughout the Middle East. The British authorities had their hands very full in this connexion. Nevertheless, they found it possible to relieve the scarcity in Syria and to ensure an adequate supply of food. This action was recognised by the population and greatly appreciated. In another direction the British occupation of the country brought distinct economic advantage to it. The railway from Europe ends at Tripoli and Damascus : that from Egypt and Palestine had never previously extended beyond Haifa. There was thus a gap of 150 miles. A connexion between Haifa and Beirut

and Tripoli was especially useful for military purposes. The British Army set about the work of making the connexion. Before the end of the year it was finished (Dec. 20), and when the country has settled down after the war it will be possible for travellers from the English Channel to proceed not only to Syria without change of train, but also to Palestine and Egypt. Incidentally the building of this railway must bring Syria, through the Lebanon* and Palestine closer together. The two twin states of Syria and the Lebanon, both independent of one another, found it possible to co-operate closely and in some spheres introduced identical legislation, thereby helping towards the much desired goal of a federation.

The history of the Lebanon during the year differed little from that of Syria. The independence of the Lebanon State was promptly recognised by the Syrian Government, and Great Britain, the United States of America, and other Allied States took similar steps. The United States Consul-General, in taking office in November, said: " I emphasise President Roosevelt's words that, by my appointment, it is the intention of the American Government to manifest their sympathy with the aspirations of the Lebanese people for sovereign independence. My Government are aware that the exercise of full sovereign powers by your Excellency's Government to-day is circumscribed by the limitations necessitated by war conditions. They look forward, however, with assurance to the time when the Lebanese people undertake the rights and responsibilities of fully independent statehood." The co-operation and friendliness of the Syrian Government were especially welcome. They brought to an end, it was hoped, the long and unhappy period of mutual suspicion and jealousy, instigated, it was believed, by those who had been in absolute control of the country for twenty years.

In July the Lebanese Government resigned, partly on account of its unrepresentative character and the lack of confidence in it of the population as a whole, partly on account of its failure to deal satisfactorily with the food situation in Beirut. Ahmad Dauq was succeeded as Prime Minister by Sami es-Sulh who, however, like his predecessor, did not enjoy the confidence of the majority of the population.

ARABIA

With the remainder of the world in turmoil, the rulers of Arabia yet succeeded in keeping their countries outside the vortex, and Arabia may be said to have been without history during the year. The tide of battle had receded far from the opposite shore of the Red Sea. Even in Egypt it had retreated, and by the end of the year it had passed almost half-way across Africa. The sympathies of the ruler of Saudi-Arabia continued with the

British, but there was no opportunity for **him** to pass beyond a state of neutrality. On February 22, however, at the suggestion of the British Government, relations with Italy were broken off.

In internal government a remarkable advance—for a State such as Saudi-Arabia—was made in July and August. A Labour Code was adopted. Under this, employers are bound to provide a health service for their employees, an eight-hour day and six-day working week were instituted, holidays with pay were made compulsory, a month's notice was required of dismissal from employment and other conditions of employment placed under control, and employers were required to provide schools and other amenities for their employees.

CHAPTER VII

THE FAR EAST: CHINA—JAPAN—THAILAND

CHINA

THE year opened with a brilliant military success for the Chinese. In the early days of January the Japanese, who were marching down from Hankow to Changsha, in northern Hunan, and who at the end of December had actually penetrated into the city, were, after a ten days' battle, decisively defeated, with a loss, according to Chinese statements, of 60,000 men. This was the greatest victory gained by the Chinese since the battle of Taierchwang in 1938. Not only was Changsha itself saved, but the Chinese were able to cross the Sintsiang River, 75 miles to the north.

It was well for the Chinese that they had this success to keep up their spirits, for the triumphant progress of their opponents during the next few months subjected their morale to a severe test. When the Western democracies, which had already been substantially helping them, formally entered into war against Japan, they naturally expected that their new Allies would now bear the main brunt of the fighting, and that matters would become much easier for them; they even permitted themselves to imagine that ultimate triumph was not far distant. In fact their position became more serious than ever. The events of the early months of 1942 brought them bitter disillusionment, especially when the fall of Rangoon in March cut them off from the British supplies which they had hitherto received by the Burma Road. It was not without difficulty that they resisted a temptation to give up a struggle which seemed to be growing hopeless. However, the promise in February of substantial loans—50,000,000/. from Great Britain and 500,000,000 dollars

from the United States—followed by the presentation of three gunboats from Great Britain, enabled them to retain their faith in their Allies, and means were found, by the use of air transport and alternative routes, of making up for the loss of the Burma Road.

As soon as the Japanese invaded Burma in January, Chinese troops began to march into the country from the north, in accordance with an arrangement made by General Chiang Kai-shek with General Wavell in December. By the middle of March a large Chinese Army, under the command of the American General Stilwell, had advanced beyond Tounghoo. Here it came in contact with strong Japanese forces, and stubborn fighting went on in the neighbourhood for over a month. The Chinese were at length gradually pushed back, largely owing to Japanese air superiority. Early in May they were pursued by the Japanese into Yunnan, but they struck back and inflicted a severe defeat on the invaders at Chefang, and prevented their further advance into China proper.

In May the Japanese commenced large-scale operations in the maritime province of Chekiang, south of Shanghai. American airmen had of late been giving increased aid to the Chinese, and the Japanese aimed at depriving them of the use of the airfields of Chekiang, which were within bombing distance of Japan itself. They also wished to drive the Chinese from the large stretch of railway which they held on the line between Hangchow, on the coast, and Nanchang, in the adjoining province of Kiangsi. Both these places were in possession of the Japanese, but the important town of Kinwha, in the centre, was in the hands of the Chinese. While their main force moved west along the railway from Hangchow, a smaller force advanced east from Nanchang. They occupied Kinwha on May 29, and on June 6, after heavy fighting, they captured the important aerodrome of Chuhsien, south-west of Kinwha. They then tried to encircle the Chinese between Chuhsien and Nanchang, but without success. In the second week in June the Japanese captured the port of Wenchow, in the south of Chekiang, but the Chinese prevented them from advancing into the interior, and eventually recaptured Wenchow. On June 24 the Chinese captured Kweiki, at the point of the western claw of the Japanese pincers. From this point fighting went on the whole in favour of the Chinese. In the latter half of July they recaptured several places which they had lost in eastern Kiangsi, and by the end of August they had reached the outskirts of Nanchang. In Chekiang they were equally successful, retaking Chuhsien on August 28 and threatening Kinwha. Fighting ceased about the middle of September, with the Chinese in possession of 200 miles of the railway and most of the airfields in Chekiang.

While this campaign was in progress, the fifth anniversary of the outbreak of the war with Japan on July 7 was observed all

over unoccupied China by mass meetings in which the determination of the people to carry the war to a successful conclusion was reiterated and confirmed. Reviewing the course of the war, a Chinese military spokesman said that they had inflicted on the Japanese 2,500,000 casualties—1,000,000 killed and 1,500,000 wounded—taken 30,000 prisoners, shot down and destroyed 2,500 aircraft, engaged in 14 major campaigns and 10,000 minor battles, and captured seven and a half million minor trophies, such as guns, rifles, tanks, armoured cars and other motor vehicles. He said also that there were at that time more than 800,000 enemy troops immobilised on the fronts in China (excluding Manchuria), and that 1,000 aircraft were kept out of other war zones.

The economic strain imposed by the war on China continued to be very severe, and to tax the people's powers of endurance to the utmost. There was a phenomenal rise in the cost of living, due in part to speculation and hoarding, and to combat it a General Mobilisation Council was formed with power, among other things, to control distribution, prices, and banking. The rice harvest this year was good, save in Honan, where there was a famine which affected twenty million people.

Although on the whole the year had been one of military success for China, General Chiang Kai-shek was by no means satisfied with the general morale or the attitude of the people to the war, and he made several appeals in the course of the year for a better spirit. On the eighth anniversary of the New Life movement on February 8 he issued a message in which he complained that complete national mobilisation had not yet been achieved, and "there is still almost as much laxity and negligence as in normal times. Our society," he said, "is not yet a war-time society, nor is our economy a war-time economy, or our education a war-time education." On July 21 the Director of Conscription announced that equality of conscription for all classes was to be enforced thenceforth, and that two million recruits were to be enlisted yearly for the following three years, including "all Kuomintang party and youth corps members, rich men and gentry, who would have to draw lots with the common people." On October 23 General Chiang Kai-shek, addressing the People's Political Council, complained that they were still suffering from a lack of voluntary enlistment in the military and labour services, and an extensive waste of man-power and materials. On October 31 he called on members of the Council to eradicate "the bad old habits of insincerity, display, indolence, and dilatoriness," and to make the people realise that "their new national status of equality might be lost as easily as it had been difficult to reach."

On May 27, Mr. Cordell Hull, the American Secretary of State, handed to Mr. T. V. Soong, the Chinese Foreign Minister, the draft of a Lease-Lend Agreement identical in purport, if not in terms, with the Master Agreement signed on February 23 by the

Governments of the United States and Great Britain (*vide* English History). The Agreement, which was signed on June 2, made little difference to the help which America was sending to China, and which was already on as large a scale as transport admitted. But it had an important immediate effect in hastening the end of Chinese extra-territoriality, the abolition of which had already been promised her as soon as the war should be over. Without waiting for this consummation, the British and American Governments on October 10, the 31st birthday of the Chinese Republic, informed the Chinese Government that they were willing to discuss the immediate relinquishment of extra-territorial rights and privileges in China. General Chiang-Kai-shek naturally accepted the offer with alacrity, but the treaty had not yet been drafted by the end of the year.

Early in February General Chiang Kai-shek paid a visit to India, where he reached agreement with the Government for the opening of new lines of communication alternative to the Burma Road. He also discussed Indian problems with Indian political leaders, and on his departure addressed a message to the people of India calling on them to make common cause with the people of China in order to ensure the survival of that free world in which India would play her part. As a result of his visit China and India exchanged Ministers in April.

On the invitation of General Chiang Kai-shek a British Parliamentary Mission, consisting of two members from each House, visited China in the autumn in order to bring a message of good-will from Westminster to Chungking.

JAPAN

At the opening of 1942 the Japanese found themselves engaged in three major campaigns—in China, in the Philippines, and in Malaya—while they had already taken preliminary steps for launching a fourth, against the Netherlands East Indies. In China they did not aim at more than maintaining and consolidating the gains they had already made, and in this they were on the whole successful, in spite of a serious reverse at the beginning of the year (*vide* China). In Malaya, the Philippines, and the Dutch East Indies they sought to extend their empire at the cost of Great Britain, the United States, and Holland; and their command of the sea in that part of the world gave them excellent prospects of succeeding in their design.

In the Philippines by the end of 1941 they were already in possession of Lingayen Gulf and were threatening Manila, which they had raided more than once from the air. On January 1 they were victorious in a major battle with American-Filipino troops north of Manila, and on the next day the city fell to them. Contrary to their expectation, however, this by no means marked the

end of the campaign. The Americans under the command of General MacArthur entrenched themselves in the peninsula of Bataan, west of Manila, and the port of Corregidor on the other side of the bay, and here for several weeks they defied the assaults of the Japanese, who were said to be using 200,000 troops against them.

In Malaya, where by the end of 1941 they had penetrated as far as Ipoh, half-way to Singapore, their progress was less rapid at first, but more steady. The processes of infiltration and landing behind the front which had carried them to Ipoh were methodically continued with the same success. In this way the lines formed by the British on the Slim and Muar Rivers and at other places were successfully turned. On January 12 Kuala Lumpur was occupied by them. A week later their progress was held up for a short time by Australian reinforcements, but these were surrounded and cut off on January 21. On January 25 they drove back a force of 15,000 British, Australian, and Indian troops south of Kluang. The way was now open for them to the Strait of Singapore, which they reached at the end of the month. On February 4 a general assault on the island was commenced, and by the 15th the British garrison of 60,000 had been reduced to such straits—chiefly by lack of water—that it surrendered unconditionally, leaving the whole of Malaya in Japanese hands.

By this time the Japanese had launched two other major campaigns—one against Burma and the other against the Dutch Indies. After several air raids on Rangoon, Burma was invaded from Thailand in the Tenasserim area in the middle of January. The British withdrew, and Moulmein was soon after attacked. This place was also evacuated by the British at the end of the month. As in Malaya, the British made stands along the main rivers—the Salween, the Bilin, and the Sittang ; but in each case the Japanese succeeded in turning their positions, and after their crossing of the last-named on March 7 the British abandoned Rangoon to them. This gave them possession of the whole southern part of the country.

The campaign against the Dutch East Indies was commenced in earnest on January 11 with a landing on the small island of Tarakan, off the coast of Borneo. Having overrun this without difficulty, they turned their attention to the large islands of Borneo and Celebes, on either side of the Macassar Straits. On January 23 their warships and transports in the Straits were attacked by U.S. warships and aircraft and Dutch aircraft, and in the course of the next few days suffered considerable loss ; nevertheless, by the end of the month they were able practically to complete the conquest of Borneo, which was soon followed by that of Celebes. In the meantime, too, they had captured Rabaul, in New Britain ; Lae, the capital of New Guinea ; and Amboyna in the Molucca Islands, after Surabaya the chief naval

base in the Dutch East Indies. On February 14 they invaded Sumatra, and in a few days made themselves masters of the island, including Palembang, the chief oil centre. Their next step was to invade Java, at the eastern end of which they had already occupied the island of Bali. On February 27 a Japanese Fleet with forty transports was approaching Batavia when it was intercepted by a large British, American, and Dutch force. An engagement ensued in which the losses were severe on both sides, but victory remained with the Japanese, who were able to effect their object of landing a large force some 100 miles east of Batavia. In the course of little more than a week's fighting they overcame the Dutch resistance and captured Batavia, with over 90,000 prisoners. The rest of the island was occupied without difficulty.

In the meanwhile, too, the Japanese Fleet had been active in other directions, and had captured nearly all the main strategic points in the South Pacific islands. The chief of these, besides those already mentioned, were Salamaue in New Guinea, and the Solomons group. The possession of these points enabled Japan to threaten seriously American communications with Australia, and to pave the way for an invasion of that country. She was unable, however, to take Port Moresby, on the southern side of New Guinea. On March 23 the Andaman Islands in the Bay of Bengal were also occupied, and some air raids were made on the east coast of India.

The conquest of the Dutch East Indies was followed at no long interval by that of Burma and the Philippines. The loss of Rangoon prevented the British from sending reinforcements to Burma, and their troops there were gradually pressed back to the Indian frontier. In the latter half of March a relieving force from China created a diversion, and some fierce fighting took place between them and the Japanese round Toungoo. It was not till the middle of April that they were finally driven from this district, and they continued to assist the British to prolong their resistance. At the end of the month, however, the Japanese captured Lashio, on the Burma Road to China, and on May 4 Mandalay; and the conquest of the whole country was completed a few days later. From Burma they advanced into the Chinese province of Yunnan, but in spite of hard fighting throughout the summer made practically no progress.

In the Philippines the Japanese, though vastly outnumbering their opponents on the Bataan peninsula, made practically no progress against them during February and March. In April the assault was prosecuted with somewhat greater vigour, but with not much more success. What really reduced the defenders was the Japanese blockade, which prevented supplies from reaching them, save in very limited quantities. By the end of April their strength was exhausted, and after a succession of vigorous assaults

they surrendered on May 6, leaving the whole of the Philippines in the hands of the Japanese.

Up to this point things had gone extraordinarily well for the Japanese—almost beyond their wildest expectations. They had added to their empire the extensive territories of Malaya, Burma, and the Dutch East Indies, all three rich in materials of which they had special need. They had inflicted heavy blows on their most hated enemy, Great Britain, and greatly lowered her prestige in the Far East. Their plan for a "Far-Eastern Co-Prosperity Sphere" seemed now to be capable of realisation. They had certainly paid a heavy price both in ships and in aircraft. But in the South-Western Pacific they were still supreme both on sea and in the air, and they possessed a chain of outposts which not only afforded them a strong protection against attack, but were advantageously placed for serving as the base for a further advance.

The news of the Japanese victories—which of course lost nothing in the official telling—caused great elation among the public at home, and made it forget the war weariness which had been induced by the long-drawn-out struggle with China. Certainly it had received a shock from an air raid on Tokio and other cities carried out by American aviators on April 18; but the effect of this soon wore off. With the popularity of his Government at flood tide, General Tojo, the Premier, dissolved the Diet, which had been elected for four years in 1937, and at the end of 1940 had prolonged its existence for a year. His reason for doing so was not clear, as he had so far always found the Diet completely docile. Steps were taken to see that its successor should be equally subservient, if not more so; the Imperial Rule Association (*Taisei Yokusan Kai*), which had been formed in 1940 to supervise the old political parties, "recommended" a list of candidates for the 466 seats in the Lower House, and of these, in the election held on April 30, no fewer than 377 were returned. As a further precaution, the Government, on May 20, announced the formation of a National Service Political Council, consisting of about a thousand members, with General Nobuyuki Abe as President, with the function of controlling the Diet in the interests of the Government.

No sooner had General Tojo thus assured his position at home than the fortune of war began to change. Already at the beginning of March the Japanese had commenced to assemble a large Fleet at Rabaul, which could be used either for attacking Port Moresby or for a direct descent on Australia. Heavy losses were inflicted on the ships at Rabaul by American air raids on March 10 and subsequent dates. Nevertheless, at the beginning of May an exceptionally large naval force had been assembled at the Louisiade Islands, in the Coral Sea. This was attacked by an American air and naval force on May 4, and in an engagement lasting some

days was heavily defeated, losing seven or eight battleships and inflicting only slight loss on the Americans. This put a stop to the project of invading Australia for the time being, but a month later another large Fleet sailed for Midway Island, an outpost of the Hawaiian group, with the object of disabling American naval power at its source. The Japanese Fleet on this Occasion made the mistake of coming into range of American shore-based bombers, with even more disastrous results than in the Coral Sea, its losses including four aircraft-carriers and two heavy cruisers and three destroyers sunk, while even less damage was inflicted on the Americans.

On June 22 it was estimated in New York that 291 Japanese ships had by that time been sunk in the Pacific, including 1 battleship, 4 aircraft-carriers, 18 cruisers, 26 destroyers, 27 submarines, 82 transports, and 65 cargo vessels. With Japan's limited capacity for replacement this was a severe drain on her naval resources, and as meanwhile American power in the South-West Pacific, both at sea and in the air, continued to grow, she could no longer claim command of the sea in that region.

This did not prevent her from making one more attempt to acquire Port Moresby, this time by land. On July 23 a Japanese convoy, in the face of constant attacks by Allied bombers, effected a landing of between 1,500 and 2,500 men at Gona, 25 miles N.W. of Buna, on the northern coast of Papua. From here they pressed inland to Kokoda, on the route between Buna and Port Moresby, and here after severe fighting with Allied patrols they had established positions and supply dumps by August 2. From Kokoda they crept southwards, and by the first week in September had performed the remarkable feat of crossing the Owen Stanley range in the centre of the island, which had always been considered impassable. From here they penetrated to a point 12 miles south of Efogi, and about 40 miles from Port Moresby.

Meanwhile, on August 26 another Japanese force had made a landing at Milne Bay, in the extreme south-east of the island, but the defenders were ready for them, and not only prevented them from penetrating inland, but after a few days forced those who were left to withdraw. The other threat to Port Moresby similarly came to nothing ; having got to within 32 miles of the place, the Japanese, probably owing to lack of food, made their way back to the Owen Stanley mountains. The Australians now took up the running, and gradually forced them back till they reached Kokoda, which they captured on November 2. Continuing the pursuit, they drove the enemy back to the sea, capturing Gona on December 9 and Buna on the 13th. Efforts to reinforce the Japanese from the sea proved fruitless, and at the end of the year they were holding in this part of Papua only a strip of beach between Buna and Gona.

Not only did the Japanese fail to acquire Port Moresby but

they themselves lost an important base to the Allies. On August 7 a strong American-Australian naval force in a surprise descent landed forces of American Marines on a number of islands in the Solomons group, including Tulagi and Guadalcanal, in the latter of which they seized the aerodrome which the Japanese had just constructed. A Japanese air force which attacked the squadron the next day was driven off with considerable loss, though it succeeded in sinking an American battleship and three cruisers. The Japanese during the rest of the year made repeated and strenuous efforts to recover the aerodrome at Guadalcanal, concentrating on this point the whole of their offensive effort. They made no fewer than six full-scale attempts to invade the island, but each time were repelled with heavy loss, notably on October 11, and at the last attempt, on November 30. In these engagements it was reckoned that they lost 2 battleships, 14 cruisers, 16 destroyers, and 18 transports, against 6 American and 1 Australian cruiser, 11 destroyers, 4 transports and 1 aircraft-carrier. The troops which they did succeed in landing on the island at first made some headway, but owing to lack of reinforcements were gradually pushed back towards the coast; by the end of the year their position had become practically hopeless.

On September 1 it was announced that the Cabinet had approved the setting up of a "Ministry of Greater East Asia," "to take charge of administrative affairs in foreign countries and regions in that area," and to control political, economic, and cultural affairs in Greater Asia outside of Japan, Korea, Formosa, and Sakhalin. While diplomatic affairs would still be handled by the Foreign Ministry, the new Ministry would control all matters relating to the protection of Japan's foreign trade, the development of natural resources in the Greater East Asian sphere, and the supervision of companies formed to exploit them. It would also take over the work done by the Kwantung Bureau in Manchuria and by the South Seas Board. At the same time Mr. Togo, the Foreign Minister, resigned, ostensibly for "personal reasons," but really, it was thought, because the Foreign Office had been shorn of much of its importance by the new Ministry. General Tojo took charge of foreign affairs till September 17, when Mr. Masayuka Tani was appointed to the office. On November 1 Mr. Kazuo Aoki was appointed first Minister for Greater East Asian affairs.

On March 20 Japan agreed to the further prolongation of the 1928 Fisheries Convention with Russia on terms somewhat less favourable to herself. About the same time General Tatekawa was replaced by Mr. Naotake Sato, a man of reputedly more moderate views, as her Ambassador in Moscow. It was expected in China that Japan would invade Siberia in the summer, especially after her occupation in June of some of the Aleutian Islands, in the far North, but in fact she remained studiously correct in

her attitude to Russia. Mr. Tani's first pronouncement on becoming Foreign Minister was that there would be no change in Japan's policy with respect to the Neutrality Pact with the Soviet Union, and the Army Press Chief made a similar declaration.

The Budget for the fiscal year 1942-43 estimated expenditure at 27,497 million yen; in 1937-38 it had been 5,433 million. The national debt, which in March, 1935, had been 9,614 million yen, had by May of this year risen to 42,457 million. By means of a drastic restriction of consumption goods, however, the Government was still able to finance the war out of taxation and national savings.

THAILAND

Thailand declared war on Great Britain and the United States on January 25, and Thai troops advanced along with the Japanese into Burma. In June an Indian Independence Rally was held in Bangkok under Japanese auspices and the chairmanship of Ras Behari Bose. Thailand's dependence on Japan led to a shortage of manufactured goods, while food had to be rationed in order to furnish supplies to Japan.

CHAPTER VIII

MOROCCO—EGYPT

MOROCCO

ON February 6 a bomb exploded on the quay at Tangier shortly after the arrival of a steamer from Gibraltar with the diplomatic mail on board, causing the death of some twenty persons. Falange and German agents spread reports that the outrage was committed by the British, and provoked anti-British riots, which the police did little to stop. General Uriarte, the acting Spanish Governor, proclaimed a state of siege. British investigations showed that the whole affair had been arranged by German agents and that the bomb had been meant for the Consulate-General but had exploded prematurely. Strong protests were lodged by the British Consul-General and by the Embassy at Madrid, but without satisfactory results.

On November 8 American troops landed at various points in French Morocco to assist in driving the Germans and Italians out of Africa. They met with rather strong resistance at Casablanca, and, according to the Vichy Admiralty, put out of action there twelve ships, including the 35,000-ton *Jean Bart*. The resistance ceased, however, on the order of Admiral Darlan. The French Resident-General, General Nogues, on November 13 threw in his lot with Admiral Darlan, and was made by him a member of the French Imperial Council which he constituted

On November 15 General Yague was appointed Commander in Spanish Morocco, and on the 18th, General Uriarte, the military Governor of Tangier, was replaced by a civil Governor, Senor Pothous. On November 23 the members of the Axis Armistice Commission who took refuge in Tangier were sent to Ceuta and Melilla for internment.

EGYPT

Probably the most important event in the history of Egypt during the year 1942 was the accession to power of the Wafd Party. This event, in view of the party's record in the past, and even as recently as January, 1941, when it had attempted to take advantage of the preoccupations of the war to reopen the question of the treaty with Britain of 1936, at first caused some uneasiness, but as the new Prime Minister, Nahas Pasha, and his Cabinet disclosed their policy, this was quickly dissipated. On the very first day of the year, before the change of Government, there was a minor crisis. Abdul Hamid Badawi, the Minister of Finance in the Coalition Ministry, resigned, and two parties, the Liberals and the Saadists, claimed the succession. A solution was found in the vacant office being taken by the Prime Minister, Hussein Sirry, himself. This solution, however, did not last for long. Within a month a new crisis broke out, and this led to the resignation of the Cabinet on February 2. The cause lay in a question of the royal prerogative rather than one of policy. Diplomatic relations with Marshal Plain's Government in France had been broken off in January apparently without prior consultation of the King, who was not in Cairo at the time. The matter was in itself not of much consequence since there was no difference of opinion on policy between the King and his Cabinet, but when, as a consequence of a palace intrigue, the resignation of the Foreign Minister was demanded, the Prime Minister felt that the position of the Cabinet as a whole was affected. The crisis lasted three days, and on February 5 Nahas Pasha, the leader of the Wafd, was appointed Prime Minister and speedily selected an all-Wafd Cabinet. The King had first attempted to find a Coalition Cabinet but had failed in this. The first step on the part of the new Prime Minister was to dissipate all doubts that had been aroused by the crisis. He himself had represented Egypt in the negotiation of the treaty of 1936, and immediately after his new appointment he announced through the mouth of his principal lieutenant, Makram Pasha, that the policy of the new Cabinet would be whole-hearted adherence to that treaty. The Egyptian Parliament, in which the new Government had no representatives—its party had in protest put forward no candidates at the previous elections—was dissolved, and at the new elections in March the Wafd gained an overwhelming **success**—231 **representatives** out of 264, on

a small poll, however, since the opposition parties boycotted the elections. Thus the power of the Wafd Prime Minister was seemingly almost absolute.

An unexpected development, however, supervened within a couple of months. Makram Ebeid Pasha, the Minister of Finance and Supply, after the Prime Minister the leading member of the Cabinet and the closest associate in it of Nahas Pasha, resigned on May 26. The ostensible cause was the exceptional promotion of three civil servants to which Makram objected. It was announced at first that, although no longer a member of the Government, Makram would continue his support of it, but this did not last for long. On July 8 he, together with other members of the party, was expelled from the Wafd for criticising the Government, and he then formed a new party. Earlier, in April, there was another personal incident, which in other times would have caused a first-class sensation. This was the arrest, on April 7, of Aly Pasha Maher, a former Prime Minister, and one of the most important figures in Egyptian public life. The reasons for the arrest were stated to be "connected with the security of the State/' His support of the war effort was said not to be whole-hearted. Nahas Pasha and his Government, on the other hand, continued to devote themselves single-mindedly to the support of British activities. As a result, even in the depressing days of the summer, when the British forces had been defeated and driven back and the enemy was almost at the gates of Alexandria and within sight of the Nile, all the efforts of the Axis propaganda and promises had no effect on Egyptian public opinion. People and Government were one in their unruffled confidence in Britain and the British cause. This confidence was justified before the end of the year, not only by the expulsion of the German armies from Egypt but from Cyrenaica also. In acknowledgment of this loyal attitude during the very dark days, the British Government (Nov. 19) informed the Egyptian Prime Minister that it would "use its good offices in view of assuring Egypt's representation on a footing of equality at all peace negotiations which will directly affect her interests," and that it would take no part in discussions directly affecting those interests, without prior consultation with the Egyptian Government.

Vichy France was not the only Power with which diplomatic relations were suspended in January. This situation had arisen previously so far as Germany, Italy, Japan, Hungary, and Rumania were concerned, and in January also Bulgaria and Finland were placed in a similar position. This did not mean that their nationals were interned or even seriously interfered with. On the other hand, restrictions were placed in July on nationals of countries occupied by the enemy powers who had fled to Egypt for refuge.

The economic position was not altogether satisfactory during the year and was in part a cause of the political difficulties. In previous war years the British Government had purchased the cotton crop, which was otherwise practically undisposable, but the negotiations for similar action in 1942 broke down. The Egyptian Government thereupon itself decided to purchase the crop (Sept. 9). At the beginning of the year the acreage under cotton cultivation had been very drastically reduced by legislation and cereal cultivation substituted. The area planted with cotton in 1942 amounted to 702,627 feddans as compared with 1,643,629 in the previous year. The compulsory planting of cereals was intended to cope with the scarcity in that product and the consequent rise in the price of food which was bearing heavily on the population. Nahas Pasha's Government had to deal with this problem immediately on its appointment. Among its measures were the fixing of a minimum wage for all employees and the lightening of the pressure of taxation on the poorer classes in the population. The British authorities came to the assistance of the Government by making available their reserves of grain in the country. Nevertheless, food and other prices continued to rise throughout the year, and the cost of living was estimated in September to have risen by 240 per cent.

CHAPTER IX

AMERICA : THE UNITED STATES—THE PAN-AMERICAN CONFERENCE
—ARGENTINA—BOLIVIA—BRAZIL—CHILE—COLOMBIA—CUBA
—ECUADOR—MEXICO—NICARAGUA—PANAMA—PARAGUAY—
PERU—URUGUAY—VENEZUELA

THE UNITED STATES

THE year 1942 opened in a very unpromising fashion. The Japanese lightning attack on the great naval base at Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, had crippled the American Pacific Fleet far more seriously than the public was allowed to know. Five of the country's 15 battleships had been sunk in harbour or beached and 3 others seriously damaged. Indeed, of the country's total tonnage in battleships—464,300 tons—the Japanese had accounted, at least temporarily, for no less than 251,900 tons, or 54 per cent.¹ In addition, 10 other war vessels, a big floating

¹ On the first anniversary of the Pearl Harbour disaster, the Navy Department disclosed for the first time the full extent of the blow. Sunk or beached were : the *Arizona* (1914), 32,600 tons ; *Oklahoma* (1912), 29,000 tons ; *California* (1916), 32,600 tons ; *Nevada* (1912), 29,000 tons ; and the *West Virginia* (1920), 31,800 tons. Damaged were : *Pennsylvania* (1913), 33,100 tons ; *Maryland* (1917), 31,500 tons ; and the *Tennessee* (1917), 32,000 tons. There were 86 naval vessels in Pearl Harbour at the time.

With the exception of the *Arizona*, which blew up, and 2 destroyers, also blown up, all of the vessels were deemed capable of eventual salvage ; some, indeed, put

dry-dock and some 250 Navy and Army aeroplanes had been destroyed or damaged. Thus, at one stroke, Japan had completely unbalanced the American Fleet and secured a naval supremacy in the Pacific. She was free to exploit* with speed and success her own variety of *blitzkrieg*. Her drive was phenomenal; protected by both shore-based and sea-borne aeroplanes, her transports swarmed southward, landing agile, reckless fighting men wherever she desired.

In the Philippines—which she attacked the day after her planes and submarines assaulted Pearl Harbour—Japan quickly demonstrated what naval, air, and land superiority could accomplish in the hands of determined and skilful men. She overran the Bataan peninsula, despite stubborn resistance from the combined American and Filipino forces, and on April 9 forced the defenders to surrender. Fighting continued elsewhere, but her air superiority told heavily and by May 10 she was in complete control of the archipelago and was busy entrenching herself for permanent occupation.

Both Pearl Harbour and the swift conquest of the Philippines were highly educational. The first, though an isolated episode, suggested that in the upper ranks of both the Army and the popular Navy, it was possible to find professional cocksureness and stupidity, as well as a lack of co-operation between the two Services. It was announced on March 1, following the report of a Commission of Inquiry, that the heads of the two Services responsible for the defence of that important naval base would in due course be court-martialled for alleged "dereliction of duty." This was reassuring, but Pearl Harbour pretty well exploded, at the outset of the war, the popular assumption that American professional military men would not only be a match for any foe, but also proof against the well-known temptations of their profession. The public became wary of high rank, reserving its hero-worship for those who proved their capacity under the strain of total war.

Defeat in the Philippines strengthened this "wait-and-see" attitude towards leadership. The Japanese troops, although they hailed from a non-tropical country, had shown an amazing knowledge of how to slither, unseen, through dense tropical undergrowth. Who taught them? Who taught their sharpshooters to paint themselves green and brown so that they were invisible when perched in the trees? Who invented the peculiar shoes which enabled them to go up a tree as swiftly as a monkey? Who reduced the weight of their equipment so that it was a mere

to sea again before the year was up, but they were out of action during the major part of the *blitzkrieg*.

On the day after Pearl Harbour, the United States had—for all oceans and not merely for the Pacific—8 battleships compared with Japan's 10 (or more); 7 aircraft-carriers against her 8 (or more); 34 heavy and light cruisers against her 35; 165 destroyers against her 108; and 130 submarines against her 80 (or more).

fraction of that laboriously carried by the Americans and the American-trained Filipinos ?

Obviously, courage and fighting ability were not enough, for the Japanese, it was acknowledged, had the martial qualities in abundance. In addition the Japanese had at the top men who could do three things which did not always come easily to the generals and admirals of the conventional White race. Firstly, they could plan on the grand scale. In six months they had seized an area almost one-third the size of the United States. The Japanese "Co-Prosperity Sphere" embraced Japan, Manchukuo, a large and rich part of China, Indo-China, Thailand, Malaya, the Philippines, Burma, and the Dutch East Indies, rich in supplies and numbering almost 400,000,000 people. Those clever men had tossed out of the Pacific area the British, American, Dutch, and French Empires; three great naval bases, Singapore, Manila, and Sourabaya were in their hands, as well as innumerable other naval and air bases.

Secondly, they had a passion for detail; like the Germans, they "thought of everything." Thirdly, the men at the top knew how to work smoothly and swiftly together; Navy, Army, and Air struck as one force. They struck against countries which were isolated. After the Second World War broke out and it was plain that Japan was merely* biding her time to intervene, a loose Pacific understanding seems to have been reached between Britain, France, the Dutch East Indies, and the United States, but China was definitely not included nor was Soviet Russia, and the understanding between the United States and Australia was apparently closer. After France fell, the tepid coalition contracted into one between British, Dutch, and Americans. This tightened up after Japan made her all-too-brilliant dash down the lengths of the two Pacific Oceans, but China was not yet an effective member of the "Pacific War Council" announced in Washington on February 6.

Thus the United States found herself not only on the defensive, but with a severely crippled Pacific Fleet, minus her important Philippine bases, and without any plan except to gain time. The year 1941 had produced only 600,000 additional trained men, and these had to be dispersed. When Japan gravely threatened Australia and India, forces were dispatched there, arriving in Australia early in March and in India early in April. Further forces were dispatched to Hawaii, and in June others had to be dispatched to Alaska which was threatened by the swift seizure of some of the remoter Aleutian Islands.

There can be no doubt that these sharp lessons, which came in an unbroken sequence for the first six months, were extremely salutary. Perhaps in the end they may be found to have shortened the war. The year was full of domestic controversies, but there can be no question about the burst of activity with

which the year began. Naval shipbuilding yards were full of keels laid down—thanks to Mr. Roosevelt's pre-vision—in 1938, 1939, and 1940, and war vessels began to slide into the water months ahead of schedule. The Navy Department deliberately gave publicity to these launchings, painting graphically the crescendo of American effort.

In the meantime, the task imposed upon the unbalanced Pacific Fleet was to avoid a major engagement until its strength was restored but at the same time to harry the Japanese convoys which were hurrying southward under air umbrellas.

As early as January 23 a combined American and Dutch naval and air force found and attacked a big convoy in Macassar Straits; the battle lasted for five days and cost the enemy, according to the Navy Department, 15 transports sunk and 22 damaged. Similarly, there were large-scale naval and air raids on new Japanese bases in the Marshall and Gilbert Islands, announced on January 31, and a big Allied attack, announced on March 18, on Japanese shipping and land installations in New Guinea in which the Japanese lost, it was stated, 23 ships sunk (including 4 warships and 5 transports) and 5 warships damaged. Sole cost was one aircraft lost.

These were encouraging, but what the country worked for impatiently was the day when a mighty Fleet could hunt down relentlessly the Japanese Fleet and smash it completely. Even some of the commentators talked of the war being ended eventually by a sea victory on classical lines. What seemed like a successful dress rehearsal for this took place before the year was out.

But before this happened, the Navy's air arm got valuable practice in a unique engagement with a large Japanese force in the Coral Sea.

In May a fairly heavy concentration of Japanese warships and convoys was observed at New Guinea and at Rabaul. In two groups they started southward, one group making for Tulagi Harbour—the best in the southern Solomon Islands—while another steamed down into the Louisiade Archipelago. On May 4 an American "task force," which included two big aircraft-carriers, the *Lexington* and the *Yorktown*, steamed to within easy bombing distance of Tulagi. Planes from the two carriers attacked the Japanese ships, sinking some and damaging enough others to bring the expedition to a temporary halt. Then the "task force" raced around into the Coral Sea, and on May 6 there took place a naval engagement unique in history, one in which the surface ships never once saw each other and the battle was waged entirely by planes from the respective aircraft-carriers. Planes from the *Lexington* bombed and sank a Japanese carrier—believed to have been the *Ryulcalcu*—but the Japanese had their revenge for they torpedoed and bombed the *Lexington*

(which became a total loss) and damaged her sister-ship, the *Yorktown*. However, the Japanese expedition turned back. Thus, in exactly six months from the Japanese opening attack, the American Navy could feel that it was able on occasion to push the enemy around.

Another successful naval air battle began on June 3—this time for the critical defence of the Midway Islands—and lasted sporadically for three days, with heavy air losses on both sides. But the Americans sank four of the biggest Japanese aircraft-carriers and a heavy cruiser. Badly mauled about, the Japanese force withdrew.

Thus the Battle of Midway was a victory of sorts, perhaps even an important one since it removed a serious threat to the Midway Island and Hawaii. Moreover, it furnished valuable data on the merits and shortcomings of American naval planes. But it was unsatisfactory since the naval initiative was still in Japanese hands and since the American "task force" was not yet sufficiently strong and swift to complete the enemy's destruction on the spot.

However, things were moving rapidly in the extreme southwest, with a combined American and Australian land and air force trying in November to clear the enemy out of the islands immediately threatening Australia. Japan sent a naval force to support her troops, and an American "task force," under Rear-Admiral Daniel J. Callaghan, met them on November 13 off Guadalcanal. This was a really big clash, a dress rehearsal for that last naval battle dreamed of. Planes played their part, but the two Meets closed in on each other and the gunnery duel thrilled the country. The Japanese were decisively beaten; apart from vessels damaged, they lost outright some 23 vessels, including 1 battleship of the *Kongo* class and 3 heavy cruisers, while the American loss was limited to 2 light cruisers and 6 destroyers. But again the remnant of the Japanese force made good their escape, despite pursuit by planes and ships.

These were gratifying events, but the net results at the end of the year were not, it was acknowledged, very impressive. Some popular commentators detected a "slowing down" of Japan's efforts but others pointed out that the "Co-Prosperity Sphere" was being steadily consolidated and that the mighty Western democracy had not yet made so much as a dent in it. Moreover, Japan's naval losses were certainly no greater, and might well be much less, than she had expected and allowed for. Excluding Pearl Harbour and counting only the warships sunk, the Americans had lost 1 battleship and Japan 2; in aircraft-carriers, America 4 and Japan 6; in cruisers, America 7 and Japan 21; in destroyers, America 21 and Japan 39; in submarines, America 5 and Japan 7. Only in transports, mostly heavily loaded with men, had the enemy's losses been

severe ; she had sunk 4 American transports and lost 53 of her own.¹

Time was not on Japan's side, but the vast distances were. In the waste spaces of the Pacific her well-escorted convoys were obviously zig-zagging through the limited naval and air patrol, landing men, supplies, and planes and taking back to Japan oil, tin, rubber, and foodstuffs. Even the relatively modest task of driving her out of the islands immediately threatening Australia was proving extraordinarily slow and difficult.

So long as her main Fleet successfully dodged battle with an overwhelmingly superior Allied Fleet, and so long as she avoided a catastrophic "Second Front" against Russia, her "New Order" seemed at least as difficult to overthrow as Hitler's.

The first tentative American answer to all this was the large transport plane which could conquer those vast distances and drop men, planes, munitions, and petrol in Australia, China, or wherever a foothold could be secured. Mass production of huge transport planes began promptly in 1942 ; they promise to alter somewhat the terms of the conflict in the coming year.

But although this war in the Pacific was the country's main school in the hard lessons of modern global warfare, Hitler remained the supreme enemy. Some of the "isolationists" and their newspapers tried for a time to suggest that America's greatest danger was in the Pacific, but the public showed scant interest in this point of view.

In swinging over from the role of "arsenal of the democracies" to that of "arsenal" and fully aroused belligerent, the country had some marked advantages. For one thing, Pearl Harbour had produced a degree of national unity not enjoyed for many years. Some "vested interests"—not all of them plutocratic—continued to play for their own hand, and critics of the war effort were rarely silent, but regarding the main objective, to win the war, the agreement seemed unanimous. Another advantage was that production was already in full tide in many fields, and some—though not all—of the problems of priorities had been solved. Moreover, the authorities already had a fairly exact knowledge of the country's manufacturing and assembling capacity ; the national passion for collecting statistics and a certain national good nature in yielding up statistics had stood the country in good stead.

There emerged, however, one new problem, that of hurriedly replacing the rubber, tin, fibres, and other war essentials which the country had counted upon securing from the Far East. Solutions were sought, with great urgency, in two different directions. Thanks to the "Good Neighbour policy," the widespread anti-Axis sentiment in Central and South America, and

¹ American casualties in the first year of her participation in the war were : 8,192 killed, 6,335 wounded, and 43,562 missing.

to the natural Latin-American desire to replace its lost European markets, it proved easy to negotiate far-reaching agreements with almost all the South American countries for supplies of rubber, fibres, tin, and many other vital supplies. Shipping was a major difficulty, not solved until the submarine menace along the Atlantic coast and through the Caribbean Sea was finally mastered late in the year. The other solution was technological, the search for synthetic substitutes, of which synthetic rubber was the most striking example. For military reasons little was disclosed regarding the secret laboratory searches, but it seems highly probable that the post-war world will find many trade routes profoundly altered by these two major developments. The future of rubber, of tin, of many Far Eastern fibres, of the Dutch East **Indies'** monopoly of quinine—the year plastered question marks over them all.

The biggest single problem was, of course, man-power and woman-power. The War Department had planned for an Army in 1942 of 3,600,000, but by October it had 4,250,000 men inducted into service. On November 10 Mr. Roosevelt estimated that by the end of 1943 the United States would have 9,700,000 men in its fighting forces, made up of 7,500,000 in the Army, 1,500,000 in the Navy, and 700,000 in the Marine Corps and the Coast Guard. He hoped that it would not be necessary to increase the size beyond that number.

It was recognised that this drain of men into the defence forces would deplete the labour supply but the Administration was slow in getting to grips with the problem.¹ This was partly because American labour, which has always been highly mobile, had already mobilised itself; new shipyards and new factories found themselves surrounded with newly arrived workmen, often complete with families brought in a trailer caravan or a "family Ford." The supply seemed inexhaustible, and the problem of local housing far more urgent than that of replacement of labour. Hence it was not until October that the Government produced a National Labour Service Act giving the

¹ In October the country's available labour force was estimated at 54,000,000, of whom 1,600,000 were still unemployed. Non-agricultural pursuits had 29,200,000 men and 12,700,000 women, while the farming community had 8,900,000 men and 1,000,000 women. These figures invite waste, and according to the Administration's numerous critics, the existing waste was fairly colossal. One curious discovery was the very heavy man-power demanded by the new and brilliant technique for the mass production of ships on pre-fabrication principles; the "ship-a-day" programme took a labour per ton several times larger than the prevailing rate in the older more conventional shipbuilding yards. But it provided speed on a scale undreamed of hitherto.

Another factor was the 40-hours basic week established by Congress and defended by the trade unions with great intensity. This law provided, not that work must be restricted to 40 hours per week, but that any work put in over 40 hours must be paid for at overtime rates, usually 60 per cent, above the regular hourly rate. This "time-and-a-half" rate for overtime was a strong inducement to manufacturers to stick to a 40-hour production week unless compelled by direct Government order to go "all out."

Government's Director of Man-power rather shadowy powers to issue " directives " to labour. But the country was considered not yet ready for full industrial conscription.

The first shortages of labour appeared in agriculture, with men fleeing the farms either to enlist and " see the world " or to seize vastly better-paid jobs in war work. Hasty instructions were issued to the local draft boards to exempt farm workers in every case where their retention on the farm was essential to the big increase in crops and livestock already demanded of the farming community. But the situation remained a ragged one, especially as spokesmen for the farming community were completely incredulous of the newspaper accounts of the British " Land Army girls " and decisively rejected the suggestion that women could supplement the vanished farm labour. Industrial conscription of women was a tabooed subject in political circles, but 1943 may see a change.

However, except in farming, the labour shortages revealed by the end of the year were all local and were, in fact, a greater nuisance to the civilian population than to the production army.¹ Domestic servants tended to disappear as did also the workers in the distributive trades, while the middle class retailed in horror tales of day labourers demanding and getting 20 dollars a day for digging ditches.

In his address to Congress on January 6 Mr. Roosevelt successfully set the key for the year's effort. He underlined the transition from peace—of a sort—to war.

We must face the fact of a hard war, a long war, a bloody war, a costly war. . . . American armed forces, land, naval, and air, must be used at any place in all the world where it seems advisable to engage the enemy. . . . War costs money, and we have hardly even begun to pay for this one. We have devoted only 15 per cent, of our national income to national defence. As will appear in my budget message to-morrow, our war programme for the coming fiscal year will cost us 56,000,000,000 dollars, or in other words, more than half of our national income. This means taxes and bonds, and bonds and taxes. It means cutting luxuries and other non-essentials. In a word, it means an 'all-out' war by individual and family effort, in a united country. . . . Speed will count. Speed will save lives. . . . We cannot wage this war in a defensive spirit. As our power and our resources are fully mobilised, we shall carry the attack against the enemy—we shall hit him, and hit him again wherever and whenever we can reach him.

His budget message actually called for total appropriations of 59,928,000,000 dollars ; this sum, to be expended in a single year, was more than double the entire national debt at its 1919

¹ On December 5 the Government announced that war production at the end of 1942 would have reached a rate of 49,000 planes per annum (and still rising, of course), plus 32,000 tanks and self-propelled artillery, 17,000 anti-aircraft guns and 8,200,000 tons of shipping. Plane output was much under the 60,000 demanded by the President, but this was due entirely to the abrupt change-over into the production of large transport planes, the necessity of which the war in the Pacific had driven home. The tank programme was also changed in favour of larger and heavier tanks; this was the result of experience gained in Egypt.

peak in the last war, when it was 26,587,000,000 dollars. The President estimated that gross receipts would reach 17,852,000,000 dollars, leaving the balance to be found by borrowing. The National Debt must soar.

Congress on March 26 recognised this and passed an Act raising from 65 milliard dollars to 125 milliards the maximum limit for the National Debt. They were not too soon, for at the end of the fiscal year on June 30 the Debt had reached 76,536,000,000 dollars, and in November it crossed 100 milliards ; war costs in June were running at the rate of 1.15 dollars per day per capita, and receipts from taxation, similarly calculated, were 37 cents per day. War taxation proved a somewhat contentious problem, but on October 20 the Senate, by viva voce, and the Lower House by 130 to 2, passed a stiff income tax measure designed to bring in 7 milliard dollars a year. This still left a dangerous amount of newly created spending money in the hands of the public, but the President sought a new approach to this problem of inflation ; he secured and signed on October 2 an " anti-inflation Act " giving him wide powers to peg, not only prices, but wage rates and salary rates approximately at their levels of September 15, 1942.

The war in Europe and Africa now acquired a new and urgent meaning. American warships and planes assumed a larger share of the " Battle of the Atlantic " ; American troops, successfully convoyed, landed in increasing numbers in the British Isles ; American flyers on July 4 had their first " operational " flight from Britain over German-occupied territory ; American planes and flyers appeared in the news from Egypt.

Admiration for Russia swept the country. The heroic quality of her fighting, the unexpected skill of her military leadership, the extraordinary national unity displayed, stirred the Press and the public, arousing enthusiasm even in those classes which had always been deeply hostile to " the Socialist sixth of the world. " The demand that, in very decency as well as for the shortening of the war, the Allies should quickly establish a " Second Front " to draw off thirty or forty German divisions grew steadily in volume, with Mr. Litvinoff, the Soviet Ambassador, fanning the idea discreetly. The " Second Front " agitation was only partially satisfied by official assurances in June that the invasion of Europe, at the earliest suitable moment, was the main objective of Allied strategy.

As it turned out, the public did not have too long to wait. The Allied plan for a " Second Front " was suddenly revealed on November 8 in the disclosure of the chief military *coup* of the year. It was announced, to an astonished and delighted public, that a big convoy of American troops, supported by British naval and air units, had successfully landed during the night at numerous points on the French North African coast.

Resistance was negligible, and the Allies, once they had cleared the Germans out of North Africa, would have control of the Mediterranean and could invade Europe when and where they thought best. Contingents of the British First Army, flown from England, arrived quickly. Lieut.-General Dwight D. Eisenhower, who was in command of the entire enterprise, achieved wide popularity.

President Roosevelt, hugely pleased with the success of the landing, told the Press that the whole stroke had been worked out in the June conferences which he and Mr. Churchill had jointly held with the Allied Staffs.

But rejoicing was quickly followed by mystification when, on November 11 the notorious Admiral Darlan—who had been taken prisoner by the Americans when they landed in Algiers—was suddenly presented to the world as the Governor of North Africa, in sole charge of French interests in that part of the Empire. Yesterday a "Vichy-ite," collaborating with the Nazis and imprisoning his own countrymen, to-day a French patriot, anxious only to drive the Germans from the soil of France !

His over-night conversion seemed ridiculous, the more so as he made no reference to the presence of the Americans but claimed that he held supreme authority as the direct representative of the aged Marshal Pétain—a claim which the Marshal promptly repudiated. The situation was highly confusing.

The Admiral did his mixed best. He promptly ordered the French troops to cease fighting and they obeyed. On November 12 he broadcast a request to the Commander of the French Fleet at Toulon to bring it to Algiers, but this was only partially obeyed. A few vessels escaped to Algiers, more were scuttled by their officers and crews, and the others remained at their berths where they were quickly seized by the Germans who rushed into "Unoccupied France" at the first news of the American landings. The Admiral gathered around himself a Council composed almost entirely of "Vichy-ites" and Fascists, but partly offset this by appointing the distinguished General Henri Giraud as Commander of the French forces in North Africa. Giraud, though never allied with the "Fighting French" under General De Gaulle in London, had equally never been conspicuously associated with the sorry crew around Marshal Pétain.

On the whole, the President and his Secretary of State, Mr. Hull, had a bad Press over this confusing and apparently quite gratuitous phase of American operations. Granted that French North Africa needed a strong civil government, why, it was asked, was it necessary to choose so notorious and anti-democratic a figure as the Fascist Admiral ? On November 17 the President was forced to explain that this was a "temporary expedient justified solely by the stress of battle." To everybody's relief

he declared that he thoroughly understood and approved of the feeling exhibited everywhere in the United Nations regarding Admiral Darlan. No one in the American Army, he said, had any authority to discuss the future government of France and her Empire which could only be established by the liberated French people. But this temporary device had been successful in saving American and French lives, and had saved valuable time which would otherwise have been wasted in mopping-up operations before an attack could be launched upon the German forces in near-by Tunisia.

This satisfied the public, but news from Algiers continued to be confusing, and criticism again arose. Admiral Darlan's assassination on December 24 by a young Frenchman was very disturbing. Mr. Roosevelt, apparently caught off his guard, denounced the assassination as "cowardly" and as "murder in the first degree," while Mr. Hull, endorsing this view, reiterated that the co-operation with the late Admiral had been of "incalculable aid to the Allied Armies in the battle still raging."

Nevertheless, the year ended with widespread criticism of the official policy and a greater discussion of the American State Department than that institution had had for many years. The whole question of its pro-Vichy policy came under public review.

Mr. Hull, who enjoyed a popularity second only to that of Mr. Roosevelt, seized the opportunity of the *coup* on November 8 to explain the whole pro-Vichy policy (which dated back to the emergence of that Government in the summer of 1940). This policy, of not breaking off diplomatic relations with Vichy France, had led directly, he claimed, to the successful occupation of French North Africa. Its long-term purpose had always been to aid the liberation of France from her German captors and its immediate objectives had been : to enable the American Government to get useful information direct from inside German-controlled territory and from North Africa ; to encourage the French people in their passionate desire for freedom ; to intervene on the spot against any attempt to surrender the French Fleet to the Germans or to let the latter establish bases along the Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts ; and finally to pave the way for a military expedition into the Western Mediterranean, thus assisting the British operations further East.

Whatever the Right and Centre may have thought, the Left showed that it was unconvinced. While Mr. Hull was acquitted of any blame for the policy, critics pointed out that the permanent officials of the State Department had always shown a strange inability to detect, let alone resist, Fascism in a Roman Catholic country. When Franco and his Moors invaded Spain in August, 1936, and attacked the Republican Government, the State Department, it was recalled, had promptly pressed for a policy of non-interference in the struggle and had discouraged the

export of arms. This policy, it was pointed out by the Left, was not directed against all combatants impartially; it was applied rigorously against Liberal Spain, but it was not applied against Japan so long as the latter contented herself with invading China and did not directly threaten the United States.

This view or myth—that the State Department contained "key men" who shaped the Department's policy along "reactionary" pro-clerical and pro-property lines, leading the Government, on occasion, to display excessive consideration for "great Christian gentlemen" of anti-democratic views—had already acquired a considerable following in Protestant circles. It was illustrated by a full-page advertisement which appeared in the New York *Herald-Tribune* on October 27 bearing the signatures of 911 prominent clergymen petitioning the American and British Governments to "make war on all Fascist regimes," including those of General Franco and Marshal Pétain.

Thus the unexpected and discouraging developments in North Africa, coupled with some doubt as to when the "spring-board" for the invasion of Continental Europe would be ready to operate, tended to chill a section of the "Second Fronters."

However, the Administration spoke with other tongues. On the same day that Mr. Hull had expatiated on the practical advantages of the pro-Vichy policy, Vice-President Wallace took up advanced ground in an address to the Congress of American-Soviet Friendship. He declared that both the U.S.S.R., and the U.S.A. had retreated into isolationism after the war of 1914-18 in order to preserve their peace; both had failed, both had learned their lesson, and were now "striving for the education, productivity, and enduring happiness of the common man. . . . Millions of Americans are now coming to see that if Pan-America and the British Commonwealth are the warp of the new democracy, then the peoples of Russia and Asia may well become its woof." He suggested that the new democracy would avoid both the old-fashioned Communism of the international type and old-fashioned democracy but would be willing to maintain, if necessary by force, a world peace based enduringly "on the aspirations of the common man."

What Mr. Stalin thought of this we may never know, for, as it happened, the country, in one of the most sluggish Congressional elections it had known for years, moved distinctly to the Right, suggesting that the current democracy was incurably old-fashioned. In elections for one-third of the Senate and for all of the Lower House, the Republicans made much greater gains than they had expected. In the Senate they raised their strength from 28 to 38, while the Democrats dropped from 66 to 57; on paper the Democrats still controlled the Upper House but a combination of Republicans and anti-Roosevelt Democrats could make great difficulties for the President. In the Lower

House the Democrats slumped from 257 to 220 while the Republicans gained 43 members, bringing their total to 208. Here, too, a combination could easily tie the President's hands. The Republicans were jubilant, especially at recovering control of important states, like New York.

But the results need not be taken over-seriously as an index of the President's position. On foreign affairs his ascendancy was unmistakable, though on domestic issues he was, as always, under fire. Considering the smallness of the total vote cast, the real explanation would seem to be that conscription into the defence forces and the vast migration of workers from one state to another had disfranchised a larger proportion of the President's followers than it had of the stay-at-home middle-aged middle-class which was preponderately Republican.

One interesting development during the election was the realisation that if the war should end during the life of the newly elected Congress, the Republican Senators could defeat—if they wished—any Peace Treaty which the President submitted to them for their necessary ratification. Under the Constitution a treaty must be approved by two-thirds of the Senators present; if all the 96 Senators were present on that occasion, the treaty would need 64 votes. Thus the 57 Democrats, assuming their unanimous support, would need 7 additional votes from the Republicans.

Easily the most significant figure thrown up by the year's events was that of Mr. Wendell Willkie, the unsuccessful 1940 Republican candidate for the Presidency against Mr. Roosevelt. The war changed him from a conservative Wall Street lawyer and "big business" executive into a public figure somewhat more to the Left than Mr. Roosevelt. The President sent him on a mission of unknown character to Russia, China, and the Middle East. What he saw and heard seems to have impressed him deeply and he delivered himself of strong anti-imperialistic views, both during his tour and after his return. He contended that the war was being run on much too narrow Anglo-American lines, that full co-operation with Russia and China was vital, and that there was far too much American and British imperialism visible in the conduct of the war. His remarks caused annoyance in Britain, but they had their uses in the United States where they served to arouse public opinion against the view, raised in some quarters, that an era of benevolent and efficient American imperialism must inevitably dawn after the war. He declared roundly that imperialism, however benevolent, was finished in the Far East and should be finished everywhere. This was a note not heard in American public life since the domestic controversy over the annexation of the Philippines after the Spanish-American War.

For those in the defence services the year was one of sacrifice,

but for the public in general it was not, mainly because the machinery for rationing the supply of consumers' goods was slow in getting started. The coming year promises to be one of stiffer taxation than the Americans have ever known and of those shortages and curtailments which accompany "total war."

THE PAN-AMERICAN CONFERENCE

On January 15 a conference was opened at Rio de Janeiro of the Foreign Ministers of the twenty-one American Republics, with Senor Aranha, the Brazilian Foreign Minister, presiding. The conference had been called by the United States Government, with the object of uniting the countries of the Western Hemisphere in a common front against the Axis Powers. Ten of them were already at war and had signed the Twenty-six Nations' Agreement, three more—Mexico, Colombia, and Venezuela—had broken off diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers, and the remaining eight, including Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, were still neutral.

The success of the conference was jeopardised at the outset by a declaration from the Foreign Minister of Ecuador that his country's harmonious co-operation depended on the prompt settlement of its frontier dispute with Peru and the withdrawal of Peruvian forces from the points occupied by them. Axis agents in Rio also did their best to foster discord among those attending the conference. Their efforts, however, were unsuccessful, and the Ecuadorian delegate also, after a short time, withdrew his demands.

The chief task of the conference was to establish solidarity in the diplomatic field. For this purpose a motion was brought forward on January 16 by Mexico, Colombia, and Venezuela, calling for the rupture by all the Republics of diplomatic, commercial, and financial relations with the three Axis Powers. The Argentine delegation refused to subscribe to this, and proposed as an amendment that the resolution should not become effective till it had been ratified by the Cabinets and Congress of the signatory nations. After lengthy discussions a compromise was at length reached which made the resolution read that the Republics, in accordance with the procedure established by their own laws and in conformity with the position and circumstances obtaining in each country, *recommended* the breaking off of their diplomatic relations with Japan, Germany, and Italy. This was carried unanimously, as were also resolutions for the suppression of subversive activities threatening the safety of the Republics and for the establishment of a common defence organisation, with headquarters at Washington. It was further agreed that the status of non-belligerency should be accorded to all American States at war with a non-American State, which meant that those at war would be able to use the ports and harbours of the

neutrals. A number of decisions were also taken for strengthening economic co-operation between the United States and the other countries.

ARGENTINA

Throughout 1942 the Argentine Government adhered steadfastly to its declared policy of neutrality. On the one hand, it declined to break off diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers in spite of strong pressure both from within the country and from outside. On the other hand, it abstained carefully from giving any assistance or encouragement to the Axis Powers, and combated more or less vigorously their subversive activities within the country.

At the Pan-American Conference, which opened in Rio de Janeiro on January 15, the Argentine delegation, led by the Foreign Minister, Dr. Ruiz Guinaza, refused to accept a resolution which would have pledged its Government to break off relations with the Axis Powers, and succeeded in putting through a resolution which merely *recommended* it to do so. Vice-President Castillo, the acting ruler of Argentina during the illness of the President, Dr. Ortiz, showed no inclination to do this. He was supported in this policy by a majority of the Senate, and the Congressional election in March also returned no clear majority in favour of a breach. He even went so far as to assume representation of Axis interests in some of the Republics which had severed relations, an act palpably inconsistent with one of the Declarations of the Rio Conference, but the countries concerned refused authorisation.

The Vice-President was not anxious to meet Congress, and managed to postpone its convocation from the legal date, May 1, till the 28th. An Order was immediately issued forbidding the Press to report the debates, but on protests being raised it was explained that what was forbidden was discussion of the debates. In his opening address the Vice-President reaffirmed Argentine neutrality and the right of the country to live in peace without hatreds and bitterness. By this time feeling was running high in the country over the question of neutrality, and relations between the Vice-President and the Opposition parties soon became strained. He was loudly accused of being pro-Nazi, a charge against which he vehemently defended himself in a published statement on June 7. On June 5 the Chamber of Deputies, by 85 votes to 13, approved a motion requesting the Minister of the Interior to explain why a state of siege had been declared on December, 1941, and was still continued. A motion was also passed requiring the Foreign Minister to appear before the Chamber and clarify the Government's neutrality policy. When Dr. Guinazu confronted the House on June 18 he declined

to speak except in secret session, and sooner than consent to this the House refused to hear him altogether.

On June 24 President Ortiz resigned on account of ill-health, and on the 27th a joint session of both Houses of Congress voted Dr. Castillo to the presidency. In this position he was still better able to defy the Opposition in Congress, which undoubtedly represented a majority* in the country, though not the most influential sections, including the Army. The state of siege, which forbade all public discussion of foreign affairs, was rigorously enforced, and the President's attitude to Congress became distinctly threatening.

Public feeling meanwhile had been deeply stirred by the sinking by a U-boat of an Argentine ship, the *Rio Tercero*, off the coast of New Jersey when bound for Buenos Aires from New York. On June 23 anti-Axis demonstrations took place outside the German Embassy in Buenos Aires, and on the next day the Foreign Minister announced that a Note was being sent to Germany demanding reparation for the damage, a salute to the Argentine flag, and safeguards for Argentine commerce. Further anti-German demonstrations took place, and on July 6 the President said that the Government would take action against anyone who tried to make them change their attitude towards the belligerents, and condemned those who did not share the Government's views on foreign policy as agitators and war-mongers. On the next day the Foreign Minister announced that a Note had been received from the German Government expressing its deep regret and its willingness to pay compensation, and that the Argentine Government had waived their demand for a salute to the flag and considered the incident closed. At the same time a decree was issued instructing Argentine ships not to sail along the east coast of the United States, owing to the danger of the German blockade. The settlement of the *Rio Tercero* incident did not satisfy even the supporters of the Government, and was strongly criticised by Opposition members in the Chamber on July 15, one speaker declaring that the Government did not see eye to eye with the people in matters affecting the national honour.

