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MALTAS 'UMBRELLA' BARRAGE WHICH FOILED AXIS RAIDERS

Taken during Malta's 24th air raid in June, 1941, this photograph reveals one of the island's most potent defences—a tremendous barrage of A.A. shell which forced German or Italian bombers as they strove to penetrate to vital points. Bursts of smoke from scores of projectiles can be seen in the sky. Rising to a climax at hourly intervals, the raids went on day by day, and averaged two per twenty-four hours.

Photo, Associated Press.
GALLANT TOBRUK GARRISON HONOURS ITS DEAD

This worthy and imposing memorial was erected within the Tobruk perimeter to honour the dead heroes who fell in its defence and in the brilliant action which were such a plague to the investing Axis forces. Built by Royal Australian Engineers, it was dedicated by Major-General D. M. Morshead, himself an Australian. Here, after the unveiling, a British and an Australian soldier stand at the salute. The inscription reads: "This is hallowed ground, for here lie those who died for their country."
Chapter 160

THE MEDITERRANEAN OUTPOSTS OF MALTA, GIBRALTAR AND CYPRUS

Navy, Army and Air Force Chiefs at Malta—Life Under Constant Air Attack—Torpedo Attack on Valletta, July 26, 1941—Luftwaffe's Offensive from Sicily: The Assault on H.M.S. 'Illustrious'—Malta Hits Back—The 1,000th and 2,000th Alerts—George Cross for Malta—French Raid on Gibraltar, Sept. 25, 1940—Italian Torpedo Attack, Sept. 20, 1940—Lord Gort Takes Command—The Position in Cyprus

Up to the moment of Italy's jackal-like entry into the war, Gibraltar and Malta, the powerful and supremely important British naval bases in the Mediterranean, had been fairly quiet. Preparations were made, of course, but neither Nazi ships nor Nazi aircraft gave any trouble, so life in these island fortresses went on as usual. When Mussolini, on June 10, 1940, dragged the Italian people into the conflict, the whole aspect of affairs in the Mediterranean changed. Within twelve hours of the Duce's declaration Italian aircraft were bombarding Malta, and then, forward the island (half the size of the Isle of Wight) was continually raided.

The Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Island was at first Sir Charles Bonham-Carter, and when ill health compelled him to relinquish his duties they were taken over (May, 1941) by the Acting Governor, Major-General Sir William Dobbs, the Lieutenant-Governor was Sir E. Jackson. The Naval chief was Vice-Admiral Sir W. Ford, who was succeeded in January, 1942, by Vice-Admiral Sir Ralph Lantin as Flag Officer in charge. Malta's military forces were under Lieut.-Gen. D. M. W. Beak, V.C., D.S.O. (appointed: General Officer Commanding, R.A.F. squadrons, which did such magnificent work against the enemy, came under the Mediterranean Command, of which the A.O.C. was first Air Vice-Marshal A. G. Maxwell and later Air Vice-Marshal H. E. Lloyd (appointed in June, 1941). In May, 1942, after two years of onerous service in this hazardous outpost of Britain, Sir William Dobbs came home on retirement, and was succeeded by Lord Gort, from Gibraltar.

Up to the middle of March, 1942, there had been some 1,300 attacks from the air, an average of more than two every twenty-four hours. Yet, according to General Beak, the effect was not comparable in violence or damage with that of the raids on London or other cities in Britain, such as Coventry or Plymouth. Buildings and homes, being of stone, could not be easily destroyed, and it was possible for the population to be dispersed quickly over 80 square miles and to take shelter in rock tunnels. The rock can be worked without much difficulty, yet has good power of resistance. Very few places could be better off for shelters from air raids. In the long underground corridors tunnels were provided and many made a regular practice of sleeping every night in them. As soon as the All Clear signal went, shelters hurried up to the surface and resumed their ordinary life. Inevitably the raids, occurring almost daily, had an effect on many people's nerves, but protests were made against the islanders being regarded as the victims of 'terrible conditions and unrelied strain.' In many ways life was carried on as usual. There were even, in the words of the Lieut.-Governor, Sir E. Jackson, 'very attractive little parties, gatherings of fashionably dressed women.' More important, the farming on which the food supply of the people mainly depended was kept going.

Yet, although well fed and well sheltered from the bomb attacks, the Maltese existed in a state of perpetual peril, and the resolute courage they showed stirred the admiration of the world. King George VI became Colonel-in-Chief of the Maltese Artillery; Mr. Churchill spoke of the 'magnificent and ever-memorable defence of the heroic garrison,' and the British Government contributed one million pounds to the Malta Relief Fund, to which the Navy, the Dominions, the United States and Egypt gave generously. Admiral Cunningham, commanding in the Mediterranean, congratulated people and garrison on the gallantry they showed and the indomitable spirit which enabled them to fight back with such vigour that the enemy 'found it well to keep his distance.' This hardly applied to aircraft, but it described the naval situation correctly. After one attempt to penetrate the harbour of Valetta on July 26, 1941, the Italians held discreetly aloof. On that occasion they used E-boats and one-man torpedoes.

The latter craft were described by Sir E. Jackson as small, narrow motorboats with the explosive in the bow. The navigator had a high seat in the stern. He approached his target at full speed and after leaving the boat carefully pulled a lever which jacked him backwards, seat and all, into the sea. The seat could then be well used as a raft, but there was not much chance of escape. All the vessels which attacked at Valetta were destroyed.

MALTA AND GIBRALTAR CONTROL THE WEST MEDITERRANEAN

Gibraltar, at the western gate of the Mediterranean, came into British hands in 1704, when it was taken by a combined British and Dutch force. Malta was ruled by the Knights of St. John from 1530 to 1798, when Napoleon captured the island. In 1814 it became a British possession. Only about 80 miles from Sicily, it has been in the battlefront throughout the conflict, and from its aerodromes the R.A.F. has waged war against the Regia Aeronautica and the Luftwaffe.
FOUR LEADERS AT THE MALTA OUTPOST

Lieut.-General Sir William Dobbie, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O. (above, left), became Governor of Malta in 1941, after about a year as Acting Governor. The troops were under the command of Maj.-General D. M. W. Buck, V.C., D.S.O. (above, right). (Below, left) Vice-Admiral Sir Ralph Leatham, who, before his appointment as Flag Officer in charge of Malta (January, 1942), was C-in-C, East India Station, Air Vice-Marshal H. P. Lloyd, C.B.E. (below, right). A.O.C.-in-C, Mediterranean, was appointed in June, 1942.

Position at Gibraltar.

either by shore batteries or by aircraft. The Italians landed as completely on the water as they had done in the air.

Italian airmen called Malta "the devil's island" because of its effective anti-aircraft defences and the bold efficiency of its fighter planes. An Italian radio commentator described it as "a colossal and unsinkable aircraft carrier." Only when German bombers with fighter escorts were raiding the island from airfields in Sicily did the population in general consider themselves to be in danger. Heavy Nazi attacks were made during the earlier months of 1941. The aircraft carrier "Illustrious" was then at Malta and the most desperate efforts were made to destroy it (see Chapter 154). The "Illustrious" had been pursued into Malta harbour on January 9, but beat off the Stukas; on the 18th there began a series of heavy attacks on the harbour. The enemy lost nearly forty machines on Jan. 29, and on February 9 Mr. Churchill told Britain that more than ninety had been destroyed over Malta or at their Sicilian bases.

Withdrawn in the early summer for the opening of the Russian campaign, the Germans returned at the end of the year. On Nov. 30 the island had its 1,000th alert. During December, 1941, and the first half of January, 1942, there were as many as 250 raids, and in March they became even more formidable. The fact that forty enemy machines were brought down or damaged in the first nine days of the month indicates the number employed. But it was not only in warding off the enemy that the R.A.F. excelled. As the Minister for Air, Sir A. Sinclair, put it, " alike in attack and defence they kept their mastery over the German and Italian air forces, a brilliant achievement which nothing in the stirring history of the island surpassed." They kept the sea lanes open for British shipping; they made them very risky for enemy vessels. Being so much nearer to Italy's vital centres than airmen at any other British base, they were able to inflict severe damage on Naples and Sicily at frequent intervals.

The battle for Malta went on with periods of comparative quiet which were broken again by furious hunts of Axis activity. Steadily the strength of the defence was built up until by early summer of 1942 the R.A.F. had achieved parity with the enemy—and our fighter pilots were destroying 112 raiders in a single week-end. On April 16, 1942, H.M. The King awarded the George Cross to Malta.

On May 8, 1942, Malta had its 2,300th air raid alert, and a few days later Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Longmore told for the first time some remarkable facts about the early days of the island's battle with Axis raiders. It had been thought that the operation of any aircraft, even fighter defence, from Malta would be out of the question because of the close proximity to Sicily. There were no aircraft on the island when it entered the war, and only Air Vice-Marshal Maynard and a nucleus of R.A.F. officers remained. Incensed by Italian bombers cruising leisurely overhead, these officers searched the dockyard and found some packing cases in which were parts of Gladiators: four of these fighters were assembled, and after a few practice flights the pilots took off on real business and met with immediate success against the next lot of Italians to come over the island outpost.

Gibraltar, at the other end of the Mediterranean, did not have to go through the same ordeal as Malta. It was too far away from Italy to be bombed by Mussolini's air force. The only serious raid was actually the work of French aircraft which dropped bombs on Sept. 25, 1940, as a reprisal for the British Navy's action against French ships at Dakar. Some houses and other buildings were damaged and one small ship

GOVERNOR OF GIBRALTAR, APRIL, 1941-MAY, 1942

Lord Gort, here seen congratulating winners in a storm-platoon competition at the Rock, left Gibraltar on May 8, 1942, to become Governor of Malta.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright
AIR RAID SCENES IN ISLAND CITADEL

By Nov. 30, 1941, there had been 2,000, and by April 7, 1942, 2,300 air alerts at Malta. Sometimes the red warning flag (seen being hoisted, top, left) was flown for hours. Top, right, view of thirty underground galleries used as air shelters. A scene during a raid in December, 1941, is shown below, with bombs bursting in the harbour waters. British bombers operating from Malta hit back most vigorously, and in November alone they dropped over a million bombs on enemy targets. Out of our Hurricanes is seen refuelling in centre, left.

British Official: Crown Copyright: Illustrated News
WESTERN GATEWAY OF THE MEDITERRANEAN

Left-hand lower photograph was taken from Gibraltar, looking eastwards towards the Spanish town of La Lina—separated by a neutral strip from the British boundary. Just within the latter is the airfield in the former racetrack.
Top, left, searchlights probe the sky for enemy aircraft. Top, right, a Coastal Command Catalina takes on bombs. Lower, right, guarding an ammunition store within the Rock.

ON GUARD IN THE BRITISH COLONY OF CYPRUS

After the fall of Crete Cyprus became increasingly important as a Mediterranean outpost. Ceded to Britain for administrative purposes by Turkey in 1878, it was annexed in 1914 and made a British Colony eleven years later. The photograph shows a look-out post manned by units of the Cyprus Regiment (Cyprites).

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright.

sunk, but most of the explosives fell in the sea or on bare rock and did no harm.

From the date of the crumpling of the French resistance (May 21, 1940) the evacuation of women and children from Gibraltar began as a pre-emptory measure, and this was extended to civilians generally who were not directly concerned with defence. All who remained were subject, from August 29, 1940, to compulsory military service, if between the ages of 18 and 41. Every effort was made to render the place impregnable against attack by land or sea. Attacked from the air was less to be feared, since the nature of the Rock was in itself defensive, and below the surface there were ten miles of tunnels, where 20,000 men could not merely shelter but could live; where vast quantities of stores had been accumulated; and where concealed guns and searchlights could be worked as effectively as if they had been in the open. These searchlights had a range of eight miles.

Three zones of defence were in existence; one was against land attack from Spain; the second, protected the harbour, docks and seaplane base; the third covered the interior of the fortress. From 1939 onwards these zones were worked on continually, and by the summer of 1940 they were five times as strong as they had been before the war. When Lord Gort (formerly commanding the B.E.F. in France and after that Inspector-General of Training in the U.K.) was sent to Gibraltar on April 23, 1941, as governor and commander-in-chief, exchanging places with Gen. Liddell, he found it in as good a state of preparedness as could be attained. How well the harbour was guarded had been proved on September 20, 1940, when Italian "Grasshopper" torpedoes-boats of the same type as those used in the futile raid at Valetta were employed. Claims were put out by Rome radio that these had done great damage, sinking one vessel of 12,000 tons, four of 6,000 each, and a 10,000-ton tanker. The British Admiralty described this statement as "grossly exaggerated" and reported that one coal hulk had been sent to the bottom.

Cyprus, the third British Mediterranean outpost, with Turkey to the north of it and Syria to the east, had little to do with war beyond paying income tax for the first time in history, with heavier duties on tobacco, spirits and beer, and subscribing a sum of £2,500 towards a "Plane Fund." This was not a large amount in itself, but better than it seemed when one considered that the annual Budget of the island came to no more than £70,000. Regulations were made for the arrest and internment of Fifth Columnists who might try to help Italy, and there was strict control of photographic cameras, wireless and propaganda. Otherwise Cyprus went on as usual. It proved a convenient half-way house for a meeting between the Turkish Foreign Minister, M. Sarajoglou, and Mr. Anthony Eden, on March 18, 1941.

After the fall of Crete there were fears that the island would be the next objective of the Nazi air forces. Obviously it was in an important strategic position in relation to Turkey, Syria and Egypt, and its defences were enlarged. But the time was not ripe for any development of German plans in this part of the Middle East and no action followed.

ITALIAN BOMBS ON HAIFA

The modern town of Haifa, on the Bay of Acre in Palestine, was built by Jewish pioneers and has a population of about 100,000. This photograph, looking down from Mount Carmel, was taken during an Italian bombing raid early in 1941 and shows an oil storage tank alight.

Photo, Keystone.
Chapter 181

ROMMEL’S ADVANCE IN LIBYA AND THE BRITISH WITHDRAWAL

German Afrika Korps in Libya: The Clash at El Agheila—We Withdraw from Benghazi, April 3, 1941—Capture of Three British Generals—Rommel’s Swift Drive to the Egyptian Frontier—Tobruk Remains as a Spearhead Against the Enemy Flank—Italo-German Offensive on the Frontier—British Offensives in May—The Lull
(The Defense of Tobruk is described in Chapter 162)

For some six weeks after Feb. 9, 1941, when the Army of the Nile occupied El Agheila, 175 miles S.W. of Benghazi, there was no change in the Libyan situation. At El Agheila the conquerors came to a halt, and there were many far away from the battle-front and not too well acquainted with the difficulties and the possibilities of the situation who girded at General Wavell for not exploiting his victory to the utmost by pushing on to Tripoli and so clearing the enemy out of North Africa altogether. But in fact there were reasons enough for pulling back on the borders of Tripolitania. One reason stands out: the fact that many of General Maitland Wilson’s best troops and a large proportion of his armoured strength had gone with him to Greece.

Such a diminution of strength could not be hidden for long from the Axis commanders in Libya, and as soon as it was suspected they hastened to profit by it. Towards the middle of March there came reports from Berlin of the activities of an “Afrika Korps” under the command of General Rommel, and on March 24 a small enemy detachment had occupied El Agheila. This force consisted of mechanized units of mixed Italo-German composition, well supplied with tanks and dive-bombers. Apparently the Germans had landed at Tripoli or at points in the Gulf of Sirte, and there were strong suspicions that this had been done with the connivance of the Vichy-French authorities in Tunis. It was significant that as early as March 23 the R.A.F. had bombed shipping at Sirte, among their targets being transports which may well have brought the Germans from Sicily, and from the night of March 24 Tripoli was a constant target for British bombers for several weeks.

Withdrawing before the enemy’s advance, the British patrols moved back along the road to Benghazi, and on April 3 Cairo announced that the Libyan capital had been evacuated.

“In the face of a determined advance by strong Italo-German forces,” read the communiqué issued the next morning, “and to pursuance of the policy so successfully adopted at Skor Banazl of wishing to choose our own battlefield, our light covering detachments have been withdrawn to selected concentrations areas. In the course of this withdrawal the town of Benghaz was evacuated after all military stores and equipment had ceased to be of any military value of view, and it has not been used by us as a post. As in the autumn of 1940, the enemy is evidently making a propaganda success of the exposure of stretching still further an already extended line of communication. In their withdrawal our troops have already inflicted on the enemy considerable casualties in personnel and in tanks.”

A British official spokesman in Cairo did his best to minimize the importance of the withdrawal. In desert warfare, he pointed out, it was not the policy to capture towns but to prevent armies being scooped up, as Marshal Graziani’s Italian army had been by General Wavell. The British would fight on a battlefield of their own choosing, and the enemy would be allowed to penetrate eastwards until he reached a point whose battle could be given with the assurance of success. In what the spokesman described as “worthless desert wastes” the object was to punish the enemy by inflicting the greatest possible damage to his men and material with the ultimate object of wearing him down. And that we were doing, since many casualties had been inflicted on the enemy, whereas ours were slight. Moreover, Benghazi is useless to either side.

All the same, the news of Benghazi’s fall came as a bitter pill, and it was noted that the military spokesman’s comfortable words were barely echoed by Mr. Churchill. In the House of Commons on April 9 the Prime Minister gave a review of the war situation in which he admitted that, although our submarines and aircraft had taken a heavy toll of the transports carrying German
troops and vehicles, the enemy had built up strong armoured forces on the African shore. "With these forces they have made a rapid attack in greater strength than our commanders expected at so early a date, and we have fallen back upon stronger positions and more defensible country."

The next day the War Office gave some particulars of the withdrawal from Benghazi. During its course—a number of casualties had been inflicted on the pursuers, but, on the other hand, such was the fluid state of the front, a number of prisoners had fallen into the enemy’s hands. The German claim to have captured some 2,000 British was stated to be not impossible, and it was admitted that among them were three generals, whose capture was "sheer bad luck"; Lt.-Gen. Sir Richard O’Connor (who was in command of the armoured divisions of the Army of the Nile in their triumphant march through Cyrenaica a few weeks earlier), with Lt.-Gen. Neame, V.C., fell into the "bag" at Marwa, while Maj.-Gen. M. D. Gambier-Parry was captured at Mekili. About the same time yet another British commander, Maj.-Gen. Carton de Wiart, V.C., was captured in Cyrenaica while flying from Britain to the Middle East.

Benghazi was but one stage in the enemy's advance. On April 7, four days after Benghazi's fall, Derna was entered by the Italo-Germans; on April 12 they claimed to have occupied Bardia after they had by-passed Tobruk, and on April 14 they were reported in Fort Capuzzo. From there it was but a step into Egypt, and within a day or two German patrols clashed with British on Egyptian soil. Thus in little more than a fortnight practically all Wavell's territorial conquests had been wiped out; and the threat to Egypt and the Suez Canal, which Mr. Churchill had so recently declared was completely banished, was once again all too manifest. Yet many of the strategic results of Wavell's victories remained. The masses of prisoners and great accumulations of material captured could not easily be replaced. The R.A.F. maintained its supremacy in the air and continually harassed Rommel's advancing columns and his communications. Moreover, Tobruk had not been
abandoned and effectively limited the size of the force which could by-pass it.

The decision to hold Tobruk, whose defenses had been so little valued to the Italians, was as bold as it was to prove important, for the garrison available was none too strong to hold the 30 miles of its perimeter.

Speaking in the House of Commons on April 25, the Prime Minister, after referring to the disasters which had just occurred to the Allied arms in the Balkans, went on to describe the "vexatious and damaging defeat" sustained in Libya.

"The Germans," he said, "advanced sooner and greater strength than we or our generals expected. The bulk of our armored troops which had taken a decisive part in subduing the Italians had to be re-formed; the Italian armored divisions which had been judged sufficient to hold the frontier until about the middle of May was wrecked and its vehicles largely destroyed by a somewhat stronger German armored force. Our infantry, which had not exceeded one division, had to fall back on the very large Imperial armies that had been assembled and could be reinforced and maintained in the north of the Nile.

With the Germans over the Egyptian frontier the situation in Libya held some peril. Rommel, it was clear, had made his command a force far more powerful than had been at first supposed, and a large-scale offensive designed to cut the life-line of the British Empire which runs through Egypt and the Red Sea was an ominous possibility. If Rommel could be sufficiently reinforced and could build up resources for a drive across the desert to the

On May 7 the Prime Minister again reviewed the campaign. The loss of the Nile valley and the Suez Canal and of our position in the Mediterranean, he said, as well as the loss of Malta, would be among the heaviest blows which we could sustain.

"We are determined to fight for them with all the resources of the British Empire, and we have every reason to believe that we shall be successful." General Wavell went on, had, under his orders at that moment nearly half a million men, equipment had been flowing into the Middle East during the last three months; forces which had just overcome Italian resistance in East Africa were now being steadily concentrated northwards, and General Smuts had ordered the splendid South Africans forward to the Mediterranean shores. "Warfare in the Western Desert can only be conducted by a comparatively small number of highly equipped troops. Here the fortunes of war are subject to violent oscillation, and more numbers do not count." When the German advance began, Rommel's armored force was not much larger than our own. But, went on Mr. Churchill, "tactical mistakes were committed and mishandlings occurred, and with very little fighting our armored force became disorganized." From the examination of prisoners it had been learnt that the Germans at the outset had no expectations of going beyond

A CONTRAST IN RESPIRATORS

The familiar British Service respirator is seen without its hosework at the left. The filter-element, of course, is supported normally by the webbing strap of the haversack. In contrast, the filter of the German mask (right) is fixed to the facepiece.
AFTER ROMMEL RETOOK BENGHAZI

Top, at El Aghella a Nazi with anti-tank rifle scans the desert. Centre photograph shows a low-flying Messerschmitt 109 camouflaged to blend with the ground pattern. Below, left, German tanks entering a barracks area. Right, an armoured car of the Deutsche Afrika Korps outside Benghazai.

Photos, Keystone
and made a penetration of the Capuzzo defences. But Rommel brought up reinforcements and for several days there was fierce fighting. Such a tank battle, it was said, had not been seen since the classic clash at Cambrai in 1917, and Rutter's Correspondent described the struggle as "a fantastic Welshian clash of metal monsters." On both sides the claim was made that large numbers of the opposing tanks had been knocked out, but in the end the Nazis' superiority in armoured strength told. Forced to withdraw from the Halawya and Capuzzo sectors, the British had to abandon, too, their gains in the plain below. So the Battle of the Sollum Triangle, as it was styled at the time, ended in a draw.

Henceforth for weeks and months the opposing armies on the Egyptian frontier were content with a war of waiting watchfulness. But always Tobruk stuck like a thorn in Rommel's side.

Jedabia. "They meant to engage our armoured troops and create a diversion to prevent the dispatch of troops to Greece while they were bringing larger forces from Italy and Sicily, and building up their supplies and communications. But when they won their surprising success they exploited it with organized and enterprising audacity. They pushed on until they came up against Tobruk, and there they met their prop. They pushed on until they came in contact with the large forces which guard the frontier of Egypt and tie back securely based on the road, railway and sea communications. There for the present they stopped.

For the present... Following an enemy reconnaissance from the Sollum area on May 12, when five small columns of Nazi tanks made a sortie in the direction of Sollum, the British took the offensive on May 15 and made considerable progress in the Sollum-Halawya area; Sollum itself was reported to have once again changed hands, together with Fort Capuzzo. But the tide swiftly turned, and on May 27 came the announcement that the Empire forces had again withdrawn from the battle-scared Halawya slopes. Another month of patrol and harassing activity ensued; then there was another spasms of conflict. Again the Empire forces attacked in the Sollum-Halawya-Sidi Omar-Capuzzo area; again there were initial gains, since the British secured a footing on Halawya.

**CAPTURED MEN AND MATERIAL OF GERMAN AFRIKA KORPS**

Something of Germany's keen hunger for an African foothold is suggested by the lavish way in which she equipped a corps d'élite for service in Libya. On the Nazi tank (taken at Sollum) at top in the palm-tree-and-swastika symbol of the Afrika Korps. Men of the Royal Tank Regt. are examining the vehicle. Lower photograph, an Afrika Korps prisoner having his wound dressed.
Chapter 162

HEROIC DEFENCE OF TOBRUK, APRIL 13 TO DECEMBER 8, 1941

Major-General Morshad and His Garrison—Desperate German Attacks—Successful sorties: Garrison Takes Many Prisoners—Life in the Beleaguered Stronghold—Navy keeps the back-door open—Destroyers' nightly dash with supplies—British, Polish and Czech troops come to Tobruk—Auchinleck's columns open a corridor—Garrison fights a way out

EARLY in April, 1941, Tobruk was attacked by Rommel's armoured columns swept past in the desert to the south, in pursuit of other portions of the force of occupation which was continuing its retreat. From then until the joining of Auchinleck's offensive in November it was an island of British power in the heart of the enemy's territory, a persistent thorn in his flank; a prop—to use Mr. Churchill's term—which did much to resource. From the outset they took full advantage of the large stocks of captured weapons, and ammunition which the Italians had left behind, and these made it possible for the defenders to develop a formidable fire-power in the posts which were established in the perimeter—that 30-mile-long corridor drawn over the desert. The Australian sappers also made good any deficiency in mines by going out into the desert at night and appropriating mines which had been laid by the enemy.

The beginning of the siege—some may cavil at the use of the word, since, throughout, the way to Tobruk from the sea was kept open by the Royal Navy—was marked by some hard fighting. On April 14, when the town had been cut off for a week or so, the enemy launched a heavy attack with infantry and tanks. At one point, reported G.H.Q. at Cairo, twenty German tanks crossed the outer defences, but an immediate counter-attack restored the position, heavy losses being inflicted on the enemy in both personnel and tanks. Another attack on April 17 was similarly repulsed, again with heavy loss to the enemy. Yet another desperate attempt to take the place was launched two days later. German tanks charged in waves down the Derna road and across the low slopes north of Tobruk; twelve succeeded in penetrating the outer defences, but were there met with such a terrific artillery fire that they were compelled to withdraw. Four were knocked out, and the remainder limped slowly back beneath a curtain of shrapnel to their lines. So fierce had been their reception.

MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE INVESTMENT OF TOBRUK

When Rommel's army swept over the desert eastwards in April 1941, Tobruk was held by a garrison consisting mostly of Australians under the command of General L. J. Morrishead. The Royal Navy maintained supplies, and in due course received most of the original defenders by British, Polish and Czech formations. Up to the middle of December, when the 'sieghe' was raised, British destroyers had landed some 34,000 tons of supplies.

Specially inserted for The Second World War by Felix Garden

THORN IN THE ENEMY'S SIDE

Though acerbated by Axis troops on April 13, 1941, Tobruk held out against repeated attacks until the garrison under Maj.-Gen. L. J. Morrishead (above) reached junction with General Ritchie's advancing force in December. Throughout eight months of investment the garrison made many offensive sorties and even took prisoners.

Photo: British Official: Crown Copyright

prevent the Italo-Nazi from exploiting their victory to the uttermost and securing positions from which a threat to Egypt might eventually develop. During all those months the place was raided by high- and low-flying bombers and shelled without number, while on other days Rommel unleashed his tanks against the defences carved out of the sand and the rock of the desert.

So suddenly was the decision taken to drop a garrison into Tobruk and hold it to the last that there was little time to organize the defences on a proper scale. But the Australians under Maj.-Gen. L. J. Morrishead, who constituted the greater part of the garrison, were quick to improvisation, nimble in
GRAVE OF TOBRUK HERO

On the night of April 13-14, 1941, a party of German infantry established themselves with machine-guns and small field pieces inside the Tobruk wire defences. One of seven sent to attack them, Corporal John Henry Bosman, A.I.F., was wounded in neck and abdomen but carried on and killed one enemy with the bayonet. Then, when his officer was attacked by two Germans, Bosman rushed to his aid and killed both the assailants. Soon after returning the brave corporal died of his wounds; posthumously he was awarded the well-deserved V.C.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright

that the enemy infantry had no opportunity of entering the battle.

Followed some successful sorties by the Australians; then the enemy tried his luck again, on April 24, and again was repulsed.

A week went by before the next assault. On April 30 Italian infantry, supported by a number of German tanks, once again managed to break through a sector of the outer defences. Fighting continued for several days and nights, but on the afternoon of May 3 the invading tanks were driven out of the perimeter by artillery fire, and the Italian infantry were given no chance to consolidate the ground which had been won in the first few hours of the engagement. After the enemy's repulse the Imperial forces threw up new defences facing the south-western sector of the outer perimeter, which had been breached for a length of some 2,000 yards, and where the enemy succeeded in maintaining a wedge inside the wire.

By this time, the Tobruk garrison had taken 3,000 prisoners, and during the weeks that followed—weeks during which the communiqués declared as often as not that there was "No change at Tobruk"—the Australians maintained a series of small-scale offensive operations, clearing frequently and successfully with the enemy patrols amid the scrub and dunes. On the night of August 9 an attack by Italian infantry on a British post in the outer defence ring was frustrated, practically all the assailants being wiped out by heavy artillery and machine-gun fire at close range; but such was the torrid heat, so hampering the dust-storms, that activity on the one side and the other was at a minimum. Still, however, the Nazi 'planes were not idle, and many dive-bombing attacks were made on Tobruk and the defenders' lines in and about the town and its harbour. Artillery fire, too, was kept up, so that the organ of war was never entirely silent.

Such in brief was the story of Tobruk until November, when the Eighth Army set out to smash Rommel. In the opening phase of that terrific struggle the gallant garrison played a most manifold part, but it was not until December 9 that a junction was effected with Ritchie's men, and then—such were the swiftly changing fortunes of war in that grimy and hostile battle—it was but a short time before Tobruk was once again cut off from the main British force.

But this is to anticipate. Here we are concerned with the first phase of Tobruk's history—of that "siege" which, lasting as it did for eight months in all, ranks among the longest in our imperial history. Now and again the place was visited by correspondents of the British press, and they had much to say that was dramatic and of impressionistic intensity. "As seen from the sea at night," wrote Richard Capell of The Daily Telegraph, "Tobruk rather suggests the Ypres salient in the old days, with an elaborate display of rockets. Very lighted gun-flashes and bursting ack-ack shells." Daylight revealed its sparsely built harbour as a graveyard of ships, while all the town itself, once picturesque enough with its white houses set against a background of brown hills, little remained that was not torn and battered by bomb and shell. Hospital and school, winches and stony arcades—all were now wrecked; while, for the rest, within the 100 square miles—about the size of the Isle of Wight—that was contained within the perimeter, there was hardly a landmark. Altogether the place was unprepossessing enough, wind-swept and barren save for a few palms, fig trees and prickly pears in the wadis near the sea. On the plateau above there was...
VIVID SCENES IN TOBRUK AREA

The central photograph conveys a good impression of the country over which, near the coast, there raged the stern battles for supremacy; it shows Australians returning from an eastward patrolled. Top, a British party crosses a Tobruk street. Bottom, taking cover from an Italian shell in the forward area.

Photos: British Official Crown Copyright
expatiating on the strength of the
defences, which, he alleged, were now
among the best in the world, better
than the Maginot Line, in parts better
than the Siegfried Line; and they
were held by the British with a stubborn
tenacity. To take them by assault,
said the commentator, was impossible;
he refrained from mentioning that the
Italian defence of those same lines had
lasted thirty hours . . .

Life in Tobruk was not only exciting
but hard. There were few amenities for
the defenders, whether they had their
quarters in the ruined houses of the
little town or in caves in the hillside,
in trenches cut in the open desert or
in the Italian-built fortifications in the
outer perimeter, some ten or eleven
miles from the harbour. They had
enough food, but it was bully, bully,
all the time. Fresh vegetables and fruit
were hard to come by. Drinking water
was rationed, and so, too, were cigarettes,
difficulties and dangers, casualties were
not heavy. The place was healthy and,
except for sores, the troops kept very fit.

The wireless and the Navy kept the
garrison in touch with the outside world.
The Navy, indeed, did a grand work.
Between April 12 and Dec. 10 it carried
29,000 men of all ranks into Tobruk,
evacuated 23,000 and ran in 34,000 tons
of supplies and foodstuffs. During the
early days, said Rear-Admiral Glenie,
"supplies were run in by a mixed
collection, including minesweepers and
escorted vessels, then later by destroyers
who were the only vessels with sufficient
speed in face of the increased German
threat from the air. We ran an average
of three destroyers every night,
sometimes accompanied by a minesweeper
and escorts. The runs took about 17
hours, arriving about 11 o'clock at
night and allowing a maximum of two
hours for unloading. When we got
there, what navigation lights there were
were necessarily very dim. In that
ship's graveyard were twenty-two
wrecks; some were clearly visible,
others submerged. The quays were very
poor, having been knocked about by
repeated bombing. The problem of
handling gear was especially difficult,
and minesweepers worked up a high
speed of efficiency by careful and
rapid unloading into lighter. But on a very few

LUFTWAFFE'S BOMBS AND BLANDISHMENTS

The propaganda leaflet shown below, dropped upon Tobruk, appears to
have been written by someone who had long enjoyed British hospitality;
and while our men
equally admire the scrupulous care and the
hospitality of the Australians who sort out the
unknown, these men in their turn think
that the Indians, rich in North-West
Frontier experiences, are the supreme
masters of patrolling.

When the enemy had endeavoured
for some months to force Tobruk into
surrender, a military commentator in
the Berlin Press was put up to explain
the German failure. He did so by
There were no cinemas, no canteens.
Even worse, there was no beer. Bathing
was to be had, but it was apt to be
unpleasantly interrupted by low-flying
Nazis raiders. Mail was irregular and
two, but the garrison produced its
own newspapers - "The Tobruk Truth"
(Thursday), whose motto was
always appears, and an even livelier
production, "Mud and Blood."

After ten days in the line the men
were given two days off, which they
passed in Tobruk or in lounging on the
beaches; but the fortnight few there
was an occasional week-end in Cairo.
But, in spite of the discomforts,
SCARS OF BATTLE AT GALLANT TOBRUK

A journal entitled the Tobruk "Truth" (and nicknamed "Dinkum Oil") by the troops was issued regularly by the Australians of the garrison below is a glimpse of the editorial-sum-production department. Top Photograph shows wrecked and battered ships in Tobruk harbour.

Photed, British Official: Crown Copyright

occasions have we failed to deliver our goods. Admiral Gleaves paid a particular tribute to the work of the Australian destroyers, "who were a grand party of chap and who carried the heat and burden of the day when Tobruk was first invested."

Before Auchinleck's offensive most of the original garrison were relieved. In place of the Australians came a British division, a Polish brigade and a Czechoslovak battalion. But the Australian battalion was not taken off for lack of time, and it, together with three British artillery regiments and a battalion of Northumberland Fusiliers, went right through the siege. And they were, too, under Maj.-Gen. Scobie, in the van when on that day in December the "Tobruk rats," as the Germans had early dubbed them, shook hands in El Adem with South Africans and Indians advancing from the south-east.
Diary of the War

MARCH AND APRIL, 1941

March 1. 1941. Bulgaria signs Tripartite Pact with Germany, thus assuring her that Germany will not use her against Italy. Varna, Bulgarian Army, British forces Marsa Malta, and Italy. Overall, a day of relative calm.

March 2. Day raids on Berlin, Hambourg, Hiltersburg, and Rostock. Heavy night attack on Brest.

March 3. Cardiff suffers destroyer night attack. We bomb Cologne severely.

March 4. Commando raid on German interests in London islands: 11 enemy ships sunk. Fish oil factories, storage tanks and power station destroyed. 225 prisoners taken. Cardiff raidied again.

March 5. German aircraft destroyed over Malta. RAF attack Brest again.

March 7. Destroyer "Dainty" reported sunk. Destroyer raid on Midlands torn.


March 9. Heavy night raids on London and Fort on Sardinia. Italian offensive in Africa.

March 10. RAF launch heavy night attack on Bremen. Cherbourg, Brest and Brest.


March 12. RAF launch heavy raid of 3000 sorties against Berlin, with 4000 sorties against Bremen. Largest raid on Messina airfield. Many enemy bombers destroyed.

March 13. Heavy night fighting reported in Athens.


March 15. Greeks report Italian ships preparing for attack, with great interest. Kiel is enemy's chief night target. RAF raid Dusseldorf and London.

March 16. Summarize "Scapero" collision. Chief British reprimand is to find a better ship.


March 18. Heavy night raid on Kiel. Enemy raid on Brest.


March 27. British capture Kars. Haifa seized, Prince Paul and Yugo.


March 29. British capture Dardanas. Night raid on Brest Channel area.


March 31. Powerful air bomb used during night attack: 11 enemy bombers destroyed. German ports also attacked. In Libya, British are in contact with enemy.

April 1. Athens, capital of Greece, surrenders. Italian troops begin capture of Athens. Brest, Rostock, and Brest.

April 2. Heavy night bombing of Sardinia. Brest and Brest raid.

April 3. Italian units advancing on the east. British stay on defense. Brest bombarded.

April 4. Heavy night raid on Brest Channel area.


April 7. Nine raids by heavy bombers raid Kiel. Enemy recapture Derna, Libya. Heavy night raids on Liverpool area and elsewhere.


April 10. Three raids on Yugoslavia over proposed pact with Axis.


April 13. Norwegian warship destroys large fish oil factory near Hammerfest. Norway, Brest, and Brest.

April 14. Heavy night raid on Brest. German forces relieve Athens and Port Capua. Athens suffers first day raid.

April 15. Enemy convoy of four transports and three escort vessels sunk by Navy off Tripoli.


April 17. Yugoslav capitulates. Brest Channel area.

April 18. Greek and Imperial forces withdrawing while Imperial forces advance against Mount Olympus.


April 20. Greek forces in Epirus and Macedon capitulate. Night raids on Channel area.

April 21. Night raids on Channel area.

April 22. Brest, Rostock, and Brest.

April 23. Italian troops capture Crete. Italian troops capture Crete.


April 25. British capture Joppa. Lord Gort appointed Governor of Creta.

April 27. German forces enter Athens. Heavy night raid on Portsmouth.

April 28. German forces capture Plymouth. London heavily raidied at night. We bomb Brest at first.

April 29. Another severe night raid on Plymouth. RAF attack Brest and Brest.

April 30. Main night attack on Kiel. Other targets are Brest, Hamburg and Rostock. Enemy penetrates another defense of version of Tobruk.
WARTIME BADGES OF BRITAIN'S ARMED FORCES

The badges shown above came into use between September, 1939, and December, 1941. All are worn on the sleeve except those of the Army Catering Corps, Pioneer Corps, and Reconnaissance Corps (worn on cap). Air Gunner (on left breast), and the King's Badge for men and women invalided from the armed forces (in coat lapel). The Eagle Squadron, composed exclusively of American fighter pilots, was attached to the R.A.F. for operational purposes.
FORMER AMERICAN DESTROYERS HELPED TO GUARD BRITISH CONVOYS

The watch over convoys in the Atlantic shipping lanes imposed a strain on the resources of the Royal Navy, so that the accession of fifty “obsolete” destroyers formerly in the U.S. Navy proved extremely valuable. The first of these vessels came into use in September, 1940. This photograph shows one of them on convoy escort, weaving its way between the merchantmen and keeping a perpetual watch for U-boats or hostile aircraft.

From a direct colour photograph by Fox Photos
Chapter 163

ITALY LOSES HER DREAM OF EMPIRE IN EAST AFRICA, MARCH, 1941

Italy's Strategic Objectives and Her Supply Quandary—General Cunningham's Forces for His Manifold Battle Front—Advance into Somaliland—Enemy's Collapse on the Juba—Capture of Mogadishu—British Landing at Berbera—Siege and Battle of Keren—Capture of Asmara and Massawa—Operations in Abyssinia (see Chapter 164 for full account)—End of Mussolini's African Dream

The close of 1940 roughly coincided with the turn of the tide of war in Italian East Africa, as Abyssinia, Eritrea and Italian Somaliland had been styled by decree of June 1, 1936, after the formal Italian annexation of Abyssinia on March 9 of that year.

Somaliland port of Mogadishu. The Emperor Haile Selassie was at Khartoum (he entered Ethiopia on Jan. 15, 1941), and to the apprehensive ears of Italian fighting men in Ethiopia came the distant beat of the imperial drums of war, bringing with it fear of revolt among the Amhara Abyssinians.

So much for the situation in the first days of 1941. What of the ingredients of the Italian African campaign as a whole? The main strategy was the invasion of Egypt through Libya; of the Sudan from northern Eritrea and Ethiopia; and of Somaliland and Kenya from the bastion of Ethiopia's central massif. Success would have solved many pressing problems for Fascist Italy. With an African Empire reaching from the southern shore of the Mediterranean to the East African Indian Ocean seaboard, Italy would have become the first-class Power which she already believed herself to be. Far more than Nazi Germany Italy needed Lebensraum, for in such over-populated provinces as the Roanina not even her thrifty and hardworking peasantry could scratch more than the barest living from the grinding earth. By 1940 her national Treasure held only £200,000,000, a figure which atoms absorbed dimensions beyond the £183,000,000 long-term plan for Italian East African expenditure. There was a serious wheat shortage, for the British Fleet stood before the Port Said entrance of the Suez Canal, through which formerly had come no less than 80 per cent of Italy's imported foodstuffs.

BRIGADIER DAN PienaAR, D.S.O.
Commander of the South African I.c. for its East African observer was awarded the D.S.O. for his brilliant leadership at El Wak, taken by South Africans and Gold Coast troops on December 18, 1940.

In the north the Sudanese Defence Force was making it exceedingly uncomfortable for the enemy occupation of Kassala and Gallabat, the former on the Port Sudan line, and both key points for attacks on the irrigated cotton areas of Gordon. In the south the trackless scrub of Kenya's Northern Frontier Province had become too unhealthy for Italian advance units. Major-General A. G. Cunningham was already taking the initiative west of Lake Rudolf, in the El Wak region and west of it, employing South African and Gold Coast troops and the South African Air Force as a composite East African Force. The Royal Navy was shelling the Italian

![AFTER THE SUCCESSFUL ATTACK ON EL WAK](Image)

Opening their offensive against the Italians, the East African Imperial Forces, on December 18, 1940, invaded Jiboland and took El Wak. Mainly composed of South African formations, the force was supplied by an East African armoured car unit and a Gold Coast battalion with tanks. The photograph shows the frontier post left burning after the successful action.

Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright
small number of intrepid British officers with Abyssinian rebel followers, who penetrated far into Abyssinia and raised the standard of revolt.

Such, in little, was the East African scene at the beginning of 1941. By the end of March the campaign was at an end: a mushroom empire had shrivelled to nothing. It is clear that no other end was possible on the logic of the facts and the psychology of the human elements engaged. There can be no doubt that success was achieved so soon because good generalship went with

wheat. Coal, too, was short, despite German overland deliveries.

Military success meant for Italy the automatic solution of all such problems. But the East African campaign involved risks very much greater than those of the Libyan attempt upon Egypt; foremost among them was the problem of maintaining communications, and how the map clearly reveals the nature of the problem. British control of the Suez Canal brought total paralysis to the modern Eritrea Red Sea port of Massawa. The returns of traffic for the Suez Canal showed how vitally important was the Canal for this terrain, for Italian shipping into Massawa in normal times accounted for no less than one-eighth of the total world tonnage passing through the Canal. The Duke of Aosta, Italian Commander-in-Chief, thus became dependent upon such sea-borne supplies as could get through the British blockade of the Gulf of Aden to Italian Somaliland—to the fine modernized port of Mogadishu and the smaller ones of Kismayu, Brava, Merca and Oboia, each little more than a roadstead. Beyond this, he had only such supplies as could be got to him by air from Italy's many and fine air-fields.

Against these impediments to a free and copious flow of war materials, essential back-up and reinforcements, the Duke had the advantage of operating from a strong natural position with first-class fighting qualities and adequate training—though when General Cunningham took over command training was still proceeding with many units. Our troops, moreover, were prepared to meet extremes of climate and had adequate knowledge of the terrain and of the political affinities of the many peoples inhabiting it.

The troops were made up of a wide range of elements, all carefully selected for this particular task. There were British, Rhodesian, Italian, Somali, South African, Gold Coast African, and, for the Ethiopian revolt, tribesmen of many clans. As to the enemy, Italy had built up a large colonial army both of nationals and native levis, and had in addition a reservoir of trained soldiers to draw upon in her Abyssinian settlers, all ex-service men chosen for immigration. These were settled in groups, organized on semi-military Fascist lines.

A notable feature of the whole campaign was the part played by the R.A.F.
and South African Air Force on the one hand and the Italian Air Force on the other. By the start of 1941 the Italian Air Force had lost some of its best air-fields and, what was more important, its morale. In the Juba River battle, described below, and at Keren, one of the most remarkable single engagements in military history, while our airmen bombed and bombed again, not a single Italian machine went into action against them. This absence of the offensive spirit in the air was matched by a lack of enemy initiative in ground operations. It is true to say that the duration of this campaign might be measured by the amount of the enemy's stores, but in the final analysis it was morale that collapsed—and that long before there was any shortage of food or war materials.

The East African battle-front was manifold, and one correspondent reckoned that there were fourteen "fronts." Somaliland. Upon another front, they made minor inroads upon Abyssinian territory in the south.

The whole picture builds up into a contracting movement, with pressure exerted on the periphery. The plan called for the rapid capture of a battlefront where it was never possible to concentrate large numbers of troops, where there were many engagements between small bodies, and where a battle involving several divisions was the exception. Because of this limiting factor the campaign against Italian Somaliland began with a plan to capture Kismayu, the port at the mouth of the Juba. It was occupied on Feb. 11. At least six brigades were reckoned to be necessary for the capture of Mogadisho on Feb. 26 by the S. Africans. It is the capital, a good modern port, and the terminus of the railway planned to replace the 1,200 miles of road built during the war.

Action was joined on the Juba river, where the Abyssinian, Kenya, and Italian Somaliland frontiers converge. Here, the Italians had piled their best troops, or the best that could be spared from Keren, in a deep defence formation of some 150 miles along the highway to the capital. This was an interesting battle, in which may be seen the sort of manoeuvre by fast-moving mechanical vehicles that so strongly suggests the analogy of sea-fighting. On the Juba our armoured units "sailed" down on the enemy, who, wedged to a defensive policy, contain himself in a series of strong-points. In the end each of these became, like Duffer's Drift, all front and no rear. A powerful enemy force, amply strong enough in men and materials to dispose of the attackers, disintegrated and split up into many small units almost as though to assist the swift-moving British force. Here the Italians were not defeated by the British so much as by the antiquated tactics employed by their own commanders.

The disintegration was moral as well as physical. For example, the Italians had fortified the Juba bridgehead and declared to the native levies that the British would not be able to cross. But on Feb. 26 they did, and the African levies fled in panic. With the exception of the Italian gunners, who did very well, the enemy's morale was everywhere low. He gave the battle away, and with it, as the next few days were to show, the whole colony of Italian Somaliland.

To sum up, our success was due to the errors of the enemy and his lack of

When Berbera Became British Once Again

It had been a bitter though necessary step to relinquish Berbera with the rest of British Somaliland on August 10, 1940. Its recapture after seven months of Italian occupation on March 16, 1941, was all the more gratifying. Top, the Union Jack flies on Government House. Below, alongside the castle emblem of Fezzanis, Somalis at Mogadisho (captured on Feb. 26, 1941) wait at a British light cruiser.

Photo: British Official; Crown Copyright

Three or four main fronts there certainly were. In the north the southward-driving force debouching from the Sultan divided into two, advancing towards Keren in Britten and towards the Abyssinian tableland in the direction of Addis Ababa. The Abyssinian enterprise was not so much a part of the war between Britain and Italy as that of Ethiopia against the invader in possession. The forces operating in the south and south-east had as objectives the occupation of Italian Somaliland, with a northern drive to link up with the forces directed to the retaking of British
THREEFOLD ADVANCE ON ERITREA

The sketch map gives an idea of the strength of the key-point of Keren, in Eritrea, where the Duke of Aosta had built up a force of some 40,000 men. [1] Line of advance of Free French troops along the coastal plain; [2] and [3] lines taken by Imperial troops. Top, a R.A.F. bomber on the way to Keren. Below, left, pack mules and Bren carriers in a forward area. Right, an advanced dressing station near Keren. Invased from Feb. 6, Keren was taken after a battle which lasted from March 15 to 27, 1941.

British Official: Crown Copyright: May, "Daily Express"
fight, then to our artillery, armoured cars and the volume of automatic fire, but perhaps most of all to the speed of our operations.

The result of the collapse of the Juba defence was the disintegration of civil authority in the colony. Administration broke down everywhere, and natives gave way to looting. Mogadishu, which had seemed too far a plum for our reach, fell sweetly into our hands on Feb 26. The great stores taken in the capital proved conclusively that the eventual defeat was not due to the isolation of the East African Empire. There were 315,000 gallons of petrol, 7,000 tons of sugar, 3,000 tons of rice, and much else. The Italians had foreseen the severing of their sea lines of supply and had made adequate provision against it.

The British and Imperial force then worked its way north towards Harar, using Mogadishu as the operational base. Little or no opposition was met with, the enemy not being everywhere general. It may be said that from the capture of Mogadishu Italian Somaliland was virtually conquered. On March 6 our troops were on Abyssinian soil. Four days later came the fall of Dagga But, by which date it was reckoned that the Italians had lost 30,000 men since the Juba crossing.

In the south-west South African troops under General Brink took Hoboka, Gerar and Maga in conditions of drought and heat, cold and wet. Recapture of Berbera, capital of British Somaliland, was the objective of a well-organized assault which in its way was as interesting as the Juba battle, since it illustrated the effective orchestration of air, sea and land forces for offensive purposes. Apart from its political importance Berbera provided a landing point for supplies to troops moving along the Jijiga-Hama-Addis Ababa road, a route chosen by General Cunningham to skirt the rains that fell earliest at Mogadishu, the alternative approach. The political significance of Berbera lay in the fact that British Somaliland represented the sole remaining Italian gain resulting from Mussolini's entry into the war against the Allies.

At Berbera two separate landings were effected at midnight, under a moon only occasionally obscured by cloud, the troopers working their way off shore under the guns of a protecting unit of the British Navy. On the west the attack was made by picked Indian troops, engineers and artillery, on the east the Italian reserve made the landing. The attack had the advantage of being

**INDIAN TROOPS ENGAGED IN THE PINCER MOVEMENT ON KEREN**

Lower photo shows Indians resting at a signal post in a fort overlooking Mt. Sanghill (or Amba) — see map on page 165a. Brangan's Peak, a main objective mentioned in page 165a, is the tallest spur of Sanghill. Top, Indian troops clearing a village.
One task remained to General Cunningham: to round off the Abyssinian campaign before the rains (see Chapter 164). By April 1 effective resistance had been broken from Lake Tana to Lake Rudolf. Gondar was cut off by Abyssinian irregulars, and Dessie was surrounded and the remnants of its garrison taken by a band of Italian engineers. On April 2 Asmara, 3,000 feet above Keren, was taken, and General Platt's troops captured the Red Sea port of Massawa on April 8.
THE LIBERATION OF ABYSSINIA FROM THE ITALIANS

The reconquest of Ethiopia really began when, in January, 1941, the Emperor Haile Selassie entered his former realm and his adherents raised the standard of revolt at Gishjam. By the beginning of April much of the country had been liberated; Addis Ababa, the capital was taken on the 5th. At Amba Alago the Duke of Aosta, Italian C-in-C, surrendered on May 19; a large enemy force held out at Gondar until November 27, when they, too, yielded.

Specially drawn for The Second Great War by Harvey.
Chapter 154

THE RESTORATION OF HAILE SELASSIE’S ETHIOPIAN EMPIRE


ITALY declared war on France and Great Britain on June 10, 1940. Two days later the execution of Ras Hailu, a wealthy Abyssinian chief, took place. He had co-operated with the Italians during the war of 1935-6; was reported a happening which seems to suggest that even those Abyssinians who had acquiesced in the Italian conquest had not been too well pleased with the results. Simultaneously it was reported that one Fititari Birru had taken command of forces to be raised in Kenya under the Abyssinian Imperial flag. Within a week General Ras Tafari Birdu, a former Abyssinian War Minister who had been a refugee in Jerusalem since the Italian conquest, was appointed by the Emperor Haile Selassie to be Commander-in-Chief of the Abyssinian forces, and left Palestine for an unknown destination in Africa. Many other leaders of exile age who had gone into exile accompanied him.

In Abyssinia itself the British took the offensive and began to make lightning raids over an extensive area of the frontier between Abyssinia and British Somaliland. At first they met with little resistance—some of the raiding parties, indeed, found that Bandia troops (native levies in the Italian forces) had abandoned their posts. But at the end of June the Italians were showing more fight. One small force of Somaliland police holding a frontier post was attacked by a strong detachment of enemy troops reinforced by tanks, and, after holding them off for four hours, withdrew intact and without casualties. On July 4 the Italians captured Gallabat, and on July 7 they took Kurnak, both in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan; on July 14 our garrison was evacuated from Moyale (Kenya) in face of attack by an Italian force of superior strength.

Haile Selassie arrived in the Sudan towards the end of July, and immediately became the rallying point for all Abyssinians in exile and for many who came over the frontier from Abyssinia itself.

At the beginning of August, 1940, the Italians invaded British Somaliland from Abyssinia. On the 4th they took Ababa on the 18th, Harar on the 27th (when Desse was again bombed). Frontier skirmishes continued, with varying success on either side.

The news during the next few months seemed to indicate little activity. The British continued to carry out bombing raids and reconnaissance flights. November 25, 1940, brought the more encouraging news that the Italians had “to all intents and purposes” evacuated Metemma (on the Sudan frontier, opposite Gallabat) as a result of continued aggressive action by our patrols and artillery.

In a written reply to a Parliamentary question, Mr. Butler, Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, stated on November 26, that His Majesty’s Government was anxious to see Ethiopia liberated from Italian aggression, and, second, that we had no territorial ambitions in that country, which we wished to see free and independent. His Majesty’s Government, he said, was “therefore offering every assistance possible to those Ethiopians who have taken up arms against the common enemy.” But he gave no indication as to the form this assistance was taking.

Three weeks later, after reiterating the Government’s policy of extending all possible help to the Emperor and to all elements within Abyssinia (to Abyssina) willing to bear arms against the enemy,” Mr. Butler added, “Information as to conditions in Abyssinia is naturally difficult to obtain, but the movement of revolt against the Italians appears to be making progress.”

Successful attacks on Italian convoys were being made by guerrilla bands, known as “shifs,” of loyal Abyssinians who had never been entirely subdued. They had long chafed under Italian rule. Now, armed with the spoils of attacks on Italian caravans and out-
posts, they were constantly gaining fresh strength. Their leaders, reinforced by many dispossessed Abyssinian landowners and peasants and by native soldiers who had deserted from the Italian army, began crossing the border to make contact with the British authorities in Kenya and in the Sudan. In the Gallabat area one Abyssinian patrol devoted itself to sabotage. Crossing the border under cover of darkness, it set fire to stores, exploded ammunition dumps, sniped Italian officers, laid mines along strategic roads—and trained Patriot Abyssinians living in the area to do the same.

Towards the end of the year on the road south of Addis Ababa Abyssinian shifts ambushed two columns of colonial infantry, killing 50 (including 4 Italians) and capturing 60 rifles. An Italian attempt at punishment failed: a whole battalion was hired into a forest, 50 being killed. These guerrilla fighters also helped to spread information through the country.

The first news of more effective action came when, early in January, 1941, it was reported that Patriot Abyssinian forces, assisted by the Royal Air Force, had compelled the Italians to evacuate Gubba. And then at last, on January 20, the world learned what lay behind Mr. Butler’s assurances and the trickle of news about guerrilla activity that had been coming through. Since July, 1940, a British Mission had been at work in Abyssinia, training, encouraging and assembling the Abyssinians to fight in their own defence. The Mission consisted of one colonel and a handful of other officers and N.C.O.s, all well-acquainted with the country, its customs and its languages. They had carried with them the seal of the Emperor, and had been accompanied by an important convoy of arms borne on pack mules along mountain tracks. Their goal had been the Gujama region, which lies between the Sudan frontier and Addis Ababa. The river Gijon, one of the legendary rivers flowing from the Graells of Eden, rises there, and gives birth to the Blue Nile. The Mission reached its headquarters only after weeks of trekking through wild mountainous country and dense jungle in the oppressive heat and heavy rains of the Abyssinian summer.

On his arrival the British colonel read the Emperor’s proclamation, to the drone of Italian warplanes overhead. The peasants demanded a sign—and the Royal Air Force supplied it by bombarding Toagia and other fortified Italian centres in the district. The Italians completely failed to locate the Mission, which lived in caves and under cover of the woods. Other convoys of arms, carried on camels and mules and escorted by Ethiopian troops from the Sudan, followed the first; and regular communication was maintained by courier with the authorities in the Sudan until January, 1941, when messages ceased, and a British major set out by
HAILE SELASSIE RETURNS TO ETHIOPIA

On January 28, 1941, the Emperor once again set foot in his realm. He is seen below alighting from an R.A.F. plane. He took command of Abyssinian troops which had been trained for the fight to free the country. Above, camels of the first battalion of Ethiopian troops and their drivers; this unit was led by an Australian officer and four Australian N.C.O.s.

Photo: British Official. Copyright: Associated Press

Air to make contact, if possible, with the rebels and with the Mission that had been organizing them.

The country proved far from easy to traverse, even by aeroplane, on account of the difficulty of getting down low enough among the mountains to decide on the direction of flow of the rivers and thus identify positions on a map; but after the observer had almost given up hope he sighted the patch of level ground for which he was looking, and the pilot landed safely. The British Mission proved to be intact, and the newcomers found that knowledge of its presence and of the Emperor’s nearness, backed by the activities of the R.A.F. in the district, had raised Abyssinian spirits to a great height. After a night’s rest the major and his R.A.F. observer mounted mules and trekked to the source of the Blue Nile, where the major addressed a large gathering of Patriot chieftains. Afterwards he and the observer were baptized by an Ethiopian chief priest in the sacred spring of Gijon. A feast followed. Next day the piece of ground on which the pilot had alighted proved too small for him to be able to take off. One of the chieftains sent warriors to the summits of the surrounding hills, where they sounded
C. I N. C. VISITS SOUTH AFRICANS ON THE BORDER

General Sir Archibald Wavell, Commander-in-Chief, Middle East (third from right), is here seen with South African officers near the Abyssinian frontier. Extreme right is Lieut.-General Alan Cunningham, G.O.C. East African Forces. Below, in a 700-mile journey to Dambacha, in the Gojam, the supply lorries had often to be hauled through dense jungle by man-power.

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright

The Emperor himself, accompanied by his two sons, the Crown Prince and the Duke of Harar, arrived in Abyssinia on January 15, 1941. This was the signal for Ras Mongasha to raise the signal of revolt at Gojam, and within a few days, without any definite action, a large part of the country between the Blue Nile and the River Serti was in the hands of the Patriots, except for isolated Italian garrisons.

With the co-operation of British and Imperial forces, particularly in the air, the Patriot forces rapidly extended their sphere of control in the Gojam area.