On July 31 Mr. Waldo Frank, an American writer and lecturer in the Argentine, was declared to be *persona non grata* on account of a letter which he had published strongly criticising the Government. On August 7 the Senate rejected a vote of the Chamber for the raising of the state of siege, and confirmed its maintenance for another sixty days. The sinking by Germany in August of five Brazilian ships caused great indignation in the Argentine, and on the 21st the Senate and the Chamber passed motions affirming the Argentine's solidarity with Brazil and expressing sympathy, but, as was stated by Seior Landaburu, the President of the Foreign Affairs Committee in the Senate, without prejudice to her neutrality.

Brazil's entry into the war at this time gave a great impetus to the movement in the Argentine for a rupture with the Axis Powers. On September 5, however, the President received a declaration with a million signatures approving his isolationist policy, and in answer reaffirmed the intention of the Government to maintain their neutrality. On September 12 a large pro-democratic rally was held in Buenos Aires and addressed by anti-Nazi members of the Chamber of Deputies. The police broke up the meeting and arrested a deputy—an action for which the Chamber ordered the arrest of two police officers concerned. On the 19th another mass meeting in support of solidarity with Brazil was held in the capital, and was attended by the Brazilian, Mexican, Paraguayan and Uruguayan Ambassadors. On the 29th—the last day of the session—the Chamber passed by 67 votes to 64 a motion calling for a rupture with the Axis Powers. This was ignored by the Government, and on October 15 the Foreign Minister informed the Press that they did not contemplate an early break with the Axis.

Soon after the adjournment of Congress the President, on October 5, began to rule by decree without legislative checks. On November 18 the Minister of War, General Tonazzi, who was suspected of pro-Allied leanings, was replaced by General Ramirez, a firmer supporter of the President. On December 14 the state of siege was extended indefinitely on the ground that the international situation obliged the Government to take extreme measures to strengthen the nation's moral unity while safeguarding its neutrality and the continental defence.

While disregarding the demand of the Rio Conference for a breach with the Axis Powers, the Government showed similar slackness in carrying out its other instruction, for the suppression with all vigour of subversive activities fomented by them. In April many Axis agents who had been expelled from other South American countries found a refuge in the Argentine, where they were able to make free use of the Post Office and otherwise carry on their operations with very little hindrance. Only one or two of the more flagrant cases were dealt with by the Government, which on the whole showed more energy in suppressing Communist than pro-Axis activities. The Chamber of Deputies Committee for the investigation of anti-Argentine activities reported, however, in September that the escape of many members of the interned crew of the *Graf Spee*, to the number altogether of a hundred and twenty, was due to culpable negligence on the part of the authorities and had been largely organised by the German naval attache, Captain Niebuhr. It also charged the German Cultural Welfare Society with being a National Socialist Society in disguise. The Government thereupon bestirred itself, making the internment stricter, and suppressing the German Society. On October 8 it also decreed State control of all tele-

graphic, telephonic, and wireless messages entering and leaving Argentina.

It was on this very day that Mr. Sumner Welles, in the course of a speech at Boston, charged Argentina and Chile with "permitting their Latin-American brothers to be stabbed in the back by Axis emissaries operating in their territories." Strong protests were at once made against this remark by the Argentine Ambassador in Washington, but a short time after Mr. Welles provided the Argentine Government with convincing proof of the truth of his statement, and thereupon more vigorous measures were taken to combat the evil. Early in November twenty persons, mostly Germans, were arrested, including six who operated a secret radio station in San Fernando, just outside the capital. Shortly after a pro-Axis monthly review was suspended until further notice, and fourteen of the Provincial Governments were instructed by the Ministry of the Interior to take strict measures to prevent totalitarian activities which might be detrimental to the Americas. Six persons were brought to trial for spying, and after hearing their statements the Supreme Court requested the Foreign Ministry to bring Captain Niebuhr himself to trial. Diplomatic and wireless messages in secret code were also limited to 100 words a day or 700 a week, and the protests of the Axis representatives against this regulation were disregarded.

On September 5 a barter Trade Agreement with Spain was signed at Buenos Aires, providing for the exchange of 1,000,000 tons of wheat and some tobacco from Argentina against two merchantmen of 9,000 tons each, one destroyer of the *Cervantes* class, 30,000 tons of iron and steel, and facilities for transporting to Argentina 60,000 tons of petrol from Spain. The merchantmen were to be delivered within thirty months and the iron and steel within a year. The total value of the goods and services to be exchanged was reckoned at about 150,000,000 pesos (about 8,800,000l.). Spain also undertook to amortise her existing adverse balance in goods and services at the rate of 10,000,000 pesos every half-year. The destroyer was meant to take the place of the Argentine destroyer *Corrientes* which had been recently sunk in a collision during manoeuvres. This was particularly important for Argentina as, not having broken off relations with the Axis, she was unable to procure armaments from the United States.

In March the Argentine Government attempted without success to procure supplies for British prisoners in Hong-Kong. At the end of April she ceased to represent British interests in Japan, and she was also requested by the Japanese Government to discontinue her representation of Greek and Norwegian interests. She undertook charge of Greek interests, however, in Spain and in certain South American countries. At the beginning of March she placed 20,000 tons at the disposal of the Greek Government for the relief of distress in Greece.

BOLIVIA

On January 26 the Government broke off relations with the Axis Powers. On April 4 a Trade Agreement was concluded with the United States affecting the export of tungsten, zinc, antimony, drugs, rubber, tin ore, and cassiterite. On April 22 it was announced that Bolivia had paid the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey 1,729,375 dollars for all the rights, interests, and properties in Bolivia of that company and its Bolivian subsidiary, and for the maps and geological studies based on their explorations in Bolivia. On June 10 the Government authorised the State Oil Monopoly to negotiate a loan of 300,000 dollars from the Import-Export Bank in Washington for the oilfields of San Andita. On August 11 the United States agreed to dispatch a military mission to Bolivia. On August 24 rights of non-belligerency were granted to Brazil. On December 14 a serious strike, alleged by the Government to be Nazi-inspired, broke out in the tin-mining districts, following a demand by the miners for a 100 per cent, increase in wages, and a state of siege was declared throughout the country.

BRAZIL

In 1942 Brazil completed the process, which was already well advanced in the previous year, of aligning herself with the United Nations against the Axis Powers, and from being a warm sympathiser with them became an active ally. On January 17, immediately after the opening of the Pan-American Conference at Rio, President Vargas told the Brazilian Press Association that Brazil was no longer neutral, and at the conference itself the Brazilian Foreign Minister refused to associate himself with those of Argentina and Chile in their endeavours to prevent a breach with the Axis Powers. Brazil lost no time in implementing the decisions of the conference by breaking off diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy, and Japan on January 27, and placing all known Nazi and Fascist sympathisers under police surveillance.

On February 15 a Brazilian steamer was sunk by a U-boat without warning off the Atlantic coast. This was followed by similar sinkings on February 18 and March 7 and 8. The effect of them was to infuriate public opinion and lead to a demand for war against Germany and Italy. On March 11 the President issued a decree empowering him to place "all national territory" in a state of emergency or, if attacks were made, in a state of war; also to suspend the constitutional guarantees of "the nationals of any country which attacks Brazil." On the next day a decree was issued ordering the confiscation of up to 30 per cent, of the funds of Axis nationals in Brazil, in retaliation for the damage done to Brazilian property; and on the same day there

were demonstrations against German shops and establishments in Rio de Janeiro.

A big round-up of spies and Fifth Columnists commenced in the latter part of March, following information received by the Government that there was an excellently equipped secret Japanese army of 25,000 men in the country awaiting orders from Tokio to attack the State of Sao Paulo and blow up railways, electric plants, and other objectives. On March 26 it was announced that nearly 300 Axis subjects had been arrested, including German and Japanese officers of high rank, and six clandestine wireless stations seized. Leaders of the suppressed Brazilian Integralist Party were also arrested. On March 29 the authorities began the immobilisation of the Japanese coastal fishing fleet, consisting of about 1,000 vessels. To prevent the financing of Axis propaganda with American dollars, an order was issued on May 22 that all dollars should be deposited with the Bank of Brazil.

On May 1 another Brazilian steamer was torpedoed, near Trinidad. Brazilians thereupon commenced to man American-made bombers and fighters in order to attack U-boats off their coasts, and before long they claimed to have sunk five. Thus a state of undeclared war already existed between Brazil and Germany. On July 4 the Foreign Minister stated that a threatening Note had been received from the German Government, to which Brazil's unofficial rejoinder had been that she was not in the habit of replying to Notes containing threats. On August 11 an agreement was made with the United States for a joint defence board. On the 17th the Government announced the sinking by U-boats of three more Brazilian ships, including a troopship, with considerable loss of life. The total number of such sinkings since the beginning of the year had now reached seventeen. Public opinion was at fever heat.' Anti-Axis demonstrations took place in Rio, and President Vargas told the demonstrators that the destruction would be avenged. All soldiers on leave were recalled and the Navy stopped leave for the regular reserves. The President ordered the detention of all Germans, except diplomats who had embarked in two exchange ships which were ready to sail, as hostages for Brazilians arrested in Occupied France. Finally, on August 22 the Government announced that "in the face of acts of war against their sovereignty" they recognised that a state of war existed between Brazil and the "aggressor nations, Germany and Italy."

Brazil at once received assurances of full support from her Allies, the United States and Great Britain, and forty-four new American-built aircraft were sent from the U.S.A. to Rio to replace obsolete German machines for training and transport work. Rights of non-belligerency were also granted to her by all the still neutral South American States. All Axis ships which had been caught in Brazilian ports at the outbreak of war in 1939

were taken over by the Government. A thousand Germans and Italians were arrested in the Rio de Janeiro area, and thousands more in other districts. Many political exiles returned from Uruguay to join in the national effort. On September 13 it was reported that tighter anti-blockade measures were being enforced with the aid of the United Nations, submarine activities had been restricted, greater quantities of war material exported from Brazil were reaching their destination, and increasing numbers of Allied ships were arriving in Brazilian ports to collect cargoes of war material. On September 16 general mobilisation was ordered. On November 13 diplomatic relations were severed with the Vichy Government, following a German raid on the Brazilian Embassy at Vichy. Great relief was felt by Brazil at the Allied occupation of Dakar, which removed the danger of an Axis air invasion.

On May 24 an agreement was made with the United States under which Brazil undertook to export all her strategic material to that country in return for a credit of 14 million dollars for Brazil's purchase of mining machinery and railway material with which to increase her output of iron ore. On August 1 further agreements were made with the United States, assuring Brazil a favourable market for four years for six of her principal products, on which the U.S. would spend 32 million dollars during the first year.

On November 1 the *milreis* was replaced by the *cruzeiro* of the same value. It was expected that the replacing of the old coin with the new would take eight years.

CHILE

The Presidential election necessitated by the death of Senor Cerda in November, 1941 (*vide* ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 280), took place on February 1. The candidates were Don Juan Antonio Rios, a member of the Radical Party, and General Carlos Ibañez, a Conservative, who had been provisional President some ten years before. Senor Rios was elected by a substantial majority.

During the election campaign Senor Rios had appeared as a vehement champion of pan-Americanism and continental collaboration, but after his election he adopted the same standpoint as the Chilean Foreign Minister had done at the Rio de Janeiro Conference, and resolutely drew the line at a breach of diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers. The torpedoing of a Chilean merchantman in March did not deflect him from this policy. After a second torpedoing in June, however, the Foreign Minister stated that future events might make it necessary for them to revise their attitude.

The discovery of a plot in May led to the suppression of the Chilean Nazi Party, but Axis agents continued to be active in the country. When Brazil entered the war, the Government

informed her that no acts detrimental to her interests in Chilean territory or territorial waters would be tolerated, and at the same time President Rios accepted an invitation from President Roosevelt to visit Washington. Just when he was about to leave, however, in October, Mr. Sumner Welles made his speech at Boston in which he accused Chile, along with the Argentine, of giving a "stab in the back" to the American Republics by tolerating Axis spy activities in her midst. The facts had already been brought to the notice of the Government, but President Rios took strong offence and cancelled his visit to Washington. Matters were, however, smoothed over by President Roosevelt, and Senor Rios promised to pay his visit later.

Meanwhile public opinion in Chile had hardened against the Axis, and in response to an insistent popular demand the President on October 21 reconstituted his Cabinet, getting rid of the pro-Axis Foreign Minister, Senior Jarpa, while retaining the Minister of the Interior, Don Raul Morales, who had shown great activity in dealing with Axis agents. A sensation was caused in Chile by a statement which on November 3 was broadcast by the Committee for Political Defence of the Continent in Montevideo, in spite of the active opposition of the Chilean delegate. In this it was alleged that an organisation in Chile had been providing Germany with information about the arrival and departure of ships from west coast ports of South America, about United States military and other aid to nations in South America, about defence measures in Latin-American nations, and other similar matters; and that this organisation worked jointly with the German Embassy in Santiago and other German groups. The President, who had largely been kept in ignorance by Senor Jarpa, immediately began to adopt a new tone; on November 11 he sent a message to President Roosevelt stating that Chile would play her part in the fight to free French territory by increasing the production of vital war materials and by vigorously suppressing Nazi espionage and propaganda; and on November 24 he told a Press Conference that he was prepared to go to the extreme of breaking off relations with the Axis if the interests of the country and the American Continent should demand it. At the end of the year there were clear indications that such a break was not far distant.

In a report published in May by the Reconstruction Corporation set up to repair the damage caused by the earthquake in the Concepcion district in January, 1939, it was stated that up to the end of 1941 loans made to individual property owners had exceeded 400,000,000 pesos, assistance to industrial and agricultural concerns had amounted to 23,000,000 pesos, and 135,000,000 pesos had been spent on the repair of roads, public buildings, hospitals and schools. On June 29 another severe earthquake shook Santiago.

COLOMBIA

The Presidential Election in May resulted in the return of the " Left " Liberal candidate, Dr. Alfonso Lopes, a warm adherent of the United States. He assumed office in August, on his return from an official visit to the United States. On August 26 rights of non-belligerency were granted to Brazil and Mexico. A number of Colombian ships were sunk by German submarines in the summer. On July 2 the United States undertook to advance Colombia 100,000 dollars to help in developing Colombian production of rubber.

CUBA

On June 19 an Agreement was signed with the United States for the provision of submarine bases in Cuba, and on August 6 negotiations were concluded for the establishment of a big air-base there. On August 16, after a crisis lasting three weeks, a new Coalition and War Cabinet was formed, with Senor Ramon Zaydin as Prime Minister. On August 28 President Batista pledged Cuba's full co-operation with Brazil. On September 7 a military and naval Agreement was signed with the United States co-ordinating the special measures which had been taken since the war began. On October 17 diplomatic and commercial relations were established with Russia, and on November 10 relations with the Vichy Government were broken off. On December 8 the President paid a visit to the United States.

ECUADOR

On January 29 an Agreement settling the frontier dispute with Peru was signed at Rio. It was followed by the resignation of the Foreign Minister, Dr. Donoso, and some student demonstrations. The Demarcation Commission began its sessions on June 1. On September 8 United States troops, with the approval of the Government, took over bases on Santa Elena peninsula, and also in the Galapagos Islands. The Central Bank of Ecuador was about the same time forbidden to buy United States dollars, in order to keep United States money out of the hands of Axis agents. On November 23 President Del Rio visited Washington, where he had an exceptionally cordial reception.

MEXICO

After breaking off relations with the Axis Powers at the end of 1941, Mexico gave further proof of her attachment to the cause of the United Nations by exhorting all the other American nations, at the Rio de Janeiro Conference, to follow her example. The Government also continued to keep a careful watch on Axis

activities in the country, and in April broke up an Axis spy organisation. Germany retaliated by sinking a Mexican tanker in the Gulf of Mexico on May 14. The Mexican Government demanded satisfaction, but the Germans not only sent an unsatisfactory reply, but on May 21 sank another Mexican tanker. Thereupon President Camacho on May 28 asked Congress for a declaration of war between Mexico and the Axis States. He warned them that this decision would mean sacrifice and privation for a long period, but it had to be taken to defend their lives and liberties. Congress loudly cheered his statement, and granted him power not only to declare war, but also to suppress Parliamentary guarantees during the period of the emergency and to govern by decree for the duration of the war. Support for the President's war policy was also announced by the Archbishop of Mexico and the leader of the Falange. Mexican unity was further demonstrated at a mass meeting in Mexico City on September 16, when six ex-Presidents—Senors Huerta, Calles, Ortizrubio, Portesgil, Rodriguez, and Cardenas—stood beside Camacho as he pledged Mexico's collaboration with the democracies until victory was won.

The aviation school at Monterey was considerably developed and war production was speeded up. General Sanchez was placed in command of the troops, most of whom were concentrated in the Valley of Mexico. On October 31 it was announced that Mexico was to call up 183,858 men next year, and on the next day the Government decided to send troops overseas. On November 9 Mexico severed diplomatic relations with the Vichy Government in France, and on November 19 it resumed relations with Russia, after a break of thirteen years.

Economic collaboration with the United States was naturally very close throughout the year. On April 18 it was announced that a Joint Commission of U.S. and Mexican experts had valued the expropriated oil properties of American companies at 24 million dollars, and that the Mexican Government would pay that sum as compensation. The first instalment of 8 million dollars was paid to the U.S. Government on July 1. A new complication was, however, introduced into the matter by the decision on the next day of the Supreme Court—reversing one of the lower Court—that subsidiaries also were to be included in the expropriation. On August 13 the American Export-Import Bank granted a credit of 6 million dollars to Mexico to aid in the construction of a steel plant at Monclova. The Bank also consented to the more rapid use of the 30 million dollar credit granted in 1941 for the construction of highways, in order to expedite the building of that part of the new inter-American highway which was to run from Mexico to the border of Guatemala. In August Mexican farm*labourers were allowed to enter the United States to relieve the shortage there caused by military service and the needs of

industry. In September the United States agreed to make up any deficiencies in Mexico's rubber production.

As a sign of "the excellent relations existing between Mexico and Great Britain," the Government, on August 9, decreed that British subjects on Mexican soil should enjoy the same facilities as United States citizens.

NICARAGUA

On April 25 an Agreement was concluded with the United States under which that country undertook to bear two-thirds of the cost of completing the Nicaraguan portion of the Pan-American Highway, to grant Nicaragua a credit of 500,000 dollars, and to help to construct a road across Nicaragua from the Atlantic to the Pacific, while Nicaragua was to supply the United States with crude rubber. On September 14 it was reported that thirteen persons, including some Conservative generals, had been arrested in Managua on a charge of plotting, under Nazi instigation, to assassinate President Somoza, who was described by them as "a tool of the United States."

PANAMA

On May 18 an Agreement was made with the United States disposing of all outstanding questions and permitting that country to occupy and develop important defence areas as gun-emplacements, aeroplane detector stations, bombing ranges and auxiliary air-fields.

PARAGUAY

On April 25 a Decree was published dissolving the Liberal Party, which had ruled the country from 1904 to 1936, on the ground of high treason. On August 24 rights of non-belligerency were granted to Brazil.

PERU

The Government broke off diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers on January 24, and soon after arrested about 200 Germans. On March 14 it was announced that the United States would make a loan to Peru of 29 million dollars for defence purposes. On May 7 a Trade Treaty was signed with the United States under which that country was to take the Peruvian cotton and rubber surpluses. On the same day President Prado arrived in Washington on a visit to the United States, in the course of which he made a tour of several of the production centres. On June 20 the Senate passed a vote of solidarity with Mexico in her resistance to the Axis, and on August 24 granted rights of non-belligerency to Brazil. On the same day the Foreign Minister proposed to the

Pan-American Union in Washington that the South American Republics should remain permanently in consultation regarding measures to be taken for the continental defence of South America.

URUGUAY

Uruguay in 1942 continued to show her hostility to the Axis Powers in no uncertain fashion. She lost no time in implementing the recommendations of the Rio de Janeiro Conference, breaking off diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers on January 24, besides imposing restrictions on the transfer of funds to and from countries maintaining relations with the Axis. This step was followed up on February 4 by a decree declaring that Great Britain would be considered a "non-belligerent," with right to use Uruguayan ports, and that the same treatment would be accorded to all nations "which, in the opinion of the Government, contributed to the defence of the hemisphere's interest." On March 17 the Government seized the German ship *Tacoma*, formerly the tender ship for the *Graf Spec*, in reprisal for the torpedoing of a Uruguayan merchantman, and the torpedoing of another vessel in August led to anti-German rioting in Montevideo, with demands for a declaration of war.

Montevideo in April became the headquarters of a special "Committee for the Political Defence of the Continent" appointed by the Rio Conference to recommend measures for the control of dangerous aliens, for preventing the abuse of citizenship, and for regulating transit across national borders. In September this Committee recommended the removal of nationals of the Axis countries from coastal areas or islands throughout the continent, and a close inspection everywhere of fishing-boats, yachts and other small craft in order to eliminate supply bases for submarines. On September 18 the crew of the *Tacoma* were interned because of certain suspicious activities.

Brazil's entry into the war on the side of the United Nations was greeted with enthusiasm in Uruguay. Non-belligerency rights were at once granted to that country, and the Minister of National Defence was authorised to concert measures with her for common defence against all possible aggressions; a military mission went to Rio de Janeiro for this purpose in September. The chiefs of the Army and the police in the five border departments were also instructed to keep strict watch in order to prevent the crossing into Uruguay of Axis nationals and pro-Nazi Brazilians.

On February 20 President Baldomir dissolved the Congress and appointed in its stead to administer the affairs of the nation an Executive Council containing representatives of all the political parties except the Communists and Herreristas. Senor Herrera himself withdrew to the Argentine. The country accepted the change calmly. The Presidential and Congressional Elections,

which should have been held on March 29, did not take place till November 29. The new President was Senor Jose Juan de Amezaga, of the Colorado Party, to which President Baldomir also belonged. Senor Alberto Guard, the Foreign Minister, was elected Vice-President. In the Congressional Elections the democratic Colorado Party gained a four to one majority over the Blanco Party, which was regarded as pro-Axis. The electorate also gave its approval to a new Constitution which had been submitted to it by the President to take the place of the Constitution promulgated by President Terra in 1933. The chief change was the abolition of the provision which gave 15 of the 30 seats in the Senate and 3 out of the 9 Cabinet posts to the party which ran second in the elections. The President-elect at once stated that he intended to follow a policy of close solidarity with the nations of the American Continent.

The Government in July appropriated 8,000,000 pesos for the construction of an airport at Carrasco, a coastal resort 10 miles from Montevideo. On July 22 a three-year Agreement was signed with the United States establishing most-favoured-nation treatment in customs duties. On August 14 an Assembly of Free Italians was inaugurated in Montevideo.

VENEZUELA

On February 11 Venezuela, which had broken off relations with the Axis Powers on the last day of 1941, made an agreement with the Netherlands Government to co-operate with it in defence of Curacao and Aruba. On February 27 Great Britain ceded to Venezuela the small island of Patos, 3 miles from the coast of Venezuela, which had been in British possession since 1628. On May 19 a treaty was made with Great Britain defining the interests of the two countries in the submarine areas between Trinidad and the mainland. On August 26 non-belligerency rights were granted to Brazil.

PART II

CHRONICLE OF EVENTS

IN 1942

JANUARY

1. In the New Year Honours baronies were conferred on Sir Charles Clauson, a Lord Justice of Appeal, 1938-41 [Baron Clauson, of Hawkshead, in the County of Hertford], and on Sir Auckland Geddes [Baron Geddes, of Rolvenden, in the County of Kent].

2. Centenary of the Railway Clearing House.

— By his will Mr. Cecil Charles Higgins, formerly of Bedford, left a sum of money on trust to found and endow a museum for the town of Bedford.

6. The Pan-American Pacific Clipper arrived safely at La Guardia airfield, having completed a journey of 24,686 miles westward round the world from New Zealand, which it had commenced on December 7, 1941.

— A spell of cold weather which began on January 6 and lasted until February 21—47 days—was the longest of the century.

12. For five days severe snowstorms raged in Yorkshire, so that roads were blocked, many villages were snowbound, and snowploughs were used on certain sections of the L.M.S. lines.

14. In London 22 degrees of frost were registered, the coldest spell recorded in January since 1881, and 2 inches of snow fell during the previous night.

19. It was announced that, subject to the approval of the Privy Council, Haileybury College and the Imperial Service College, Windsor, would be amalgamated at Haileybury from May.

27. Mr. F. W. Ogilvie, the Director-General of the B.B.C., resigned, and was succeeded, for the duration of the war, by two Joint Directors—Sir Cecil Graves and Mr. Robert Foot.

FEBRUARY

1. Scotland was swept by the worst snowstorm within memory during the closing days of January and the opening days of February. In most districts two exceptionally heavy falls of snow took place within a fortnight,

and in the north-east three distinct storms followed each other in rapid succession. Blizzards paralysed transport services ; passengers in trains were snowed up for several days, and bus traffic was brought almost to a standstill. Many villages were cut off from the outer world as the telephone and telegraph services were interrupted, and even Aberdeen was isolated for half a day with no incoming or outgoing road transport, and with trains arriving only at long and uncertain intervals.

6. It was announced that by his will Mr. Ronald Keyll, of Bordeaux, desired his estate to be divided into twenty parts and to be distributed as follows : three to the University of the " go-ahead " City of Birmingham, " where years ago I had so many kind friends " ; seven to the Salvation Army ; six between Mohammedan, Buddhist, and Hindu charities in London ; two to a Roman Catholic charity in London, and two to a Jewish charity in London, all to be selected by the executors.

17. It was announced that there was a Bill before Parliament to enable the four British main-line railway companies to secure the capital of 1,575,846 *l.* shares in Messrs. Thomas Cook & Son, held by the Wagons-Lits Company.

— Mr. Meredith Frampton, A.R.A., painter, was elected Royal Academician, and Mr. Frank Dobson, sculptor, A.R.A.

21. Melford Hall, Suffolk, the home of Sir William Hyde Parker, and one of the finest Elizabethan mansions in East Anglia, was damaged by fire; the Queen Elizabeth bedroom, in the north wing, with its famous Henry VIII bedstead, was destroyed.

22. Dr. Temple, Archbishop of York, was nominated for election as Archbishop of Canterbury, in succession to Dr. Cosmo Gordon Lang, resigned; and Dr. Garbett, Bishop of Winchester, was nominated for election as Archbishop of York, in succession to Dr. Temple.

23. Daily newspapers in Eire increased their prices. *The Irish Times* went up **from** 2*d.* to *Sd.*

— A direct wireless telegraph service between the United States and New Zealand was established by R.C.A. Communications, Limited, with the opening of a 6,000 mile circuit between San Francisco and Wellington. Formerly messages to New Zealand had to be relayed from Australia.

25. Dr. Lang, Archbishop of Canterbury, dedicated a chapel at Electra House, the headquarters in London of Cable and Wireless Ltd., to seat about twenty people. This was a unique place of prayer and meditation in a business house.

28. Owing to differences of opinion on political issues between the proprietor of the *Observer* and its present editor, Mr. J. L. Garvin, the latter resigned his position, which he had held for thirty-four years.

MARCH

4. The Air Ministry announced that Lady MacRobert, J.P., of Doune-side, Tarland, Aberdeenshire, who last year gave 25,000J. for a bomber to carry on the work of her sons in the R.A.F., had now given a further 20,000l. for a flight of four MacRobert fighters.

10. A barony was conferred on Sir Victor Warrender, Parliamentary Secretary to the Admiralty [Baron Bruntisfield, of Boroughmuir, in the City of Edinburgh].

18. Alderman J. G. Graves, at one time Lord Mayor of Sheffield, made a gift of 100,000L. to provide Sheffield with the finest radium centre in the world.

19. A barony was conferred on Dr. Lang on his resignation as Archbishop of Canterbury [Baron Lang of Lambeth, of Lambeth in the County of Surrey].

26. A Viscounty was conferred on the Rt. Hon. David Margesson, lately Secretary of State for War [Viscount Margesson, of Rugby, in the County of Warwick] ; and a Barony on Lt.-Col. the Rt. Hon. J. T. C. Moore-Brabazon, lately Minister of Aircraft Production [Baron Brabazon of Tara, of Sandwich, in the County of Kent].

28. The London Warship Week resulted in 146,065,225Z. being raised as against the original target of £125,000,000Z.

APRIL

5. Double summer time, to continue until August 6, commenced at 2 a.m.

13. Sir Lynden Macassey, K.C., was appointed by the Lord Chief Justice Chairman of the Reuter's Trust. [See ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 291.]

16. The George Cross was awarded to Malta "to bear witness to a heroism and devotion that will long be famous in history."

18. *The Times Literary Supplement* noted the centenary of "Ruff's Guide to the Turf," first published in 1842.

23. The following were elected Royal Academicians: Mr. Arthur J. Davis, architect; Mrs. Dod Proctor, painter ; and Mr. James Bateman, painter.

30. The Liverpool Library, founded in 1758 and reputed to be the first circulating library in the Kingdom and the oldest of its kind in Europe, closed its doors and discontinued its activities.

MAY

4. Mrs. Harry Payne Whitney (*nee* Vanderbilt), the sculptor, left a bequest of 2,500,000 dollars to the Whitney Museum of Art in New York, which she founded in 1931.

13. Professor Ernest Henry Alton was appointed Provost of Trinity College, Dublin, in succession to the late Dr. W. E. Thrift.

16. The *Illustrated London News* celebrated its centenary.

18. The Belgian Institute, to serve as a cultural and social centre for all Belgians in the United Kingdom, was opened by the Duke of Kent.

21. The *Rand Daily Mail* reported the death in the non-European Hospital at Johannesburg of the world's most corpulent man, who weighed 756 lb. and was 6 ft. 8 in. round the waist.

22. Jubilee of the Great Western Railway's conversion from broad to narrow gauge.

30. *The Times* announced that Edale End Farm, with 90 acres of land, in the Peak district of Derbyshire, has been presented to the National Trust.

JUNE

11. In the Birthday Honours a barony was conferred on Mr. John Maynard Keynes [Baron Keynes, of Tilton, in the County of Sussex].

12. The centenary of the death of Dr. Thomas Arnold (headmaster of Rugby School, 1828-1942) was celebrated at Rugby School at a public meeting over which the Archbishop of Canterbury presided.

13. Lord Derby's colt " Watling Street," ridden by H. Wragg, won the Derby at Newmarket.

16. Lady Lucy Grace Blake, widow of Sir Herbert Blake, Deputy Master of Trinity House, in her will left 10,000l. to the Corporation of Trinity House upon trust for pensions or donations to all poor or necessitous seamen, their wives, widows, and children ; a portrait of her husband, by R. G. Eves, R.A., to the National Gallery, Millbank; and, after other bequests, the residue of her property as to four-sixths to the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the reduction of the National Debt and one-sixth each to the Seamen's Hospital Society, Greenwich, and King George's Fund for Sailors.

24. It was announced that an anonymous donor had given 10,000W. towards the restoration and maintenance of St. Paul's Cathedral.

JULY

4. Geneva celebrated the 2000th anniversary of its foundation.

8. Mr. Ivor Brown was appointed Editor of the *Observer* in succession to Mr. J. L. Garvin (see under April 28).

11. In his will Sir Abe Bailey, who died on August 10, 1940 [see ANNUAL REGISTER, 1940, p. 428], left 500,000l. to trustees upon trust "for the advancement and strengthening and development of the South African people, being desirous that the South African people shall in increasing measure progress in numbers, in capacity, and in spirit of national unity in membership of the British Commonwealth of Nations so as to take a place among the peoples of the world befitting their past history and the resources with which our land has been endowed. It is my firm belief that the attainment of this end will depend upon the two parent stocks, British and South African Dutch, and their ability to maintain and reinforce the stocks from which they have sprung, to hold and strengthen their position in agriculture and industry and in business enterprise, and to work together wholeheartedly in devotion to the interest of their country/' He also left to trustees all his collection of pictures, prints, and engravings in trust for the South African people; 1,000l. a year to the Boys' Association of the Union of South Africa until the executors deem it advisable to pay 20,000l. to the Association; 1,000l. a year to the Committee of the *Round Table*, as long as the trustees may think proper; and, if not already given them, securities estimated to produce 5,000l. a year to the Royal Institute of International Affairs, and also a portrait of himself, by de Lazlo.

15. The Bibliographical Society celebrated the jubilee of its foundation.

16. It was announced that the Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust, with the approval of Lord Nuffield, will devote 10,000l. a year for ten years to the creation in Oxford University of a University Professorship of Social Medicine, and the foundation of an institute in which the professor will work.

20. The centenary of the incorporation of Sydney as a city **was** celebrated by the Sydney City Council.

25. Sir Henry Thomas Tizard, Rector of the Imperial College of Science and Technology, was elected President of Magdalen College, Oxford, in succession to the late Dr. G. S. Gordon.

27. It was announced that Great Chalfield Manor, a fifteenth-century moated manor, near Melksham, Wiltshire, had been acquired **by** the **National** Trust.

AUGUST

2. The B.B.C. announced that Mr. Harry Marland, a Manchester J.P., had lent a large part of his fortune to the Government free of interest for the duration of the war.

5. Dr. Andrew Russell Forsyth left the residue of his estate (some 30,000/.) to the Royal Society for the furtherance of medical research connected with cancer and like diseases.

9. Double summer time ended at 3 a.m.

10. Mr. George F. Byrom, of Pole Bank Hall, Gee Cross, Hyde, Cheshire, left his residence to the Corporation of Hyde for use and recreation of the public, on condition that the premises are not used for Sunday games or music or the sale or consumption of alcoholic liquor.

11. The new Waterloo Bridge, upon which work had been in progress for the last five years, was opened for vehicular traffic.

— Mr. E. Vincent Harris, A.R.A., was elected a Royal Academician.

27. Dr. Julian S. Huxley resigned the secretaryship of the Zoological Society of London.

SEPTEMBER

1. The Norwegian Institute in London was opened in Rutland House, Rutland Gate, by the Crown Prince of Norway.

7. The Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust made a grant of 15,000l. towards the cost of establishing a Chair of Child Health at King's College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, which the University of Durham accepted.

8. It was announced that Sir Daniel Stevenson, Chancellor of Glasgow University, had given 60,000L to the University and 60,000l. to the Scottish National Academy of Music, as "tangible expressions of his gratitude at the spontaneous outburst of regard and affection" on his 91st birthday, on August 1.

— Professor R. V. Southwell, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S., Professor of Engineering Science in the University of Oxford and Fellow of Brasenose College, Oxford (formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge), was appointed Rector of the Imperial College of Science and Technology, in succession to Sir Henry Tizard. (See under July 25.)

16. Dr. Sheffield A. Neave, Assistant Director of the Imperial Institute of Entomology, was elected hon. secretary of the Zoological Society of London.

24. Yugoslav House, a cultural and social centre for Yugoslavs in this country, was opened in London by King Peter.

29. Sir Samuel Joseph was elected Lord Mayor of Loudon for the ensuing civic year.

OCTOBER

1. The Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers was formally inaugurated as a separate section of the Army.

— It was announced that a Council of Christians and Jews had been formed to check and combat religious and racial intolerance.

3. Lord Hirst made a gift of 20,000l. to the benevolent fund of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, to be known as the Lord Hirst Fund.

4. The fiftieth anniversary of the death of Lord Tennyson was commemorated at a service in Westminster Abbey.

12. The 450th anniversary of the discovery of the Bahamas and of the New World by Columbus was celebrated in London.

14. The National Trust announced that it had acquired Hotbank Farm with a further 2f miles of Hadrian's Wall.

16. The Swedish Government decided not to award Nobel prizes this year.

22. The Guildhall Library, which was seriously damaged by air raids in December, 1940, and lost 25,000 volumes, was reopened to the public.

28. The Press Club celebrated the diamond jubilee of its foundation.

29. Mr. Stimson, the U.S. Secretary of War, announced that the Alaskan Highway, which crosses Western Canada, was open to truck traffic for its entire length of 1,671 miles.

NOVEMBER

2. The *Stars and Stripes*, a daily newspaper for the United States armed forces in Europe, began publication from the offices of *The Times*.

11. One of the worst fogs experienced in the South of England in recent years, and certainly the thickest since the war began, descended on London and large areas of the Home Counties.

12. Dr. David Randall Pye, F.R.S., was appointed Provost of University College, University of London, in succession to Sir Allen Mawer, deceased.

23. **The Shrewsbury Chronicle**, founded on November 23, 1772, completed 170 years of publication.

24. The Tercentenary of the discovery of Tasmania was celebrated at Australia House in London.

25. It was announced that under the will of the late Mrs. Ronald Greville, the Polesden Lacey estate of about 1,000 acres, near Ranmore Common, Surrey, together with a substantial endowment, had been left to the National Trust as a memorial to the father of the testatrix, Mr. William McEwan.

DECEMBER

2. It was announced that Mr. J. A. Fielden had bequeathed 105,000l. to the London Hospital—the largest legacy received by the Hospital in its 202 years.

8. Colonel T. G. Gayer-Anderson and Major R. G. Gayer-Anderson intimated their intention to leave their early fifteenth-century house, The Little Hall, at Lavenham, Suffolk, to the Surrey County Council as a hostel for young artists and art students from the Surrey County Council Art Schools, including the London area schools, and also to provide for the maintenance and upkeep of the building.

9. The National Trust announced that Lord Astor had arranged to hand over his house and estate at Cliveden to the Trust. His gift includes a monetary endowment for the upkeep of the property; Cliveden Woods, with their frontage to the Thames; fine paintings; and many other furnishings of the house.

13. *The Times* announced the appointment of a Committee for the purpose of setting up an organisation to be known as the "Canada Foundation," to promote cultural and educational activities designed to strengthen the Canadian sense of nationhood and to make Canada better known to the peoples of other countries. It will incorporate the features of such organisations as the Pilgrim Trust, the British Council, and the Rockefeller Foundation.

22. East Titchbury Farm, near Hartland Point, North Devon, was presented to the National Trust.

31. The rainfall during the year 1942 over England and Wales was rather less than the average (34.1 inches as compared with 35.2 inches), and over Scotland slightly more than the average (51.2 inches as compared with 50.3 inches).

RETROSPECT

OF

LITERATURE, ART, AND SCIENCE IN 1942

LITERATURE

(Books marked with an asterisk are specially noticed at the end of this section)

THROUGHOUT the third year of the war the demand for books far exceeded the supply. Yet in spite of the acute shortage of paper, books flowed from the press in a steady stream, though they were not enough to satisfy the real hunger for books. As never before the people as a whole read to gain knowledge—of Germany, of ourselves, and our past failures, of France and the Occupied countries of Europe, as well as the Far East. The publishers made a fine effort to meet not only the demand for books at home but also the increasing call for British books in foreign countries. A widespread interest in English and American literature was manifest, and particularly in Russia, where Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* were translated for the first time, and Shakespeare's plays extensively published.

In order to counteract the wanton destruction by Germany of Polish scholarship and letters, the Association of Polish University Professors and Lecturers in Great Britain published the first issue of *Polish Science and Learning* (Oxford University Press). Its contents were in English and thus served as a link between the Anglo-Saxon and the Polish nations.

The great national campaign to salvage paper for re-pulping resulted in the unfortunate destruction of many rare, priceless, and irreplaceable volumes. To remedy this a sifting process was advocated and put into operation after much mischief had been done. Many of the books saved were suitable for despatch to the National Central Library for distribution to the Forces and to prisoners of war.

An interesting literary event was the twenty-first anniversary of the English P.E.N. Club. This was celebrated in London and attended by hundreds of writers of many nationalities. Many ideas were put forward about the task of rebuilding the new world and giving fresh impetus to the development of human understanding.

The year's production of poetry did not amount to a great deal, but among the younger poets the intellectual sophistication of the pre-war years was less evident, though the psychological subtlety remained. Inevitably they have been swept into the Forces, but the war has not made them so cynical as the poets of the last decade. Indeed, for all their immaturity and occasional crudeness, they exhibit the virtue of generous social feeling and an inner radiance of thought that give assurance that the heritage of English poetry will survive the conflict unimpaired. The outstanding volume of the year was Mr. Walter de la Mare's

* *Collected Poems* (Faber), a book of unusual substance and lasting worth. Mr. John Masefield paid tribute to our young heroes in *A Generation Risen* (Collins), a sumptuous volume finely illustrated by Edward Seago, and in *Land Workers* (Heinemann) he presented a long pastoral poem reminiscent of his youth. In quite another vein the Poet Laureate wrote two tales in verse, *Natalie Maisie* and *Pavilastukay* (Heinemann). A poem by T. S. Eliot, entitled *Little Gidding* (Faber), contained little that was not familiar to those who know his earlier works. In *Ruins and Visions* (Faber) Mr. Stephen Spender showed a distinct ripening of experience, while Miss Edith Sitwell's poetic achievement reached a new high level in *Street Songs* (Macmillan). Lady Dorothy Wellesley's *Lost Planet and Other Poems* (Hogarth Press) revealed a masculine intellect in some pieces and lyrical charm in others. A literally "new" poet made her appearance, Miss Morwenna Donnelly, whose *Beauty for Ashes* (Routledge), a sustained meditation on the mystery of being, called for special commendation. Other "new" poets in this series were Sidney Keyes (*The Iron Laurel*), Alan Rook (*Soldiers, this Solitude*), Keidrych Rhys (*The Van Pool*), and John Heath-Stubbs (*Wounded Thammuz*), published by Routledge. Mr. John Lehmann's *Forty Poems* (Hogarth Press) exhibited a marked advance in style and vision. Harold Monro, the distinguished Georgian poet, was represented by a welcome selection of poems in *The Silent Pool* (Faber). Mr. Henry Treece showed considerable accomplishment in his *Invitation and Warning* (Faber). Classical themes predominated in Dr. Edwyn Bevan's *The Hope of the Dawn and Other Poems* (Allen & Unwin), and the present war inspired Mr. Wilfrid Gibson's *The Alert* (Oxford University Press). Mr. Francis Scarfe also wrote of the war and the systematic ruin it discloses in *Forty Poems and Ballads* (Fortune Press). By contrast, Mr. R. C. Trevelyan expressed his reasoned faith in the undying spirit of man in *Aftermath* (Hogarth Press).

Anthologies were few in number. They included *Poetry in Wartime*, edited by M. J. Tambimuttu (Faber), *Poems of This War*, by Younger Poets, edited by Patricia Ledward and Colin Strang (Cambridge University Press), *The Little Book of Modern Verse*, chosen by Anne Ridler, with a preface by T. S. Eliot (Faber), and *The Faber Book of Comic Verse*, compiled by Michael Roberts (Faber). Mr. Geoffrey Grigson's *The Romantics* (Routledge) covered the eighteenth century and the opening of the nineteenth, and offered an admirable introduction to writers in prose and verse who deserve our better acquaintance.

An interesting and challenging work came from Mr. Francis Scarfe—*Auden and After. The Liberation of Poetry, 1930-1941* (Routledge). This contained a number of essays on individual poets, even though those poets are self-grouped in movements, and have been more affected by influences than the poets of any other period in our literature.

In the field of published drama the yield was scanty, and Irish dramatists were the most productive. Mr. Sean O'Casey's **Red Roses for Me* (Macmillan) was distinguished both in dialogue and characterisation. In *The Rugged Path* and *The Summit* (Macmillan) Mr. George Shiels took

a wide view of Irish contemporary life and consolidated his position in the foremost rank of Irish dramatists. Miss Vivian Connell's *Throng o' Scarlet* (Constable) showed the natural warmth inherent in the Irish temperament. Two outstanding successes on the London stage were Mr. Noel Coward's *Blithe Spirit* (Heinemann), "an improbable farce," and Mr. Emlyn Williams' *The Morning Star* (Heinemann), which re-created the atmosphere of the London air raids. Mr. Laurence Housman in *Palestine Plays* (Cape) chose four subjects from the Old Testament and gave them a modern interpretation. The philosophic motive of Mr. William Saroyan's *The Time of Your Life and Two Other Plays* (Faber) was that a man's aspirations are the most important thing in his life. An interesting experiment in broadcast drama came from Miss Clemence Dane, who wrote *The Saviours, Seven Plays on One Theme* (Heinemann) especially for an audience of the blind. Mr. A. E. Wilson edited *The Plays of J. M. Barrie* in one volume (Hodder & Stoughton), and Miss Viola Meynell brought out an edition of *Letters of J. M. Barrie* (Peter Davies).

Mr. Ernest Short's **Theatrical Cavalcade* (Eyre & Spottiswoode) surveyed the changes in drama he observed in half a century of play-going, while Mr. Willson Disher gave a rollicking account of popular entertainment in *Fairs, Circuses, and Music Halls* (Collins) in "Britain in Pictures" series.

A full-length biography, *Bernard Shaw. His Life and Personality* (Collins), came from Mr. Hesketh Pearson and is to be commended for its frankness, discernment, and sense of proportion. Two good autobiographies of men actively engaged in the theatre were Mr. Lennox Robinson's *Curtain Up* (Michael Joseph), with its memories of the Abbey Theatre, and Mr. Ashley Dukes' *The Scene is Changed* (Macmillan), in which he records his enthusiasm for the continental stage in the past and his hopes for the poetic drama in this country. In *Preludes and Studies* (Macmillan) Mr. Alan Dent gathered together the notices he wrote as dramatic critic and added two charming sections devoted to "Persons" and "Places."

For the allied arts, *Reminiscences of the Russian Ballet* (Putnam), by Alexandre Benois, gave an excellent account of the re-birth of the ballet and an authentic portrait of Diaghilev; Mr. Cyril Beaumont's *Supplement to Complete Book of Ballets* (C. W. Beaumont) brought his great work of reference up to date.

In music the ever-growing interest in the symphony orchestra was fostered by Thomas Russell's *Philharmonic* (Hutchinson), a book for the general reader, and by Frank Howes' *Full Orchestra* (Seeker & Warburg). Dr. Percy Scholes brought out a third and revised edition of his *Oxford Companion to Music*, with an appendix (Oxford University Press), and Mr. Eric Blom compressed the long story of 1,300 years in *Music in English* (Penguin Books). Other notable books on musical subjects included *The Life and Times of Johann Sebastian Bach*, by Hendrick Willem van Loon (Harrap), *The Music of Czechoslovakia* (Milford), by Rosa Newmarch, and a new edition of *My Musical Life* (Seeker & Warburg), by Nikolay Rimsky-Korsakov, edited by Carl van Vechten.

Books on art were few. The most distinguished was Dr. **Max** Friedlander's *On Art and Connoisseurship* (Bruno Cassirer). Messrs. Allen & Unwin added three more titles to their Phaidon series—*Raphael, The Paintings of Rembrandt*, and *The Paintings of Franz Hals*, by N. S. Trivas. Mr. John Rewald was responsible for the first complete edition of *Paul Cézanne Letters* (Bruno Cassirer), and Eric Gill's *Last Essays* (Cape) reaffirmed his belief in the religious nature of work. More mundane was David Low's admirable volume *British Cartoonists, Caricaturists and Comic Artists* (Collins).

In architecture Mr. Gerald Cobb contributed a lively study of *The Old Churches of London* (Batsford), and Professor S. D. Adshead made suggestions for future planning in *A New England* (Muller). Mr. S. R. K. Glanville edited a symposium by experts in *The Legacy of Egypt* (Oxford Clarendon Press).

The diminished output in literary history and criticism was doubtless due to the disjointed state of the times and to the fact that many scholars were engaged on work connected with the war. It is significant that not a single book on Shakespeare was published during the year, nor anything on pre-Elizabethan literature. To Elizabethan studies Mr. C. T. Prouty made a valuable contribution with his volume *George Gascoigne* (Milford), the pioneer who wrote "the first prose tale of modern life, the first prose comedy, the first tragedy translated from the Italian, the first masque, the first regular satire, the first treatise on poetry in English/" and, moreover, was the first English war correspondent. That Chapman, translator of Homer, was a poet in his own right, though arrogantly obscure in style, was proved in an admirable and scholarly edition, *The Poems of George Chapman* (Milford), edited by Phyllis Brooks Bartlett. Seventeenth-century literature evoked only one volume—Mr. C. S. Lewis' *A Preface to Paradise Lost* (Oxford University Press). Eighteenth-century writers received more attention. Two more volumes of Professor Herbert Davis's authoritative edition of Swift were published: Volume X, *The Drapier's Letters and other Works, 1724-1725*, and Volume XI, *Gulliver's Travels, 1726* (Blackwell), with an introduction by Harold Williams. The American scholar, Mr. W. S. Lewis, brought out Volumes IX and X of *Horace Walpole's Correspondence* (Oxford University Press), and from the same publishers came a handsome edition of *The Correspondence of Richard Steele*, compiled and learnedly annotated by Rae Blanchard. Many people will be grateful to Miss Katharine C. Balderston for her edition of *Thraliana* (Clarendon Press), the diary of Mrs. Hester Lynch Piozzi, covering the years 1776-1809, a veritable mirror of the age and of her own vigorous personality. Gilchrist's classic edition of Blake was brought up to date and edited with enthusiastic piety by Ruthven Todd for Everyman's Library—*Life of William Blake* (Dent), illustrated with Blake's designs; all for three shillings. Mr. Alan McKillop's *The Background of Thomson's "Seasons"* (Milford) laid bare the almost terrifying erudition of one who has been the people's poet for two centuries. Interest in Thomson's contemporary nature poet, John Dyer, was revived in *Grongar Hill*, edited by Richard C. Boys (Milford).

The Romantic period was represented by *The Mind of a Poet: a study of Wordsworth's Thought with particular reference to "The Prelude,"* by Baymond Dexter Havens (Milford), and by *Journals of Dorothy Wordsworth* (Macmillan), edited by E. de Selincourt.

Studies of nineteenth-century writers included *Savage Landor* (Macmillan), by Malcolm Elwin, *Thackeray* (Oxford University Press), by J. Dodds, and *Walt Whitman. Poet of Democracy*, by Hugh l'Anson Fausset (Cape). Mr. John Pick gave a penetrating study in *Oerard Manley Hopkins, Priest and Poet* (Oxford University Press). Mr. Edmund Blunden chose a congenial subject for his work on *Thomas Hardy* (Macmillan), while Mr. T. S. Eliot's *A Choice of Kipling's Verse* (Faber) came most surprisingly from him. In * *The Pre-Raphaelite Tragedy* (Cape) Mr. William Gaunt offered a series of brilliant portraits rather than an analysis of an artistic movement. A prolific Victorian journalist was commemorated by Mr. Balph Strauss in *Sala* (Constable). Miss Elizabeth Bowen in *English Novelists* (Collins, "Britain in Pictures" series) traced the permanent elements in our great novels, writing "as a pleasure-seeker and not a judge." In the field of literary criticism the outstanding book of 1942 was Mr. Geoffrey Tillotson's * *Essays in Criticism and Research* (Cambridge University Press). From America, where critical energy has increased to a phenomenal degree, a new search for principles was instituted in *The Intent of the Critic*, edited by Donald A. Stauffer (Princeton University Press), and consisting of four essays by Edmund Wilson, Norman Foerster, John Crowe Ransom, and W. H. Auden. Under the fancy title, *The Wound and the Bow* (Seeker & Warburg), Mr. Edmund Wilson contributed seven essays on very diverse writers, with particular emphasis on Dickens and Kipling, and achieved the feat of explaining what James Joyce's *Finnegan's Wake* was all about, having apparently read it through to the finish. A critical and full survey of the evolution of the short story came from one of its finest exponents, Mr. H. E. Bates, entitled *The Modern Short Story* (Nelson).

The incongruity of writing on past history amid the shattering events of this war was evident from the meagre output of historical studies. Mr. Hilaire Belloc's *Elizabethan Commentary* (Cassell) gave an account of the English Reformation from a particular point of view. The fourth volume of Dr. James MacKinnon's great work, *A History of Modern Liberty* (Longmans), appeared, covering the years 1647-89. Mr. Arthur Bryant in *The Years of Endurance, 1793-1802* (Collins), dealt with our war against Revolutionary France, while in *Britain Against Napoleon* (Faber) Miss Carola Oman discussed the reaction of the British public to that conflict. The American historian, Professor Paul Knaplund, gave a dispassionate view of the growth of our Empire in *The British Empire, 1815-1939* (Hamish Hamilton). Dr. James Williamson's *The Ocean in English History* (Clarendon Press) was of immense topical interest. In * *Studies in Diplomacy and Statecraft* (Longmans) Dr. G. P. Gooch made an outstanding contribution to the history of our own times. Another notable book was Mr. L. B. Namier's *Conflicts: Studies in Contemporary History* (Macmillan). In lighter vein Miss Bose

Macaulay wrote *Life Among the English* (Collins, " Britain in Picture " series).

American history was represented by *A Brief History of the United States*, by Allan Nevins (Clarendon Press); *The Ground We Stand On*, by John Dos Passos (Routledge), and *Reveille in Washington, 1860-1865*, by Margaret Leech (Eyre & Spottiswoode).

Histories of other nations included *The Roman Commonwealth*, by Mr. R. W. Moore (English Universities Press); *Herndn Cortes, Conqueror of Mexico*, by Salvador de Madariaga (Hodder & Stoughton); *Palmyra of the North: The First Days of St Petersburg*, by Christopher Marsden (Faber); *Count Cagliostro*, by Michael Harrison (Rich & Cowan); *A History of Chile*, by Luis Galdames, translated and edited by Isaac Joslin Cox (Milford); and *Letters from Paris, 1870-75*, edited by Robert Henrey (Dent).

In historical biography the following books deserved mention : *Catherine of Aragon*, by Garrett Mattingly (Cape); *The Mother of Victoria*, by Dorothy Margaret Stuart (Macmillan); and *The Life and Times of Sir Robert Peel*, by Tresham Lever (Allen & Unwin); *Crusader in Crinoline*, the life of Harriet Beecher Stowe, by Forrest Wilson (Hutchinson). Under the title *The Nelson Touch* (Heinemann) Miss Clemence Dane compiled an anthology of Nelson's letters which revealed the man, and showed that the complaints he made of naval administration find a parallel in the present war. Other biographies included a life of that remarkable woman, *Octavia Hill*, by Miss E. Moberly Bell (Constable); *Rufus Isaacs, First Marquess of Reading*, by his son (Hutchinson); *Haddon the Head-Hunter*, by A. Hingston Quiggin (Cambridge Press); *H. R. L. Sheppard: Life and Letters*, by R. Ellis Roberts (Murray); and *Sir Richard Burton's Wife*, by Jean Burton (Harrap).

Autobiographies were numerous. Among notable ones were Lord Chatfield's *The Navy and Defence* (Heinemann); Lord Lytton's *Pundits and Elephants* (Peter Davies); Mr. Siegfried Sassoon's long-awaited continuation of *The Old Country and Seven More Years*, entitled *The Weald of Youth* (Faber); Dr. L. P. Jacks's *The Confession of an Octogenarian* (Allen & Unwin); *From Many Angles*, by Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Frederick Sykes (Harrap); *Remembrance*, by H. J. Massingham (Batsford); *Brief Life*, by Cecil Whiteley (Macmillan); *Diplomatic Petrel*, by Sir Thomas Hohler (Murray); *Retrospect of An Unimportant Life*, Vol. I, by Herbert Hensley Henson (Oxford Press); *A Modern De Quincey*, by Captain H. R. Robinson (Harrap). Mr. E. L. Woodward, in *Short Journey* (Faber), spoke for the " lost generation/" the young men who came back from the last war; Mr. A. L. Rowse's *A Cornish Childhood* (Cape) told how the son of a worker in a china clay quarry became a Fellow of All Souls and a distinguished writer before he was forty. Pilots of the Air Force were surprisingly articulate. One of them at least wrote a book of lasting worth—*The Last Enemy* (Macmillan), by Richard Hillary, who survived the Battle of Britain to meet death in the air in 1942. Mr. Sean O'Casey's *Pictures in the Hallway* (Macmillan) followed up his earlier volume, *Knock at the Door*. A long life of colonial admimstra-

tion was recalled by Sir Frank Swettenham in *Footprints in Malaya* (Hutchinson).

The letters of his father formed the basis of Lord Ponsonby's book, *Henry Ponsonby, Queen Victoria's Private Secretary* (Macmillan); *The Pollock-Holmes Letters, 1874-1992*, in two volumes (Cambridge Press), were edited by Mark de Wolfe Howe, and a second volume, *The Later Life and Letters of Sir Henry Newbolt*, was edited by his wife.

Of the innumerable books on World Affairs an attempt has been made to record only those of permanent value. Hitlerite Germany was the most fruitful subject for study, and Mr. Wickham Steed's *That Bad Man* (Macmillan), a cautionary tale for children of all ages, made plain the whole tangled history of our times. *People Under Hitler*, by Wallace Deuel (Lindsay Drummond), gave a memorable account of the Nazi system and its leaders. All that Hitler has said and unsaid was collected by that eminent scholar Professor Norman Baynes in two volumes, *The Speeches of Adolf Hitler, April 1922—August 1939* (Oxford University Press). Mr. Howard Smith, the last American journalist to leave Germany before America declared war, described his experiences in Hitler's Reich in *Last Train from Berlin* (Cresset Press). The character of the Germans was discussed by Mr. S. D. Stirk in *The Prussian Spirit, a Survey of German Literature and Politics, 1914-40* (Faber). Other books on the same topic were *The Germans*, by Emil Ludwig (Hamish Hamilton), *German Kultur*, by Otto Zarek (Hutchinson), and *Shall Our Children Live or Die ?* by Victor Gollancz (Gollancz). France under the Germans inspired *Death and Tomorrow*, by Peter de Polnay (Seeker & Warburg), *Report on France*, by Thomas Kernan (Lane), and *Strictly Personal* (Heinemann), by Somerset Maugham. In *A Thousand Shall Fall* (Harrap) Hans Halbe gave a moving personal impression of the fall of France as a soldier who surrendered. The campaign in Greece was authoritatively surveyed by Lieut.-Colonel Stanley Casson in *Greece Against the Axis* (Hamish Hamilton), while the Malayan disaster and loss of Singapore were faithfully recorded in Mr. Ian Morrison's *Malayan Postscript* (Faber). The workings of the Japanese governmental machine formed the subject of Mr. Wilfrid Fleisher's *Volcanic Isle* (Cape). A timely book, *Mission to Moscow* (Gollancz), came from Mr. Joseph Davies, who was United States Ambassador from 1936 to 1938. It is unlikely that a better book on the Balkan chaos will be written than David Walker's *Death at My Heels* (Chapman & Hall). The forces which reduced Rumania to the rank of Hitler's satellite were discussed by A. L. Easterman in *King Carol, Hitler and Lupescu* (Gollancz), while the internal problems of a disrupted nation found an interpretation in Don Salvador de Madariaga's *Spain* (Cape). World affairs from the standpoint of Americans were discussed in *Night Over Europe*, by Frederick L. Schuman (Hale), *Versailles Twenty Years After*, by Paul Birdsall (Allen & Unwin), and *Europe Versus America*, by R. H. M. Worsley (Cape). Mr. H. A. Sargeant and Mr. Geoffrey West were the authors of a first-class book, *Grand Strategy* (Cape), the search for victory, which covered 150 years. The reconstruction of the world after the war was again the subject of the still vigorous H. G. Wells in ** Phoenix* (Seeker & Warburg).

Mr. Edward Hallett Carr, affirming that "the old world is dead," discussed a constructive plan in *Conditions of Peace* (Macmillan), and Mr. Bernard Newman chose a similar theme in *The New Europe* (Hale). A second volume of the Prime Minister's war speeches appeared under the title *The Unrelenting Struggle* (Cassell), by the Right Hon. Winston Churchill.

In politics Mr. John Middleton Murry expounded a new system of "something sub-Christian" in *Christocracy* (Dakers). The revolution taking place in France was ably described by Lieutenant-Colonel Pierre Tissier in *The Government of Vichy* (Harrap). Critical integrity beyond praise marked Sir John Maynard's comprehensive volume, *The Russian Peasant: and Other Studies* (Gollancz). Irish politics were the subject of two notable books—*Not an Inch* (Faber), by Hugh Shearman, and *The Neutrality of Ireland* (Hale), by Captain Henry Harrison. Mr. W. R. Brock's scholarly study, *Lord Liverpool and Liberal Toryism, 1820-1827*, did justice at last to the Prime Minister who navigated the Ship of State in the early years of peace after the Napoleonic war.

Economics received little attention. Professor W. K. Hancock brought to a close his *Survey of British Commonwealth Affairs*: vol. ii, *Problems of Economic Policy, 1918-1939*, part 2 (Oxford University Press). Plans for immediate reform and post-war reconstruction were formulated with vigour in *Vested Interests or Common Pool?* (Gollancz), by Nicholas Davenport. Mr. James Burnham prophesied the disappearance of Capitalism in *The Managerial Revolution, or What Is Happening in the World Now* (Putnam). The first issue of a new quarterly journal of Reconstruction, *Agenda*, came out in January, edited by Professor G. N. Clark (Milford).

In the field of sociology Dr. Henry May published *Social Structure* (Allen & Unwin), and Mr. J. H. Curie wrote a comprehensive study of many peoples in *Eskimo Pie* (Methuen).

Two books on education worthy of note were *English Education*, by Kenneth Lindsay (Collins), and *The Public Schools and the Future*, by Donald Hughes (Cambridge University Press).

Scientific studies included *Physics and Philosophy*, by Sir James Jeans (Cambridge Press); Dr. Julian Huxley's *Evolution* (Allen & Unwin); *New Paths in Genetics*, by J. B. S. Haldane (Allen & Unwin); *Race, Reason, and Rubbish*, by Gunnar Dahlberg, translated by Lancelot Hogben (Allen & Unwin), and Lord Rayleigh contributed a very lucid biography—*J. J. Thomson* (Cambridge Press). Mr. Sacheverell Sitwell turned from poetry to anthropology in *Primitive Scenes and Festivals* (Faber).

Awakened interest in Religion and Philosophy was reflected in a number of books, a few of which were of real significance. One of the most widely read and outstanding books of the year was * *The Screwtape Letters*, by C. S. Lewis (Bles). A moving record of conversion and of intimate spiritual experience was published anonymously, *Midnight Hour*, by Nicodemus (Faber). Dr. William Temple urged a return to the first principles of Christianity and its social implications in *Christianity and Social Order* (Penguin Books), and Dr. James A. Mackay described the ultimate spiritual needs of the world to-day in a challenging book,

A *Preface to Christian Theology* (Nisbet). Dr. Ceoil John Cadoux contributed an important and learned study in *The Historic Mission of Jesus*, a Constructive Re-examination of the Eschatological Teaching in the Synoptic Gospels (Lutterworth Press). In the history of religion two volumes command Notice: *The Borgia Pope, Alexander the Sixth*, by Orestes Ferrara, translated by F. J. Sheed (Sheed & Ward), and *The History of the Popes*, vol. xxxiii and vol. xxxiv, by Ludwig Freiherr von Pastor, translated by Dom Ernest-Graf (Kegan Paul).

philipal studies embraced *The Diagnosis of Man*, by Kenneth Walker (Cape); Mr. H. G. Wells's *The Conquest of Time* (Watts); *Nietzsche*, by Crane Brinton (Milford); *Friedrich Nietzsche: Philosopher of Culture*, by Frederick Coplestone, S.J. (Burns, Oates). Viscount Samuel imagined a new Utopia in *An Unknown Land* (Allen & Unwin).