The Italian abandoned Dangila, a large town which they had made into a garrison and air base, and other important posts. On February 18 the Duke of Aosta, the Viceroy, appointed General of the Italian Air Force in Abyssinia, telegraphed to Mussolini: "We will last somehow, at any cost, thanks to my enthusiastic collaborators of the Air Force, and thanks to the generous people who are ready for any sacrifice for the achievement of the
ADDIS ABABA, APRIL 3, 1941

After an advance of 1,800 miles in 60 days Imperial troops entered Addis Ababa. Top, left, a Transvaal Regiment marches through; right, Ethiopian troops lead the way. Centre, Haile Selassie returns in triumph after five years of exile; the Crown Prince is behind him, and on the right of photograph. Lt.-Gen. Cunningham stands with outstretched hand. Below, left, the Emperor with his escort; right, hoisting the Union Jack over the Governor's palace.

Photo, British (Official) / Crown Copyright
Fascist Italian victory. But Patriot gains continued. Euphrates, 18 miles from Dangat, was captured with many prisoners. Piccolo Abbal, evacuated by the Italians, was occupied. The revolt swept over across the uplands of Gojam, driving sear and nearer to the main Italian base in Addis Ababa, which was constantly raided from the air. So also was Gondar, the base on which the Italian forces in the north had begun to retire, pursued by Patriot and British troops to such good purpose that they had to abandon and destroy quantities of material and stores of all kinds.

By March 5 the Patriot forces had occupied Bureya in the Gojam and were pressing on towards Debra Marcus. In this area, 1,500 Italian irregulars and 200 colonial troops deserted with their weapons to join the Patriots. Bombers continually harassed the retreating Italians. By the end of the month all effective resistance between Lake Tana and Lake Rudolf had been broken, and the Italians, soldiers and settlers, driven much less by fear of the British than of the Ethiopians, were retreating on Dessie-Jimma, and Addis Ababa. As Italian rule collapsed local chiefs took over control.

In the meantime, British and Imperial forces had captured Afsof, 65 miles inside Abyssinia from Kunmak, Asosa, near the Sudan border. In the south-east the British crossed the frontier from Italian Somaliland on March 6, and advanced with great rapidity. All the way to Harar there was a good metalled road, and the Italians offered no resistance—fact, all contact with the enemy was lost except through air reconnaissance. Jijiga was occupied on March 17; Harar on the 27th. On the 30th, an Italian communiqué announced the evacuation of Diredowa. It had been occupied on the 28th by South African troops, who arrived just in time to prevent all treatment by native deserters of Italian civilians left behind. Having restored order, the South Africans continued their advance westwards. Constant air attacks by the South African Air Force were made on the railways connecting Addis Ababa with Diredowa and Jimma. Gambela, in the south-west, was captured by Abyssinian, African, and Belgian troops and the Free French Sudan Squadron were in action in the air in the Gondar region, where they brought down one of the last Italian fighter planes remaining in the country.

By the end of March half the country had been conquered and only three considerable towns remained in Italian hands. But the campaign was by no means at an end yet, though the British advance continued on all sectors. Following heavy air raids on April 5, Addis Ababa fell on the 5th, and a comparative handful of Imperial troops, mostly South Africans, disarmed 5,000 prisoners, of whom 4,000 were Italians. On the same day—five years exactly since Italian troops entered the city—the Emperor returned to his capital. After giving thanks in the sanctuary of the Virgin Mary on the summit of Mount Entoto, he rode in an open car to the royal palace of Menelik through crowds of priests, soldiers, and white-clad women, who bowed before him as he passed. Three days later he announced his desire to collaborate with the British government and people, and from the British government the assurance of assistance to help him carry out his work in Ethiopia.

Debra Marcus (where the French Sudan Squadron took part in the bombing) was captured on April 7, and a week later the Emperor had arrived in the district and local chiefs were swearing fealty to him. Fighting hard all the time, the Italians retreated on Dessie, which was captured on April 26 in the herculean battle of the campaign, fought on our side entirely by South African infantry, armoured cars, and artillery; over 8,000 prisoners were taken. The Duke of Aosta, who had moved to Dessie on the fall of Addis Ababa, flew on to Amba Alagi, which at once became the target of growing attacks from the air.

The mountain of Amba Alagi rises to 11,000 feet. By an odd twist of fortune, its caves, in which Haile Selassie had taken shelter five years earlier, became the last refuge of the Italian Viceroy and his army.

The Italians had tunnelled galleries into the cliffs and cut gun emplacements out of the rock, making Amba Alagi almost impregnable. But the defence had been designed to meet an attack from the north, and while Italian troops were advancing in that direction from Assaita, the South Africans were pressing on from the south towards its more vulnerable side. The country through which our troops were advancing was wholly mountainous, with deep gorges and towering peaks, where the enemy fought desperate delaying actions, destroying and obstructing the roads as they retired. But Italian sappers and miners did notable work in clearing them, and the converging movement from north and south went on relentlessly. On May 17 Amba Alagi was surrounded, and on the 19th it surrendered—according to the Italians, owing to lack of food and water and the impossibility of caring for the wounded. The prisoners taken numbered 18,000, and included the Duke of Aosta, with five generals and a number of other senior staff officers.

In the winter of 1935-6 (during the Italian invasion of Abyssinia) De Bono and Balogio had taken seven months to advance the 425 miles from Adivat to Amba Alagi. In contrast, our Imperial troops took only 94 days to cover the 1,500 miles from Kiasuy to Amba Alagi. In this tremendous march the water supply had been a constant anxiety. Water sometimes had to be carried as much as 200 miles in drums, and in the country traversed a water hole was an objective as important as a great railway junction would have been in a civilized land. Moreover, the whole operation had to be pushed through at the highest possible speed for fear of not of lack of water, but of excess of it—with the coming of the rains.

The Italian Commander-in-Chief had surrendered, but fighting continued. In the south Shashamanna had been occupied a few days before the fall of Amba Alagi. A week later an Italian column was forced to surrender at
WOLCHEFIT SURRENDERS AFTER FIVE MONTHS' SIEGE

The Italian garrison at Wolchesfit, 80 miles north of Gondar, surrendered on September 26; the position had been invested since April 15. Top, the garrison marches out with the Honours of War, past a guard composed of the King's African Rifles. Below, the enemy position seen from inside the Wolchesfit Pass Fort.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright

Agligr; and Sodda was captured on May 24. Right through June Italian troops were coming in to surrender in the Sixth area. By the middle of June Jima, which had suffered constant air raids since April, was encircled by Abyssinian troops. It was captured on the 21st by Patriot forces, led by British officers and reinforced from the west by the Belgian contingent which had helped in the capture of Gambela; 8,000 Italians were taken prisoner. Agaro and Bedelli were captured a few days later. Lakamti, 170 miles west of Addis Ababa, was occupied by Patriot forces on June 11.

To the north, Debrech, taken by Patriots and twice re-taken by the Italians, was finally in our hands by June 4. The road between Debra Tabor and Gondar, strongest remaining place in Italian hands, had been cut a few days previously. Ghimbi, evacuated by the Italians, was occupied on June 27. General Bertello, who had commanded the Italian troops in British Somaliland, surrendered at Ghimbi together with two other generals, 240 other Italian officers, 1,941 Italian other ranks, and 841 Askars. Debra Tabor, surrounded early in June, did not surrender until July 3, when 5,000 Italians and 1,200 Africans were taken prisoner. On July 4 General Sir Archibald Wavell said at Cairo:

"It's pretty well cleaned up. After today's news that Debra Tabor has fallen I don't think it will be long before the Italians in that pocket in the south will be forced to throw up their hands. That will just leave Gondar. The campaign has been a brilliant achievement of Generals Cunningham and Pratt."

The remaining Italian forces, operating in the province of Galla Salame, surrendered the same day, and on the 6th it was reported that ten more Italian generals with their troops, numbering 5,000, had surrendered, and all Italian resistance had collapsed, except at Gondar.

At Gondar a force estimated at between 10,000 and 15,000 was still holding out. They were completely cut off from the rest of the country, not only by the British investment but also by the destruction of the three main roads by which the district could be reached. The area, however, produces a fair amount of foodstuffs, which reduced the possibility of starving out
FALL OF AMBA ALAGI, REFUGE OF ITALIAN VICEROY

Surrounded on May 17, Ambo Alagi surrendered two days later. The Duke of Aosta with five generals and 13,000 other ranks were taken prisoner. Top, left, the Duke (second from left) walks down from his mountain cave, which five years earlier had sheltered the Emperor in flight. Right, Ras Sewaym harangues his Patriotic troops before the assault on Ambo Alagi. Below, Italian marching down from Fort Tewi after the surrender.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright
the garrison, and General Nasi, commander of the Gondar forces, though over 60, was unlikely to surrender unless conditions became impossible. His garrison was divided into two parts. One brigade was isolated on the precipitous massif around Delnoch, where it was protected against the advance of British troops from the north by the destruction of the road over the Wolofhetti Pass. Supplies were reaching it by the three aircraft left to General Nasi. Round Gondar itself was concentrated a large body of Italians, including some hundreds of civilians.

Bad weather conditions with heavy rains made movement very difficult, and for several months operations were restricted to pressure by patrols of British, Imperial, and Ethiopian troops and to bombing from the air. Towards the end of September, when weather conditions improved, the British offensive was resumed. Wolofhetti, besieged since April 16, surrendered on September 26; among the 3,000 prisoners taken were 1,550 Italians. Patriot forces under British officers fought a number of successful minor actions in the Lake Tana area, and in the north established themselves between Wolofhetti and Gondar. Low-level bombing attacks were made on Ambazza, 10 miles north of Gondar, on October 21, and a day or two later British forces made contact with the Italians there, encountering considerable opposition. Guramba was attacked by the R.A.F. on the 26th, and Dova on the 27th. Fighting occurred on the Dessie-Gondar road between a detachment of British troops and mounted enemy irregulars, the enemy being driven off after a two-hour battle.

Gradually the chieftains were coming in to the Emperor, until at the beginning of November only three in the Kamantu area were still supporting the Italians. Kulkaber, an isolated enemy fort east of Lake Tana, reported on November 2 to be completely cut off and dependent for supplies on boats across the lake, surrendered on November 21 and left the way open for an attack on the main defences 10 miles south of Gondar. Civilian refugees from Gondar began to come into the British lines in a steady stream. With the capture of Gondar by a British and Ethiopian surprise attack Gondar was completely encircled. Deserters, whose numbers increased daily, reported that outside Gondar on November 11 there had been a mutiny of colonial troops, which had been suppressed only after severe fighting.

British and Ethiopian troops were now advancing on Gondar from six directions, and on November 27 the garrison surrendered unconditionally to a combined attack. Highland Indian and Sudanese troops, South, East and West Africans, Free French and Patriot forces took part in the assault. East African and Patriot troops played the largest part in the action. Prisoners taken numbered 11,500 Italians and 12,000 native troops. British aircraft dropped leaflets on the remaining Italian outposts telling of General Nasi's surrender, and all outlying garrisons surrendered on December 2, 1941, thus ending Italian rule.

Two months later, on February 3, 1942, the terms of an agreement and military convention between Great

**LAST ENEMY STRONGHOLD**

Gondar, with its garrison of 15,000 under General Nasi, surrendered on November 27, 1941. Left, the Union Jack flies on the ancient Portuguese castle (beginning in 1460). Portuguese influence was considerable for a century and a half. Above, Lieut.-General Wavell, congratulated fighting French units on their share in the victory.

Britain and Abyssinia were published. Briefly they provided for the taking over of civil administration as soon as Ethiopian powers were effective, the grant of financial assistance, the appointment of British advisers in administration, law and police, and close association in military matters.

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BRITISH OBSERVATION POST ON A HEIGHT BETWEEN KEREN AND ASMARA

Photographs and maps in other pages have shown how difficult was the country over which the campaign in Eritrea was fought. Kerens is a natural stronghold in a rocky rim high up on the British escarpment, fringed around with rocky ridges topped by towering peaks. Asmara stands on a yet higher plateau. This photograph of a forward observation post gives a clear idea of the nature of the terrain.

Photo, British official; Crown Copyright

1675
SOUTH AFRICANS AND ABYSSINIAN PATRIOTS GO ON TO VICTORY

In four long lines the troops of the South African forces roar along over the rolling grass lands of Abyssinia to meet the enemy in the battles of Geral and El Curru. Below, wearing a captured Italian uniform, the Patriotic General Ras Goumazz leads his forces across the Omo river, which runs into Lake Rudolf.

AFTER FIVE YEARS OF EXILE HAILE SELASSIE RULES AGAIN

Once he was installed at Addis Ababa, a great many Abyssinian leaders rallied to their Emperor, and below is the scene when Ras Ababa Aragai swore allegiance; some of the soldiers kissed the ground in their enthusiastic devotion. Top, some of the many thousands of Italian prisoners march through Gondar, after its surrender on Nov. 27, 1941.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright.
BRITISH TROOPS ONCE AGAIN RESTORE ORDER IN ANCIENT BAGHDAD

British forces entered Baghdad on June 1, 1941—twenty-four years after the last British occupation in 1917. Upon the termination of the British mandate and the recognition of Iraq’s independence in 1927 the Royal Air Force under treaty maintained several squadrons in the country. Here are seen British troops on the banks of the Tigris in June, 1941. In background are the domes and minarets of the Old City.

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright
SUPPRESSION OF THE RASHID ALI REVOLT IN IRAQ

The Iraq trouble flared up at the beginning of April, 1941, following the action of Rashid Ali al-Gallani, the Iraqi quisling designated of the Axis, in bringing about a "palace revolution" on April 3 and assuming power. It had really begun earlier, when the Germans started intriguing with Rashid Ali and the four Iraqi army commanders known collectively as the "Golden Square." These commanders were Salah ed-Din, commander of the Western Army; Kamil Shabid, commander of the 1st Division; Fathum Said, commander of the Mechanized Forces; and Mahmoud Salman, commander of the Air Force. Rashid Ali had been Premier until his resignation on January 31.

The German intrigue in Iraq formed part of an ambitious Axis plan, and was no mere isolated episode. The plan was designed to turn us out of the Middle East and the Eastern Mediterranean and to isolate us from our Turkish ally. It envisaged the Iraq revolt as the first act in a Middle Eastern drama of which the second act was to be Syria, the third Iran (Persia), and the fourth Egypt.

The Middle East is to be understood as a military command, replacing the older political term the Near East. This military area, first under the command of General Wavell and later under General Auchinleck, consists of Northern Africa (Libya and Egypt), Syria (with Lebanon and Transjordan), Saudi Arabia and Oman, Iraq and Iran. It thus stretches from Libya to the borders of Afghanistan and India.

Like all Hitlerian projects of the kind, the ingredients of the German plan were the usual ones of the combination of Fifth Column action from within with military attack from without. The Germans played upon the Nationalist feelings and personal ambitions of Rashid Ali and the four commanders of the Golden Square, promising military, political and financial support, and the usual bait that if Iraq did the Axis bidding it would be a leader in Hitler's New Order in the Middle East. Rashid Ali was to stage his revolt and the Germans would then come to his assistance. Vichy was to play the role in Syria of allowing the Germans to use that country as a base for aerial operations in Iraq and a jumping-off place for a bigger operation against Britain in the Middle East. German planes with Iraqi markings did for a time reach Iraq, but Rashid Ali may have been too precipitate.

In any case the promptness and energy of the British reply were such that his revolt was in the process of being broken before it reached the stage at which the Germans were in a position to intervene. This, together with the British action in Syria, forestalled the Germans, who had to leave Rashid Ali in the lurch.

The British acted with commendable speed because they realized, no less than the enemy, the big strategic issues involved. They knew that a German success in Iraq would make possible not only the establishment of the Axis in Iraq and Syria but would bring about the isolation of Turkey. Moreover, it would have meant a blow to our prestige throughout the Arab world, with the most deplorable consequences both military and political. Last, but not least, there was the
HABBANIYA, WHERE THE CONFLICT BEGAN IN IRAQ

At Habbaniya, 60 miles west of Baghdad, was the Royal Air Force airfield and training school. Towards the end of April Rashid Ali concentrated troops around airport and cantonments, threatening to destroy any British plane which took the air. On May 1, 1941, the Iraqis opened fire, and later their aircraft tried to raid the airport. Below, under the eye of a British guard, a rebel N.C.O. interprets orders to prisoners taken at Habbaniya by the R.A.F.

**Photos, British Official - Crown Copyright: C. E. Brown**

On April 28 Rashid Ali demanded that no more British troops should be landed at Basra until the first contingent had passed through the country, and at the same time he appealed to Germany for help against the British. By this time British and Iraqi troops had clashed. On May 2 the British Embassy asked for the withdrawal of the Iraqi troops round Habbaniya. Instead, they were reinforced. The Iraqi air force then attempted to raid the British airfield, but without effect. Rashid Ali accused the British of having broken the treaty, and proclaimed a "holy struggle for the independence of Iraq." On May 3 the R.A.F. bombed the Iraqi forces round Habbaniya and silenced artillery.

Then the Regent, Emir Abdul Lah, who had been obliged to leave the country at the time of the Rashid Ali coup and had gone to Palestine, issued on May 4 a proclamation saying that he would be returning "to restore the tarnished honour" of his country, and calling upon all true sons of Iraq to "drive out this band of traitors and restore to our beloved country true liberty and independence." The Emir declared that "a group of military tyrants, aided and abetted by Rashid Ali and other ill-disposed persons bought by foreign gold, have by force thrust me from my sacred duties as guardian of my nephew, your beloved King."

The next day the R.A.F. bombed the Mosaic Rashid aerodrome, outside Baghdad, and put out of action nearly half the strength of the Iraqi Air

question of the oil fields and the pipe line. Both sides, therefore, were playing for high stakes.

After Rashid Ali seized power on April 3 his government at first adopted an apparently conciliatory attitude. It proclaimed that its policy would be to uphold the Anglo-Iraqi Treaty. But it soon became evident that the new Premier was only playing for time. He wanted in the first place to secure recognition of his government; secondly, he wanted to lure the British into a false state of security in order that he might have time to bring his Nazi friends to his assistance. During the short period of conciliation the new British Ambassador, Sir Kinaun, Cornwallis, was able to negotiate the peaceful landing of British troops—as was provided by treaty—at Basra on April 17-18. But Rashid Ali's "friendliness" very soon changed to open hostility. He timed his change of attitude to coincide with our troubles in the Greek campaign. Without warning, while three more British troops transports were arriving off Basra, the Iraqi army marched by night across the Tigris and Euphrates to our airfield in the west. They ranged themselves on the low escarpments round Hab-
Force. The airport, dock area and power station at Basra were occupied. The British then demanded the withdrawal of the Iraqi troops by a certain hour. Iraqi officials agreed, but took no action. The R.A.F. bombed and machine-gunned Iraqi mechanized troops and transport after the Iraqis had again shelled the Habbaniya airfield.

On May 6 moves were made by both Turkey and Egypt to mediate. The British, however, insisted upon the withdrawal of the Iraqi troops from Habbaniya before entering upon negotiations. Habbaniya was shelled again on May 7, and on the 8th British troops and loyal Iraqi levies, operating from Habbaniya, ejected the Iraqis from positions on the plateau overlooking the cantonment. Enemy losses were heavy, our own being slight. The aerodrome at Mossar Rashid was bombed again by the R.A.F. on the 9th, and on the 11th the British took Rutbah.

In the meantime Rashid Ali was with the Northern Army, but was not in touch with the border battalions in the south and on the frontiers. He had about 30,000 men under his control. Most of the Iraqi people showed no disposition to move against the British. The British army commanders had explicit orders, which they carried out to the letter, to avoid doing injury to civilians or their property and to endeavour as far as possible to keep the fighting away from the holy places.

By May 15 the Germans began to take a hand by sending aircraft. Some thirty Nazi planes, which had been flown from Greece and the Dodecanese, landed in Iraq. It also became evident that the Vichy authorities were allowing the Nazis to make use of Syrian aerodromes for flying planes to Iraq. The British retaliated by attacking the aerodromes at Damascus, Palmyra, and Rayak on May 15, and the R.A.F. also bombed trains carrying German war material to the rebel Iraqis. Thus opened the prelude to the Syrian war.

On May 13 it was stated officially in India that the British authorities had irrefutable evidence that every move by Rashid Ali since his coup d'état had been inspired by the calculated intention to betray the Moslem nations in the Middle East and their British and Indian Allies into the hands of the Axis. Every subsequent action had been designed to give the Germans time to move into the country and to establish a hostile base in the centre of Arabia, in the rear of Turkey, and it was only the British action which had upset these plans.

A battalion of the Essex Regiment played a notable part in the capture of Fallujah. It had been stationed in Palestine until April, and then advanced with the mixed force into Iraq. By May 6 the column had occupied a pumping station 28 miles from Rutbah; Rutbah itself was taken on the 11th. Reaching Habbaniya on the 16th, they joined up with armoured cars from our airfield. Fallujah was taken by assault on May 19,
and later the Essex Regt. took part in driving out Iraqi rebels who had gained a brief foothold on the outskirts.

The Regent, Abd al-Rahman, now returned to Iraq, and considered the formation of a new administration. On May 25 it was announced that the Iraqi Minister of Defence had flown from Baghdad and was seeking refuge in Turkey, and that Rashid Ali's family was already at Ankara. Berlin had informed Rashid Ali that Germany would not be able to render him military aid for at least two months, and he had, in effect, thrown up the sponge. By the end of May it was already clear that the game was up. The Germans started withdrawing their aeroplanes from the country, and the Iraqis asked for an armistice. After negotiations at Baghdad, at Sir Kinsah Cornwell's headquarters, an armistice was signed on May 31.

The British forces, which had been reinforced by Indians, had reached Baghdad on June 1. Control of the country was then taken over by a committee of four under the leadership of the Mayor of Baghdad, Amin al-Din al-Maliki, who stated that it was the people's wish that the Regent should enter Baghdad as soon as possible and restore constitutional government and "peace and independence." The Regent arrived in Baghdad on June 1. Rashid Ali, realizing that he could not hold Mosul without German help, had fled the country on May 30. He went to Iran, taking with him Sharaf, the puppet Regent he had set up, and accompanied by the German and Italian Ministers. The British capture of Mosul on June 4 ended this minor war of major significance.

On June 4 a new Iraqi cabinet was formed under the premiership of Said Jamil Mashuri, who declared that the events of the last month had been the result of the "foolish attempt on the part of the five columnists to stir up trouble," and added that "our international relationships and our political and military situation were the best guarantees to keep us out of the conflict." Mr. Anthony Eden then sent a message to the Iraqi Government, stating that the British would respect the independence and integrity of the country.

After the stamping out of the Rashid Ali revolt and the restoration of the Regent, with a return to constitutional government, the Iraqi authorities had the task of purging the administration and the army of disaffected elements which had been working for Rashid Ali and the Axis. Herr Grobbel, German Minister to Baghdad until the outbreak of war, and his agents had sown the seed in many directions, with the result that the mutineers who backed Rashid Ali had had a number of civilian political supporters. These had been particularly numerous among the police.

Later in the year the Government was taken over by General Nuri Paşa (Foreign Minister until Rashid Ali's revolt), a strong and experienced man who was devoted to Iraq and loyal to the British connexion. The interim government of Said Jamil Mashuri had done good work in the meantime, but it was felt that Nuri Paşa would be better able to "clear up the mess."

Actual military operations in Iraq were not extensive, and hardly deserve the appellation "war." Rather were they a series of small-scale operations. They consisted mainly of our action against the Iraqi troops surrounding the British airfield at Habbaniya and the capture of the Mosul position (mainly by British airborne troops). The British had had Ba'as, thus keeping open the sea communications, and from that base had operated against the Iraqis at Habbaniya, Mosul and Baghdad. A large part of the Iraqi army took no part in the fighting, neither the army nor the people as a whole being in sympathy with the Rashid Ali policy. The British throughout used considerable restraint. A "blitz" war could have ended the revolt in a few days, but this would have meant sufferings on the part of civilians and extensive damage to civilian property. Such was not the British desire. As Mr. Winston Churchill declared at the time, we were not at war with Iraq, but were fighting a gang of usurpers.

Rashid Ali was an unsuccessful quisling who had been too optimistic. The Germans, too, had been unduly sanguine. But they quickly washed their hands of the whole affair as soon as the British actions in Iraq and in Syria had left the rudiments of the grand Axis plan for the Middle East. With the British and Free French forces driving into Syria, and the constitutional regime— and therefore the Anglo-Iraqi connexion—restored in Iraq, the ambitions of the Nazis projects for these two countries had been foiled. But the Germans still hoped to make use of Iran, whether their own agents lately in Iraq and some of the leading Iraqi quislings had taken refuge.

But Axis machinations in Iran were to be cramped by their failures in Iraq and Syria. What had been planned as the third act of the Middle Eastern drama was to be reduced to an isolated episode which was to prove useless.

To sum up, Egypt had been saved from a great pincer attack. The isolation of Turkey had been prevented. The Axis hope of inflaming the entire Arab world against us had been frustrated. The Middle East (including Palestine, as a great British military bastion) had been preserved for the great part it would have to play in Allied strategy. The British Navy could still hold the mastery of the Eastern Mediterranean. The eventual creation of the great front running from Egypt to the Caucasus was made possible.

A small affair in itself, the revolt in Iraq and the putting down of that revolt fall into their place as events of major importance, when seen in true proportion, as part of the greater Middle Eastern picture. Our success in handling the Iraqi affair cost us very little, but it continued to pay us handsome strategic dividends.

The failure of the Germans to keep their promises to Rashid Ali was no doubt largely due to the prompt and firm British action; but after the losses sustained in Crete the enemy would probably have had little difficulty in mustering adequate forces without drawing on reserves earmarked for the imminent Russian offensive.

On May 4 six of Rashid Ali's confederates were tried by court-martial: three were sentenced to death and hanged next day, two were imprisoned and one was acquitted. Those hanged were Yami Sabani; Colonel Mahmoud Salman; and Colonel Fahmi Said.
BELEAGUERED AT BAGHDAD EMBASSY

On April 29, 1947, about 300 British women and children were sent from Baghdad to safety at Basra. Shortly after, the 356 people remaining in the Embassy were cut off for a month—until the Mayor told them on May 30 of Armistice negotiations. Top, left, signalling to the R.A.F. to cease bombing during Armistice negotiations; right, laying down a sign on the Embassy roof after the Armistice had been signed. Centre, volunteers manning a barricade at the American Legation; below, early morning on the roof-top at the British Embassy.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright
Chapter 166

BRITISH AND FREE FRENCH LIBERATE SYRIA

Vichy Connives at German Aid for Iraqi Rebels—Royal Air Force Bombs Syrian Airfields—Joint British and Free French Entry, June 8, 1941—Three Allied Columns—Maitland Wilson's Order of Battle—British Naval Help—Check at Kuneitra—Capture of Damascus—Battle Around Merj Ayyoun—British Column from Iraq—Successful War of Manoeuvre—Capture of Palmyra—General Dentz Asks for Terms—"Cease Fire" at Midnight, July 11

The advance of the British, Imperial and Free French forces into Syria on June 8, 1941, eight days after an armistice had been signed with the rebels in Iraq. But as early as the middle of May the Germans had been sending aeroplanes to Iraq via Syria and, with the connivance of the Vichy administration, using Syrian airfields for this purpose. Moreover, German staff officers, ground staff, technicians and political agents (including the Gestapo), and also a large number of Italian agents and agitators, had for some time been infiltrating into Syria. On May 15 and 18 the Royal Air Force had bombed aerodromes at Damascus, Palmyra and Rayak, and had gunned trains carrying war material. This action drew from General Dentz, Vichy High Commissioner, a proclamation on the 18th calling for resistance to what he described as "the criminal aggression of the British."

As soon as the Allied troops crossed the border there was a hasty exit of Axis personnel. German military staff and leaders were flown back to the Dodecanese, while others were evacuated by train. The initial phase of the campaign was a direct push northwards from our bases in Palestine and Transjordan, and necessarily followed the configuration of the country (see special relief map in page 1688). The dominant feature is the double range of hills, Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon (Mount Hermon in the south), which runs north from the Palestine border to Tripoli and Homs. To the east stretches the open country of the Syrian desert; between them is the rich valley of the Bekka; and on the west the foothills of Lebanon fall to the coastline, along which runs the Baal-Beirut-Tripoli road.

Across the double chain there is one fairly easy pass, that from Damascus to Beirut, where the railway runs up the Barada Valley to Rayak and the northern (Homs-Aleppo) line. North of the Lebanon there is a gap of open country from the eastern desert to the sea, via Homs and Tripoli. North of this again, a single mountain range separates the Homs-Aleppo plateau from the Mediterranean; but to the east the fertile land merges imperceptibly into the desert steppe.

Our advance was made by three columns operating simultaneously—one in the open country of Mount Hermon, with Damascus as its first objective; a second up the central valley between Hermon (Anti-Lebanon) and the Lebanon range in the direction of Rayak; and the third along the coast road between the Lebanon range and the sea, making for Beirut. The lines of attack and the dates at which the principal points were reached are indicated in the map (p. 1688).

The right and left columns had the more important objectives—the Syrian capital and the headquarters of the Vichy Government respectively, since the capture of these was likely to decide the issue. The function of the central column was to maintain contact between the other two and to prevent any possible outflanking movement by the Vichy troops. Rayak, its nominal objective, could be taken from the flank, via Damascus or Beirut, as easily as by a frontal attack from the south.

The Vichy Government had long recognized the probability of our advancing into Syria and General Dentz had made his arrangements accordingly.

SYRIAN C-INC. REPORTS TO MARSHAL PETAIN

On September 16, 1944, General Dentz (right), former Commander-in-Chief of the Vichy forces in Syria, was received by Marshal Petain. A breach by the Vichy authorities of the armistice convention, and the sending of British prisoner to Occupied France, led to the internment of Dentz and other Vichy officers for a time in Palestine.