Psychology was represented by a remarkable book, *The Fear of Freedom*, by Erich Fromm (Kegan Paul). Dr. Johan Jacobi boiled down Jung's numerous works in one clear and concise volume, *The Psychology of C. J. Jung*, an Introduction with Illustrations (Kegan Paul); and Dr. Rudolf Allers gave a refutation of Freudian psychoanalysis in *The Successful Error* (Sheed & Ward).

In *Essays and Belles-Lettres* Virginia Woolf's volume, * *The Death of the Moth and Other Essays* (Hogarth Press), showed the author at her best in a form that was most congenial to her. Sir Edmund Chambers enhanced his reputation as a man of letters in *A Sheaf of Studies* (Oxford University Press). Hilaire Belloc's *Places* (Cassell) showed his usual keen observation and vital prose style. *The English Countryman*, by H. J. Massingham (Batsford), was a study of the English tradition, finely illustrated. Miss Edith Sitwell chose twenty women who each contributed some peculiar quality to the whole national character in *English Women* (Collins, "Britain in Picture" series). The baffling personality of T. E. Lawrence was the salient feature of *T. E. Lawrence's Letters to H. S. Ede, 1927-1935*. Foreword and Running Commentary by H. S. Ede (Golden Cockerel Press). A miscellany for every taste was provided in *The 1943 Saturday Book*, edited by Leonard Russell (Hutchinson). *New Writing and Daylight—Summer, 1942* (Hogarth Press), was an interesting compilation because of its cosmopolitan and classless character. Many foreign writers were among its contributors, some unknown young authors, some manual workers, as well as authors of repute. Interest in all things Russian gave point to the publication of *Russian Proverbs*, by Andrew Guershoon (Muller). Dr. D. T. Glover covered a wide field in *The Challenge of the Greeks and Other Essays* (Cambridge University Press), writing as a humanist with cheerful urbanity and the sane wisdom of the Greeks themselves.

Travel books made popular reading, and the supply equalled the demand. Pride of place must be given to Miss Rebecca West's * *Black Lamb and Grey Falcon*, 2 volumes (Macmillan), which included an encyclopaedic account of Yugoslavia's people, history, and international problems. It is not too much to claim that Miss West's literary talent, wit, and wisdom combined to produce a work of art. From a wide range

of other books of travel, the following titles have been selected: *I Was a Head-Hunter*, by Lewis V. Cummings (Harrap); *Safari for Gold*, by J. R. Smeaton-Stuart (Jarrolds); *Islands of Adventure*, by Sari Baarslag (Hale); *Arabia and the Isles* (Murray), by Harold Ingrams; *Unveiled Iran*, by Angela Rodkin (Hutchinson); *Many a Green Isle—the West Indies*, by Glanville Smith (Lane); *Yucatan*, by Lawrence Dame (Gollancz); *Somehow Overdone, a Sudan Scrapbook*, by Magdalen King-Hall (Peter Davies); *Brazil: Land of the Future*, by Stefan Zweig (Cassell); *Meet the South Americans*, by Carl Crow (Hamish Hamilton); *Hurricane's Wake: Around the World in a Ketch*, by Ray Kaufman (Jenkins); *Letters from Syria*, by Freya Stark (Murray); *In the High Yemen*, by Dr. Hugh Scott (Murray); *Inagua*, by Gilbert C. Klingel (Hale), describing the work of a zoologist in agreeable fashion; *Northern Caballero: Adventures in the Unexplored Country of the Amazon*, by William N. Merryman (Hale), and a notable book by that intrepid adventurer Miss Ella K. Maillart, *Gypsy Afloat* (Heinemann).

Among works of fiction, it was not easy to distinguish those worthy of special review from the merely competent novels of the year: but the result of the attempt was as follows: * *Anna*, by Norman Collins (Collins); * *Breakfast with the Nikolides*, by Rumer Godden (Peter Davies); * *Enter Three Witches*, by D. L. Murray (Hodder & Stoughton); * *Eyes of H or us*, by Joan Grant (Methuen). For the rest, three years of war seem to have left English novelists rather debilitated, and some have ceased writing "for the duration." From established writers, the following works of fiction deserve to be recorded: *The Keys of the Kingdom*, by A. J. Cronin (Gollancz); *A Man About the House*, by Francis Brett Young (Heinemann); *The Killer and the Slain*, by the late Hugh Walpole (Macmillan); *Black-Out in Gretley*, by J. B. Priestley (Heinemann); *The Fort*, by Storm Jameson (Cassell); *Return Journey*, by Beatrice Kean Seymour (Heinemann); *Thankless Child*, by Frank Swinnerton (Hutchinson); and *The Unfaithful Wife*, by Naomi Royde-Smith (Macmillan). There was quite a sprinkling of novels about China and the Chinese. Among those of special interest were: *A Leaf in the Storm*, by Lin Yutang (Heinemann); *Dragon Seed*, by Pearl S. Buck (Macmillan); *Singapore River*, by Robert Payne (Heinemann). White Russians in China were the principal characters in Nina Fedorova's *The Children* (Collins), and Japanese ruthlessness was depicted in an enlightening and serious novel *The Three Bamboos*, by Robert Standish (Peter Davies). The war naturally formed the background of much fiction in 1942, notably in Frederic Prokosch's *The Shies of Europe* (Chatto & Windus); *Women in Exile*, by Jean Ross Eyre & Spottiswoode; *The Edge of Darkness*, by William Woods (Hutchinson). In a class of its own stood Mr. Gerald Kersh's picture of life in the Coldstream Guards, *They Die with Their Boots Clean* (Heinemann). Miss Moma Clarke's *A Stranger Within the Gates* (Murray) contrasted France in security with the France of 1940; Mrs. Marjorie Hessel Tiltman mirrored the changes in an English village brought about by this war in *Mrs. Morel* (Hodder & Stoughton); Mr. Parr Cooper showed a shrewd sense of characterisation in *Ayah* (Allen & Unwin), and other very readable books were Mr. Joyce

Carey's *To Be a Pilgrim* (Michael Joseph), kitty Villiers, by Lewis Gibbs (Dent), and *Laugh at Polonius*, by Jack Hilton (Dent). Books with a spice of humour were *Grig*, by H. B. Creswell (Faber), in which the building trade was an unusual background ; *School for Eternity*, by Harry Hervey (Macmillan); *Over the Border*, by George Birmingham (Methuen). *Inexperience*, by Edward Knoblock (Hale), had a happy ending, rare these days. The Battle of Britain was the theme of *The High Courts of Heaven*, by J. V. Hewes (Peter Davies), a good book to go on with till a greater genius celebrates the glory of the Royal Air Force.

American fiction was still to the fore. Mr. Upton Sinclair followed up *World's End* and *Between Two Worlds* with a third volume, * *Dragon's Teeth* (Werner Laurie). Mr. William McFee's * *Spenslove in Arcady* (Faber) showed that mariner ashore in retirement. In * *The Moon is Down* (Heinemann) John Steinbeck described the German invaders and the invaded in a nameless small country of Europe. Novels about America included the following titles: *Something of a Hero*, by I. J. Kapstein (Hamish Hamilton); *Lonely Parade*, by Fannie Hurst (Cape); *The Open Heart*, a first novel by Susanne Valentine Mitchell (Joseph); *Bird of the Wilderness*, by Vincent Sheean (Macmillan). Mr. Branch Cabell was expectedly caustic and witty in *The First American Gentleman* (Lane). In *Out of This Furnace* (Jarrolds) Mr. Thomas Bell wrote a good tale of the steel industry and gave voice to the newly awakened spirit of American democracy to-day. A veracious but unlovely picture of the oil boom in Texas in the 1930l8 was drawn in Edwin Lanham's powerful novel, *Thunder in the Earth* (Heinemann). Mr. Nard Jones's *Scarlet Petticoat* (Hamish Hamilton) was a stirring novel of adventure; Miss Martha Gellhorn in *A Stricken Field* (Cape) produced an intelligent book about Prague in 1938. The heroine of Marcus Goodrich's novel, *Delilah* (Dent) is no fair enchantress but a destroyer, and those who love ships will admire the quality of this unusual, thrilling story of the sea.

The historical novels of the year were not of a high order. Mr. John Cowper Powys's *Owen Olendower* (Lane) was a whale of a book, and almost a dead whale. From Mr. George Preedy's prolific pen came *Black Man—White Maiden* (Hodder & Stoughton), which lacked definite period but had a background of violence and passions. Mr. Hugh Ross Williamson, a historian, wrote better history than fiction in *Captain Thomas Schofield* (Collins), and chose definite dates, July, 1647, to October, 1648, for the compass of his story. The threat of invasion during the years 1789-1809 inspired an exciting tale by Thomas Armstrong, *Dover Harbour* (Collins). Mrs. Norah Lofts did not reach her usual standard in *The Brittle Glass* (Michael Joseph), nor was *Captain Paul* (Heinemann), by Commander Edward Ellsberg, as good as earlier books on Paul Jones ; but the theme has topical interest to-day. Miss Bradda Field put an enormous amount of research into her colossal book on Emma, Lady Hamilton, entitled *Miledi* (Constable), and after 400,000 words she got no farther than throwing the arms of Emma round Lord Nelson in the summer of 1800. *Seven Tempest* (Cape), by Vaughan Wilkins, was a quick-moving, incredible,

varied story about a cousin of the young Queen Victoria. It pleased a wide public.

Among translated novels three were specially notable: * *Monkey*, by Wu Ch'eng-en (Allen & Unwin), * *Broad and Alien is the World*, by Ciro Alegria (Nicholson & Watson), and * *The Song of Bernadette*, by Franz Werfel (Hamish Hamilton). The best novel to date about the collapse of France came from Ilya Ehrenburg—*The Fall of Paris* (Hutchinson)—translated from the Russian by Gerard Shelley, and the same subject recurred in *A Woman is Witness: A Paris Diary*, by Ernst Lothar, translated by Barrows Mussey (Harrap). Leon Feuchtwanger published the third and concluding volume of his reconstruction of the times of Josephus, *The Day Will Come*, translated by Caroline Oram (Hutchinson).

Among short stories Mr. Khys Davies' * *A Finger in Every Pie* (Heinemann) showed him a master in this field. A new issue of *Scottish Short Stories* (Faber) included tales of the supernatural and the terrestrial which fit in with the two prevailing moods of the original collection. Miss G. B. Stern in *Dogs in an Omnibus* (Cassell), illustrated by K. F. Barker, achieved the rare feat of being unsentimental about dogs and at the same time Appreciating their intelligence and lovable qualities. In *Go Down, Moses, and Other Stories* (Chatto & Windus) Mr. William Faulkner was more Faulkneresque than ever—more tortuous in style, more torrential in his rain of epithets, more frenzied: but at the same time not to be disregarded as one spokesman from America. A delightful book of short stories about Soviet Russia during the past twenty years of change and upheaval came from Michael Zoshchenko under the title *The Wonderful Dog, and Other Tales* (Methuen), with a valuable preface by Elisaveta Fen, who also made the translation.

Of the above books the following have been chosen for special notice ; they are placed in the order in which they appear in the General Survey :—

GENERAL LITERATURE

Collected Poems, by Walter de la Mare (Faber).—It is not easy to assess the life-work of a living poet when he presents us with the fruit of forty years' devotion to his art. Mr. de la Mare has made few revisions and excluded nothing but poems intended primarily for children. The first thing to remark is that one mood prevails throughout his work, and the note that was struck in the volume called *The Listeners* (1912) is maintained to the end. It is a note of pervading sadness linked with mystery. One might say that Mr. Walter de la Mare's theme is the "timeless self," a self that has no roots in the present world of matter, but reaches out to the Unseen, which is peopled with ghosts and strange voices; especially voices. He is a listener who hears music when all is silent, and some of his poems leave the reader "still listening after the words are done." This is his most distinctive gift. Allied to this sensibility of hearing silence is his pre-occupation with the dream world. In the long preface to his anthology *Behold This Dreamer*, he has told how the dream world

is more real than the world of sense, and this is borne out by the frequent recurrence of poems concerned with sleep and dreams. Dreams, he well knows, can be terrible as well as entrancing, and in one of his latest poems, "The Imagination's Pride/' he warns himself not to lure his fantasy to its utmost scope. The last piece in the book is a long and reasoned self-defence called "Dreams," which sums up his philosophy. For the most part Mr. de la Mare's poems are short lyrics, which at one time or another seem to echo other English lyrical poets; but there is ever a distinctive note. From the supreme simplicity of the early poems he progresses to more complex forms, and at times the craftsman overcomes the poet. Yet surveying his work as a whole, one's final judgment is that he has opened the gates to a larger world of beauty and mystery, enhanced the reader's faculty of listening to silence, and revealed the magical qualities of our native language.

Red Roses for He, by Sean O'Casey (Macmillan).—The mixture is largely as before, only not quite so strong as in *The Star Turns Red*. Dublin is the scene of the play; the characters, chief of whom is Ayamonn Breydon, are working-class people—and they have their grievances. This time they intend to strike for an extra shilling a week, not so much for the money as for their belief that the granting of it will be "t'he first step taken in the march of a thousand miles." Ayamonn, who loves books and painting and believes in progress, throws in his lot with the strikers and meets his death. Throughout the play there are conflicts; the conflict between Ayamonn the Protestant and Sheila the Catholic girl whom he loves; the conflict between the Protestant Rector and the members of his vestry; the conflict between the Irish Constabulary and the strikers. Yet all these conflicts are harmonised by a common love of beauty and pride in the fair city of Dublin, the enchantress who steals all hearts. It is a pleasure to read this play on account of its richly poetic dialogue and lively characterisation. The Irish temperament, too, with its swift changes of mood, its humour and lurking sadness is splendidly represented. It is easy to imagine how effective this piece would be on the stage when lights that never were on land or sea transfigure both the spires of Dublin and the faces of the poor, when elfin music from afar sets the people dancing, and the action of the play is interspersed with songs to the accompaniment of a meideon. Lastly, Mr. O'Casey introduces the favourite device of Irish dramatists, the funeral procession with full regalia. To sum up, this is an extremely well-knit play, written with rare distinction and making a strong appeal to emotions common to humanity.

Theatrical Cavalcade, by Ernest Short (Eyre & Spottiswoode).—When a man with an alert and interested mind has been a playgoer for half a century, his book of memories cannot fail to fascinate other playgoers. Mr. Short has done his best to make his theatrical cavalcade ride past us in order, troop by troop, but it is when he rides up and down the column and surveys it at random that we find his commentary most rewarding. Mr. Short is, in fact, a chronicler, not a scientific historian. His natural approach to his playgoing career is subjective, and when he tries the objective method he is apt to slip on points of fact. But when

he is dealing with the evidence of his own eyes and ears he is deeply interested and never prolix. On account of his particular theme and of the manner in which the author has introduced it to his readers, Mr. Short's book may claim to occupy a special place among the publications of the year.

The Pre-Raphaelite Tragedy, by William Gaunt (Jonathan Cape).—The story of the Pre-Raphaelite movement has already been told so fully in various official and unofficial biographies that it might seem needless to provide a further study. But although Mr. Gaunt may not add very much to the sum of our knowledge, he has admirably succeeded in giving a fresh perspective to the scene and a vivid re-interpretation of its significance. He reminds us that the Brotherhood proper was confined to seven artists, of whom four never attained fame; and that in its later phase Burne-Jones, William Morris, and Ford Madox Brown must be regarded as off-shoots from the stem rather than as part of the original root. The personal history of the Circle turns out to be one of constant permutation and combination, dominated always by the eccentric genius of Dante Gabriel Rossetti. With every turn of the kaleidoscope the pattern changes, though it remains in its basic make-up curiously the same; and it is to this lack of any stream of progress that Mr. Gaunt traces the germ of his tragedy, for with the death of the protagonists the movement appears to have come to an end. Perhaps this is a little to under-estimate the enduring influence of the Brotherhood on later developments in art and literature. Morris certainly laid the foundation of that sympathy with the Socialist movement which has been so evident in intellectual circles ever since his day. Though Mr. Gaunt writes always with understanding, he has a keen eye for the foibles of his characters, and he is thus enabled to offer a most revealing and at the same time entertaining bird's-eye view of a literary and artistic period whose importance may well loom larger in the future than it does at the present time.

Essays in Criticism and Research, by Geoffrey Tillotson (Cambridge University Press).—One of the younger generation of critics, Mr. Tillotson has already made a reputation, especially as an authority on eighteenth-century literature. In this volume of occasional papers the most substantial deal with his favourite subject. There are two essays on Eighteenth-Century Poetic Diction, two on Pope, two on Gray, one each on Collins and Shenstone, another on *Rasselas*. Departing from this period, he discusses the *Fables* of Robert Henryson, Bacon's *Essays*, Lyly's prose and Elizabethan verbal decoration. His guiding principle, he affirms in the preface, is to see the past "with sympathy and humility," and, "as far as possible, as it was." Mr. Tillotson maintains that the face of Literature is also its Spirit, and the value of words at the time they were written is the sole criterion by which they can be estimated. Of the tricks time plays with the meaning of words he gives witty examples, as in the case of "turtle" and "blooming." Mr. Tillotson proclaims himself a historical critic, bent on examining any piece of literature "as it lay complete under the Sabbath eye of its author." That is the just and reasonable attitude to take, though not the usual one. Accordingly

there is a striking freshness of outlook in these essays, as well as an un*biassed judgment of writers both ancient and modern. It is pleasing, for instance, to find that excellent poet Ernest Dowson accorded the place he merits in English letters. In a short but illuminating paper Mr. Tillotson credits Dowson with the revival of the alexandrine, which he used with graceful effect to loosen rhythm, and thus pointed the way to our contemporary poets whose rhythm is generally far too loose. The title, it will be observed, includes *Essays in Research*. Notable among them is one on A. E. Housman's *Comic Poems*, which were not included in the *corpus* of his work. Again, the paper on "*Othello* and the *Alchemist* at Oxford in 1610" reveals Mr. Tillotson as scholar as well as critic: but there is nothing arid about his scholarship. To a bright and lively perception he adds a felicity of style that is itself an entertainment; it wins the reader's heart and persuades him to study "old authors in their own light and the moderns in the light that he salutes as new." So he will fulfil Mr. Tillotson's desire.

Studies in Diplomacy and Statecraft, by G. P. Gooch (Longmans, Green & Co.).—Diplomacy is like a game of chess; Dr. Gooch in his latest volume makes it clear that more depends on the character of the players than on the rules of the game. In these ten papers which it has been eminently worth while to collect into a book, even though a certain amount of repetition was unavoidable (repetition which is by no means disturbing to the reader), Dr. Gooch has many wise things to say about the game itself and about those who in the last generation or two have engaged in it. His studies are a delight; whatever the author touches he adorns. The reader will follow with pleasure the details of his sketches of Bismarck, with his "We Germans fear God and nothing else in the world"; of Bulow, smooth, slippery, and charming; of Kiderlen-Waechter, with his yellow waistcoat, who amused the Reichstag on one occasion by his dandified appearance, and who rather enjoyed playing the rôle of bogeyman to the French; of Bethmann-Hollweg, the well-meaning schoolmaster turned diplomatist, who blundered into a war; of Kaiser William II, vain, headstrong, restless, who said the wrong things at the wrong time. These are some of the practitioners of the art of diplomacy who appear in Dr. Gooch's pages. But he says many wise things also about the theorists of diplomacy, and notably of Machiavelli and Hobbes. His study of the influence of the Florentine is full of sound sense; his lecture on the Englishman bears witness (as does, indeed, every one of the chapters in the book) to great scholarship and wise counsel. Dr. Gooch provokes thought in his study of the influence of the French Revolution. Equally attractive is his review of no less than forty-two political autobiographies with learned and witty comment, which show that when the great diplomatists of their time are seen in the mirror of their autobiographies many of them shrink in stature and appear as human, all too human. The two surveys of British foreign policy are informative and very readable, and add considerably to the value of yet another outstanding book which Dr. Gooch has provided for the nation, which while it illumines the past also makes the upheavals of our own time more comprehensible.

Phoenix, by H. G. Wells (Seeker & Warburg).—Mr. Wells has written a tract for the times in a vigorous style and with a strongly marked sense of urgency. He is intent on providing "A Summary of the Inescapable Conditions of World Reorganisation," a reorganisation to be brought about by a peaceful revolution. His revolution is Phoenix, and he looks forward to a world which shall be rid for ever of the master-man idea of society. The new social structure will be governed by the Sankey-Wells Declaration of the Rights of the World Citizen—"the quintessence of modern progressive thought." The book may in a sense be regarded as an elaboration of those Rights, with illustrations as to how they will affect aspects of life. How will the craftsman fare under these Rights? How the writer? What will be the attitude of the new society to love? On these matters Mr. Wells is interesting; he is also forthright; and he says many things that need saying, more especially in his last chapter, which is entitled "A Review of 'Foreign Policies' in 1942." Mr. Wells declares that the fundamental ideas of the Revolution are already well known and generally accepted; all that is now required is that as many men and women as possible shall work to make the Revolution a reality. The Revolution is actually upon us; so Mr. Wells will have it. Yet we need the re-education of the masses towards the new outlook in order that the Revolution shall make faster progress. As always, Mr. Wells is interesting and thought-provoking. His theme touches on the fundamental issues of life about us. Accordingly his words deserved, and actually received, close attention.

The Screwtape Letters, by C. S. Lewis (Bles).—Mr. Lewis has again chosen the hazardous medium of allegory to disclose the shams and follies of this age. Screwtape as the Devil's advocate instructs his nephew Wormwood in the art of leading humans into temptation and claiming them for Our Father Below. Wormwood's attention is concentrated on one patient, an adult convert to the Christian faith. Wormwood tempts him from every angle, choosing the patient's Trough periods of reaction for his heaviest assaults. The patient meets superficially intellectual people, "bright sceptics who flatter his vanity; he falls in love and finds his attention wanders during prayer. The parable continues till finally the patient experiences an air raid, does his duty with unconscious heroism, passes beyond the tempter to find himself in Heaven. In the course of the allegory Mr. Lewis re-states the fundamental truths of religion by showing them in reverse, and so exposes false ideas. In particular he throws barbed shafts of wit at current fashions in so-called Christian doctrine, such as "The Historical Point of View," "Christianity And —," the word "Puritanical" as applied to old warnings about worldly vanities and the choice of friends. This book is remarkable for its originality, profundity, and wisdom. As an allegory it succeeds in conveying the underlying truth about the nature of goodness, the meaning of worship, and the relationship between God and man. Again and again Screwtape has to admit the Enemy's advantage in having a better understanding of humans by reason of the Incarnation. Now in the world's great crisis, when, as many people think, the basic truths of Christian

doctrine need to be re-affirmed, Mr. Lewis has made a valuable contribution to religious thought and made clear the essentials of Christian philosophy. No more illuminating book has been written in modern times. Its success has been immediate and widespread. Time will show whether it achieves the rank of classic religious literature claimed for it in some quarters.

The Death of the Moth, by Virginia Woolf (Hogarth Press).—The essays in this volume fall into three groups: descriptive sketches, portraits of writers which include literary criticism, and discourses on general topics. No one would dispute Virginia Woolf's qualities as an essayist. She shares with Sir Thomas Browne and Charles Lamb the gift of transmuting her own personal meditations into literature, but she is unique in her power of expressing in words the fleeting impressions which pass through the mind and are gone before there is a chance of seizing upon them. She catches them like butterflies and pins them on a setting board. In the presence of beauty especially her "perceptions blow out rapidly like air-balls expanded by some rush of air," and she is overcome by a passion to communicate and so share them. She is always aware of being a composite creature. Thus, in "Evening Over Sussex," she summons up her five or six selves to do justice to the overwhelming beauty of the scene. This consciousness of being a multiple personality gives rise to an immense curiosity about her fellow creatures. What does it feel like to be a dwarf or a bus conductor? she wonders in the perfect essay called "Street Haunting." This imaginative curiosity also enables her to give living presentations of Horace Walpole, Gibbon, Sara Coleridge, and Shelley, presentations which are the work of an alert and sensitive mind. Virginia Woolf's method is to build up a picture, detail by detail, until a harmonious whole is achieved. Yet something is lacking—the sympathy that can interpret character. She is ruled by her intellect. This is an admirable quality in a critic. Nothing could be better than her appreciations of Henry James and "the Gibbon," while "A Letter to a Young Poet" gives a penetrating diagnosis of the disease that afflicts modern poetry. As much a poet as a novelist herself, she understands the mysterious power of suggestion contained in words. So we arrive at her secret. She liked writing, and she was proud of being a high-brow, which she defines as "a man or woman of thoroughbred intelligence who rides his mind at a gallop in pursuit of an idea." These delightful essays reveal a high-brow with a sense of fun and even mischief, and throw light on the personality of Virginia Woolf, whose contribution to English letters was to bring "a new way of feeling and seeing into the world."

Black Lamb and Grey Falcon, by Rebecca West, 2 volumes (Macmillan).—Those familiar with the Balkans will be grateful to Miss Rebecca West for the primary object of this study of Yugoslavia; for she wishes to make the ordinary reader understand that the Balkan peoples are not turbulent barbarians who wantonly resist the advance of Western civilisation, but the inheritors of an ancient culture who have been the victims of ghastly historical misfortune. Though she is not a trained historian, her industry and literary experience and enthusiasm for her

theme enable her to give an account of the Balkan tragedy which is certainly more comprehensive than any single work previously published on this subject in English or French. She gives a description of the glories of the mediaeval Serbian Empire which will be new save to those not numerous readers who are well-read in the Byzantine historians or Jerioek; she recounts the defeat of the Serbs by the Ottoman Turks in 1389 at the Battle of Kossovo, and the death-in-life of Christian society in the Balkans under the Turkish yoke for the following five hundred years; and she explains how it was that the young states which liberated themselves from this yoke were prevented from re-establishing social order by the intrigues of the Great Powers. This narrative is given unusual intensity because Miss West uses an unorthodox method which would not be open to her if she were a more academic author; she intersperses her accounts of the past, which are written in more or less conventional historical style, with pictures, drawn with the liveliness of the novelist and the journalist, of the present to which that past has given birth. From dates and treatises Miss West always goes back to people. There are some striking examples of this in relation to events of our own time. Miss West gives a full account of the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand at Sarajevo, which she represents not as the act of fanatics made use of by unscrupulous Serbian chauvinists, but as the inevitable consequence of thirty years of Austro-Hungarian misgovernment in Bosnia; she fetches the story out of the newspaper files and the dusty text-books by visiting the sister of one of the chief conspirators, a lady in practice as a dentist in a small Bosnian town, and recording her charming desultory conversation on such matters as the embarrassment she felt as a little girl when she attended a prize-giving in particularly ugly clothes. Similarly, we have all our lives read about Bulgarian minorities, and a certain number of writers have recorded their opinions on their political destiny; Miss West, however, has attended the birthday party of a Macedonian-Bulgarian pastry-cook, and has listened to the family gossip and looked at the photograph album. * Such illustrations as these persuade one of the human value of a people too distant for most of us to know. But even more significant are the studies of Moslems who have been left stranded in Yugoslavia by the receding tide of the Turkish occupation, with their legacy of beautiful manners, love of nature, fecklessness, apathy, and nostalgia for past glories, and the companion pictures of the Christians, who have developed certain virtues and certain awkwardnesses in the course of their struggle for their independence. These portraits give testimony in favour of Miss West's main thesis, which is that imperialism and nationalism are not identical, as they have become in the loose vocabulary of the day, but opposed forces. Imperialism longs to wander abroad, far from its own base, for the purpose of material gain, and in the anxieties of imposing its rule on the discontented conquered population ceases to cultivate its own tradition; nationalism is the equivalent to the group of what self-respect is to the person, a determination to cultivate what special gifts and opportunities Heaven has bestowed on that group. The decay of the old Ottoman Empire is an example of the effect on a country of imperialism not

transmuted by such acts of abnegation as the Statute of Westminster. The dynamic life of the Yugoslavs, who never forgot the traditions they had inherited from the Byzantines and continued them in handicrafts, spoken literature, and political and military heroism, is a proof of the value of nationalism. This book should be read as a warning against schemes of European reconstruction which forget the sacredness of individuality, whether manifested by persons or nations.

FICTION

Anna, by Norman Collins (Collins).—The book opens with the Franco-Prussian War. Anna, daughter of a German merchant and French mother, runs away to marry her cousin, Charles Latourette, at the very moment of general mobilisation. As an enemy alien she is unwelcome in her aunt's house in Paris, and when Charles is killed in battle, Anna finds a hiding-place in a cheap hotel. She endures the hardships of the siege of Paris, is imprisoned as a spy, and with the threat of execution hanging over her, consents to marry the hotel-keeper whom she detests. Then follows a second love affair with a French officer who is killed in a duel, and Anna becomes the mistress of the rich financier who killed him. Cast off by him, she enters a convent with her child, Annette. The last stage of her adventures shows her as a governess in a great house at Chislehurst, where she meets a middle-aged, decent Englishman, marries him, and finds belated happiness. The richly varied scenes are described in great detail; much light is thrown on the inner workings of a cheap restaurant, the routine of convent life, and the fabulous luxury of her protector's villa near Cannes. Only when Anna comes to England does the imaginative power of the novelist falter. The story has immense topical value in so far as it shows how historical events change the lives of the people. As for Anna, she is a type rather than a real person, a piece of wax taking the impress of circumstances. Her silence and passive acceptance of the bludgeonings of fate hardly accord with the earlier picture of a spirited young girl who dared all for love. Yet though she herself is but dimly perceived, the record of her experiences is wholly credible and of sustained interest. Mr. Collins has told an unusual story with great skill, and reached a higher level of accomplishment than in any of his previous novels.

Breakfast with the Nikolides, by Rumer Godden (Peter Davies).—The setting of this story is the small town of Amorra, East Bengal, where Charles Pool has helped to create an agricultural college and research station. He is the strong, silent Empire-builder, devoted to his work^ but the rhythm of his life is destroyed when his wife Louise appears, having escaped from Paris at the fall of France. For eight years they had been estranged. With her are their two little girls, Emily and Binnie. Emily is a child of unusual perception, and a source of perpetual annoyance to her mother. Charles recognises and respects Emily's qualities, and as a consolation for the harsh treatment she gets from Louise, he gives Emily a spaniel puppy, Don. When Don is under suspicion of rabies,

Louise falls into a panic, sends the children off to breakfast with the Nikolides, the only other Europeans in the district, and calls in the native vet. to destroy the dog in Emily's absence. The death of Don is the crux of the matter, for Louise lied to Emily as to the cause of his death. The tension between Charles and Louise and Louise and Emily is unbearable. Emily conducts a persecution campaign against her mother, and succeeds in making her confess the truth about Don's death. In the end Louise submits to Charles, and Emily finds peace in offering a *puya*, or act of worship, for the repose of Don's spirit. The quality of this book is hard to convey, for its implications are so delicate that a second or third reading is necessary to appreciate them to the full. Miss Godden has not only drawn a convincing picture of the Pool family, but she has leproduced the "feel" of agrarian India with remarkable success. This is India, one feels, with its dust, heat, disease, religious festivals, and natural beauty. Its people, too, are represented in the vivid portraits of the young veterinary surgeon, Narayan, and his friend Anil, the poet, whose mysterious death is not unconnected with Don's sickness. There have been many books about India, but this one is outstandingly penetrating and realistic.

Enter Three Witches, by D. L. Murray (Hodder & Stoughton).—London life in the 'nineties forms the background of this novel, and the witches are three beautiful sisters who rise from poverty and flash their way to wealth, fame, and success—though not for long. The chief character, Sam Rubens, started life in Whitechapel as an old clothes dealer, went to South Africa on the same business, and there made a fortune in the gold market. After fifteen years he returned to England, and while on a visit to Brighton, met gay young Josie Marchmont, married her and set up a lavish house in Russell Square. He embarked on one financial enterprise after another, acquiring an interest in theatres, racing stables, and more mines. As he climbed the ladder of success, Josie's sisters shared the good fortune. Violet became a theatrical star, and Rose blossomed out as a fashionable milliner. Sam's wealth and financial ventures brought him into touch with a set of raffish society people, including Lady Elizabeth, who sold him her ancestral home and made him responsible for her gaming debts. For six brief years Sam was an important figure on the Stock Exchange. Then the wheel of Fortune turned suddenly; Sam became bankrupt and his wife ran away with his partner. Violet's husband lost all his money in Sam's companies and their theatre failed. Only Rose made a successful marriage. This brief outline gives no idea of the rich flavour of the book. Sam's crowded interests provide Mr. Murray with an opportunity of depicting many aspects of London life. With immense gusto he recalls the old *optra bouffe* and its pantomimes, the Turf of the day, fashions, furnishings, and social life. It was a robust and prosperous age, vulgar in its ostentatious wealth. Above all it was secure, and that security was mirrored in the celebrations of the Diamond Jubilee. Even Sam was not wholly sunk, for we leave him departing to South Africa to make another fortune, still convinced that the world is his oyster.

Eyes of Horus, by Joan Grant (Methuen).—This can hardly be called a sequel to the author's *Winged Pharaoh*, since the scene is laid some two thousand years later than in the earlier novel. But the human side of ancient Egypt is displayed with the same intimacy, and the reader is equally absorbed into the very life of the people. The action of the story takes place at the close of the XIth Dynasty, about 3500 B.c., and is mainly concerned with the revolution led by Ra-ab, only son of the Nomarch of the Oryx, against the evil Pharaoh and his dark cult of the goddess Sekmet. It was a time when Egypt stood at the cross-roads. Either she must go forward into enlightenment or relapse into a cruel and degenerate totalitarian state. Ra-ab rallies to the cause of progress a majority of the eighteen Nomes into which the country was divided, and his sense of dedication to a great task is bravely supported by the example of his sister Kiyas. She proves an unfailing inspiration to him, both as a revealer of simple truth, which too often eludes his masculine mind, and as a charming and humorous companion. She typifies, indeed, the strong feministic influence that was noticeable in ancient Egypt—an influence which has never been surpassed, even in these latter days of women's rights. In its slow building-up of atmosphere the story may lose momentum now and then, but there are constant surprises of beauty and terror, and the final battle when six hundred chosen champions of either side meet in decisive and redemptive combat provides a breathless climax. Through all runs the thread of spiritual romance in the ideal love between Ra-ab and his dream-chosen mate, the "Girl Beyond the River." Miss Joan Grant's work is quite unique. Her power of making the remote past live again is remarkable, and the note of hope and deliverance on which the book closes is reassuring in the troubled, distracted state of the present world at war.

Dragon's Teeth, by Upton Sinclair (Werner Laurie).—This novel, following up events described in *World's End* and *Between Two Worlds*, covers the period from the economic crash of 1929 to the Nazi purge of 1934. World events are again seen through the eyes of Lanny Budd, * now married to an American millionairess, but still living in Europe and privileged to go behind the scenes and meet the Nazi leaders face to face. The chief interest of the book lies in Hitler's seizure of power and his treatment of the Jews. When Johannes Robin, his father's business partner, falls a victim to the Nazis, Lanny ceases to be the tolerant observer of events and plunges into action. He rescues Johannes from Goering's clutches, and a year later, at great personal risk, contrives to secure the release of young Freddi Robin from the Dachau concentration camp. The Nazi system has been many times described, but no writer has painted as vividly as Mr. Sinclair the ruthless brutality of Hitler and his gang. Lanny's wealth and somewhat casual profession of picture dealer gained him access to the Fuhrer, Goebbels, and Goering, and the intimate portraits of these men not only lend excitement to the story but form a notable contribution to history. But the internal affairs of Germany are only a part of the vast panorama spread out before our eyes. Janny has his finger on American finance, French politics, British affairs.

He has friends everywhere, and he travels by aeroplane, high-speed car or yacht to meet them and hear their varying political views, managing always to be on the spot when anything of moment takes place. It may be objected that the characters in this novel never existed. That may be so, but they seem very real people, and are chosen with such skill and woven into so cunning a pattern that the whole compels belief. Together they make up a picture of the chaotic world before the chaos broke loose in another war. What is admirable is the unflagging pace of the narrative. Mr. Sinclair makes no attempt at literary perfection; the urgency of the matter is best conveyed by the natural outpouring of his fervid mind. It is possible to be irritated by his repetition of unpleasing expressions and by his indiscriminate use of exclamation marks, but it is not possible to withhold praise for the well-balanced design of this vast novel, for its sincerity and truthful presentation of the contemporary scene.

Spenlove in Arcady, by William McFee (Faber).—Arcady in this instance is a small place in the Connecticut Hills to which Mr. Spenlove, a bachelor, has retired after thirty years as ship's engineer. Unlike his kind, he has no urge to return to England, so he makes a home and builds a useful boat. Aloof from the fashionable neighbours who have their summer palaces on the Sound, his seclusion is broken by the appearance of a delightful child, Sonia, in search of her dog. Her mother quickly follows, and Mr. Spenlove finds romance in Perdita Ducroy, an Englishwoman married to a highly successful writer of thrillers. Perdita hates writers, and her want of sympathy has driven Elliot Ducroy into the arms of a woman who also manufactures fiction for American low-brows. Thus Perdita, the lovely English blonde, is ready to fall in love with the quiet philosophical Spenlove. He in turn is ravished by her charms, which are not apparently diminished by her habit of taking to the bottle when things go wrong. Perdita has left her husband on more than one occasion, and is about to seek a divorce when he conveniently dies, leaving a fortune and a clear coast for Spenlove. The plot is not particularly enthralling, because its end is obvious from the start, and Perdita's allure fails to captivate the reader. All the other characters are richly portrayed and the dialogue brilliantly sustained. Spenlove ashore is as interesting as he was at sea, and his observation of American characteristics shows candour and humour. Special praise must be reserved for McFee's portrait of Elliot Ducroy, who slaves with feverish activity to feed the popular demand for entertaining thrillers, and measures a writer's success by his capacity for making money. By that standard, Ducroy was successful, and he advertised his success (like other Americans) by building a magnificent house and acquiring a speed-boat and high-powered car. His enterprising literary agent is an amusing and fresh study of a type rarely met in fiction, while his neighbour, Miss Penge, dealer in antiques, is magnificently comic. Those who have enjoyed *Derelicts* and *Watch Below* will find in this story of Mr. Spenlove ashore an even greater example of Mr. McFee's talent.

The Moon is Down, by John Steinbeck (Heinemann).—In this short novel Mr. Steinbeck has written a memorable commentary on our times.

It describes any country under the heel of the aggressor, and the characters are the invaders and the invaded. The conquerors arrive by parachute at a small town and in a few minutes occupy the place. The dazed villagers at first submit, but gradually become hostile and commit acts of sabotage on the railways and in the mine which they are compelled to work for the enemy. Hostages are taken, shootings are a frequent occurrence. The invaders, ringed round by hatred, grow fearful and long for home. Colonel Lanser hopes for the collaboration of Mayor Orden, who can promise nothing, for he understands the spirit of the townsfolk. He knows that they will resist to the end. "Free men cannot start a war, but once it is started, they can fight on in defeat" said the Mayor. Young men escape to England, and as a result, little parachutes attached to tubes of dynamite are dropped on the town for the use of the invaded. Explosions are heard, the Mayor and his old friend are taken as hostages, and with calm dignity prepare to meet death. This is history as we know it, and the thin veil of fiction does not disguise the truth. Mr. Steinbeck tells the story with austere simplicity, but at the same time expresses his admiration of what people will endure in the cause of freedom. The two groups of characters, the soldiers on the one hand and the townsfolk on the other, are portrayed with striking realism. One even feels sympathy with Colonel Lanser, whose duty it is to occupy the town and who would prefer to do it peaceably. But the sullen rage of the people forbids any kind of co-operation. Sabotage grows worse and worse, the reprisals more and more savage. The incidents are all too familiar in the Occupied countries of Europe. Once again Mr. Steinbeck has revealed the soul of a people and paid homage to the undying spirit of liberty.

Monkey, by Wu Ch'ing-Sn, translated from the Chinese by Arthur Waley (Allen & Unwin).—The author of this popular Chinese fairy tale lived in the sixteenth century, a contemporary of Rabelais, to whose temper he bears some resemblance. Tripitaka, the subject of the story, was a real person who lived in the seventh century, and made a pilgrimage to India. There are full contemporary accounts of his journey, to which later a whole cycle of legends gradually accrued. *Monkey* is a compound of history, religion, fairy tales, poetry, and satire; it is a singular mixture of absurdity and profundity, of beauty and nonsense. Tripitaka, who represents the ordinary man, is a priest sent by the Emperor of China to fetch certain Buddhist scriptures. The gods allow him three companions, Monkey, Piggy, and Sandy, each of whom has supernatural powers. Monkey is the life and soul of the book. He is a universally comic character whose inexhaustible adventures postulate an endless story. For stealing the Elixir of Life from the gods he was thrown out of Heaven, though he retained not only the gift of immortality, but power to change into the shape of any creature at will. On his cloud-trapeze he could cover thousands of leagues in a few minutes and from the air could see objects many miles away. Throughout the long journey to India, when ogres, monsters, and dragons were encountered, Monkey was always quick to think of a way of overcoming them, always cheerful, usually impudent, never failing. Piggy represents the brute side of human nature; Sandy

stands for single-mindedness but remains a somewhat shadowy figure. Tripitaka is a father despondent character, lacking courage to grapple with the difficulties that rise up continually on the way. But Monkey defies the gods themselves. It is interesting to observe that the deities of Heaven are exactly like an earthly bureaucracy, an idea commonly accepted in China. In the end Tripitaka delivered the scriptures to the Emperor, and he and his three companions were wafted back to Paradise where Tripitaka and Monkey became Buddhas, and Pigsy and Sandy received high office. Mr. Waley deserves thanks for making this delightful story available to English readers in a translation that is beyond praise.

Broad and Alien is the World, by Ciro Alegria (Nicholson & Watson).—The theme of man's inhumanity to man inspires novelists of every country in these days of world crisis. This book tells the story of an Indian community in the Peruvian Andes. There was an ideal life. The villagers were shepherds and farmers, living close to the soil, and to them the earth was beautiful and broad and fruitful, and Rumi was the village which held their roots. Rosendo Maqui, the Mayor, ruled them like the patriarchs of old, with wisdom and justice. The book opens with Rosendo's memories of the past, which lead up to the early years of this century. While walking home from the hills a snake crossed his path, an ill omen. Soon a powerful neighbour, Don Alvaro Amenabar, laid claim to the pastures of Rumi, and through the offices of a corrupt lawyer won his case. The dispossessed villagers moved away and started life afresh in an unfertile place, encouraged by the noble spirit of Rosendo. Floods came, the harvest was poor, the cattle were stolen by the white man's overseers. Many of the people left their new home and sought work in the mines and rubber plantations, where they became slaves. Rosendo himself was thrown into prison and others with him. Rosendo was beaten to death, but his son Benito, after years of exile, returned to take his place as leader of the community. When the oppression of Don Alvaro grew more severe, Benito took arms against him and was killed in the uneven struggle. It is a sad and moving story of the weak going down before the strong, and its pathos is all the more rending because the record bears the unmistakable stamp of truth. We know that such events are taking place in the civilised countries of Europe. Rosendo, with his passionate love of his native soil, has his counterpart in many lands; but seldom has a novelist expressed as fervently as the author of this book the impulse to rebel against injustice and oppression. It must be conceded that Ciro Alegria has not the gift of easy narrative: indeed, the actual story-telling is halting and often confused. But he excels in describing the character and manner of life of this community, the features of their homeland, the rain, sun, wind, and song of birds which form the background of their simple existence. It is not surprising that this book was awarded the prize in a recent Latin-American Prize Novel Contest. The translation from the Spanish was competently made by Harriet de Onfs.

The Song of Bernadette, by Franz Werfel (Hamish Hamilton), is, so the author tells us in his personal preface, written to absolve him from

a vow he made when in dire peril of capture by the Germans when France was overrun in 1940. It shows the courage and the spiritual detachment of Werfel that under such circumstances he was able to give himself up not only to the history of Lourdes, but did indeed become so pervaded by the mystic atmosphere of its origins that he has been able to ignore both the travail of his own distress and the tawdriness of the modern town and to reconstruct with signal success the *milieu* of his heroine. For heroine she is, whether she likes it or no, this ignorant peasant child, and the heroic quality she displays is, above all, the unwavering belief in what she conceives and knows to be truth. With melancholy tenderness and sympathetic insight Werfel has drawn his portraits: Bernadette, her family, the neighbours, and the wider circles which were drawn in when this insignificant pebble of a child first stirred up the whole maelstrom of superstition, belief, hypocrisy, politics, money-greed, and exploitation. This is not merely a historical reconstruction; the valley of dead bones stirs with the breath of creation anew as Werfel, without taking sides, without postulating or questioning, tells the tale of the Vision of Bernadette. So imbued is the author with the firm assurance of the truth of this vision as seen by Bernadette that he is able to draw us into the magic spell, and while we are fascinated by the story he tells, our critical faculties lie idle; we yield to the atmosphere which is revived for us; we live in Lourdes, the Lourdes of eighty years ago; we meet its inhabitants; we learn to love its priest in Dom Poyramale and to enjoy the causeries at the Café Progres. We do not even trouble overmuch whether the Lady appeared in the Grotto or no. To Bernadette she was there, and the absolute sincerity of her acceptance of her vision silences doubt, and mockery and captious criticism shrink before the clear-eyed certainty which inhabits the fragile body and indomitable soul of Bernadette. It is this same quality which must have found a dwelling place centuries before in that other French peasant girl, burnt at the stake in Rouen. It is the achievement of Werfel, as it was that of Shaw in his *St. Joan*, that he has forced us to accept what reason and scepticism would all too readily reject. He has proved the unalterable and immutable truth that true simplicity and single-mindedness transcend both time and religion and has shown yet again that faith can move mountains. If only the Song of Bernadette had been sung in its own language—its uneven English is surely not the fault of its poet!

A Finger in Every Pie, by Rhys Davies (Heinemann).—Most of the stories in this volume are sketches of Welsh life, a field in which Mr. Rhys Davies excels. His characters come to life at once and he relates their history in a straightforward fashion that is very refreshing. Understanding of the Welsh temperament, with its realism and poetic imagination is the key-note of his success. A forceful and sardonic humour is particularly evident in the stories which deal with marriages, none of which show any element of romance. In "The Nature of Man" the cruelty of Dan the carrier to Catti, who refused him, is like a sting, while "The Wages of Love" depicts the avarice of three sisters, when the prodigal returns ill, but with money in the bank. Two of the sketches are

exuberantly comic; "Abraham's Glory" is about a man who boasted of his fertility, and "Mourning for Ianto" describes the funeral of a drunkard whose cronies visited so many pubs on the way to the cemetery that they arrived there without the bier. Pathos is the prevailing note in "Nightgown," where a woman who has slaved for her husband and sons in the pit, saves up to buy a silken shroud. Not all the stories are completely successful. They are too slight, and end lamely. The last and most ambitious departs from the Welsh scene and is called "Queen of the Cdte d'Azur," a strange tale of an English lady who dressed always in white, looked the pinnacle of correctness, but indulged a passion for ruffians. It includes a revealing portrait of a German who had lost his bearings, but found them again in the Nazi regime. Mr. Davies' work does not raise the question of the art of the short story. He writes so well and convincingly, with such vitality that the attention is completely captured. If his aim is to give pleasure, then his aim is abundantly fulfilled.

ART, DRAMA, CINEMA, AND MUSIC

I. ART

ALTHOUGH war continued to deprive the public of access to the nation's greatest artistic treasures, there were numerous exhibitions to beguile the curtailed leisure of art lovers. Among public galleries, the National Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, and the Victoria and Albert Museum showed works that appealed to people of every taste, while the London Museum, Kensington Palace, and Hampton Court Palace reopened their doors to visitors.

The privilege of ushering in the new year was shared by the National Gallery and the Royal Academy, where exhibitions were opened on January 1. The National Gallery showed paintings and prints by two modern artists, Sir William Nicholson and Mr. Jack B. Yeats, the opening ceremony being performed by Mr. John Dulanty, High Commissioner for Eire. Later in the month the Gallery inaugurated its new war-time policy of exhibiting in the vestibule, for about three weeks at a time, one picture from its store of Old Masters, beginning with the recently acquired Rembrandt portrait of Margaretha Trip. Among other famous paintings shown in this way throughout the year were Titian's "Noli Me Tangere," El Greco's "Expulsion of the Money-Changers," "The Nativity," by Botticelli, de Hooch's "Courtyard of a Dutch House," Tintoretto's "St. George and the Dragon," Turner's "Frosty Morning," "The Agony in the Garden," by Bellini, and "The Sculptor," by Andrea del Sarto.

A few new acquisitions were also hung in the vestibule. These included a fine "Interior of St. Peter's, Rome," by Panini, "The Staymaker," by Hogarth, from the collection of Sir Edmund Davis, and a panel in tempera from the workshop of Giotto, representing "Pentecost," received as a bequest from the late Mrs. G. E. Coningham. The portrait of Caterina Cornaro, believed to have been begun by Giorgione and finished by Titian, and presented to the National Gallery by Sir Francis Cook in memory of his father, Sir Herbert Cook, could not be shown, as it is in New York for the duration of the war.

New war pictures, including Paul Nash's "Battle of Britain," were also placed on exhibition in January, a further selection being shown later in the year. As it was impossible to arrange exhibitions at the Tate Gallery owing to damage sustained by the building in the 1940 air raids, its war-time acquisitions were shown in April at the National Gallery. They numbered about 140 pictures, including paintings and drawings by William Blake, William Etty, Benjamin West, P.R.A., the pre-Raphaelites, the French impressionists, and Sickert, Sargent, Steer, and Augustus John. In June the second exhibition of contemporary topographical water-colours and drawings recording "The Changing Face of Britain," made under a scheme financed by the Pilgrim Trust to provide work for artists

in war-time, was opened at the Gallery. The subjects were taken from various counties in England and Wales, but special features were made of a group of drawings of Malmesbury, Wilts., and of another group dealing with Ham and Petersham in Surrey, the artists including Martin Hardie, J. S. Sanderson-Wells, Thomas Hennell, and W. Fairclough. In addition, a remarkable series of water-colours of Windsor Castle by John Piper, commissioned by H.M. the Queen, were lent by her to this exhibition.

Under the auspices of the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts, a collection of seventy-five paintings and water-colours, each by a different artist, was shown in September, among the most noteworthy being works by Anthony Devas, Thomas Carr, and A. R. Middleton Todd.

The Gallery ended the year with an important loan exhibition of Nineteenth Century French paintings from private collections, and from the collections of the Tate Gallery and the National Gallery itself, which proved a great attraction. There were good examples of the Romantic painters, whose work is seldom seen in England, as well as of the Impressionists. A striking "Portrait of a Nubian," recently purchased by the National Gallery, was attributed to Gericault. This picture, which is painted on English canvas, was at one time sold under the name of Sir Joshua Reynolds, and a suggestion has now been made that it is by the Yorkshire painter, William Etty, R.A.

At the Royal Academy, the second United Artists' Exhibition was held at the beginning of the year. It was organised on the same lines as the first exhibition, held in 1940, and included the work of members of twenty-six other Art Societies in addition to those of the Academy, and of some artists not belonging to any Society. The exhibits consisted of paintings, drawings, engravings, and sculpture, the profits from gate-money and half the proceeds of sales being divided between the Red Cross and St. John Fund and the Artists' General Benevolent Institution.

The 174th annual (summer) exhibition of the Royal Academy opened on May 4 and closed on August 8. There were only 845 exhibits, less than half the number that were hung in former years. The result was pleasing to visitors, if unacceptable to artists as a whole. Practically every picture was "on the line," in spite of four galleries remaining closed, and the generous spacing permitted each work to be studied in comfort. This was of particular advantage to an exhibition which contained many works of interest but few of outstanding merit.

Towards the end of August, three main rooms at the Academy were devoted for a month to the third exhibition of paintings by firemen artists, which was opened by Admiral Sir Edward Evans; while early in September space was also accorded to "The Battle of Freedom," an exhibition of official and unofficial war photographs organised by the *Daily Express*. In October the Royal Academy Planning Committee's important exhibition of Plans for the Redevelopment of Central London was opened at Burlington House. It excited great interest and led to much discussion, "informal talks" on the subject taking place meanwhile at the Academy.

At the same time, a comprehensive exhibition of Greek Art, comprising the Art of Greece during fifty centuries, was opened by the King of the

Hellenes. On the last day of October the Royal Society of Portrait Painters opened their annual show in the Academy galleries.

The National Portrait Gallery was mainly devoted to the work of members of the Forces. In March an extensive show of Arts and Crafts, organised by the London District Command Welfare Branch, was held there. It consisted of about 3,000 exhibits, and during the four weeks that it was open over 30,000 people visited it and a number of exhibits were sold.

In the limited portion of the Victoria and Albert Museum available to the public, some notable exhibitions were arranged. Modern English water-colours and sculpture, and early English miniatures (including recent additions to the Museum) were on view in April. The centenary of the death of John Sell Cotman was marked by the exhibition in July and August of some of his water-colours. In September a selection of English oil paintings of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries included good works from the Museum's "storerooms" by little-known painters such as Richard Corbould and Richard Heighway. There was also a group of Dutch and Flemish paintings of silver ware and other still-life objects, bequeathed by the late Lionel Crichton.

Finally, the Museum staged a memorable loan exhibition of "British Landscapes in Oils from George II to Queen Victoria," a number of which came from the well-known collection of Colonel M. H. Grant. The artists represented included Constable, Cotman, J. R. Cozens, Crome, Gainsborough, George Lambert, Samuel Scott, Turner, Wilson, and many others less familiar to the general public. This was a "C.E.M.A." undertaking, and was to tour the country after a month's stay at the Museum. P. Wilson Steer's sketch-books, presented to the Museum by his legatees, were also on view.

The reopening of some of the galleries at the London Museum, Lancaster House, early in the year, was a cause of much satisfaction to members of the Dominion and Allied Forces visiting London for the first time. The exhibits arranged in the ground floor rooms included royal relics and historic costumes and accessories. Towards the end of May, the Lord Mayor opened the "London Heritage" exhibition, in which drawings, prints, and photographs were arranged to form an historical survey of the Cities of London and Westminster, before and after the destructive German air raids of 1940-41.

In November a number of recent acquisitions and other fresh exhibits were placed on view in the southern first floor rooms. They included part of the collection of views of Putney and district bequeathed to the Museum by the late Marcus Samuel, M.P. The outstanding item was a view of the river from Old Putney Bridge, said to be painted about 1750 by John Boydell, the engraver, who was not previously known to have worked in oils. Other interesting exhibits were documents relating to the early history of London bequeathed by the late Walter George Bell, and a collection of eighteenth-century costumes lent by Mr. J. A. Frere.

For three months from July 18, on Saturday and Sunday afternoons, the State Apartments of Kensington Palace were reopened to the public,

in spite of the air-raid damage still visible in some of the rooms. The collection of paintings rehung on the walls, including views of old London and many fine portraits, and the relics in Queen Victoria's rooms, well repaid a visit. During the summer Hampton Court Palace was also open to visitors, who found much to interest them in the pictures hung there.

At the Czechoslovak Institute several exhibitions were held, the most notable being of drawings and etchings by Wenceslaus Hollar, the celebrated seventeenth-century Czech artist. At Hertford House, the "Artists Aid Russia Exhibition" was opened in July by Madame Maisky, wife of the Soviet Ambassador, when about 900 paintings, drawings, and sculptures were on view.

The 217th and 218th exhibitions of the Royal Society of Painters in Water-Colours took place in the spring and autumn, the Royal Society of Painter-Etchers and Engravers having occupied the same galleries for their annual show at the beginning of the year. The Royal Society of British Artists, Suffolk Street, held a combined exhibition with the Royal Institute of Painters in Oils, whose premises were not available, in the summer, and a second exhibition in the winter. The 93rd exhibition of the New English Art Club, at Suffolk Street during October-November, emphasised a reactionary tendency in this one-time revolutionary club. Both the United Society of Artists and the Women's International Art Club also held their annual exhibitions at Suffolk Street during the summer and autumn.

Many fine paintings and water-colours could also be seen outside the public galleries and exhibition societies. Messrs. Agnew held their 69th annual exhibition of water-colour drawings in the spring, and showed Dutch and English Old Masters during the summer, while in November they hung "Thirty Italian Pictures." At the Fine Art Society's galleries there were topographical water-colours of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries in February and a splendid show of early English water-colours at the end of the year, as well as other old and modern paintings and drawings. After remaining closed for two years, the Lefevre Gallery reopened in April with French and English pictures, and in August works by the Ashington Group were shown there. The Walker Galleries held their 38th annual exhibition of early English water-colours, and the Leicester Galleries pursued their customary policy of holding varied exhibitions throughout the year. For the seventh time, Civil Defence Artists received hospitality for their pictures at the Cooling Galleries.

Art also flourished in the Provinces. At Preston there was the 17th annual exhibition of Lancashire Art, and at Norwich, in commemoration of the Cotman centenary, an exhibition under the title "The Art of the Seven Cotmans," illustrating the work of John Sell Cotman and six members of his family. The Norwich Art Gallery received as a gift a water-colour by John Crome. Five galleries of the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, remained open, and were hung with oil paintings (a recently acquired portrait of a lady by Lely, a Hogarth, and a Turner among others), English water-colours, including some by Varley to mark his centenary, Dutch flower pictures, and English humorous drawings. That virile art

society, the Reading Guild of Artists, held its annual show in May, and modern work was seen at Temple Newsam, near Leeds, and other provincial centres. The Gallery at Temple Newsam was much enriched by the purchase of a newly discovered marble bust of Alexander Pope by Roubiliac, dated 1738. Coventry City was presented by Sir Frank Brangwyn, R.A., with a collection of his original etchings, as a token of his admiration for the courage of her citizens during the air raid in 1940.

Although there were no sensational art sales, excellent prices were realised for some of the paintings and water-colours offered in the auction rooms. At Derby House, Christie, Manson and Woods began the year well by obtaining 700 guineas for a hitherto unknown portrait by Hogarth of Theodore Jacobsen, the architect of the old Foundling Hospital in London. Two small portraits by Corneille de Lyon, from the collection of the late Lord Boston, were sold in March for 2,200 guineas, and a pair of *capricci* by Canaletto fetched 480 guineas. In July, the Walter Jones collection of Turner water-colours, which had been exhibited at Agnew's previous to the sale, sold very well, for, although they could not be expected to reach the level of pre-war days, the nineteen drawings totalled over 8,000l. Before the end of the 1941-42 season, in August, the remaining works of P. Wilson Steer, O.M., fetched over 10,000/. Other important collections dispersed by Christie's were those of Andrew T. Reid, which included portraits by Raeburn and Allan Ramsay, and brought nearly 35,000l.; paintings, drawings, and sculpture from Chilham Castle (Sir Edmund Davis); part of the Colman collection of cricket subjects and works by Victorian Academicians; and Sir Torquil Munro's Raeburn portraits. Sales were also conducted at Clarence House, the London residence of the late Duke of Connaught, and at Canon Ffrome Court in Herefordshire.

At Sotheby's, a small painting of cattle in a meadow, by Paul Potter of Amsterdam, fetched 3,500l., and sporting pictures by Herring, Sartorius, * and Ferneley, from Medmenham Abbey and other sources, obtained good prices. 3,300/. was given for a small early Florentine painting on panel, the portrait of a youth, which, with other Old Masters, formed part of the Wilshire Heirlooms. The same sale included a series of important water-colours by Rowlandson from another collection, and at a later sale, a water-colour drawing of the interior of St. Alban's Abbey, by Thomas Girtin, brought 350l.

There were several Red Cross Sales, pictures, furniture, and objects of art being sold by Christie's, and books and manuscripts by Sotheby's. Of the two picture sales, the first included portraits by Hoppner and other old and modern paintings, drawings, and prints, while the second consisted of works by contemporary artists. The total amount realised by Red Cross Sales at Christie's was over 78,000l., and the three-day sale at Sotheby's brought a further 13,504*.

Robinson and Foster's also obtained good prices for paintings, chiefly portraits, at Willis's Rooms. Their sale in June of pictures, drawings, and bronzes belonging to the National Sporting Club, which was about to

close its doors, included Ben Marshall's portrait of " Gentleman Jackson," the famous prize-fighter.

At Knight, Frank, and Rutley's Rooms, two views of London, attributed to Samuel Scott, fetched 1,5001.

In addition to the centenaries of Cotman and of Varley already mentioned, 1942 marked the 150th year since the deaths of two famous Georgian artists, Sir Joshua Reynolds, P.R.A., and Robert Adam, the well-known architect. The *Burlington Magazine* devoted its entire February issue to Reynolds and his work, and in the following month published two articles on Adam. The July number of the *Burlington Magazine* consisted entirely of articles on Cotman.

II. THE DRAMA

In the London theatres, 1942 was the first war year to which the epithet " normal " might be applied in any sense whatever. That is, it was the first year since 1939 in which managers were able to make plans with any degree of confidence, and the first since 1938 in which they were able to carry out their plans without enemy interference. But if theatre-going conditions were normal, public response to them was utterly abnormal. Throughout the year a theatrical boom brought prosperity to the box-offices on a scale which reminded observers of the last war.

Yet there was a fundamental difference. In the war of 1914-18 theatre-goers notoriously lost all sense of discrimination, and flocked to see any kind of silly rubbish which the managers put before them. It was not so in 1942. The plays which held their places for long runs in this year were, most of them, good plays of their kind. The attitude of the public seemed to be that it was quite prepared to endure the difficulties of the black-out so long as there was a guaranteed reward of entertainment; but it was in no mood for taking chances. In consequence, plays that were not good of their kind quickly languished.

The logical result was that established favourites had extremely long runs. Noel Coward's *Blithe Spirit* (Piccadilly, St. James's and Duchess Theatres), Esther McCracken's *Quiet Week-end* (Wyndham's), and the American comedy *The Man Who Came to Dinner* (Savoy) ran through the year, and another of the plays of 1941, Emlyn Williams's *The Morning Star* (Globe), held its place for many months. There were also several of the 1942 vintage—not counting musical shows—which seemed at the end of the year to be destined for equally long runs, if the settled conditions should continue far into the future.

Only one complaint was heard. The war, while creating a demand, had restricted supply, and very few good new plays were to be had. The output of London's regular dramatists, most of whom were engaged in helping the war effort in one capacity or another, was small. Alone among them, Terence Rattigan scored a big popular success. He found time, among his duties as an Air Force officer, to write *Flare Path* (Apollo), a play in which the humours and heroism of the R.A.F., and the gallantry of its wives and sweethearts, were deftly conveyed. Patrick Hamilton's

The Duke in Darkness (St. James's) was a piece of work which did its author honour, but failed because its story held out the prospect of more exciting developments than it actually proved to contain. J. B. Priestley's contribution was a skit on the less important side of the B.B.C.'s duties, called *Goodnight, Children I* (New). The satire's edge was blunted by the author's obvious disinclination to be unkind to an organisation upon which so many and such great responsibilities had been laid. James Bridie was represented by *Holy Isle*, a play dealing, in this author's characteristic vein of satire, with the effect upon a primitive but peaceful and civilised island community of a combined punitive and missionary expedition from the mainland. The play was seen only at a trial run at the Arts Theatre. Its commercial chances for the future seemed to be jeopardised by one of Mr. Bridie's defiantly obscure last acts.

Two plays by London actors presented an odd contrast, having curiously similar titles as their only point in common. *The House of Regrets*, by Peter Ustinov, was in some ways the most interesting play of the year, for it proved that the young Anglo-Russian actor-author, who already at 19 had made a name on the revue stage, had in him the makings of an important dramatist. The play—another production by the Arts Theatre group of actors—showed us Mr. Ustinov's own people, a pathetic group of exiled Czarist Kussians in Kensington, with the older generation indulging vain dreams of a restored monarchy, and the younger turning away from their parents' country and beliefs towards an English brand of Socialism. *The House of Jeffreys*, by Russell Thorndike (Playhouse), was a thriller which went to absurd lengths of crudity. The author's sister, Dame Sybil Thorndike, played a Victorian missionary who appeared to have picked up cannibalistic tendencies from her African converts.

Two plays of the war which had successful runs were *Life-Line* (Duchess), by Norman Armstrong (a pen-name covering a joint authorship), a play of the Merchant Navy; and *Men in Shadow* (Vaudeville), by Mary Hayley Bell, a tale of guerrilla warfare carried on by R.A.F. men brought down but not captured in Occupied France.

Two war plays which failed were written by men who had made their names in other professions. Sir Patrick Hastings, the barrister, had already some workmanlike plays to his credit, so that the ineffective quality of *Escort* (Lyric), his play about a naval convoy ship, came as a surprise. Beverley Baxter, the journalist, was breaking ground new to him with *It Happened in September* (St. James's), and inexperience of the theatre's needs spoilt his chance of drawing the public. He had something to say, for his theme was the blindness to her danger of pre-war England; but he did not quite know how to say it.

Only one other new play of English origin calls for mention. This is *Murder Without Crime* (Comedy), by J. Lee Thompson, a young air-gunner, who showed himself a promising recruit to the ranks of our dramatists at a time when new-comers were not finding it easy to get a hearing.

It was not remarkable in the circumstances that managers should look to America for good plays, or that a whole group of the most interesting productions of the year should have been imported from New York.

Among these were Samson Kaphaelson's *Skylark* (Duchess), Rose Franken's *Claudia* (St. Martin's), Robert Sherwood's *The Petrified Forest* (Globe), Joseph Kesselring's *Arsenic and Old Lace* (Strand), and—the best play of the year—Lillian Hellman's *Watch on the Rhine* (Aldwych). Miss Hellman's other play, *Little Foxes* (Piccadilly), was a failure. Another interesting production (Arts and afterwards Cambridge Theatres) was Clifford Odets's *Awake and Sing*.

In a category by itself was *School for Slavery*, a moving play of the Nazi invasion of Poland. Its author, Lajos Biro, is a Hungarian, but wrote his play in English which shows very little trace of foreign origin.

It follows logically that in a season in which demand so emphatically outran supply, managers were forced to fall back upon revivals in order to keep their theatres open. Indeed, many of the less important plays that were revived during the year might never again have seen the stage but for this; Benn Levy's *The Man with Red Hair* (Ambassadors) which was an adaptation from a novel of the same name by Hugh Walpole, can serve as an example of this class. The really notable revivals of the year were Shaw's *The Doctor's Dilemma* (Haymarket); *Volpone* (St. James's), with Donald Wolfelt in the name-part; John Gielgud's two productions, *Macbeth* (Piccadilly) and *The Importance of Being Earnest* (Phoenix). The case of *The Doctor's Dilemma* especially invites comment, for the play was produced in March and ran strongly till the end of the year, thus achieving a long run for the only time since it first appeared, thirty-five years before. The reason for this sudden popularity was that Vivien Leigh made in it her first stage appearance since playing Scarlett O'Hara in the enormously successful film, "Gone With the Wind," which was having a three-year run at a nearby cinema theatre. In such circumstances, any workmanlike play might have succeeded.

During the year the English stage lost one of its greatest figures in Dame Marie Tempest, at the age of 78. [See under Obituaries.] She all but died "in harness," and was the last of the leading ladies of her generation to hold her grip upon the public. With her, the Victorian theatrical tradition seemed to die.

III. THE CINEMA

During 1942 probably the most influential factor in the provision of pictures was the Films Division of the Ministry of Information, which was under active and able supervision, was untrammelled by commercial considerations and could count on Government co-operation in the matter of facilities and supply. The Division doubled its output as compared with the previous year, sponsoring 141 films and 34 trailers, while the number of mobile units rose to 130. About a third of the mobile unit shows were given in factories during the midday or midnight break, and they aimed at relating the work done in the factory to the achievements and problems of the fighting front. Another third of the mobile units gave shows in villages and small towns. During the year films were sent

to every part of the world not occupied by the enemy, with versions in fourteen languages.

In March the three Service film units moved to Pinewood Studios where the Crown Film Unit, the Army Film Unit, and the R.A.F. Film Unit were operating at the end of the year.

During the year six films were made which were released through commercial channels. Their titles are mostly self-explanatory. "Coastal Command," "Ferry Pilot," "Wavel's 30,000," "Tobruk," "We Sail at Midnight" (the story of Lease-Lend Co-operation), and "Listen to Britain," the story of the country at war. Shortly to be released are, "A Letter from Ulster," showing how the U.S. troops are settling down in Ireland, "Tank Battle/' "Malta G.C.," and "Operational Heights," on the work of the men who guard the channels of the ports.

During the year Crown Film Unit, using not actors but the workers themselves, made "I Was a Fireman/' "Operation Primrose," a submarine story, and "Western Approaches," which features the Merchant Navy.

The British studios have had a difficult year owing to the shortage of actors and technicians, to say nothing of the problem of clothes coupons. Their greatest difficulty, however, was to obtain raw material for the sets, and many experiments were conducted to find substitutes for timber. Nevertheless, they have turned out twenty-seven feature films, many of them good pictures. The tendency has been towards fewer and better pictures, and a more mature outlook. The most notable of these was "In Which We Serve," a tribute to the work of the Navy. Noel Coward made this a one-man job. He wrote the story and the music, produced and directed, and played the lead. To the studio he brought stage methods and a stage "cast and completed his work ahead of schedule. Both here and in America the result was acclaimed as the best picture of the year. It is of interest to note that before the picture could be shown in America the Hays Office insisted on the deletion of certain swear words.

Nearly all the year's output of British studios had a war background. "Went the Day Well," with Leslie Banks, supposed a Nazi invasion. "The Foreman Went to France" was based on a true story of vital machinery brought back at the time of Dunkirk. "The First of the Few" had Leslie Howard both as director and star, and told the story of early aircraft. "Next of Kin" was an impressive warning against careless talk. "One of Our Aircraft is Missing" was a tribute to those Dutch patriots who helped the R.A.F. "They Flew Alone" was based on the lives and adventures of Amy and Jim Mollison, and starred Anna Neagle, and "The Young Mr. Pitt" gave Robert Donat the opportunity to show us that history repeats itself.

Several of the American productions would seem to have been more suitably made this side. For instance, it was left to America to film the best selling Welsh novel, "How Green was my Valley," in which they featured Maureen O'Hara and Walter Pidgeon. An even more striking example was Jan Struther's "Mrs. Miniver," with Greer Garson, the history of a typical English middle-class family behaving nobly under blitz

conditions. As a sort of counterpart they made "The War against Mrs. Hadley," in which Fay Bainter was the rich American who tried to carry on as if the war did not exist. "Eagle Squadron" was a tribute to America's volunteer flyers.

For the rest American output aimed at pure entertainment. In "Yankee Doodle Dandy" there was shown a lavish reconstruction of the life of George N. Cohen, with James Cagney proving that he can dance as well as fight. Among gangster films there was "This Gun for Hire," which found a new star in Alan Ladd. Bette Davis scored in "The Little Foxes," and for amusement only there was Mickey Rooney in "A Yank at Eton." Bing Crosby and Fred Astaire co-operated in a musical comedy called "Holiday Inn," and Greta Garbo, in "Two Faced Woman," distressed some of her admirers by appearing in a one-piece bathing suit.

Disney's full-length picture was devoted to the life-story of a deer called "Bambi."

A last word from France came late in the year with a copy of "Derriere la Facade," a picture which was running when the Germans marched into Paris.

Many Hollywood stars were called up, and there is a demand for economy in celluloid, so that a curtailment in production is expected. One feature programmes will probably soon be the rule in all cinemas. Meanwhile exhibitors reported from all over the country that business is excellent.

IV. MUSIC

In the ANNUAL REGISTER for 1941 a section of the article on Music was devoted to the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (C.E.M.A.) and its nation-wide campaign of concert-giving. The description there given would, in large part, stand for the Council's work in 1942, and need not be repeated in detail. No essential change or new development was introduced, the main purposes and methods having proved well adapted to the needs of the time and of the particular public concerned. The number of concerts given in canteens and factories, in city and village halls, in chapels, churches, and cathedrals, was again over four thousand. The Music Travellers appointed by the Council to help and encourage local organisation became increasingly active. Guarantees were still given to professional string orchestras. Certain changes in general administration have to be noted. At the end of March the period of support by the Pilgrim Trust came to an end, the policy of the Trust being rather to assist new causes than to maintain them when they are established. Thenceforward C.E.M.A. obtained its funds solely from the Treasury, through the Board of Education. The withdrawal of the Pilgrim Trust involved the resignation of Lord Macmillan as Chairman of C.E.M.A. He was succeeded by Lord Keynes (then Mr. J. Maynard Keynes). Late in the year the departments of Music, Art, and Drama were put under the direction of three separate panels, each under the chairmanship of Lord Keynes. The members of the panel for music were Mr. Arthur

Bliss, Dame Myra Hess, Mr. Constant Lambert, and Dr. Thomas Wood. Throughout its third year C.E.M.A. increased the scope and vigour of its work and strengthened its position and its welcome as a vital factor in war-time musical life.

Another war-time development noted in the ANNUAL REGISTER for 1941 was the touring orchestra. During 1942 the London Philharmonic Orchestra was the one most frequently on the road, principally under its own management. Provincial tours were also undertaken by the London Symphony Orchestra, and by the Halle* Orchestra from Manchester. Late in the year two other orchestras joined in the peripatetic habit. One was Mr. Reginald Goodall's Bournemouth (formerly Wessex) Philharmonic Orchestra, which made an extensive tour in October and November; the other was the Liverpool Philharmonic, which reconstituted itself for the 1942-43 season and at once began to visit other towns. This form of musical entertainment had grown to such an extent that people began to question whether it was entirely for the good of the art. It was thought that in many centres the supply had passed saturation point, and further that the musical community was being taught to exalt the satisfactions and excitements of orchestral music at the expense of other forms. Some went so far as to say that the modern orchestra had taken a leaf from the book of the prima donna. Such criticism was possibly exaggerated; but it is worth putting on record that contemporary practice was such as to provoke it.

Orchestral music in London increased in quantity in spite of conditions that restricted it, except during double summer time, to week-end afternoons. The most numerous series was that of the Sunday afternoon concerts at the Albert Hall organised by Harold Holt with the London Philharmonic Orchestra. Albert Hall concerts also included those of the Royal Philharmonic Society; a series of "London Summer Concerts" in which the Philharmonic Society, the B.B.C., Messrs. Boosey and Hawkes, and the London Symphony Orchestra were involved; two concerts by the Halle* Orchestra, which had not visited London for twelve years; and the Promenades. The other recognised centre of orchestral music was the Cambridge Theatre, where the London Symphony Orchestra was frequently engaged by various managements. Here six concerts of a Beethoven Festival were held on April 12 to 17; and from May 6 to May 16 Mr. Jay Pomeroy presented an International Festival of Music consisting of nine concerts under various conductors. At the Cambridge Theatre the New London Orchestra, under Mr. Alec Sherman, began to win a good name. In the late autumn the National Symphony Orchestra, organised and, in most cases, conducted by Mr. Sidney Beer, gave a series of concerts at the Phoenix Theatre and made its presence felt in London music.

While orchestral concert-giving showed this unexpected growth it did not at the same time broaden its repertory, which was still confined in the main to standard masterpieces from Haydn to Tchaikovsky. Towards the end of the year this "safe" policy drew a good deal of criticism. On practical grounds it was justified by the great and eager

audiences that came time after time to listen to well-known music. But that section of the musical public which sought for new experience and had always helped to keep musical enterprise alive was still in*existence ; and since little was done for its needs there was a strong undercurrent of dissatisfaction among enlightened music-lovers and the profession generally. It was not that new music was lacking. The grievance was that " everything was being performed for the first or the hundredth time "—an over-statement, but a sign of the times.

The Albert Hall Sunday Concert on April 26 was conducted by Rudolph Dunbar, a Negro musician. He introduced what was described as an " Afro-American " Symphony by the Negro composer William Grant Still. This proved to be a pleasant work of no great significance. The first programme of the aforementioned Summer Concerts included an amusing " Marche des Soldats," composed from Polish marching songs by Kondracki. The next evening was a double event: the B.B.C. Orchestra made its first appearance in London since the war began, and under Sir Adrian Boult introduced the Third Symphony by the American composer, Roy Harris. The work at once proclaimed itself the most interesting and distinguished composition that had come to England from modern America. In its single movement the composer deploys a modern type of counterpoint in a singularly independent manner, mingling with it a striking play of orchestral sonorities, inventing copiously, and organising the whole into a fine structure of moods and transitions. At a Cambridge Theatre concert in May Albert Sammons gave the first performance of a Violin Concerto by George Dyson. On June 4 the audience at the Albert Hall was disappointed of the Seventh, or " Leningrad," Symphony by Shostakovitch, owing to a delay in the arrival of the music. The first hearing occurred, under Sir Henry Wood, on June 22 at a B.B.C. studio, whence it was broadcast, and the first public performance was at the Promenade Concert on June 29. The work bears its name because it was composed in Leningrad during the height of the German attack. It was therefore the symbol of a great emotional crisis by which the British people had been profoundly stirred, and came surrounded by an aura of romantic heroism and a considerable glare of publicity. Consequently its audience were strongly predisposed at least at the beginning of each seventy-five-minute exposition. The musical verdict was that the stress under which the work had been brought to birth, so far from firing the composer's imagination, had stifled it.

The forty-eighth season of Promenade Concerts, organised by the B.B.C., took place at the Albert Hall from June 27 to August 22. The London Philharmonic Orchestra played until July 24, and the B.B.C. Orchestra for the rest of the season. Sir Henry Wood's share consisted of the first concert and about half of each subsequent concert, his associate conductors being Mr. Basil Cameron while the L.P.O. was engaged, and Sir Adrian Boult when the B.B.C. Orchestra took its place. The old system of programmes, which had begun to disintegrate a few years previously, was further melted down. Beethoven still ruled on Fridays,

and Bach and Handel on Wednesdays; but these were now half-programmes, and the other half was free. Wagner on Mondays was reduced to three half-programmes, his place being taken in the main by Tchaikovsky and other Russians. The principal change, however, was the re-admission of new works, which had been excluded in 1941. The list was as follows : Epic March by John Ireland ; " Leningrad " Symphony by Shostakovitch ; " Circus Suite " by Mary Anderson Lucas ; Violin Concerto by E. J. Moeran; symphonic poem, " Pannychis," by Harry Farjeon; Scherzo by Leonard Henry Reed; Dialogue for piano and orchestra by Elisabeth Maconchy; a revised version of the Piano Concerto by Alan Rawsthorne ; Sinfonia da Requiem by Benjamin Britten ; Symphony in C by Alan Bush; ballet Suite, " Billy the Kid," by the American composer Aaron Copland; Heroic Prelude by William H. Harris; Rondo, " Prelude to Holiday," by Arthur Benjamin; three Idylls for piano and orchestra by Alec Rowley; Valses Graves et Oaies by Norman Demuth ; Suite Franchise by Leighton Lucas; Symphony No. 4 by Edmund Rubbra; Triptych for viola and orchestra by Thomas Dunhill; symphonic poem, " Knight in Armour," by Ruth Gipps.

Moeran's Violin Concerto, finely interpreted by Mr. Arthur Catterall and Sir Henry Wood, proved to be the most engaging of the composer's larger works, and won a ready welcome by its quick-witted variety and Hibernian glamour. Rawsthorne's Piano Concerto was the work of one who had absorbed the modernist idiom of the 'twenties and 'thirties and had learnt to distil it more finely and musically than the bulk of its imitators. In Britten's Symphony a modern type of idiom was spread over a larger canvas. This was probably the most important work of the year in British music, for it marked a new stage in the growth of a composer (now aged twenty-nine) who had shown brilliant faculties but had not hitherto succeeded in stabilising them. The three movements, entitled *Lacrymosa*, *Dies Irae*, and *Requiem Aeternam*, are a trilogy of orchestral studies, novel and drastic in their technique, and steadily designed. Rubbra's Fourth Symphony continued, but did not greatly vary, the impressive and ingratiating tale of his second and third. In the history of British musical personalities the years 1941 and 1942 were marked by the rise of these four composers, Moeran, Rawsthorne, Britten, and Rubbra, to a high place in professional and public regard. The Symphony by Alan Bush courted attention rather as a political manifesto than as a design in music, its ideology being that of the Left. It was described as a "sermon on texts from the sacred books of Karl Marx."

After the Promenades the supply of new orchestral music practically ceased, the only works produced during the autumn being a Prelude and Fugue on " Dixie," by the Czech composer Weinberger (at an Albert Hall Sunday Concert), and an orchestrated version of Barter's Concerto for two pianos and percussion (at a Philharmonic Concert).

Among smaller concerts those given by the Boosey and Hawkes management again set an example of modern enterprise. One of the

most remarkable events of the year was a performance of Schdnberg's " Pierrot Lunaire," followed by the " Fagade " entertainment as originally devised by Edith Sitwell and William Walton. Other programmes in which nothing actually new was included had similar interest for the connoisseur of rare things. During an autumn season the novelties included " Contrasts " by Bartok, Britten's setting of seven sonnets by Michelangelo for voice and piano, Eugene Goossens's Second String Quartet, and Prokofiev's Sixth Piano Sonata. Of the National Gallery Concerts it is enough to say that they stood firm throughout the year as a monumeDt of artistic zeal and wise management. The principal novelty was Arthur Bliss's String Quartet, played by the Griller Quartet on March 27.

A number of the new works mentioned above were broadcast from the concert halls where they were performed. Among the first performances in England for which the B.B.C. was solely responsible the most important were those of the Overture " The School for Scandal" by the American composer Samuel Barber, and Khachaturyan's Violin Concerto, these on January 14; Prokofiev's music to " Alexander Nevsky " on April 26 ; and Bart6k's Sixth String Quartet on April 29.

In the Provinces the centre that most frequently came into the news was Bournemouth. Here the L.P.O. held a festival on March 9 to 15 under six well-known conductors; in April a Chamber Music Festival of the Allied Nations was held under the direction of Mr. Gordon Bryan ; during the spring the Municipal Orchestra, which had been drastically reduced in 1939, was re-established as a symphony orchestra of over forty players under Montague Birch; the Wessex Philharmonic Orchestra, under Reginald Goodall, was active throughout the year until its late autumn tour. At Kendal on May 1, when the old-established Westmorland Festival was revived, a cantata, " Before Daybreak," by Armstrong Gibbs was given its first performance. Orchestral music continued on a generally increasing scale at the following centres: Birmingham (the City Orchestra), Brighton (the Symphonic Players), Cambridge (the Philharmonic Society, newly active and enterprising), Edinburgh (the Reid Concerts), Glasgow (the Choral Union and the Scottish Orchestra), Guildford (the Orchestral Subscription Concerts under Claud Powell), Leeds (the Northern Philharmonic Orchestra), Liverpool (the Philharmonic Orchestra), Manchester (the Halle Orchestra), Oxford (the Oxford Orchestra), Torquay (the Philharmonic Orchestra), and Worthing (the Municipal Orchestra). A new organ at Norwich Cathedral was opened in June.

Sadler's Wells Opera and Ballet continued their wandering existence with occasional visits to London. In April the opera company brought out a new production of Mozart's " The Magic Flute " by Kurt Jooss, the famous producer of stylised ballet. The principal additions to the ballet repertory were " Comus," after Milton, to music by Purcell, and " Hamlet " (prompted by the line " For in that sleep of death what dreams may come"), to music by Tchaikovsky. The choreographer of both ballets was Robert Helpmann. A Russian Ballet season, presented by Mr.

Jay Pomeroy at the Cambridge Theatre in June, opened with "Lieutenant Kije," by Prokofiev.

Three commemorations were held : in June, the bicentenary of "The Messiah"; in July, Sullivan's centenary; in November, the four-hundredth anniversary of the birth of William Byrd (with six special broadcasts of Byrd's music). A different kind of commemoration occurred early in June, when a concert and a service were held in the ruins of the Inner Temple Hall and the Temple Church. In October various concert-giving bodies, including the B.B.C. with a series of broadcasts, paid their respects to Dr. R. Vaughan Williams on the occasion of his seventieth birthday.

On January 17 Dame Myra Hess was presented with the Gold Medal of the Royal Philharmonic Society. In February Sir Arnold Bax was appointed Master of the King's Music in succession to Sir Walford Davies. In June Mr. Arthur Bliss became Director of Music to the B.B.C.

The chief publications of the year were : "English Cathedral Music from Edward VI to Edward VII," by Edmund H. Fellowes ; "Greatness in Music," by Alfred Einstein ; "A Study of Twentieth-Century Harmony," by Mosco Carner ; and "The Music of Czechoslovakia," by Rosa Newmarch. The most remarkable gramophone recordings were those of Bloch's String Quartet (Columbia), Byrd's Five-part Mass (Decca), and the Fifth Symphony by Shostakovitch (H.M.V.).

The year's obituary included the names of Clement Spurling, the distinguished music-master at Oundle School in the time of Sanderson; Alfred Hollins, the blind organist; Felix Weingartner, the famous conductor, who had long been a familiar figure at London concerts [see under Obituaries]; William H. Reed, violinist and friend and biographer of Elgar; Walter Leigh, composer (killed in action); Dorothy Silk, soprano singer; and William Murdoch, pianist, born in Australia.

SCIENCE OF THE YEAR

THE BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES

Evolution and Genetics.—South Africa yielded finger bones of *Paranthropus robustus* showing the hand to be somewhat intermediate between that of the baboon and man. Russian archaeological research was carried out in Transcaucasia, and use was made of tree-ring studies in calibrating a time-scale in American archaeology. The blood transfusion service revealed interesting differences in the blood grouping of people of various localities within the British Isles. Books included Chappie and Coon's "Principles of Anthropology," Murdock's "Ethnographic Bibliography of N. America, I," Hrdlicka's "Human Crania in the U.S. National Museum Collections: Eskimo," Movius' "The Irish Stone Age," and Wulsin's "The Prehistoric Archaeology of N.W. Africa."

Work of the last twenty years bore fruit in providing an insight into the genetical composition of the chromosomes of the various species of *Drosophila*. The application of ultra-violet spectroscopy combined with older methods threw new light on chromosome chemistry and gene action, and on the relation of cell-physiology and chromosome mechanics as interlocking parts of one system: physiologically the gene seems to be a rather informal body capable of breaking most physiological rules. New lines of research developed from the theory of polygenes and from the study of inert parts of chromosomes, and investigation of the salivary gland chromosomes suggested the presence of a membrane in the normal chromosome. Research on sheep genetics gave the beginning of their chromosome map. In the U.S.S.R, controversy continued regarding alteration of the hereditary constitution of plants by vernalisation and grafting. Somatoplastic sterility, widespread in economic fruit plants, may underlie poor cropping and varietal differences in fertility. Incompatibility of pollen was tested *in vitro*, certain plants with weak self-incompatibility were made self-compatible by spraying with α -naphthalene-acetamide, and doubling of a self-incompatible diploid may produce a self-compatible tetraploid. Colchicine was increasingly used for the induction of variability in plants, and of fertility in hybrids of wide parental crosses, and fertile wheat X couch grass hybrids thus induced became available for extensive field test. Books included Huxley's "Evolution," Haldane's "New Paths in Genetics," Bourne (ed.), "Cytology and Cell Physiology," the Cold Spring Harbour Symposium IX, on "Genes and Chromosomes," Hayes and Immer's "Methods of Plant Breeding," Ford's "Genetics for Medical Students," Sen Gupta's "Heredity in Mental Traits," and Benedict's "Race and Racism."

Zoology.—Investigations were chiefly morphological, systematic, or descriptive, and important memoirs were published. Books included Poole and Schantz's "Type Specimens of Mammals in the U.S. National Museum," Osborn's "Discovery, Evolution, Migration and Extinction of

the Mastodonts and Elephants of the World, I I , " Griffith and Farris' " The Bat in Laboratory Investigation," the Carnegie Institute of Washington's " Embryology of the Khesus Monkey," and Moment's " General Biology for Colleges." Ornithological volumes included Peters' " Check List of Birds of the World, IV," Kidgway and Friedmann's " Birds of North and Middle America, IX," Blanchard's " Whitecrowned Sparrows of the Pacific Seaboard," Bent's " Life Histories of N. American Fly* catchers, Larks, Swallows and their Allies," Levi's " The Pigeon," Armstrong's " Bird Display," Baker's " Cuckoo Problems," and Lockley's " Shearwaters." Researches were carried out on the reproductive cycles of starlings and other birds. Ecologists published descriptive and broadly physiological work, improved their census methods, especially for rodents and insects, and made interesting applications of the predictive method. Books included Elton's " Voles, Mice and Lemmings," McCowan's " A Naturalist in Canada," and Bryan's " American Polynesia." In fisheries research behaviouristic studies were made of schooling, and there was further development of fresh-water fish-farming involving manurial methods. Books included Bertram *et al.*, " The Fish and Fisheries of Lake Nyasa," the State Board of Connecticut's " Fishery Survey of Important Connecticut Lakes," Russell's " The Overfishing Problem," Fowlers' " Biology of the Philippine Archipelago and Adjacent Regions : Fishes," and Longley and Hildebrand's " Systematic Catalogue of the Fishes of the Tortugas, Florida."

Entomologists published descriptive and systematic work but paid attention mainly to pest-control problems, especially in relation to water supplies, evacuation, and devastation areas, new agricultural and food developments and food and produce storage. New types or sources of insecticides were developed and improvements made in the biological assay of insecticidal and fungicidal sprays and dusts and in the statistical analysis of results. Books included Dobzhansky's " Beetles of the Genus *Hyperaspis* inhabiting the United States," Clarke's " N. American Moths of the Family *CEcophoridae*," Hinton's " The Family *Elmidae*," Knight's " Plant Bugs, or *Miridee*, of Illinois," Stone's " Fruitflies of the Genus *Anastrepha*," Russell's " Classification of the Scale Insect Genus *Asterlecanium*," Bristowe's " Comity of Spiders, I I , " Lundblad's " Die *Hydrocarinenfauna* Siidbrasiliens und Paraguays," Essig's " College Entomology," Frost's " General Entomology," and Imms' " Outlines of Entomology." Other books on lower invertebrates included Gurney's " Larvae of Decapod Crustacea," Walls' " The Invertebrate Eye," Torrey *et al.*, " Cyclophorid Operculate Land Mollusks of America," and Tennent's " Photodynamic Action of Dyes on the Eggs of the Sea Urchin."

General Physiology.—Work on cerebral organisation indicated that while nerve impulses are transmitted over definite pathways, behaviour seems to be determined by masses of excitation within general fields of activity without regard to particular nerve cells. In general, a revision of current notions of sensory motor organisation was indicated, with a much more diffuse and widespread connection in terms of an overall pattern between sense organs and motor neurons. Books in this general

field included Larsell's "Anatomy of the Nervous System," Mettler's "Neuroanatomy," Krieg's "Functional Neuroanatomy," Howe and Bodian's "Neural Mechanisms in Poliomyelitis," Neal *et al.*, "Encephalitis," Lewis's "Pain," Zilboorg and Henry's "History of Medical Psychology," Greene's "Measurement of Human Behaviour,"* Hathaway's "Physiological Psychology," Angyal's "Foundations for a Science of Personality," Koehler's "Dynamics in Psychology," Valentine's "Psychology of Early Childhood," Sherman's "Basic Problems of Behaviour," Sheldon's "Varieties of Temperament," Clarke's "Mental Hygiene," and Anderson and Parmenter's "A Long-Term Study of the Experimental Neurosis in the Sheep and Dog." Work on electrical changes in the retina and optic nerve in response to light gave greater understanding of problems of vision and sensation in general. Chemical analysis showed visual purple to consist largely of protein and lipid. In the U.S.S.R., grafting of cadaver tissues was extensively used in eye operations. Books included Polyak's "The Retina," Kluver (ed.), "Visual Mechanisms," and Bartley's "Vision : a Study of its Basis."

Lymph was intensively studied but the function of lymphoid tissue, especially well developed in mammals, remained obscure. Improvements were made in methods of drying blood plasma and blood serum for transfusion and, in the U.S.S.R., cadaver blood transfusion was found more effective than blood from living donors. Muscle study supported the view that muscle contraction is essentially an enzyme-substrate combination. Work was done on the rôle of the hyaluronidase of spermatozoa in mammalian fertilisation, on the electrophoretic separation of male and female sperms, and on the activation of unfertilised rabbit eggs which, in one case, led to the birth of a normal parthenogenetic female capable of normal fertilisation. There was widespread application of artificial insemination in animal husbandry. Progress was made in the hormone injection of female stock whereby production of offspring may be induced more than once a year, or the number of ova may be increased, some of these ova then being transplanted to the uteri of foster mothers. The wound hormone activity of products from injured cells seems to be due to factors involved in the respiratory mechanism of the cells. Great attention was paid to the physiology of aviation, diving, submarines, and other war-time problems. Books in this general field included Engelbreth-Holm's "Spontaneous and Experimental Leukaemia in Animals," Kilduffe and DeBaakey's "The Blood Bank and the Technique and Therapeutics of Transfusions," Cattell (ed.), "Muscle," Herrick's "Short History of Cardiology," Meyerbof *et al.*, "Symposium on Respiratory Enzymes," Vaughan's "Allergy," Cohen's "Manual of Allergy," Harley's "Studies in Hay Fever and Asthma," Cinberg's "Endocrine Therapy," the American Medical Association's "Glandular Physiology and Therapy," Wirtschafter and Korenberg's "Diabetes mellitus," Needham's "Biochemistry and Morphogenesis," Stockard *et al.*, "The Genetic and Endocrine Basis for Differences in Form and Behaviour," Zondek's "Clinical and Experimental Investigation of the Genital Functions and their Hormonal Regulation," Gunn *et al.*, "Studies in Fertility in Sheep, I I," Newman's "Twins and

Super-Twins," Pugh (ed.), " War Medicine," Hoff and Fulton's " Bibliography of Aviation Medicine," and Grow and Armstrong's " Fit to Fly."

War-time conditions focused attention on nutrition, and progress was made in the scientific problems of the processing, preservation, bulk reduction, storage, and transport of foods and food products, and in the discovery of new and improved foods for man and stock. There was increased recognition of the value of flavour and interest in human nutrition. In general, there seems little or no difference in the nutritive quality and palatability of foods preserved by modern methods of drying, canning, gas-storage, refrigeration, etc. Special attention was given to the importance of mineral requirements, *e.g.* calcium and iron, and to vitamins A and C, nicotinic acid and riboflavin, and to protein in the war-time dietary. Methods of conserving vitamins in processed and preserved foods were improved, and new and rich sources of vitamins were found, *e.g.* vitamin B₆ in tobacco waste, vitamin C in parsley and unripe walnuts, and vitamin D in certain fresh-water fish : research was done on synergistic relations of vitamins, particularly A and D, and increased use was made of micro-organisms as test agents. The national system of food rationing in Great Britain, especially, perhaps, the more equitable distribution of milk and dairy products, seemed to improve the general health of the population. In stock feeding use was made of waste products, such as nettles, processed straw and sawdust, seaweed, spent tea and coffee, etc. Books included Maynard's " Animal Nutrition," Ewing's " Poultry Nutrition," Youman's " Nutritional Deficiencies," Wirtschafter's " Minerals in Nutrition," Hawley and Carden's " Art and Science of Nutrition," Rowe's " Elimination Diets and the Patient's Allergies," Waisman and Elvehjem's " Vitamin Content of Meat," Evans (ed.), " Biological Action of the Vitamins," Rosenberg's " Chemistry and Physiology of the Vitamins," and Wilson's " Pasteurisation of Milk."

Refinement of biophysical techniques advanced knowledge of cellular physiology and the molecular structure of cellular units : cytoplasmic organisation seems to depend upon flexible frameworks of native protein molecules, leading to the picture of biologically active membranes as molecular fabrics. It seems clear that tissue proteins in the body do not remain as unchanging structures until destroyed in metabolism, but that every protein in the living body is itself alive in the sense that it is continually changing and renewing its structure. Progress was made in amino-acid analysis and the structure of proteins, and improvements in X-ray analysis threw light on the molecular structure and dimensions of haemoglobin. Books included Taylor *et al.*, " Molecular Films, the Cyclotron and the New Biology," Seifriz (ed.), " The Structure of Protoplasm," Reiner's " Manual of Clinical Chemistry," Harvey's " Living Light," Fitt's " Seasonal Influence on Growth, Function and Inheritance," Gregg's " The Furtherance of Medical Research," Gray's " The Advancing Front of Medicine," Reed and Harcourt's " Essentials of Occupational Diseases," Harley's " Native African Medicine," Sorsby's " Medicine and Mankind," Guirldham's " Disease and the Social System," and Clendening's " Source Book of Medical History."

Botany,—General and systematic books included Heed's "Short History of the Plant Sciences," Goodspeed's "Plant Hunters in the Andes," Weatherwax's "Plant Biology," Darrah's "Introduction to the Plant Sciences," Fuller's "The Plant World," Salisbury's "The Reproductive Capacity of Plants," Rikli's "Das Pflanzenkied der Mittelmeerlftnder," Cheetham and Sledge's "Supplement to the Yorkshire Floras," Pittier's "Clave Analitica de las Familias de Plantas Superiores de la America Tropical," and Vareschi's "Die pollenanalytische Untersuchungen des Gletscherbewegung." There was interesting American work on fossil Lycopods, and a study was made of an extensive and representative flora of the lower Old Red Sandstone age from the South Wales marches. MacGinitie published "A Middle Eocene Flora from the Central Sierra Nevada."

Physiologists studied vernalisation, growth patterns in plants, intermediate products of photosynthesis, respiratory channels in the tomato and other fruits, the artificial culture of plant embryos, and the biochemistry of lignin. Examination of the dispersion of cellulose strands in cell walls tended to support the conception of a submicroscopic reticular texture. Note was made of the germination after 147 years of the seeds of *Albizzia*. Work on algal chemistry showed that sitosterol, the characteristic sterol of the phanerogams, is common to the green algae but absent from the brown algae, and that sterols are entirely lacking in the Myxophycero and the bacteria: these researches promise to throw valuable light on problems of sexuality and evolution of the lower plants. Study was made of the vitamin requirements of fungi, of the saprophytic fungi, algae and flagellates of fresh-water, the snow and ice algae of Alaska, the marine algal communities in south polar waters, and the plankton of Irish loughs. Graham published "Studies in the Morphology, Taxonomy, and Ecology of the Peridinales."

In plant husbandry innovations were made in rotations or in the development of new or unfamiliar crops in relation to war-time needs, and increased attention was paid to the importance of weeds and diseases as controlling factors in crop production, and to the need for the better dissemination of scientific knowledge among growers. Interesting results accrued from the addition of catalysts to herbicides, and from the hormone spraying of fruit trees. Nutritional deficiencies and imbalances in plant culture under the intensive conditions of war-time agriculture received attention, and urban and other wastes were used as fertilisers. It became clear that the occurrence of a given trace element in a soil is not necessarily a guide to its occurrence in plants, and that the quantities of essential trace elements in plants are no necessary indication of the quantities required by consuming animals. Work was done on the value of individual trace elements on improving the growth and health of particular crops, *e.g.* molybdenum on lettuce. There was increased utilisation of tropical lumber and valuable developments in the use of various forest products. Nettle and other plants were used as sources of fibre and in paper-making, and attention was given to the cultivation and testing of rubber-producing plants. Books included Klage's "Ecological Crop Geography," the

Colonial Office's "Agriculture in the West Indies," Wickizer and Bennett's "The Rice Economy of Monsoon Asia," Kellogg's "The Soils that Support Us," the U.S. Yearbook of Agriculture for 1941, "Climate and Man," Matlin's "Chemical Gardening," Laurie and Ries's "Floriculture," Clarkson's "Herbs, their Culture and Uses," Howard's "Studies of the Identification of Timber," Baldwin's "Forest Tree Seed of the North Temperate Regions, with Special Reference to N. America," Bower's "Cone-bearing Trees of the Pacific Coast," Graham and McMinn's "Ornamental Shrubs and Woody Vines of the Pacific Coast," Trotter's "Indian Forest Utilization," Zand's "Kapok," Mantell *et al*, "Technology of Natural Resins," and numerous smaller books on farm and allotment cultivation.

Microbiology and Disease.—Understanding of virus and bacterial structure was advanced by improvements in X-ray analysis and the electron microscope which gave power of direct examination. Virus particles are of various shapes, and it seems to be their internal regularity, lack of water, and chemical simplicity that separate them most sharply from the simplest recognised organisms. The isolated virus protein of influenza A is about 11 μ in diameter and is one of the smallest pathogenic agents known. Many of the pathological effects of plant viruses seem to be bound up with disturbances of the phenol, especially the tannin, metabolism of the host. Biophysical and serological examination of plant viruses gave better understanding of their nature and systematic relationships. New approaches to the study of tumours were opened up by the application of carcinogenic hydrocarbons to protozoa, and by the production of cancerous neoplasms of plants by autonomous bacteria-free crown-gall tissue. There was important American work on the nature of filterable tumours and the inheritance of cancer in mice, Japanese and English work on the experimental induction of liver tumours, and Russian work on carcinogenic agents in living organs.

Advances were made in the study of microbial antagonism, of microbial factors in the digestive assimilation of starch and cellulose in Herbivora, of the synthesis of vitamins *in vitro* by intestinal bacteria of higher animals and by micro-fungi, in the isolation of chitin-decomposing marine bacteria, in work on the enzymatic production of bacterial polysaccharides and the potassium stimulation of bacterial sugar metabolism, and in the microbiological study of the atmosphere. Much research was done on the nature and functioning of antibodies in immunology, but added little to knowledge of the origin of the normal serum proteins or of the modified antibody globulin. Work on tuberculosis revealed several types of proteins derived from the tubercle bacillus, varying in potency, and the whole question of hypersensitivity and allergy seems to be interlocked with the protein fraction. Study of the chemotherapeutical use of halogenised phenols as external agents showed that treatment in man is harmless with no secondary effects. Promin, a new member of the sulphanilamide group, is active against the tubercle bacillus both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Work on bacteriocidal and bacteriostatic substances from micro-fungi, actinomycetes, and bacteria was actively developed, new substances being

discovered, and penicillin moved from the laboratory to the therapeutic stage : a provisional formula was given for penicillin.

Books in this general field included Burton and Kohl's "The Electron Microscope," Burnet and Claris "Influenza," Webster's "Rabies," Mottram's "Application of Blastogenic Agents to Ciliates," Weidman *et al.*, "Xanthoma and Other Dyslipoidoses," Dexter and Weiss' "Pre-eclamptic and Eclamptic Toxemia of Pregnancy," the Medical Research Council's "Report on Chronic Pulmonary Disease in South Wales Coal-mines," Dennie and Pakula's "Congenital Syphilis," Kopeioff's "Bacteriology in Neuropsychology," Moulton (ed.), "Symposium on Human Malaria," Siler *et al.*, "Immunization to Typhoid Fever," Taylor's "Conquest of Bacteria," Craig's "Laboratory Diagnosis of Protozoan Diseases," Culbertson's "Immunity Against Animal Parasites," Lichtwitz's "Functional Pathology," Wright's "Pathology and Treatment of War Wounds," Moritz's "Pathology of Trauma," Birkeland's "Microbiology and Man," the University of Wisconsin's "Symposium on Hydrobiology," and Chester's "Nature and Prevention of Plant Diseases."

General.—It was recognised that in the relations of biological science to society the biologist and psychologist have their distinctive contributions to make to the analysis of social structure and functioning. There was greater acceptance of the idea that scientific culture has intellectual, ethical, and aesthetic claims of high order and should take its place on equal terms beside literary and artistic cultures. Science cannot flourish without freedom of thought and its expression, without tolerance, freedom from restraint, and a recognition of the value of individuality. There must also be recognised the basic influence of factors of heredity and environment on the sensory judgments of people, relations which are perhaps also true of man's mental and spiritual judgments. The contrast between scientific achievement and social and political futility is evident, and there was general appreciation of the necessity to apply to political, social, and economic problems the principles of independent inquiry and impartial judgment demanded of investigators in all branches of natural knowledge. Further, the educational system has put a premium on the physical sciences, but a more enlightened direction is necessary to ensure that whenever biological science impinges on human activity the contributions it can make are recognised without delay and appropriate action taken. Any biological instruction justifying its claim to a place in a curriculum designed to promote intelligent citizenship must give prominence to aspects of biology which are most relevant to human needs. There was increased feeling of the need for a central organisation for human and social biology which should evaluate existing knowledge, consider methods of its application, and initiate research. Books in this general field included Mukerjee's "Man and His Habitation," Pollock's "Mental Disease and Social Welfare," Guirldham's "Disease and the Social System," Mayo's "Human Problems of an Industrial Civilisation," Guyer's "Speaking of Man," Humby and James's "Science and Education," Hardie's "Truth and Fallacy in Educational Theory," Miller and Dollard's "Social Learning and Imitation," Barzun's "Darwin, Marx, Wagner : Critique of a Heritage," Porterfield's

" Creative Factors in Scientific Research," Waddington *et al.*, " Science and Ethics," Kapp's " Science and Materialism," Baker's " The Scientific Life," Wood Jones's " Design and Purpose," and Harding's " The Will to Dominate."

Numerous conferences were held to consider and further the part played by the scientist in the war effort, in national planning, and in problems of post-war reconstruction. In Great Britain the Biology War Committee was instituted, and in the U.S.A. the War Emergency Committee on Plant Disease Problems, the War Committee on Bacteriology, etc. There was general recognition of the need for considering the human factor in production, especially from the physiological and psychological aspects, and much attention was given to fatigue, welfare, and nutrition as factors in industry, and to industrial diseases and the rehabilitation of injured workers. It was realised that the structure and mechanism of man's community life must be adapted to the needs of the individual, to the needs of the family, and to the social life which enfolds them. The conscious control of human heredity must be slow whereas changing man's environment gives promise of rapid betterment of the individual. The general problem is to combine freedom with planning, and, in any solution, a primary rôle must be played by applied biological science in its broad connotation directed with constructive imagination and creative vision. The issue, however, is not of more science or of less science, but of formulating an end and meaning of life, and deciding whether the scientific transformation of the world must proceed without rational direction and control, or whether natural and human resources are to be developed to serve the interests of a world with new social patterns, new standards of health, nutrition, living, and economic security. The future trends of biological investigation, *e.g.* problems of nutrition, agriculture, forestry, fisheries, etc., depend very largely on what form society takes : the impact of society on scientific work and thought is as unmistakable as that of science on society.

Adequate nutrition must be the basis of any scheme of reconstruction and, although malnutrition remains a major issue of national and international policy, science, by making action possible on the basis of ascertained facts, has largely removed this problem from the arena of politics and traditional economics. It is also clear that the bulk of the world's population are living below the health level of nutrition, and that the primary causes of malnutrition are sheer lack of foodstuffs which can be grown, poverty which can be ameliorated, and ignorance which can be enlightened. In Great Britain these conditions, together with increased anxiety concerning the age, quality, and numerical trends of the population, led to general acceptance of the ideas of functional and long-term planning in agriculture, family allowances, the reorientation and betterment of education, and reorganisation of the health and social services on a national basis. There was widespread recognition of the fact that disease is largely preventable and should be prevented, and of the necessity of the psychological study of the criminal, especially the young offender.

Books in this general field included Wright's " A Study of War,"

Gillespie's " Psychological Effects of War on Citizen and Soldier," Barlow's " The Discipline of Peace," the British Association's Report on " Science and World Order," Compton *et al*, " Scientists Face the World of 1942," Bowman *et al*, " The University and the Future of America," West's " Conscience and Society," Cantril's " The Psychology of Social Movements," Warner and Lunt's " Social Life of a Modern Community," and " The Status System of a Modern Community," Marrack's " Food and Planning," Myrdal's " Nation and Family," Soutar *et al*, " Nutrition and Size of Family," Titmuss and Titmuss's "Parents' Revolt," Smith's "The Distribution of Population and Location of Industry on Merseyside," Burns' " Infant and Maternal Mortality in Relation to Size of Family and Rapidity of Breeding," East's " The Adolescent Criminal," Alexander's " The Universal Constant in Living," Lewis's " The Biology of the Negro," and Freeman and Martin's " The Pacific Northwest."

THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES

The year 1942 produced a further contraction of published experimental work in the physical sciences. There were, however, many discussions and conferences, some controversies, and an appreciable increase in pen and paper work. The *Physical Review*, published in the U.S.A., again contained a large number of papers devoted to nuclear and cosmic physics, there was a very marked decline in this and other fundamental work in Great Britain.

The most acute controversy arose out of a number of papers on diffuse X-ray deflection and the specific heats of crystalline substances, by Raman and his collaborators, which appeared in the *Proceedings of the Indian Academy of Sciences* in October and November, 1942. A resume* of the papers on X-ray reflection by G. D. Preston was given in *Nature* (Apr. 4), and a further account by Raman himself (*Nature*, Sept. 26). The work on specific heats was summarised by W. H. George (*Nature*, May 16). The diffuse X-ray reflections are commonly attributed to thermal vibrations of the crystal lattice. Raman supposes that the atoms exchange energy with the X-ray photons in a manner analogous to that observed in the scattering of light; the X-ray photons taking up or giving out a quantum of energy corresponding to one of the infra-red vibrations of the lattice and so being reflected with change of frequency. The specific heat theory associates the greater part of the thermal energy with the vibrations of the atoms about their mean positions in the unit cells. The Debye theory associates it with the elastic vibrations in the crystal, and Bora's cyclic lattice theory at least makes no distinction between high-frequency atomic vibrations and the low-frequency elastic ones : both theories make the frequencies dependent on the external dimensions of the crystal.

The X-ray theory was not accepted by Born, or by Lonsdale and Smith, who maintained that the thermal theory was capable of explaining all the facts (*Nature*, Apr. 11 and Oct. 24). The specific heat theory was traversed by Blackman and Born, *e.g.* *Nature*, July 11.

A considerable discussion of the Dimensions of Physical Quantities

was carried on in the pages of the *Philosophical Magazine* and the *Proceedings of the Physical Society* by G. B. Brown, W. Wilson, Dingle, Guggenheim, N. R. Campbell, and others. The discussions were thorough and interesting, but it seemed unlikely that any of the contestants changed their views. Wilson also contributed to the *Phil. Mag.* a helpful discussion of some fundamental aspects of thermodynamics, and C. J. Smith notes on teaching topics in elementary physics.

Conferences held during the year and not referred to elsewhere in this report, included one on X-ray Analysis and Crystals arranged by the Institute of Physics at Cambridge, April 10 and 11; the Eye in Industry, by the London branch of the Institute of Physics, June 20; the Figure of the Earth, by the Royal Astronomical Society, August 14; the Post-war Education and Training of Physicists by the Institute of Physics, October 12; and a conference on Mineral Resources and the Atlantic Charter arranged by the Division for Social and International Relations of the British Association on July 24-25. The papers read at this meeting included an interesting account of the extraction of potassium, bromium, and magnesium salts from sea-water. This is carried out in the U.S.A. on a very large scale, one plant alone was expected to be producing at the rate of 100,000 tons per annum by the end of this year.

The Report of the Astronomer Royal on the work of the Royal Observatory during the year, May, 1941-April, 1942, stated that no further damage had been done by air raids, and that difficulties arising from the destruction of the type and plates used for the Nautical Almanac had been overcome. Observations with the Airy transit circle, abandoned the previous year, had been resumed following the destruction of the Pulkovo Observatory in Leningrad. The weather during the year had been unusual; a very wet August was followed by an unprecedented lack of rain in September and October. The winter was cloudy, sunshine 55 per cent, of average, and very cold, 26 days in January and February giving temperatures below 0° C. Solar activity continued to diminish as expected. Four big sun-spot groups were observed, and assuming that solar corpuscles emitted at the time of maximum intensity of chromospheric eruption are responsible for the terrestrial magnetic storms which follow, their mean time of transit is 20 hours. Bearing on this point H. W. Newton (*Observatory*) stated that the radio fade-out produced by the intense solar eruption on February 28 commenced at 12 noon and the magnetic storm 19J hours afterwards. The time interval for the storm on March 1, 1941, was $18\frac{1}{2}$ hours and for that on September 18, 1941, 20.5 hours. Duperier (*Nature*) stated that there was a decrease of 12 per cent, in cosmic ray activity during the storm of March 1, the fall commenced 1 hour before the onset of the storm and normal intensity was not fully regained 6 days afterwards, i.e. long after the storm had ceased.

Hunter (*Nature*, Dec. 26) gave an account of the coronium lines observed in the spectrum of the solar corona. Following an observation by Grotrian (*Naturmss*, 1939), Edlen (*Arkiv. astron. mat. och. fysik*, 1941) showed that these lines may be forbidden lines of atoms of iron, nickel,

and calcium in high stages of ionisation, *e.g.* the line 5,303 may be produced by iron atoms which have lost thirteen electrons. Saha (*Nature*, May 9) stated that he had confirmed EdleVs results. The width of the lines is considerable, and if due to thermal motion requires temperatures of the order of 2 million degrees, a value very far from the 6000° K. indicated by the total radiation. Saha (*loc. cit.*) suggested that both the stripping of the atoms and their high velocities are due to a nuclear reaction analogous to fission. If this is so, and there is some supporting evidence, nuclear reactions take place in the solar envelope as well as in its interior, presumably therefore also in stellar envelopes with effects on stellar phenomena which may need to be taken into account.

A symposium on the structure and rotation of the Milky Way and of external galaxies was held in the rooms of the Royal Astronomical Society on July 10. Estimates of the size of our Galaxy depend on a knowledge of the effect of the absorbing matter within it, recognition of this effect having halved the estimate in the last decade. It now appears that the total mass is 10^4 times that of the sun and the rotation period about 250 million years. The sun itself is probably situated in a local void between two spiral arms about 30,000 light years from the centre of rotation, round which it moves with a velocity of 250 km. per sec.

Arrol, Jacobi, and Paneth (*Nature*) gave a further report on the age of meteorites based on measurements of the helium uranium ratio corrected for the hitherto neglected thorium content. The composition of meteorites is remarkably uniform and this uniformity extends to their uranium and thorium content. The helium content, on the other hand, varied from less than 0.0002 c.e. to 40 c.e. per million grams, the corresponding ages varying from 0.11 to 7,000 million years, a figure which would seem to put a lower limit to the age of the solar system.

Harradon (*Sky and Telescope*) stated that a study of pleistocene clays from a glacial lake at New Haven, Connecticut, and of sediment from the floor of the Atlantic indicates a variation in the direction of the earth's magnetic field as great as 60°. No explanation of such a variation is available.

Millikan, Neher, and Pickering (*Phys. Rev.*) discussed evidence supporting the theory that cosmic rays originate in the transformation of atoms into cosmic ray energy. In 1939 Bowen and Wise made a spectroscopic investigation of the abundance of the elements in nebulae. Hydrogen is most abundant, helium next, and then carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, and silicon in about equal amounts, no other elements have an abundance greater than one-tenth that of the latter four. It is therefore considered that the six most abundant elements furnish by their annihilation the chief sources of cosmic ray energy. The energy produced by the annihilation of hydrogen atoms is too small for any electrons endowed with it to reach the earth through the barrier imposed by the magnetic field of the sun. Electrons with helium energy should be able to penetrate the solar magnetic field and also that due to the earth from the poles to lat. 56°7' (magnetic), electrons with carbon energy to lat. 42°, the silicon electrons should penetrate nearer to the equator, beyond their limit would

be rays from the heavier and less abundant elements. The authors considered that measurements of the vertical incoming rays at different latitudes indicate the existence of these energy bands and so give reasonable support to the theory. They were of the opinion that the primary rays are most probably electrons. The nature of these primary rays remained uncertain, but Bose and Choudhuri (*Nature*) reported experimental results which they considered as supporting Carlson and Schein's theory that they consist of particles of one kind—protons or neutrons.

Rossi, Greisen, Stearns, Froman, and Koontz (*Phys. Rev.*) made further measurements of the rest-life of mesons, obtaining the value 2.8 ± 0.2 microseconds for a meson whose mass is 200 times that of an electron at rest. This result is in good agreement with that obtained by Rossi and Hall in 1941 but depends on the relative rate of production of mesons by cosmic rays in air and iron, and is too great if the rate per gm./cm.² is greater in air as measurements by Regener (*Bull. Am. Phys. Soc.* 17) indicate. De Souza Santos (*Phys. Rev.*) found a mean life of 5 microseconds for slow mesons with a Gaussian distribution round the mean. Frohlich (*Phys. Rev.*) argued in support of a theory proposed by Muller and Rosenfeld in 1940 that mesons are of two types—the more usual with the longer life and zero spin and another of shorter life having a spin $\frac{1}{2}$.

Allen (*Phys. Rev.*) obtained some experimental evidence for the existence of the neutrino from measurements of the recoil nuclei during the decay of radioactive Be⁷. The conclusions drawn are valid unless some other cause can be discovered for the removal of the energy produced in the Be⁷ decay process.

Germer (*Phys. Rev.*) showed that electrons passing near the surface of a demagnetised cobalt single crystal are deflected by stray fields from the individual domains. By depositing different thicknesses of copper on the crystal face it was shown that these fields extend to a distance of 0.01 mm. from the surface where their strength is of the order of ten thousand gauss.

The Sixth Report of the Committee on Atoms of the International Union of Chemistry was drawn up and published by Professor F. W. Aston, its chairman, after such consultations as were possible with the other members of the Committee. It is concerned with the Table of Isotopes, and among other facts states that a stable isotope of helium of mass 3 exists in Nature, its abundance is estimated at 10^{-7} per cent., that cobalt is now to be regarded as a simple element and that the existence of the isotope of rhodium, mass 101, must be considered doubtful.

Lecturing to the Institute of Chemistry on February 18, Paneth discussed the periodic classification of the elements. He stated that short-lived radio elements having the same atomic numbers as the three missing elements, 43, 61, and 85, have been obtained by bombardment processes in the laboratory, but that it is unlikely that any stable elements of these numbers exist.

Bridgman (*Proc. Amer. Acad. Arts and Sci.*) investigated the melting-points and compressibilities of a number of organic liquids at pressures up to 48,000 atmospheres and the pressure volume curves for seventeen

elements up to twice that limit. The melting-point curves for the liquids showed no evidence of the existence of a critical point.

Hardy, Telfair, and Pielemeier (*J. Acoust. Soc. Amer.*) surveyed previous determinations of the velocity of sound in air, obtained a value by calculation from a rigorous equation and also by precise interferometer measurements. The final result may be taken as 33145 ± 0.05 metres per second. Primakoff (*J. Acoust. Soc. Amer.*) discussed the dispersion of sound waves from the viewpoint of the kinetic theory. The effect is very small, the velocity in monatomic gases being proportional to $(1 - 54Z^2/A^2)$, where I is the mean free path and A the wave-length.

Farnsworth and Dunn (*Bell Lab. Rec.*, Aug.; *Nature*, Nov.) investigated the distribution of acoustical pressure due to speech in space and in frequency bands. The results varied with the band investigated but in general the pressures remain constant in the horizontal plane up to an angle of 45° with the normal to the lips, but at 90° downwards the pressures are greater for frequencies up to 1,000 cycles per sec. than at 45° downwards or along the normal. For the voice tested 80 per cent, of the power was in the 250 to 2,000 frequency band.

Mix and MacNair (*Phys. Rev.*) continued their measurements of the coefficients of linear expansion of pure metals over a range of temperature extending from that of liquid nitrogen to 700°C , using an interferometer dilatometer with photographic recording. Their results for most metals were in good agreement with the Grueneisen theory but nickel and iron gave anomalous coefficients. For nickel the coefficient begins to deviate from the Grueneisen curve at 320°K ., reaches a maximum at the Curie point 635°K ., and rejoins the curve at 780°K . For iron the values are anomalous over a wide range of temperature, beginning at 200°K . Small amounts of impurity do not greatly affect the coefficient.

Cooke and Hull (*Roy. Soc. Proc.*) investigated methods for thermal insulation over the temperature range 0.12° to 1.0°K . and were able to reduce the heat flow to 1 erg per min. by suspending the specimen with an artificial silk fibre and surrounding it with guard rings.

Hoge and Brickwedde (*J. of Res.*) described a comparison of the readings of eight platinum resistance thermometers, calibrated in accordance with the International Temperature Scale, over the temperature range -190°C . to 445°C . For seven the maximum difference between -190°C . and 100°C . did not exceed 0.007° . The eighth, the only one with a value of S exceeding 1.5, gave a reading at -110°C ., which differed by 0.015° . from the mean of the others.

The *Journal of the Optical Society of America* contained as usual a number of interesting papers. Parry Moon gave the results of spectrophotometry measurements of the reflecting properties of 602 materials commonly used in offices, classrooms, and living rooms. Bearing in mind that we see best and suffer least from visual fatigue when "the entire field of view is of approximately the same luminosity as that to which the fovea is adapted," it is desirable that furniture should not be too light or too dark by comparison with the object on which attention is focused. The surfaces of floors, tables, and desks reflect too little light. Desk tops are

great offenders ; the varnished leather or American cloth with which they are covered should "be replaced by removable heavy white paper. File cases are too dark—the office should imitate the modern kitchen.

Selig Hecht (Jan.) described the experiments he carried out with Schlaer and Pirenne on the minimum quantity of luminous energy needed to produce visual. The paper gives a very vivid impression of the care needed in such measurements. The work led to the conclusion that, for visual effect, 1 quantum must be absorbed by each of from 5 to 14 retinal rods.

In April K. W. Meissner published the second part of his important paper on interference spectroscopy; it deals with two Fabry etalons in series and with the reflection echelon designed by W. E. Williams. In July Pfund described the curious Haidinger fringes obtained by placing a thin half-silvered mica plate in convergent light, and a paper by A. H. Taylor contained data relating to the dark adaptation of the eye for central binocular vision. A uniform field 1 foot square at a distance of 10 feet was just perceptible when its brightness was 65 microfoot-lamberts after 1 minute spent in darkness. After 10 minutes the brightness could be reduced to 2.5 units, after 30 minutes to 0.145, and after 65 minutes to 0.127 units. (The average brightness of the clear night sky is 200 microfoot-lamberts.)

Two papers by J. W. White (May) and Kratz and Mack (Aug.) described methods of obtaining long optical paths in a restricted space by multiple reflections.

Hainan and Nedungadi (*Nature*, May) exhibited photographs obtained by inserting a plate of naphthalene, cut at right angles to the axis of single ray velocity, between an illuminated object and a sensitive plate. The effect was ascribed to "generalised" external conical refraction and indicates that the usual explanation of conical refraction requires amplification. Peddie (*Phil. Mag.*) contributed a paper on trichromatic vision.

Schiff (*Phys. Rev.*, June) stated that ultimately it may be possible to obtain images of the arrangement of atoms within a molecule by means of the electron microscope.

E. Orowan modified the rotating crystal method of X-ray analysis by mounting a rotating wire grid in front of the photographic film. The photographs give data from which both the positions and spacing of the reflecting planes can be determined for all spots in the pattern (*Nature*, Mar.). Lipson and Stokes (*Roy. Soc. Proc.*) described a new crystal structure for carbon to explain certain extra lines which occur in X-ray powder photographs of graphite. The usual structure is built up of a repetition of two hexagonal layers displaced relatively to each other. The new structure consists of a repetition of three such displaced layers. In the samples used in the experiments 14 per cent, of the graphite possessed the three-layer structure. Panofsky, Green, and DuMond (*Phys. Rev.*) redetermined the value of h/e by means of the short wave-length limit of the continuous X-ray spectrum and obtained the value $(1.3786 \pm 0.0002) \times 10^{-17}$ erg. sec./e.s.u. Birge's best value computed from measurements of e , m , and h is $1.379_8 \pm 0.0002$ in the same units, so that the values obtained by the two methods are now in fair agreement.

In his introductory address to the Wireless Section of the Institution of Electrical Engineers on October 7 the chairman, Dr. R. L. Smith Rose, discussed the measurement of the velocity of radio-frequency waves. The accuracy attained so far in this measurement does not exceed 0.11 per cent. The phase velocity for all wave-lengths in the medium band appears to be 2.990×10^{10} cm./sec. as compared with 2.997×10^{10} cm./sec. for light waves. The velocity may be less near the transmitting aerial and for transmission near the ground. McPetrie and Saxton (*Nature*) described experiments on the diffraction of 3-metre waves. The penetration into the shadow of hills is greater when the waves are polarised with the electric vector vertical. Conversely, penetration beyond the hills and just outside the shadow is better when the electric vector is horizontal, an arrangement which is best for transmission over tree-covered country.

The Groups and Sections of the Institute of Physics and the Physical Society were active. The British Rheologists' Club met in Birmingham, on January 24, and in London, on May 16, to discuss the classification of materials from the point of view of their behaviour under shearing stress. An interim classification was given in *Nature*, June 20. An alternative scheme suggested by Bilmes appeared in *Nature*, October 10, and Scott Blair and Caffyn discussed the problem in its mathematical aspect in *J. Sci. Inst.*, June. At a conference on Electronics arranged by the Institute of Physics at the Royal Institution on January 28, it was resolved to ask the Board to form an Electronics Group on the lines of the Industrial Radiology Group. In a paper read at this meeting Francis pointed out that the efficiency of the conversion of electrical energy into light in commercial electric discharge lamps was still only from 12 to 15 per cent, although 90 per cent, had been attained under ideal experimental conditions.

The inaugural meeting of the Optical Group of the Physical Society was held on March 6. Dr. A. O. Rankine was elected chairman, and Dr. W. M. Hampton gave an address on "Some Properties of Optical Glass," in the course of which he referred to the difficulties which had been experienced in finding sand sufficiently free from coloured oxides to replace that imported from Germany before the war. In the end a supply was obtained from a deposit at Loch Aline. After suitable treatment the iron content of this sand was reduced to 0.005 per cent., the German sand contained 0.008 per cent, but was much less expensive.

Glass figured quite largely in the literature published during the year. Col. W. E. Phillips described the development of Research Enterprises Ltd., the Government-owned company formed for the manufacture of optical glass in Canada. Started in September, 1940, in Toronto with two employees, by January, 1942, there were 3,000, 12,500 lb. of optical glass were being produced per month, and 3,000 optical instruments had been made. The technical methods used by Chance's in England were adopted, personnel being exchanged for instruction purposes. A decision to manufacture optical glass in Australia was taken in the latter half of 1940, and Australian Consolidated Industries Ltd. started full-scale production

before the end of 1941. Technical assistance was given by the National Bureau of Standards, Washington.

Messrs. Chance-Parsons Ltd. issued a new catalogue. No new glasses were listed, but very full data were given for nearly 100 types, and the catalogue included data of an extensive range of optical glass available for colour filters. The Eastman Kodak Co. took out patents for a number of new glasses. These have refractive indices varying from 1.72 to 2.02 and relatively high dispersion indices. They contain oxides of the rare earths with less than 20 per cent, silica (*J. Sci. Inst.*).