Photo, Associated Press

1684
He had under his command about 33,000 troops, comprising 20 battalions of Colonial and Foreign Legion infantry and 11 battalions of locally recruited "troupes spéciales."—Syrians, Circassians and White Russians. Dentz had also a considerable force of artillery (upwards of 80 guns) and 90 tanks; in addition, there was a small air force, which, during the operations, was largely reinforced from North Africa. About 2,000 fresh troops also arrived by air during the campaign. Dentz retained detachments in the north at Aleppo and Tal Ketchak, with somewhat stronger forces on the line Deir ez Zor—Palmyra—Homs—Tripoli. His main defences had been organized on the line Kurse (south of Damascus)—Rachaya al Waali—Jezzin—Sidon. On the coast he had a second line on the Damour River. The bulk of his troops were holding these prepared positions and advance posts down to the Palestinian frontier.

The British and Imperial forces were led by Lt.-Gen. Sir Henry Maitland Wilson, and the Free French contingent by General Catroux, who was General de Gaulle's representative. General Wilson's order of battle on June 8 was as follows. The eastern column was formed of the 5th Indian Brigade, with one field regiment of the R.A., a squadron of the Royals, and elements of the Transjordan Frontier Forces. On their right were the Free French under General Catroux, and beyond them Colonel Collet's cavalry.
Lekamendoum, captured Tyre on June 8 and advanced to the Litani River at Kmieye. Here the bridge had been blown, and stubborn resistance was offered. On the night of June 8-9 the Royal Navy landed a detachment north of the Litani, in the face of heavy and well organized opposition, and on June 10 the Australians crossed the river and advanced five miles up the coast beyond its mouth.

Up to June 13, therefore, progress on all points was fairly good. Then resistance stiffened. The Vichy French had used our attempts at parleys to withdraw their forward troops to the main lines of defence. They were probably encouraged by our failure to secure an immediate success at Damascus, where Kieawa was proving a formidable obstacle and a flanking movement by enemy tanks had forced the Free French to withdraw; and they were embittered by having the Free French against them.

On June 15-16 the enemy counter-attacked. On the east, taking advantage of his superiority in armoured fighting vehicles, he drove two mechanized squadrons of the Transjordan Frontier Force out of Elara and recaptured the village. Kuneitra was heavily attacked by an armoured column and infantry, and the garrison of the Royal Fusiliers was compelled to surrender after exhausting its ammunition. In the centre, Merj Ayoun was violently bombarded, and on June 15 the enemy gained a foothold in the town which was hotly disputed by the Scots Greys. On the coast, by clever use of mortars and tanks, the Vichy troops held up our advance south of Sidon.

It was only a temporary set-back, for by June 17 Kuneitra had been retaken by the Australians and the Queen’s Royal West Surrey’s, and Elara by a mixed force of the Free French and Transjordan Frontier Force. An attack on Merj Ayoun on June 17 was only partially successful, but farther north, in the Jezzin area, we inflicted severe casualties on the Vichy forces and captured several armoured cars. Jezzin itself had fallen to the Australians and the Border Regiment on June 15, though it was not held for long; on the same day the Kieawa position was evacuated by the enemy, and Sidon fell to combined action by the Australians of the 21st Brigade and the Royal Navy. On June 18 the 1st Australian Corps H.Q. took over command of the Syrian operations.

On our extreme right the desertion of considerable numbers of Druse cavalry weakened the Vichy position, but the citadel of Sweida held out till the “cease fire.” Meanwhile, the attack on Damascus made progress.

OPERATIONS IN SYRIA, JUNE AND JULY, 1941

Only a relief map such as this can convey an adequate impression of the nature of the difficult country over which was fought the campaign to place Syria beyond the reach of Axis intrigues. General Dent’s lines of defence are shown, and the routes followed by our columns. The description of the terrain, in page 1064, should be noted.

Specially drawn for “The Second Great War” by Félix Gordon.
COASTAL COLUMN IN SYRIA CROSSES THE LITANI

The 21st Australian Brigade, with the Cheshire Yeomanry (horsed) advanced along the coastal strip. At Ras Naqura, the Yeomanry entered Syrian territory and, with Australians, pushed on to the upper Litani valley. Top photograph shows the Cheshires patrolling the river banks. Others of the 21st Brigade, after taking Tyre on June 8, 1941, reached the Litani at Kirye and crossed two days later. Below, British engineers erecting a bridge to replace one blown up by retreating Vichy troops.

Photo: British Official's Cinema Copyright
FREE FRENCH CONTINGENT ENTERS DAMASCUS, JUNE 21, 1941

Top, the car in which General Catroux and Le Gentilhomme, escorted by Circassian cavalry, drove through Damascus after the surrender. Below, General Catroux (front, centre), and General Le Gentilhomme (arm in sling) coming down the steps of Government House. On the left is Colonel Collat: he had escaped from Syria earlier to join De Gaulle, and led the Circassian cavalry in the advance. He made the first formal entry into Damascus, which preceded the official entry.
with numerous concrete pill boxes and
robably held by a small but stubborn
garrison consisting of a company of the
Foreign Legion (half Germans and half
Russians), and a Desert Company.
Part of our force gradually encircled
Palmyra, while patrols from it bypassed
the town and at Qarantain linked up
with the Free French, who had
pushed up from Damasen. A second
column from Iraq, the 10th Indian
Division, advanced on July 1 from Abu
Kemal towards Deir ez Zor, and its
patrols made contact with those of the
Palmyra column at Sukfna, where
the Arab Legion, under Glubb Pacha,
on July 1 accounted for seventeen
enemy armoured fighting vehicles from
Deir ez Zor.

On June 26 the Free French captured
Nebik and, four days later repulsed a
counter-attack and knocked out four
tanks. The Lancasters and the Queen's
(who had captured Qatana on June 23)
and the K.O.R. had moved westwards
into the hills to cut the Damascus-
Beirut road and were now holding the
southwestern slopes of Jebel Mizar, which
overlooks the town and railway. In
the central sector the Australians re-
occupied Merj Ayoun on June 24, and
our Yeomanry patrols maintained contact
with the French cavalry on the
eastern flank.

On the desert side the position at the
beginning of July was that a small
enemy force was hemmed in by the
Druses at Suvenda and another by the
column from Iraq at Palmyra, but
otherwise the eastern desert was clear
of enemy forces. The enemy still held
the Damascus-Beirut road north of
Jebel Mazar, the whole of the Bekaa
down to Hassaya, and the Lebanon
through Hasroun south of Bet el Din
to the coast just south of Damour.
Here the 7th Australian Division
controlled operations between the
sea and the Merj Ayoun area. On June 29
it had been reinforced by the 23rd
Infantry Brigade, which included the
Border Regiment and the Durham Light
Infantry, who were engaged in the
inland sector, while the 7th Australian
Division itself was on the coast.

General Dents on July 1 was esti-
mated to have still some 12,000 of his
first line infantry on the southern front,
but he had suffered severely in armoured
vehicles and lorries. On the
Damour he had a defensive position
of great natural strength, elaborately
fortified but open to flanking
fire from the sea; he could himself
receive no naval support, seeing that one
Vichy submarine had been sunk already
and two destroyers and the light
cruiser "Le Chevalier Paul" had been
destroyed.

The first stage of the campaign, that
of direct advance on either side of and
between the mountain ranges, could
have succeeded only at heavy cost
against a determined enemy. It had
been replaced by a war of manœuvre
which was soon to make General Dents's
position untenable. In the north, part

AUSTRALIAN VALOUR AT JEZZIN AND MERJ AYOUN

Pic (Later Corporal) James Heather Gordon, V.C. (right) crept forward alone and bayoneted
four gunners when a machine-gun held up the advance of his company north of Jezzin on July
10, 1941; the company then took the enemy position. Lieut. Arthur Roden Cutler, V.C. (right)
displayed conspicuous and sustained gallantry during bitter fighting at Merj Ayoun, June 19–24;
under heavy machine-gun fire he established an artillery outpost and manned a telephone line.

Both Gordon and Cutler were awarded the V.C.
day (July 10) General Dentz asked for armistice terms, and at 9 p.m. on July 11 the "cease fire" was sounded in Syria.

Throughout the campaign the Royal Air Force played a decisive part in cooperation with land forces. On the coastal sector the army owed much to the effective support of the Royal Navy.

General Wilson was far from possessing the local superiority of 3 to 1 which is often judged necessary for success in offensive action; he avoided frontal attacks, so far as possible, and trusted to a war of manoeuvre. When General Dentz asked for terms only Damascus had actually fallen, and the quadrangle formed by the two Lebanon ranges northwards of the Damour—Bel ed Din-Merj Ayoun-Dinass line was still intact and held by a formidable Vichy force. But the simultaneous threats to Beirut, Rayak, Homs, Tripoli, Hama and Aleppo made the whole Vichy position hopeless, and there was no course open to General Dentz but surrender. At the

of the 11th Indian Division cleared up the "duck's bill" salient between Turkey and Iraq, capturing Tel Koteh, Kemhiq Massache and Nasibin, and compelling the Vichy forces in the Jezireh area to fall back westwards, whilst the main force took Deir ez Zor on July 3 and Raqqa on July 5, to advance thence to Maskin and threaten Aleppo.

Further south, Palmyra surrendered on July 3. The British and Arab troops pushed west, occupied forjes on July 8, and two days later had cut the Homs—Baalbek railway south of Homs.

MEDITERRANEAN FLEET UNITS BOMBARDED SYRIAN FORTS

Cooperating with the Allied column advancing along the coastal road into Syria, some of our warships shelled fortified positions strongly held by the Vichy forces. On the night of June 8-9 the Royal Navy landed troops north of the Litani river.

GERMAN AIRCRAFT AT PALMYRA

Evidence of German designs was given by the discovery that Vichy aircraft destroyed by our bombing on the approach to Palmyra bore swastika markings which had been painted out before repainting them with Vichy colours.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

most of a certain delay all the results desired had been obtained with a minimum loss to ourselves, and without that hardship to the civilian population of Syria which would have made the Allied control of the country so much more difficult.
SYRIA AND LEBANON ARE FREED

The "cease-fire" sounded in Syria on the evening of July 17; three days later an armistice was signed at Acre. Below, right: General Sir H. Maitland Wilson signs for the Allies (on his right, General Catroux, Free French commander); below, left: General Vizzini signs for Vichy. On September 28 Syria was proclaimed an independent republic: centre, the new President, Shibli Tadjadire, inspects the guard. On November 20 Lebanon, too, became independent; top photograph shows President Marcacis after the proclamation ceremony.
Chapter 167

AIR WAR ON OUR PORTS AND INDUSTRIES,
FIRST HALF OF 1941

Heavy Night Raids in January: Nazi Blockade Plan—Ordeal at Portsmouth—
Where Luftwaffe's Strength was Massed—Raid on South Wales in February
—Clayside Attacks—Toll of Enemy Raiders Increases—Great Fire Raid
on London, April 16—Northern Ireland IsBombéd—Four Nights of Horror
at Liverpool—London Raid of May 10: House of Commons Chamber
Destroyed—The Assault Slackens

In the closing weeks of 1940 the
enemy made a number of heavy
raids on Britain, and it seemed that
the weather had been the only factor
which had prevented him from making
his assaults a regular nightly occurrence.
It was anticipated that when weather
conditions became favourable bombing
attacks would be made with greater
intensity than ever, and that the opening
weeks of the New Year portended a
period of enhanced strain for the people
of Britain, who, through their fortitude,
had astonished the world. The devastat-
ing night raid on London on
December 29, in which thousands of
incendiary bombs were dropped and
many buildings were set on fire, had
drawn sharp attention to the need for
highly systematized fire-watching in all
the cities of the country. The fire-bomb
could be as great a menace as the high-
explosive if organized vigilance and a
close co-operation between fire-fighters
and the public in general were lacking.
During the last two months of 1940
mass daylight raids had no longer
figured in the diary of events; instead,
single aircraft—usually single-seat
fighters carrying only one bomb—had
flown with cloud-cover over the coast-
line on sporadic and relatively ineffective
raids. Usually the enemy's objectives
were aerodromes, but it was common to
receive reports of sudden, brief, low-
level attacks on streets and trains, when
the Germans would open fire at random
with cannon and machine-gun.
The first day of 1941 passed with little
incident in the air. No raiders flew above
Britain in daylight, and at night only a
few took part in operations. Bombs were
dropped on London and on places in
the north and north-west, but com-
paratively little damage was done and
there were few casualties. On the
following night the Luftwaffe struck
heavy blows at Cardiff. In this raid
and some others which followed it no
attempt was made by the enemy to pick
out special targets. Incendiary bombs
and high explosives were rained at
random on the area. It had been
suggested that such savage raids, carried
out without preliminary "raids" over
the targets and thereby revealed as
wholly indiscriminate, were made as
reprisals for British bombing raids on
German cities. This view was fully
confirmed later by the German radio,
when a report was given out about the
Cardiff assault; it was then claimed that
the raid had been made as a reprisal
for a particularly severe British raid
on Bremen. On January 3 and 4 heavy
and prolonged attacks were experienced.

HOW LONDON COUNTERED THE FIRE BOMB MENACE

By the Fire Prevention Order (Jan. 22, 1941) occupiers of factories and commercial premises in
the City had to arrange proper fire guards (see poster below). Night, the armist and helmet
provided for guards. Sand with which to douse incendiaties was placed in all streets, in handy
bags that could be readily thrown on to a bomb.

Corporation of London.
FIRE PREVENTION (BUSINESS PREMISES)
ORDER 1941
(STATUTORY RULES AND ORDERS No. 49 OF 1941)

The attention of all occupiers of business premises is drawn to the above Order.

Every occupier of premises to which
the Order applies shall, within fourteen
days from the date when this Order is
applied to the premises, notify in writing
to the appropriate authority the arrange-
ments made by him under Article 2 of
the Order.

Occupiers of all commercial premises in the
City of London and of occupiers of factories in which
more than 20 persons work should forward their report to:
The Town Clerk,
Air Raid Precautions,
St. Mary's House, 40
Thames Street, E.C.3.

The Order was in force in the City of London on January 22nd, 1941.

The age prescribed under Article 3 of the
Order is not less than 18 but under 60 years.

PATERNOSTER HOUSE, ST. MARY'S HOUSE, E.C. 3

ALFRED T. ROACH,
Supt. Insp. and A.E.R. Controller
SCENES IN BOMBED PORTS

Linked up with the ocean blockade was the Luftwaffe’s attack on ports and coastal towns. Top, left, Portsmouth suffered heavy raids on Jan. 16 and March 10, 1941. Centre, left, Plymouth (raided Jan. 15, March 22, April 21). Lower left, scene in Clyde side after raids of March 13 and 14. Top, right, Royal Infirmary, Cardiff (heavy raid on Jan. 21) and below it the bells of St. Mary’s, Swansea, where there were severe attacks on Feb. 19, 20 and 21, 1941.

Photos, “The Times” (Foreign News); E.M. (Sudbrook); General; Keystone; “The Daily Mirror.”
by Bristol, and very great damage was done. After these, Portsmouth was marked down by the enemy and attacked on the night of January 10.

The experience of Portsmouth may be taken as typical: from early evening of January 10 until nearly dawn the following day all districts of the city were pounded by incendiaries and high-explosive bombs. Nearly thirty big fires were blazing at one time, and the sky was whitened by a glare which could be seen for many miles. Six churches were practically destroyed and two hospitals badly damaged, for it seemed that all prominent buildings were singed out by the raiders. The working class districts suffered severely and many people lost their homes. The Regional Commissioner later spoke of the fine spirit shown by the civil population, and of the magnificent work done by civil defence, Army and Navy. The Mayor, in a message to the citizens, said: "We are bruised but not daunted. Keep a stout heart; be steadfast and firm."

On the night following the Portsmouth raid, the alert was sounded in London, and again thousands of incendiaries fell from the German bombers. On this occasion, however, most of the outbreaks were soon extinguished and the damage was relatively slight. A tighter organization of fire-watching had borne fruit, and the growing efficiency of the fire-fighters, tempered by arduous experience of night raids, was obvious.

By the end of the second week of 1941 there had been six night attacks on London, while Cardiff, Bristol, Portsmouth and Plymouth had been severely mauled. On the night of January 13 the Luftwaffe concentrated on the south-western port, where the people endured a dreadful ordeal for three hours. Such attacks, which continued for several weeks on key points all around Britain's coastline, pointed to the fact that the main weight of the German air forces was being used in the naval blockade plan. While long-range Focke-Wulf four-engine Condors, operating from their bases in France, flew far out over the Atlantic to cooperate with the U-boats against our convoys, enemy bomber units equipped with the shorter-range Junkers 88, Heinkel 111s, and Do 17s were assigned the task of attacking those ships which had evaded the enemy at sea and were in port. Blockade, it seemed, was to be the principal weapon which Germany was to wield against Britain at the moment, and it...
AUSTRALIANS SEARCH FOR SNIPERS IN ANCIENT SIDON

Though the ruins of this old castle of the Crusaders date back to the 13th century, they are recent compared with other relics in Sidon, former chief city of ancient Phoenicia. During the campaign to free Syria Sidon was captured on June 15, 1941, by Australians of the 21st Brigade, assisted by the Royal Navy. Tyre, the age-old Phoenician seaport in the Lebanon, had fallen on June 8.

Photo, British Official — Crown Copyright

1935
FORMAL ENTRY OF THE ALLIES INTO BEIRUT, JULY 16, 1941.

Beirut, capital of Lebanon, was the objective of the Allied columns advancing along the coastal road. Aided by a naval bombardment, our troops overran the enemy's line on the Damascus road and advanced to Mount Ida, with Beirut (200 ft.) on the left. British officers' corps took the town.

At 10 a.m. on the 16th, the French occupied Beirut; and at 4 p.m., the place was declared free.
was to be exerted by the U-boat, the surface raider, their Atlantic partner the Focke-Wulf Kondor, and the night bomber.

While the enemy centred most of his attention on ports in this way, other bombers, flying simply or in small formations, attacked places in the Midlands, the east, the south-east, the north and the west. It appeared that the raiders were on a roving and even unplanned mission, and that the attacks were made simply to hammer at the morale of the British people; instead, these tactics stiffened morale. There was a considerable demand for R.A.F. reprisal raids, but such attacks found no place in the broad structure of the Air Staff's bombing policy. All objectives marked down for the attention of our Bomber Command continued to be meticulously chosen and graded in priority.

In the first month of 1941 the enemy raids on Britain carried little indication to the public of German designs. It had become plain to all that the Battle of Britain during the preceding autumn had taught the enemy a hard and bitter lesson. He had been forced to realize that superiority in numbers was itself insufficient to bring victory in protracted daylight operations when his squadrons were opposed by men and machines like those of the Royal Air Force.

By the end of January no significant developments in the air war over Britain had occurred, though there was still a strong feeling that preparations were going forward for some new offensive just as soon as weather should permit. Apart from climatic conditions the Luftwaffe was seriously impeded by the state of the terrain in Northern France. Rain had resulted in the aerodromes where bomber groups were stationed becoming waterlogged, so that such aeroplanes as the Ju 88 bomber (which, fully loaded, weighed nearly 17,000 lb.) would not be placed into operational service. Experience had shown, too, that sudden changes in visibility when fog developed could bring a sharp rise in casualties due to crashes while landing. These restrictions resulted in the Luftwaffe remaining "grounded" on several nights in January, and then the whole of Britain went un molested.

During the month twenty-six German aircraft were destroyed over Britain and British waters; some were accounted for by night fighters and others by ground defense. The sporadic daylight raids by fighter-bombers and the concentrated raids on ports and on London.

WHAT THE LUFTWAFFE DID TO LONDON ON APRIL 16, 1941
St. Paul's Cathedral was hit again on April 16, when a bomb crashed through the roof of the North Transept and exploded on the floor (top). Bottom, all that was left of the fine marble staircase at Christie's Sale Rooms (King Street, St. James's). It would be impossible to record all the deeds of heroic rescue during the heavy and prolonged raids, but the centre photograph shows a typical case: soldiers and A.R.P. men dig a tunnel through debris to reach a woman trapped for 17 hours in the wreckage of a block of flats.

Photos, G.P.U.: "News Chronicle": "Sport & General"
by night bombers which marked the enemy's air activity in January were continued in the following month. The attacks, though carried out by between one hundred and two hundred bombers from time to time, were not on the scale which had been foreshadowed by certain authorities who made their estimates from reports concerning the disposition and strength of the German air fleet.

In February it was learned from reliable sources that the Luftwaffe had about 3,900 aircraft based at about 400 aerodromes between the northern part of Norway and the Spanish frontier; about two-thirds of the aircraft ranged along the European coastline were bombers, and the remainder were fighters. Obviously the latter were intended for escort duties and "hit-and-run" attacks by day; and it was reasonable to expect night raids on a big scale, since the enemy had so great a force of bombers stationed close to Britain's shores. But the weather held the Luftwaffe in check, although on three nights in succession Swansea was attacked on a big scale. The tactics followed the normal pattern and the raiders came in waves to drop high explosives and great quantities of incendiaries. These assaults, made on February 19, 20 and 21, were amongst the most severe which South Wales had experienced, but, as in other parts of the country, the workers of the Civil Defence and A.F.S. services strove with fine courage and an imperturbable calm to meet the shattering blows of the enemy. There were many acts of great gallantry.

In March the Nazis adhered to their plan in which hit-and-run raids were made on coastal areas by day to clear a way for night attacks which formed part of the "air blockade." Pressure on our ports continued and the most determined efforts were made to break vital supply links. An improvement in the weather and a period of moonlight raised the barrier which had long hindered the German programme, and after striking at Portsmouth, Merseyside and London the enemy made Clydeside the principal target (night of March 13). Next night the attack was repeated, and these raids proved to be the worst which the district had experienced. Four nights later the principal target was again London, and many bombs fell on both sides of the Thames Estuary. The attack was focused on certain areas, and clearly indicated the enemy's purpose. On March 21 there was a particularly severe raid on Plymouth, when twenty thousand incendiary bombs and many tons of high explosives burned and batted the town.

In a speech on Oct. 3, 1940, Sir Philip Joubert de la Porte (later Air Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Coastal Command) had spoken of various means being developed to combat the night raider. The measure of the day bomber had been taken and the efficiency of Britain's fighter defence system had been clearly proved, but the greatest problem confronting the Air Staff was the bomber which came after nightfall. In the light of experience it had been possible to establish the relative value of the various forms of anti-aircraft defence—night fighter, surface guns, and balloon barrage system. By the beginning of 1941 our night fighters had accounted for four times as many hostile aircraft as the artillery, but much remained to be done to make the night fighter sufficiently effective to stem the
HISTORIC BUILDINGS DESTROYED ON MAY 10, 1941

Top left, looking through the gateway into Serjeants' Inn, Fleet Street; right, Bow Bells St. Mary-le-Bow, Cheapside. Centre left, gutted shell of St. Clement Danes, Strand; right, Central Criminal Court, Old Bailey. All this and much more did not dismay Londoners, seen below on the way to work next morning.

Photos, Topical Press; Planet News; Sport & General; Central Press; Keystone.
LONDON'S ORDEAL BY FIRE AS RECORDED BY THE ARTISTS' BRUSH

Nazi offensive. The urgency was plain to all, and Sir Philip Joubert’s hopeful outlook was welcomed by the public, but because little materialized in the first two months of the new year, to warrant his confidence there was some disappointment and some criticism.

Certain events, a little later furnished proof that Sir Philip’s belief was justified. In great secrecy various devices had been evolved and put into service to combat the extremely difficult problem of fighter interception at night. These devices—some new and others the outcome of long research and experiment—began to show results in March. When Portsmouth was bombed on March 10 eight enemy bombers were shot down; in the Clyde-side and Merseyside raids three nights later 13 raiders were destroyed: eleven fell to our night fighters, one was destroyed by anti-aircraft fire and one by “other means.” In February the Luftwaffe lost 36 machines in attacks on Britain; in March the total rose to 71.

In the eighty-third week of the war (Mar. 30–April 5, 1941) the full imposed

transient of St. Paul’s Cathedral and exploded inside. Several other churches

by bad weather appeared to have ended. Day after day single raiders
crossed the Channel, sought out our fighter aerodromes, dived, bombed, and
left, or were destroyed. At night the Nazi bombers, flying at 20,000 feet or
more, penetrated to their principal targets. On April 3 and 4 Bristol was
attacked. Our night-fighter squadrons (increased in number and strengthened
by equipment with the formidable two-motor Bristol Beaufighter) patrolled the
skies. On April 5 four German bombers were destroyed, two by fighters and two
by A.A. guns. The score rose as the month went on. In the second week of
April, the Germans diverted their

bombing from our ports to industrial
centres; on the night of April 8 and 9
Coventry was the main objective. On
the first occasion ten bombers were
accounted for (six by fighters and four
by ground defences), and on the second
occasion—when Birmingham and
centres in North-East England were
also attacked—ten more were shot down
by our aircraft and three by the A.A.
batteries. Yet when London underwent
a widespread and extremely heavy raid
on April 16 only six of the enemy fell.

London felt the full fury of the Nazi
attack, and the central area suffered
widespread havoc. A heavy bomb
penetrated the roof of the North

Night Fighters Intercepted Many Raiders
During three night raids in March, 1941, we destroyed 27 enemy aircraft; in April nearly 70
and in May nearly 146 night raiders were brought down. The American-built Havoc (Douglas-Bowen, D.B.7) seen at top—twin-engined; speed, 325 m.p.h.; range, 1,200 miles—played its part
in this good work together with the British Bristol Beaufighter seen below. Similar in speed and
range, the Beaufighter is used for day interception also.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright.

On April 16 the moonless sky favoured
the raiders and hampered the Hurricanes, Defiants, Beaufighters and Havocs. Now we no longer relied on darkness for air protection. Similar conditions were experienced on April 19,
when the capital was again raided and only two bombers were accounted for.
Nevertheless, by that date 40 German machines had been torn from the night
sky since the beginning of April.

While Britain was thus being attacked
by the Nazis, aircraft of the R.A.F.
Bomber and Coastal Command, as their
strength grew, bombed targets in North-
West Germany and occupied territory,
and there were occasions when enemy
raids appeared to fulfill the Nazi policy
of retaliatory bombing. Thus, after a
particularly heavy raid on Kiel,
Plymouth experienced a very severe
attack (night of April 21). By May the
German night raids appeared to have
reached their peak, and at the same
time there were definite indications
that marked progress had been made in our
methods of defence. Intensive training in
night-fighting, the operation of many
more aircraft, the increased effectiveness
of the system of detection based on the
use of other waves (known officially as
“radiolocation”) combined to help the
R.A.F. in exacting an important toll
from the enemy.

From May 4 until May 10 the enemy
bombed many parts of England and also
Northern Ireland. He attacked with great intensity Merseyside, Clydeside, Belfast and London. He struck at East Anglia, the Humber, the Bristol area, the North Midlands and parts of the north-west and south-west.

Belfast was attacked (for the second time in three weeks) on the night of May 6. There seemed to have been no discrimination in the enemy's bombing, and as on the earlier raid of April 15, it was commercial, industrial and residential property that suffered; casualties were fewer than in the earlier raid, when about 500 had been killed and three times that number injured.

At Liverpool, on May 5, the city's emergency committee stated: "Liverpool has passed through a serious trial during the past four days and nights, and we would like to take this early opportunity of expressing to the citizens our great appreciation of the spirit in which they met the crisis." The Germans claimed that on the third of the four nights when Liverpool was attacked (Saturday, May 3), the raid was one of the heaviest ever made in Britain.

Damage was great during this period, and the death-roll and casualties heavy, but for the Luftwaffe this was a week of startling defeats. On May 4 it lost ten aircraft (six by fighters, three by A.A., one by the fire of the destroyer "Southdown"); on May 5 nine were destroyed by fighters and one by A.A.; on May 6 the R.A.F. accounted for eight more, and our A.A. guns for one; on May 7 24 German bombers were destroyed (20 by fighters, three by A.A., and one by barrage balloon); on May 8 our fighters accounted for 11 bombers and A.A. gunfire for three. Finally, on May 10, 29 raiders fell to the R.A.F. and four to A.A.-guns, making the total for the week 116.

In the raid of May 10 the Chamber of the House of Commons was destroyed, and on this same Saturday night Westminster Hall and the Abbey were damaged. When some incendiary bombs lodged in the scaffolding with which the Victoria Tower was encased (for normal repair work in progress), Police-sergeant Forbes, attached to the Houses of Parliament force, climbed the steel scaffolding to a great height carrying a sandbag to put out the fire. At Westminster Abbey incendiary bombs damaged the roof, but worse harm had been prevented by the fire watchers.

On the night of Sunday, May 11, the raiders made for R.A.F. aerodromes, and while a number had been attacked the damage except at two points had not been considerable. The Germans claimed to have "attacked many aerodromes in southern England and the Midlands"); the enemy also stated that factories at Middlesbrough and docks at Pembroke had been bombed.