Bishop (*Phys. Rev.*) investigated the surface layer on sheet glass by observing the ellipticity of plane polarised light after reflection from it. The results indicated the existence of a crystalline quartz layer on freshly drawn sheet glass and confirmed the existence of a high index layer on glass polished with rouge. E. Preston discussed the structure and constitution of glass (*J. Soc. Glass Technol.*, April) and showed how many of its properties might follow as a consequence of the existence of SiO_4 tetrahedral units in its structure.

Isaac Newton was born on December 25, 1642. The tercentenary of his birth was celebrated at the anniversary meeting of the Royal Society by lectures delivered by Professor E. N. da C. Andrade, The Rt. Hon. Lord Rayleigh, and Sir James Jeans. It was announced that through the generosity of the Pilgrim Trust and the goodwill of the present owner the Society had purchased the Manor House at Woolsthorpe in which Newton was born.

FINANCE AND COMMERCE IN 1942

HAVING regard to the fact that the year opened with a new and grave assault on Allied interests in the Far East, the fresh burdens necessarily imposed on finance and commerce in 1942, although severe, were less than might have been expected. This was mainly because the regimentation of trade and industry for the purposes of total war was all but completed in 1941. The new threat from the East certainly brought additional problems, but it also brought from the West an even greater measure of material assistance and, although the one was not a true counterpart of the other, it relieved the nation of many sacrifices that otherwise would have been necessary. The situation thus demanded changes more in the nature of adjustments which called for little beyond energy and determination.

Nevertheless, the earlier months of the year were fraught with considerable anxiety. For although the possibility of Japan becoming an active partner of the Axis Powers had not been overlooked, she had certainly been underrated. In little more than four months, Japanese forces had occupied the whole of the Malay Archipelago, the greater part of Burma, and had secured positions as far north as the Aleutian Islands. In addition, they had captured a host of small islands extending south beyond Borneo. These achievements were not only far in excess of those considered possible, but were of major importance, as many of these islands were of considerable strategical value. For they formed one of the world's richest areas of raw materials. It meant that some 90 per cent, of the world supply of plantation rubber were denied the Allied Powers, together with a fifth of the total supply of petroleum. There were also lost by far the most important sources of edible and vegetable oils, also of tin, together with valuable supplies of copper and other metals and minerals essential to the making of munitions.

Meanwhile, with the occupation of New Guinea an invasion of Australia's mainland had become something more than a possibility. But these successes had put a severe strain on the enemies' lines of communications, which were particularly vulnerable to attack by air and sea, and the expected assault did not materialise. Elsewhere, Germany resumed her attack against the Russian Armies, this time striking south in an attempt to gain the oilfields of the Caucasus and sever the southern route of the Allies supplies to that country. Despite the heavy losses of the preceding year her advance, although slower was no less sensational. Fortunately, the immediate outlook in regard to supplies of eastern produce had been safeguarded to the extent that large stocks had been accumulated by Allied Governments. Nevertheless, it was necessary to restrict still further the use of such commodities as rubber, tin, and oil by regulations which were made even more stringent when it became clear that the war at sea had still to be won.

Among the more favourable events at this period was that the Budget for 1941-42 once again closed with a satisfactory result. The venue with an increase of 665,200,000l. totalled 2,074,100,000l. against an estimate of 1,786,400,000l. Nearly all items were higher than anticipated, especially customs and excise, Excess Profits Tax and National Defence Contributions. Expenditure, although 908,500,000l. more than in the previous year at 4,775,700,000l. was 184,500,000l. less than expected. Thus the deficit on revenue account, excluding the 12,169,000l. needed for sinking fund purposes, increased from 2,458,300,000l. in 1940-41 to 2,701,600,000l. This was obtained from the sale of some 442,000,000l. of Savings Certificates and 3 per cent. Defence Bonds, some 724,000,000l. from 2J per cent. National War Bonds, some 577,000,000l. from 3 per cent. Savings Bonds, and 192,000,000l. from Tax Keserve Certificates which had been introduced for the first time. A further 500,000,000l. obtained from Ways and Means and the remainder from other credit accounts.

But, satisfactory as the result was, there was evidence that more could yet be done, not only to meet the steadily increasing costs of the war, which had risen from an average of 13?. millions per day to over 14??. millions, but to check the ever-present danger of excessive inflation. Thus the new Budget was framed to secure still more revenue from such unessential goods and services as the liquor, tobacco, and entertainment industries which, being still uncontrolled, were experiencing boom conditions, while the Purchase Tax on many articles considered luxuries was doubled. Onerous as they were the new burdens were accepted with all the stoicism the circumstances so clearly warranted. Income tax, already considered at its economic limit, was, however, eased for many of the lower paid classes. The changes made in taxes were estimated to bring total revenue up to 2,627,100,000l., of which 1,766,597,600l. had already been received by the end of December. Including votes of credit for some 4,500,000,000l. needed to finance the war, expenditure was calculated to reach 5,286,479,000l. But because of the assistance rendered from the United States under the Lease-Lend arrangements and the munificence of Canada, which announced a free gift of \$1,000,000,000, plus an interest-free loan of \$700,000, the net expenditure was reduced to approximately 4,500,000,000l. Of this total 2,400,000,000l. was to be raised from revenue and the remaining 2,100,000,000l. from loans. By the end of the year expenditure had reached 4,055,500,000l., of which 43-4 per cent, had been obtained from taxes.

In the meantime, the drive for national savings was continued with increased vigour, and by the end of the year 304,315 savings organisations were in operation. The sale of Savings Certificates and Defence Bonds together with deposits in Post and Savings Banks totalled 622,658,538?., while the sale of 3 per cent. Savings Bonds and of 2j per cent. National War Bonds had reached 1,052,756,000l. In addition, 10,040,968?.. had been lent to the Government during the year as loans free of interest.

In other directions the national effort was no less exacting. The need for man-power, not only for the Forces but also for essential industries, was such as to call for further curtailment of goods and services for the

civil population. Rationing was extended to include many additional articles in common use, and the supply of others was still further reduced. Although the need for foreign currencies was as acute as ever, the loss of markets, coupled with the lack of shipping, led to a further decline in exports. These circumstances combined to permit more factories to turn over to the manufacture of munitions, and the national effort approached the peak of possible production. Unemployment thus became all but a thing of the past, declining from 134,800 to 81,900, the lowest figure since the statistics were recorded, and in order to reduce the calls on labour it was no longer permissible to commence new enterprises, and competition was virtually eliminated. Under these circumstances the turnover of normal trade suffered severely, but the financial aspect was invariably restored by the simple expedient of raising prices, often to exorbitant levels. Thus it was that nearly all trading concerns increased their earnings, which were often the largest for many years. Several were able to liquidate large sums of long outstanding debt, and the number of business failures fell from 1020 in 1941 to only 566. The satisfaction felt in this respect was enhanced by evidence that the various ministerial departments were functioning with more success than was formerly the case. Consequently, there was a notable revival in public confidence, particularly at the turn of summer. Japan was then brought to a standstill on her approach to India, while the Axis forces after a spectacular advance to the Egyptian frontier were compelled to make a hasty retreat as far as Tunisia, under strong attacks from both East and West. Equally encouraging were events in Russia where German forces, after reaching the gates of Stalingrad, were obliged to surrender a great part of their gains. So marked indeed was the revival in public sentiment that although the grand assault on the Axis citadel had yet to be launched and won, a great deal of public discussion was on post-war affairs. So much so that Sir Wm. Beveridge was called upon to devise a plan of post-war social reform, while a number of leading industrialists made efforts in a similar direction, the precise outcome of which has yet to be seen.

Money Market and Banking.—Although there was little to cause any fresh disturbance to normal banking operations events arising from the war continued to bring about many notable changes in certain directions. Chief among them was that although requirements of the war continued to demand an ever-increasing outflow of public money, the increase of 299,466,000l in deposits of the London Clearing Banks to 3,628,621,000l. was appreciably less than in any year since the war began. But the smallness of the rise was more apparent than real, and arose almost entirely from special factors. These were most pronounced in the earlier months when, owing to additions to taxes, the demand of the national revenue was exceptionally heavy. In addition, subscriptions to the Tax Reserve Certificates, introduced in December, 1941, proved much more popular than anticipated, and at the close of the year the total outstanding was some 470,000,000l. Indeed, so great were the demands of the tax gatherer that there was an increased call for loans, which in the first quarter showed a rise of 31,000,000l., the first recovery in this direction for at least a year.

But in spite of this increase, deposits of the banks by the end of March had fallen by some 257,000,000l. to 3,071,885,000f. Meanwhile, heavy receipts into the Exchequer relieved the Treasury demands for Treasury Bills and Treasury Deposit Receipts, and the outstanding totals of both fell sharply. In February the banks' bill portfolio dropped to the lowest figure on record of 111,467,000l., and by April Treasury Deposit Receipts had declined 40 per cent, to 449,500,0002. By reason of these special influences during the first few months the changes in bank funds were rather less spectacular than in 1941. Nevertheless, they quickly resumed their former trend. From March, deposits recovered steadily, and by December had established a new high record of 3,628,621,000l., a rise of 9 per cent., which compares with one of 19 per cent, in the previous year. Investments retained their lead as the chief outlet for these funds, and at 1,120,229,0002. showed an increase of 121,591,0002. as against 227,000,0002. in 1941. In April, loans and advances resumed their downward course, mainly because so much trade was on account of the Government, which continued to provide the necessary finance. By December they had declined to the lowest figure since January, 1941, with a fall of 33,924,0002. to 772,794,0002., the fall in the previous year being 99,250,0002. Moreover, they now figured third in point of size as the chief earning asset, whereas in pre-war years they were first, accounting for approximately half of deposits. They were superseded during the year by Treasury Deposit Receipts, the rise in which to 895,500,0002. was nearly four times the decline in loans, while the holding of bills, which had fallen to an unduly low level, was restored to 197,517,0002. by the end of the year, an increase of 26,437,0002.

Meanwhile, the heavy excess of Government expenditure over revenue continued to be met from borrowed money. Most of this was obtained from subscriptions to new loans, the balance again being raised by Ways and Means Advances from the banks. These raised the Floating Debt to a new high record of 4,029,000,0002., but the rise of 419,000,0002. was less than half that in 1941. The bulk of it was again by way of Treasury Bills, a new landmark being reached when the outstanding tender issue touched 1,000,000,0002.

In other respects the year conformed with its predecessor inasmuch that, owing to exceptional expenditure on Government account, accentuated by the upward trend of prices, the turnover of the London Bankers' Clearing House rose by 5,645,600,0002. to a new high level of 48,656,820,0002. the rise in 1941 being only 2,992,439,0002. Similar circumstances accounted for a further increase in the note circulation of the Bank of England, which at 923,429,6692. also established a new high record. The increase of 171,703,0002. was substantially larger than in the preceding year, and it became necessary to raise the fiduciary issue by 170,000,0002. in three stages to 950,000,0002. But in spite of the widespread demand for liquidity, which meant that large sums were earning little or nothing, bank profits as a whole were appreciably larger than in 1941, notwithstanding that expenses continued to rise and the additional work entailed by the arrangements made to handle on Government behalf the coupons arising from the rationing of clothing and certain other articles. But after

maintaining dividends at their previous rates most of the additional profits were put to reserves of one kind or another. Discount houses had a similar experience, a slight reduction in their margins on both bonds and bills being countered by a large turnover, a feature of which was a small but welcome recovery in the volume of commercial bills.

New Capital Issues.—Largely because of a slight relaxation of official restrictions the issue of fresh capital in 1942 was appreciably larger than in the preceding year. The Midland Bank computed the total of entirely new money at 3,907,000l. which compared with 2,326,000l. in 1941. Nearly all of it was again raised for the purpose of assisting the national effort in one direction or another and, consequently, the amount obtained by overseas borrowers was again negligible. Thus the Imperial Cold Storage raised 375,000J. from its own shareholders to finance an extension of its operations, but most other offers were usually quite modest. Relief was granted to facilitate the conversion of securities bearing a high rate of interest into a lower one, largely to assist the policy of cheap money which the Government has supported for several years. Among those to take advantage of the new order was the London Passenger Transport Board, which issued some 13,000,000J. of 3 per cent. Guaranteed stock in exchange for a 4½ per cent. stock. The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Co. offered 3,000,000l. of 3½ per cent. Debenture stock for 4½ per cent. stock, and Bowaters Newfoundland Pulp & Paper Mills 1,700,000l. of 3½ per cent. Debentures in 5½ place of 5½ per cent. Debentures. Of the colonial borrowers, Australia created a 3 per cent. stock to replace some 16,000,000l. of 2½ per cent. stock which was approaching maturity, while in April the Home Government dropped the 1955-65 issue of 3 per cent. Savings Bonds in favour of those dated 1960-70, and in November the 2½ per cent. National War Bonds of 1949-51 gave way to those dated 1951-53.

Foreign Exchanges.—Little or no alteration was made in the regulations governing the foreign exchange market in 1942, and not a change occurred in any of the controlled currencies. To these, however, were added the currencies of Brazil, Uruguay, and Panama, all of which became Allies of the United Nations, Brazil subsequently changing the name of her monetary unit from the milreis to the cruzeiro. But owing to the spread

NEW CAPITAL ISSUES

	1942.	1941.	1940.
United Kingdom	£ 3,871,000	£ 1,927,000	£ 3,644,000
Other British Countries including India and Ceylon	36,000	399,000	357,000
Foreign Countries			196,000
Total	3,907,000	2,326,000	4,096,000
Percentage for Overseas Borrowers	0.9	15	13.5

MONEY AND DISCOUNT RATES

1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
BANK RATE AVERAGE.				
£ s. d. 2 0 0	£ s. d. 2 6 . 3	£ s. d. 2 0 0	£ s. d. 2 0 0	s. d. 0 0
DISCOUNT RATE (THREE MONTHS* BANK BILLS) AVERAGE.				
0 12 7	1 4 5½	1 0 10	1 0 7	1 0 7½
BANKS' DEPOSIT RATE AVERAGE.				
0 10 0	0 13 7½	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
SHORT LOAN RATE AVERAGE.				
0 10 0	0 19 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0
TREASURY BILL (TENDER) RATE AVERAGE.				
0 12 4	1 4 3-6	1 0 6.6	1 0 1.5	1 0 0.82

BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS

	End December, 1942.	End December, 1941.	End December, 1940.
Coin and bullion	£ 1,112,691	£ 638,676	£ 1,146,638
Note circulation	923,429,669	761,725,865	616,904,239
Public deposits	9,009,867	11,227,193	12,518,407
Other deposits:—			
Bankers ¹	223,402,169	219,864,663	135,735,336
Other accounts	48,820,967	64,072,246	51,211,693
Reserve (notes and coin) .	27,683,022	28,812,711	14,242,399
Ratio	9.84 per cent.	14½ per cent.	7½ per cent.
Government securities	242,173,088	240,602,838	178,527,838
Other securities :—			
1 Discounts and advances	3,481,018	6,365,499	4,014,443
Securities	26,758,075	27,233,390	20,547,086

LONDON BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSE RETURNS

	1942.	1941.	Increase or Decrease on 1940.
First quarter .	£ 12,906,299,000	£ 10,372,898,000	+ £ 2,533,401,000 (24.4 per cent.)
Second quarter	11,403,877,000	10,279,508,000	+ 1,124,369,000 (10.9 per cent.)
Third quarter	11,513,346,000	10,753,079,000	+ 760,267,000 (7.1 per cent.)
Fourth quarter	12,833,298,000	11,605,737,000	+ 1,227,561,000 (10.5 per cent.)
Grand total .	48,656,820,000	43,011,222,000	+ 5,645,598,000 (13.1 per cent.)

LONDON CLEARING BANKS' MONTHLY RETURNS

	(000's omitted.)				
	Deposits.	Bills Discounted.	Treasury Deposit Receipts.	Advances.	Investments.
1942	£	£	£	£	£
January	3,221,802	157,041	738,500	811,767	1,007,747
February .	3,084,632	111,467	645,500	825,641	1,016,622
March	3,071,885	162,948	475,500	837,719	1,049,835
April .	3,081,479	258,098	449,500	821,212	1,048,426
May .	3,131,149	290,688	470,500	810,730	1,049,378
June .	3,263,096	292,023	542,500	800,264	1,058,259
July .	3,263,997	272,540	607,000	795,890	1,074,843
August	3,304,648	283,390	634,000	783,546	1,081,628
September .	3,358,249	276,504	693,000	774,413	1,096,741
October	3,424,279	270,561	744,000	772,992	1,108,196
November .	3,471,918	241,172	803,500	762,975	1,117,438
December .	3,628,621	197,517	895,500	772,794	1,120,229

PROVINCIAL CLEARING FIGURES

Town.	Amount, 1942.	Increase or Decrease on 1941.	
	£	£	per cent.
Birmingham	128,228,000	+ 11,142,000	or 9.5
Bradford	106,344,000	- 3,524,000	or 3.2
Bristol	101,364,000	3,716,000	or 3.5
Hull	38,787,000	+ 4,846,000	or 14.2
Leeds	57,197,000	+ 4,988,000	or 9.5
Leicester	43,611,000	+ 1,393,000	or 3.2
Liverpool	239,347,000	— 42,885,000	or 15.1
Manchester	621,956,000	+ 22,097,000	or 3.6
Newcastle-on-Tyne	75,702,000	4- 6,532,000	or 9.4
Nottingham	24,062,000	+ 1,315,000	or 5.7
Sheffield	43,603,000	+ 7,085,000	or 19.4

Floating Debt.	Dec. 31, 1942.	Dec. 31, 1941.
	£	£
Ways and Means Advances:—		
By Bank of England	67,750,000	66,000,000
By Public Departments	161,585,000	186,320,000
Treasury Bills outstanding .	2,833,185,000	2,546,950,000
Treasury Deposits by Banks	966,500,000	811,500,000
Total .	4,029,020,000	3,610,770,000

of hostilities a number of minor movements were seen in the free currencies. Chungking dollars depreciated from 3 to 3 pence, but Persian rials improved from 140 to 129 to the pound sterling, mainly because of the heavy outlays the Allies are making in that area. Dealings commenced in French Congo francs, which by the close of the year were quoted at 176\$.

Gold and Silver.—Dealings in gold and silver were again confined to official channels, and because of the very restricted purposes for which they could be used business was negligible. A little gold, mostly of enemy origin, was sold to the Bank of England, which maintained the price at 168*. per fine ounce. Silver for jewellery and similar goods was prohibited after July, and although rather more was required for industrial uses the total involved was very modest. Virtually all was sold at the fixed price of 23½d. per ounce, the fluctuations of 1½ penny for spot and ½ penny for forward being the smallest on record.

The Stock Exchange.—The upward trend of stock markets, which was such a feature of the preceding year, was continued in 1942, and the reason was that the underlying factors were much the same. That is to say that owing to further heavy disbursements on national defence, practically all labour was again fully employed, and partly because of the restrictions maintained on consumptive demands the public continued to accumulate money on a substantial scale. But apart from one or two securities needed to assist the national effort, no new ones were permitted to absorb these funds. For although it was always possible to subscribe for new war loans, they failed to attract fresh support under the conditions which prevailed. These were largely determined by the fact that for the first month or two sentiment was adversely affected by the almost phenomenal successes of the Japanese forces in the East. This was followed by a further period of uneasiness when the Germans advanced to the frontiers of Egypt. But, as soon as it became clear that both these forces had been checked confidence returned, and under the additional stimulus of American successes in the Pacific, British successes in North Africa and, finally, Russian successes in the Caucasus, recovered steadily for the remainder of the year. It recovered to such an extent that in the later months investors began to think more of post-war possibilities than those of the day. This led to such a marked increase in the volume of business that in November the number of bargains officially reported reached the war-time record of 9,120. This gave rise to suggestions that in spite of the regulations which had been imposed to prevent it, speculative transactions were being carried out on an increasing scale, and in order to check the dangers that may well have arisen therefrom further measures were adopted to check indulgence in that direction. It was under these circumstances that even shares and investments in trades whose immediate prospects were prejudiced by the extension of rationing and inadequate labour, improved with others whose factories were closed in order to augment still further the volume of war production elsewhere. Thus it happened that in contrast with 1941, the appreciation in the value of the more speculative type of security was on the whole far greater than that of investment descriptions. According to a valuation of 365 mixed securities by the *Bankers' Magazine*⁹ the market quotations for the fixed interest group rose by only 67,784,000l., while those of the variable dividend class rose by 126,728,000l., whereas in 1941 the former advanced by 171,844,000l. and the latter by only 109,367,000l.

To this search for capital appreciation was added the need for larger

incomes to meet the upward trend of prices, while the repayment of some 130,000,0002. of colonial stocks not only narrowed the field of investment but intensified the competition for those that remained. There was thus a widespread demand for securities of a widely different character, and with sellers reluctant the shortage of stock was often acute. But British Government stocks failed to fulfil the more common desires and the modest appreciation in this market was mainly due to institutional support, many undated stocks being actually a trifle lower on the year. But Australasian issues made an excellent recovery from an early relapse when the position in the Pacific brought the market to a standstill. Foreign bonds became a popular gamble, those of South America being influenced by the demand for primary products of every kind, which also stimulated interest in the railways. British railways received a fillip from the results announced in respect of the preceding year. These emphasised the attractiveness of the yields offered and induced hopes as to the position of the companies after the war. Oils, too, recovered more than their popularity which in the earlier months was overshadowed by the destruction of the Dutch wells in the Far East and in Burma, rendered necessary on the approach of the Japanese forces. Iranian shares too moved up sharply on removal of the German threat to that area. Even rubber shares, which fell heavily to little more than nominal prices when the estates fell into enemy hands, were finally well above their worst. On the whole, the recovery was to roughly twice the prices touched earlier in the year. Some, especially those of India and Ceylon, which stood to gain from the loss of estates elsewhere, were actually higher, and tea shares made a good response to the relative security they enjoy. Meanwhile, the continued absence of air raids tended to restore confidence in shares of the public utility services, the industrial demands on which more than countered the curtailed consumption in other directions. Textiles, whose position appeared more secure, were also well favoured, many showing gains of 50 to 100 per cent., interest being stimulated by the results disclosed in respect of the previous year. Apart from the British American Co., whose operations were severely handicapped by the loss of eastern markets, tobacco shares moved up in line with the record consumption due to the high level of employment. The same applied to brewery descriptions, which derived benefit from the scarcity of imported beverages. The more settled conditions, coupled with the absence of attractions elsewhere, led to a revival in entertainment shares, while storekeepers whose accounts showed that they suffered little from the rationing of so many articles also recorded many notable gains. Land and most other shares dependent on basic commodities were another group to improve their values, while Cable stocks were supported on evidence of a marked revival in the volume of business.

But prospects of restricted activities until after hostilities gave a check to building descriptions, paints being among the exceptions owing to heavy demands of a temporary nature. Largely because so much of their work was rigorously controlled under contracts permitting meagre profits, few coal, iron, and engineering descriptions did more than reflect

the improved outlook. A feature of the year was the hopes expressed as to the post-war outlook for the plastic industry, the achievements of which in the national interest had proved potentialities much above those formerly suspected. With few exceptions, among which Blyvooruitzicht was prominent on reports of further exceptional developments, gold shares were out of favour, operations being adversely affected by rising costs and shortage of labour. Consequently, output from the Transvaal mines fell from 14,386,361 to 14,120,617 ounces, this disappointment being aggravated by prospects of a further increase in taxes. These were already high enough to compel a reduction in dividends, especially of Rhodesian coppers, notwithstanding the high level of output. Base metal companies elsewhere, however, received good support, which speculators in the later months of the year extended to the tin shares of the East. Owing to a greatly increased demand for industrial stones diamond shares provided many good features, several dividends being doubled.

Commodity Prices.—So effectively did the Government maintain its control of commodities that, although the advance in world prices was in many cases even higher than in 1941, changes in the home market were again quite narrow. Much the largest was again in cereals which, according to calculations made by *The Times* rose by 20·3 per cent, as against 26·7 per cent, in 1941. In other foodstuffs there was a fall of no less than 8·1 per cent., and foodstuffs as a whole rose by only 4·4 per cent., which compared with 4·6 per cent, in the previous year. The rise in materials, too, was also less than a year earlier, being only half that of foods at 2·1 per cent., the largest increase, 6·8 per cent., occurring in the miscellaneous group. Combined, the two classes show a rise on the year of 3 per cent, making the total since the war began 54·2 per cent.

Group.	Dec. 30, 1941.	Dec. 30, 1942.	Inc. or Dec. per cent, on Dec. 1941.
Cereals	197·4	237·4	+ 20·3
Meat and fish	1850	186·6	+ 0·9
Other food	173·9	159·8	- 8·1
Total food	184·9	193·0	+ 4·4
Iron and steel	2081		
Other metals and minerals	135·3		+ 6·1
Cotton	148·8		
Other textiles	196·5		- 1·4
Other materials	135·2		+ 6·8
Total materials	1640	167·4	+ 2·1
Total all commodities .	171·7	176·8	+ 3·0

Tinplates.—Because supplies were no longer available from the chief producing areas in the East, the need to conserve stocks of tin became an urgent necessity. Consequently, the use of tinplate was reserved for essential purposes, such as that for food containers. For other purposes lacquered plate was more commonly used, while there was also an increased demand for terneplate. Thus although a limited quantity was permitted

for export, the total output of tinplate was far below normal. Prices, however, were unchanged at 29s. 9d. per box.

Shipbuilding and Shipping.—In spite of the success of measures adopted to safeguard shipping from enemy attack, sinkings on this account continued to cause grave anxiety. Every effort was therefore made to replace losses by new building, and although little authentic information was afforded on the subject it was officially admitted that output had been raised to an exceptionally high level, the total being substantially above that launched in 1941. Nevertheless, it failed to cover requirements as fully as desired, and the year ended with a strong impression that the Allies were doing little more than holding their own. Having regard to the serious loss of ships, the results disclosed by shipowners in respect of the preceding year were for the most part decidedly better than expected. Almost all maintained their dividends, earnings of the Cunard Co. being sufficient to pay all arrears on its Preference capital, while Coast Lines doubled its profits and resumed dividends after a lapse of two years. Meanwhile, all ships continued to be operated on Government account on terms which were eventually modified in the companies' favour. Whilst this helped to assure the immediate outlook it did little to remove the uneasiness felt as to the post-war position.

Iron and Steel.—With the outbreak of war in the Pacific the demands on the iron and steel industry became greater than ever. The problem was aggravated by the fact that not only was there need for a larger output of arms and munitions, but there was now less shipping to spare for importing the necessary raw materials. Because of the decline in this direction more furnaces were obliged to adapt their methods to deal with home-produced ores, the metal content of which was far below the ores formerly imported from overseas. The collection of scrap, so necessary to production, was continued on a national scale with great vigour, and in order to attain a larger output of special steels needed for war purposes the manufacture of other kinds was discontinued. This meant that the varieties were reduced to well below 100, whereas pre-war there were between 2,000 and 3,000 sorts. As a result makers were able to fulfil all needs with an output approximately 50 per cent, above that of 1941, notwithstanding the scarcity of coal. Costs increased but economies arising from the larger turnover helped to avoid a rise in prices.

Coal Trade.—Few positions in domestic affairs caused more anxiety in 1942 than that of the coal industry. Owing to the rapid increase in the output of munitions, the demand for coal became exceedingly heavy. But in spite of repeated efforts to increase production, output remained at a disappointing level, partly because of the lack of co-operation within the industry. So unsatisfactory was the position that in the earlier months a Ministry of Fuel was established with wide powers to deal with the situation in a comprehensive manner. In order to maintain an adequate supply for essential needs, plans were prepared to curtail deliveries for other purposes. But the plan met with considerable opposition. Many contended that the scheme proposed was unfair and impracticable, others demanding that a solution of the problem should be found in recalling

miners from the Forces and other industries and thus increasing the output. Consequently the scheme was suspended. But in spite of special inducements, including bonus payments for larger outputs which helped to raise prices by 10 to 16 per cent., and the imposition of penalties for unnecessary absence, production failed to increase to the extent desired. Fortunately, a widespread campaign to economise was assisted by mild weather, and further action was delayed.

Insurance.—Although the course of the war brought a further contraction of business overseas, insurance in the home market was as satisfactory as the circumstances would permit. Although well below the pre-war level, most companies were able to report an increase, life business retaining its popularity partly on account of its investment character, while the high level of employment at good wages in nearly all trades was again responsible for a notable increase in the demand for industrial policies. But further restrictions on the use of motor vehicles limited scope in that direction, and losses by fire rose to within a little of the record of some 12,640,000L suffered in 1940. But in spite of the high level of expenses and low money rates the dividends declared suggested that earnings were being maintained at a reasonable level. War risks continued to be covered by schemes under the auspices of the Government, which refused to define its position in regard to war damages in the East. This led to much uneasiness late in the year when publication of the Beveridge Report on post-war social insurance caused disturbance among those companies whose interests appeared to be threatened.

Textiles.—The increased profits and dividends announced by many textile companies were for the most part in respect of the preceding year, and consequently reflected little of the more stringent regulations which came into force during 1942. Owing to the additional demands imposed on shipping by the spread of war and the need to obtain more labour for other purposes, the supply of raw materials were strictly limited. The first call on these was that of the Armed Forces. Next came the demands of the civil population, whose requirements were further restricted by extending the rationing of clothes. Thus exports, which came last, were necessarily well below that of 1941. These restrictions were sufficient to release labour on a substantial scale, and half the number of mills were closed, many being put to other uses. This enabled those that remained to work more economically, which helped to counteract the effect of the smaller turnover, cotton manufacturers having the additional advantage of a reduction of 3 to 4 per cent, in the cost of the raw material. Costs, however, increased later, mainly on account of higher wages, and earnings were said to be running below the level of 1941. Although its exports were further curtailed, the wool trade was rather more fortunate, for in spite of the increase paid producers wool prices remained steady, but the turnover was understood to be less. Activity in the rayon industry was fairly well maintained, partly because of its chemical interests which enabled it to withstand some of the less favourable aspects of trade in other directions. Sixty per cent, of the output was reserved for the home market, the balance being exported.

Oil and Rubber—Owing to the loss of so many important fields in the Far East the oil industry was obliged to rely more and more on those of the Western Hemisphere. There, Mexico, whose output had fallen sharply since the Government's expropriation of the oil properties in 1938, came to terms with certain American interests and actually received assistance from them. As a result, that country once again became an important source of production. Steps were also taken to increase the output of Trinidad and Venezuela, but the position there was complicated by demands of the Venezuelan Government for increased revenues from the companies. Meanwhile, shipments were handicapped by the scarcity of tankers, and the available supplies were little more than sufficient for essential needs. It was therefore necessary to impose further restrictions on civil consumption, both in this country and the United States.

Even more stringent were those placed on the use of rubber, for all but 10 to 15 per cent, of world supplies had passed into enemy hands. Intense efforts were made to stimulate production elsewhere, and much research was undertaken to investigate possible substitutes. Plans were also made for the extensive production of synthetic rubber, especially in the United States. Pending output from these sources it was necessary to safeguard the limited stocks of natural rubber by prohibiting the manufacture of many goods and restricting civilian consumption to a minimum.

Motor, Aircraft, and Films.—The motor and aviation industries were among the many about which for reasons of national security little was disclosed. Various authorities suggested that output had attained record dimensions, and this was confirmed later when the Minister of Production announced that the structural weight of aircraft produced in 1942 was 50 per cent, more than in 1941. But with few exceptions the financial results were much less satisfactory, so much of the profits made being absorbed by taxation. This arose from the fact that so many of the makers were in process of development during the years selected as standard for purposes of the Excess Profits Tax, when profits were usually meagre. Much, however, was expected from the post-war development of civilian aviation. Meanwhile, the motor factories continued to be almost exclusively engaged on tank and truck production, at the same time augmenting the output of aero engines. The film industry was again largely engaged on work associated with one aspect or another of the war effort, some of which was intended for propaganda purposes overseas. But operations were handicapped by the difficulty of securing studio technicians, and although the recovery on the entertainment side presented opportunities, output was understood to be scarcely up to the level of 1941.

LAW

THE year 1942 was in no way remarkable in the world of law ; there was little legislation and none of an epoch-making character, and, while the House of Lords, it is true, delivered several noteworthy decisions, there were in the Supreme Court few that were of special significance.

The feature of the year was the increasing control over the activities of the community exercised by the Executive, and the flood of statutory rules and orders, not a few of them altering the provisions of statutes and the great majority of them unintelligible to the man in the street, continued unabated, the average for the year being between eight and nine for each weekday.

According to an estimate made by the Bar Council fully one-half of the Bar was engaged in one or other of the Services, and the pressure of work falling on those who remained was considerable ; parallel difficulties were experienced in the solicitors' branch. Despite this, civilian members were found ready to co-operate in dealing with numerous Service cases, largely matrimonial, under the Poor Persons scheme and to supplement the legal aid given gratuitously by serving members in the legal advice bureaux established for the benefit of the Forces.

There were published in 1942 three noteworthy reports, all of them dealing with the planning of the post-war world and involving in their recommendations legislation of an important character. The first, known to the profession as the Scott Report by reason of Lord Justice Scott's being chairman of the Committee, considered the utilisation of land in rural areas, and its recommendation that registration of title should be made compulsory throughout England and Wales was, it may be noted, responsible for the appointment of a further Committee to consider the practical aspect of this matter. The Uthwatt Committee, whose task was to report on the payment of compensation and recovery of betterment in respect of the public control of the use of land, recommended the immediate vesting in the State of the rights of development in all land lying outside built-up areas (subject to certain exceptions) on payment of fair compensation, and recommended also greatly increased powers of compulsory acquisition in built-up areas. In June, 1941, there was appointed an inter-departmental committee to survey the existing schemes of social insurance and allied services with special reference to the inter-relation of the schemes, to whose chairman was later confined the duty of making the recommendations arising therefrom; hence the " Beveridge Report " of the autumn of 1942, the third of the reports referred to above, and one which in popular interest far eclipsed either of its predecessors. It propounded a scheme for social security, i.e. of social insurance " against interruption and destruction of earning power and for special expenditure at birth, marriage, or death," the aim being " to make want under any circumstances unnecessary." Features are the unification of administrative responsibility under a Ministry of Social Security, a flat rate of contribution from all

without upper income limit and a flat rate of benefit, the sitting up of a comprehensive medical service for every citizen and the supersession of the existing scheme of Workmen's Compensation.

The arduous work of the War Damage Commission continued throughout the year under its chairman, Mr. Trustram Eve.

As has already been stated, the year 1942 produced comparatively little legislation, the tale of statutes being forty, mostly very brief. Two of the Acts passed made valuable amendments to earlier war statutes, found necessary through experience of their practical working. Thus, another Courts (Emergency Powers) Amendment Act removed certain anomalies in the 1939 Act and brought within the protection of the latter persons whom the courts had pronounced to be excluded by its language, while the more elaborate War Damage (Amendment) Act has been well described as effecting "a general overhaul of the war damage machinery, increasing the efficiency of that machinery without altering its character, functions or capacities." This last Act was largely unintelligible unless read in conjunction with the principal Act, and it was satisfactory to learn that the Government were in the autumn preparing a Consolidation Act. A third statute adjusting war-time rights, whose provisions are too complicated for notice, was the Landlord and Tenant (Requisitioned Land) Act. The title of the Restoration of Pre-War Practices Act is self-explanatory; the Allied Powers (War Service) Act provided that the National Service Acts should apply to nationals of Allied Powers not members of the Forces of the Powers to which they belonged; the National Service (Foreign Countries) Act imposed upon British subjects in foreign countries obligations with regard to service in H.M. Forces similar to those laid on British subjects in Great Britain; by the U.S.A. (Visiting Forces) Act service courts of the United States Forces exercise practically exclusive jurisdiction in respect of criminal offences committed in the United Kingdom by members of those Forces. Finally, the Welsh Courts Act purports to redress in a few short sections a grievance of more than 400 years, although complaints have been heard from Welsh nationals of its inadequacy. The Act asserts formally the right of Welsh-speaking parties or witnesses to use that language, but contains a practical provision that the records of proceedings continue to be kept in English and that the judge shall, unless he considers it unnecessary, require any parts of the proceedings which have been conducted in Welsh to be translated into the English language.

Without doubt the most important decision of the year for the practitioner, and one not without interest for the general public, was that of the House of Lords in *Fibrosa S.A. v. Fairbairn, Lawson, Combe Barbour, Ltd.*, where the House had to consider the consequences of a contract's becoming impossible of fulfilment owing to the subsequent happening of an event for which neither party was responsible. A Polish company having ordered certain machinery from a firm in Leeds for delivery c.i.f. at Gdynia, and having paid 1,000l. in advance of the purchase price, the contract was frustrated by the invasion of Poland, and the question arose whether the 1,000l. was recoverable. The House of Lords, in reversing both courts

below and deciding that it was, overruled the famous leading case of *Chandler v. Webster* which laid down the principle that in such a case the loss must lie where it fell. The legal subtleties involved in the opinions of the seven Law Lords are such as not to permit of treatment in the space here available, but it is worth noting the closing comment of the Lord Chancellor, Lord Simon, that while the decision

obviates the harshness with which the previous view in some instances treated the party who had made a prepayment, it cannot be regarded as dealing fairly between the parties in all cases and must sometimes have the result of leaving the recipient who has to return the money at a grave disadvantage. He may have incurred expenses in connexion with the partial carrying out of the contract which are equivalent, or more than equivalent, to the money which he prudently stipulated should be prepaid, but which he now has to return for reasons which are no fault of his. He may have to repay the money, though he has executed almost the whole of the contractual work, which will be left on his hands. These results follow from the fact that the English Common Law does not undertake to apportion a prepaid sum in such circumstances. . . . It must be for the Legislature to decide whether provision should be made for an equitable apportionment of prepaid moneys which have to be returned by the recipient in view of the frustration of the contract in respect of which they were paid.

A House of Lords decision of considerable immediate importance was that in *Smart Bros. v. Ross*, which was concerned with Sect. 1 of the Courts (Emergency Powers) Act, 1939, by which no person is entitled without leave of the court to exercise any remedy available to him by way of (*inter alia*) taking possession of property. The question in issue was the applicability of the section to the retaking possession of certain furniture, the subject of a hire-purchase agreement. The hirer, being unable to keep up her payments, asked the company to retake furniture stored with them, to release her from her arrears and pay her something towards the payments already made. The House of Lords restored the judgment of Uthwatt, J., who had held that no "remedy" was being exercised where, as here, a company had not threatened to retake but agreed to do so at the spontaneous request of the hirer made in her own interest, and the leave of the court was not required. Each case must be decided on its own facts. This case is interesting as disposing of the idea that the application of the section is, so to speak, automatic, but has to be distinguished from previous Court of Appeal decisions where the circumstances differed. Another case where the Lords disagreed with the Court of Appeal and restored the Chancery judge was that of *Clayton v. Ramsden* (formerly cited as *In re Samuel (deceased)*), where a testator provided that if his son or daughter should at any time after his death contract a marriage "with a person who is not of Jewish parentage and of the Jewish faith" the trusts of his will in his or her favour should cease. Their Lordships, like Bennett, J., held that the condition was void for uncertainty, the uncertainty as to the degree of Jewish parentage required being alone sufficient to bring about this result. In *Sorfracht v. N.V. Gebr. Van Uden's Scheef vaart*, etc., their Lordships again reversed the Court of Appeal. That court had held that the mere act of trading in enemy-occupied territory did

not of itself induce enemy status at Common, Law where there was no question of actual assistance. The pronouncement of the House of Lords was that the solution of this question must depend upon the quality of the occupation by the enemy, to be determined by objective facts such as the amount of control exercised and the extent to which the former Government had been superseded, and that Holland was for the purposes of this legal doctrine in the same position as enemy territory. Finally, in *Hay v. Young* the House dealt with the difficult subject of damages for mental shock. A Scots fishwife, eight months pregnant, who heard the noise of a collision at a nearby road junction between a motor-car and a motor cyclist whose negligence caused the accident, and later saw blood on the roadway, but who had no reasonable fear of immediate physical injury to herself, claimed damages from the executor-dative of the cyclist for nervous shock incapacitating her from carrying on her business. It was pointed out that the crucial matter in such cases was whether the negligence was negligence *vis-a-vis* the plaintiff or pursuer. The duty of the cyclist was to avoid risk of injury to such persons as he could reasonably foresee might be injured by his failure to exercise due care, which injury might include injury by shock, but the pursuer had failed to prove that she was within the area which the cyclist ought to have contemplated as that of potential danger, and he owed her no duty.

In *Simon v. Islington Borough Council* the Court of Appeal followed *Skilton v. Epsom District Council*, an earlier case in which a traffic stud insecurely fixed by the Council under the 1930 Road Traffic Act flew up and injured a cyclist and damages were awarded against the Council. In the *Simon* case a cyclist lost his life owing to the defective state of disused tramway lines taken over by the Local Authority from the London Passenger Transport Board and not then removed. The Council's contention that as a highway authority they were not liable for mere non-feasance was rejected by the court, who held that this immunity did not extend to acts or defaults in connexion with any duties except highway duties, such as repairing the road. The Council had taken over a foreign substance inserted in the road ; it had become a mere obstruction, and it was their duty as highway authority to abate the nuisance as soon as possible ; in the meantime they took the risk of injuries to the public " using the road as a mere road." In *Sparks v. Edward Ash*, where the accident took place during the black-out, the Pedestrian Crossing Places Regulations, and, in particular, Reg. 3, whereby "the driver of every vehicle approaching a crossing shall, unless he can see that there is no foot passenger thereon, proceed at such a speed as to be able, if necessary, to stop before reaching such crossing," came once more under review by the Court of Appeal. It was held (1) that the regulation, which assumes perfect visibility, operated in spite of lighting restrictions by reason of which the driver might not be able to tell that he was nearing a crossing, and (2) that in such cases the defence of contributory negligence was available to the defendant. Of several interesting Workmen's Compensation cases decided by the Court of Appeal mention may be made of *Redpath Brown & Co. v. Hayes*, where they held that a workman's refusal to have

a foot amputated where there was conflict of medical opinion could not be classed as unreasonable.

In time of war the community is rightly concerned to see that the extensive powers necessarily entrusted to the Executive are not abused, and that the subject retains the protection of the courts. Amongst the most important of these war-time powers is that of detaining persons under Reg. 18B of the Defence Regulations, and in 1941 the House of Lords in two cases made important pronouncements on the absolute nature of the discretion given by the regulation to the Home Secretary. In 1942 an attempt to invoke the intervention of the courts in another direction also failed, it being held by King's Bench in *Arbon v. Anderson* that no action would lie against either the Home Secretary or any prison official at the suit of a detainee to recover damages suffered through breach by these officials of the instructions given by the Home Secretary for the treatment of detainees.

The old problem of what eccentricities can be tolerated in the form of a will without destroying its validity appeared in a novel form in *In re Mann {deceased}* where an unsigned will enclosed in a signed envelope was admitted to probate, the circumstances precluding the possibility of fraud.

A last word about the Divorce decisions, several of which were of note. In *Mummery v. Mummery* the President held that an isolated act of marital intercourse within three years of the presentation of a petition did not necessarily put an end to desertion. That desertion where the parties are living in the same house, i.e. constructive desertion, must depend strictly on the facts of each case and nothing else was aptly illustrated by two cases, one falling on each side of the dividing line. In *Littlewood v. Littlewood*, where the wife had accepted employment despite her husband's opposition, did not come home until a late hour, ignored her husband in the house, but performed certain domestic duties, there was held to be no desertion; in *Wilkes v. Wilkes*, where, during the three year period, the husband indicated to the wife that all was over between them, and thereafter for more than a year occupied a separate bedroom and sitting-room in the same house, had meals separately but took the food from his wife's stores, desertion was held to have been proved.

A judicial appointment of major importance during the year was that of Mr. Gonne St. Clair Pilcher, K.C., as a Judge of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division in succession to Mr. Justice Langton.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS¹

I

INDIA

STATEMENT BY THE PRIME MINISTER IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON MARCH 11, 1942

THE crisis in the affairs of India arising out of the Japanese advance has made us wish to rally all the forces of Indian life, to guard their land from the menace of the invader. In August, 1940, a full statement was made about the aims and policy we are pursuing in India. This amounted in short, to a promise that, as soon as possible after the war, India should attain Dominion status, in full freedom and equality with this country and the other Dominions, under a Constitution to be framed by Indians, by agreement among themselves and acceptable to the main elements in Indian national life. This was, of course, subject to the fulfilment of our obligations for the protection of minorities, including the depressed classes, and of our treaty obligations to the Indian States, and to the settlement of certain lesser matters arising out of our long association with the fortunes of the Indian sub-continent.

However, Sir, in order to clothe these general declarations with precision and to convince all classes, races, and creeds in India of our sincere resolve, the War Cabinet have agreed unitedly upon conclusions for present and future action which, if accepted by India as a whole, would avoid the alternative dangers either that the resistance of a powerful minority might impose an indefinite veto upon the wishes of the majority or that a majority decision might be taken which would be resisted to a point destructive of internal harmony and fatal to the setting-up of a new Constitution. We had thought of setting forth immediately the terms of this attempt, by a constructive British contribution, to aid India in the realisation of full self-government; we are, however, apprehensive that to make a public announcement at such a moment as this might do more harm than good. We must first assure ourselves that our scheme would win a reasonable and practical measure of acceptance, and thus promote the concentration of all Indian thought and energies upon the defence of the native soil. We should ill serve the common cause if we made a declaration which would be rejected by essential elements in the Indian world, and which provoked fierce constitutional and communal disputes at a moment when the enemy is at the gates of India.

Accordingly, we propose to send a member of the War Cabinet to India, to satisfy himself upon the spot, by personal consultation, that

¹By kind permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office, No. I and No. II are reprinted from Cmd. 6350, No. IV from Cmd. 6388, No. V from Cmd. 6335, and No. VI from Cmd. 6376.

the conclusions upon which we are agreed, and which we believe represent a just and final solution, will achieve their purpose. My right hon. and learned Friend the Lord Privy Seal and Leader of the House has volunteered to undertake this task. He carries with him the full confidence of His Majesty's Government, and he will strive in their name to procure the necessary measure of assent, not only from the Hindu majority, but also from those great minorities, amongst which the Moslems are the most numerous and on many grounds pre-eminent.

•The Lord Privy Seal will, at the same time, consult with the Viceroy and the Commander-in-Chief upon the military situation, bearing always in mind the paramount responsibility of His Majesty's Government by every means in their power to shield the peoples of India from the perils which now beset them. We must remember that India has a great part to play in the world's struggle for freedom and that her helping hand must be extended in loyal comradeship to the valiant Chinese people, who have fought alone so long. We must remember also that India is one of the bases from which the strongest counter-blows must be struck at the advance of tyranny and aggression.

My right hon. Friend will set out as soon as convenient and suitable arrangements can be made. I am sure he will command in his task the heart-felt good wishes of all parts of the House and that, meanwhile, no word will be spoken or Debates be held, here or in India, which would add to the burden he has assumed in his mission, or lessen the prospects of a good result. During my right hon. and learned Friend's absence from this House, his duties as Leader will be discharged by my right hon. Friend the Foreign Secretary.

II

INDIA

DRAFT DECLARATION FOR DISCUSSION WITH INDIAN LEADERS PUBLISHED MARCH 30, 1942

THE conclusions of the British War Cabinet as set out below are those which Sir Stafford Cripps has taken with him for discussion with the Indian Leaders, and the question as to whether they will be implemented will depend upon the outcome of these discussions which are now taking place.

His Majesty's Government, having considered the anxieties expressed in this country and in India as to the fulfilment of the promises made in regard to the future of India, have decided to lay down in precise and clear terms the steps which they propose shall be taken for the earliest possible realisation of self-government in India. The object is the creation of a new Indian Union which shall constitute a Dominion, associated with the United Kingdom and the other Dominions by a common allegiance to the Crown, but equal to them in every respect, in no way subordinate in any aspect of its domestic or external affairs.

His Majesty's Government therefore make the following declaration :—

- (a) Immediately upon the cessation of hostilities, steps shall be taken to set up in India, in the manner described hereafter, an elected body charged with the task of framing a new Constitution for India.
- (b) Provision shall be made, as set out below, for the participation of the Indian States in the constitution-making body.
- (c) His Majesty's Government undertake to accept and implement forthwith the Constitution so framed, subject only to :—
 - (i) The right of any Province of British India that is not prepared to accept the new Constitution to retain its present constitutional position, provision being made for its subsequent accession if it so decides.

With such non-acceding Provinces, should they so desire, His Majesty's Government will be prepared to agree upon a new Constitution, giving them the same full status as Indian Union, and arrived at by a procedure analogous to that here laid down.

- (ii) The signing of a Treaty which shall be negotiated between His Majesty's Government and the constitution-making body. This Treaty will cover all necessary matters arising out of the complete transfer of responsibility from British to Indian hands ; it will make provision, in accordance with the undertakings given by His Majesty's Government, for the protection of racial and religious minorities ; but will not impose any restriction on the power of the Indian Union to decide in the future its relationship to the other Member States of the British Commonwealth.

Whether or not an Indian State elects to adhere to the Constitution it will be necessary to negotiate a revision of its Treaty arrangements, so far as this may be required in the new situation.

- (d) The constitution-making body shall be composed as follows, unless the leaders of Indian opinion in the principal communities agree upon some other form before the end of hostilities :—

Immediately upon the result being known of the provincial elections which will be necessary at the end of hostilities, the entire membership of the Lower Houses of the Provincial Legislatures shall, as a single electoral college, proceed to the election of the constitution-making body by the system of proportional representation. This new body shall be in number about one-tenth of the number of the electoral college.

Indian States shall be invited to appoint representatives in the same proportion to their total population as in the case of the representatives of British India as a whole, and with the same powers as the British Indian members.

- (e) During the critical period which now faces India and until the new Constitution can be framed His Majesty's Government must in-

evitably bear the responsibility for and retain control and direction of the defence of India as part of their world war effort, but the task of organising to the full the military, moral, and material resources of India must be the responsibility of the Government of India with the co-operation of the peoples of India. His Majesty's Government desire and invite the immediate and effective participation of the leaders of the principal sections of the Indian people in the counsels of their country, of the Commonwealth, and of the United Nations. Thus they will be enabled to give their active and constructive help in the discharge of a task which is vital and essential for the future freedom of India.

III

INDIA

TEXT OF A COMMUNIQUE ISSUED BY THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA IN COUNCIL ON AUGUST 8, 1942

THE All-India Congress Committee have ratified the resolution passed by the Working Committee of the Indian National Congress on August 5. That resolution demands the immediate withdrawal of British power from India, and sanctions "The starting of a mass struggle on non-violent lines on the widest possible scale." The Governor-General in Council has been aware, too, for some days past of the dangerous preparations by the Congress Party for unlawful, and in some cases violent, activities, directed among other things to interruption of communications and public utility services, the organisation of strikes, tampering with the loyalty of Government servants and interference with defence measures, including recruitment.

The Government of India have waited patiently in the hope that wiser counsels might prevail. They have been disappointed in that hope. To a challenge such as the present there can only be one answer. The Government of India would regard it as wholly incompatible with their responsibilities to the people of India, and their obligations to the Allies, that a demand should be discussed, the acceptance of which would plunge India into confusion and anarchy internally and would paralyse her effort in the common cause of human freedom.

For the demand of Congress leaders there is no warrant. In the view of the Government of India that demand is difficult, if not impossible, to reconcile with a full sense of responsibility on the part of the leaders of the Congress Party, or a full appreciation by them of the realities of the present situation. The Congress Working Committee admit that "there may be risks involved.*" They are right. Acceptance of the resolution must mean the exposure of India to an Axis attack from without. Internally the withdrawal of British rule invites civil war, the collapse of law and order, the outbreak of communal feud, the dislocation of

economic life with its inevitable hardships. Nor can the Government of India accept the claim of the Congress Party to speak for India as a whole. The Congress Party has for long occupied a position of great prominence and great importance in Indian political life. At this day its importance is substantial. But it is the duty of the Government of India to take a balanced view of the interests of all Sections of Indian thought and Indian opinion, and looking as they must to the repeated protests even these last few days by the leaders of the great communities and solidly established interests, by so many leaders of liberal thought, by these great sections of the population which are giving unstinted and invaluable support to* the war against Axis aggression, they are confirmed in their view that that claim has no solid foundation, and that acceptance of the proposals now put forward by the Congress Party must mean the abandonment of all those large and powerful elements in the population which have condemned the course of action proposed by the Congress Party and which resent and resist the widespread dislocation which its acceptance would involve of India's war effort and of the general life of the community.

Nor can Congress leaders claim that only thus can India's future be assured. The Congress Party is not India's mouthpiece, yet in the interests of securing their own dominance, and in pursuit of a totalitarian policy, its leaders have consistently impeded efforts made to bring India to full nationhood. But for the resistance of the Congress Party to constructive endeavours, India might even now be enjoying self-government. British policy for India's future stands clear. It is that once hostilities cease, India shall devise for herself with full freedom of decision, and on a basis embracing all, and not only a single party, the form of Government which she regards as most suited to her conditions : and that in the meantime Indian leaders shall fully participate in the Government of their country, and in the counsels of the Commonwealth and of the United Nations. The fullest opportunity for the attainment of self-government by the people of India has been guaranteed by His Majesty's Government. It is on the basis, fully accepted by His Majesty's Government and by the people of Great Britain, that the fullest opportunity shall be given for the attainment of self-government by the Indian people, that when the day of victory comes the final structure of India's constitution will be erected by Indians themselves. That those guarantees given by the British Parliament and the British people are accepted by the people of India we firmly believe. The suggestion put forward by the Congress Party that the millions of India are uncertain as to the future and are ready, despite the sad lessons of so many martyr countries, to throw themselves into the arms of the invader is one that the Government of India cannot accept as a true representation of the feeling of the people of this great country.

The leaders of the Congress Party have claimed that the withdrawal of British rule " with goodwill " will " result in establishing a stable provisional Government in India, and co-operation between this Government and the United Nations in resisting aggression and helping China,"

There is no justification for those claims. Nor can the Government of India accept the suggestion that a stable provisional Government could be formed in a moment of time within a day or two of withdrawal of British power. Past experience has shown to their profound regret the existence of deep differences in this country, the harmonising of which must be the object of all on whom responsibility falls, the removal of which is the ambition and hope of the present Government of India. But to deny that those problems confront India to-day would be to ignore the facts : and the Government of India are satisfied that the interval between the withdrawal of British rule and the establishment of a stable provisional Government would provide an open opportunity for enemies of order and for all dissident elements in the population. In the view of the Government of India it is not too much to say that acceptance of the demand now put forward by the Congress Party must mean the betrayal of the Allies, whether in or outside India, the betrayal, in particular, of Russia and China, the betrayal of those ideals to which so much support has been given and is given to-day from the true heart and mind of India, the betrayal of India's fighting men, whose glory is so great, and the betrayal of all those loyal and co-operating elements which do not support the Congress Party, but which have played so active and so valuable a part in British India and in the Indian States in the prosecution of the war.

India has to-day a Government stronger and more representative than ever in the past, a Government predominantly Indian and non-official, a Government determined to prosecute the war and no less determined to lead India on to her political goal. There is nothing that the Government of India regret more than this challenge at so critical a juncture. But on them there lies the task of defending India, of maintaining India's capacity to wage war, safe-guarding India's interests, of holding the balance between the different sections of her people without fear or favour. That task the Government of India will discharge in the face of the challenge now thrown down by the Congress Party with clear determination, but with an anxiety that action shall be preventive of the interruption of the war effort and the other dangers to which they have referred rather than punitive, and with a full consciousness of the responsibility to India and to the cause of the Allies and of civilisation. Their duty is plain, and they have to discharge it, profoundly as they must deplore the situation which they have been called upon to face. They urge the people of India to unite with them in resistance to the present challenge of a party. They appeal to them to lay aside all political differences, and for the period of the war to place before all other considerations the defence of their country, and the achievement of those common aims on which depends the future not only of India, but of all the freedom-loving peoples of the world.

IV

**DECLARATION BT UNITED NATIONS, DONE AT WASHINGTON
ON JANUARY 1, 1942**

I

A JOINT DECLARATION BY THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND, THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS, CHINA, AUSTRALIA, BELGIUM, CANADA, COSTA RICA, CUBA, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, EL SALVADOR, GREECE, GUATEMALA, HAITI, HONDURAS, INDIA, LUXEMBURG, NETHERLANDS, NEW ZEALAND, NICARAGUA, NORWAY, PANAMA, POLAND, SOUTH AFRICA, YUGOSLAVIA.

THE Governments signatory hereto,

Having subscribed to a common programme of purposes and principles embodied in the Joint Declaration of the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, dated August 14, 1941,¹ known as the Atlantic Charter,

Being convinced that complete victory over their enemies is essential to defend life, liberty, independence, and religious freedom, and to preserve human rights and justice in their own lands as well as in other lands, and that they are now engaged in a common struggle against savage and brutal forces seeking to subjugate the world, declare :

(1) Each Government pledges itself to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such Government is at war.

(2) Each Government pledges itself to co-operate with the Governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

The foregoing declaration may be adhered to by other nations² which are, or which may be, rendering material assistance and contributions in the struggle for victory over Hitlerism.

Done at Washington, the 1st January, 1942.

The United States of America, by Franklin D. Roosevelt.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, by Winston S. Churchill.

On behalf of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Maxim Litvinov, Ambassador.

National Government of the Republic of China, Tse-Vung Soong, Minister for Foreign Affairs.

¹ The Declaration was drawn up by the Prime Minister and the President of the United States of America on August 12, 1941, and made public on August 14.

² Mexico adhered to the Declaration by United Nations on June 5, and the Commonwealth of the Philippines on June 10, 1942.

The Commonwealth of Australia, by R. G. Casey.
 The Kingdom of Belgium, by Cte. R. v. Straten.
 Canada, by Leighton McCarthy.
 The Republic of Costa Rica, by Luis Fern&ndez.
 The Republic of Cuba, by Aurelio F. Concheso.
 Czechoslovak Republic, by V. S. Hurban.
 The Dominican Republic, by J. M. Troncoso.
 The Republic of El Salvador, by C. A. Alfaro.
 The Kingdom of Greece, by Cimon G. Diamantopoulos.
 The Republic of Guatemala, by Enrique Lopez-Herrarte.
 La Republique d'Haiti, par Fernand Dennis.
 The Republic of Honduras, by Julidn R. Caceres.
 India, by Girja Shankar Bajpai.
 The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, by Hugues le Gallais.
 The Kingdom of the Netherlands, by A. Loudon.
 Signed on behalf of the Government of the Dominion of New
 Zealand, by Frank Langstone.
 The Republic of Nicaragua, by Leon De Bayle.
 The Kingdom of Norway, by W. Munthe Morgenstierne.
 The Republic of Panama, by Jaen Guardia.
 The Republic of Poland, by Jan Ciechanowski.
 The Union of South Africa, by Ralph W. Close.
 The Kingdom of Yugoslavia, by Constantin A. Fotitch.

TREATY OF ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE SOVIET UNION AND IRAN

(TEHRAN, JANUARY 29, 1942)

His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, on the one hand, and His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah of Iran, on the other ;

Having in view the principles of the Atlantic Charter jointly agreed upon and announced to the world by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom on August 14, 1941, and endorsed by the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on September 24, 1941, with which His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah declares his complete agreement and from which he wishes to benefit on an equal basis with other nations of the world; and

Being anxious to strengthen the bonds of friendship and mutual understanding between them; and

Considering that these objects will best be achieved by the conclusion of a Treaty of Alliance ;

Have agreed to conclude a treaty for this purpose and have appointed as their plenipotentiaries ;

His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India,

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland,

His Excellency Sir Reader William Bullard, K.C.M.G., C.L.E.,

His Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Iran.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics,

His Excellency M. Andre Andreewich Smirnov, Ambassador

Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Iran.

His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah of Iran,

His Excellency M. Ali Soheily, Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Who, having communicated their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows :—

ARTICLE 1.—His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (hereinafter referred to as the Allied Powers) jointly and severally undertake to respect the territorial integrity, sovereignty, and political independence of Iran.

ARTICLE 2.—An alliance is established between the Allied Powers on the one hand and His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah of Iran on the other.

ARTICLE 3.—(i) The Allied Powers jointly and severally undertake to defend Iran by all means at their command from all aggression on the part of Germany or any other Power.

(ii) His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah undertakes—

(a) to co-operate with the Allied Powers with all the means at his command and in every possible way, in order that they may be able to fulfil the above undertaking. The assistance of the Iranian forces shall, however, be limited to the maintenance of internal security on Iranian territory ;

(b) to secure to the Allied Powers, for the passage of troops or supplies from one Allied Power to the other or for other similar purposes, the unrestricted right to use, maintain, guard, and, in case of military necessity, control in any way that they may require all means of communication throughout Iran, including railways, roads, rivers, aerodromes, ports, pipe-lines and telephone, telegraph and wireless installations;

(c) to furnish all possible assistance and facilities in obtaining material and recruiting labour for the purpose of the maintenance and improvement of the means of communication referred to in paragraph (b);

(d) to establish and maintain, in collaboration with the Allied Powers, such measures of censorship control as they may require for all the means of communication referred to in paragraph (6).

(iii) It is clearly understood that in the application of paragraph (ii) (6), (c), and (d) of the present article the Allied Powers will give full consideration to the essential needs of Iran.

ARTICLE 4.—(i) The Allied Powers may maintain in Iranian territory land, sea, and air forces in such number as they consider necessary. The location of such forces shall be decided in agreement with the Iranian Government so long as the strategic situation allows. All questions concerning the relations between the forces of the Allied Powers and the Iranian authorities shall be settled so far as possible in co-operation with the Iranian authorities in such a way as to safeguard the security of the said forces. It is understood that the presence of these forces on Iranian territory does not constitute a military occupation and will disturb as little as possible the administration and the security forces of Iran, the economic life of the country, the normal movements of the population, and the application of Iranian laws and regulations.

(ii) A separate agreement or agreements shall be concluded as soon" as possible after the entry into force of the present Treaty regarding any financial obligations to be borne by the Allied Powers under the provisions of the present article and of paragraphs (ii) (6), (c), and (d) of Article 3 above in such matters as local purchases, the hiring of buildings and plant, the employment of labour, transport charges, etc. A special agreement shall be concluded between the Allied Governments and the Iranian Government defining the conditions for any transfers to the Iranian Government after the war of buildings and other improvements effected by the Allied Powers on Iranian territory. These agreements shall also settle the immunities to be enjoyed by the forces of the Allied Powers in Iran.

ARTICLE 5.—The forces of the Allied Powers shall be withdrawn from Iranian territory not later than six months after all hostilities between the Allied Powers and Germany and her associates have been suspended by the conclusion of an armistice or armistices, or on the conclusion of peace between them, whichever date is the earlier. The expression " associates " of Germany means all other Powers which have engaged or may in the future engage in hostilities against either of the Allied Powers.

ARTICLE 6.—(i) The Allied Powers undertake in their relations with foreign countries not to adopt an attitude which is prejudicial to the territorial integrity, sovereignty or political independence of Iran, nor to conclude treaties inconsistent with the provisions of the present Treaty. They undertake to consult the Government of His Imperial Majesty the Shahinshah in all matters affecting the direct interests of Iran.