The German High Command, which from the opening of their mass-bombing campaign had displayed a reckless indifference to losses of material and men, seemed now to sense a warning; in one week more than 500 of their air-crew personnel had been wiped out or had become prisoners. Henceforth few concentrated raids were launched on Britain, and a protracted lull set in.
Chapter 168

BRITAIN'S AIR OFFENSIVE AGAINST GERMANY AND ITALY GATHERS WEIGHT

Review of the Six Months January to June, 1941—Halifax and Stirling Bombers Play their Destined Part—Parachute Raid in Southern Italy—Big Raids on Berlin Objectives—Pattern of Our Bombing Offensive—Bombing German Warships at Brest—Offensive Sweeps Over the Channel in Daylight—Daytime Raids on Emden and Cologne

In Britain's months of peril after France had capitulated at the end of June, 1940, the task of the R.A.F. was to take the offensive; while our incomparable Fighter Command fought and shattered the Luftwaffe over Kent, Sussex and the eastern counties, machines of Bomber Command were engaged in day and night attacks on the harbours and ports in Northern France—to check and break the German plan of invasion by sea. At the same time a force which today would seem pitiable small flew by night far into Germany to hammer at the strongholds of the Nazi war industry. In contrast with the Luftwaffe's bomber strength the British units were woefully small, yet this strategic bombing was not fruitless, and when the New Year dawned the stage was set for an immeasurably greater air offensive.

Early in 1941 new squadrons had been formed and new aircraft were in production. Huge four-engined machines such as the Handley Page Halifax and the Short Stirling were leaving their assembly lines and going into service. By the end of September, 1940, 900 raids had been carried out by the R.A.F., and in the last quarter of the year our attacks had numbered 1,400. The tempo of our onslaught in the air, in spite of our ever-growing commitments, had been rising. Fresh hopes and new resolves stimulated Britain's air arm with the coming of the New Year. The weather of January hampered our night bombers just as it did those of the enemy, yet in spite of the hazards (magnified by long-range operation) our heavy bombers went far afield. On a single night (January 12) the oil port of Regensburg in Southern Germany, the Royal Arsenal at Turin, and the oil store at Porto Marghera near Venice were visited and bombed by Armstrong Whitneys. Two nights later aircraft of Coastal Command attacked German bases at Manila in Norway, and in the same week on two successive nights British bombers carried out powerful raids on the German naval base at Wilhelmshaven.

These initial operations in the year 1941 marked the course that had been planned by the Air Staff in formulating its long-term policy. That policy had the dual aim of crippling the basis of the enemy's war effort and of draining away the power of his armed forces by diminishing his vital supplies of arms and equipment. Industrial Germany, synthetic fuel plants, shipyards, docks, canals and railways—these were the targets selected for the British bombing offensive. In the past year fundamental lessons had been learned by Bomber Command. Greater speed, heavy armament and ability to carry heavier bomb loads became indispensable qualities. The limitations of the day bomber and the need for fighter escorts had been revealed. The call for the very big bomber and for yet bigger bombs seemed irresistible.

On February 10, 1941, British Army units were landed by parachute near Mount Venturo in Southern Italy to carry out certain operations which must still remain secret. They were taken to their objective by Whitley aircraft of Bomber Command. It was conjectured that our men wrecked vital railway communications. An Italian communication of April 6 stated that a Fortunato Pichici had been taken prisoner with the British parachute troops and had been shot. Pichici was an Italian formerly employed at the Savoy Hotel, London; though anti-Fascist, he had been interned for six months in the Isle of Man. On his release he had not resumed his former work, preferring to take an active part in the war for freedom.

In February, 1941, various important developments in equipment were put

POWERFUL NEW BOMBS FALL ON EMDEN

Below, loading a bomb weighing nearly a ton and having five times the disruptive power of former types of the same calibre. The new type was tested in a raid on the German port of Emden during the night of March 31-April 1, 1941. Upper photo shows result: 1, area of complete destruction; 2, area badly damaged.
OUR BOMBERS RUN THE GAUNTLET

The terse communiqués of the Air Ministry give little indication of the perils which beset our night bombers, but these photographs give some idea of the strong Nazi defenses. Below, from an enemy source, searchlights and tracer shells brighten the sky; horizontal streaks show passage of flares dropped by British aircraft. Top, taken over Berlin during an R.A.F. raid: 1, the Flak Batteries; 2, flashes of light from the ground; 3, searchlight; 4, origin of tracer flak positions. Fine lines show tracer shells; broader lines those of heavier guns.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright. Associated Press.

to test. The Short Stirling, heaviest of all the bombers produced to date, went into action for the first time. In this action over enemy-occupied territory, and in many others which took place later, the great machine—which ranked as the most powerful military aeroplane yet in service—revealed its great offensive powers and also its defensive qualities. On a number of occasions it warded off attacks made simultaneously by enemy fighters, and through the great fire-power furnished by its multi-gun turrets it destroyed many of its attackers. There were reports, too, of the Stirling (which weighs something in the neighbourhood of 30 tons) actually pursuing enemy fighters which had closed in for attack. Such four-engined bombers reinforced the night offensive, adding greatly to the power and range of our striking force. The activities of Bomber Command began in earnest in the last week of February, when strong forces raided industrial targets in the Ruhr and also aerodromes in France. In those seven days Cologne was bombed twice, and in all these operations the R.A.F. encountered the most intense A.A. fire, though opposition from enemy fighters was negligible.

As our bombing of Germany continued the experience of the R.A.F., indicated that the enemy had made little advance in dealing with the problems of night interception, though he claimed to have evolved startling new means of tracking raiding aircraft in darkness.

In November, 1940, Berlin had experienced its first really heavy raid, but this was on a minor scale in comparison with the attack carried out by Bomber Command on the night of March 23, 1941. The Air Ministry stated that the force engaged was a large one, and that several thousands of incendiaries had been dropped, as well as new and very heavy high-explosive bombs. The raid was carried out in indifferent weather and clouds hampered the attackers; yet in spite of this and the intense anti-aircraft barrage our bombers persisted in flying over the German capital, sought and found their specified targets, and pressed home their attack. The results could not be fully observed, but there was no doubt that great damage had been done and many fires started. On the same night other R.A.F. forces bombed Hanover (which had previously been attacked more than 30 times), singling out the great oil storage tanks and the Gewerkschaft Deutsche Erdöl (oil refinery) there.

Such refineries and synthetic oil plants were a vital factor in the Nazi war economy, for from them was obtained the special aviation fuel required by the Luftwaffe, besides lubricating oils and the Diesel fuel necessary for U-boats. Attacks on Hanover, therefore, were particularly significant, as were those on the Leuna hydrogenation plant, and on oil targets at Cologne, Gelsenkirchen and elsewhere.

Meanwhile, the Battle of the Atlantic was building up to serious proportions,
MIGHTY FOUR-ENGINED BOMBERS

Top, left, a Handley Page Halifax banking round in full flight; in right-hand top photograph an inside view is given: at top, the pilot; behind him is the second pilot, while the radio operator sits beneath. Lowest photograph, a flight of Short Stirlings in formation; centre, loading bombs into a Stirling ready for a long-range raid on Germany.

Photos: P.N.A., Planet News, Associated Press
and Bomber Command had to concentrate as far as possible on the war against enemy shipping. Our night bombers, including the Wellington, Stirling and Avro Manchester, as well as the Hampden and the Blenheim, were constantly detailed for attacks on German naval bases. Emden in particular was frequently raided in the first quarter of 1941; and the French port of Brest, where the German battle-cruisers ‘Scharnhorst’ and ‘Gneisenau’ had been docked at the end of their raiding cruises in the Atlantic, was another centre marked down for British air action. On the night of March 31 an outstanding assault was made on Emden, when bombs which were described officially as being “five times more powerful than any previously used by the R.A.F.” were dropped in great numbers. In raids on Brest some of our airmen flew down to 1,000 feet and carried out acts of unsurpassed gallantry when over this Nazi key point, which as time went on became one of the most heavily defended areas.

On April 17 Berlin was again the main target, and from that night until the end of the month raids were made on Cologne, Düsseldorf, Aachen, Kiel, Hamburg, Bremerhaven, Cuxhaven, Mannheim and Lübeck. Objectives in Holland, Denmark and Norway, with half-a-dozen vital targets in occupied France, had all been raided by night during the month. These operations, involving difficult and dangerous flights over long distances, gave some indication of the growing strength of British air power: on a single night we were able to send 500 bombers over Germany alone, while other powerful units could strike simultaneously at German strongholds hundreds of miles distant. In the next two months our offensive continued. In the first week of May, when the Germans suffered most disturbing losses in their raids on Britain, Bomber Command established a record in its operations over Germany. On the night of May 3
the largest force of bombers, bearing the heaviest bomb-load which the R.A.F. had ever carried into action on a single occasion, flew to Berlin, Bremen, and Hamburg. Our forces numbered several hundreds, and the four-motor Short Stirling, the 27-ton four-motor Handley Page Halifax, the two-motor Avro Manchester, the Armstrong-Whitworth Whitley, the Handley Page Hampden, and the Vickers-Armstrong Wellington all took part. On the same night, too, other types struck at enemy coastal shipping, raiding places in N.W. Germany and bombing the U-boat bases at St. Nazaire. Every night in that week the British bombers were in action, as was the enemy over England, but while his losses totalled 116 bombers only 27 R.A.F. machines failed to return.

By this time the Nazis had realized that they must expect a relentless and growing offensive by the British air arm; our bomber crews reported that the ground defences and searchlights around Berlin, Cologne, Hamburg, and other important centres were concentrated in tremendous numbers. Our machines had also to contend with growing opposition from night fighters. The scale of our night bombing offensive had been raised to a new high level by midsummer, and usually the casualties bore little relation to the numbers of aircraft engaged. It became clear that the persistent bombing of well-chosen targets could be worked up to a decisive stage.

A most interesting and encouraging development of this six months was the brilliant and highly effective work of the Fighter Command. In January, 1941, Hurricanes and Spitfires

AIR-SEA RESCUE SERVICE OF THE R.A.F.

For the aid of airmen forced down in the sea there are brightly painted rescue floats (below) moored at suitable points; airmen in their dinghies (top, right) may reach them, summon aid by wireless, and meanwhile secure food and clothing. High-speed rescue launches (in background) soon arrive to pick up the airmen, or to search the waters for others reported to have come down. Top, left, a fighter pilot wearing bright yellow linen should cap so as to be more easily distinguishable by rescuers.

Photos: British Official; Fax: "Daily Mirror"
BOMBSING OF CAPRONI WORKS AT MAI ADAGA

Workshops and hangars at Mai Adaga in Italian East Africa were bombed in November, 1940, when the ammunition dumps were seriously damaged; this photograph shows a later R.A.F. raid, on Feb. 17, 1941: 1. bombs bursting on aerodrome; 2. hangars; 3. parts of damaged aircraft; 4. direct hit on workshop; 5. store buildings demolished.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

Blenheims flew over the area known as the Pas de Calais; enemy aerodromes were bombed and machine-gunned, barracks were destroyed and troops were attacked. The element of surprise was an important factor, for it was the first occasion on which the R.A.F. had attacked in this manner. Luftwaffe opposition was not heavy, three enemy machines being shot down while the British formations sustained no losses.

On the following day similar co-ordinated tactics were used in raids over the coast of Holland and Belgium. Thereafter, whenever weather conditions did not forbid, these sweeps were made with the greatest tenacity and daring. Sometimes sorties would be carried out by Hurricanes alone and they would be flown over enemy-occupied territory at ground level, from which altitude, with cannon and machine-guns blazing, the pilots would scatter motor convoys on the roads, wreck and damage German aircraft standing on aerodromes and attack gun-emplacements and parading troops. What with the raids on Germany under cover of darkness and the daylight sorties over enemy-occupied France, the operations of the R.A.F. against the enemy were sometimes practically continuous over a period of many hours.

Apart altogether from the daylight sweeps over the Channel and Northern France our bombers from time to time raided objectives in Germany in broad daylight. An outstanding operation of this kind was carried out on April 28, when a Short Stirling reached Emden and attacked sundy targets at 1,500 feet. On the previous day Blenheim bombers had penetrated to Cologne to destroy factories and a military camp. Another daylight attack was made by unescorted bombers on May 13, when the objective was the island of Heligoland. On June 2, taking cover in low clouds, aircraft of Bomber Command attacked ships in the Kiel Canal. On the same day others bombed objectives in Schleswig-Holstein.

Emerging from all these varied and widespread operations was the one great fact that the British air offensive was steadily gathering momentum. The R.A.F. was building up its strength, was being equipped with new machines, and was resorting to fresh tactics. Every opportunity was being seized to strike harder and as frequently as possible at the enemy. Never was there any lack of personnel, and the Royal Air Force's waiting list was always a long one. Young men all over the country were interviewed, enrolled, and sent back home to await call—chasing at the comparatively long period before they were regonized for training. But this period of deferment was a token that Britain's reserve of pilots and air crews was an eminently satisfactory one.

Incalculable tasks for Britain's air components lay ahead, yet by June, 1941, our efforts in the air had begun to show encouraging and heartening results. These were not dimmed when a new phase of the war began on the 22nd of that month, when, at 04.00 hrs., Hitler's hordes invaded Russian territory.
WORDS OF CHEER AND WARNING TO THE HOME FRONT

Mr. Churchill, in a Speech at Portsmouth, Jan. 31, 1941:

I have thought about you and your friends in Southampton
a good deal when we knew how heavily you were being
attacked, and I am glad to find an afternoon to come and
see you to wish you good luck and offer you the thanks and con-
gratulations of the Government for the manner in which you
are standing up to these onslaughts of the enemy. We see
that the enemy has been decisively defeated by the U.A.E.
and he was not able last autumn to invade our country. We
see that our friends across the ocean are taking a very warm
interest in the struggle for freedom here. The great American
democracy has pledged itself to give us its aid.

Lastly, what has happened to Italy?
Mr. Churchill, in a Broadcast, April 27, 1941:

I was asked last week whether I was aware of some unau-
thorized attack on which it was said, except in this country on account
of the gravity, as it was described, of the war situation. So
I thought it would be a good thing to go and see for myself
what this unauthorized amounted to. And I went to some of our
great cities, scattered which had been most heavily bombed.

There are quite a number of fresh reports. The people there
are now forced in the city on to the bridges, on to the
bridges, and some of our airfields, having been sealed off
to be made Sure.

Mr. Churchill, in a Speech at Portsmouth, Jan. 31, 1941:

The ordeals to which Britain was subjected by enemy bombing included not only the
destruction of homes and the devastation of cities, but the apprehension of possible
attacks by the German and Minister of Home Security.

High tribute is paid to the courage and fortitude of the civilian population,
and a solemn warning given to prepare for any eventuality.

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to be made Sure.
Historic Documents, CCX

BEATING THE INVADER: RULES FOR CIVILIANS IN 1941

In May, 1941, when Britain was threatened with invasion, a leaflet was issued by the Ministry of Information in cooperation with the War Office and the Ministry of Home Security, and distributed to every household. It comprised a message from Mr. Churchill and a number of instructions should the threat materialize.

A MESSAGE FROM THE PRIME MINISTER

If invasion comes, everyone—young or old, man and woman—will be called upon to play their part worthily. By far the greater part of the country will not be immediately involved. Even along our coasts, the greater part will remain unaffected. But where the enemy lands, or tries to land, there will be most violent fighting. Not only will there be the battles when the enemy tries to come ashore, but afterwards there will fall upon his lodgement very heavy British counter-attacks, and all the time the lodgements will be under the heaviest attack by British bombers. The fewer civilians or non-combatants in these areas, the better—apart from essential workers who must remain. So if you are advised by the authorities to stay where you live, it is your duty to do so, and if you are told to leave, when the attack begins, it will be too late to go; and, unless you receive definite instructions to move, your duty then will be to stay where you are. You will have to get into the safest place you can find, and stay there until the battle is over. For all of you then the order and the duty will be: "Stand Firm."

This also applies to people inland if any considerable number of parachutists or air-borne troops are landed in their neighbourhood. Above all, they must not number the roads. Like their fellow-countrymen on the coast, they must "Stand Firm." The Home Guard, supported by strong mobile columns wherever the enemy’s numbers require it, will immediately come to grips with the invaders, and there is little doubt who will soon destroy them.

Throughout the rest of the country there is no fighting going on and no close danger; fire or rifle fire can be heard, everyone will go about their business, the great order and duty, namely, "Carry on." It may easily be some weeks before the invaders have been totally destroyed, that is to say, killed or captured, to the last man who has landed on our shores. Meanwhile, all work must be continued as usual, and no time lost.

The following notes have been prepared to tell everyone in rather more detail what to do, and they should be carefully studied. Each man and woman should think out a clear plan of personal action in accordance with the general scheme.

—Winston Churchill

What do I do if fighting breaks out in my neighbourhood?

What do I do in areas which are now open to the fighting?

Stay in your district and carry on. Go to work whether in shop, field, factory or office. Do your shopping, send your children to school until you are told not to. Do not try to go and live somewhere else. Do not use the roads for any unnecessary journey; they must be left free for troops movements in case of emergencies. Do not use the roads for any unnecessary travel; they must be left free for troops movements in case of emergencies.

Will certain roads and railways be reserved for the use of the Military, even in areas far from the scene of action?

Yes, certain roads will have to be reserved for important troop movements; but such reservations should be only temporary.

Who shall I ask for advice?

The police and A.R.P. wardens.

From whom shall I take orders?

In most cases from the police and A.R.P. wardens. But there may be times when you will have to take orders from the military and the Home Guard in uniform.

Is there any means by which I can tell that an order is a true order and not falsified?

You will generally know your policeman and your A.R.P. wardens by sight, and can trust them. With a bit of common sense you can tell if a soldier is really British or only pretending to be so. If in doubt ask a policeman or ask a soldier whom you know personally.

What does it mean when the church bells are rung?

It is a warning to the local garrison that troops have been landed from the air in the neighbourhood of the church in question. Church bells will not be rung all over the country as a general warning that invasion has taken place. The ringing of church bells in one place will not be taken up in neighbouring churches.

Will instructions be given over the wireless?

Yes; so far as possible. But remember that the enemy can overhear any wireless message, so that the wireless cannot be used for instructions which might give him valuable information.

In what other ways will instructions be given?

Through the Press; by loudspeaker vans; and, perhaps by leaflets and posters. But remember that genuine Government leaflets will be given to you only by the policeman, your A.R.P. warden or your postman; while genuine posters and instructions will be put up only on Ministry of Information notice boards and official sites, such as police stations, post offices, A.R.P. posts, town halls and schools.

Should I try to lay in extra food?

No. If you have already laid in a stock of food, keep it for a real emergency; but do not add to it. The Government has made arrangements for food supplies.

Will normal news services continue?

Yes. Careful plans have been made to enable newspapers and wireless broadcasts to carry on, and in case of need there are emergency measures which will bring you the news. But if there should be some temporary breakdown in news supply, it is very important that you should not listen to rumours nor pass them on, but should wait until real news comes through again. Do not use the telephones or send telegrams if you can possibly avoid it.

Should I put my car, lorry, or motor-bicycle out of action?

Yes, when you are told to do so by the police, A.R.P. wardens or military; or when it is obvious that there is an immediate risk of its being damaged by the enemy—then disable and hide your bicycle and destroy your maps.

Should I defend myself against the enemy?

The enemy is not likely to turn aside to attack separate houses. If small parties are going about threatening persons and property in an area not under enemy control and come your way, you have the right of every man and woman to do what you can to protect yourself, your family and your home.

Give all the help you can to our troops.

Do not tell the enemy anything. Do not give him anything. Do not help him in any way.
The year 1941 opened with flying visits from two distinguished Americans. Mr. Harry Hopkins, head of the Works Progress Administration, and Secretary of Commerce, came as President Roosevelt's personal representative. He reached London on January 9. Next day Mr. Hopkins said at a gathering of Press representatives, "I have no misgivings about the outcome of this war." His experiences in England seemed to have confirmed that opening expression of opinion, for one of his first public remarks after his return to America on February 18 was, "I don't think Hitler can lick the British"; and when in April the Lease-Lend arrangements were completed, Mr. Hopkins was appointed supervisor of purchases made under these arrangements.

In Britain he met Mr. Eden and Lord Halifax (who was about to go to Washington as British Ambassador). Mr. Hopkins had constant conversations with British Ministers, including Mr. Churchill. He was received by the King. He inspected, in Mr. Churchill's company, Glasgow civil defence organization, the south-east coast defences, including the British long-range guns commanding the Straits of Dover, and the blitzed towns of Portsmouth and Southampton. He heard the Prime Minister wind up a debate in the House of Commons on war production; and he visited air raid shelters at night.

Mr. Hopkins' visit, brief as it was, seemed almost sedate compared with the whirlwind tour made by Mr. Wendell Willkie, the Republican leader who had been Mr. Roosevelt's rival in the presidential election the previous November. Mr. Willkie repeatedly insisted that he was travelling as a private citizen to study the situation in England. He reached London on January 26, and spent ten days in the British Isles. He saw the Prime Minister, Mr. Eden, Mr. Bevin, Mr. Duff Cooper, Lord Beaverbrook (who gave a dinner for him at which the whole Cabinet was present), and Mr. Montagu Norman. On one day he visited the Ministry of Supply and the Home Office, Transport House, and the headquarters of the Polish forces, where he met General Sikorski; and in the evening he saw air raid shelters during an alert. On another day he went to the Admiralty, where he had a long talk with Mr. A. V. Alexander, the First Lord; made a tour of the damaged Temple; and visited a public house in Shepherd's Market, Mayfair. He heard a day-time alert sounded, and he attended a debate in the House of Commons, remarking afterwards:

"I am particularly impressed by the calm, deliberate courage of everyone I have seen. The House of Commons has also made a great impression on me. I was able to listen to a little of the debate. That Parliament can go on discussing such a question as the freedom of the Press in this critical time is a spectacle that is so magnificent as it isrefreshing."

He went to Dover and the south-east coast, "to see Britain's front line defences"; he went to Coventry and Birmingham, remarking that nothing had been published in America which gave any idea of the damage Birmingham had suffered. He toured Liverpool and Manchester. He flew to Dublin, where he had a "very frank and free discussion" with Mr. de Valera at lunch, and the same afternoon returned to London, where he was received by the King. Next morning early he visited Bristol, before taking the aeroplane for Cunca at 9 a.m. On his departure he addressed a message to the German people in which he said:

"I am of purely German descent. My grandparents left Germany 60 years ago because they were protestants against autocracy. I am proud of my German blood, but I hate aggression and tyranny. Tell the German people that we German Americans reject and hate the aggression and lust for power of the present German government."

To the British people he said,

"Anything I can do in America to help Britain in her fight for freedom I certainly
BRITAIN HAD PLENTY OF FOOD, EQUITABLY SHARED

ロイド・ウォルトン（手を伸ばしている）首相、食糧大臣、第一食料船の下締めをした。彼の後を次々とアーバー・ファーマーとミス・ファーマー、食料品庁の将軍、食料品通商委員会の委員長が続いている。この食料品は、戦時食糧通商法の下で列挙されている。交通機関を通じて、各地の食料供給が期待されている。市街地の食料供給形態が見られる。食料を安く得て、満足のいく生活を送ることを期待している。

Photos, Associated Press; Planet News; Fox

shall do. Your people have shown magnificent courage. Keep your chin up!

He arrived safely at La Guardia airfield on February 9.

The debate on the freedom of the Press to which Mr. Willkie listened arose out of the suppression of the “Daily Worker,” organ of the Communist Party of Great Britain, first published in January, 1930. armed with an order from the Home Secretary under regulation 2D of the Defense (General) Regulations, the police took possession of the offices of the “Daily Worker” on January 21. The production of any alternative publication was prevented by a second order made under regulation 9D, which forbade the use of the printing press and other apparatus without leave of the High Court. “Systematic publication of matter calculated to foment opposition to the prosecution of the war to a successful issue” was the reason given by the Home Secretary, Mr. Morrison, for taking this step. For a long time, said Mr. Morrison, it had been “the settled and continuous policy” of the paper to try to create in its readers “a state of mind in which they will refrain from cooperating in the national war effort, and may become ready to hinder that effort.”

Few members of the House of Commons had any sympathy with the policy of the “Daily Worker,” but there was a good deal of uneasiness over the suppression without judicial trial of a paper of any political colour; and a week later a debate took place, on a motion put down by Mr. Aneurin Bevan, Independent Labour member for Ebbw Vale:

“That this House expresses its determination of the propaganda of the ‘Daily Worker’ in relation to the war, but is of opinion that confidence can be undermined if it can be shown that any newspaper can be suppressed in a manner which leaves the paper no chance of stating its case.”

The debate was not without acrimony, but Mr. Morrison’s spirited defense convinced the House that he had acted wisely, for Mr. Bevan’s motion was negatived by 323 votes to 6.

The freedom of the Press was raised in the House again early in February, when Mr. Mond, Liberal member for Wolverhampton, asked the Prime Minister if he would state on what dates, and in what circumstances, representatives of the “Daily Mirror” and the “Sunday Pictorial” were officially interviewed and warned about the political attitude they were adopting. Mr. Churchill said that the conversations referred to were confidential, and refused
LONDON'S INDOMITABLE FIRE-FIGHTERS SAVED THE CITY

This photograph of Ludgate Circus on the morning of May 11, 1941, gives an idea of the enormous task of the regular and auxiliary firemen in localising the damage caused by incendiary bombs accompanied by high explosive missiles. A superb organisation, backed by fire courage and splendid team-work, enabled the many fires to be put out or damped down and saved innumerable buildings from destruction.

Photo: Negatives
HOLBORN AREA IN THE FIRE-RAIDS OF APRIL 16 AND MAY 10, 1941.

Top, taken at 2 a.m. on April 17; the blazing City Temple and, in the background, the tower of St. Andrew's Church; at the left is the fiery glow from Thomas Wall's store in Holborn Circus. Below, looking down Charterhouse Street from the Circus towards Smithfield Market (night of May 10, 1941); fire still rages in some buildings, but the situation is well in hand.
LONDON MORNING: AFTER A NIGHT RAID IN JANUARY, 1941

Right, a Y.M.C.A. tea car, usually serving light refreshments to H.M. Forces, visits a raided London street. Mercifully these youngsters, like many others, appear to have come through the ordeal without serious mental harm. A milk-bar restaurant in the City vanished overnight, but next morning its staff were serving a long queue of customers from an improvised stall.

Photo, Fox: “The Daily Mirror”
H.M.A.S. 'SYDNEY' STEAMS TO HER BERTH IN SYDNEY HARBOUR

This photograph shows the Australian cruiser on her return from the Mediterranean, where on July 19, 1940, she had vanquished the Italian cruiser Bartolomeo Colleoni (see pp. 1082 and 1092). On Nov. 29, 1942, the 'Sydney' was lost with all on board, after sinking the armed raider 'Scharnhorst.'

Photo, Sport & General. Reproduced by permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationary Office
RATIONAL CLOTHING AND TEXTILES

The raw materials of textiles were in demand for many wartime purposes, and clothing itself had to be manufactured in enormous quantities for the various services. Therefore civilian supplies were limited by rationing, and after June 1, 1941, purchasers had to surrender coupons. Above, giving up coupons in a London street-market. Insert, special coupon issued to people who had been bombarded out of their homes.

Photo, Fox

to budge from the position that the Government was entitled to make such private approaches to newspaper proprietors, ridiculing the suggestion that the Government's only course towards newspapers should be by prosecution.

The cost of the war was mounting to an enormous figure, and at the beginning of February was 8 millions a day for the fighting services, plus 2½ millions for other war services such as the expenditure on the Ministries of Shipping, Food, and Home Security. The Government was aware of the cost of wartime financial policy aimed at limiting demand for non-essentials by limiting the capacity of private expenditure, thus releasing labour and raw materials for war industry. The need for private savings was constantly stressed, and the public response exceeded the Government's hopes. Lord Kinderley, President of the National Savings Movement, announced at Manchester on May 25 that in the first 19 months of the war, small savers had raised £700,000,000.

Even more striking had been the reception on April 7 of the 1941 budget of Sir Kingsley Wood (Chancellor of the Exchequer), the main feature of which was the raising of income tax from 8s. 6d. to 10s. in the £, and of income tax at a point at which the rate on the highest incomes was 19s. 6d. in the £.

Some grumbles there were, but the most serious grumbles, except from poorly-paid workers who found themselves inside the ranks of income-tax payers for the first time owing to the reduction of the personal allowance from £100 to £80 and of the earned income allowance from one-sixth to one-twelfth.

Another important aspect of national wartime finance was dealt with in the War Damage Act (Part II), which came into force on April 17 and compelled all persons carrying on business, including professional men and farmers, to insure all the movable assets of their business undertakings if these were worth more than £1,000. Those with movable assets worth less could come into the scheme voluntarily. The premium, 30c. per cent., covered loss to the end of September, 1941.

Even amid all the major problems of rising prices, the work for social betterment went on. A piece of legislation aimed at removing a sense of injustice among the workers was the Means Test Reform Act, which received the Royal assent on February 26. It abolished the requirement that the resources of all members of the household of an applicant for unemployment assistance or for a supplementary pension must be taken into account in assessing a grant, and substituted certain general principles. Where the applicant was a householder, the contribution to the household of a wage-earning son was in future to be reckoned at 7½ a week maximum less if his wages were small, and nothing if they were less than 20s. a week. Where the applicant was not a householder, but was related by blood to the householder, it was to be assumed that, provided the householder's income was at least £5 a week for himself and one dependent, with 15s. a week extra for each additional dependent, the applicant would receive free board and lodging; and in such cases a grant of 5s. a week would be made to cover personal expenditure.

MAKING THE MOST OF THE FRUIT CROPS

Fruit preserving centres were set up in the villages throughout Britain, and here members of the Women's Institutes and the Women's Voluntary Services (with other bodies) made jam from home-grown fruit brought to them by local residents. A total of over 1,500 tons of jam was made by 180 urban and 5,500 rural centres during the 1941 season. Above, taking fruit to the Cobbsman centre.

Photo, "The Times"
EMERGENCY WATER SUPPLY

Supplementing the pre-ignition supply for London, water was taken from the Thames and piped along many of the principal streets with hose-stands at intervals. Here is one such tapping point.