(ii) His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah undertakes not to adopt in his relations with foreign countries an attitude which is inconsistent with the alliance, nor to conclude treaties inconsistent with the provisions of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE 7.—The Allied Powers jointly undertake to use their best endeavours to safeguard the economic existence of the Iranian people against the privations and difficulties arising as a result of the present

war. On the entry into force of the present Treaty, discussions shall be opened between the Government of Iran and the Governments of the Allied Powers as to the best possible methods of carrying out the above undertaking.

ARTICLE 8.—The provisions of the present Treaty are equally binding as bilateral obligations between His Imperial Majesty The Shahinshah and each of the two other High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE 9.—The present Treaty shall come into force on signature and shall remain in force until the date fixed for the withdrawal of the forces of the Allied Powers from Iranian territory in accordance with Article 5.

In witness whereof, the above-named plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Tehran in triplicate in English, Russian, and Persian, all being equally authentic, on the 29th day of January, 1942.

(L.S.) R. W. BULLARD.

(L.S.) A. A. SMIRNOV.

(L.S.) ALISOHEILY.

ANNEX 1

Identic Notes addressed to the Iranian Minister for Foreign Affairs by His Majesty's Minister and the Soviet Ambassador

With reference to Article 6, paragraph (i), of the Treaty of Alliance signed to-day, I have the honour, on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom/the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, to assure Your Excellency that my Government interpret the provisions of this clause as being applicable to any peace conference or conferences held at the conclusion of the present war, or other general international conferences. Consequently they consider themselves bound not to approve anything at any such conference which is prejudicial to the territorial integrity, sovereignty or political independence of Iran, and not to discuss at any such conference anything affecting the direct interests of Iran without consultation with the Government of Iran.

His Majesty's Government the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics will further do their best to secure that Iran will be represented on a footing of equality in any peace negotiations directly affecting her interests.

ANNEX 2

Identic Notes addressed to His Majesty's Minister and the Soviet Ambassador by the Iranian Minister for Foreign Affairs

With reference to Article 6, paragraph (ii), of the Treaty of Alliance signed this day, I have the honour, on behalf of the Iranian Government,

to assure Your Excellency that the Iranian Government would consider it contrary to their obligations under this clause to maintain diplomatic relations with any State which is in diplomatic relations with neither of the Allied Powers.

ANNEX 3

Identic Notes addressed to the Iranian Minister for Foreign Affairs by His Majesty's Minister and the Soviet Ambassador

I have the honour, on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, to convey to Your Excellency the following assurances :—

- (1) With reference to Article 3 (ii) (a) of the Treaty of Alliance which has been signed to-day, the Allied Powers will not require of Iran the participation of her armed forces in any war or military operations against any Foreign Power or Powers.
- (2) With reference to Article 4 (ii), it is understood that there is no provision in the Treaty which requires that the Iranian Government shall bear the cost of any works which the Allied Powers carry out for their own military ends and which are not necessary for the needs of Iran.
- (3) It is understood that Annex 1 will remain in force even if the Treaty ceases to be valid, in accordance with the provisions of Article 9, before peace has been concluded.

VI

TREATY OF ALLIANCE IN THE WAR AGAINST HITLERITE GERMANY AND HER ASSOCIATES IN EUROPE AND OF COLLABORATION AND MUTUAL ASSISTANCE THEREAFTER CONCLUDED BETWEEN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS AND THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

(LONDON, MAY 26, 1942)

[Ratifications exchanged at Moscow, July 4, 1942]

His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics ;

Desiring to confirm the stipulations of the Agreement between His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics for joint action in the war against

Germany, signed at Moscow on July 12, 1941,¹ and to replace them by a formal treaty;

Desiring to contribute after the war to the maintenance of peace and to the prevention of further aggression by Germany or the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe ;

Desiring, moreover, to give expression to their intention to collaborate closely with one another as well as with the other United Nations at the peace settlement and during the ensuing period of reconstruction on the basis of the principles enunciated in the declaration made on August 14, 1941,² by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of Great Britain to which the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has adhered ;

Desiring, finally, to provide for mutual assistance in the event of an attack upon either High Contracting Party by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Have decided to conclude a treaty for that purpose and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries :—

His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India,

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland :

The Right Honourable Anthony Eden, M.P., His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs ;

The Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:

M. Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs,

Who, having communicated their Full Powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows :—

PART I

ARTICLE I.—In virtue of the alliance established between the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to afford one another military and other assistance and support of all kinds in the war against Germany and all those States which are associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

ARTICLE II.—The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into any negotiations with the Hitlerite Government or any other Government in Germany that does not clearly renounce all aggressive intentions, and not to negotiate or conclude except by mutual consent any armistice or peace treaty with Germany or any other State associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

¹ See ANNUAL REGISTER, 1941, p. 388.

² The declaration was drawn up by the Prime Minister and the President of the United States of America on August 12, 1941, and made public on August 14.

PART II

ARTICLE III.—(1) The High Contracting Parties declare their desire to unite with other like-minded States in adopting proposals for common action to preserve peace and resist aggression in the post-war period.

(2) Pending the adoption of such proposals, they will, after the termination of hostilities, take all the measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

ARTICLE IV.—Should one of the High Contracting Parties during the post-war period become involved in hostilities with Germany or any of the States mentioned in Article I I I (2) in consequence of an attack by that State against that Party, the other High Contracting Party will at once give to the Contracting Party so involved in hostilities all the military and other support and assistance in his power.

This Article shall remain in force until the High Contracting Parties, by mutual agreement, shall recognise that it is superseded by the adoption of the proposals contemplated in Article I I I (1). In default of the adoption of such proposals, it shall remain in force for a period of twenty years, and thereafter until terminated by either High Contracting Party, as provided in Article VIII.

ARTICLE V.—The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests of the security of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the re-establishment of peace for the organisation of security and economic prosperity in Europe. They will take into account the interests of the United Nations in these objects, and they will act in accordance with the two principles of not seeking territorial aggrandisement for themselves and of non-interference in the internal affairs of other States.

ARTICLE VI.—The High Contracting Parties agree to render one another all possible economic assistance after the war.

ARTICLE VII.—Each High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in any coalition directed against the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VIII.—The present Treaty is subject to ratification in the shortest possible time and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Moscow as soon as possible.

It comes into force immediately on the exchange of the instruments of ratification and shall thereupon replace the Agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, signed at Moscow on the 12th July, 1941.

Part I of the present Treaty shall remain in force until the re-establishment of peace between the High Contracting Parties and Germany and the Powers associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Part II of the present Treaty shall remain in force for a period of twenty years. Thereafter, unless twelve months' notice has been given

by either Party to terminate the Treaty at the end of the said period of twenty years, it shall continue in force until twelve months after either High Contracting Party shall have given notice to the other in writing of his intention to terminate it.

In witness whereof the above-named Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate in London on the 26th day of May, 1942, in the English and Russian languages, both texts being equally authentic.

(L.S.) ANTHONY EDEN.

(L.S.) V. MOLOTOV.

VII

NAZI CRIMES

DECLARATION BY NINE ALLIED NATIONS

(LONDON, JANUARY 13, 1942)

THE text of the declarations is as follows :—

Whereas Germany, since the beginning of the present conflict, which arose out of her policy of aggression, has instituted in the occupied countries a regime of terror characterised in particular by imprisonments, mass expulsions, the execution of hostages and massacres,

And whereas these acts of violence are being similarly perpetrated by the Allies and associates of the Reich and, in certain countries, by the accomplices of the occupying Power,

And whereas international solidarity is necessary in order to avoid the repression of these acts of violence simply by acts of vengeance on the part of the general public, and in order to satisfy the sense of justice of the civilised world,

Recalling that international law, and in particular the Convention signed at The Hague in 1907 regarding the laws and customs of land warfare, do not permit belligerents in occupied countries to perpetrate acts of violence against civilians, to bring into disrepute the laws in force, or to overthrow national institutions,

The undersigned Representatives of: the Government of Belgium, the Government of Czechoslovakia, the Free French National Committee, the Government of Greece, the Government of Luxemburg, the Government of the Netherlands, the Government of Norway, the Government of Poland, and the Government of Yugoslavia ;

- (1)—affirm that acts of violence thus perpetrated against the civilian populations are at variance with accepted ideas concerning acts of war and political offences, as these are understood by civilised nations,
- (2)—take note of the declaration made in this respect on October 25, 1941, by the President of the United States of America, and by the British Prime Minister,

- (3)—place amongst their principal war aims the punishment, through the channel of organised justice, of those guilty and responsible for these crimes, whether they have ordered them, perpetrated them, or in any way participated in them,
- (4)—determine in a spirit of international solidarity to see to it that (a) those guilty and responsible, whatever their nationality, are sought for, handed over to justice and judged, (b) that the sentences pronounced are carried out.

In faith whereof the signatories duly authorised have signed the present declaration.

VIII

PAGI BETWEEN GREECE AND YUGOSLAVIA

(LONDON, JANUARY 15, 1942)

The Agreement between Greece and Yugoslavia for the constitution of a Balkan Union, signed in London on January 15, 1942, contains the following chapters:—

PREAMBLE

Having observed that past experience and more particularly very recent experience have demonstrated that the lack of a closer understanding between the Balkan peoples has been exploited by the powers of aggression in their aim at political and military penetration and domination in the Peninsula,

Considering that in order to assure independence and peace for the Balkan States the fundamental principle of their policy must be the principle of

" The Balkans for the Balkan Peoples/ "

His Majesty the King of the Hellenes and His Majesty the King of Yugoslavia have decided to conclude the present Agreement concerning the constitution of the Balkan Union.

CHAPTER I

THE ORGANS OF THE UNION

The Organs of the Union, which will meet at regular intervals, are: The Political Organ, constituted by the Ministers for Foreign Affairs; the Economic and Financial Organ, constituted by two members of each Government who shall be competent in economic and financial matters; and the Permanent Military Organ.

The Military Organ, in which the Governments will be represented by the Chiefs of the General Staffs, or by their representatives, will constitute, at the side of the National General Staffs, a common General

Staff of the national armies. This organ will comprise two bureaux, one for the Army, and Aviation, and the other for the Navy.

The Permanent Bureau will comprise three sections—political, economic and financial, and military.

The Presidents of the Councils of Ministers of State composing the Union will meet whenever circumstances require in order to discuss questions of a general order of interest to the Union.

The Governments of the Union will facilitate regular meetings between Parliamentary delegations of the States of the Union, allowing these delegations to proceed to exchanges of views and to express their wishes on questions of common interest which would be submitted to them by the competent organs.

CHAPTER II

The tasks of the Organs of the Union will be as follows :—

POLITICAL.—To co-ordinate the foreign policy of the members with a view to enabling the Union to act in a uniform manner on the international plane and to proceed to preliminary consultation at all times when vital exterior interests of members of the Union should be menaced ; and to prepare projects for agreements of conciliation and arbitration between the members of the Union.

* The Political Organ will undertake the constitution of the following organisations : A commission charged with the elaboration of agreements of intellectual co-operation between the members of the Union and with the supervision of their application ; and a commission charged with the co-ordination of the efforts of the organs of the members in view of a reciprocal *rapprochement* of public opinion in the States members of the Union and of the defence of their interests.

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL.—To co-ordinate the policies of exterior commerce and the customs tariffs with a view to the conclusion of a customs union ; elaborate a common economic plan for all the members of the Union ; constitute through special organs all the means which will permit of the amelioration of communications between the members of the Union (railways, roads, navigation by sea, air, and river, posts and telegraphs), as well as tourist development within the Union ; and prepare a draft agreement instituting a Balkan monetary union.

MILITARY.—To co-ordinate activities concerning the collaboration between the national organs of the members of the Union, the adoption of a common plan of defence and of a common type of armament, etc. The mission of the armed forces of the Union will be to defend the European frontiers of the States of the Union.

PERMANENT BUREAU.—This will form the secretariat of the different Organs of the Union and its task will be : To prepare the material for the labours of the Organs of the Union ; study all questions the solution of which may render more efficacious the political, the economical and financial, and the military co-operation of the members of the Union ; and supervise the application of the decisions of the Organs of the Union.

CHAPTER III

The High Contracting Parties declare that this Agreement presents the general foundations for the organisation of the Balkan Union. They consider themselves bound by the foregoing dispositions from the date of the exchange of the instruments of ratification, and they envisage with satisfaction the future adhesion to this Agreement of other Balkan States ruled by Governments freely and legally constituted.

The present Agreement will be ratified and the ratifications will be exchanged as soon as this shall be possible.

IX

PACT BETWEEN POLAND AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA

(LONDON, JANUARY 23, 1942)

THE following are the terms of the Agreement for a Polish-Czechoslovak Confederation which was signed in London on January 23, 1942, by Count Edward Kaczynski, the acting Polish Foreign Minister and Ambassador in London, and Dr. Hubert Kipka, acting Czechoslovak Minister of Foreign Affairs:—

In execution of the declaration of the Governments of Poland and Czechoslovakia of November 11, 1940, whereby both Governments decided that after the war Poland and Czechoslovakia shall form a confederation of States in that area of Europe with which the vital interests of the two countries are bound, the Governments of Poland and Czechoslovakia conducted uninterrupted negotiations on the subject of the method of bringing the above declaration to fruition. Both Governments reached agreement with regard to a number of principles of the projected confederation, which were defined in the following declaration adopted during the current week:

The Governments of Poland and Czechoslovakia have agreed on the following points with regard to the future confederation of Poland and Czechoslovakia:—

1. The two Governments desire that the Polish-Czechoslovak confederation should embrace other States of the European area with which the vital interests of Poland and Czechoslovakia are linked up.

2. The purpose of the confederation is to assure common policy with regard to foreign affairs; defence; economic and financial matters; social questions; transport, posts, and telegraphs.

3. The confederation will have a common general staff, whose task it will be to prepare the means of defence, while in the event of war a unified supreme command will be appointed.

4. The confederation will co-ordinate the policy of foreign trade and custom tariffs of the States forming the confederation with a view to the conclusion of a customs union.

5. The confederation will have an agreed monetary policy. Autonomous banks of issue of the States forming the confederation will be maintained. It will be their task to assure that the parity established between the various national currencies shall be permanently maintained.

6. The confederation will co-ordinate the financial policies of the States forming the confederation, especially with regard to taxation.

7. The development and administration of railway, road, water, and air transport, as also of the telecommunication services will be carried out according to a common plan. An identical tariff for postal and telecommunication services will be binding on all the territories of the confederation. The States in possession of sea and inland harbours will take into consideration the economic interests of the confederation as a whole. Moreover, the States forming the confederation will mutually support the interests of the sea and inland harbours of the States forming the confederation.

8. Co-ordination will also be applied in the realm of social policy of the various States of the confederation.

9. The confederation will assure co-operation among its members in educational and cultural matters.

10. Questions of nationality will remain within the competence of the individual States forming the confederation. The passenger traffic between the various States included in the confederation will take place without any restrictions, in particular without passports and visas. The question of free domicile and of the right to exercise any gainful occupation of the citizens of the individual States forming the confederation over the whole territory of the confederation will be regulated.

11. The question of the mutual recognition by the States forming the confederation of school and professional diplomas, of documents and sentences of court, as well as the question of mutual legal aid, in particular in the execution of court sentences, will be regulated.

12. The constitutions of the individual States included in the confederation will guarantee to the citizens of these States the following rights : Freedom of conscience ; personal freedom ; freedom of learning ; freedom of the spoken and written word ; freedom of organisation and association ; equality of all citizens before the law ; free admission of all citizens to the performance of all State functions ; the independence of the courts of law ; and the control of government by representative national bodies elected by means of free elections.

13. Both Governments have agreed that in order to ensure the common policy with regard to the above-mentioned spheres, the establishment of common organs of the confederation will be necessary.

14. The States included in the confederation will jointly defray the costs of its maintenance.

At the same time both Governments adopted a resolution expressing their satisfaction with the conclusion of the Greek-Yugoslav Agreement of January 15, and their conviction that the security and prosperity of the area of Europe situated between the Baltic and Aegean seas depend

primarily on the collaboration of two confederations, the foundation of one of which had been laid by the Polish-Czechoslovak Agreement, and of the other by the Greek-Yugoslav Agreement. The resolution was in the following terms :—

The Governments of Poland and Czechoslovakia, united in their set determination to form a confederation of States in central Europe, based on close political, military, and economic collaboration,

Convinced that the confederation of States in Central Europe will be called upon to collaborate with the Balkan Union envisaged by the Governments of Greece and Yugoslavia,

Confident that only the co-operation of those two regional organisations can assure security and develop prosperity of the vast region stretching between the Baltic and the Aegean Seas,

Warmly congratulate the Governments of Greece and Yugoslavia on their initiation of the Balkan Union by their Agreement concluded on January 15, 1942, inspired by the same sentiment of fraternity which animates the relations between Poland and Czechoslovakia.

OBITUARY

of

EMINENT PERSONS DECEASED IN 1942

JANUARY

3. Captain Thomas Athol Joyce, anthropologist and archaeologist, was born in 1878, and educated at Dulwich and Hertford College, Oxford. In 1902 he entered the service of the British Museum as an assistant keeper in the Department of British and Medieval Antiquities. Specialising in the ethnographical aspect of his work, he was given the task of compiling the "Guide to the Ethnographical Collections in the British Museum." He was secretary of the Royal Anthropological Institute, 1903-13, and president from 1931 to 1933. In 1921, when the Department of Ceramics and Ethnography at the British Museum was separated from the British and Medieval Collections, Joyce was made deputy-keeper of the new department. Becoming an authority on Mayan culture, he led expeditions on behalf of the Museum to sites in British Honduras in 1926, 1927, 1929, and 1931. During the war, 1914-18, he served on the Intelligence Staff at the War Office, reached the rank of captain, and was made C.B.E. In addition to the "Guide," he published "South American Archaeology"; "Mexican Archaeology"; "Archaeology of Central America," and a small volume on "Maya and Mexican Art." Many papers written by him first appeared in the *Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute*. He was twice married, his second wife being L. E. Elliott, an authority and writer on Latin America. By his first marriage he had three children.

8. The Bight Hon. Nawab Sir Mahomed Akbar Nazarally Hydari, Indian statesman, was born of Cambay parents in Bombay on November 8, 1869, and educated at St. Xavier's College and Bombay University. Entering the Indian Finance Department in 1888 he was successively assistant Accountant-General, United Provinces; Deputy Accountant-General, Bombay; Examiner of Government Press Accounts; and finally Comptroller of Central Treasurers. In 1905 he went to the Hyderabad State to assist Sir George Casson Walker in straightening out the disorganised finances. In 1911 he became secretary to Government in the Judicial, Police, and General Departments, his portfolios including education, medicine, postal, and ecclesiastical affairs. Ten years later he was made Finance and Railway Member of the Executive Council of the Nizam. Apart from his political work, he organised the Archaeological Department, giving it his personal attention; lent to a Bombay museum a fine collection of Deccan paintings; and, as father of the Osmania University (1918) he made Erdu the medium of instruction, with English as a compulsory subject. In England Sir Akbar was known by his work for Indian constitutional reforms. He headed the Hyderabad delegations to the Indian Bound Table Conferences in 1930-31, and was one of the Indian advisers to the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee under Lord Linlithgow. He was unanimously elected chairman of a Standing Committee of States Ministers which soon became known as the Hydari Committee. In 1936 he was made president of the Hyderabad External Relations Committee, Constitutional Reform Secretariat, and negotiated a settlement of the Berar controversy whereby the sovereignty of the Nizam over Berar was formally recognised. In 1937 he succeeded Sir Kishen Pershad as President of the Executive Council, thus becoming officially, what he had been for many years, the leading figure in

the Nizam's Government. At the age of 71 he accepted the Viceroy's invitation to join the enlarged Executive Council, being given the Information portfolio. Sir Akbar, a devout Moslem, was a Nawab with the title Hydar Nawaz Jung Bahadur, and was D.C.L. of Oxford, LL.D. of Osmania and Madras, and a Fellow of four Universities. In 1936 he was sworn a member of the Privy Council. His wife died in 1940, leaving four sons and two daughters.

9. Sir Oswald Stoll, theatre proprietor who raised the standard of music hall entertainment, was born at Melbourne on January 20, 1866, son of Roderick Gray, an architect, and his wife, Adelaide, daughter of a Dublin surveyor. Early left a widow, Mrs. Gray married a second time a retired sea-captain named Stoll, and her son adopted the name of his step-father. Stoll's first work in the theatre was as assistant to his mother, then manageress of the Parthenon Music Hall, Liverpool. His attachment to his mother was touching; in her memory he had a marble bust erected in the vestibule of the Coliseum, and he founded the Adelaide Stoll Bachelor Research Scholarship at Christ's College, Cambridge. After a period as a variety agent he became, in 1889, manager of Leveno's Music Hall, Cardiff, which he opened as the Empire, introducing two houses a night. In the 'nineties he opened other Empires at Swansea and Newport, and before long was manager of eight music halls. He then joined the Moss and Thornton management, and when their interests were merged in 1900 the combination was known as Moss Empires, Limited. Leaving Moss Empires, he took over the management of the Coliseum, and soon added to his interests the Alhambra, Leicester Square, and the London Opera House, which was converted into a cinema and named the Stoll Picture Theatre. He was also chairman of the Stoll Film Company. Among the successful productions at his theatres were *White Horse Inn* at the Coliseum (1931); *Waltzes from Vienna*, at the Alhambra (1931); and *Casanova* at the Coliseum (1932). Untheatrical in appearance and temperament, he had a passion for economic theory, publishing "The Grand Survival: a Theory of Immortality by Natural Law"; "The People's Credit"; "Freedom in Finance"; and "National Productive Credit." After the war, 1914-18, he established "The Sir Oswald Stoll Foundation" to provide self-contained residences for disabled ex-officers and their families. Stoll was knighted in 1919. He was twice married first, in 1892, to Harriet Lewis, who died in 1902, leaving one daughter; and secondly, in 1903, to Millicent Shaw, by whom he had three sons. Stoll never smoked or drank. In his will, he wrote: "I counsel my sons to be diligent in the work which it is their duty to perform and to leave the welfare of mankind in the hands of God. Unity is Strength, and division of spirit and weakness of the flesh prevent successful work when more than one serious and exacting occupation is undertaken."

16. Field-Marshal the Duke of Connaught (Arthur William Patrick Albert) was born at Buckingham Palace on May 1, 1850, third son and seventh child of Queen Victoria; the Duke of Wellington was his godfather. At 16 he passed into the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich; on June 19, 1868, he was gazetted to the Royal Engineers. Little more than a year later he was posted to the 1st Battalion, The Rifle Brigade, and joined his unit in Canada in time to take part in the operations against the Fenians in 1870. Returning to England in 1871, he was made a member of the Privy Council, of which he was senior member at the time of his death. On his twenty-first birthday he was promoted captain. On April 14, 1874, he was transferred to the 7th Hussars, and in the Birthday Honours of that year was created Duke of Connaught and Strathearn and Earl of Sussex. Two years later he returned to The Rifle Brigade as lieutenant-colonel, being appointed colonel-in-chief, and promoted to major-general, on May 29, 1880. In 1882 Queen Victoria, "after much hesitation and many tears," consented to his appointment as commander of the Guards Brigade which formed part of Sir Garnet Wolseley's field force in the Egyptian War. He was present at the battle of Tel-el-Kebir, was thrice mentioned in despatches, and was made C.B. In November, 1882, he returned to England to receive his medal from the

hands of his mother at Windsor. In 1886, three years after his appointment to a Brigade at Aldershot, he was given the Bombay Command, and by virtue of his office became a member of the Executive Council of the Governor. On his return in 1890 he was appointed to the command of the Southern District with the rank of lieutenant-general. In August, 1893, he succeeded Sir Evelyn Wood as Commander-in-Chief at Aldershot. When the South African War began he was anxious to serve, and offered to waive his rank as a general officer, but his efforts were of no avail and he became instead G.O.C. the Forces in Ireland. In 1902 he was made a Field-Marshal, but did not become Commander-in-Chief, that office being abolished in the reconstruction of the system of national defence. From 1904 to 1907 he was Inspector-General of the Forces and president of the Selection Board, afterwards becoming for a short time Commander-in-Chief of the Mediterranean Forces and High Commissioner. The first of his two official visits to South Africa was made in 1906 when he went as Inspector-General of the Forces; the second being in 1910 to open the first Parliament of the Union. In January, 1911, he was made Governor-General of Canada, holding that position, which had originally been for a term of two years, until 1916. Before leaving he was able to lay the corner-stone of the Dominion Parliament Building at Ottawa. Soon after returning to England he was offered the post of Colonel-in-Chief of the Volunteers, and in February, 1917, that of Inspector of Overseas Troops. In 1920, at the age of 71, he went to India again—he had previously announced the accession of King Edward VII at the Imperial Durbar—to open in the name of King George V the new Chamber of Princes, and the reformed and enlarged bicameral Legislature at New Delhi. He was publicly congratulated by the Army Council in June, 1928, on completing sixty years' service on the active list; a year later he celebrated his silver jubilee as Colonel of the Grenadier Guards; and in 1930, fifty years as Colonel-in-Chief of The Rifle Brigade. Throughout his life he had been an enthusiastic Freemason. Initiated in 1874, he became Grand Master of England in 1901, in succession to his elder brother, Kang Edward VII, and at various times held many high offices in Freemasonry. He helped to establish the Freemasons' War Hospital, and at the Masonic Peace Celebration launched the scheme for a central home for freemasonry as a War Memorial, laying the foundation-stone of the building in Great Queen Street in July, 1927. Besides receiving all the Orders of Knighthood, he was Great Master of the Order of the Bath and senior Knight of the Garter; D.C.L. of Oxford, L.L.D. of Cambridge, the Cape University, and Laval, and Litt.D. of the Punjab University. In 1910 he succeeded his nephew, King George V, as Grand Prior of the Venerable Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem. He was also an Elder Brother of Trinity House and Master from 1910, a Bencher of Gray's Inn, and an hon. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. He was said to have been responsible for the introduction in the British Army of khaki, which was first used by British troops in the Sudan in 1894. The Duke married on March 13, 1879, Princess Louisa, third daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia, a nephew of the Emperor William I, and had one son, Prince Arthur (born 1883, died 1938), and two daughters, Princess Margaret, Crown Princess of Sweden (died 1920); and Princess Patricia, Lady Patricia Ramsay. The Duke was succeeded by his grandson, the Earl of Macduff, born in 1914, son of Prince Arthur of Connaught.

16. Sir Jeremiah Colman, Bart., well known as a manufacturer of mustard, was born on April 24, 1859, and educated at King's College School, London, and St. John's College, Cambridge. After graduating in 1882 he entered the family business of J. & J. Colman, which had been milling mustard since early in the nineteenth century. In 1892 he became chairman of the Commercial Union Assurance Company, holding that office again in 1902, 1908, 1913, and 1918. From 1899 to 1900 he was Master of the Skinners' Company, and chairman of the Governors of Tonbridge School. He was also vice-president of the Boy Scouts Association; of the Y.M.C.A.; of the Royal National Hospital for Consumption (Ventnor); and of the Royal Hospital and Home for Incurables.; president of

the East Surrey Hospital; Chief Special Constable for Reigate Petty Sessional Area; and chairman of the London Surrey Society, 1926 and 1927. In 1915 he was appointed one of the Board of Referees under the Finance Act. In 1930 he presented the building for the Surrey Convalescent Home for Children at Bognor. One of his chief hobbies was orchid-growing, for which he received the Victoria Medal, and on which he published a book. He was also keenly interested in cricket, being a member of the Surrey Cricket Club since 1879, and at various times had been its president, vice-president, and treasurer. He was created a baronet in 1907; was a Knight of Grace of the Ancient Order of St. John of Jerusalem; a Chevalier of the Order of Leopold; and an honorary Freeman of the Borough of Reigate. In 1885 he married Mary, daughter of J. Short McMaster, and had one son. Sir Jeremiah left 1,832,069?.; providing 10,000/. to the Gatton Fund for the acquisition of land in the Parish of Gatton for open spaces, recreation grounds, or playing fields.

16. The Right Hon. Sir James Rose-Innes, Chief Justice of the Union of South Africa, 1914-27, was born on January 8, 1855, son of J. Rose-Innes, Resident Magistrate in various parts of Cape Colony, and at one time Secretary for Native Affairs, and educated at Uitenhage, at Bedford (Eastern Province), Gill College, Somerset East, and at the University of Cape Town. After a short time in a bank he was called to the Bar at Cape Town, and twelve years later took silk. In 1884 he entered the Cape Assembly as the representative for Somerset East, later sitting for Cape Town. In 1890 he became Attorney-General in Rhodes's Government but resigned with others, over the "Logan contract," which had been given to a member of the Assembly without tenders having been called for. Six years later he was appointed by the Imperial Government to watch the trial of the Reform Committee prisoners in Pretoria. When the Schreiner Cabinet fell at the beginning of the South African War, Rose-Innes again became Attorney-General in Sprigg's fourth Administration. While holding that office in Rhodes's Cabinet in 1900, he succeeded in passing the memorable "Innes Act" which prohibited the sale of intoxicating liquor to natives. In 1902 he retired from politics on his appointment as Chief Justice of the Transvaal. He became a member of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of the Union in 1909, and, in 1914, Chief Justice of South Africa, retiring in 1927. He was an acknowledged authority on Roman-Dutch law. In 1881 he married Jessie, youngest daughter of W. D. Pringle.

22. Dr. Cecil Delisle Burns, Labour thinker and lecturer, was born in 1879, son of a treasurer of St. Christopher-Nevis, and grandson of Patrick Burns, Auditor-General of the Leeward Islands. He was educated at Christ's College, Cambridge, and in Rome, and was a D.Lit. of London University. After five years as a University extension lecturer he joined the staff of the Ministry of Reconstruction (1917-19); was for a short period assistant secretary of the International Organising Committee of the International Labour Office; and during 1919-20 worked in the Intelligence Division of the Ministry of Labour. From 1921 to 1924 he was assistant secretary to the Joint Research Department of the Trades Union Congress and Labour Party. Although resourceful, constructive, and efficient, his temperament was that of a teacher and student, and from 1924 onwards he was able to follow his natural bent. He was Lecturer in Logic and Philosophy at Birkbeck College, and then Lecturer in Social Philosophy at the London School of Economics and Political Science. Finally, he became the first Stevenson Lecturer in Citizenship at Glasgow University, 1927-32. The appointment was renewed for another five years but illness caused him to resign in 1935. He published a number of works on international questions, problems of government and industry, and on political theory. In 1912 he married Margaret Hannay, a painter and etcher, and had two sons.

— Walter Richard Sickert, painter and etcher, described as the "last of the great English impressionists," was born in Munich, of Danish descent, in

1860, his father being a painter-decorator of Altona, who came to England in 1859 and married an Englishwoman, later becoming a naturalised British subject in 1868. After being educated at Bayswater Collegiate School and King's College, London, Walter, in 1881, began to study art at the Slade School under Legros; at Putney under Otto Scholderer; and at Heatherley's in Newman Street. His true masters, however, were Whistler, to whom he acted as assistant, and Degas, who was an intimate friend. In 1884 Sickert exhibited for the first time at the Royal Society of British Artists, of which Whistler was the president, and he continued to exhibit there until 1888 when Whistler "took away the Artists and left the British." Many years later, in 1928, he returned to the R.B.A. as president, but soon resigned again. At various times he was a member of the New English Art Club, the Royal Society of Painter Etchers and Engravers, and the London Group, presiding at its inaugural meeting in 1913. Elected an associate of the Royal Academy in 1924 and R.A. in 1935, he resigned in May of that year as a protest against the Academy's negative attitude to the proposal to remove the Epstein statues from the headquarters of the British Medical Association in the Strand. In 1932 he gave his "Raising of Lazarus," painted when he was 72, to be sold for the benefit of the Sadler's Wells Fund. Notable among his other works were "Mamma Mia Poareta," "The Area Steps," and "The Evening Primrose." For his services to art he was given a civil list pension of 170J. a year. Sickert, one of the most unconventional of men, was married three times; first, in 1885, to Helen, daughter of Richard Cobden; secondly, in 1911, to Christine, daughter of John H. Angus; and thirdly, in 1926, to Therese, daughter of Jules Lessore. He had no children.

26. The Rev. the Hon. Edward Lyttelton, D.D., headmaster of Eton, 1905-16, was born on July 23, 1855, seventh son of the fourth Lord Lyttelton, and of Mary, daughter of Sir Stephen Glynne, Bart., Mr. Gladstone being his uncle by marriage. Educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge, he became an assistant master at Wellington (1880-2), after which he returned to Eton in the same capacity, having meanwhile been ordained. In 1890 he was appointed headmaster of Haileybury. In 1894 he was made a member of the Committee on Secondary Education, and in 1900 of the Consultative Committee to the Board of Education. In 1895 he became an honorary canon of St. Albans, holding that office for ten years. In 1905 he succeeded Dr. Warre as headmaster of Eton, where he was at his best in chapel, being an original and moving preacher. During the war, 1914-18, a remark made in the course of a sermon in London suggesting the abandonment of Gibraltar caused much public indignation, and he became as unpopular in England as he was popular in Germany. Two years after resigning his headmastership in 1916 he accepted the small living of Side-strand, near his country house Grangegorman, Overstrand, Norfolk. As a cricketer he had a distinguished record, being captain of the strong XI of 1878, the only team to beat the Australians during their first tour of England, he himself making a century. His best-known publications were "Mothers and Sons" and "Studies in the Sermon on the Mount." He married, in 1888, Caroline, daughter of the Very Rev. John West, and had two daughters.

— Dame Emily Penrose, Principal of Somerville College, Oxford, 1907-26, was born in 1858, daughter of F. C. Penrose, surveyor of St. Paul's Cathedral. Entering Somerville College in 1892, she was the first woman to obtain a first class in *Lit. Hum.* On leaving college she lectured on archaeology, but soon turned her energies to administrative work in the educational field. In 1893 she was appointed the first Principal of Bedford College, where she was also Professor of Ancient History. In 1897 she became Principal of the Royal Holloway College, holding the post for ten years during which the College became a School of the London University. From 1900 to 1907 she was a member of the senate of London University. In the same year she succeeded Miss Maitland as Principal of Somerville College, retiring in 1926. She was made a member of the Royal Commission on the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in 1919,

and was appointed one of the Statutory Commissioners for Oxford in 1923. In recognition of her service in the war, 1914-18, she was made an O.B.E., being created D.B.E. in 1927. She was also an hon. D.C.L. (Oxford) and hon. LL.D. (Sheffield).

FEBRUARY

1. Admiral Sir Cyril Thomas Moulden Fuller was born on May 22, 1874, son of Captain Thomas Fuller, 18th Hussars. Entering the Navy in 1887 he became a sub-lieutenant in 1893, and lieutenant at the age of 19. He then served as gunnery lieutenant with the Mediterranean Fleet until he returned to the senior staff of the Gunnery School in January, 1902. At the age of 29 he was promoted to commander. In 1905 he became Flag Commander to Vice-Admiral Sir William May, Commander-in-Chief, Atlantic Fleet. During 1908-10 he commanded the despatch vessel *Alacrity*, in China, attaining the rank of captain in the latter year. Then followed three years on the staff of the Inspector of Target Practice, after which (May, 1914) he took command of the *Cumberland*, training cruiser for cadets, and from September, 1914, was employed in the operations against the German territory in the Cameroons, where he was the Senior Naval Officer. Coming home, he was appointed in August, 1916, to the command of the battle cruiser *Eepuhe* in the Grand Fleet. In 1917 he was made Director of the Plans Division of the Naval Staff, and in that capacity headed the British Naval Section at the Peace Conference, 1919-20. He served as Chief of Staff to Sir Charles Madden until August, 1922, and then (by now a rear-admiral) went back to the Admiralty as Assistant Chief of the Naval Staff. In May, 1923, he became Third Sea Lord and Controller of the Navy. For two years, from April 30, 1925, he was in command of the Battle Cruiser Squadron, during which period he was promoted vice-admiral. In the spring of 1928 he became Commander-in-Chief, America and West Indies, but returned to the Admiralty as Second Sea Lord in May, 1930, the year in which he was promoted to admiral. After being somewhat under a cloud in consequence of the unrest at Invergordon, he left the Admiralty on August 31, 1932. He was made C.M.G. in 1915; D.S.O. in July, 1916, in recognition of his ability in the operations in the Cameroons; C.B. (Military) in 1919; and was created K.C.B. in 1928. In 1902 he married Edith Margaret Connel.

7. Major-General Sir Arthur Reginald Hoskins was born on May 30, 1871, and after being educated at Westminster School, entered Sandhurst, from which he was gazetted second lieutenant in the North Staffordshire Regiment in 1891. Five years later he served with the Egyptian Army in the expedition which recovered the Dongola province, his work being mentioned in despatches. He also took part in the advance up the Nile (1898) and the subsequent Gedaref operations, gaining another mention. In 1899, as commander of the camel transport with Wingate's flying column, he saw the final defeat of the Khalifa. A day after he was promoted captain in 1900 he received the brevet of major. During the South African war he served first as A.D.O. to Colonel Maxwell, Military Governor of Pretoria, and later as Intelligence Officer in the field. In 1903 he went to Somaliland to take part in the campaign against the "Mad Mullah." Towards the end of that year he secured a special nomination for the Staff College, whence he graduated in 1905. A year later he went to Egypt as D.A.A.G., afterwards G.S.O. 2, and remained there until 1910 when he was promoted substantive major and appointed G.S.O. 2 at the Staff College. In 1913 he was made Inspector-General of the King's African Rifles. When the war, 1914-18, began he was appointed A.A. and Q.M.G. on the staff of the 8th Division with which he went to France. He became G.S.O. 1 of the 7th Division in November, 1914. In the following March he commanded the 8th Brigade of the 3rd Division at Hooge and Bellewaarde, becoming Brigadier-General, General Staff, Y Corps, in October. In April, 1916, he received the command of the 1st East Africa Division, by which time he had reached the regimental rank of

lieutenant-colonel. Early in 1917 he was promoted major-general and was selected to succeed General Smuts as Commander-in-Chief in East Africa. In July he left that station to command the 3rd (Lahore) Division in Mesopotamia. Transferred to Palestine in March, 1918, he was present at the battle of Megiddo, which finally broke the Turkish armies. From 1919 to 1923 he was G.O.C. North Midland Division (Territorial Army), and from 1921 to 1926 colonel of the North Staffordshire Regiment. In 1928 he was Principal of the Philip Scott College at Overstone, and from 1929 to 1938 was Principal of the Bonar Law College. Hoskins, who received the D.S.O. in 1902, was made C.M.G. in 1916 and created K.C.B. in 1919. In 1914 he married Myfanwy, daughter of T. Williams, and had one daughter.

10. The Right Rev. Frederick Cyril Nugent Hicks, Bishop of Lincoln, 1933-42, was born at Dunstable on June 28, 1872, son of C. C. Hicks, M.D., and educated at Harrow and Balliol College, Oxford. In 1896 he took a lectureship at Keble College and in the following year, when he was ordained, became a tutor and, subsequently, dean. In 1909 he was appointed the first principal of the Theological College at Cheshunt, remaining there until 1920, when he accepted the rectory of Toddington, Bedfordshire. Four years later he was appointed rural dean of Brighton, in which town it was said, as proof of his popularity, that he held some fifty honorary offices. In July, 1927, he succeeded Dr. Greig as eighth Bishop of Gibraltar, where he stayed until 1933, when he was made Bishop of Lincoln on the resignation of Dr. Swayne. For some years he was general secretary of the Central Advisory Council of Training for the Ministry. He was also an active member of Convocation and the National Assembly, was a Sub-Prelate of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, a Governor of Harrow School, a member of the old Etonian Association, Visitor of Eton, of King's College, Cambridge, and of Lincoln College and Brasenose College, Oxford. A keen Freemason, he was Grand Chaplain of the United Grand Lodge of England, and Provincial Grand Chaplain of Lincolnshire.

13. The Earl of Midleton, K.P. (Sir William St. John Fremantle Brodrick), at one time Secretary of State for War, was born on December 14, 1856, eldest son of the eighth Viscount and Augusta Mary, daughter of the first Lord Cottesloe. He was educated at Eton and Balliol College, Oxford, where he was president of the Union in 1878. Two years later he was elected member of Parliament for West Surrey, a constituency which he represented until he was raised to the peerage in 1906. From 1886 to 1892 he was Financial Secretary to the War Office. In 1895, while in Opposition, he brought up the question of the supply of cordite to the Army which overthrew Lord Rosebery's Government, and in the ensuing Government of Lord Salisbury he was, until 1898, Under-Secretary for War, his chief being the fifth Marquess of Lansdowne. In 1898 he was transferred to the Foreign Office as Under-Secretary of State, holding that office until the elections in October, 1900, when he succeeded Lord Lansdowne at the War Office. At the end of the South African war he set about a scheme of Army reform by dividing Great Britain into six military districts, each with its own Army Corps, three of which were to be formed of Regular troops and three of Regular and Auxiliary troops. The scheme, which involved also financial decentralisation, was grandiose rather than practical and met with much opposition. More successful was his reorganisation of the Royal Army Medical Corps which ended the friction between the surgeons and combatant officers in regard to rank and in other ways improved the medical service. In October, 1903, he became, somewhat reluctantly, Secretary of State for India, but he was unfitted by temperament to work fruitfully with the Viceroy, Lord Curzon. From 1907 onwards he was leader of the Southern Ireland Unionists. He was made a member of the Irish Convention on its formation in 1917 and, at the invitation of Mr. de Valera, of the Dublin Conference, the proceedings of which led ultimately to the treaty. In 1921 he was elected a Senator of the Irish Free State. In the business world he was one of the founders of the Western Telegraph

Company, besides being chairman of the Globe Telegraph and Trust Company. He was also chairman of Raleigh School. His publications included "Ireland, Dupe and Heroine" (1932) and a volume of reminiscences, "Records and Reactions, 1856-1939." In the latter he revealed for the first time that he was not responsible for the "Brodrick" cap, issued while he was at the War Office, which proved very unpopular with the Army. It had been chosen by King Edward VII and Lord Roberts. He succeeded his father as Viscount in 1907, and was created an Earl in 1920. He was twice married; first, in 1880, to Lady Hilda Charteris, daughter of the ninth Earl of Wemyss, who died in 1901; and secondly, in 1903, to Madeleine, daughter of Colonel the Hon. John Stanley. By his first marriage he had one son and four daughters; by the second, two sons. He was succeeded by his eldest son, George, Viscount Dunsford.

23. The Right Hon. Lord Salvesen (Edward Theodore Salvesen), a distinguished Scottish Judge, was born in 1857, son of a Leith shipowner of Norwegian origin, and educated at the Collegiate School, Edinburgh, and at Edinburgh University. Called to the Scottish Bar in 1880, he soon obtained an extensive practice in shipping and commercial cases. In 1899, the year in which he took silk, he was engaged in the litigation between the United Free Church of Scotland and the Free Church. He was Sheriff of the Border counties from 1901 to 1905, in the latter year becoming for a short time Solicitor-General for Scotland. In 1905 he was raised to the Bench as a Judge of the Court of Session, retiring in 1922 when he was sworn a member of the Privy Council. He did much to reform the divorce laws of Scotland; in 1937, as a member of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, he secured approval of a Bill to this end which passed through the House of Commons in 1938. Largely owing to his efforts the Edinburgh zoological park was opened in 1913; he was also an honorary Fellow of the Zoological Society of London. He was chairman of the Scottish Public House Reform League. In 1886 he married Isabelle, daughter of Lord Trayner, and had two sons (both killed in action, 1914-18) and four daughters.

— Stefan Zweig, biographer and novelist, was born in Austria, of well-to-do Jewish parentage, in 1881. At the age of twenty he published a volume of poems, "On Silver Strings." Soon he gained distinction as a translator from the French, in particular of Verhaeren, Baudelaire, and Verlaine. In the short story, "Erstes Erlebnis" (1911), he first displayed the interest in sexual psychology which later found expression in many of his biographical studies, and to which he was attracted by his friendship with Freud, at whose funeral in London Zweig made his last public appearance. Zweig was a great traveller, wandering over Europe, America, and India; everywhere he was a student of life and everywhere he made friends. During the war, 1914-18, he wrote an anti-war play, *Jeremias* (1917), and made a German version of *Volpone*, both of which had successes in Austria and in England. In 1919 he returned to the analytical literary and psychological studies of his earlier works, and in "Three Masters" produced excellent essays on Balzac, Dostoevsky, and Dickens, which was followed by pathological studies of Tolstoy, Nietzsche, Hoelderlin, and Kleist. About the same period he wrote a number of striking, if unpleasant, short stories, such as "Amok." His international reputation, however, rests on his historical and biographical studies, notably of "Joseph Fouché" (1929), "Marie Antoinette" (1931), and "The Queen of Scots" (1935). A biography of Balzac, on which he was said to have set great store, and on which he had been working for several years remained unfinished at the time of his death. Among his later books were "The Buried Candelabrum" and a novel, "Beware of Pity." At one time his writings, which were translated into many languages, had an enormous sale throughout the world, and especially in Germany, but with the coming to power of Hitler their publication was forbidden, nor were they allowed to be imported into that country. A frequent visitor to England, he became a naturalised British subject after the German invasion of Austria. Zweig, who had been on a lecture tour in America, was reported to have committed suicide, with his wife, in Petropolis, the summer

capital of Brazil. He received a state funeral, attended by over four thousand people. Zweig bequeathed his correspondence to the Jewish National Library in Jerusalem.

26. The Earl of Selborne, K.G. (the Right Hon. Sir William Waldegrave Palmer), distinguished British statesman, was born on October 17, 1859, son of Sir Roundell Palmer, Q.O., a former Lord Chancellor who was raised to the peerage in 1872, and of Laura, daughter of the eighth Earl Waldegrave. After being educated at Winchester and University College, Oxford, where he obtained a first class in the school of Modern History, he embarked upon a political career and at the General Election of 1885 entered Parliament as Liberal member for the Petersfield Division of Hampshire. After the Home Rule split of 1886 he was re-elected as a Liberal Unionist, in 1892, being returned for West Edinburgh. In May, 1895, he succeeded his father as second Earl of Selborne, and after the General Election of that year was appointed Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, in the Government of his father-in-law, Lord Salisbury. His term of office covered the Reform movement in Johannesburg, the Jameson Raid, and the outbreak of the South African War. In 1900 he was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, holding that office until March, 1905. In addition to his work of re-organising the Navy in partnership with Lord Fisher, he was responsible for the setting up of the Committee on Naval Reserves which led to the formation of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve, and for the creation of the Royal Fleet Reserve of short-service men—"Selborne's Light Horse." He also instigated the Designs Committee which produced the "all-big gun" ship, but did not sign the contract for the first Dreadnought. Among other achievements of the Selborne-Fisher partnership were the Naval Colleges of Osborne and Dartmouth, the introduction of steam turbines, the use of oil fuel, the installation of wireless, and the introduction of submarines, the first of which was launched in November, 1901. In 1905 he succeeded Lord Milner in South Africa, becoming Governor of the Transvaal and, later, High Commissioner for South Africa. He was also president of the Inter-Colonial Council, besides undertaking the administration of Basutoland, Swaziland, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate. He held office during a momentous period which culminated in the passing of the South Africa Act (1909) and the foundation of the Union of South Africa. His famous Selborne Memorandum of 1907 was afterwards published in a Cape Blue Book, and, as a command paper, was presented to the Imperial Parliament. In 1915 he joined the first Coalition Ministry as Minister for Agriculture and Fisheries. Resigning a year later, he was made chairman of the agricultural policy sub-committee of the Reconstruction Committee. He was chairman of the House of Laity in the Church Assembly, High Steward of Winchester, and an Elder Brother of Trinity House. In 1904 he succeeded his brother-in-law, Dr. Ridding (first Bishop of Southwell), as a Fellow of Winchester, being elected Warden in 1920. For his services in South Africa he was made a Knight of the Garter in 1909. He was also a G.C.M.G., and an honorary D.C.L. of Oxford and LL.D. of Cambridge. In 1883 he married Lady Maud Cecil, daughter of Lord Salisbury, and had three sons and one daughter. He was succeeded in the peerage by his eldest son, Viscount Wolmer.

MARCH

3. The Duke of Aosta (Amadeo Umberto) was born in Turin on October 21, 1898, elder son of Emanuele Filiberto, cousin of King Victor Emmanuel, and of Helene of Orleans. His career as a soldier began in the war, 1914-18, during which he gained a medal for valour. Later he served in Libya, taking part in the operations which led up to the re-occupation of the Fezzan district and the capture of the oasis of Kufra, formerly the centre of the Senussi. In 1932 he was transferred to the Air Force with the rank of colonel. On November 20, 1937, he succeeded Marshal Graziani as Viceroy of Abyssinia. When Italy entered the War in 1940 he was appointed Commander-in-Chief in East Africa. In April,

1941, he left Addis Ababa with his Government before the Allied forces entered the city and took up his headquarters at Amba Alagi. On May 19, the whole of the Italian forces in that area surrendered and the Duke was taken to Kenya, where he died. For over twenty years he had been subject to tuberculosis. In 1927 he married Princess Anne of France, daughter of the Due de Guise; they had two daughters.

3. Dr. John Holland Rose, biographer and historian, was born at Bedford in 1855 and educated at Owens College, Manchester, and Christ's College, Cambridge. On taking his degree he joined the University Extension movement as lecturer, and in the course of the next twenty-five years covered many thousands of miles. He also lectured both in England and France during the war, 1914-18. In 1911 he became the first Cambridge Reader in Modern History, and soon afterwards was elected a Fellow of Christ's. He was also the first occupant of the Vere Harmsworth Chair of Naval History (1919-33). Outstanding among his publications was his *Life of Napoleon* (1902), which gained for him the Litt.D. degree in 1903, and which became the standard work on the subject. Next in importance were two volumes on William Pitt (1911). Other books of note were "The Mediterranean in the Ancient World," in which he endeavoured to estimate the effect of sea-power on history, and a collection of essays under the title "The Indecisiveness of Modern War." He was senior editor of the "Cambridge History of the British Empire." In 1880 he married Laura Haddon, sister of Dr. A. C. Haddon, and had one son and two daughters. In his will he left 2,000/ to the master, fellows, and scholars of Christ's College, Cambridge, to endow a conditional University Studentship to encourage the study of recent history of the British Empire with a view to its future service and welfare.

— The Very Rev. Sir George Adam Smith, Principal of Aberdeen University, 1909-35, and well-known Biblical scholar, was born in Calcutta on October 19, 1856, son of George Smith, editor of *the Friend of India*, and educated in Edinburgh at the Royal High School and the University. In 1880 he was appointed assistant minister at Brechin. A year later he was given the post of Hebrew tutor at the Free Church College in Aberdeen, remaining there until 1883, when he was called to Queen's Cross Free Church. For seventeen years he was Professor of Hebrew at the Church College in Glasgow. While at the Free Church College he began the serious study of the Old Testament which gained him renown. His first work was a running commentary on the Book of Isaiah. In 1900 his "Modern Criticism and the Preaching of the Old Testament" led to a charge of heresy, of which he was acquitted. As an outcome of travels in Egypt and Palestine he published "Historical Geography of the Holy Land" and "Jerusalem." For the Cambridge Bible he edited the Book of Deuteronomy. Two volumes on Isaiah, first published in 1888 and 1890, were issued again in a revised edition in 1927. He also wrote the article on Isaiah for Hastings's "Dictionary." Jeremiah formed the basis of his Baird Lecture. In 1916 he was elected Moderator of the United Free Church of Scotland, and was knighted. Since 1933 he had been Principal of the University of Aberdeen. He married, in 1889, Lilian, daughter of Sir George Buchanan, F.R.S., and had three sons and one daughter.

4. Nicolas Politis, Greek diplomatist, was born in Corfu in 1872. He studied international law in Paris, where, in 1901, he began to lecture on this subject, proceeding from Paris to the University of Aix (1899-1903), Poitiers (1903-10), and returning later to Paris as professor (1910-14). When the Balkan Wars broke out, Venizelos invited him to enter the Greek diplomatic service, and he represented his country at the Conferences of Paris, London, and Bukarest. Early in 1914 Politis was appointed Secretary-General of the Greek Foreign Office; from 1916 to 1920 he was Minister of Foreign Affairs, representing Greece at the Peace Conference in Versailles. Always an enthusiast for the League of Nations, he contributed to the work of founding the League, and was the permanent representative of Greece at Geneva. Later, till 1926, he was Greek

Minister in Paris. In August, 1925, he was recalled from Paris, and Politis devoted himself to his studies. He was a Vice-President of the Haag Academy of International Law and member of the Permanent Court of International Justice. In 1924 he published "La justice internationale"; in 1927, "Les nouvelles tendances du droit international," and in 1935, "La neutralité et la Paix."

8. Jose Raoul Capablanca, world chess champion, 1921 to 1927, was born in Havana on November 19, 1888. By the age of four he had learned to play, through watching his father, and at twelve won a formal match against the champion of Cuba. In 1909 he defeated the United States champion, Frank Marshall, and two years later was invited to compete in the international tournament at San Sebastian. Playing against all the masters of the day, except the world champion, Dr. Lasker, he took first prize. Negotiations were immediately begun for a championship match with Lasker, but the challenge was held up for nine years. Eventually they met in the St. Petersburg tournament on the eve of the war, 1914-18, and Lasker won by half a point, but when at last the championship match was played in Cuba in 1920, Capablanca won easily. Lasker, much below form, complained of the climate but admitted that his opponent was unbeatable. After holding the prize for six years he lost it at the first challenge to Dr. Alekhine. His day, however, was not over, and he defeated Dr. Euwe, afterwards champion of the world, in 1931, and tied with Botvinnik in the Moscow tournament of 1935. The characteristics of Capablanca's play were simplicity, mathematical exactitude, and a perfect sense of timing. He published two text-books in English, "A Chess Primer" and "Chess Fundamentals." An official in the Cuban diplomatic service, he was appointed head of the information service outside Cuba in 1927.

12. Sir William Henry Bragg, O.M., a distinguished scientist in his generation, was born at Wigton, Cumberland, on July 2, 1862, son of a master mariner turned farmer. Bragg was brought up on the farm, attending the village school, until his uncle, noticing his nephew's gifts, in effect adopted him and sent him to King William's College, Isle of Man, from which he won a scholarship to Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1884 he was Third Wrangler in the Mathematics Tripos. Soon after getting his degree he applied for, and somewhat surprisingly (for he had had no training in Physics), obtained, the Chair of Physics and Mathematics at Adelaide University, where he remained for twenty-two years. His first original paper, on a subject which he afterwards made his own—radioactive transformations—was published in the *Philosophical Magazine* in 1906. In 1909 he succeeded Stroud as Cavendish Professor at Leeds University. During the war, 1914-18, he worked for the Admiralty on the anti-submarine campaign. He then took up the post, to which he had been appointed in 1915, of Quain Professor of Physics at University College, London. In 1923 he became Director of the Royal Institution, Fullerian Professor of Chemistry, Royal Institution, and Director of the Davy-Faraday Laboratory. From 1935 to 1940 he was President of the Royal Society. In 1937 he joined the Advisory Council for Industrial Research. In addition to his great contributions to science in the field of crystalline analysis and X-ray spectroscopy, he was an effective advocate and exponent of scientific research in industry, and hardly less famous as a populariser of scientific principles, notably in his Christmas lectures to children. In 1915 Bragg and his son (afterwards Professor Sir Lawrence Bragg, Cavendish Professor of Experimental Physics at Cambridge) were jointly awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics. He was made C.B.E. in 1917, K.B.E. in 1920, and received the Order of Merit in 1931. Since 1920 he had been an honorary Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1889 he married Gwendoline, daughter of Sir Charles Todd, Postmaster-General and Astronomer Royal in South Australia, and had two sons and one daughter.

— **Dr. George Stuart Gordon**, President of Magdalen College, Oxford, since 1928, and Vice-Chancellor of the University, 1938-41, was born in February,

1881, son of the Procurator Fiscal of Falkirk, and educated at Glasgow University and Oriel College, Oxford. After a year in Paris he was elected to a fellowship at Magdalen College (1907), where he remained teaching, writing, and editing the *Magazine* until 1913, when he became Professor of English Literature at Leeds. During the war, 1914-18, he served with the West Riding Regiment, attaining the rank of captain. Invalided out of the Army, he subsequently resumed work at Leeds, becoming head of a small but versatile school. Meanwhile he had entered literary journalism, by way of *The Times Literary Supplement*, with a series of about twenty articles which led to his election in 1922 as Merton Professor of English Literature at Oxford in succession to Waiter Raleigh. In 1928 he was appointed President of Magdalen. Ten years later he became Vice-Chancellor, an office which he held until October, 1941. In 1934 he became Professor of Poetry at Oxford. He[^] was chairman of the Spoken English Committee of the B.B.C., and president of the English Association (1942). He delivered the Warton Lecture in 1923 and 1931, and the Andrew Lang Lecture in 1928. For one so well versed in English literature the output of his own writing was meagre. Except for anonymous articles, signed pamphlets, and editions of English classics, his only works of substance were "Poetry and the Moderns," and "Companionable Books" (1927), the latter being based on his B.B.C. talks. Posthumously (in July, 1942), the first collection of his writings appeared, entitled "Anglo-American Literary Relations." He left, however, several MSS. on which it was thought that his fame would rest. In 1909 he married Mary, daughter of J. W. Biggar, and had three sons and one daughter.

15. **The Duke of Atholl** (John George Stewart-Murray) was born on December 15, 1871, second son of the seventh duke, whom he succeeded in 1917. (His elder brother died an infant in 1869.) Brought up in Highland surroundings at Blair Castle, Perthshire, he spoke Gaelic before he learned English. Educated at Eton, he joined the Black Watch in 1890, being transferred two years later to the Royal Horse Guards. He served with the Egyptian Cavalry in the Sudan Campaign of 1898, was present at the battles of Atbara and Khartoum, and received the D.S.O. During the South African War he was attached to the Royal Dragoons, seeing service at Colenso, Spion Kop, and the relief of Ladysmith. In December, 1900, at Lord Kitchener's request, he raised a troop of horse—Tullibardine's Horse—which drew recruits from all parts of the Empire. At the end of the war he was offered the Governorship of Matabeleland, but he preferred to return to Scotland. When the war, 1914-18, began he again volunteered for service, and raised three brigades of three regiments of cavalry, 120,000 men. With the rank of brigadier-general he saw service in Gallipoli and Egypt, being mentioned in despatches, and was made a C.B. In 1910 he entered the House of Commons as Conservative member for West Perthshire, retaining the seat until he succeeded to the dukedom. As Lord Chamberlain of the Household, 1921-22, he was responsible for the arrangements for the wedding of Princess Mary. He Was Lord-Lieutenant and Hereditary High Sheriff for Perthshire, and was connected with a number of business ventures. The Duke, who had been better known as the Marquess of Tullibardine, held eighteen titles, and was the only person in Great Britain with the right to maintain a private army. In 1899 he married Katharine Marjory, daughter of Sir James Ramsay, Bart., who was herself a member of Parliament from 1923 to 1938. As they had no children the dukedom passed to the Duke's brother, Major Lord James Thomas Stewart-Murray.

21. **Lord Newton** (the Right Hon. Thomas Wodehouse Legh) was born on March 18, 1857, eldest son of William John, Lord Newton, his mother being a daughter of the Ven. Charles Wodehouse, Archdeacon of Norwich. After being educated at Norwich and Christ Church, Oxford, he entered the Foreign Office, serving in the Paris Embassy from 1881 to 1886. In the latter year he was elected to Parliament as Conservative member for Newton, Lancashire, a seat which he held until 1898 when he succeeded to the peerage. Henceforth his life

Was devoted to House of Lords activities. He held but two offices : in 1915 he became Paymaster-General in the first Coalition Government, and a year later was given the rank of Assistant Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, for which he declined to take a salary. His special duty was to arrange for the exchange of prisoners of war with the Germans and the Turks. The climax of his political influence was when he moved an amendment to the Aliens Bill in 1919 against the declared Wishes of the House of Commons and obtained its acceptance by both Houses. He wrote biographies of his old chief, Lord Lyons, and of the fifth Marquess of Lansdowne, as well as his own memoirs under the title "Retrospection" (1941). He was keenly interested in measures for the prevention of road accidents (he himself had been knocked down four times) and was an advocate of the twenty-four hour clock. He married, in 1880, Evelyn Caroline, daughter of William Bromley-Davenport, and had two sons and three daughters.

21. Philip Wilson Steer, O.M., artist, was born at Birkenhead on December 28, 1860, son of a portrait painter. In 1863 the family moved to Whitchurch, Monmouth, where he lived for the next seventeen years, attending Hereford Cathedral School. Later he studied art at the Gloucester School of Art. Failing to enter the Royal Academy Schools, he went to Paris, where he studied at Julian's under Bouguereau, and at the Beaux Arts under Cabanel. He first exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1883, the subject being an old man reading a newspaper. In 1883 he exhibited there again, but in 1885 was rejected (probably as a result of being badly hung), and he remained aloof until 1940. In an interview when the Order of Merit was conferred upon him in 1937 he explained : "I have no quarrel with the Academy. . . . I have not sent any work to the Academy for many years because I am a member of the New English Art Club, which is differently constituted and in which the jury, or selection committee, is selected by the members themselves." He had joined the New English Art Club on its foundation in 1885. Official recognition of Steer may be said to have begun in 1909 when the Tate Gallery trustees accepted his "Chepstow Castle," presented by Miss Mary H. Dodge. Since then a dozen works in oil and water-colour have been added to the national collection. In 1934 he was accorded the honour, rarely conferred on a living artist, of having an exhibition of his works at the National Gallery. Steer, who was unmarried, lived for many years in Chelsea, cared for by his old nurse and housekeeper, Mrs. Raynes, whose portrait in the Tate Gallery was regarded as one of his finest achievements. He himself figures in Orpen's portrait group "Homage to Manet." Many critics regarded him as the greatest landscape painter since Turner. He was for many years on the staff of the Slade Art School. Steer left his Chinese picture, "The Drunken Sage," to the British Museum ; his portrait in bronze by T. S. Lee to the Tate ; and his Sickert portrait was to be offered to the National Gallery.

24. Dr. Marcelo T. de Alvear, President of Argentina, 1922-28, was born in 1868, great-grandson of a Spanish admiral, and educated at the University of Buenos Aires. Identifying himself with advanced political ideas, he took part in the 1890, 1893, and 1905 revolutions, later becoming president of the Workmen's Housing Committee. In 1912 he was elected national deputy for the Federal Capital which he continued to represent until 1916 when he was elected for Buenos Aires Province. During 1915-16 he was President of the Executive Committee of the Civic Radical Union, Province of Buenos Aires. In the following year he was appointed Argentine Ambassador in Paris, where he remained until 1922 when he was elected President of the Argentine Republic. In 1930 he led the reorganisation of the Radical movement which resulted a year later, after the military and right wing of revolution of 1931, in his being requested to leave Argentina. Returning in 1932, he was arrested shortly afterwards, taken to Martin Garcia island, and subsequently deported, settling in Paris. Within two years he was back in his own country leading the Radical Party on the death of Dr. Irigoyen.

31. **Leonard Raven-Hill**, *Punch* artist, 1895-1935, was born at Bath on March 10, 1867, and educated at Bristol Grammar School and Devon County School. After studying art at Lambeth and at Paris under Bougereau and Aime Morot, he first exhibited paintings at the Salon in 1886 and the Royal Academy in 1889. His true bent, however, was for pen-and-ink work, and on his return to London he acted as art editor, first for *Pick-me-up* and then for the *Butterfly*, which he founded in 1893 and revived in 1899. His first drawing in *Punch*, with which his name became inseparably associated, appeared on December 28, 1895, and he joined the Round Table in January, 1901. In 1910 he was appointed political cartoonist on the death of Lindley Sambourne. He was twice married, first to Annie Rogers, and secondly, to Marion Jean Lyon.