Photo: Sport & General

With the continued calling to the armed forces of more men, and the rising tempo of war industry, the proper distribution and employment of the men and women still available in the home labour market became of growing importance. On January 6 it was announced that Mr. Churchill had set up a new executive under Mr. Ernest Bevin, Minister of Labour and National Service, to deal with production. The number of workers entered on the State register as wholly unemployed had steadily decreased as war industry developed. On January 13 the total number was 695,606—less by 3,673 than on December 29. The total number of unemployed in June was 1,160,626, of whom 34,763 had been classified by interviewing panels as unsuitable for ordinary industrial employment.

On March 9, in announcing that the first date fixed for women to register for war work was April 19, Mr. Bevin appealed to them to offer their services at once, and added that married women with children were to be helped by a subsidy towards the cost of minding their children while they were at work. A Women's Consultative Committee, to advise on questions affecting the recruitment and registration of women for war work, and the best methods of securing their services, met for the first time on March 12. It included among its members Dr. Edith Summerskill, M.P., and Miss Irene Ward, M.P. Some 100,000 girls of 40 and over registered on April 19. The last group, called in the first six months of 1941, was women born in 1917, who registered on June 22. Men born in 1900, first of the 41 to 45 group to register for war work, registered on June 4.

January saw a period of severe weather during which fast-flowing rivers froze, and snowdrifts, some of them 15 feet deep, blocked roads and railways. These wintry conditions emphasized existing difficulties in the distribution of coal. Lack of transport, the drafting of miners into the Army, transfer of miners to other industries, and greatly increased industrial demand for coal were all factors in the shortage. Early in the war a shortsighted policy had allowed the mines to be demurred of many hewers and other workers. In May the Minister of Labour made an Essential Work Order for the coal-mining industry; and the miners' attendance bonus plan, designed to deter men from absenting themselves from work for part of the week, was announced. The executive committee of the Mineworkers' Federation accepted this plan in principle after certain modifications. Towards the end of June a "standstill order" was issued for the coal-mining industry: no more miners were to be called up for the Army. An appeal was made to men who had left the mines to return to them.

BOMBED BUT STILL IN BEING

The City of London Police Station suffered from bomb blast, but soon adapted itself to circumstances. Outside the former entrance a wet display of the inscription:

"Be good! We are still open."

Photo: Topical Press

With the extension of the war to wider zones the shipping position became progressively more acute. One of the most serious problems was the length of time taken for the "turn-round" of ships in port. Most dock labourers in the country were still casual workers, though reformers had for years sought to do away with this state of affairs. In February it was announced that the Minister of Transport would almost immediately become the employer of all the registered dock workers in Liverpool, Manchester, Preston and other towns in that area, and that the men would be engaged on a guaranteed weekly basis. In spite of a good deal of opposition from the dockers themselves, the scheme was brought into operation, and was extended in April to the Clyde side.

The building industry was made the subject of an Essential Work Order in June. Here again the object of the Government was to put all work necessary to the war effort and to limit other undertakings.

Much care was given to the feeding of the population. Prices were pegged for important foodstuffs, and held at reasonable levels by means of subsidies to the manufacturers. On January 21 the official cost of living figure was 96 points above the level of July, 1941, and one point higher than on November 30, 1940. This rise of one point was...
MAGNIFICENT WOMEN WORKERS

Today, with the advance of machinery, muscular strength plays a lesser part and woman's natural skill and adaptability can be widely utilized even in heavy industries. Top, left, servicing a bus; right, a tramee at a power grinder. Centre, left, repairing army boots; right, shaping steel ship-plates with an oxygen cutter. Below, right, overhauling a tank track.

Photos, "Daily Mirror"; Keigemen
largely attributable to the purchase tax, which had come into force on October 21, 1940. Food alone was 72 points up as compared with July, 1914. While the general cost of living showed a slow but steady rise to 100 points up on May 31 (when it was estimated that purchase tax had put 6 points on the basic figure), food fluctuated slightly: 72 points up in January, it was 71 up on February 1, 88 on March 1, 70 on April 1, 71 on May 1, 70 on May 31.

The meat ration, 1 lb. a head per week at the start of 1940, was reduced on January 9 to 1/2 lb. a head, including pork and most offals previously obtainable "off the ration." A week later the ration was reduced to 1/2 lb. a head per week, and from March 31 to 1/2 lb. a head. The meat ration, on the other hand, was raised to 2 oz. a head per week, and from March 10 to 4 oz. from March 10 until June 30, when it was again reduced to 2 oz.

During the whole period the total fat ration, including margarine and cooking lard, remained at 8 oz. a head per week.

Rationing was extended to cover several additional commodities. Jam, marmalade, syrup, and treacle were rationed from March 17, at 8 oz. a month, with a full ration for March. On June 27 it was announced that a double ration of sugar would be allowed for the four weeks beginning June 30.

HOME GUARD AT THE PALACE

To mark the first birthday of the Home Guard (May 14, 1941) the King permitted members drawn from London units to mount guard at Buckingham Palace.

Here an N.C.O. reads the King’s Regulations to a sentry about to take over duty.

Photo, Topical Press

an extra 2 lb. a head altogether that could, if the householder wished, be used to make jam, though no promise to this effect was asked as it had been for the extra sugar allowed in 1940. To prevent waste of privately grown fruit, the Ministry of Food also arranged to supply various women’s voluntary organizations (Women’s Institutes, the Women’s Co-operative Guild, Townswomen’s Guilds, and the Women’s section of the British Legion) with sugar to make jam for the national store from surplus fruit sold from private gardens.

Cheese was rationed from May 3 at 1 oz. a week, raised on June 30 to 2 oz. Special 8 oz. ration was granted to miners and agricultural workers. Shortage of poultry feeding stuffs led to a shortage of eggs—April the feeding stuffs available sufficed for only about one-sixth of the laying flocks kept in June, 1939—and a scheme of control and distribution came into force on June 30.

Early in February a standard wholemeal loaf made of flour of 85 per cent extraction (compared with 72 per cent extraction for ordinary white flour) was put on the market. The Bread (Current Prices) Order 1941 decreed that bread (including the new standard loaf) was not to be sold at prices higher than those ruling on December 2, 1940, and included a Government offer of a subsidy of 4d. a quartar loaf sold at 8d. a quartar or less.

Owing to a shortage of milk, which was due in part to transport difficulties, a rough-and-ready milk ration was introduced, reducing by one-seventh the amount of milk to be supplied to all but young children and certain priority consumers.

To help housewives to make the best of available food supplies, the Ministry of Food began to set up food advice centres in big towns. The communal feeding centres, originally planned to relieve difficulties in heavily raided areas, were rechristened British Restaurants and rapidly increased in number. On April 19 there were 343 British Restaurants in 119 towns; by May 21, there were 787. Meals were served at low prices and these establishments proved a great boon.

Together with measures for providing reasonable meals for the many who went certain restrictions against extravagance. An order that came into force on March 10 made it an offence to serve or sell in an hotel or restaurant a meal containing more than one of five main foods—meat, poultry and game, fish, eggs, cheese.

Perhaps the most startling development in rationing was its extension to clothing. Mr. Oliver Lyttelton, President of the Board of Trade, announced in a broadcast at 9 p.m. on June 1 that clothes rationing would come into force on June 2. The Government was able to introduce it at such
short notice by using 26 spare coupons in the food ration books as the first installment of the 66 coupons allotted for the first 12 months of the scheme. Knowledge that clothes were to be rationed is said to have leaked out a few days in advance, but it reached very few people. Mr. Leith-Ross’s announcement came as a surprise to the country at large, and the scheme was accepted with as good a grace as the 10s. income tax had been. Knitting wool for forces comforts was made available without coupons through certain recognized channels; and uniforms, including those of the British Red Cross Society and St. John Ambulance Brigade, were coupon-free. So were certain items of working clothing.

Throughout the six months under review the King and Queen did much to comfort, encourage and inspire. On January 6 King George and Queen Elizabeth spent over three hours in the town streets of Sheffield, talking to the men and women there about their experiences in the raid of December 12, 1940. This was the King’s fifth visit to a raided provincial town, but it was the first time he had been accompanied by the Queen. The King and Queen visited Portsmouth and Manchester, South Wales, Devonport and Plymouth, and the East End of London. On May 14 the King inspected the Houses of Parliament and, accompanied by the Queen, Westminster Abbey—after damage had been done to these buildings during the heavy raid on the night of Saturday, May 10. (On May 16 it was announced that the Commons were sitting “in another place.”)

**HITLER’S DEPUTY FLIES TO BRITAIN**

Above, the wreckage of the aircraft (a Messerschmitt) in which Rudolf Hess, Deputy Fuehrer, flew to Britain from Augsburg on the night of May 10, 1941. Hess crashed out when near Glasgow and was taken prisoner. His aircraft crashed in flames.

The King and Queen inspected the Polish Air Force in January, and later visited the Polish Army in Scotland; in March they inspected various Canadian units stationed in Britain. In May the King inspected the Home Guard on the anniversary of its formation, and watched British parachute troops in training; while the Queen became patron of the National Air Raid Distress Fund, and visited canteens and air raid shelters in central London.

On May 13 it was made known that Rudolf Hess, designated by Hitler as his successor, had landed in Scotland by parachute on the night of Saturday, May 10, from an aeroplane which had crashed in flames. Hess broke his ankle in landing, and was taken to a Glasgow hospital, where he at first gave the name of Horn, but afterwards declared his true identity. He said he had a communication to make to the Duke of Hamilton, whom he claimed to have met earlier in Germany; it was established, however, that the Duke had never met Hess. Mr. Ivone Kirkpatrick, of the Foreign Office, who had been at the British Embassy in Berlin and was acquainted with Hess, was sent to see him, and confirmed his identity. Though excited speculations as to the reason of this extraordinary adventure were many and contradictory, the real reason was not divulged.

After broadcasting various accounts of the affair the German Government gave out that Hess had left behind a letter which showed traces of mental disorder. British doctors, however, found him perfectly sane, and he was quite healthy, apart from his damaged ankle. It was said that he had brought an offer of peace; that he had expected to find a pro-Nazi group in this country strong enough to overthrow Churchill; that he had fled in fear of his life. The German invasion of Russia on June 22 lent colour to still another theory: that Hess had come to invite the British Government to join Germany in a crusade against “bolshoism.”

On three occasions during this period Mr. Churchill broadcast a review of the war situation: on February 9, when he praised the leaders of our forces in the Middle East for the victories in Africa, and prophesied that the war was about to enter upon a phase of even greater violence; on April 27, when he said that nothing happening then compared in gravity with the dangers of 1940; and on June 22, when he shattered any illusions Hess or Hitler may have entertained about this country’s attitude towards Russia by promising her every possible help, and repeating once again that we would never parley with Hitler or his gang.
Australia fighter pilot looks at the kangaroo-and-map symbol on his Hurricane; circle, the horseman on another machine.

New Zealand fighters admiring the badge painted on "Peggy." A tree rendering of the motto is "Through dangers to triumphs." This squadron was raised and equipped in Auckland, N.Z.

PERSONAL EMBLEMS OF EMPIRE AIRMEN
Pilots gave free rein to their fancy in choosing emblems, and much skill was shown by the airmen who painted these native symbols. In the left-hand centre photograph we see the artist at work. Some keep up a running tally of their raids in another of our examples.


Here are two Burmese Squadron emblems: on the left the airman artist adds a finishing touch to the national flag, with pheasant. In circle, the dragon on another Burmese fighter plane.

Left, bottom: Malayan crew on a Wellington bomber of the F.M.S. Squadron. Left, above, Donald Duck on a Wellington of the 218 (Gold Coast) Squadron; number of raids is indicated by "bomber." Bottom, right, an aircraft of the first all-Canadian Bomber Squadron. (Marnie Cromar was the first R.C.A.F. pilot to be killed in action.)
Chapter 170

EMPIRE'S AID TO BRITAIN APPROACHES ITS FULL FLOOD

After Fifteen Months of War: First Half of 1941—Canadian Activities in All Three Services—Heavy Financial Sacrifices—Field-Marshal Smuts Was the Backbone of South African Effort—Springboks in Abyssinia and Somalia—Our East African Colonies—Anzacs in Libya, Greece and Crete—Operations in Syria—All-out War Effort of New Zealand

Among nations organized not for the arts of war but for peace, it was to be expected that the first year of hostilities would be one of preparation rather than of achievement. It was so throughout the British Dominions and Colonies, which necessarily had an even less active expectation of war than the people of the Mother Country. But once the conflict was joined, the Dominions and Colonies of the Crown stood with one another in developing their man power and production, with a view to the total effort which all their leaders knew must be made if Nazism was to be crushed.

If this record seems to overemphasize what has been done by the Dominions, it is because the small units which make up the Crown Colonies must be judged as an aggregate and not by the record of their individual contributions. After fifteen months of war the monetary aid given by the Crown Colonies to the United Kingdom alone amounted to £18,296,000.

As one of the Empire leaders, Mr. Mackenzie King, said in a speech in New York in June, 1941:

"As soon as the cloud on the horizon, no larger than Hitler's hand, resolved itself into the storm of conflict, Canadians determined that they would not wait till the enemy was at their gates... We were to meet him as soon as the air and land."}

These brave words came from Canada's Prime Minister. Already 150,000 Canadians were serving overseas, and half a million men had volunteered for military service, a small proportion of Canada's man power. More than ninety thousand of the men were in the Canadian Air Force. And when Canada's sons led the way, Canada's daughters followed eagerly, showing that the pioneering tradition of Dominion womanfolk, English and French, was as potent as ever. In June 1941, Mr. Borden, Canadian Minister of Defence, announced a Women's Auxiliary unit for the Army, to be enrolled on the same basis as soldiers, though on a slightly lower scale of pay. The women were to enlist for the period of the war and a year after. At the same time a call was made for 2,000 women recruits for the Royal Canadian Air Force.

The fall of France profoundly shocked the French Canadians and made them even more anxious to cooperate to the full in the effort to rid the world of Nazism. When high mass was celebrated on February 9 in no fewer than 1,500 churches in Catholic Quebec with special prayers for an Allied victory, the whole-hearted character of Canada's war effort was plain. Looking back on this great effort, Mr. Churchill, speaking at the Mansion House to the Prime Minister of Canada in the autumn of 1941, said:

"You, Sir, have seen your gallant corps and other troops who are here. We have felt very much for them that they have not yet had a chance to come to close quarters with the enemy. It is not their fault. It is not ours. But there they stand and there they have stood through the whole of the critical period of the last fifteen months, at the very point where they will be the first to be buried into the counter-stroke against the invaders of Britain."

Other Canadian contingents were already in Newfoundland, the British West Indies and Hongkong. In 1941 the British Commonwealth Air Training Scheme, a Canadian conception, had put close upon four thousand planes into operation. Of the eight hundred million dollars which the scheme was estimated to cost no less than five hundred million was found by Canada herself, and in the 92 training schools all over Canada more than a million miles a day were being flown by trainees.

As for the Canadian Navy, after two years of war it had grown from the beggary fifteen ships of 1939 to the 300 ships of 1941, and a personnel of 1,800 had increased to 25,000. Yachts and other ships were converted into war vessels, and destroyers and submarine chasers were bought from the United States and from Britain, apart from craft built in Canadian shipyards. In particular, corvettes for convoy work, which could be turned out quickly by mass production methods, were put on

POSTER WHICH SYMBOLIZED THE EMPIRE'S UNITED EFFORT

Outside a Recruiting Centre at Accra, West Africa, five Gold Coast tribesmen look at the striking poster designed by W. Little: one points to the African soldier in the picture. This poster was one of a number which, displayed in British towns and villages, brought home vividly the part of the Empire's cooperation in the war.
the ocean. Newfoundland speedily enrolled 1,200 volunteers for service with the Royal Artillery in Britain and within a year had sent 5,400 men overseas and 2,000 more were ready to sail. The best of them were hardy seamen, ready to man the minesweepers and other small craft of the Democratic Alliance.

In the case of the West Indies and British Guiana, the principal contribution to the war was in connexion with the naval and air bases leased to the United States, but batches of Barbados seamen joined the British merchant service. The people of the Bahamas generously made a home for a number of refugee children from Britain, while

AUSTRALIA SPEAKS TO CANADA

On his way back from Britain the Australian Premier, Mr. Menzies, visited Ottawa and made a fighting speech to the Canadian House of Commons (May 7, 1941). He is seen below, facing the Members.

Photo, Pictorial Press

FIRST CANADIAN TANK

Towards the middle of the year 1941 the first Canadian-built tank came off the assembly line and is seen above being admired by some of the workers. A few months later Canadian expenditure on war account had totaled $1,000,000,000—remarkable indeed for a population of 11,000,000.

Photo, Associated Press

Jamaica did a similar service for women and children evacuated from Gibraltar. British Guiana welcomed a force of United States troops, which came to protect the bauxite deposits when the calls upon Empire man power were heavy.

Canada's vast effort was not possible without heavy financial sacrifices. The Canadian federal budget, presented in February, 1941, provided for a war expenditure (including the Empire War Training Plant) of 1,450 million dollars, the total budget being 1,920 million dollars. Adding provincial and municipal taxation, Canadians were thus handing over to the Government between 40 and 50 per cent of their national income.

Following the meeting of President Roosevelt and Mr. Mackenzie King at Ogdensburg on August 17, 1940 (see illus. page 1429), the production facilities of Canada and the United States were pooled, under the direction of a permanent joint defence board. On March 19, 1941, this was supplemented by an agreement between the two States for the joint working of the St. Lawrence River, a measure which had been
Under the wise and energetic leadership of General Smuts the people of the Union bent themselves to the task of raising an army and providing its arms and equipment. A large mechanized column known as the Steel Commando toured the country for recruits; some of its torries are seen above near Cape Town. Left, the mine boom protecting the harbour at Cape Town.

WAR MEASURES AT CAPE TOWN

A material prosperity unique among the warring nations, thanks to her gold production. Among other primary products South African farmers gave their dairy produce, sugar and wool, all of which was disposed of direct to the British Government. South African war production in the State small arms ammunition works and other factories was under the able control of Dr. H. J. van der Bijl, Director-General of War Supplies and head of Dordrecht, the famous Iron and Steel Corporation of South Africa.

Throughout the period General Smuts (later created Field-Marshal by King George) was an inspiration to his countrymen, the more because his heavy task was impeded by his old comrade in war and colleague in politics, General Hertzog. After the break in September 1939 on the question whether the Union should declare war upon Germany, Hertzog and his associates were relatively silent, leaving the Nationalists of Dr. Malan to attack General Smuts. The parliamentary majority supporting General Smuts in 1941 averaged about seventeen votes, including those representing the South African Labour Party.

At the end of 1940 the South African field force was in service on the borders of Abyssinia and Italian Somaliland. On January 10, 1941, the Transvaal Scottish, Transvaal Irish and Natal Mounted Rifles, with armoured units, left the forest-covered plateau of Marsabit and entered the Chalbi Desert. The Italian defeat at El Yibo followed and the East African campaign began in earnest. The first big battle was fought around the crater of Gorei, which the Italians had improvised as a fortress. On Sunday, February 15, the South African Irish attacked Dobbs Hill, while the Scottish division advanced upon Kirby Ridge, leaving the Field Force battalions to deal with a 3,000-foot height to the south of Mago, the Blackshirt stronghold in the south-eastern corner of Abyssinia.

Meanwhile, battalions of Dukas, the Transvaal Scottish and the Natal Commandos were undertaking an amazing detour into the Somaliland desert, which was to yield such abundant military success in association with a similar drive by British troops from the Liboi region. The objective was Afmadda, an airport and administrative centre of importance. The Italian defenders fled on February 11, after three days' fighting. Afmadda was originally in British Jubbaland and had been ceded to Italy in 1924. Thus it returned to British possession. Three days after the Afmadda victory the Springboks entered Kismayo, the third largest town in Italian Somaliland and a centre whence direct sea communication with Mombasa was possible. British warships took part in the attack, and the roar of naval guns was to be heard mingling with that of the South African field artillery as the South Africans pushed their way from the desert into the narrow and dusty streets of Kismayo.

By February 14 all Italian territory west of the Juba River had been taken, leaving open the way to Mogadishu, the capital of Italian Somaliland. This also fell on February 26, and Italian
morale was broken. The Springboks entered Diredawa, the important railway centre on the Addis Ababa–Jibuti line, on March 29, and the Abyssinian capital fell on April 5. Thus Mussolini's grandiose Italian Empire lay in ruin. The Duke of Aosta, the Italian commander-in-chief, made his last stand in the mountain stronghold of Amba Alagi, on the Eritrean frontier, 11,000 feet above sea level. The end came on May 18, when Aosta asked for an armistice and thus acknowledged the defeat of his army of about a quarter of a million men. (A general account of the campaign is given in Chapter 164.)

After Italy entered the war all the African Crown Colonies were directly affected. To meet the emergency all military expenditure in East Africa was met from funds provided by the War Office, thus including responsibility for military roads. The East African governments contributed their peacetime military expenditure, plus twenty-five per cent. In general, the principle governing Crown Colony expenditure on war account was that each Colony was responsible for the cost of its own defence, unless strategic grounds called for an Imperial garrison, as was the case in East Africa. In Kenya the whole man power was mobilized within a couple of months of Italy declaring war.

Very welcome, too, were gestures of loyalty from the native chiefs. Thus the Paramount Chief of Turkana offered all his young men and they co-operated with British troops in patrolling the north-west frontier of Kenya. In the Gold Coast the Chief of the Bulu tribe launched a rebellion. A native unit known as the Rhodesian African Rifles was also raised. The Gold Coast and Nigeria transferred their entire cocoa crop to the British Government, while Uganda helped the democratic cause with cotton, coffee, sisal and tin, as did the ex-German possession of Tanganyika. Britain bought the whole exportable surplus of Kenya and Nyasaland tea.

While the big effort of the South African Springboks in the first half of 1941 was taking place in Abyssinia and Somaliland, the Azemese were playing a major part in Libya, Greece, and Crete. In Libya the Australians added to their battle honours by winning the right to lead the entry into Tobruk on January 22 (see Illus. p. 1583). The advance was remarkable, for it was only seventeen days since the Empire forces had taken Bardia (on January 5) and Tobruk had been fortified by the Italo-German forces with all the defensive equipment known to modern warfare. Derma was the next objective, and it was taken on January 30, the final triumph being the fall of Bengazi on February 6, after a lightning advance by the Australians along the coast road. Mr. Fairbairn, Acting Prime Minister of Australia, ordered a display of Allied flags throughout the Commonwealth in celebration, and described the Libyan fighting of January and February as "a great event in Australian history."

Meanwhile, British armoured forces had been engaged upon the bold drive across the desert which completed Graziani's defeat and assured the capture of 130,000 prisoners, 1,200 guns and over 250 tanks. The pity was that it was not possible to exploit such a victory to the utmost by an invasion of Tripoli. But Greece was being invaded by the Germans and the most pressing call upon Empire man power was from elsewhere. Indeed, it was not possible to hold what had been taken in Cyrenaica when the Australian and New Zealand troops had gone to the defence of hard-pressed Greece. Rommel's Panzer divisions were able to recover a goodly stretch of the desert and coastline won by Wavell's men. The magnificent defence of Tobruk, in which the Australians played so great a part, made possible the nine months' stand of the port under close investment between April and December which was so glorious an episode in the Libyan campaign of 1941. (See Chapter 149.)

Speaking of the Greek campaign on April 23, Mr. Menzies explained that,
whatever the difficulties, both the Australian and New Zealand Governments felt it was unthinkable that Greece, which had fought so valiantly against the Italians, and which was prepared to withstand the onset of Germany through Bulgaria, should be left unassisted. The fighting in Greece began on April 10, and by the end of the month an Australian contingent under General Blamey was fighting in the Olympus and Parnassus regions in company with Freyberg's New Zealanders and beside the Greek, Serbian and British defenders.

The odds, however, were too great, and the evacuation of the Dominion troops was decided upon. It was completed by May 2, when General Blamey reported to his Government that 40,000 troops had been taken off the Greek peninsula. The losses had been considerable. The Imperial troops were taken to Crete, which was clearly destined soon to feel the fury of the Axis assault. Major-General Freyberg, V.C., was appointed to the command of the British and Imperial forces there. On May 19 the attack began, first with an extensive bombing of key points on the island. The course of the strange and grim battle is outlined in Chapter 150, and the struggle lasted until June 1.

WHEN UNITED STATES WARSHIPS VISITED AUSTRALASIA

In March 1942 a squadron of the U.S. Navy under Rear-Admiral Newton paid a visit to New Zealand and Australia. Below, the cruiser "Chicago" (flagship) is seen leaving Sydney Harbor, followed by the "Portland." Right, Australia's Acting Premier, Mr. Fadden, with the heads of the three Services: (left) Admiral Sir Ragan Cobbin; Lieut.-Gen. V. A. H. Strode (standing); and Air Chief Marshal Sir Charles Burnett. Top, Australian nurses after evacuation from Greece.

PHOTO: British Official. COPYRIGHT: Picture Post.
from Lisbon, and had conferences with Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Cordell Hull, passing on to Ottawa, where, on May 7, he addressed the Canadian House of Commons. One of his first acts on returning to Australia was to announce Government control of all shipping and transport, and important legislation calculated to increase war production. On June 24 Australia, with other Dominions, endorsed the policy of aid to Soviet Russia, which had been invaded by the Nazi armies and was now an integral part of the armed coalition bent upon the destruction of Hitlerism.

In Australia, too, a Women's Auxiliary for the Royal Australian Air Force was established on lines akin to those of the British W.A.A.F. At first the women's duties were service as wireless and teleprinter operators, but in June 1941 the scope was extended to include fabric workers, tailors, sick quarter attendants and aircraft hands.

During the early part of 1941 the relations between Japan and Australia and New Zealand worsened, but there was a welcome portent in the visit of an American naval squadron to Australian waters in March. When the American ships under Rear-Admiral Newton left Auckland the flagship "Brooklyn" was flying the New Zealand ensign, and a Maori motto was displayed on the bridge backstems. "For ever, for ever, we will fight on." In Sydney the squadron received a civic welcome on March 20, and the State schools had a holiday in order that Young Australia might participate in what was soon to prove a full Anglo-
MEN OF MAURITIUS FOR DEFENCE OF EGYPT

Mauritius contributed over £500,000 for the war chest and provided ten fighter aircraft. Her territorial force was greatly expanded, and powers were taken to apply compulsory military service. Here the 1st Mauritius contingent, R.A.O.C., is being inspected on arrival in Egypt by Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry Maitland Wilson.

Photo, British Official’s Crown Copyright

BERMUDAN COASTAL PATROL

The tiny Colony of Bermuda (its area is just over 19 square miles) increased in importance when air and naval bases were leased to the United States in 1940. The patrol boat shown is manned by the Bermuda Volunteer Rifle Corps.

Photo, P.N.A.

Saxon alliance. Mr. Fraser, the New Zealand Premier, reached London by air on June 20. The main point in his speeches was New Zealand’s hope for full collaboration between the British Commonwealth and the United States with a view to the distribution of his country’s primary products, at that time greatly hampered by lack of shipping facilities.

Despite these and other difficulties due to the geographical situation of the island, New Zealand gave proof of her determination to leave nothing undone in the interests of New Zealand for the war. On May 31 the House of Representatives passed an Emergency Regulations Bill which empowered the Government to require all persons in the two islands to place themselves, their services and property at the disposal of the State for the war. Here was a hundred per cent effort. In 1941 the King approved the naval forces of the Dominion receiving the title Royal New Zealand Navy, and the ships were henceforth designated “His Majesty’s New Zealand Ships.” They had previously been known as the New Zealand Squadron of the Royal Navy. The cruisers “Achilles” and “Leander” did noteworthy work in many seas, as did the armed minelayers and other small craft, whose number was being added to month by month in New Zealand.

The New Zealand Women’s Auxiliary Air Force was formed early in 1941, and within half a year the trained personnel was more than 2,000. About the same time 15,000 were enrolled in the Women’s War Service Auxiliary, and New Zealand nurses showed outstanding coolness and courage during the evacuation from Greece.

On the plane of finance the taxation of 1,000,000 New Zealanders increased from £237,765,000 in 1938-1939 to £68,083,000 in 1941. Small in respect of population, but great in heart, New Zealand did all that could have been expected in the fight for democracy against Axis aggression.

The contributions of Hong Kong, Malaya, Burma and other Eastern possessions of the Crown can only properly be estimated in terms of the campaign fought after the coming of Japan into the conflict, but noteworthy efforts were made in the earlier months. For example, Malaya subscribed £3,750,000 for imperial defence in the first year and contingents of Cingalese troops left for service overseas in January 1941, while the coal reef colony, the Seychelles, raised a defence force and sent men overseas to join the R.A.F. Actually, the first Crown Colony to get troops into the fighting line was Cyprus, which sent two transport companies for service in France. Later, Cypriots did yeoman service in Greece in the hard role of mileteers.

JAMAICA VOLUNTEER TRAINING CORPS ON PARADE

Here the Kingston Division of the Training Corps is parading for an inspection. In many respects it resembled our Home Guard. War brought grave economic difficulties to the Colony, which normally exported 20,000,000 stems of bananas and 100,000 tons of sugar each year. Owing to shipping troubles this source of revenue and employment almost disappeared.