APRIL

13. **Charles Oldham**, a distinguished naturalist, was born at Lincoln in 1869, son of a Manchester merchant, and educated at Manchester Grammar School. At the age of 16 he entered, rather reluctantly, an insurance office, but his distaste for business diminishing, he ultimately became assistant manager of the Commercial Union Assurance Company. When, however, in 1927 he was offered the joint managership of his department, he resigned and thereafter devoted himself to his lifelong interest—nature study. Already in his spare time his gifts as an observer had brought him into the front rank of field naturalists. At various times he was vice-president of the Linnean Society, the Ray Society, the British Ornithologists' Union, the British Ecological Society, and the Malacological Society. He also served on the council of the Conchological Society, the Ornithological Club, and the Freshwater Biological Association. For ten years he was the honorary secretary of the Hertfordshire Natural History Society, of which he ultimately became president. Besides writing numerous papers on his subject he contributed the field-notes for the first edition of "Witherby's Handbook of British Birds," and the account of the "Birds of Cheshire," written in collaboration with T. A. Coward. He was twice married; first, in 1895, to Fanny, daughter of S. A. Tyas, who died in 1900; and secondly, in 1930, to Dorothy, daughter of Charles Scorer, and widow of his brother Roger.

16. Dr. Hildred Bertram Carlill, specialist in nervous diseases, was born in 1882 and educated at Harrow and St. John's College, Cambridge, receiving his medical training at Guy's Hospital. He became M.B. and B.Ch. in 1907, M.D., M.R.C.P., and M.R.C.S. in 1911, and F.R.C.P. in 1939. In the course of his career he had been resident medical officer at the East London Children's Hospital, physician to Miller General Hospital, the Belgrave Children's Hospital, the Seamen's Hospital, Greenwich, the Victoria Chest Hospital, and the West End Hospital for Nervous Diseases. He had also been physician to the Ministry of Pensions, neurologist and psychiatrist to the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslar, and Hunterian Professor and Arris and Gale Lecturer at the Royal College of Surgeons of England. Since 1928 he had been visitor and lecturer for King Edward's Hospital Fund. He was a member of the Association of Physicians of Great Britain and Ireland, a Fellow of the Royal Society of Medicine, and consulting physician to Westminster Hospital and to the Western Dispensary. During the war, 1914-18, he served as surgeon-lieutenant in the Royal Navy. His publications included "Pathology of Amaurotic Idiocy" (with Professor Mott), 1911, "Hunterian Lecture on Syphilis of the Nervous System," 1918, as well as papers on hypnotism, hysteria, epilepsy, and other neurological subjects. He married, in 1922, Mildred Constance Godfrey, and had one son and two daughters.

19. **The Rev. Dr. John Daniel Jones**, Congregational preacher, was born on April 13, 1865, son of J. D. Jones, schoolmaster-musician, of Ruthin, and educated at Owens College and the Lancashire College for training Independent (Congregational) ministers. Ordained in 1889, he had his first charge at Lincoln,

where he remained for nine years. He then went to the church at Richmond Hill, Bournemouth, with which his name is connected. For over a generation his brilliant preaching and fine human sympathy filled the church with residents and visitors. He was a member of the conference of the Anglican and Free Churches which was set up after the appeal for Christian unity issued by the Lambeth Conference in 1920, signing the report with the two Archbishops. As an outcome of that conference he was the first Nonconformist minister to preach at an ordinary service in Canterbury Cathedral (January, 1925). He held several important offices in his denomination, being chairman of the Lincolnshire Congregational Union, 1898, of the Hants Congregational Union, and of the Congregational Union of England and Wales, 1909-10 and 1925-26. In 1919 he was the Union's honorary secretary. From 1921 to 1923 he was moderator of the Federal Council of the Free Churches; in 1930 was moderator of the International Congregational Council; and in 1938 and 1939 president of the National Free Church Council. He was also vice-president of the British and Foreign Bible Society. His publications included collections of sermons; "Things Most Surely Believed," a four-volume commentary on the Gospel of St. Mark, and his autobiography, "Threescore Years and Ten" (1940). In 1927 he was made a Companion of Honour. He was a freeman of the Borough of Bournemouth, M.A. of Victoria University, Manchester, and an honorary D.D. of the Universities of Manchester, Wales, and St. Andrews. He was twice married; first, to Emily, daughter of Joseph Runliffe, of Chorley, who died in 1917; and secondly, in 1933, to Edith Margery Thompson, of Bournemouth. By his first marriage he had one daughter.

23. Dr. Raymond Wilson Chambers, Quain Professor of English Literature at University College, London, was born on November 12, 1874, and educated at the Grocers' Company School and University College, where he was Quain student. He was librarian of the college from 1901 to 1922, assistant professor of English, 1904-22, and Quain Professor from 1922 to 1941. His scholarly devotion over a period of forty years to the study of the growth of English literature entitled him to be considered one of the foremost authorities on the subject, and in 1928 the British Academy, of which he was a Fellow, awarded him its Biennial Prize for English Studies. Practically the whole of his life was bound up with University College, first as a student and later as a teacher, and those who knew him intimately recognised his intellectual stature, his wisdom, and his humour. Outstanding among his publications were studies of Widsith (1912) and Beowulf (1914 and 1921); a source book, "England before the Norman Conquest" (1926); and a fine edition of Berner's Froissart (1901-03); his Life of Sir Thomas More (1935) was a masterpiece of biography, while "Man's Unconquerable Mind" (1939), a collection of essays on English learning from Beowulf to the present day, was acclaimed for its broad humanism and its deep scholarship. Chambers was unmarried.

24. Lieutenant-Commander Louis Charles Bernacchi, physicist to Antarctic expeditions, was born in 1876, son of A. G. D. Bernacchi, of Tasmania, and educated at Hutchins School there, and at the University of Melbourne (Observatory Branch). In 1898 he was appointed physicist to the *Southern Cross* Antarctic Expedition, after which he came to England and received the Peek Grant from the Royal Geographical Society, of which he became a Fellow, and served as a member of the council, 1929-31. He was also physicist to Captain Scott's National Antarctic Expedition from 1901 to 1904, and later travelled extensively in other parts of the world. In 1910 he unsuccessfully contested in the Liberal interest, first the Widnes Division of Lancashire, and later the Borough of Chatham. But the Antarctic remained his real interest; he was one of the originators of the Antarctic Club. During the war, 1914-18, he served as lieutenant-commander, R.N.V.R., in the Anti-Submarine Division. Chief among his publications, which included papers on terrestrial magnetism, meteorology, seismology, and atmospheric electricity, were "To the South Polar Regions"

(1901); "A Very Gallant Gentleman (No-surrender Oates)" (1933); and "Saga of the Discovery" (1938). In 1906 he married Winifred Edith, daughter of A. H. Harris, of Chichester, and had two sons and two daughters.

28. **Geoffrey Theodore Garratt**, journalist, man of letters and politician, born at The Granges, Little Tew, Oxfordshire, on November 7, 1888, son of the Rev. C. F. Garratt, was educated at Rugby and Hertford College, Oxford, where he graduated in Classics and History. In 1913 he passed into the Indian Civil Service, being appointed to the Bombay Presidency. After two years, in 1915, he took a commission in the Indian Army Reserve of Officers. He was attached to the 21st Cavalry, and fought in Mesopotamia, 1916-19. Returning to India, he was sub-collector at Poona for a year. For his work in famine relief he was specially commended and offered high promotion, but he was dissatisfied with the measures taken for dealing with Indian poverty, and he retired from the I.C.S. In the autumn of 1921 he went as Special Correspondent of the *Westminster Gazette* to Berlin, remaining there (with a visit to Russia) until 1923, when he returned to London. With the late T. Earle Welby he worked on the monthly, *Life and Letters*, and produced some reprints, among them James Hogg's "Memoirs of a Justified Sinner." In 1925 he bought West Green Farm, Barrington, Cambridgeshire. He unsuccessfully fought five elections, including Plymouth in 1937, when he predicted that if war came Plymouth would be bombed. He advised the Labour Party on Indian questions, and in 1931 was the Party Secretary in the Round Table Conference. He believed strongly in tariffs, but served as Secretary to the Labour Party's Advisory Committee on Agriculture, emphasising always the importance of the application of Socialist ideas to marketing and imports. He wrote two pamphlets, "Agriculture and the Labour Party" and "The Farmer and the Labour Party." In 1930 he visited Palestine on behalf of the Zionists, as an agricultural expert. In 1931, with a trip home in between for the Round Table Conference, he did welfare work among the jute-mills of Calcutta. In 1934 he was in Germany at the time of "The Night of the Long Knives," an event which convinced him that the Nazi movement must end in war. In 1936 he visited Ethiopia to help the cause of the Emperor and people. In 1937 he was in Spain, in charge of "Garratt's Grenadiers" (as they were nicknamed), a unit which evacuated refugees, and especially children, from bombed areas, convoyed ambulances and distributed food. In 1938 he spent two months in Finland. In 1939 he did refugee work in London and visited Czechoslovakia. In 1940 his first efforts to enter the Army having failed, he was Special Correspondent for the *Manchester Guardian* in the Russo-Finnish War, but later managed to join the Pioneer Corps. He was in charge of a company of aliens, and in April, 1942, was awarded the M.B.E. for gallantry and devotion to duty—he went on to a minefield and disconnected a number of live mines after bringing back the remains of two men who had been killed. His own death came by a mine explosion, in which over twenty were killed. His publications included "Hundred Acre Farm" (1928); "An Indian Commentary" (1928); "Organisation of Farming" (1930); "The Mugwumps and the Labour Party" (1932); "Lord Brougham" (1935); "The Two Mr. Gladstones" (1936); "Mussolini's Roman Empire" (1938); "The Shadow of the Swastika" (1938); "Gibraltar and the Mediterranean" (1939); "Europe's Dance of Death," published in the United States as "What Has Happened to Europe" (1940). He collaborated with Edward Thompson in "The Rise and Fulfillment of British Rule in India" (1935); and with Commanders Charlton and Fletcher in "The Air Defence of Britain"—a "Penguin Special" (1938). He also edited "The Legacy of India" (1937). In April, 1920, he married Anne Beryl Benthall; they had no children.

MAY

3. **Thorvald Stauning**, Prime Minister of Denmark, 1929-42, was born in Copenhagen in 1873, son of a wheelwright. He began work as a cigar sorter, subsequently becoming president of the Cigar Sorters' Union and editor of the tobacco

workers' journal. In 1906 he entered the Danish Parliament as a Social Democrat, having been elected to the Lower House as member for Fakse, a constituency which he continued to represent until 1928. He was then elected member for Copenhagen, where he had served as chairman of the City Council, 1919-24. From 1910 to 1924 he was leader of the Socialist Party in Parliament. Between 1916 and 1920 he was Minister without portfolio in the Zahle (Radical) Government. When at the elections of April 11, 1924, the Socialists were returned as the largest party in Parliament, Stauning was charged with forming the Government, and he became Prime Minister in the first Social Democratic-Radical Coalition, which remained in power for two years. In 1929 Stauning was again made Prime Minister, holding that office until his death. During the war, 1914-18, he was thought to have had pro-German sympathies, being closely associated with the German Scheidemann group of Social Democrats. In later years his policy of keeping the defence of Denmark weak caused much controversy, and in 1937 he was severely criticised at home for declaring that the proposed "Northern Defence Union" was a Utopia. In England he caused dissatisfaction by accepting an unfavourable balance of trade with Germany shortly after being guaranteed a favourable trade balance with Britain. On April 9, 1940, when the Germans sent their ultimatum, Stauning, Dr. Much (Foreign Minister), and the King agreed to advise its acceptance. A year later he again caused consternation in Denmark by expressing his confidence that Denmark would regain its independence in the "new order."

5. Lord Amulree (the Right Hon. Sir William Warrender Mackenzie), eminent as an arbitrator in industry, was born on August 19, 1860, and educated at Perth Academy, Edinburgh University, and University College, London. He was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn in 1886, joined the Northern Circuit, and took silk in 1914. From 1919 to 1926 he was president of the Industrial Court, where his services were of outstanding value to the nation. Among the many important inquiries on which he was engaged were those concerned with unrest in the South-west in 1917; women in industry; night baking; claims arising out of the police strike, 1919; the Shops Hours Act; and the Trade Boards Acts. He was one of the chairmen of the Committee of Production; chairman of arbitrations under the Munitions Act and the Wages (Temporary Regulation) Acts, of the Railway National Wages Board, of the Industrial Delegation to Canada and the United States, and of the Tramway Tribunal for Great Britain. He was also Government referee under the Electricity (Supply) Act, president of the Building Industry Council of Review, chairman of the Royal Commission on Licensing Laws and of the Royal Commission on Newfoundland. In 1930, at the age of seventy, he succeeded Lord Thomson (killed in the accident to airship R 101) as Secretary of State for Air. He was created a C.B.E. in 1917, advanced to K.B.E. in 1918, and made G.B.E. in 1926. In 1929 he was raised to the peerage, and a year later was sworn a member of the Privy Council. He married, in 1897, Lilian, daughter of W. H. Bradbury, and had one son and one daughter.

7. Dr. Felix Weingartner, distinguished conductor, was born at Zara, Dalmatia, on June 2, 1863, and studied music at Gratz, Leipzig, and Weimar, where he received the patronage of Franz Liszt. His first opera, *Sakuntala*, produced at Weimar in 1884, was followed by half-a-dozen others which achieved moderate success in the leading German theatres. Between 1884 and 1891 he won his spurs as a conductor in several German cities, and in 1891 reached the goal of Royal Court Conductor at Berlin. He composed seven symphonies, and a number of songs. In 1902 he played the piano part in his sextet for piano and strings at St. James's Hall, London. From that year onwards he conducted orchestral concerts in England, notably a Beethoven Festival at Queen's Hall, organised by Johann Kruse. At a Philharmonic concert in 1906 he conducted his own Symphony in G. In 1907 he succeeded Mahler as conductor at the Vienna Opera. After his first appearance in New York in 1905 he frequently re-visited America, notably for a season of opera at Boston, 1912-13. He directed

the early Mozart performances at Salzburg, and was connected with that festival until 1937. In 1924 he settled in Switzerland, conducting the famous Basle Concerts and acting as Principal of the Conservatorium there, a post he held for eight years. The "Weingartner Era" in Basle's musical life will long remain famous. Besides his work as a conductor he found time for writing and editing; his collected edition of Berlioz, made in collaboration with Charles Malherbe (1900), initiated the Berlioz revival. Weingartner's name, however, was most closely associated with Beethoven, particularly the Eroica and Ninth Symphonies. In 1937 he published his reminiscences under the English title "Buffets and Rewards." At a time when long hair and extravagant gestures were fashionable among musicians, he was conspicuous for his neatly cropped head and restrained movements. He died at Winterthur in Switzerland.

13. Ronald Kidd, founder of the National Council for Civil Liberties and general secretary from February, 1934, to December, 1941, was born in Hampstead on July 11, 1889, son of Dr. Leonard Kidd and grandson of Dr. Joseph Kidd—a Gladstonian Radical from Limerick who attended Disraeli in his last illness. He studied bacteriology and sanitary law at London University. His intended scientific career was cut short by the Great War. With the outbreak of war he enlisted in the Middlesex Regiment. He was invalided out in 1916 and went into the Ministry of Labour where he edited the *Ministry Gazette*, a confidential daily newspaper. When this ceased publication he transferred to the Ministry of Pensions but left when he found the Government policy of the reduction of war pensions irksome to administer. He then turned to free-lance journalism and publicity, with a brief excursion into stagecraft and the world of the theatre as a result of publicity work for his friend Lovat Fraser on the production of the *Beggar's Opera*. From journalism and publicity he turned in 1931 to publishing with a firm in the Adelphi. He was always keenly interested in politics, but refused to join any political party—not from lack of civic responsibility but because of a dislike of the typical party caucus. During all these years he was advocating and writing for progressive, humanitarian, equalitarian, and libertarian causes: for women's rights, for the protection of children and animals, in protest against the colour-bar, against political, sexual, and racial discrimination, and against social inequalities and injustices. It was one of these protests—against the treatment by the police of the Hunger Marches which he witnessed in 1932—which led to a controversy in the Press and finally to the foundation of the National Council for Civil Liberties. This non-party organisation was constituted to keep a vigilant watch to protect the fundamental democratic rights of free speech, a free Press, freedom of assembly and association—not only in the British Isles but also in the Colonies and Dominions. During the eight years of his secretaryship, the Council grew from a small unknown body with no financial support into a successful influential organisation under the presidency, first of Mr. E. M. Forster, and later of Mr. Henry W. Nevinson, with thriving branches in the provinces, and an impressive number of representative societies affiliated to it. It soon had to its credit a solid body of achievement, and gained a reputation for dealing promptly and effectively with live issues and for providing carefully verified first-hand information. As secretary, Mr. Kidd was indefatigable. He was never happier than when he was in the thick of the fight personally, investigating and reporting abuses and reactionary tendencies and focussing public opinion on these in order that they might be effectually checked. In 1934 his investigations in Northern Ireland led the National Council to set up a Commission of Inquiry into the working of the Civil Authority (Special Powers) Acts, Northern Ireland, 1922 and 1933, which published a vigorous and startling report. In 1935 he was an eyewitness of the Belfast Riots. In 1936 he was observing and reporting Fascist anti-Semitic disturbances in the East End and elsewhere, and the part played by the police. In 1937 he investigated the disturbances in connection with the Harworth Colliery trade dispute and published a pamphlet

on this. In 1938 he was engaged on the campaign for the amendment of the Official Secrets Acts and the Freedom of the Press; these demands were substantially met by the Government's Amending Bill, introduced early in 1939. In 1940 he wrote "British Liberty in Danger," which reviewed encroachments on civil rights since the Great War and present emergency war-time legislations. During these years he devoted all his energies arduously and unstintingly in his work. His health suffered. In 1938 he had a temporary break-down, but resumed his duties soon after. By 1941 he was working against severe odds of ill-health but he remained active. Six weeks before he died of heart failure he corrected the proofs of his last pamphlet on the "Fight for a Free Press." In 1916 Mr. Kidd married Isidora Algar. There was a daughter, Anne, who died in 1932.

15. **Sir Thomas** Oliver, Emeritus-Professor of Medicine in the University of Durham, was born at St. Quivox, Ayrshire, on March 2, 1853, and educated at Ayr Academy and Glasgow University, graduating M.B., C.M. in 1874. For the next five years he was in general practice at Preston, and then went to Newcastle-on-Tyne as Professor of Physiology in the medical school attached to Durham University. Later he became President of Durham College of Medicine, Professor of Medicine in the University, and from 1928 to 1930 was Vice-Chancellor. At Newcastle he was physician to the Royal Victoria Infirmary, and to the Princess Mary Maternity Hospital. In 1921 he was a delegate of the Australian Commonwealth to the International Labour Conference in Geneva. His special interest was the prevention of occupational diseases. He served on the White Lead Commission, 1892-93, and was medical expert during the Home Office inquiry on Lucifer Matches and Potteries, as well as to the Dangerous Trades Committee. He was Goulstonian Lecturer at the Royal College of Physicians in 1891, and Harben Lecturer at the Royal Institute of Public Health in 1905. His publications included "Metallic and Other Forms of Poisoning," "Dangerous Trades," and "Diseases of Occupation." Knighted in 1908, he was made a Knight of Grace of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1924, and received a number of honorary degrees and foreign distinctions. He was twice married; first, in 1881, to Edith, daughter of William Jenkins, who died in 1888; and secondly, in 1893, to Emma, daughter of John Woods, who died in 1912. He had one son and three daughters.

— Sir **Annesley** Ashworth Somerville, M.P., who had been connected with Eton College for many years, was born in 1858 and educated at Queen's College, Cork, and Trinity College, Cambridge. During 1880-81 he lived in France, after which, for two years, he was assistant master at Wellington. Early in 1885 he transferred to Eton College, where he remained for nearly forty years. From 1886 to 1906 he was an officer in the Eton College Rifle Volunteers (precursor of the O.T.C.), being Commanding Officer for the last five years. For twenty-five years (1892-1917) he was housemaster, and his connection with Eton lasted until 1922 when he was elected Unionist Member of Parliament for the Windsor Division of Berkshire. For upwards of thirty years he was a member of the Eton Board of Guardians and of the Eton Urban District Council, serving as chairman of that body for fifteen years. He was honorary secretary of the Eton Working Men's Allotment Society, and was a Conservator of the Thames. At one time he was chairman of the Assistant Masters' Association, for which he did a great deal of work, and since 1927 had been president of the Independent School Association. In 1938 he was created K.B.E. He married Ethel, daughter of Dr. Orange, and had two sons and three daughters. His portrait was painted by J. St. H. Lander, R.O.I.

16. **Professor Bronislaw Malinowski**, distinguished anthropologist, was born in Poland in 1884, and educated at Cracow University. In 1927 he was appointed Professor of Anthropology in the University of London, where his work made him famous all over the world. For many years, he travelled exten-

sively, making scientific researches in many parts of the globe. He accompanied the Robert Mond Anthropological Expedition to New Guinea and North-western Melanesia in 1914 ; visited Australia in 1918 ; made journeys in the United States and Mexico, visiting the universities and studying the Indians, 1926. In 1934 he attended the tercentenary celebrations at Harvard University as a delegate of the University of London. In 1930 he was made a corresponding member of the Polish Academy of Science; in 1933 a member of the Royal Academy of Science of the Netherlands ; and in 1936 was made honorary D.Sc. of Harvard and honorary member of the Royal Society of New Zealand. He wrote many books, some in Polish, but the majority in English. At the time of his death he was an active member of the Polish Research Planning Group, and of the Eastern European Planning Board. A temporary professor at Yale University, he died at New Haven, Connecticut, a few hours after presiding at the inaugural meeting of the Polish Institute of Art and Science, New York, of which he was chairman. In 1919 he married Elsie Rosaline, daughter of Sir David Masson.

119. **Sir Joseph Larmor**, distinguished as a mathematical physicist, Lucasian Professor of Mathematics at Cambridge, 1903-32, was born at Magheragal, Co. Antrim, on July 11, 1857, and educated at the Royal Belfast Academical Institution, Queen's College, Belfast, and St. John's College, Cambridge, where he was Senior Wrangler in 1880. From that year until 1885 he was Professor of Natural Philosophy in Queen's College, Galway, after which he returned to his old College as lecturer. In 1903 he succeeded Sir George Stokes as Lucasian Professor, a Chair once held by Sir Isaac Newton. Between the years 1894 and 1897 he wrote a series of memoirs on electromagnetic theory which formed the basis of "Aether and Matter," published in 1900. Larmor's theory that if matter is electrically constituted, any moving object must suffer a minute contraction in the direction of its line of motion, became the foundation-stone of the theory of relativity formulated by Einstein in 1905. For a time Larmor was a convert to Einstein's theory of gravitation, but in the end he rejected not only the curvature of space but even the standpoint of the earlier special relativity theory. From 1901 to 1912 he was secretary of the Royal Society whose Copley Medal, its highest award, he received in 1921. From 1911 to 1922 he was Unionist member of Parliament for Cambridge University. In his will he left many bequests, including one to St. John's College, Cambridge (3,000l. for annual awards to undergraduates); to the University of Cambridge (2,000l. to provide medical assistance to junior members of the University); and to Queen's University, Belfast (3,000l. for emoluments to students).

24. **Walter George Bell**, journalist and historian of London, was born in 1870, and after some training in art schools entered journalism in the north of England. From 1899 to 1936 he was on the editorial staff of the *Daily Telegraph* acting for a time as deputy editor. Apart from his newspaper work his main pre-occupation was research into the history of London, on which he became one of the leading authorities. His most notable books on the subject were "Fleet Street in Seven Centuries," "Unknown London," "The Great Fire," "The Great Plague," "London Re-discoveries," and a short history of the Roman Wall. In "London Re-discoveries" one of the facts he brought to light was that Samuel Pepys was born in a turning off Fleet Street, and not, as was sometimes stated, at Huntingdon. His knowledge of London was put to further use in his work as a guide to parties visiting the Tower and other historic places. He was a member of the Council of the Newspaper Press Fund, and chairman of the London and Middlesex Archaeological Society. He married Edith Phillippa Duckworth. The artist, R. Anning Bell, R.A., was his brother.

30. **John Barrymore**, one of the few actors to win a great reputation on both stage and screen, was born into a theatrical family at Philadelphia on February 15, 1882, his father being Maurice Barrymore, and his mother a daughter of John Drew. His paternal grandfather was an Indian Civil Servant, William

Blythe, whose surname he retained in private life. After an ordinary schooling, he studied art at the Slade School. For a time he was a reporter on American newspapers, but went on the stage at the age of 21, his first professional part being Max in *Magda* at Cleveland's Theatre, Chicago, in October, 1903. Two months later he appeared in New York as Corley in *Glad of It* (Savoy Theatre). In 1904 he came to England, playing Charley Hine in *The Dictator* at the Comedy Theatre. Thereafter he toured Australia with William Collier and then returned to the United States. His interpretation of Hamlet at the Sam H. Harris Theatre in 1922 proved so popular that he toured in it during 1923-24 and scored a further big success when he came to the Haymarket Theatre, London, in 1925. He first acted for the films in 1912, but did not become widely known until 1915, when he was seen in *Are You a Mason?* In silent films his best performance was in *Dr. Jehyll and Mr. Hyde*, which was regarded by many as his greatest screen achievement. In talking films he made hits in *Svengali*, *Arsène Lupin*, *Moby Dick*, *The Bill of Divorcement*, *Grand Hotel*, and *Borneo and Juliet*. In the film *Rasputin* three Barrymores—John, Lionel, and Ethel—appeared together in a cast for the first time. In *The Great Profile* he gave a brilliant parody of his own flamboyant personality. His autobiography, "Confessions of an Actor" came out in 1926, and an authorised biography of him by Alma Powers Waters was published in 1942 shortly before his death. He was married four times, each marriage being dissolved.

JUNE

2. Lord Askwith (the Right Hon. Sir George Ranken Askwith, K.C.), who won fame as industrial arbitrator, was born on February 17, 1861, son of General W. H. Askwith, and educated at Marlborough and at Brasenose College, Oxford. In 1886 he was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple and devilled for Sir Henry James (Lord James of Hereford), through whose influence he was appointed counsel to H.M. Commissioners of Works, and for the Crown in peerage claims, and from whom he obtained valuable training as an arbitrator in labour disputes. In 1907 he retired from legal practice on his appointment as assistant secretary in the Railway Branch of the Board of Trade. Two years later he became Comptroller of the General Commercial Labour and Statistical Departments and chairman of the Fair Wages Advisory Committee. From 1911 to 1919 (when he was raised to the peerage) he was Chief Industrial Commissioner. His outstanding achievements were the settlement of the great cotton strike in 1911 and the transport strike in 1912. In 1908 he represented the British Government at the International Copyright Conference in Berlin, and in 1912 visited Canada to report on the working of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907. During the war, 1914-18, he was chairman of the Government Committee of Arbitration under the Munitions of War Acts. He was chairman of the Royal Society of Arts, 1922-24, treasurer 1925-27, and vice-president, 1927-41. He was also president of the British Science Guild, of the Institute of Patentees, and of the National Association of Trade Protection Societies. He was actively associated with the Institut Français since its foundation in 1910, becoming the first president of the General Council on its incorporation in 1913. In 1908 he married Ellen, daughter of Archibald Peel, and widow of Major Henry Graham, and had one daughter.

— Dr. Andrew Russell Forsyth, Emeritus-Professor at the Imperial College of Science and Technology, was born at Glasgow on June 18, 1858, and educated at Liverpool College and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1881 he was Senior Wrangler and first Smiths Prizeman, besides receiving a Fellowship at his College which he held until 1910. In 1882 he became Professor of Mathematics at University College, Liverpool, but soon returned to Cambridge, and in 1889 was appointed Sadleirian Professor in succession to Cayley, whose* mathematical papers he edited and published. He resigned in 1910 and three years later was appointed chief Professor of Mathematics at the Imperial College

(1913-23), where a new policy had been framed to bring mathematical teaching into closer relation with that of applied science. His publications included a "Treatise on Differential Equations" (1885), which firmly established his reputation; a scholarly work on Plaff's Problem; "Theory of Differential Equations," a monumental work which first appeared in 1890 and was completed in 1906; "Treatise on the Theory of Functions," the first work of its kind in English; "Calculus of Variations" (1927); and "Geometry of Four Dimensions" (1930), in which he insisted that a curved space needed a flat-space of higher dimensions for its expression. In 1928 he edited Burnside's "Theory of Probability." He was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1886, and was awarded the Royal Medal in 1897. His wife, Marion Amelia, daughter of Henry Pollock, died in 1920.

6. Dr. George Andrew Reisner, distinguished American Egyptologist, was born at Indianapolis on November 5, 1867, and educated at Harvard, where he graduated Ph.D. in 1893. After working in Berlin and in Cairo he was, 1899-1905, Hearst Lecturer in Egyptology and director of the Hearst Egyptian expedition from the University of California. In 1905 he led the joint expedition sent out by Harvard University and the Boston Museum. He was in charge of the Egyptian Government Survey in Nubia, 1907-09, and during 1909-10 conducted the Harvard excavations at Samaria (Palestine). The two-volume record which followed in 1924 was regarded by many as a model excavation report. In 1927 he published in *The Times* an account of his discovery at Giza of the secret tomb of Queen Hetepheres, mother of Cheops. A complete account of his work in that district was published in 1932. For the New York Metropolitan Museum he obtained the Carnarvon Collection of gold and other objects. His last important work, "The Development of the Egyptian Tomb," was published in 1935. He had been Professor of Egyptology at Harvard University since 1914, and Curator of the Egyptian Department of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts since 1910. In 1892 he married Mary Putnam Bronson.

8. Morley Roberts, author, was born in London on December 29, 1857, son of an inspector of income tax, and educated at Bedford School and Owens College, Manchester. At the age of 19 he went to Australia, working on railways and on sheep and cattle runs. Later, 1884-86, he was engaged in similar occupations in the United States. He also took part in the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway. In the next phase of his career he served before the mast in sailing ships, and then obtained employment as a writer in the War Office and the India Office. His first book, "The Western Avernus" (1887), a travel book, did not attract much attention, and it was not until the coming of "Rachel Marr" (1903), which W. H. Hudson hailed as a "great book," that his name became known. Among his other works were "A Tramp's Notebook" (1904), in which the author revealed his unconventional temperament; "Time and Thomas Waring" (1914); "Hearts of Women" (1919); "On the Earthquake Line" (1924); "Tales of Changing Seas" (1927); "Bio-Politics" (1938); and lastly, "The Behaviour of Nations" (1941), in which he brought biological knowledge to the study of politics in order to show that the law of the jungle is the supreme and eternal principle of international relations. In 1928 he was invited to lecture at the Royal Institution on "The Sea in Fiction." A year later he exhibited fifty-two water-colours of Jamaica and Central America at the Abbey Gallery. He married Alice, daughter of Angiolo R. Selous.

11. Edward Geoffrey Toye, conductor and composer, was born on February 17, 1889, son of A. J. Toye, housemaster at Winchester, where he was educated before entering the Royal College of Music. At an early age he showed musical talent and when little more than a boy toured as accompanist with Tetrizzini. He was assistant conductor to Norman O'Neill at the Haymarket Theatre during the run of the *Blue Bird*, and conducted opera for Marie Brema

at the Savoy. In 1914 he conducted the Ellis concerts of modern music at the Queen's Hall. At the beginning of the war, 1914-18, he joined the Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, later going into the Royal Flying Corps as a photographic officer. Retiring at the end of the war with the rank of major, he worked for a time as a member of Lloyd's. During 1918-19 he conducted opera for Sir Thomas Beecham, and from then until 1924 was engaged for the Gilbert and Sullivan seasons in London. He also worked on the music of the film version of *The Mikado* (1938). He became a governor of the Old Vic in 1925, and of Sadler's Wells in 1931, being joint manager of opera at those theatres, 1932-34, during which time he composed the ballets *Douanes* and *Haunted Ballroom*. He was managing director of the Royal Opera, Covent Garden, 1934-36, resigning owing to differences of opinion with the directors over policy. In 1940 he joined the American Liaison and Censorship Department of the B.B.C. He was twice married; first, in 1915, to Doris Lytton Partington (Doris Lytton); and secondly, to Dorothy Fleitman. The first marriage was dissolved. By the second he had one son.

14. **Rudolf Besier**, dramatist, who was of Dutch extraction, was born in July, 1878, and educated at St. Elizabeth College, Guernsey, and at the University of Heidelberg. For several years he was on the editorial staff of C. Arthur Pearson, Limited. In 1908 he decided to devote himself to the theatre, and wrote many plays, chief among which were *The Virgin Goddess*, *Olive Latimer's Husband*, *Don, Lady Patricia, Kings and Queens*, *Buxell*, *Kipps* (with H. G. Wells), *Kultur at Home* (with Sybil Spottiswoode), *Secrets* (with May Edginton), *The Prude's Fall*, and *The Barretts of Wimpole Street*. In *Lady Patricia*, produced at the Haymarket Theatre in 1911, Mrs. Patrick Campbell had a part in which she burlesqued herself. *The Prude's Fall* (1920) was criticised on the question of taste, and *The Barretts of Wimpole Street*, which was produced by Sir Barry Jackson at the Malvern Festival in August, 1930, was severely condemned by members of the Barrett family but was well received by the critics and became Besier's best-known play. He married Charlotte, daughter of the Rev. J. P. S. Woodward, of Plumpton, Sussex.

21. **Dr. Charles David Sherborn**, distinguished zoologist, famous for his "Index Animalium," was born in 1862, son of the line-engraver, C. W. Sherborn, and after being educated at St. Mark's College School, Chelsea, went into business before deciding on a scientific career. In 1886-87 he studied at the University of Strasburg, and about that time was attracted to the study of geology and palaeontology, working under Thomas Rupert Jones on Foraminifera and Ostracoda. His early interest in bibliographical work was indicated by the publication of "A Bibliography of the Foraminifera" in 1888, and "An Index to the Genera Species of Foraminifera" in 1896. Six years previously he had collaborated with Sir Arthur Smith Woodward in "A Catalogue of British Fossil Vertebrata." Between 1894 and 1908 he undertook a survey of the "White Chalk of the English Coast" in conjunction with Dr. A. W. Rowe, and during the same period surveyed Western Cornwall with Upfield Green. In 1890 he began the scheme for an "Index Animalium," a gigantic task which was his main occupation for the next forty-three years. Its object was to list all the names of animals since the time of Linnæus, with the date and place of publication of each name. The first section, covering the period 1758-1800, was published by the Cambridge University Press in 1902. The second section, 1801-50, a much more formidable undertaking, which was sponsored by the Natural History Department of the British Museum, did not appear until 1933. Besides his *magnum opus* he helped Richard Owen with the life of his grandfather, Sir Richard Owen, and published, on his own family, "A History of the Family of Sherborn" (1901) and "A Sketch of the Life and Work of Charles William Sherborn" (1912). A keen collector of antiquities, he bequeathed his Byzantine coins to the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, and his prints to the Art Department of University College.

21. **John Alfred Spender**, editor of the *Westminster Gazette*, 1896-1922, was born at Bath in 1862, son of Dr. J. K. Spender, general practitioner and writer of medical text-books, and was educated at Bath College and Balliol College, Oxford. During his last year at the University he began writing articles, some of which were accepted by the *Pall Mall Gazette*. After a period of free-lancing in London his uncle appointed him editor of the *Eastern Morning News*, Hull, October, 1886. Five years later, as a result of differences with his uncle, he returned to London, living at Toynbee Hall. In June, 1892, he was appointed by E. T. Cook assistant editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. When that paper was sold in the following October both Cook and Spender joined George Newnes in the establishment of the *Westminster Gazette* as an evening paper. Cook left in December, 1895, on being made editor of the *Daily News*, and Spender became editor of the *Westminster Gazette*, which under his guidance attained wide influence, and won fame throughout the world. Spender was a great political editor and a great Liberal. In 1922, when the paper was turned into a morning journal, Spender resigned, and for the rest of his life devoted himself to writing books and articles intended to revive interest in Liberalism. He was a strong supporter of the Liberal Council, formed in 1927 under the presidency of Lord Grey, eventually becoming president himself. He served on the Royal Commission on Matrimonial Causes, 1911, and on that on the Manufacture of Arms, 1935. His publications included biographies of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Lord Oxford and Asquith, "The Public Life," "Fifty Years of Europe," "Government of Mankind," and his autobiography, "Life, Journalism and Politics" (1935). In 1940 he became Charter President of the Institute of Journalists. He was made a Companion of Honour in 1937. In 1892 he married Mary, daughter of W. G. Rawlinson, of Campden Hill.

23. **Ernest Bramah** (Ernest Bramah Smith), novelist, creator of Kai Lung, was born in 1868. In early life he was engaged in farming, but failing to make it pay, turned to writing and produced his first book, "English Farming: Why I Turned It In," in 1894. Six years later appeared the novel which remained his best work, "The Wallet of Kai Lung." In it he introduced with humour and irony, in a flowery idiom which he made his own, the fictional Chinese philosopher, Kai Lung. Other works in the same vein followed, notably "The Mirror of Kong Ho" (1905), "The Transmutation of Ling" (1911), "Kai Lung's Golden Hours" (1922), "Kai Lung Unrolls his Mat" (1928), "The Moon of Much Gladness" (1932), and "Kai Lung Beneath the Mulberry Tree" (1940). Although full appreciation of Kai Lung was limited to connoisseurs, his admirers were so enthusiastic that at one time there was talk of forming a Kai Lung Club. In 1914 Bramah began to develop another line of fiction, inventing Max Carrados, a blind detective, who became almost as popular as Kai Lung. With a learned "Guide to the Varieties and Rarity of English Regal Copper Coins" (1929) the author, who was personally almost unknown in the literary world, revealed yet another aspect of his versatility.

24. **Sir Edwin Cooper**, architect of many London buildings, was born in Yorkshire in 1873, and after being articled to his profession studied architecture in France and Italy. In 1911 he won his first competition by designing the Marylebone Town Hall. Among the best examples of his work were the Port of London Authority Building, Trinity Square, Tower Hill; Lloyd's; the Royal Mail Building, Leadenhall Street; and the Star and Garter British Red Cross Memorial, Richmond. The latter, said to have been his favourite work, he designed without fee. He became Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects in 1903, A.R.A. in 1930, and R.A. (of which he was treasurer) in 1937. In that year he succeeded Sir Edwin Lutyens, P.R.A., as president of the Incorporated Association of Architects and Surveyors, and was made an honorary member of Lloyd's, a distinction conferred on only eighteen individuals since 1824. He received the highest professional honour open to architects—the Royal Gold Medal of the R.I.B.A.—in 1931. If the purely artistic quality of his

Work might be open to question, he had few equals as a practical designer for business purposes, the Port of London building, with its rotunda 110 feet in diameter, easily approached from all parts, being a masterpiece of planning. Sir Edwin, knighted in 1923, married Mary, daughter of H. Wellburne, and had one son and one daughter. He died suddenly at his office in Gray's Inn, where he had worked for more than thirty-five years.

25. Hans Lietzmann, well-known German Church historian, was born in 1875 in Brandenburg, where his family had been settled as craftsmen for many generations. As a boy Lietzmann gave evidence of being mechanically minded, and wanted to become an electrician. But in his last years at the High School he was attracted by Theology and Classical Philology, which, after reading Usener's "Das Weihnachtsfest" (1889), he resolved to make his special subjects at the University of Bonn, where Usener was at that time one of the best-known teachers. Usener suffered with eye trouble and Lietzmann, at the age of 20, was fortunate in being selected by the master to be his amanuensis, a position he held for seven years, and one which afforded him splendid opportunities for apprenticeship in research. In 1900 Lietzmann became *Privatdocent* in Church History at Bonn; in 1905 he received a call to Jena; and in 1924 he succeeded Harnack in Berlin. The first half of his career Lietzmann spent in a number of specialised studies, e.g. "Appolinaris von Laodicia" (1904); a collection of materials for the history of St. Simon Stylites; and a comprehensive catalogue of Greek commentaries on the Bible to be found in the great European Libraries. It was in 1916 that he published his first large-scale study in "Petrus und Paulus in Rom" (second edition 1927). That a Protestant theologian should have given reasons for believing that the Apostle Peter suffered a martyr's death in Rome created a stir, and while in Catholic circles the thesis was welcomed, it did not find general acceptance. In 1926 Lietzmann published "Messe und Herrenmahl. Eine Studie zur Geschichte der Liturgie." He next planned a comprehensive history of Christianity in the Ancient World to extend to six volumes. Three appeared in 1932 as "Geschichte der alten Kirche," a masterly work; half of the fourth volume, covering the period 360 to 430 A.D., was ready for the press when Lietzmann died. Students are also indebted to him for his "Handbuch zum neuen Testament" (1928) as well as for other aids to learning. Lietzmann's mechanical mind found pleasure in all modern office appliances with which his study was crammed, including also a large telescope. His knowledge of astronomy was demonstrated in his "Anleitung zur Himmelsbeobachtung mit kleinen Fernrohren" (1922). Lietzmann died in Locarno, where he had gone to recuperate from a serious illness. His only son was killed fighting on the Russian front.

26. Mrs. Caroline A. F. Rhys Davids, president of the Pali Text Society, 1922-42, was born in 1858, daughter of the Rev. John Foley, vicar of Wadhurst, Sussex, and was educated at University College, London, where she had a brilliant career. In 1894 she married Br. T. W. Rhys Davids, Professor of Pali and Buddhist Literature, London, secretary of the Royal Asiatic Society, and Professor of Comparative Religion, Manchester University. Through her husband she took up the study of Orientalism, and together they worked on Pali and Buddhistic research and translation. She became honorary secretary of the Pali Text Society, which Dr. Rhys Davids had founded, and on his death in 1922 succeeded him as president. For three years from 1910 she was Lecturer on Indian Philosophy, Manchester. When the School of African and Oriental Studies was established in 1917 she became Lecturer on the History of Buddhism, holding the post until 1933. She was joint author with her husband of the two massive volumes, "Dialogues of the Buddha," but also wrote much on the subject independently, notably "Gotama and Man." She also edited Part IV of "The Minor Anthologies of the Pali Canon" (1942). One of her latest publications was "Poems of Cloister and Jungle." She had one son and two daughters.

JULY

1. Leon Daudet, French writer and politician, who had an astounding gift for scandalous controversy, was born in Paris in 1867, the son of Alphonse Daudet, one of the outstanding literary figures in France in the 'eighties of the nineteenth century. For ten years Leon Daudet studied medicine, but in 1894 abandoned this for literature. He wrote political articles and dramatic criticism for the press of the Right until 1908 when he joined Charles Maurras in launching *l'Action Française*, a journal devoted to the re-establishment in France of an absolute monarchy in close union with the Catholic Church. Daudet became the leader of the Royalist movement, but he was generally regarded as the buffoon of the Reaction. He became a convert to Catholicism, but he quarrelled with the Church. He was a reckless partisan; he could see no good in the Republican regime or in the parliamentary system, and his articles in *l'Action Française*, while they were humorous and amusing, were marred by lack of any sense of proportion and by their scurrility. From 1919 to 1924 Daudet was a member of the Chamber as Deputy for Paris, and there he delighted in the role of stormy petrel. In 1923 he was under suspicion of having murdered his young son, Philippe; he was sentenced for libel, imprisoned (1926), escaped to Belgium (1927), and returned to France in 1929. While in Brussels he did some of his best literary work, including studies of great figures of the nineteenth century, and in particular Victor Hugo, for whom he had a great regard, and whose granddaughter was his first wife. In 1900 he was made a member of the Académie Goncourt. His writings were not of the highest order; they included "Les Morticoles," "L'Avant-guerre," "Le stupide XIX^eme Siecle," "Le Quartier Latin," "Le voyage de Shakespeare," "Fantomes et Vivants," "Paris-Vecu," and "Un amour de Rabelais." He will perhaps be best remembered as a memoir writer, and especially as a chronicler of scandal.

4. Dr. George Charles Williamson, writer on art, was born in 1858 at Guildford, with which his family had long been connected as antique dealers, and was educated privately and at the University of London. At first he wrote articles of local archaeological interest, publishing a small book on coins of the neighbourhood, but he soon turned his attention to art, about which he wrote for the greater part of his life. His special subject was miniatures, in the study of which he was a pioneer, and he played a big part in the formation of the Pierpont Morgan collection, describing them in a four-volume catalogue. He also catalogued the Pierpont Morgan jewels and watches. He did much to popularise such artists as Ozias Humphry, Downman, John Russell, and Zoffany. For many years he was art editor for George Bell & Sons, the publishers, and he prepared an edition of Bryan's "Dictionary of Painters and Engravers." One of his most popular books was "Curious Survivals" (1923). His autobiography, "Memoirs in Miniature," appeared in 1933. Since that year he had been Honorary Remembrancer for Guildford. In 1883 he married Louisa Mary Lethbridge, and had two sons and one daughter.

— **Sir Alfred Daniel Hall**, distinguished agricultural expert, was born at Rochdale in 1864, and educated at Manchester Grammar School and Balliol College, Oxford. After being science master at King Edward VI Grammar School, Birmingham, he became a lecturer under the University Extension Movement, spending much time in Kent and Surrey and becoming more and more interested in agricultural education. Aided by E. J. Halsey, chairman of Surrey County Council, he secured the Latin school at Wye, and in 1894 he started the Wye College as a training school for agricultural specialists. In 1902 he transferred to Rothamsted, then at a critical stage in its history, and with the help of James Mason and the Goldsmiths* Company he overcame Governmental apathy and achieved considerable success. In 1909 when the Development Commission was set up Hall became first a member, then the leader, and finally,

in 1912, permanent adviser. By that time the Government's attitude to agricultural research had completely changed, and he was able to organise a system of agricultural education which came to be regarded as one of the best in the world. Besides his main occupation he was an authority on Florist tulips, working with his friend Bateson of the John Innes Institution, and on Bateson's death he himself took over the directorship. His publications included *'The Rothamsted Experiment,' in which he brought together the results of Lawes and Gilbert; "A Pilgrimage of British Farming," one of the most attractive books of its kind; "Digressions of a Man of Science." With W. B. Crane he produced a standard book on "The Apple." He was created K.C.B. in 1918, and was a Fellow of the Royal Society. He was twice married; first to Mary Louisa, daughter of John Brooks, of Edgbaston, who died in 1921, and secondly to Ida, daughter of A. Beaver. By his first marriage he had one son.

5. Commander Sir Walter George Windham, pioneer of motoring and flying, was born in 1868, son of Major G. S. Windham, his mother being a daughter of Lord Charles Russell. Between 1884 and 1888 he travelled four times round the world under sail. He was a member of the Plague Commission for the erection and maintenance of hospitals in Bombay (1897), and in the same year was mentioned in despatches for enabling 1,200 men of the wrecked troopship *Warren Hastings* to be saved. He also received the silver and bronze medals of the Royal Humane Society, and the Lloyd's medal. He was a Queen's Messenger in 1900 and a King's Messenger from 1901 to 1909. His chief claim to remembrance was his pioneer work for motoring and for aviation. He took part in the first motor drive to Brighton, and controlled the first aviation meeting in England at Doncaster. At the Bournemouth meeting in 1910 he entered a monoplane and a biplane, both constructed by himself. In 1908 he founded the Aeroplane Club, and offered a gold cup for the first airman to fly across the Channel—the prize being won by Bleriot in 1909. A letter flown for him by Hubert Latham from France to England was believed to have been the first letter carried by air. In 1910 he made the first passenger flight in Asia. In February, 1911, he started a temporary air service in India from Allahabad across the Ganges, and in the following September inaugurated an air-mail service between Hendon and Windsor. From the sale of special postage stamps and envelopes used on that occasion a bed for airmen was endowed at King Edward's Hospital, Windsor. He was knighted in 1923 and made a Freeman of the City of London ten years later. His wife was Helene, daughter of Spencer Chapman and widow of Captain Glen Kidson.

10. Lieutenant-General Sir George Mark Watson Macdonogh, Director of Military Intelligence in the 1914-18 war, was born on March 4, 1865, son of a Deputy Inspector of Hospitals of the Royal Navy, and after being educated at Beaumont went to Woolwich, being gazetted to the Royal Engineers in 1884. In 1895 he passed second into the Staff College, where his colleagues included Haig and Allenby. His first staff appointment—D.A.A.G. for R.E. in Dublin—came in 1898. A year later he was made brigade major and secretary at the School of Military Engineering, Chatham. Promoted major in 1901, he was transferred in August, 1903, to D.A.Q.M.G., Thames District, remaining there until November, 1904. He was appointed staff captain in 1906, G.S.O. 2 in 1908, and lieutenant-colonel in 1909. In the following year he was made head of the newly created branch dealing with foreign espionage, and attended as British delegate the International Conference on Aviation in Paris, and the Red Cross Conference in Washington. In 1912 he became G.S.O. 1 and promoted colonel. His work was mainly concerned with the preventive side of Intelligence—censorship of posts and telegraphs, regulation of travel, security of ciphers—but on the strength of his legal knowledge (he had qualified as a barrister) he was responsible for drawing up the Defence of the Realm Act, originally designed as a purely military code. In 1916, then a major-general, he was placed in charge of the Directorate of Military Intelligence, as distinct from the Military Operations

Directorate. He was promoted lieutenant-general in 1919, and from then until he left the War Office in 1922 was concerned with the problems of demobilisation. He retired from the Army in 1925. He was a member of the Royal Commission on Local Government; member of the Executive Council of the International Law Association, and of the Royal Institute of International Affairs; a member of the Imperial War Graves Commission; and president of the China Association and of the Federation of British Industries, 1933-34. He was created C.B. in 1915, K.C.M.G. in 1917, advanced to K.C.B. in 1920, and made G.B.E. in 1923. In 1898 he married Aline, daughter of Emil Borgstrom, of Helsingfors, Finland, and had one son.

16. Sir Alfred William Flux, statistician and economist, was born at Portsmouth on April 8, 1867, and educated at the Grammar School there and at St. John's College, Cambridge. In 1887 he was bracketed Senior Wrangler. Two years later his college elected him to a Fellowship which he retained until 1895. From 1893 to 1901 he was Cobden Lecturer in Political Economy and later Stanley Jeavons Professor at Owens College, Manchester. In 1901 he became William Dow Professor of Political Economy at McGill University, Montreal, remaining in Canada until 1908. He was assistant secretary, Statistics Department, Board of Trade, 1918-32. At various times he was honorary vice president and a past-president of the Royal Statistical Society; an honorary member of the International Institute of Statistics, of the American Statistical Association, and of the Czechoslovak Statistical Society; and was a member of the League of Nations Committee of Statistical Experts. His publications included "Economic Principles" (1904); a new edition of "Jeavons' Coal Question" (1906); "The Swedish Banking System" (1910); "The Foreign Exchanges" (1924); and numerous articles in the *Economic Journal*. As one of the foremost statisticians he was selected to organise and direct the census of production, and so efficient was his wholesale prices index that his methods were copied by other countries. He was made C.B. in 1920, created a knight in 1934, and received from the University of Manchester the honorary degree of LL.D. He was also awarded the silver and gold Guy Medals for outstanding statistical work. Sir Alfred, who died in Denmark, where he spent his retirement, married Emilie, daughter of V. Hansen, of Copenhagen.

22. Sir Allen Mawer, Provost of University College, 1930-42, was born on May 8, 1879, and educated at Coopers' Company's Grammar School, University College, London, and Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, where he took a first with double distinction in the English sections of the Medieval and Modern Language Tripos, and of which he was a Fellow from 1905 to 1911. From 1905 to 1908 he was Lecturer in English at Sheffield University, and from 1908 to 1921 Joseph Cowen Professor of English Language and Literature at Armstrong College, Newcastle. He then went to Liverpool University as Barnes Professor of English, remaining there until 1929. In the following year he returned to University College as Provost. He was an honorary foreign member of the Royal Flemish Academy, president of the Modern Language-Association, 1932-39; president of the Philological Society, 1936, and was vice-president of the Viking Society. He will be best remembered for his work as Director of Survey of English Place-Names and for the many books he wrote on that subject. In 1929 the Council of the British Academy awarded him the Biennial Prize for English Studies "for his contributions to the study of English place-names and for his work in organising the survey." He also contributed the articles on Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian subjects to the "Encyclopaedia Britannica." Sir Allen, who was knighted in 1937, married, in 1909, Lettice, daughter of the Rev. C. Heath, of Cheltenham, and had four daughters. He died suddenly in a train at Broxbourne.

23. The Right Hon. Sir Charles Henry Sargant, Lord Justice of Appeal, 1923-28, was born on April 20, 1856, son of a barrister-at-law, and educated at
KB 2

Rugby and New College. Oxford, where he gained a first class in *Lit Hum*, in 1879. He was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn in 1882, and pursued a lucrative if uneventful career until 1908, when he was given the post of Junior Counsel to the Treasury on the Equity side. In March, 1913, he succeeded Mr. Justice Parker as a Judge of the Chancery Division, where he sat for ten years until he became a Lord Justice of Appeal, resigning in 1928. In the following year he served as chairman of the Board of Trade Committee on Patent Law and Practice. His publications included "Urban Rating," 1890, and "The New Land Tax," 1931, an unfavourable but entirely non-partisan examination of a tax which aroused great controversy. He was created a knight in 1913 and sworn a member of the Privy Council in 1923. In 1900 he married Amelia Julia, daughter of Dion Gambardella, and had one son and two daughters.

28. Professor Sir William Matthew Flinders Petrie, distinguished Egyptologist, was born on June 3, 1853, son of a civil engineer, his mother being a daughter of Captain Matthew Flinders, R.N., the explorer of Australia, and was educated privately. From his youth he was interested in archaeology and in his early twenties he published "Inductive Metrology" and a book on Stonehenge. In 1880 he went to Egypt, surveyed the Great Pyramid, and wrote "The Pyramids and Temples of Gizeh" which remained the chief authority on the plans and dimensions of the royal tombs of the Fourth Dynasty. Three years later he returned to the Nile as one of the excavators for the newly formed Egypt Exploration Fund, with Professor Navellie, of Geneva, as his senior colleague. Unlike Navellie, who confined himself to great monuments, Petrie recognised the importance of even the smallest objects, and in the course of forty years built up a detailed knowledge which made possible more accurate "dating" than hitherto. A quick worker, he made it a rule that one year's results should be published before the next began, a method not entirely without drawbacks on the score of accuracy. In addition to the records made possible by the Egypt Exploration Fund he developed his own organisation, the Egypt Research Account, which grew into the British School of Archaeology in Egypt, although it was quite independent of official support. His most valuable works other than publications on excavations were a series of catalogues of the Edwards Collection at University College; "Methods and Aims of Archaeology," and "The Arts and Crafts of Ancient Egypt." In 1892 he was appointed Edwards Professor of Egyptology at University College, London, holding the Chair until 1933 when he became Emeritus-Professor. He was knighted in 1923, was a F.R.S. and F.B.A., and held various honorary degrees. In 1897 he married Hilda, daughter of D. Urlin, and had one son and one daughter. Sir Flinders Petrie died in the Government Hospital in Jerusalem, and was buried in the cemetery on Mount Zion.

29. The Rev. Herbert Edward Blakiston, President of Trinity College, Oxford, 1907-38, who was born on September 5, 1862, was of the fourth generation of a Durham family descended from Sir Matthew Blakiston, Lord Mayor of London in 1760. From Tonbridge School he went to Trinity College, Oxford, where he took first classes in Classical Moderations and in "Greats." After being ordained in 1887 he lived in Italy; then became an assistant master at Clifton; and eventually returned to his college as Fellow, Chaplain, and Lecturer in Classics. He was elected Tutor in 1892, Senior Tutor and Junior Bursar in 1898, succeeding H. F. Pelham as President in 1907. On the death of R. W. Raper in 1915 he took over the charge of the college estates, a task for which he was well fitted by virtue of his financial ability. Of the University he was Auditor, 1903-16, Vice-Chancellor, 1917-20, Curator of the University Chest, Visitor of the Ashmolean Museum, and Delegate of the University Press. During his term of office the University decided to accept a grant from the Government. Blakiston did not favour the step but he took a notable part in the work of reconstruction which followed. Besides the legislation connected with the Royal Commission, he was occupied with the Responsons Statute abolishing compulsory Greek, the new provisions for degrees in Divinity, and the admission of women to the University,

a measure which he strongly opposed. On September 1, 1938, he resigned. He had been president for thirty-one years, and had resided in the College for fifty-seven. He published "Some Durham College Rolls" for the Oxford Historical Society, and a history of Trinity College, besides an excellent translation of "Select Speeches of Cicero." His death was the result of a motor-car accident. In his will he left 12,000l. to the University of Oxford upon trust for the purchase of works of graphic art; 15,000l; to Trinity College to form a fund "for such purposes as the purchase of works of art or valuable furniture, or for extraordinary improvements to the decoration of the chapel, hall or library," and 2,500l. upon trust for University College, Durham.

31. Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Francis Edward Younghusband, soldier, explorer, and mystic, was born at Murree on May 31, 1863, son of Major-General J. W. Younghusband, and educated at Clifton and Sandhurst. Soon after joining the 1st Dragoon Guards in 1882 he went to India. Two years later he found at Dharamsala books and maps which had been used by his uncle, Robert Barkley Shaw, the first Englishman to cross the Himalaya to Yarkand and Kashgar. Fired with a desire to emulate his uncle, he spent much of his leave in the Himalaya, and in 1886 joined Sir Evan James in an expedition to Manchuria. Accompanied by a member of the Chinese Consular Service they rediscovered "The Long White Mountain" originally found by a Jesuit 200 years before. Not long after returning to Peking in 1887 he co-operated with Colonel Mark Bell in a march overland to India, travelling by separate routes. Younghusband crossed the Himalaya by the Mustagh Pass and shared with Bell the distinction of being the first Englishman to reach India overland from China. In 1889 he was appointed to the Foreign Department of the Government of India, and later was Assistant Political Agent at Chitral. He had left before the disorders of 1895 began but returned with the troops as Special Correspondent of *The Times*, reaching the Residency a week after the siege had been raised. In the following year he represented *The Times* on a mission to the Transvaal and Rhodesia, and was in Johannesburg at the time of the Jameson Raid. In 1903 he escorted Khamba Jong to the north of the Sikkim frontier to confer with representatives of China and Tibet regarding serious questions in dispute. When the Forbidden City of Lhasa was reached on August 3 the Dalai Lama had fled. Younghusband took upon himself the responsibility of demanding an indemnity of 5,000,000/., payable in seventy-five annual instalments, and other concessions, and left on September 23 feeling that he had accomplished something for his country, but he soon learned that he had incurred the displeasure of the Home Government for exceeding his instructions. The last four years of his service abroad was spent as Resident of Kashmir. Throughout his career he had brooded over the mysteries of life, and for many years had been keenly interested in religious problems. In 1924 he took an active part in organising the Conference of Religions of the Empire, and he organised the Congress of Faith held in London in July, 1936. His publications included "South Africa of To-day" (1898), "In India and Tibet" (1910), "A Venture of Faith" (1937), and to the volumes of "The Empire at War," edited for the Royal Colonial Institute by Sir Charles Lucas, he contributed the Indian section. He was created K.C.S.I. in 1917. In 1919 he became president of the Royal Geographical Society, a position he held until 1922. In 1879 he married Helen Augusta, daughter of Charles Magniac, M.P., and had one daughter.

AUGUST

3. Guglielmo Ferrero, famous Italian historian and sociologist, was born on July 21, 1871, at Portici, near Naples, the son of a railway engineer. After completing his education at Rome, Florence, and Pisa, he came under the influence of Cesare Lombroso. He began his literary career by contributing to *II Secolo* (Milan); later he became Professor of History at Rome, and in 1930 he migrated to Geneva, where he held the Chair of Modern History both at the University

and the Haute iScole des Etudes internationales. Ferrero, a great thinker concerned for the most part with diagnosing the crisis of western civilisation, possessed vast learning and an attractive style which was manifested at its best in his famous work, "Grandezza e Decadenza di Roma," a history of the Roman Republic, published 1902-09 in five volumes, which was translated into wellnigh every European language. The author was no dry-as-dust historian ; he had the gift of being able to make an epoch live again, as in his "Le Donne dei Cesari" (1925). The problems of government engaged his attention most. How is the miracle possible, he asked, that the few command and the many obey without coming into conflict ? This led him to draw a distinction between the healthy and the sick society, and to propound a theory of Social Pathology which he developed in "Tra i due mondi" (1913), in "Aventure : Bonaparte en Italie, 1796-97" (Paris, 1936), in "Reconstruction : Tallyrand a Vienne, 1814-15" (Paris, 1940), and in his highest achievement, "Pouvoir: Les genies invisibles de la cite" (New York, 1942). In his view the revolutionary epoch in France was a social catastrophe of the first order, paralleled in our own times by the revolutionary epoch which began in Russia in 1917 and has since spread in one form or another to other parts of Europe. Ferrero has been described as a conservative Liberal; he regarded Socialism, and in particular the writings of Marx, as an unhealthy theory of Society. His wife was Gina, daughter of his master Lombroso, herself a writer of distinction, who exposed the claims of the Feminist movement in "L'amina della donna" (1921).

3. **Richard Willstatter**, one of the greatest masters of organic chemistry in his generation, was born on August 13, 1872, into a well-to-do Jewish family in Karlsruhe. At the age of 18 he began the study of chemistry at the University of Munich under Professor Adolf von Baeyer ; at the age of 30 he was professor extraordinary at his University and director of the department of Organic Chemistry of the University Laboratory. He won distinction both as a teacher and research worker, and in 1905 he received a call to occupy the Chair of Chemistry at the Technische Hochschule in Zurich, where he remained for seven years. By this time his work had won renown among scholars, and when, in 1912, the Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut fur Chemie was opened in Dahlem, near Berlin, Willstatter was invited to take charge. He continued his researches there for three years ; in 1915 he returned to Munich as the successor of his teacher, Baeyer. He held the Chair of Chemistry for ten years, resigning in 1925 because of the anti-Semitic policy adopted by the philosophical faculty of the University. But he continued his researches in a private laboratory in his department, called after him the "Willstatter Laboratory." There and in his own home he carried on his work until 1939, when the Nazi terror forced him, despite all he had done for the glory of German science, to become a refugee. He settled in Locarno, and there spent the remainder of his life, a disillusioned and broken man. Yet his fame was world-wide. In 1914 he was made a member of the Prussian Academy ; in 1915 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Chemistry "in recognition of his researches in natural colouring matter and especially in chlorophyll." He was a member of many learned bodies, including the Royal Society and the Chemical Society, and was the recipient of honorary degrees from many universities, including Oxford, where he received his distinction together with Marshal Foch and Earl Haig. Willstatter was a pioneer in many directions. He made discoveries in the constitution of the alkaloids ; he established the structural formulae of cocaine and atropine ; his work on chlorophyll became world famous ; no less were his contributions to enzyme chemistry. His outstanding publications were : "Untersuchungen uber Chlorophyll" (1913); "Uber die Assimilation der Kohlensaure" (1918) (these two in conjunction with Arthur Stoll); "Untersuchungen uber Enzyme," in 2 vols. (1928); and "Uber enzymatische Systeme der Zuckerumwandlung im Muskel" (1940). Willstatter married Sophie Leeser, daughter of Emanuel Leeser (who held the Chair of Political Economy at Heidelberg), and had a son and a daughter. His wife died in 1907 and his son in 1915, aged 11.