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Chapter 171

A YEAR OF STRESS IN INDIA: THE WAR EFFORT DURING 1941

Civil Disobedience Campaign—Attitude of Congress Party—Moslem League's Demand for Sovereignty—Dominion Status 'As Soon As Practicable'.—The National Defence Council—India's War Effort Grows—Industrial Mobilization—Man-power Survey—Growth of the Defence Forces—Mr. Churchill's Message to India

At the end of 1941 India's war effort was hampered, but by no means thwarted, by the unwillingness of her political leaders to support the Empire's war effort. Millions of Indians played their part in that effort—in the fighting line on many a distant front, on the seas and in the air, and in the factories which came into production in many parts of the country. Treasure, too, was poured out with a lavish hand. But still the great political parties—Congress, the Moslem League, and the Hindu Mahasabha—refused to throw their full weight into the balance. To them the struggle still seemed an Imperialist compulsion; it was a British concern, not theirs. Yet such was the irony of the situation that Mr. Nehru and most of the other spokesmen of Indian democracy continued to fulminate as passionately and forthrightly as any against totalitarian tyranny.

When the year opened a campaign of mass civil disobedience—"satyagraha"—was in full swing. Launched in the previous October, it had been made necessary, said Mr. Bhave, one of Mr. Gandhi's oldest pupils, in inaugurating it, because (1) the Congress demand for a National Government had been rejected; (2) because freedom of speech against the war effort had been denied; and (3) because the Government refused to admit that India was a belligerent not of her own free will. Mr. Gandhi did not offer satyagraha himself because he did not wish to embarrass the Government, but he sanctioned the preparation of lists of Congressmen who were prepared to offer themselves, and these men invited arrest by various acts of disobedience against the defence regulations or by speaking against the war effort.

One of the first to be arrested was Mr. Nehru, who on November 5, 1940, was sentenced to one year and four months rigorous imprisonment on charges of having made speeches calculated to hinder the prosecution of the war, to encourage voluntary contributions and to prepare the way for satyagraha. Early in the new year he was followed into gaol by Dr. Azad, President of Congress; and with their leaders went a large number of prominent Congress personalitites. Week by week, month by month, the agitation grew, and on July 1, stated Mr. Amery, Secretary for India, 12,129 persons, including 29 ex-ministers and 290 members of provincial legislatures, were serving sentences in connexion with the civil disobedience campaign.

Throughout the movement was inspired, and largely directed, by Mr. Gandhi from his retreat at Wardha; but the Mahatma persisted in his assertion that, though Congress detested British imperialism, it had no quarrel with and bore no ill will to the British who were its instruments, whether they happened to be officials or non-officials. Moreover, with the resolve to struggle for "puraswaq" (complete independence) through non-violent action he coupled the necessity for communal harmony and for the development of "sharsa" and "khadi" (village handcrafts and spinning) as essential to the resuscitation of the Indian peasantry. To Mr. Gandhi, civil disobedience was not designed to have any appreciably adverse effect upon the war effort, rather, "it was a moral protest against the conduct of the war in the name of a free people, a token of the yearning of a political organization to achieve the freedom of 350,000,000 through purely non-violent effort."

The Indian situation was discussed in the House of Commons on April 22, when Mr. Amery moved a resolution extending for another twelve months a proclamation empowering a Governor of a province in which parliamentary government could not be carried on in accordance with the Government of India Act of 1935, to assume all or any part of the powers vested by that Act in the provincial body. The proclamation affected seven provinces out of the eleven of British India—the seven whose Congress ministries had resigned in October 1939 in accordance with the behest of the Congress "high command." In the four provinces of Bengal, Assam, Sind and the Punjab, with a population of something like a hundred millions—one-third of the whole population of British India—provincial self-government had continued to work uninterruptedly.

Mr. Amery criticized in strong terms the complete disregard displayed by Congress for the responsibilities of self-government, and he referred to the growing strength of the demand voiced by Mr. Jinnah, the leader of the Moslem

LEADERS OF CONGRESS PARTY AND MOSLEM LEAGUE

Left, Ali Mohammed Jinnah, President of the Moslem League. Centre, Maulana Abul-Kaisar Azad, President of the All-India Congress. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, right, was the spokesman of the Congress Working Committee and wielded much influence.

Photos: Reginald: Phelan News

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THE INDIAN DEFENCE COUNCIL, WHICH HELD ITS FIRST SESSION AT SIMLA, OCTOBER 6, 1941

The Defence Council was instituted on July 22, 1941, in order to associate Indian non-official opinion as fully as possible with the prosecution of the war. The Viceregal opened the first meeting. Bottom row: left to right, Nahab of Bhopal; Maharaja of Gwalior; Maharaja of Bikaner (Pro-Chancellor); Maharaja Jam Sahib of Sawanagar (Chancellor); Lord Linlithgow (Viceroy); Khan Bahadur Allah Baksh; Sir Mohd. Usman; Maharaja of Dharbhanga; Begum Shah Nawa; Middle row: Nayab of Gujarat; Maharaja of Cochin; Shah; Nawab of Rampur; Maharaja of Patiala; Maharaja of Jodhpur; Sir Cowasjee Jehangir; Raja Bahadur of Khallilpur; Malik Khuda Bakh Khan; Kruna Shri Mustra Chutiyar; R.M. Deshmukh; Top row: R.A. Gopalaswami (Secretary); G.B. Morton; Jairamdas M. Malvani; Sir Jwala Prasad Sinh Rathore; Sir Henry Gidley; Sir Gilbert Lathbury; L.t.-Col. B.M. Mason; Pte. Mokherjee; Dc. B. R. Ambbedkar; Captain Sardar Naushad Singh Muni; Prof. E. Ahmed Shah; Rao Bahadur M.C. Rajan.

Photo, Express & General

League, for the complete severance from the rest of India of the zones in the north-west and north-east in which Moslems constituted a majority and their establishment as completely independent states, controlling their own defence, foreign affairs and finance; It had to be recognized that this demand for "Pakistan" made the task which lay before Indian statesmanship much more difficult. Britain could only transfer the responsibility of Indian government to some other authority if she could be assured that it would not immediately break down or break up. A measure of agreement amongst Indians themselves was the first essential, and it was upon Indian statesmen in the main and upon Britain that the timetable of future constitutional progress depended. No one could regard the present deadlock with satisfaction, least of all patriotic Indians; but Mr. Amery hastened to pay tribute to India's part in the war effort, feeling in her achievements in war evidence of her growing capacity to make her own defence.

Three months later, on August 1, 1941, the House of Commons discussed the Indian situation again. Mr. Amery reaffirmed as a matter of general acceptance the resolve that India should attain Dominion status—or, rather, free and equal partnership in the British Commonwealth—so soon as practicable. But he was unable to report much progress in the constitutional sphere, since the great political parties persisted in their refusal to join in the Empire's war effort or in the framing of a new constitution by common consent. But he asserted that there was evidence of growing annoyance in India with purely partisan manoeuvres; and hence Lord

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF, INDIA, AND HIS SUCCESSOR

Left, General Sir Claude Auchinleck, who was succeeded in the India Command on July 1, 1941, by General Sir Archibald Wavell (right). General Auchinleck went to the Middle East as G.O.C.-in-C.; this photograph was taken on the occasion of a consultation in the autumn of 1941.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright

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SIDELIGHTS ON INDIA'S WAR INDUSTRIES

Below, left, a scene in a dockyard where trawlers and other small naval craft are built. Above, right, a stage in the assembling of an armoured car. At top, left, is the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur, an enormous concern with a huge output.

Photos, British Official. Crown Copyright; Indian Film Unit

tracted by the satyagraha movement, the communalfeuds, and the rivalriesthatis parties and partisans, the Indian war effort continued, and continued to grow. On the whole, it was quite a pleasant picture that Sir Jeremy Raisman, the Finance Member of the Executive Council, painted in his budget statement presented to the Legislative Assembly at Delhi on February 28. The strengthening of all arms of the defence services, said Sir Jeremy, was going forward with speed and energy. Over 500,000 men were under arms, and recruits were pouring in. Provision was being made for raising new armoured and field artillery regiments, infantry battalions, engineer units, motor-transport sections, and all the highly trained specialized auxiliaries needed in modern warfare. Improvements in supply were making it possible to transform the cavalry into armoured and light armoured regiments. Defences were being modernized, and adequate training establishments set up.

The growth of the Royal Indian Navy had continued unchecked, went on the Finance Member. Shipbuilding had been expanded, and the recruitment and training of officers and men for the new ships had been intensified. New naval schools were being built, and the old constructional establishments enlarged.

With modern aircraft and equipment in mind from American sources, it was possible to undertake the modernization of the Indian Air Force, while aeroplane manufacturing had now reached such a stage that aeroplanes manufactured in India would make their appearance later in the year. Then, in the matter of supplies, Sir Jeremy Raisman said that the number of workers in ordnance and clothing factories had increased to 45,000, and steps were being taken to supplement their output by the use of railway and civilian workshops for munitions-making. Production of army boots, saddlery and leather equipment was thirty times the pre-war average, and many war materials formerly imported were now being produced in India. Moreover, the supply department of the Indian Government was providing the British and Allied Governments with large quantities of war stores and material.

Further immense strides were reported by Muhammad Zafrulla Khan, Supply Member of the Government of India, in a survey of the country's industrial mobilization which he broadcast on Industrial Mobilization. New facts disclosed were that the ordnance factories were now assisted by 230 trade workshops and 23 railway workshops, which had undertaken the production of 700 items of munitions involving over twenty million separate articles. The annual production of guns was five times greater than in peacetime, the output of shells was 24 times that of the pre-war output, and the supply of rifles and automatic weapons had also increased enormously. Not only were the Indian Army's needs being met, but overseas orders had been fulfilled for 800,000 filled shells and 150,000,000 rounds of small-arms ammunition.

Armoured fighting vehicles were being turned out in large quantities. Armour plate was being made by the Indian steel industry. Fifty-four firms had been licensed by the Machine Tool Controller, and many tools were now being made in India. About 200,000 tons of structural steel had been produced by the general engineering industry, thousands of miles of cable and telephone wire were being laid, railway lines and rolling stock were being produced in large quantities, shipyards were building small craft such as mine-
sweepers and lifeboats, and the first aeroplane to be assembled in India had just been turned out. The cotton and woollen industries were working at high pressure; 30,000 tailors employed in nine factories were producing 6,000,000 garments monthly. The output of 3,000,000 pairs of Army boots was being kept the leather industry fully employed. Finally, Indian forests were providing that year 500,000 tons of timber for military purposes.

Early in March General Sir Claude Auchinleck, the C-in-C, proposed in the Viceroy's Council of State that a man-power survey should be instituted throughout India—one which should exclude no class or area. There was, he declared, "no deep-laid or malicious plot to emasculate the people of the south or south-west," and if the composition of the Indian army had been drawn for a long time past largely from the north, this was due to the fact that the south had been exempt for so long from the threat of invasion that the military temper of its people had deteriorated somewhat.

The next day the C-in-C, announced the revival of the Madras Regiment, disbanded in 1926, and on June 12 five new regiments were created out of what had been territorial units hitherto, viz. the Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Mahratta, Sikh and Mahara regiments. The formation of the last two met the demand of the Scheduled Castes that they should be permitted to enlist in the Army, since the regiments would recruit from certain classes of Sikhs and Mahrattas not normally drawn upon for military service.

A survey of India's defence forces during the first two years of the war was published in Simla on Sept. 3; it made encouraging reading. The Indian Army had grown from 237,000 on Sept. 3, 1939—the day of the outbreak of war—to 700,000; in the previous twelve months alone the increase had been 460,000. At the same time, in accordance with a recommendation of the Chatfield Committee it had been converted from animal to mechanical transport—the number of vehicles having risen from 6,000 to 40,000. By the spring of 1942 about 6,000 trained lorry drivers would be turned out monthly, as compared with 600 a year in 1939; and the ordnance-artificers' school was now producing 6,000 trained men a year, and would soon produce 12,000. The rate of recruitment for all arms was approaching 50,000 a month.

The Indian States were generous with men, materials and money. During the year to April 1941 their contributions included four cavalry regiments, 23 infantry battalions, four companies and one section of sappers and miners, one camel corps unit, three animal transport and eleven general purposes transport companies, ten labour companies, three ambulances units, signaler units, etc. Many impressive contributions were made, too, to the Viceroy's War Purposes Fund, and some of the Princesses represented ships and planes for the Indian Navy and Air Force.

The National Defence Council met for the first time at Simla on Oct. 6. The first session was opened by the Viceroy, who declared that every day revealed more clearly the place which India had won for herself in the world. Then General Sir Archibald Wavell, whose appointment as successor to General Auchinleck as Commander-in-Chief had been announced on July 1, read a message from Mr. Churchill.

In the first year of the war, said the Prime Minister, it had been impossible to find the weapons and equipment necessary for the Indian Army. In the second year something was done. But in the third year large supplies of the deadliest apparatus of modern war would come in steady flow to its expanding formations. Already the sons of India had shown themselves worthy of the highest respect and honour; wherever they had fought—in Cyrenaica, the Sudan, Eritrea, Abyssinia, Syria and Persia—the Indian divisions had played an important and distinguished part. During 1942 the armies of India with their British comrades would be fighting on a long front from the Caspian Sea to the Nile. By so doing they would be bearing the eastward progress of the war, and thus keeping the horrors of Nazi invasion a thousand miles away from the plains of Hindustan.

But here the Prime Minister had not reckoned with Japan. Before 1941 was out, Indian armies were moving not westwards but eastwards to meet the hordes of the oriental foe; and 1942 had hardly dawned when India found herself in the very front line of the war.
AMERICA UPHOLDS THE STANDARD OF DEMOCRACY

In his first speech after re-election President Roosevelt eulogized in no uncertain terms the ideals and duties of a democratic nation. When he broadcast on March 15, 1941, the Lease-Lend Bill had just been made law. Mr. Churchill reaffirmed on April 27 the necessity for the two great Democracies to combine against aggression.

President Roosevelt in his Inauguration Speech as President for the Third Time, January 20, 1941:

L

ders of nations are determined not by the count of years
but by the lifestyle of the human spirit. The life of a
man is three score years and ten, a little more, a little
less. The life of a nation is the fullness of the measure of
its will to live.

There are men who doubt this. There are men who believe that Democracy as a force of government and as a frame of life is not limited or measured by a kind of mystical and artificial fate, that for some unexplained reason tyranny and slavery have become the natural stage of human history, and that freedom is an elusive ideal.

But Americans know that this is not true... . De-
mocracy is not dying. We know it, because we have seen it
revive and grow. We know it cannot die, because it is built
on the unscarred apparatus of individual men and women
who joined together in a common enterprise - an enterprise
that dates from the infancy of the nation and earnestly
championed by the expansion of the rights of the minority
against the oppression of the majority. We know it, because
Democracy alone has constructed an instrumentality, capable of
infinitesimal progress in the improvement of human life.

We know it, because if we look below the surface we see it
still spreading to every continent, for it is the true human
spirit, the most advanced, and, in the end, the most unbreakable
of all forms of human society.

The destiny of America was proclaimed in words of
prophecy spoken by our first President in his first inaugural
in 1789, words almost literal, it would seem, to this year of
1941: "The preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and
the destiny which a free people hold dear. For us is the
obligation to risk all, to do our utmost, to establish the
preservation of the spirit and faith of a nation does and will give the highest justifica-
tion for every sacrifice that we may make in the cause of
national defense. It is the purpose of the nation, world
once before encountered our strong purpose is to protect and to perpetuate
the integrity of democracy.

President Roosevelt in a Broadcast Speech, March 15, 1941:

This nation is calling for a sacrifice of some privileges, not
for the sacrifice of fundamental rights. And much of us
do that willingly. That kind of sacrifice is for the common
national protection and welfare. For our defense against the
most ruthless brutality in all history, for the ultimate victory of
our cause of freedom, which has been so violently and
so triumphantly established. The preservation of the spirit
and faith of a nation does and will give the highest justifica-
tion for every sacrifice that we may make in the cause of
national defense. It is the purpose of the nation, world
once before encountered our strong purpose is to protect and to perpetuate
the integrity of democracy.

The light of Democracy must be kept burning. In the
acceptance of this light of war as we must pool our own
strength. The dedication of one individual may seem
small, but there are 120,000,000 individuals over here, and there
are many more millions in Britain and elsewhere bravely
shining the great flame of Democracy from the black-out of barbarism...

Our democracy is going to be what our people have pro-
claimed it to be, the Arsenal of Democracy. Our country is
going to play its full part, and when the dictatorships
dissolve - and pray God that will be sooner than any
of us now dare to hope - then our country must continue
to play its great part in the period of world reconstruction for
the benefit of humanity.

We believe that the rallying cry of the dictator, their
boasting about the master race, will prove to be all stuff and
nonsense. There has never been, is not now, and never
will be, any race of people fit to serve as masters over their
people. The world has no use for any nation which,
because of its size or because of its military might, asserts
the right to goose-step to world power over the bodies of
other nations and other races.

We believe that any nationalism, no matter how small,
has the inherent right to its own nationhood. We believe
that the men and women of each nation, of no matter what
size, can, through the processes of peace, serve themselves
and serve the world.

Mr. Churchill in a Broadcast Review of the War, April 27, 1941:

The President and Congress of the United States, having
resolutely fortified themselves by talking with their children,
have solemnly and publicly brought their aid to Britain in this
war, because they deem our cause just and because they know
their own interest is secure, and they would be endangered if we
were destroyed. They are exerting themselves, heavily, they
have passed great legislation, they have turned a large part
of their great industrial capacity to the making of munitions of
war, they have given us more and less as valuable weapons
of their own.

No prudent and far-sighted man can doubt that the eventual
and total defeat of Hitler and Mussolini is certain in view of
the respective declared purposes of the British and American
Democracies. There are less than 70,000,000 not
malignant Huns, some of whom are durable and some killable, and most
of whom are now engaged in holding down Austria, Czechos,
Polish and many other ancient nations. The people of the
British Empire and the United States number nearly
200,000,000 in their homelands and in the British Dominions
alone.

They possess the unassailable command of the ocean,
and will soon obtain complete superiority in the air. They
have more wealth, more technical resources, and they make
more steel than the whole of the rest of the world put together.
They are determined that the cause of freedom shall not be
trampled upon nor the tide of world progress be turned
back by the criminal dictator.

While, therefore, we naturally view with sorrow
and anxiety much that is happening in Europe and in Africa,
and may happen in Asia, we must not lose our sense of proportion,
and thus become discouraged and alarmed. When we
face with a steady eye the difficulties which lie before us
we may derive new confidence by remembering that we have
already overthrown. Nothing that is happening now is com-
parable in gravity with the dangers through which we passed
last year. Nothing which can happen in the East is com-
parable with what is happening in the West.

Last time I spoke to you I quoted the lines of Longfellow
which President Roosevelt had written out for me in his own
hand. I have some other lines which are well known, and
which seem appropriate to our fortunes today, and I believe
they will be no judgment on the English language is spoken
and the flag of freedom flies.

For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
See how the lily swells, and then breaks,
Fare back, through crooks and tires making,
Come sullen, flooding in, the main.
And stop by eastern windows only,
When day and night come, come in the light.
In front, the sun shines slow, how slowly.
But westward, look, the land is bright.
Chapter 172

WAR DRAWS NEARER THE UNITED STATES:
FIRST HALF OF 1941

Roosevelt Enters Upon Third Term—His Declarations of Policy—The
Lease-Lend Bill Becomes Law—Giving Britain ‘The Tools’—U.S. Navy
to Patrol the Seven Seas—The “Robin Moor” Affair—If Hitler Were
Victorious: Roosevelt’s Sombre Picture—Battle of the Atlantic—Enormous
Production Under Way

Elected in the previous November President of the United States of
America for a third term—the first to be accorded this signal honour
in the history of the great republic—Mr. Roosevelt on January 6, 1941,
reported according to the time-honoured custom on the state of the Union to a
crowded Congress. His speech had been
more eagerly awaited than any since
President Wilson’s declaration of war
on Germany in 1917; the President
himself in his opening words said that he
spoke at a moment unprecedented in
the history of the Union—“unprece-
dented, because at no previous time
has American security been as seriously
threatened from without as it is today.

In a review of American history since
the early days the President pointed out
that the United States had always
“maintained opposition to any attempt
to lock us in behind an ancient Chinese
wall while the procession of civilization
went past;” but for ninety-nine years,
from 1815 to 1914, not a single war in
Europe constituted a real threat against
the Union or any other American
nation. Even when the World War
broke out in 1914 it seemed at first
to contain only a small threat of danger
to the American future. But, as time
went on, the American people began
to visualize what the downfall of the
democratic nations might mean to
American democracy. Then, after a
reference to the imperfections of the
Treaty of Versailles—“far less unjust
than the kind of pacification which
began even before Munich, and which is
being carried out under the ‘New
Order’ of tyranny that seeks to spread
every continent today”—the Pres-
ident declared that the democratic way
of life was at that moment being directly
assailed in every part of the world.
During the sixteen months this assault
had blocked out the whole pattern of
life in an appalling number of inde-
pendent nations, great and small, and
the assailants were still on the march.

Therefore, as your President, I find it
necessary to report that the future

safety of our country and our democracy
is overwhelmingly involved in events
far beyond our borders.”

Followed a warning against a
dictator’s peace, and against “that
small group of selfish men who would
clip the wings of the
Roosevelt’s
Stern
Warning
American Eagle in order
to feather their own
nests.” There was much
loose talk of immunity from direct
invasion from across the seas, and
obviously no such danger existed
as long as the British Navy retained
its power. Even if there were no
British Navy it was improbable that
any enemy would be stupid enough
to land troops in the United States
from across thousands of miles of ocean
until he had acquired strategic bases
from which to operate. Judging from
Norway’s experience, the first phase of
invasion of the American hemisphere

‘TO PROTECT AND PERPETUATE THE INTEGRITY OF DEMOCRACY’

President Roosevelt’s Inaugural Address on January 20, 1937, was notable for an eloquent
inspiring defence of the democratic ideal: “Democracy alone,” he said, “enlists the full force
of men’s enlightened will.” Here the President is seen after the address: 1. Chief Justice
C. E. Hughes who administered the oath; 2. Thomas Quarters, Aide to the President; 3. The
Vice-President, Henry A. Wallace; 4. John N. Garner, former Vice-President. [See Historic
Documents, page 1776.]

Photo. Wide World
would be the occupation of strategic points by secret agents and their dupes — and great numbers of them are already here and in Latin America.

Next, the President proceeded to state the national policy. He condensed it under three heads: an all-inclusive national defense; full support of all those resourceful peoples everywhere who were resisting aggression, thereby keeping the war away from the American hemisphere; and the recognition that the principles of morality and considerations of her own security would never permit the U.S.A. to acquiesce in a peace dictated by aggressors. During the coming Session, the President went on, he would ask Congress for greatly increased appropriations and authorizations — for funds sufficient to manufacture munitions and war supplies to be turned over to those nations which were now in actual war with the aggressors.

"Our most useful role is to act as an arsenal for them as well as for ourselves. They do not need man-power; they do need billions of dollars' worth of weapons of defense. The time is near when they will not be able to pay for them in ready cash. Wages, and will not tell them that they must surrender because of their present inability to pay. We shall send you, in ever-increasing numbers, ships, aeroplanes, tanks and guns. This is our purpose and our pledge.

The President concluded his speech with a fine avowal of the liberal philosophy.

"Every Gun, Plane and Munition for Democracies"

Top, left: The President's signature which made law the Lend-Lease Bill; at the right is Mr. Roosevelt's letter to the Speaker in which he requested an immediate appropriation of $7,000,000,000. Below, left, at an earlier stage Mr. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, gives evidence on the Bill to the Foreign Affairs Committee.

Photo: Keystone

BRITISH REPRESENTATIVES IN UNITED STATES

In January, 1941, Sir Gerald Campbell (right), then High Commissioner in Canada, was appointed British Minister to Washington. At the same time, Sir Clive Bailey (left) went to America to become Director-General of the British Purchasing Commission.

"We look forward," he said, "to a world founded upon the four essential human freedoms. The first is freedom of speech and expression—everywhere in the world. The second is freedom of every person to worship God in his own way—everywhere in the world. The third is freedom from want—which means economic understandings which will secure to every nation a healthy peacetime life for its inhabitants everywhere in the world. The fourth is freedom from fear—which means a world-wide reduction of armaments to such a
U.S. NAVY YARDS OPENED TO BRITISH WARSHIPS

As a result of the Lease-Lend Act British Naval vessels were able to need to be repaired and refitted in United States Navy Yards (marked with stars in map)—an inalienable advantage in the desperate Battle of the Atlantic. Photograph shows the destroyer H.M.S. "Barnum" in the Yard at Boston, Mass.

(News, Kayakans)

point and in such a thorough fashion that no nation will be in a position to commit an act of physical aggression against any neighbor—everywhere in the world. This was no vision of a distant millennium; it was a definite base for a kind of world attainable in our own time and generation.

A fortnight later, on January 20, Mr. Roosevelt made another firm and final declaration of his and the nation's policy, when at the hands of the Chief Justice of the United States, Mr. Charles E. Hughes, he renewed his oath to "preserve, protect and defend the Constitution." Again he reasserted his belief in democracy, declaring that in the face of a great peril never before encountered it was America's strong purpose to protect democracy and to perpetuate its integrity.

"For this," he said, "we must the spirit and faith of America. We shall not retreat. We are not content to stand still. As Americans we go forward in the service of our country by the will of God."

Over a million people gathered in Washington about the Capitol were the President's immediate audience, many millions more throughout the world, caught something of the fire of a great utterance, of the spirit of a great occasion, as the speech was broadcast in the principal tongues of the European family.

Following his message to Congress, the President on January 10 submitted to Congress a bill, the "Lease-and-Lend" Bill, "to further promote the defense of the United States."

Opening with a comprehensive definition of the term "defense articles," the measure authorized the President "to manufacture in arsenals, factories and shipyards... or otherwise procure any defense articles for the Government of any country whose defense the President deems vital to the defense of the United States... and to sell, transfer, exchange, lease, lend, or otherwise dispose of to any such Government any defense article... upon terms and conditions which the President deems satisfactory and (in certain cases) after consultation with the Service chiefs.

Another clause permitted the repair or reconditioning of any defense article—which meant, said the Congressional leaders by way of explanation, that, e.g., the British battle cruiser "Renown" could be repaired in Brooklyn Navy Yard if the President considered it in the interests of the U.S. national defense for it to be so.

The Lease-and-Lend Bill was warmly welcomed on both sides of the Atlantic; in the U.S.A., it is true, the die-hard isolationists continued their campaign of opposition, but it was noticeable that that opposition was not organized on party lines. Mr. Wendell Willkie, the Republican candidate who had put up so good a fight against Mr. Roosevelt in the electoral campaign of two months before, was as enthusiastic as the President in urging that everything should be done to aid the democracies, since otherwise the war could not be kept out of America. Indeed, so keen was Mr. Willkie that he cut short a visit to Britain in which he had won golden opinions by his affability and obvious deep concern, and recrossed the Atlantic especially to give evidence in favour of the Bill before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee.

Strong opposition was made in the Senate by the isolationist Senators—Clark, Nye, Johnson, La Follette, Burton, Wheeler, Vandenburg and Taft—but the bill was passed on March 9 by 60 votes to 31. In the House of Representatives it was also the subject of long and occasionally animated debate, but on March 11 it was finally approved by 317 to 71, and later in the same day the President's signature made it law. On the very next day the President sent to Congress a request for an immediate appropriation of $7,000,000,000 ($750,000,000) to finance orders under the Lease-Lend Act. After but a short debate the Appropriation Bill was passed with great majorities, many of those who opposed the original Lease-Lend Bill now voting with the majority; and on March 27 it became law.

On June 11 the President reported to Congress on the progress made under the Lease-Lend Act. Between March 11 and May 31 defense articles amounting in value to over $750,000,000 had been sent under the Act to the democracies; the largest item was "for watercraft, etc.," while the other items included aircraft, vehicles, clothing and medical
U.S.A. TAKES GREENLAND UNDER HER WING

On April 19, 1941, Mr. Roosevelt announced that by agreement with the Danish Minister in Washington the United States would take Greenland under U.S. protection. A base was established in this vitally important island; above are U.S. Navy patrol boats with an American tanker in a Greenland harbour.

America was making immediately available to Britain two million gross tons of cargo ships and oil tankers.

"Allied ships are being repaired by us. Allied ships are being equipped by us to protect them from mines, and are being armed by us for protection against raiders. The naval vessels of Britain are being repaired by us so that they can return quickly to their naval bases."

In January and again in July Mr. Harry Hopkins, the President's personal representative, was sent to London to inquire into and to stimulate American aid to Britain. In a broadcast on the second occasion, on July 27, Mr. Hopkins said that the President's instructions to him were: "Find out if the material we are sending to Britain is arriving. Find out if it is what Britain wants, let me know if there is anything more that Britain needs."

He revealed that already America had sent several hundred tanks to the countries of the British Empire, and a number of ocean-going ships, many of them oil tankers, had been transferred to Britain. He regretted that if he could not state exactly how many aeroplanes, tanks, guns and ammunition would arrive in Britain during the next twelve months, but he promised that supplies of every kind would reach her in ever-increasing volume in this period.

"Your Prime Minister asked us for the tools. I promise you that they are coming!"
HOW AMERICAN AIRCRAFT WERE FERRED TO BRITAIN

U.S. aircraft built for Britain were taken over in Canadian airports from the U.S. Army Air Corps by our R.A.F. Ferry Command, and flown thence to home airfields. Top, Lockheed Hudson bombers lined up at Newfoundland, Airport, ready for ferrying across the Atlantic. Centre, left, servicing a Lockheed Hudson; right, a Sergeant-Observer, R.A.F., flanked by two Captain-Pilots of the Ferry Command, plot a course in the chartroom. Bottom, Lockheed Hudson bombers on the final assembly line at Burbank, California, ready for delivery to Ferry Command.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; (top), Newfoundland Airport Picture; (left), World
TO ALL DEFENSE WORKERS

The President of the United States said:

"I APPEAL..."