9. **The Hon. Mr. Justice George Philip Langton**, Judge of the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division of the High Court, 1930-42, was born on April 22, 1881, and educated at Beaumont and at New College, Oxford. He was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1905 and joined the South-Eastern Circuit, but soon devoted himself entirely to the Admiralty Court. During the war, 1914-18, he obtained a commission in the R.O.A. and for a time was Garrison Adjutant at Queenstown Harbour. Later he was transferred to the Intelligence Department of the War Office, and in 1916 became Director of the Labour Department and Commissioner for Labour Disputes at the Ministry of Munitions. He returned to practice in 1919, and took silk in 1925. When candidates for the vacancy on the Bench caused by the retirement of Mr. Justice Hill were being considered it was thought that Langton's religious views—he was a Roman Catholic—would be an obstacle to his preferment. But he was appointed, and he proved a very capable Judge, the first of his faith to preside over the Divorce Court. For many years he was English Member of the Comité Maritime International, and was vice-chairman of the Council of Legal Education and chairman of the Board of Studies. In 1919 he married Katherine, daughter of D. F. Leahy, D.L., and had one daughter. The body of Mr. Justice Langton, who had been staying at Burnham-on-Sea, was recovered from the river Parrot near Bridgewater.

12. **Dr. Arthur Percival Newton**, formerly Rhodes Professor of Imperial History at King's College, London, was born on July 23, 1873, and educated at King Edward's School, at Mason College, and at King's College, London, where he graduated in both Science and Arts, in the latter taking first-class honours in history, and later proceeding to the degree of D.Lit. He began his career at King's College as assistant lecturer in Physics, but his real bent was History. From 1914 to 1918 he was lecturer in American and Colonial History, and during the same period held the post of Rhodes lecturer at University and King's Colleges, and of secretary of the Imperial Studies Committee of the University. Since 1914 he had been organiser of a similar committee of the Royal Empire Society, and from 1924 had been vice-president of the Historical Association. He was also vice-president of the Royal Historical Society. During 1919-20 he visited Universities in the British Dominions and the United States under the auspices of the Universities Bureau of Empire and Institute of International Education; and in 1928-29 was in India as Professor in the University of the Punjab and Reader in the University of Calcutta. In 1938 he received the gold medal of the Royal Empire Society. He wrote "Travel and Travellers in the Middle Ages" (1926), which was regarded as the most important contribution to the history of medieval travel since Beazley's "Dawn of Modern Geography"; and "The Great Age of Discovery" (1932), a continuation of the travel book. He was editor of "Select Documents Relating to the Unification of South Africa" (1924) and joint editor of "The Cambridge History of the British Empire." He was twice married; first, in 1899, to Lily, daughter of H. Denby; and secondly, in 1920, to Maud Muriel, daughter of T. Moody, of Barton, Hampshire. He had two daughters.

14. **Major-General Lord Loch** (the Right Hon. Edward Douglas Loch) was born on April 4, 1873, only son of the first Baron Loch, whom he succeeded in 1900. After being educated at Winchester he entered the Army, receiving his first commission in the Grenadier Guards, 1893. During the Sudan campaign he gained the D.S.O. and the Khedive's Star and Clasp. Soon after the South African War began he became a divisional signalling officer, took part in several actions, and was severely wounded. From 1903 to 1905 he was adjutant, 1st Battalion, Grenadier Guards; 1910-11, brigade major, 3rd Infantry Brigade; and from 1911 to 1914 was G.S.O. 2 at the War Office. Early in the war, 1914-18, he went to France, and served as G.S.O. 1, lieutenant-colonel, Grenadier Guards, brigadier-general on the staff, and as a brigade commander. From 1911 to 1914 he was a Lord-in-Waiting to King George V, and from 1929 to 1931 was Captain

of the King's Bodyguard of the Yeomen of the Guard. In 1928 he succeeded Field-Marshal Earl Haig as chairman of the United Services Fund, and was chairman of the Governors of Dulwich College, and joint treasurer of University College, London. He took a prominent part in Suffolk county affairs, being an alderman of the County Council, a D.L., and a J.P. Keenly interested in sport, particularly greyhound racing, he was chairman of the Greyhound Racing Association Trust Limited. In 1941 he was appointed an Area Commander of the Home Guard. In 1915 he was made C.M.G., in 1918 C.B., and in 1919 was promoted major-general. He married, in 1905, Lady Margaret Louisa Lizze Compton, daughter of the fifth Marquess of Northampton, and had two sons and three daughters.

17. **Lord Mancroft** (the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Michael Samuel, Bart.) was born of Jewish parentage on December 6, 1872, in the Mancroft district of Norwich, with which his family had been associated for many generations. After being educated at Norwich Grammar School he subsequently became head of one of the family businesses, retiring in 1912 to devote himself to public work and writing. During the war, 1914-18, he assisted the Director of Munitions Contracts at the War Office, continuing at the Ministry of Munitions. In 1916, while reorganising the Association of British Chambers of Commerce in collaboration with Sir Algernon Firth, he arranged a national conference of all the chambers in the United Kingdom to consider a scheme for trade after the war. The principles then adopted became the basis of the trade policy agreed upon at the Paris Conference in 1916. In 1918 he was elected Conservative member of Parliament for the Farnham Division of Surrey, which he continued to represent until he was raised to the peerage in 1937. In the Baldwin Government of 1924 he was Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade and Minister for the Department of Overseas Trade. In 1927 he was promoted Financial Secretary to the Treasury, remaining there until Mr. Baldwin was defeated in 1929. During his term of office he handled the Currency and Bank Notes Act of 1928, the first measure to alter the Bank of England note issue since Peel's Bank Act of 1844. From 1929 to 1931 he was Conservative chairman of the House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts. His writings included a monograph on the eighteenth-century Italian etcher, Piranesi (1910); "The Herring: Its Effect upon the History of Britain" (1918); "The Working of the Bill of Exchange, with an Explanation of the Overseas Trade Balance" (a companion volume to Goschen's "Theory of the Foreign Exchanges"); "The Mancroft Essays," selected from the "middles" in the *Saturday Review*; and numerous articles in the *Trade Supplement of The Times*. While at the Department of Overseas Trade he initiated the "Come to Britain Movement." He was Lord Mayor of Norwich 1912-13, and received the freedom of that city in 1928. He was a generous benefactor of Norwich Hospital, the Eye Infirmary, the Castle Museum, and Picture Gallery; and he presented to the city the George Borrow Museum. He was created a baronet in 1932. In 1912 he married Phoebe, daughter of G. A. C. Fletcher, medical officer to the Charterhouse, London, and had one son and two daughters.

21. **Viscount Dunedin** (the Right Hon. Sir Andrew Graham Murray) was born on November 21, 1849, son of T. G. Murray, Crown Agent for Scotland, and was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1872. Two years later he was called to the Scottish Bar, on the same day as his friend, Robert Louis Stevenson. In 1890 he was made Sheriff of Perthshire, and in 1891 became a Q.C., Conservative member of Parliament for Bute, and Solicitor-General for Scotland. A year later, however, when the Liberals returned to power, he went back to the Bar. On the fall of the Rosebery Government in 1895 he resumed his post as Solicitor-General, but shortly afterwards became Lord Advocate. In 1898 he was made Secretary for Scotland, continuing in that office until 1905, when he succeeded Lord Kinross as Lord President, and received a barony. For eight years he presided over the First Division of the Inner

House, exhibiting the highest judicial qualities. After sitting from time to time in the House of Lords hearing appeals, he was appointed a Lord of Appeal in Ordinary in 1913, following the passing of the Appellate Jurisdiction Act of that year which enabled the creation of two additional Lords of Appeal. In 1932 he resigned. He was sworn of the Privy Council in 1896, created K.C.V.O. in 1908, advanced to G.C.V.O. in 1923, and was made a viscount in 1926. In 1900 he was appointed Keeper of the Great Seal of the Principality of Scotland. A keen golfer, he was senior member of the Royal and Ancient Golf Club. He was also an accomplished photographer, and at the age of eighty-nine was elected president of the Amateur Cinematograph Institute. He was twice married; first, in 1874, to Mary Clementina (daughter of Admiral Sir William Edmondstone), who died in 1922; and secondly, to Jean Eimslie, Director of Scottish Savings (daughter of George Findlay of Aberdeen). By his first marriage he had one son and two daughters. His son having died in 1934 without issue the peerage became extinct.

23. **Michel Fokine**, chief choreographer of the Russian ballet, was born in St. Petersburg in 1880, and began his studies as a dancer under Mme. Karsavina's father at the Imperial School of Ballet attached to the Maryinsky Theatre. At an early age he crystallised his ideas for the reform of conventional ballet in a memorandum attached to the scenario of one of his first ballets. Realisation became possible when he met Benois and was drawn into Diaghilev's circle. During the famous Paris season of 1909 he produced *Les Sylphides*, *Le Pavillon (d'Armide)*, *Cleopatre*, and *Prince Igor*. Among later masterpieces were *UOisean de Feu*, *ScMterazade*, *Le Spectre de hi Rose*, *Le Goq d'Or*, *Paganini*, and *Petrouchka*, which was regarded by many as the greatest of all his dances. For Pavlova he devised the famous *Le Cygne*. In the course of his career he created upwards of seventy major ballets. In his younger days he was an accomplished dancer himself, but it was his work as a choreographer that gained for him a high place among the creative artists of the twentieth century. Fokine died from pneumonia in New York soon after returning from a professional visit to Mexico City.

25. **Air Commodore H.R.H. the Duke of Kent** (christened George Edward Alexander Edmund) was born on December 20, 1902, fourth son of King George V and Queen Mary. Prince George, as he was first called, began his education at St. Peter's Court, a preparatory school at Broadstairs, and then entered the Royal Naval College at Osborne, 1916, passing out from Dartmouth four years later. After serving in several ships as midshipman he went to the China station, subsequently joining H.M.S. *Nelson* for duties on the staff of the Commander-in-Chief. As the Prince's constitution was never robust, necessitating several periods of sick leave, the King, in 1929, advised that he should be withdrawn from active service with the Navy and should devote himself to civilian duties*. Accordingly he entered the Foreign Office, later moving to the Home Office, where he concentrated on the inspection of factories. He was thus the first member of the Royal Family to work as a Civil servant. In 1931 he made an extended tour of the industrial areas, visiting factories with Home Office inspectors. With his brother, the Prince of Wales, he went to Canada in 1927, and to South America and Sweden in 1932. In November, 1934, he married Princess Marina of Greece and Denmark, a first cousin of King George of Greece and a great-niece of Queen Alexandra, settling at No. 3 Belgrave Square. In the following year he inherited from his aunt, Princess Victoria, The Coppins, at Iver in Buckingham, which became the family seat. His appointment as Governor-General of Australia, due to take effect in November, 1939, had to be postponed owing to the war. In 1940 he went to Portugal to represent King George VI at the celebrations in connection with the 800th anniversary of the founding of the State and the 300th of Portuguese independence. In 1941 he toured by air Canada and the United States, visiting President Roosevelt. He received the Order of the Garter at the age of 21, was admitted a Freeman of the City of

London in 1924, was created Duke of Kent in 1934, and a year later was made a Knight of the Thistle. The Duke and Duchess had three children—Prince Edward, born 1935; Princess Alexandra, born on Christmas Day, 1936; and Michael George Charles Franklin (the last name being in honour of President Roosevelt), born on July 4, 1942. At the time of his death the Duke was Chief Welfare Officer of the R.A.F. Home Command. He was killed on active service when a Sunderland flying boat on its way to Iceland crashed in the north of Scotland.

SEPTEMBER

8. **Julius Olsson**, painter of the sea, was born in London, of Scandinavian ancestry, in 1864, and had no formal art training. In early manhood he went to St. Ives, Cornwall, where he lived for some twenty years, becoming a respected local figure. He first exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1890. He was a member of the Royal Institute of Oil Painters (president in 1919), won two gold medals at the Paris Salon, and was twice on the International Jury of the Carnegie Institute, Pittsburgh. In 1911 the Chantrey Trustees bought for the Tate Gallery his "Moonlit Bay," painted at Carbis Bay. He was elected A.R.A. in 1914 and R. A. in 1920. Olsson, who had been described as a romantic naturalist of the old school, specialised in paintings of coast scenes, often during stormy weather. In 1925 he married Edith Mary Ellison, of Castlereagh. He died suddenly at Dalkey, County Dublin, his English house having been damaged in an air raid.

12. **Patrick Reginald Chalmers**, a writer of light verse, was born in 1875 at Auldbar in Angus, of which his father was laird, and educated at Rugby. He then entered the family merchant-banking house of Chalmers, Guthrie & Company, becoming managing director in 1901, and resigning in 1922. He began his literary career by sending spare-time contributions of light verse to periodicals, including *Punch*, of which in due course he became a regular contributor. He produced more than thirty volumes of verse and prose. Among his chief books of verse were "Green Days and Blue Days" (1912), "A Peck o' Maut" (1914), "Pipes and Tabors" (1921), and "Away to the Maypole" (1927). Many of his songs were set to music by distinguished composers, and have been illustrated by sympathetic artists. His prose included a "History of Hunting" in the Lonsdale Library; biographies of Kenneth Grahame and J. M. Barrie; and a novel, "The Golden Bee," in which he made use of his banking experience. He married, in 1917, Winifred, daughter of Canon Arnott, of Beckenham, but had no children.

23. **Colonel Sir David Harris**, a pioneer in South Africa, was born in London on July 12, 1852, son of Woolf Harris, a Freeman of the City of London. At the age of 19 he emigrated to the diamond fields of Kimberley, and for many years was a digger in the Dutoitspan and Bultfontein Mines. He then joined the firm of Barnato Brothers, in time becoming a director of the De Beers Consolidated Mines (1891), chairman of Jagersfontein Diamond Mining Company, of the South African Collieries, and of the Natal Steam Coal Company. His military career began in 1876 when he joined the Diamond Fields Horse and marched to the relief of Griquatown. He helped to form the Victoria Rifles, and later commanded the Griqualand West Brigade, a composite body which eventually became the Kimberley Regiment. During the South African War he commanded the Kimberley Town Guard, taking part in the siege, for which he has thanked by the High Commissioner. When Barney Barnato (his cousin) died, Rhodes, who was an old friend, asked Harris to stand for Parliament in his place, and in 1897 he was elected for Kimberley. For many years he represented the diamond industry in the Cape House. He was returned for Barkly West when the seat became vacant through the death of Rhodes, and held it until after the Union, when he transferred to Beaconsfield, a suburb of Kimberley, where he lived. His reminiscences under the title of "Pioneer, Soldier, and Politician" were

published in 1931. He was made C.M.G. in 1900 and advanced to K.C.M.G. in 1911. In 1873 he married Rosa Gabriel, the first marriage to be celebrated at the Kimberley Synagogue.

26. **Prebendary Wilson Carlile**, founder and honorary chief secretary of the Church Army, was born at Brixton on January 14, 1847, son of a Cheapside merchant of Scottish ancestry, his mother being a Yorkshire woman whose maiden name was Wilson. At the age of 14 he entered his grandfather's business, but later studied for a year in a French school at Lille. By the time he was 21 the business had become his own. In 1873, however, he lost his money in a financial crash long known in the City as "Black Friday." On recovering his health he joined a body of Plymouth Brethren who worked among the young hooligans in Blackfriars. Although his religious upbringing had been strictly Nonconformist, he now followed his father into the Church of England. When Moody and Sankey came to England in 1875 Carlile joined them. Later he went to Highbury College, being ordained deacon in 1880, and becoming priest a year later, with a title to St. Mary Abbot's, under Carr Glyn. There he developed outdoor services and street marching, with musical accompaniment, he himself playing the trombone. Frequently he and his friends were attacked by organised gangs of roughs. In the course of the work he became acquainted with a number of working men whom he wished to employ entirely in evangelistic work, and to that end he founded the Church Army, which first appeared in Westminster in December, 1882. Before his death the Church Army had grown into an organisation with 1,000 commissioned officers, headquarters consisting of sixty departments, and an annual income of nearly 500,000/. In 1891 Carlile became rector of St. Mary-at-Hill in the City, resigning in 1926. After thoroughly cleaning the church he turned the rectory into an informal employment bureau; held lantern services on Sunday evenings; paraded the streets with a brass band; and appealed for gifts in kind for the poor. For the unemployed he instituted labour yards and lodgings all over the country. At Hempstead Hall, Essex, lads were trained for agricultural work in Australia, and a scheme of emigration was carefully devised. In 1926 Carlile visited the United States and Canada, making known the methods and social work of the Church Army. In July, 1942, he was succeeded, at his own suggestion, by the Rev. Hubert H. Treacher, rector of Hanley, Stoke-on-Trent, but retained the office and title of honorary chief secretary. On his ninetieth birthday he received a message of congratulation and good wishes from the King and Queen. He was made a prebendary of St. Paul's in 1906 and a Companion of Honour in 1926. In 1870 he married Flora Vickers, and had five sons. On the occasion of their golden wedding, June, 1920, one of the gifts was a lamp sent by twenty-three ex-convicts, five of whom had been sentenced to death. After cremation the ashes of Prebendary Carlile were buried in St. Paul's. Three hours before his death his brother, Sir Hildred Carlile, Bart., died at the age of 90.

28. **Dr. George Gerald Henderson**, Emeritus-Professor of Chemistry in the University of Glasgow, was born in that city on January 20, 1862, and was educated at the University, and at Leipzig under Professors Wislicenus and Wiedemann. On returning to Glasgow he became lecturer and demonstrator under Professor Ferguson, 1884-92. From 1889 he was also lecturer in Chemistry at the new Queen Margaret College, where he was responsible for equipping the laboratory and organising the courses of instruction. In 1892 he became Freeland Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Technical College, and in 1919 was appointed to the Regius Chair, from which he retired in 1937. He was successively secretary (1901-04), recorder (1905), and president (1916) of the chemistry section of the British Association. During 1914-15 he was president of the Society of Chemical Industry, being honorary secretary of the Glasgow section for eight years and then chairman. He was president of the Institute of Chemistry, 1924-27, and of the Chemical Society in 1931. The Royal Society elected him a Fellow in 1916. Most of his original work was in organic chemistry. His publications

included "Catalysts in Industrial Chemistry/" "An Introduction to Analytical Chemistry" (with Professor M. A. Parker), the article on iodine in Thorpe's "Dictionary of Applied Chemistry," and numerous articles to the journals of scientific societies. In 1895 he married Agnes Mackenzie daughter of J. C. Kerr.

30. **Wing Commander George Hedley Stainforth**, famous as a Schneider Trophy pilot, was born at Beckenham in 1899, and educated at Dulwich, Weymouth, and Sandhurst. In 1918 he received a commission in The Buffs, with which regiment he went to India in 1920, Iraq in 1921, and Aden in 1922. He then retired from the Army, and in March, 1923, was granted a short-service commission in the R.A.F. In 1925 he was appointed instructor on the staff of a flying training school in Egypt, two years later going to the Central Flying School. After promotion to flight-lieutenant in 1928 he was selected for duty with the High Speed Flight, preparing for the Schneider Trophy Contest. He did not, however, take part in the actual contest, but three days later, on September 10, 1929, created the world's record speed of 336*3 miles an hour. In the Schneider Trophy contest of 1931, when the prize was won outright for Great Britain, he gained the three kilometre record with an average speed during four runs of 379*05 miles an hour. This he eclipsed on September 29, 1931, by flying over a similar course at the rate of 407*5 miles an hour. He was awarded the A.F.C. and appointed to the Experimental Section, Royal Aircraft Establishment. During 1935-36 he was serving in the aircraft carrier *Glorious*. In the latter year he was promoted to squadron leader and appointed to the aircraft depot in Iraq, where he afterwards commanded a bomber squadron. His last high speed flight was made in connection with Empire Air Day, 1939, when he flew a Spitfire from the South of England to Scotland and back at an average speed of 273 miles an hour. Stainforth, who was promoted wing commander on March 1, 1940, was killed in action over Egypt, and buried in the British cemetery at Ismailia.

— **Sir Ben Turner**, Labour leader, was born at Holmfirth, Yorkshire, in 1863, his parents being hand-loom weavers. He himself began work on the family loom at the age of 9, earning 2*d.* a day. A year later he became a half-timer at a mill, spending the afternoons in school. When his family removed to Huddersfield he joined the Secular Sunday School. Subsequently he became a member of the Social Democratic Federation, 1886; the Fabian Society, 1889; and the Independent Labour Party on its formation in 1893. At the age of 18 he was a delegate of the textile workers union, and at 23 a member of its Executive Council. For many years he was a delegate to the Trades Union Congress, a member of its General Council for eight years, and chairman of the Council in 1927-28, being president of the Trades Union Congress at Swansea in 1928. During his year of office Sir Alfred Mond (Lord Melchett) approached the Labour movement in an attempt to find a basis for industrial co-operation; the proceedings were known as the Mond-Turner negotiations. For twenty years from 1902 he was unpaid general president of his Union, as well as district secretary of the heavy woollen branch of the workers' organisation. In 1922, through an amalgamation of unions, he became president of the National Association of Textile Workers, a salaried post, which he held with the presidency of the National Association of Unions in the Textile Trade. He was elected Member of Parliament for Batley and Morley in 1922, was defeated in 1924, regained the seat in 1929, and was finally defeated in 1931. In 1929 he was made Secretary for Mines, but resigned a year later, resuming trade union work. He was the founder, and for twenty-one years secretary, of the Yorkshire Federation of Trades Councils. He also helped to form the International Textile Workers' Federation. For many years he was prominent in local affairs, being a member of the Batley Town Council in 1893; mayor, 1913-16, and 1934-35; alderman of the West Riding County Council; a county magistrate; and a freeman of the borough. He was made O.B.E. in 1917, advanced to C.B.E. in 1930, and knighted in 1931. In 1884 he married, and he had five daughters.

OCTOBER

14. Cosmo Hamilton, playwright and novelist, was born in 1872, son of H. J. Gibbs, an official in the Board of Education. He adopted his mother's name of Hamilton by deed poll. Sir Philip Gibbs was his younger brother. He wrote over forty plays, and nearly thirty novels. After his first play, *The Wisdom of Folly*, came *The Silver Fox*, *The Catch of the Season*, *The Belle of May fair*, and *The Beauty of Bath*. Later plays included *Mrs. Skeffington*, *The Blindness of Virtue*, which at the time of its production was regarded as a very daring treatment of the sex problem, *Mr. Pickwick*, and *Arsene Lupin*. *Bridge*, written in French, was produced in Paris. With his nephew, Anthony Gibbs, he wrote *The Aunt of Angland* (1935). *Mr. Pickwick* was one of the few Dickensian adaptations to have a big success. His novels began with "Adam's Clay" and included "The Door that has no Key" (1913), "The Miracle of Love" (1915), "The Rustle of Silk" (1922), "Every Man to his Wife" (1938), in which the theme was that money was the root of all matrimonial troubles, "The Outpost of Eternity," and "Discord and Harmony" (1938), the subject of which was the collaboration of Gilbert and Sullivan. For some time before his death he was engaged on work for the Ministry of Information.

— Dame Marie Susan Tempest, a distinguished actress, was born in London on July 15, 1864, daughter of Edwin and Sarah Etherington, and after being educated in Belgium she studied music first in Paris, and then at the Royal Academy of Music under Manuel Garcia, who taught her to sing. In spite of the disapproval of Mr. Gladstone, a friend of her grandparents, she went on the operatic stage at the age of 20, first appearing at the Comedy Theatre in *Suppers Boccaccio* in 1885. For the next two years she appeared as leading lady in a number of light operas, and then in 1887 succeeded Marion Hood at the newly opened Lyric Theatre in the title role of *Dorothy*, which ran for more than two years. During 1890-95 she was in America, her parts including *Carmen*, *Manon*, and *Mignon*. On her return she was engaged by George Edwardes for musical comedy, and at Daly's Theatre between 1895 and 1900 she took leading parts in "*An Artist's Model*, *The Geisha*, *The Greek Slave*, and *San Toy*. At the height of her popularity she suddenly decided to abandon musical plays for straight comedy, as offering more scope for her gifts, and in August, 1900, she appeared as Nell Gwyn in *English Nell*, Hope and Rose's dramatic version of "Simon Dale." Next came *Peg Woffington*, *Becky Sharp*, and *Polly Eccles* in *Caste* at the Haymarket Theatre. By that time she had been "typed" for roguish parts, a characteristic common to all the charming ladies whom she impersonated for the next nine years under the management of Charles Frohman. In April, 1908, Somerset Maugham, with *Mrs. Dot*, provided her with what was regarded as her finest rôle. *All-of-a-Sudden Peggy* was another, as was also *The Truth*, and *Penelope*. In 1914 she began a long tour of the British Empire and beyond, returning to England in 1922. Although she had been away so long, she soon regained her popularity, and scored hits in a succession of plays, such as *Hay Fever*, *Passing Brompton Road*, *The Cat's Cradle*, and, particularly, *The First Mrs. Fraser*. In 1935 her jubilee as an actress was celebrated in the presence of the King and Queen at a *matinée* performance at Drury Lane. The proceeds, at her request, were devoted to building and equipping at St. George's Hospital a "Marie Tempest" ward with eight rooms for the use of members of the theatrical profession. In the Coronation honours of 1937 she was created D.B.E. She was married three times; first to Alfred E. Izard; secondly to Cosmo Gordon Lennox, author of some of her successful plays, who died in 1921; and at Sydney, in the same year, to W. Graham Browne, who died in 1937.

15. George Cecil Whiteley, K.C., Common Sergeant of the City of London, 1934-42, was born in 1875, son of G. C. Whiteley, who was well known in municipal circles in South London. After being educated at Dulwich (of which he later

became a governor) and at King's College, Cambridge, he was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1900. For many years he worked in the chambers of George Elliott, K.C., who had a large criminal and licensing practice. Whiteley obtained a great deal of work at the Central Criminal Court, on Circuit, and at the London and Surrey Sessions, but was even more fully occupied with licensing cases in South London. In 1912 he was appointed Junior Counsel to the Treasury at the Central Criminal Court, holding that post until he took silk in 1921. He was successively Recorder of Sandwich, West Ham, and Southend, and for eight years, from 1924 to 1932, was chairman of the Surrey Quarter Sessions. In 1930 he was a Commissioner of Assize. A year later he succeeded Sir Robert Wallace, K.C., as chairman of the County of London Sessions, and in 1932 he followed Sir Holman Gregory, K.C., as Judge of the Mayor's and City of London Court. When Sir Holman was promoted to the Recordship, Mr. Whiteley again succeeded him as Common Sergeant. He had been a Referee under the Safeguarding of Industries and Finance Acts, 1928. His publications included "Whiteley's Licensing Laws" and a book of reminiscences. He married Maie, daughter of William Henry Wayman, of Halifax.

19. Lieutenant-General Sir Henry Karslake, distinguished soldier, Colonel Commandant Royal Artillery, 1937-42, was born on February 10, 1879, and after being educated at Harrow and Woolwich was gazetted second lieutenant in 1898. Serving in the South African War, he took part in Roberts's advance to Bloemfontein and Pretoria, and in the course of the campaign passed from the R.F.A. to the R.H., was promoted lieutenant, and gained the D.S.O. (1902) and two "mentions." He was promoted captain in 1905, and entered the Staff College in 1912. On graduating he was posted to the 129th Howitzer Battery, R.F.A., and went to France with the 3rd Division of the B.E.F. in August, 1914. Towards the end of that year, now a major, he joined the artillery staff of the 6th Division as brigade major. In March, 1915, he took up a similar appointment with the 12th Division of the New Armies in England. By June he was back in France, going to the headquarters of the newly formed Third Army as G.S.O. 2. In June of the following year he was appointed G.S.O. 1, 50th Division. In September, 1917, he became G.S.O. 1, 4th Division, and served in the battles of "Third Ypres"; at Arras; and north of the La Bassée Canal, when the Germans attacked in April. In August, 1918, he was selected to be G.S.O. 1, Tank Corps, and in October became Brigadier-General, General Staff, remaining with the Tank Corps until April, 1919, when he was appointed G.S.O. 1, Scottish Division, on the Rhine. He became G.S.O. 1 at the headquarters of the Peshawar District in May, 1920, and reached the rank of substantive colonel in August. After leaving India in 1923 he went to the War Office as G.S.O. 1 in the Directorate of Military Operations and Intelligence. In April, 1925, he joined the headquarters staff of the Southern Command, returning to India in 1928 as Brigadier-General, R.A., Western Command. In March, 1930, he was appointed A.D.C. to King George V. In February, 1933, he was given command of the Baluchistan District. Two years later he became well known on account of his courage at the rescue operations after the Quetta earthquake. In April, 1936, he was promoted lieutenant-general, retiring from the Army in 1938. He was made C.M.G. in 1916, C.B. in 1929, K.C.S.I. in 1935, and K.C.B. in 1937. He married, in 1905, Florence Clara, daughter of Vice-Admiral E. Rooke, and had two sons.

20. Professor Kenneth Neville Moss, Professor of Mining at Birmingham University, 1922-42, and Dean of the Faculty of Science, 1935-40, was born on May 30, 1891, and educated at Queen Mary's Grammar School, Walsall, and at Birmingham University. He held the degree of M.Sc. and was besides a member of several professional organisations, including the Geological Society. His practical knowledge of mining came from the Cannock Chase, South Yorkshire, and North Staffordshire coal-fields, and he studied mining conditions in several European countries, in Canada, the United States, and South Africa. For a year he was organiser of mining instruction for Derbyshire before becoming

Assistant Professor of mining at Birmingham University in 1920. He had been chairman of the Advisory Committee on Coal and Petroleum of the Mineral Resources Department of the Imperial Institute, and a member of the Research Committee of the Council of the Institution of Civil Engineers. He was also a past president of the National Association of Colliery Managers, and of the South Staffordshire and Warwickshire Institute of Mining Engineers. His publications included "Gas, Dust, and Heat in Mines"; "Some Effect of High Air Temperature and Muscular Exertion upon Colliers," in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society*. He was also editor and part author of the "Historical Review of Coalmining." During the war, 1914-18, he was adjutant to the 59th Divisional Royal Engineers, was twice mentioned in despatches, and was awarded the O.B.E. He married Dorothy, daughter of Professor R. Warrington, F.R.S., and had four daughters.

24. **St. John Hutchinson, K.C.**, Recorder of Hastings, 1939-42, was born in 1884, son of Sir Charles Hutchinson, and educated at Winchester and Magdalen College, Oxford. After being a pupil of Sir Holman Gregory he was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1909, and joined the South-Eastern Circuit. For some years he was prosecuting counsel to the Post Office at the Central Criminal Court. In 1935 he took silk. Besides his extensive practice at the Central Criminal Court, and a remunerative licensing business, he was in constant request as a defender of prisoners before courts-martial. He contested his father's old constituency, Rye, Sussex, as a Liberal at both the General Elections in 1910, and the Isle of Wight in 1929. From 1912 to 1916 he represented Poplar as a Progressive on the London County Council. In 1917 he was Assistant Legal Adviser to the Minister of Reconstruction, and was Recorder of Hythe from 1928 to 1930. Since that year he had been Recorder of Hastings. Outside the legal world he moved in literary and artistic circles, being a close friend of George Moore and of Henry Tonks, and he figured as one of the group in Tonks's picture, "Saturday Evening at the Vale." He was on the Executive Committee of the Contemporary Art Society, and a member of Garrick, Buck's, and the Beefsteak Clubs. In 1910 he married Mary, daughter of Sir Hugh Barnes, K.C.S.I., niece of Lytton Strachey, and had one son and one daughter.

— **Professor Edward Hamilton Johnston**, Boden Professor of Sanskrit at Oxford, 1937-42, and a Fellow of Balliol College, was born in 1885, son of R. E. Johnston, Governor of the Bank of England, and was educated at Eton and New College, Oxford. From 1909 to 1924 he was a member of the Indian Civil Service in Bihar and Orissa. On returning to England he began to devote himself entirely to Sanskrit studies, and in 1937 succeeded F. W. Thomas as Boden Professor at Oxford. In the opinion of many his *magnum opus* was a translation of the Buddha-Carita of Asvaghosha, to produce which he taught himself Tibetan and Chinese. He was also keenly interested in early Indian philosophical literature and terminology, his "Early Samkhya" being published in 1937 by the Royal Asiatic Society's Prize Publication Fund. At the time of his death a volume of the India Office Catalogue of European manuscripts was awaiting publication. He married, in 1924, the third daughter of Sir Henry May, of Suffolk, and had three sons and three daughters.

— **Professor Caroline Prances Spurgeon**, Emeritus-Professor of English Literature at London University, one of the leading authorities on English literature of her time, was born in 1869, daughter of a captain in the Worcestershire Regiment. After leaving Cheltenham College she continued her studies in Dresden and Paris, winning prizes at King's College and University College, London. At Oxford she took a first class in the English School. In 1901 she became Assistant Lecturer in English at Bedford College, where she remained until 1929. She visited America as a member of the British Educational Mission in 1918, and was visiting Professor at Columbia University, New York, 1920-21. In 1919 she served on the H. A. L. Fisher departmental committee which enquired

into the educational system of England. Her first publication, written in French, dealt with criticism of Chaucer through* the ages. Notable among her other books was "Mysticism in English Literature," but she will best be remembered by "Shakespeare's Imagery and what it tells us,"* 1935. Important as this book was, it was believed to be not more than half of what she intended to write had not illness intervened. Professor Spurgeon, who died at Tucson, Arizona, after a long illness, had many academical honours, including the degree of Docteur es Lettres of the University of Paris, the London D.Litt., and the Honorary Litt.D. of the University of Michigan.

NOVEMBER

11. Violet Vanbrugh, distinguished actress, was born at Exeter on June 11, 1867, daughter of Prebendary R. H. Barnes. Her mother was a sister of W. H. C. Nation, a London theatre manager, and her great-grandfather introduced Kean to the London stage. After being educated at Exeter and in France, she got her father's permission to go on the stage and went to London with a legacy of 501. Three months later, when the money had almost gone, and there was no prospect of an engagement, she met Ellen Terry, with whom she stayed for a year, and who suggested her stage name of Vanbrugh. It was J. L. Toole, however, who gave her her first engagement, a walking-on part in *Faust and Loose* at Toole's Theatre in 1886. In the same year she played Ellen in *The Little Pilgrim* at the Criterion. Then followed a period of training under Sarah Thome at the Theatre Royal, Margate. In 1889 she joined the Kendals at the Court Theatre, taking the part of Lady Gillingham in *The Weaker Sex*, and she went with them on two American tours, her first appearance in New York being at the Fifth Avenue Theatre in *A Scrap of Paper*. Back in England, she worked for Irving at the Lyceum, establishing her reputation when she played Anne Boleyn in *King Henry VIII* in January, 1892. Under Augustin Daly's management she was seen as Madame Lauretta in *Love and Tandem*, the first production at Daly's Theatre (1893), and she was in the last play at that theatre, *Muted Strings*, in 1936. Under the management of Arthur Bourchier, whom she married, she took the part of Gladys in *The Chili Widow* in 1895, and went with him to America a year later. In 1905 she visited Windsor Castle at the command of King Edward VII, playing Portia in *The Merchant of Venice*. With Beerbohm Tree's company at His Majesty's Theatre in November, 1910, she scored one of her greatest successes as Queen Katherine in *Henry VIII*. By the time she celebrated her jubilee on the stage in 1936 she had appeared in well over one hundred plays. Since 1934 she had given part of her time to the screen, being seen in *Girls will be Boys* and in *Pygmalion*, 1938. Her marriage was dissolved.

17. William Thomas Whitley, historian of English art, was born in 1858. His first ambition was to be a painter, and as a young man he exhibited a few landscapes and figure subjects. But with the publication of "Thomas Gainsborough," 1915, a fully documented and highly readable account of that artist, he established his reputation as a writer, enhancing it later with the two volumes entitled "Artists and their Friends in England, 1700-1799," his most attractive and characteristic book. Next came another two-volume work, "Art in England," which covered the period between 1800 and 1937. He also produced fives of Gilbert Stuart and Thomas Heaphy. For some years he wrote bi-weekly articles on "Art and Artists" for the *Morning Post*, and for over twenty years he surveyed the art of the year in the ANNUAL REGISTER. Whitley, who was awarded a Civil List Pension in 1931-32, married, in 1888, Mary Alford, and had one son.

19. Sir Stenson Cooke, secretary of the Automobile Association since its foundation in 1906, was born on October 5, 1874, and was educated privately. His connexion with the organisation with which his name became so closely linked was fortuitous. In the early days of motoring, when the pioneers met with

much antagonism, he heard by chance of the formation by a few men of " a motor society or something or other." He offered to act as secretary, and with a capital of 100l. took an office in Fleet Street. At the time of his death the membership had risen to over 700,000, with an annual income of more than 1,000,000l., and with headquarters at Fanum House, Leicester Square, the most powerful motoring organisation in the world. This phenomenal growth was due to Cooke's efforts. His rule was almost absolute, though he accepted advice from experts. It was his genius for organisation that made the A.A. what it is. In his youth he took a great interest in military affairs, serving in the London Rifle Brigade, in which he became a captain. When the war began in 1914 he headed a contingent of the A.A. staff to enlist in the 8th Battalion, The Essex Regiment. In 1915 he was appointed staff-captain at the War Office, being promoted major a year later. Subsequently he was placed in the office of Controller of Supplies at the Ministry of National Service. Outside the A.A. his keenest interest was fencing. He was in the British team at the Olympic Games in 1912; won the British Amateur Foils Championship in 1923; and was one of the few privileged to wear the Tudor Rose of England, the badge of the fencing international. His book, "This Motoring" (1931), which told the story of the Automobile Association, went through more than eighteen editions. In 1932 he became vice-president of the Alliance Internationale de Tourisme. A year later he was created a knight, he also had many foreign decorations. He married May, daughter of C. E. Brooke, of Baynards Manor, Sussex, and had one son and one daughter.

21. Count Leopold Berchtold, Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1914, was born in Vienna on April 18, 1863, his family being one of the oldest and wealthiest of the Magyar nobility. After being for some years an officer in a cavalry regiment he entered the Diplomatic Service in 1893. By 1903 he was Counsellor of Embassy at St. Petersburg, where Baron (later Count) von Aehrenthal was Ambassador, succeeding Aehrenthal in 1906. In the crisis brought about by Aehrenthal's unilateral annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908 Berchtold displayed much adroitness. In March, 1911, he was recalled from St. Petersburg, and a year later, February 7, 1912, again followed Aehrenthal, this time as Foreign Minister. At first he believed in the possibility of a pacific solution of Austria-Hungary's Balkan problems, but after the Balkan wars of 1912-13 he changed his mind and supported the policy of force which the Chief of the Imperial General Staff, Conrad von Hotzendorf, had been advocating for many years. After the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand at Serajevo in 1914, he presented to Serbia the ultimatum which led to the war, 1914-18. He resigned on January 13, 1915, and a year later was appointed Master of the Household to the Heir-Apparent, the Archduke Charles, whom he served on his accession to the throne. After the fall of the monarchy he retired to his estates and ceased to take any part in politics.

— General **the Hon. James Barry Munnik Hertzog**, Prime Minister of the Union of South Africa, 1924-39, was born on April 3, 1866, at Wellington, Cape Colony, but at the age of 6 was taken to the Orange Free State. After being educated at Victoria College, Stellenbosch, and at Amsterdam University, he returned to the Free State and practised as an advocate until 1895, when he was made a Judge, an appointment which he held until the annexation of the country after the South African War. At the beginning of that war he assumed command of the Boer forces of the South-Western division, became a General, and on behalf of the Free State was one of the signatories of the treaty of Vereeniging in 1902. In 1906, when the former republics were granted self-government, he entered the political field and became the leader of the Dutch in the Free State. In the first Government of the Union, in which the four colonies merged their constitutions and legislatures, he held the portfolio of Justice. His bitter speeches were responsible for a growing feeling of racialism, and for a time it seemed as if Botha's policy of reconciliation had lapsed. The crisis came at the end of 1912 when Botha left Hertzog out of his reconstructed Cabinet,

but it now became an open feud between Hertzog on the one side and Botha and Smuts on the other. In the Free State all supporters of Botha on the Executive Committee of the South African Party were superseded by partisans of Hertzog. In Parliament Hertzog's National Party, which he had launched at Smithfield, his Free State constituency, demanded "secession" and wielded a growing power. During the war, 1914-18, he stood out against co-operation with Britain, and after the Peace Conference went to Versailles as head of an "Independence" deputation. Then came the death of Botha, which cleared the political field for him. In the General Election of 1924 the Nationalist-Labour alliance defeated the rival combination marshalled by General Smuts, and Hertzog became Prime Minister and Minister of Native Affairs. He now announced that he no longer regarded secession as practical and stated that the only link between the Dominions and Great Britain was the personal bond of a common king, a declaration which was subsequently signed at the Imperial Conference of 1926. In Parliament at this time he was chiefly concerned in advancing the highly controversial question of the segregation of the natives. In the General Election of 1929 he was returned with a majority of eight over all other parties. After Hertzog and Smuts had joined forces in 1933 to form the United Party, it was thought that Hertzog would stand with the Empire in the event of war—in 1934 he had said, "I am done with a republic and republicanism"—but when war began in 1939 he declared for neutrality. On a vote of confidence he was defeated, General Smuts becoming Prime Minister. Hertzog's attempts to justify Nazi policy surprised his friends, and his demand, as Leader of the Opposition, in June, 1940, that South Africa should make a separate peace aroused great anger. In November he resigned from the reunited Nationalist Party fourteen months after he had formed it with Dr. Malan, and a month later he resigned his seat in Parliament. At a meeting of the head committees of the Afrikaner Party at Johannesburg in October, 1941, he stated that National Socialism was the only solution of South Africa's economic and political problems. In 1894 he married Miss Neething, of Stellenbosch, and had three sons.

23. **Dr. George Francis Graham Brown**, Bishop of Jerusalem, 1932-42, was born at Lanchoo in the Province of Kansu, China, on January 27, 1891, son of a missionary, and was educated at Glasgow Academy, Monkton Combe School, and at St. Catharine's College, Cambridge, where he obtained honours in both parts of the Historical Tripos. At first he was engaged on research in economics, but on the outbreak of war in 1914 he received a commission in the 6th Battalion The King's Own Scottish Borderers. Ten days after his arrival in France he was wounded in the head. In 1917 he became adjutant of the 3rd Battalion, but in September, 1918, was invalided out of the service. He then went back to Monkton Combe as History master. After a year at Wycliffe Hall he was ordained in 1922 and was appointed successively Chaplain of the Hall, Vice-Principal, and in 1925, Principal. From 1923 to 1925 he was Lecturer at Wadham College, Oxford. In 1927 he commemorated the jubilee of Wycliffe Hall by taking the students for their summer term to Palestine, a visit which was repeated every second year so that each man might go there once during his course. In 1929 Principal and students acted as special constables during the riots in Palestine. In November, 1930, he was appointed a member of the Commission on the Anglican Communion and Old Catholic Churches. Two years later, on January 24, 1932, he was consecrated Bishop of Jerusalem, deriving his Orders through the Old Catholic Church as well as through the Anglican Communion. During his episcopate he invited the Sisters of the Love of God to set up a branch Religious House under the direction of the Cowley Fathers, and was responsible for starting the new boys' school at Haifa and the Bishop's school at Amman. Besides his own bishopric, which embraced Palestine, Syria, Transjordan, Cyprus, and part of Turkey, he undertook, at the request of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the spiritual supervision of the Anglican congregations in Iraq. In 1939, at the instance of the Colonial Secretary,

he took part in the conferences between Arab and Jewish leaders. In 1929 he married his second cousin Jane Fasley Hay, daughter of Dr. J. J. Graham Brown, and had one son. The Bishop died as a result of a motor-car accident, his car colliding with a train near the Lebano-Palestine frontier town of Ezzib. He was buried at the British cemetery on Mount Zion.

26. **Sir Charles Hyde, Bart.**, newspaper proprietor, race-horse owner, and philanthropist, was born on October 23, 1876, son of a surgeon of Worcester, and was educated at Clifton and at Exeter College, Oxford, joining his uncle, John Feeney, in the newspaper business in 1897. In 1913, under the terms of his uncle's will, he bought and became sole proprietor of the *Birmingham Post*, the *Birmingham Mail*, and the *Birmingham, Weekly Post*. As a philanthropist, he endowed a bed at the Queen's Hospital, Birmingham, for the use of wounded soldiers, as a memorial of the war service of the medical and nursing staffs, and as a thank-offering for the Armistice he gave 5,000l. to the Lord Mayor of Birmingham for the benefit of disabled soldiers. Later he made a donation of 10,000l. to the Birmingham War Memorial. To Birmingham University he gave 10,000l. to be used to purchase a hostel for students; founded a lectureship in Psychotherapy; provided 5,000l. towards the cost of a new dissecting room, 1934; and put at the disposal of the University 10,000l. to provide a "Neville Chamberlain Fund or Scholarship" in 1938. He also gave 5,000l. and 28,000l. worth of Debenture stock to the King George V Jubilee Trust, and 1,000l. to the King George V Memorial Fund. Of his horses, which were seen on race-courses regularly since 1923, the best known was Bay town. Trained from the beginning by Norman Scobie, of Whitsbury, his horses won over 240 races and 80,000l. in stake money. His interest in archaeology found expression in excavations on a prehistoric site at Vine a, near Belgrade, which were carried out at his expense. During 1933-34 he was High Sheriff of Warwickshire. He had been chairman of the Press Association, and deputy chairman of Reuter's, and for many years was president of the Warwickshire County Cricket Club. He was made an O.B.E. in 1920, was created a baronet in 1922, and received from the King of Yugoslavia the Order of St. Sava (2nd Class). Since Sir Charles was unmarried, the baronetcy became extinct. He left estate valued at 1,666,746l. (net personality, 1,018,632l.) and bequeathed 82,000l. to charitable and other institutions, including 20,000l. each to the Senate of Birmingham University, for the enlargement of the Students' Union, and to Clifton College for scholarships, and 10,000l. to the Foreign Secretary for the benefit of children in Yugoslavia and Greece. The residue of the estate was to be divided equally between the University of Birmingham, the Queen Elizabeth Hospital, Birmingham, King George's Jubilee Trust, and Dr. Barnardo's Homes.

28. **Wing Commander Sir Ronald Dockray Waterhouse**, private secretary to three Prime Ministers, was born on December 28, 1878, and educated at Marlborough and Oxford. During 1896-97 he served in Mashonaland, receiving the Matabele Medal, and entered the Militia in 1898. A year later he was given his first commission in The Lincolnshire Regiment, but he subsequently transferred to the 6th Dragoon Guards (Carabiniers). In the South African War he gained two medals and was mentioned in despatches. From 1903 to 1904 he was in India. In 1910 he went on retired pay on account of wounds and was granted a pension. When the war, 1914-18, began he re-joined for active service, gaining the Mons Star and two other medals. He went to the Intelligence Department of the War Office in June, 1915, and in the September was promoted major and G.S.O. 3. In 1918 he was gazetted lieutenant-colonel and G.S.O. 1, and became private secretary to the Chief of the Air Staff at the Air Ministry. He was a member of the Air Section and British Delegation to the Peace Conference. In 1919 he was appointed private secretary to the Controller-General of Civil Aviation. His career as a political private secretary began in 1920 when he was selected to be private secretary to the Lord Privy Seal and Leader of the House of Commons, serving in that

capacity under Mr. Bonar Law and Mr. Austen Chamberlain. In 1921 the Duke of York (King George VI) made him his private secretary and equerry, but a year later he received permission to relinquish that post to become principal private secretary to the Prime Minister (Mr. Bonar Law). He also served under Mr. Baldwin (twice) and under Mr. Ramsay MacDonald. When he resigned in 1928 he joined the board of the Canadian General Investment Trust and associated companies. In 1939, at the age of 61, he was gazetted a pilot officer on probation in the R.A.F. Reserve (Reserve of Air Force Officers), later transferring to the R.A.F.V.R. Promoted flight lieutenant and a staff officer in 1940, he became a wing commander in 1942 and was engaged in the courier service, involving long and arduous journeys which undermined his health. He was made a C.B. and C.M.G. in 1919, a C.V.O. in 1922, and K.C.B. in 1923. He was a Lieutenant for the City of London, a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society, and had several foreign orders. He was twice married; first, in 1904, to Violet, daughter of J. D. Goldingham, I.C.S., who died in 1928; and secondly, to Nourah, daughter of H. A. Chard. Lady Waterhouse, who was formerly private secretary to the Duchess of York and to Mrs. Baldwin, published, in 1942, a biography of her husband entitled "Private and Official."

DECEMBER

2. Lieutenant-General **Sir Hugh Sandham Jeudwine** was born on June 9, 1862, son of the Rev. W. Jeudwine, vicar of Chicheley, Newport Pagnell, and after Eton entered the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, being gazetted to the Royal Artillery in 1882. In 1891 he was promoted captain. Three years later he became an Instructor at the School of Gunnery, Shoeburyness, remaining there until 1899. When the South African War began he obtained a post on the Staff in Cape Colony. In January, 1900, he was promoted major and became a District Commandant, a year later being placed in charge of a small column. At the close of hostilities he remained in South Africa, acting as D.A.A.G. and D.A.Q.M.G. until May, 1904. From then until 1908 he was employed in the Military Training Branch at the War Office. He was appointed D.A.A.G. at Aldershot Command Headquarters in 1909, and as Instructor to the Staff College in January, 1912. In March of that year he was promoted colonel. When the war, 1914-18, began he was made G.S.O. 1 on the staff of Sir Douglas Haig's 1st Corps, and thus took part in the retreat from Mons and the subsequent battles of the Marne and the Aisne. During "First Ypres" he went to the 1st Division as senior staff officer. On the formation of the Vth Corps in 1915 he was made Brigadier-General, General Staff, but left the Corps on receiving command of the 41st Infantry Brigade of the 14th Division in September, 1915. Later he was given command of the 55th Division and with the rank of major-general remained in command until March, 1919. After the Armistice the 55th Division went to Cologne as the Lancashire Division of the Army of the Rhine, with Jeudwine as Chief of Staff from August to October, 1919. His next move was to Ireland where he commanded the reconstituted regular 5th Division until July, 1922. Promoted lieutenant-general in January, 1923, he was appointed a Colonel Commandant of the Royal Artillery in April, and Director-General of the Territorial Army in October. Four years later he retired from the Army. He was chairman of the National Cadet Association, a Fellow and Member of Council of the Huguenot Society of London, and Governor of the French Protestant School Foundation. Created C.B. in 1915, he was promoted K.C.B. in 1918, and was made K.B.E. in 1922. In 1891 he married Mary Grace^A daughter of David Meynell, and had one daughter.

4. **Dr. Arthur Augustus Tilley**, distinguished Renaissance scholar, was born on December 1, 1851, son of Sir J. A. Tilley Secretary of the Post Office. After being educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, he studied Law and was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1876. In 1883, however, he

returned to his College and thereafter held office for nearly forty years. At first his interests were classical, but in 1896 he accepted a lectureship in Modern Languages, and it was as one of the founders of the Cambridge School of Modern Languages that he was best known. Persistent ill-health interfered greatly with his work but he was able to publish a number of notable works, such as "Dawn of the French Renaissance" and "Studies in the French Renaissance," besides editing two of the best of the handbooks issued by the Cambridge Press, "Medieval France" and "Modern France." The University of Manchester conferred on him the degree of Honorary Litt.D. At the time of his death he was senior Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, having been elected in 1876. He married Margaret, sister of Arthur Clutton-Brock, and had one son and three daughters.

7. Lieutenant-General Sir Louis Ridley Vaughan was born on August 7, 1875, and educated at Uppingham and Sandhurst. In August, 1895, he was gazetted second lieutenant and a year later was sent to India, being posted to the 25th Madras Infantry. He was promoted lieutenant in November, 1897, and captain in 1904. In July, 1907, he joined the 113th Infantry but early in 1908 came home to enter the Staff College. After graduating he returned to India as a junior staff officer at Army Headquarters, June, 1910. A few months later he was transferred to the 7th Gurkha Rifles, finally leaving India in 1912 to take up a post at the War Office. In August, 1913, he received his majority. Employed at the War Office when the war, 1914-18, began, he went to France in November as G.S.O. 2 of the 2nd Division. In April, 1916, he was appointed Brigadier-General, General Staff, XVth Corps. During the closing phase of the battles of Arras, May, 1917, he was gazetted Major-General, General Staff, Third Army, and held that rank until the end of the war. Altogether he was mentioned in despatches nine times, and in 1915 was awarded the D.S.O. The last years of his active military career were spent in India. From July to September, 1919, he commanded the 4th War Division in the third Afghan War. Later he was appointed Commandant of the Staff College at Quetta, where he remained until 1923 when he assumed command of the Central Provinces District, later becoming G.O.C. Rawalpindi District. His last promotion, to lieutenant-general, came in 1926, and in 1928 he retired from the Service. He became secretary of the Finance Company of Great Britain and America, and at the time of his death was chairman of Parnall Aircraft, Limited. He was made C.B. in 1918, and created K.C.B. in 1928. In 1913 he married Mrs. Emile Kate Desmond Deane, literary adviser to the Haymarket Theatre.

10. Sir Thomas W. McAra, for many years secretary of the Newspaper Proprietors' Association, was born on January 8, 1864, and began work in the newspaper industry in 1878, being apprenticed to a compositor. In due course he rose to be printer's overseer at Cassell's. Always interested in the working conditions of his trade, he became chairman of the London Society of Compositors, holding that office from 1908 to 1918. Towards the end of the war, 1914-18, he was invited by the Newspaper Proprietors' Association to enter their employment for the purpose of improving relations between labour and the N.P.A. For many years he was a member of the Council of the Empire Press Union. In 1935 he attended the Fifth Imperial Press Conference in South Africa, making an extensive tour of the Union and Southern Rhodesia. Outside his professional work he was a member of the board and chairman of the House Committee of the Royal Free Hospital; governor, and during 1927-28 chairman, of the St. Bride Foundation; from 1919 to 1920 chairman of St. Bride's Printing School; and he represented the L.C.C. on the London School of Printing. He was a freeman and liveryman of the Stationers' Company, an active supporter of the Brotherhood Movement, and a Nonconformist preacher. After relinquishing the secretaryship of N.P.A. he continued to act as technical and labour adviser to the Council until his final retirement in June, 1942. Sir Thomas—

he was knighted in 1932—married, in 1891, Florence E. Borrowman and had two sons and three daughters.

10. **Sir Henry Alexander Miers**, distinguished mineralogist and university administrator, was born at Rio de Janeiro on May 25, 1858, son of a civil engineer, and was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Oxford, where he took a second class in Classical Moderations in 1878, a second class in Mathematical Moderations a year later, and a second class in the Mathematical Finals in 1881. In 1884 he proceeded M.A., and in 1900 to the newly created degree of D.Sc. In 1882 he was appointed assistant to Mr. (afterwards Sir Lazarus) Fletcher, Keeper of Minerals, British Museum, and as a mathematical physicist undertook research in crystal morphology, remaining at the Museum until 1895. From 1886 until that year he had also been Instructor in Crystallography at the Central Technical College, South Kensington, and he was editor of the *Mineralogical Magazine*, 1891 to 1900. In 1895 he was appointed Waynflete Professor of Mineralogy at Oxford, being the first Waynflete Professor and the first to be officially connected with Magdalen College, of which he was a Fellow. A good organiser and administrator, he was made Junior Dean in 1898, Vice-President of Magdalen College, 1902-03, secretary to the delegates of the University Museum, 1902-08, delegate to the University Press and for the examination of schools, 1901-08, and member of the Hebdomadal Council, 1905-08. In 1901 he visited the Yukon goldfields on behalf of the Canadian Government. From 1903 to 1934 he was a Fellow of Eton as representative of the Royal Society. In October, 1908, he became Principal of the University of London, an appointment he held until 1915 when he was appointed Vice-Chancellor of the University of Manchester and Professor of Crystallography. In Manchester, where he remained until 1926, he was chairman of the Council of the University Settlement in Ancoats, of the John Rylands Library, and of the northern branch of the Library for the Blind. He was also chairman of the British Educational Mission which visited the United States in 1918. From 1919 to 1926 he was a member of the Advisory Committee of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, and from 1919 to 1922 served on the Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge. He was elected a trustee of the British Museum in 1926, was a member of the Royal Commission on National Museums and Galleries, 1927, and joined the Standing Commission on Museums and Galleries in 1931. At the invitation of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees he undertook a survey of public museums, other than national, in the British Isles. His report, which appeared in 1928, was so successful that he was asked by the Carnegie Corporation of New York to extend his survey to Canada, South Africa, and other parts of the British Empire. When his term as president of the Museums Association ended in 1933 he was elected in gratitude an honorary member. In 1930 he became chairman of the Bodleian Library Commission. On the formation of the Gemmological Association of Great Britain in 1932 he was elected its first president, holding office until 1937; likewise in 1932, he was president of the Library Association. Since its inception in 1929 he was chairman of the Locust Control Committee of the Economic Advisory Council. His writings included a textbook on Mineralogy (1902), and numerous articles. The mineral miersite, a silver-copper oxide, was named after him in 1898. In 1912 he was knighted. Among his many academic honours were an honorary fellowship of Trinity College, Oxford (1931), and the Wollaston Medal of the Geological Society (1934). He was unmarried.

20. **Major-General Daniel H. Pienaar**, brilliant South African artilleryman, who was born at Ladybrand, Orange Free State, in 1893, spent most of his youth in Natal, where he joined the Department of Defence in 1911. During the war, 1914-18, he served as a gunner in the South-West African campaign; with the South African Field Artillery Brigade in France; in East Africa; and in Palestine. When the Armistice came he was a subaltern with a commission in the British Army, but on his return to South Africa he reverted to the ranks

of the Union Defence Force, in which he later was given a commission. After taking a battery commander's course in England, he went back again in 1922 to become Adjutant of the South African Field Artillery. On the outbreak of war in 1939 he was promoted from lieutenant-colonel to brigadier and given the Voortrekkerhoogte and Transvaal Command. With the 1st South African Brigade he took part in the operations at El Wak, gaining the D.S.O., and he led it through the fighting in Abyssinia. When Amba Algai fell, Pienaar and his brigade were dispatched to Libya, where he was promoted major-general, and given command of the 1st South African Division. In July, 1942, he was instrumental in stopping Rommel's advance at El Alamein. His strategy in bush warfare was recognised by experts as being almost flawless. General Pienaar, with eleven companions, was killed in an aeroplane accident on the way from the Middle East to South Africa.

24. Admiral Jean Francois Darlan was born on August 7, 1881, son of a deputy mayor who became Minister of Justice in the Meline Cabinet. Entering the Navy at the age of 18, he was sent to China in 1902, and by 1912 had become a lieutenant-instructor to the *Jeanne d'Arc* cadet training vessel. During the war, 1914-18, he commanded a battery of naval gunners, and served on the French front and also at Salonika. On July 11, 1918, he was promoted commander and after the Armistice was transferred to the command of the Rhine flotilla. Next he was appointed chief of staff of the eastern naval division, and after remaining two years in command of the *Aviso Alter* returned to France in 1922. He became chief auditor at the Centre of High Naval Studies in 1925, and in the following year served for a time as chief of staff of the Third Naval Division. Then came his promotion to captain and his appointment as chief of staff of the Cabinet of Leygues, Minister of the Navy. Two years later he realised his ambition on being made commander of the *Jeanne d'Arc* training vessel, but in 1929 was recalled to Paris and promoted rear-admiral. Henceforward he devoted himself to politics. In 1932 he was made vice-admiral, in 1934 commander of the Atlantic Fleet, in 1936 chief of the general staff, and in 1939 full admiral with the rank of commander-in-chief. When war began he attended several meetings of the Allied Supreme War Council in London and Paris, visiting London in December, 1939, for consultations with Mr. Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty. After the fall of France he joined Marshal Pétain and was made Minister of Marine and Commander-in-Chief of the French Navy. In February, 1941, he became Vice-Prime Minister and Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, as well as Minister of Marine and Minister of the Interior. Pétain also designated him as his successor. In August, 1941, the Vichy Council of Ministers gave him "full power over the armed forces of France and the Empire." He kept in such close touch with the German leaders that it came as a surprise when he was dropped from the Vichy Cabinet in April, 1942. He retained, however, command of the Forces, and when British troops took over Madagascar urged the utmost resistance. In November, 1942, when the Allied forces landed in North Africa, Darlan ordered the cease fire, and took upon himself the representation of French interests in North Africa in the name of Marshal Pétain. Early in December he extended his temporary political status, agreed upon by General Eisenhower, to that of "Chief of State in French Africa," and created a "High Commissariat and a French Imperial Council." The status of Darlan caused much controversy. The House of Commons debated the matter in secret session, and the Vichy Cabinet deprived him of French nationality. He was shot dead in Algiers.

27. Sir Reginald Blomfield, R.A., architect of the Menin Gate, was born on December 20, 1856, son of the Rev. G. J. Blomfield, his mother being a daughter of C. J. Blomfield, Bishop of London. After being educated at Haileybury and Exeter College, Oxford, he was articled to his uncle, Sir Arthur Blomfield, and also studied at the Royal Academy Schools, beginning practice in 1884. In the list of his numerous architectural works there must be included

the country houses which he designed, such as Wyphurst, near Cranleigh, Surrey; Moundsmere, Hants; Chequers Court (for Lord Lee of Fareham), and La Trinité, in Jersey (for Mr. Athelstan Riley). Of public buildings he was responsible for Lady Margaret Hall at Oxford; the Sherborne School; Whitley School, Chichester; and the Lincoln Free Library. For the Imperial War Graves Commission he designed the "Cross of Sacrifice" which became the accepted pattern for many memorials at home. In London his work is to be seen at the United Universities Club (1908), corner of Suffolk Street and Pall Mall East; the column known as "Paul's Cross" in the north-east angle of St. Paul's Churchyard; the Carlton Club; the R.A.F. Memorial on the Embankment; and, most important of all, the Quadrant of Regent Street, which was made to conform with a general scheme for the treatment of the western side of Piccadilly. He also undertook the architectural work in connexion with the new steel and reinforced Lambeth Bridge, 1932, of which the engineer was Sir George Humphreys. To the general public he was perhaps best known as the architect of the Menin Gate. His writings which alone were likely to ensure his remembrance included "Formal Gardens in England" (1892), a book having much influence on garden design; "History of Renaissance Architecture in England" (1897), covering the years 1600 to 1800; "History of French Architecture, 1494-1661" (1911), and "History of French Architecture, 1661-1774" (1920), all of which became standard works. Other publications included "Studies in Architecture"; "Memoirs of an Architect" (1932); "The Mistress Art"; "Modernismus" (1934); "Six Architects" (1935); and "Life of R. Norman Shaw" (1940). He was elected A.R.A. in 1904, and R.A. in 1914. In 1913 he received the annual Royal Gold Medal for Architecture. From 1912 to 1914 he was president of the R.I.B.A., and was also chairman of the Board of Architectural Education, and one of the visitors of the Royal College of Art. He was knighted in 1919. In 1886 he married Frances, daughter of Henry Burra, of Playden, Sussex, and had two sons and one daughter.

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