...to the owners of plants
...to the managers
...to the workers
...to our Government employees
...to every man of every faith co-operating to achieve those military objectives without stint...And with the appeal I urge you to make the pledge that all of us will do our utmost to carry out the work which has been assigned.

We must have the spirit of democracy. For this is our government's sacred trust. We must have the cooperation and the support of all.

Let's get squarely behind our President's appeal.

Let's work together building that "GREAT ARSENAL OF DEMOCRACY" in record time.

Increases PRODUCTION! - That's our No. 1 job!

Let's go!

**APPEAL TO WORKERS IN THE "GREAT ARSENAL OF DEMOCRACY"**

Laird-General William Knudsen (right), appointed Director-General of the Production Management Council set up in December 1940. Above, a poster exhibited in American plants working on defence orders. An enlargement of the emblem adopted by the Office of Production Management is shown at right.

**Photo: Topical Press**

that an endless assembly belt stretches from our eastern coast to this island and to the Middle East; that nothing will be allowed to interfere with the full efficiency of this supply line!"

Nothing. And yet Mr. Hopkins admitted that since he had arrived in London he had learnt that, though most of the raw material shipped to Britain had arrived, some of the precious cargoes had gone to the bottom of the sea.

This situation had been anticipated, and already the British had prepared. In a striking broadcast made on April 24 Mr. Stimson, U.S. Secretary of War, had urged that the American Navy should go to the assistance of the British fleet, since if the power of the British Navy were broken, the American Navy's power, too, would be reduced to but an impotent fraction of its present strength.

Is it conceivable, he asked, that the American people would allow this to happen after the clear statements and appeals which had been made by President Roosevelt, after the overwhelming response to those appeals made in Congress, after the U.S.A. had definitely taken her place behind the warring democracies, and provided billions' worth of munitions to carry on the defence of their common freedom? "Shall we now asked at his press conference to make his comment. "I think," he replied, "they spoke for themselves very clearly, and for the great majority of the American people." "And for you, sir?" asked one of the pressmen. "Yes," and the President went on to say that the American naval patrol had been extended from time to time and would be extended "as far into the waters of the Seven Seas as may be necessary for the defence of the American hemisphere."

At the end of April Admiral Stark, U.S. Chief of Naval Operations, announced that American warships were already patrolling—not convoying—as far out as a thousand miles in the Atlantic, and on the same day the President made it clear that there would be no limit to the area which U.S. warships were prepared to cover in defending the Americas. Even before this declaration (on April 11) the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden had been opened to American shipping by President Roosevelt and U.S. vessels were given permission to carry supplies to Egypt as far as Iraqia on the Suez Canal. Thus America recognized that with the extinction of Italian power in East Africa the adjacent waters had ceased to be a combat zone.

Here we may mention some further instances of American sympathy for the democracies in the shape of action against the Axis Powers. At the end of March, following acts of sabotage by the crews of some Italian vessels, a number of Axis ships in American ports were seized by the U.S. Coast Guard and taken under "protective custody." German and Italian protests against these seizures were promptly made, and as promptly rejected; the ships had been seized, it turned out, by the President's own order, and Mr. Cordell Hull, when called upon to justify the procedure, declared that sabotage in the ships seized had endangered the safety of American ports.

On May 16 a number of French vessels in American harbours, including the "Normandie" at New York, were boarded by U.S. Coast Guards. In vain M. Henry-Haye, Ambassador of
Vichy France, protesting against what he described as "an unfriendly act," his protest was deemed to be beside the mark in the light of the mounting evidence of collaboration between Vichy and Berlin. It was even rumored that America was making ready to seize Martinique and other French possessions in America if the situation further deteriorated. Then June 16, Mr. Sumner Welles, O.S. Under-Secretary of State, presented a note to the German Embassy in Washington demanding the closing of all German consulate offices in the U.S.A. and its possessions, of the German Library of Information in New York, railway and tourist agencies, etc., and the removal from U.S. territory of all German nationals connected therewith—this on the ground that it had come to the knowledge of the U.S. Government that these agencies of the German Reich had been engaged in activities outside the scope of their legitimate duties, activities of an improper and unwarranted character which rendered their continued existence in the U.S.A. inimical to the welfare of the country.

By way of retaliation Hitler ordered the closing of the corresponding U.S. offices in Nazi Europe. As the Italian Government followed suit, all Italian Consulates in the U.S.A. were ordered to be closed by July 15.

American opinion against the Axis, already running strong, was still further exacerbated by the sinking of a German U-boat on May 21, in the South Atlantic 950 miles from the Brazilian coast, of the 5,000-ton U.S. steamship "Robin Moor." Fortunately there was no loss of life, since eleven of the crew were picked up by a Brazilian steamship and taken to Paramaribo, and the remaining thirty-five were rescued by a British ship and landed at Cape Town. The news of the "Robin Moor's" sinking was officially announced in Washington on June 12, and on June 30 the President brought the matter to the formal attention of Congress. "The passengers and crew of the "Robin Moor,"" he said, "were left aboard in small liferafts from approximately two to three weeks, when they were accidently discovered and rescued by friendly vessels. This shows rescue does not lessen the brutality of casting the boats adrift in mid-ocean. The total disregard shown by the most elementary principles of international law and of humanity brands the sinking of the "Robin Moor" as the act of an international outlaw."

Was the case of the "Robin Moor" a step in the campaign of the U.S.A. analogous to campaigns against other nations? The President thought it might well be so.

"We must take the sinking of the "Robin Moor" as a warning to the U.S. not to resist the U.S. movement of world conquest. It is a warning that the U.S. may use the high state of the world only with Nazi consent. Were we to yield on this, we would inevitably submit to world domination at the hands of the present leaders of the German Reich. We are not yielding and we do not propose to yield."

One more great utterance of the American President, made while the "Robin Moor's" fate was still unknown, called for attention. The occasion was the meeting in Washington of the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union; the date, the evening of May 27; the theme, the place of the American republics and Canada, in a world threatened by totalitarian domination. In his opening remarks Mr. Roosevelt spoke of the deepening and lengthening shadows, of the night which had spread over so many of the countries of Europe. He recalled how a year before Britain stood alone, and how the American Government raised arms to meet her desperate needs. He made it plain that America's whole programme of aid for the democracies had been based on hard-headed concern for our own security and for the kind of a safe and civilized world in which we wish to live. Every dollar of material that we send helps to keep the dictator away from our own hearthside. Every day they are held off gives us time to build more guns, tanks, airplanes, and ships. We have made no pretense about our own self-interest in this aid; Great Britain understands it—and so does Nazi Germany.

We have doubled and rebuffed our vast production, increasing month by month our material support of war for ourselves. Britain and China—and eventually for all the democracies. The supply of those tools will not fail; it will increase.

Then the President went on to paint in sombre colors the picture of the kind of world which is which the American republics would find themselves if Hitler were victorious. When the Old World had been enslaved, the New World would soon be mastered. "I am not speculating about all this, I merely repeat what is already in the Nazi book of world conquest. They plan to treat the Latin American nations as they are now treating the Balkans. They plan to strangle the United States of America and the Dominion of Canada..."

Already the war was coming very close home. But for the epic resistance of the British Commonwealth and the magnificent defence of China, Hitler's plan of world domination would be near its accomplishment. The Axis Powers could never achieve that objective unless they first obtained control of the seas. That achieved—and to achieve it they must capture Great Britain—they would...
be able to dictate to the Western Hemisphere.

Then the President reviewed the great Battle of the Atlantic, extending from the icy waters of the North Pole to the frozen continent of the Antarctic. He spoke of the practical activities of the Nazi raiders and submarines; he obviously regarded as possible the attempted establishment of Nazi bases in Greenland and Iceland, which would bring the great industrial centres of the north, east, and middle-west of the U.S.A. within reach of Nazi bombers. This being the situation, America's policy was dominated by two factors.

First, we shall actively resist, wherever necessary and with all our resources, every attempt by Hitler to extend his Nazi domination to the Western Hemisphere, or to Meditate. We shall actively resist his every attempt to gain control of the sea. Second, we shall give every possible assistance to Britain and to all who, with Britain, are resisting Hitlerism in its equivalent, with force of arms.

Then, after a fresh repudiation of a Hitler-dominated world, a reassertion of the resolve that the Americans would accept only a world of the "four freedoms," the President made this dramatic declaration.

"As President of a united, determined people, I say solemnly: We reassert the ancient American doctrine of freedom of the seas, we reassert the solidarity of the 21 American republics and the Dominion of Canada in the preservation of the independence of the hemisphere. We have pledged our support of the other democracies of the world, and we will fulfill our pledge.

We are placing our armed forces in a strategic military position. We will not hesitate to use our armed forces to repel attack.

Therefore, I have sought to issue a proclamation that secured our national emergency exist and requires the strengthening of our defenses to the extreme limit of our national power and authority." (See Historic Documents, page 1745).

Meanwhile, America's production programmes were still advancing. In the Budget for the year ending June 30, 1940, the estimated expenditure on defence amounted to 2 per cent of the net national income. For the year 1940-41 the estimate represented 71½ per cent, while for 1941-42 it was expected to reach 24 per cent of income. On December 20, 1940, the President had set up a "super defence" council—\textit{sic}, the Office for Production Management composed of William S. Knudsen, a prominent industrialist, as Director-General; Mr. Sidney Hillman, of the C.I.O., as Associate Director-General; and representatives of the United States, the Secretary of War, Mr. Stimson, representing the armed forces. The work of the O.P.M., it was explained, would fall into three principal subdivisions: (1) actual production of war materials under the direct supervision of Mr. Knudsen; (2) an office of defence purposes, under Mr. Donald Nelson; and (3) a Defence Priorities Board. The order formally setting up the O.P.M. was issued on January 8, and on the same day a statement was published on its behalf to the effect that it would need the active, aggressive cooperation of every man, woman and child in the United States "if we are to make this arsenal in America adequate to the successful defence of freedom and democracy."

In their appeals for increased production Mr. Knudsen and his associates were supported by the leaders of American organized Labour, of whom the most prominent were William Green, President of the A.F.L., and Philip Murray, his opposite number of the C.I.O. All the same, during the winter there were several strikes, which had their origin, in part at least, in the rivalry of the two great Labour organizations, and on more than one occasion the active intervention of the President was required before a settlement could be obtained. But, generally speaking, the outlook in every department of the American home front was encouraging. The reports of the O.P.M. revealed soaring output of planes and defence material of every kind. On March 11 the U.S. Army passed the million mark for the first time since World War I, and the strength of the Navy in men and ships increased. At the same time aid for Britain and her allied democracies grew from week to week, even from day to day. America, in a word, was taking off her coat to implement the President's promise that in her the democracies, fighting for their own and the world's freedom, should find their arsenal.

\textbf{BULLET-RIDGED MESSERSCHMITT FOR U.S. FACTORY}

An enemy fighter plane shot down over Britain in fair condition was sent to America for inspection by the engineers of the Vultee aircraft plant in the spring of 1941. Here a sketch is seen about to lower the Messerschmitt onto the quay.

\textit{Photo, Associated Press}
ROOSEVELT'S STIRRING CALL TO THE AMERICAS

On May 24, 1941, in a historic "Fireside Chat" broadcast from the White House, the President proclaimed a state of "unlimited national emergency," and called upon all the nations of the Western Hemisphere to cooperate in repelling the deadly menace of the Axis Powers against their homes and their freedom.

What we face are cold hard facts. The first fundamental fact is that what started as a European war has developed, as the Nazis always intended it should develop, into a world war for world domination. Adolf Hitler never considered the dominion of Europe over the world as anything less than a step towards the ultimate goal of all other conflicts. It is unmistakably apparent to all of us that unless the advance of Hitlerism is forcibly checked now, the Western Hemisphere will be within range of Nazi weapons of destruction.

You, therefore, know what terms Hitler, if victorious, would impose. They are, in effect, the only terms on which he would accept so-called "negotiated" peace. Under those terms Germany would literally parcel out the world, handing the satellites themselves over to their sovereigns and partitioning Europe by drawing capricious lines of frontiers between nations, wholly subject to the will of a conquering Germany.

To the peoples of the Americas, this triumphal Hitler would say, as he said after the seizure of Austria, after Munich and after the seizure of Czechoslovakia: "You are now compelled to choose. Either accept the lost territorial injustices I seek, or face the consequences of my war." And he, of course, would add: "All we want is peace, friendship, and profitable trade relations with you of the New World."

And were any of us in the Americas so incredibly simple as to suppose, as to accept these empty words, what would then happen? Those of the New World who were not in Germany would soon realize that all the dictatorships desired was "peace." They would oppose force and face the might of American arms.

Meanwhile the dictatorships would be forcing the enslaved peoples of their Old World conquests into the system they are now organizing to build a naval and air force intended to gain a hold and be master of the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans.

They would foster an economic stronghold.

Meanwhile the dictatorships would be forcing the enslaved peoples of their Old World conquests into the system they are now organizing to build a naval and air force intended to gain a hold and be master of the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans.

Failing that, they might create an economic stronghold.

Quarrels would be fomented to divide the Governments of our Republics, and the Nazis would hatch their fifth column intrigues with invasion never heard of.

I am not exaggerating all this. I merely repeat what is already the most vivid of visions in the Nazi book of world conquest.

The Axis Powers can never achieve their objectives of world domination unless they first obtain control of the sea. This is their supreme purpose, and they must use their naval and air power to achieve it. Their power will dictate to the Western Hemisphere. No serious appeal, no argument, no sentiment, no offer, or pledge to these dictators.

Proclamation of Unlimited National Emergency

Whereas a suspension of events makes it plain that the operation of the Axis belligerents in such a way that the European war is now not confined to those areas involved in the commencement of the war, but that the world has been divided into two hostile and warring camps, the President and Congress of the United States have determined that the nation should take any steps necessary to ensure the safety and defense of the nation.

I call upon all loyal citizens engaged in production for defense to give precedence to the needs of the nation and to the needs of the nation's industrial program, and to make the utmost effort to ensure the nation's defense. I call upon all loyal workers, as well as employees, to preserve their peace and order, and to continue their work in the interests of the nation.

I call upon all workers to cooperate with the civil defense agencies of the United States to ensure internal security against foreign-directed subversion, and to put every community in order for a maximum of productive effort, a minimum of waste and unnecessary friction.

I call upon all citizens to place the nation's needs first in mind and to act in the interest of the nation's welfare and security.
MAY AND JUNE, 1941

May 1, 1941. Further enemy attacks on coast defenses of Tobruk. British counter-attack with success.
May 2, 1941. Announced that 43,000 men have been captured from Greece, Crete, and Greece. Greeks, however, have not been reported as having been taken.
May 3, 1941. Fighting in progress at Hardman. British destroyers “Diamond” and “Wren” reported sunk during Greek evacuation. Severe raid on Benghazi.
May 4, 1941. RAF, wrecked 23 planes at aerodrome near Bagdad. Heavy attack on German airfields at Brest. Marseilles again raided. Severe raid on Belfort.
May 5, 1941. Italian attack on Tobruk is repulsed. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria.
May 7, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. War against British submarines.
May 9, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 10, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 12, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 13, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 14, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 15, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 16, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 17, 1941. Australians recapture strong points outside Tobruk. Germans take Tobruk.
May 18, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 19, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
May 20, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.

June 1, 1941. British troops enter Baghdad. Clothes clothing starts. Heavy night raid on Manchester.
June 2, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.

July 1, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 2, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 3, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 4, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 5, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 6, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 7, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 8, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 9, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 10, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 11, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 12, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
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July 19, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 20, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 21, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 22, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 23, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 24, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 25, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 26, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 29, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 30, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
July 31, 1941. RAF, heavy raids on Alexandria. British troops land in Crete.
Chapter 173

SEA AFFAIR, APRIL–JUNE, 1941, & THE DESTRUCTION OF THE ‘BISMARCK’

Naval Position in April, 1941—Greek Collapse and the Allied Withdrawal—Submarine 'Regent' at Kotor—The Operations Around Crete—Cunningham’s Fleet Bombards Libyan Ports—U.S. Navy Patrols Western Atlantic—Chase of the ‘Bismarck’ and ‘Prinz Eugen’—Loss of H.M.S. ‘Hood’—From All Quarters Our Warships Converge on the Quarry—End of the ‘Bismarck’—Syrian Affair—British Naval Aid to Russia

At the end of March, 1941, events of the previous three months had considerably altered the strategic outlook. Most of the ships damaged at Dunkirk had been repaired and the operations of the British Navy were less restricted. In the Mediterranean, the Italian Fleet had been badly hit and was inclined to stay in port, licking its wounds. Powerful British cruiser and destroyer forces were operating in the Aegean to help Greece; the main Mediterranean battle fleet was generally at Alexandria, and it was no longer an Italian squadron would come out. The Libyan coast, and the enemy supply line to that front, occupied numerous miscellaneous ships and submarines. In the open seas enemy destroyers and submarines were doing their utmost to cut the British supply lines; and the work of counting them, with steadily increasing success, kept the cruisers and smaller ships busy. In the Far East the attitude of the Japanese was becoming more and more aggressive, while it was impossible for the British to spare the ships to cover their fleet. The German navy was steadily strengthening its position in Norway, especially in the north, and there was a great deal of speculation as to its purpose, although it was later realized to be largely the projected attack on Russia.

The period opened with the British forces, seaborne and maintained from the sea, rapidly advancing in East Africa; with Italy held in the Balkans and her supply services across the mouth of the Adriatic constantly harassed, although Germany was already threatening to attack by the land route. The British advance in North Africa had spent itself. American opinion was hardening in favor of constant Axis insults and offences against civilization.

Although it achieved little the considerable Italian fleet (principally destroyers and submarines) in East African ports had been a constant threat to the Red Sea supply route to the Middle Eastern armies, while the ports themselves had been used as bases for enemy commerce raiders in the Indian Ocean and Far East, and many Allied merchant seamen were kept prisoner there in terrible conditions. As the British grip tightened, the one idea of the Italian commanders, apparently acting on definite orders from Rome, was to get their ships home. Some submarines contrived to make the voyage round Africa safely. The Italian cruiser ‘Eritrea’ did not risk it and arrived in Japanese waters after many adventures, but owing to fuel difficulty the destroyers were unable to follow the submarines. British planes sank several and others scuttled themselves to avoid capture. Massawa, the last useful port, capitulated on April 8, and on May 19 the main body of troops under the Duke of Aosta surrendered.

The Germans, with the assistance of the British on the seas, were gallantly holding the Italian invaders, but on April 6 the Germans, with a perfectly equipped mechanized army, invaded Greece and Yugoslavia through Bulgaria. British columns met most of the necessary work in Yugoslavia; the military operations were aimed principally at Greece, and in three days the invaders had reached Salonika, the most convenient port of supply, although difficult to defend. British and Australasian troops were rushed into the country under naval convoy as soon as the invasion started and fought stubbornly, but the defeat of the Greeks made their position hopeless, and it was with the entire approval of the Hellenic Government that they were evacuated with great difficulty, beginning on the night of April 24.

Everything that would float, merchantman or warship, was pressed into service to evacuate the troops—Yugoslav, Greek, and British—and as many of the panic-striken refugees as possible. German planes and motor torpedo boats, transported overland, attacked them mercilessly; some British transports and a very large number of Greek small craft which normally traded among the islands were destroyed. A particularly disgraceful feature of the enemy attack was the deliberate sinking of hospital ships; the “Gregorios” and “Kassandra Louloudis” went without a trace with everybody on board them; the “Attiki”

GREEK WARSHIPS ESCAPE TO JOIN ALLIES

After the evacuation of Allied forces from Greece at the end of April, 1941, the Greek cruiser ‘Aeolof’ was here, with seven destroyers and all five submarines of the Greek Navy, got away safely to join the Allies. The cruiser is armed with four 9.2-in. guns and sixteen 3-in. guns.

Photo, P. A. Vicary
ROYAL NAVY IN GRIM BATTLE OF CRETE

H.M.S. "Warspite" suffered some damage by air attack at Crete; top, a near-miss; upper right, the battleship under repair later at Seattle Dockyard, Washington. Among three cruisers lost was "York," seen below beached in Suda Bay; enemy embarkation troops are passing the warship. Persistent dive-bomb attacks made repair impossible.

Photos, Associated Press; Kewhine; and from "Signal."

__HEROISM IN "COVENTRY"

Petty Officer A.E. Sephton was posthumously awarded the V.C. for great courage and endurance during a dive-bombing attack on H.M.S. "Coventry" off Crete on May 10, 1941. In one of the gun-directors houses Sephton carried on through critically wounded by machine-gun bullets. He died later in the day.

the worst case, with the invalids and nurses machine-gunned in the boats—
"Hesperos," "Polikros" and "Andros" were sunk, and the "Elefini" badly

damaged.

By the gallantry and united efforts

of British and Greeks nearly 50,000 of

the 60,000 British and Dominion troops

who had been landed were evacuated,

while the Greek cruiser "Averoff,"

seven destroyers and all five submarines

of the Greek Fleet escaped to continue

the fight; three destroyers and prac-

tically all the small Greek craft were

sacrificed for the protection of the trans-

ports and refugees. (See Chapter 158.)

Perhaps the most colourful incident

during this period was the audacious

attack of H.M. submarine "Regent,"

under Lieut.-Commander H. C. Browne,

to rescue Mr. Ronald Campbell, the

British Minister to Yugoslavia, from

Kotor, where he had motored after the

German invasion. When she arrived it

was found that the Italian army was in

possession, but they were chary of

infringing diplomatic rights by inter-

fering with a Minister, and a lieutenant

was sent ashore to find Mr. Campbell,

while an Italian officer was taken on

board the "Regent" as hostage. For

nine hours our submarine remained in

an enemy-occupied port with her White

Ensign flying; then Italian bombers

appeared and spoiled everything, so

that she had to make her escape with

several wounded, leaving Mr. Campbell

on shore. For his coolness Lieut.-Com-

mander Browne received the D.S.O. A

photograph of Mr. Campbell is printed

in page 1612.

British and Greeks retired to Crete,

where they made a gallant stand, but

they were disorganized, had practically

no aircraft available, and had lost a

great part of their equipment; the

Germans followed up their successes on

the Greek mainland with obvious prepara-

tion for an assault upon Crete, which began on

May 19. A large number of enemy

troops were air-borne; the use of sailing

canoes and small craft as transports

resulted in some 5,000 being drowned,

and the Germans sustained heavy

casualties ashore. Their advance was

irresistible, however, and after a

hopeless struggle British, Imperial

and Allied troops had to be evacuated.

Covered by a magnificent rear-guard

action by a hastily collected brigade of

Royal Marines, who sacrificed 70 per

cent of their strength, the united efforts

of our Navy and Merchant Navy

achieved a brilliant rescue and trans-

ported the survivors to Egypt (an-
nounced June 1, 1941), where it was

stated on May 25 that the Greek King

and Government had already landed.

(See Chapter 159.)

Both Axis Powers made great

claims regarding the destruction of

British ships by their naval forces.

On May 24 the Italian claim was that

seven British cruisers and several de-

stroyers had been sunk by them, and

that three battleships, eight cruisers and

seven destroyers had been seriously

damaged. On the same day Germany

claimed three cruisers sunk and five

motor torpedo boats, and two destroyers

seriously damaged, but two days later

the claim was increased to eleven

British cruisers sunk. The actual loss

H.M.S. "REGENT" WAITED IN ENEMY-OCUPIED PORT

Recalling an incident from a novel of the last war, the audacity of our submarine "Regent" won

the D.S.O. for its commander, Lieut.-Commander Browne. In an attempt to embark the British

Minister the submarine waited some hours in the Yugoslav port of Kotor, with an Italian hostage

on board; then Italian bombers appeared and "Regent" had to make her escape.

Photo, Wide World

ENEMY TRANSPORT LOST HEAVILY OFF CRETE

Our warships were heavily engaged throughout the battle of Crete and took a heavy toll of enemy

transport and supply ships. Here a survivor from a German transport is being helped aboard

an Italian warship; his body black with oil from his torpedoed vessel.

Photo, Associated Press
BOMBARDMENT OF TRIPOLI, APRIL 21, 1941

During April and May, 1941, Admiral Cunningham's Fleet heavily shelled ports on the Libyan coast; at Tripoli, units steaming in line ahead to bombard Tripoli, where in forty minutes 530 tons of shell were fired. Some of the destruction is shown by the left-hand photograph.

Photos: "News Chronicle": Right

was three cruisers ("Fiji," "Gloucester" and "York"), one anti-aircraft cruiser and six destroyers (among them being "Juno," "Greyhound," "Kelly" and "Kashmir"), which, considering the work that they were doing and the very restricted waters for dodging intensive air attack, was regarded as light. And of these ships one cruiser and two destroyers had been lost in the evacuation of the Allied forces.

Farther westward, the position in North Africa was also unsatisfactory. The front had been denuded of most of its men to help Greece, and since he had been reinforced with remarkable

speed in spite of naval attacks, the enemy's counter-attack recaptured port after port. The Fleet took its full part. Most of the supplies were carried by water, and protection had to be afforded. Enemy convoys were repeatedly attacked with great success in spite of the numerous enemy destroyers and small craft. Ships were constantly bombarding the coastal roads and Axis positions, all types taking part. At dawn on April 21 Cunningham's Fleet threw 530 tons of shells into Tripoli in 40 minutes. On May 8 Benghazi had its turn, when two supply ships steamed straight into our Fleet and were both blown up.

Two days later Benghazi was again attacked. The British monitor "Terror" and the river gunboat "Ladybird," veterans of 1918, continued to distinguish themselves in this area. Early in April the "Terror" was made to leak so badly by near misses that the British destroyed her; on May 12 the "Ladybird" was sunk at Tobruk (see page 1850) in an attack by 47 dive-bombers, but her anti-aircraft guns, which remained above water, were active throughout the siege.

So the British retired to the Egyptian border, leaving only Tobruk to sustain a siege which thrilled the whole world. It was entirely invested on the land side, and everything had to go into it by sea. Numerous small craft were employed and many were lost; the lane was never cut, although the ships in it had any number of exciting experiences, especially from air attack. As many submarines and destroyers as could be spared from the Eastern area, and planes from both the Fleet Air Arm and the R.A.F., were constantly hammering at the Italian transport line, and in spite of its protection many ships were sunk.

Axis successes and the enemy's growing insolence towards all neutral rights increased American fears and steadily strengthened pro-Allies feeling. German and Italian plans to sabotage ships in American ports, doing great damage, were traced down to the Italian naval attaché, whose recall was demanded at the beginning of April. The arrest of German merchant seamen in connection with the same operations revealed an elaborate spy organization and some curious men serving in German forecuses. In May the American publication of Goebbels' admission that Germany had considered
AMERICAN STRIKES DISORGANIZED PRODUCTION

Arising in some measure from disputes between rival labour organizations, there were strikes in American armament factories, and the President himself had to intervene on more than one occasion to settle them. Bottom: Gas bombs were used during disorders at a plant in Milwaukee. The State Governor appealed to Mr. Roosevelt to mediate in this dispute. Top: An impressive photograph of the Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation's works at Chicago, where the glow from blast furnaces and steel converters reddened sky and river.

Photos, Wide World; Keystone
H.M.S. 'KING GEORGE V,' FLAGSHIP OF THE HOME FLEET

Britain's new battleship took part in the hunting down of the German warships 'Bismarck' and 'Prince Eugen' during May 23 to 27, 1941. 'King George V' carried the flag of Admiral Tovey, Commander of the Home Fleet. This magnificent photograph shows our battleship some months earlier, as she steamed up Chesapeake Bay on January 24 after crossing the Atlantic to take the new British Ambassador, Lord Halifax, to his post.

Photo, Associated Press
ANOTHER CHAPTER IN THE STORY OF THE 'RAWALPINDI'

A full-page photograph on page 359 shows survivors of the 'Rawalpindi' being addressed at the Admiralty by Admiral Sir Charles Little. Here are presented the photograph (which came to hand some 15 months later) of the fortunate survivors who were rescued by an enemy vessel and taken to Germany. Uninjured by their physical and mental ordeal, with firm step they enter the prison camp, their courageous bearing an inspiration to all.

[Photo, Keystone]
H.M.S. 'VICTORIOUS', ONE OF BRITAIN'S FLOATING AERODROMES

It was during the night of May 24, 1941, that aircraft from H.M.S. 'Victorious' attacked the 'Bismarck' and hit the enemy with a torpedo; earlier that day H.M.S. 'Hood' had been lost when, with the 'Prince of Wales,' she had engaged the 'Bismarck' and 'Prinz Eugen.' H.M.S. 'Victorious' is one of four carriers of the 'Illustrious' class; completed soon after war broke out, she is 723 feet long and displaces 23,000 tons.

an invasion of the United States caused great excitement, and all the time Japan was getting more and more threatening and the veil of secrecy drawn over her naval operations was impressive. Aid to Britain was increased. On April 11 President Roosevelt ordered that the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden should no longer be forbidden to American ships, revolutionizing the supply services to the Middle East, although Germany declared her intention of operating in those waters and warned the Americans to keep out. Material was transferred; within a few days in April it was announced that ten fast cutters from the U.S. Coast Guard and twenty motor torpedo boats had joined the British Navy.

In the Atlantic the position was very strange. The U.S. Navy was patrolling the whole of the Western Atlantic, but its position was difficult to define as the necessity for its action was unprecedented. Primarily its purpose was to warn peaceful shipping of all nations of threatened attack outside the combat zone—not to interfere with the attack otherwise, and certainly not to convoy merchantmen. The moral effect was very great, and on May 1 Germany declared that any American man-of-war which entered the blockade zone would be fired on.

The war was brought very much closer to the Americans by the big-ship fighting in mid-Atlantic at the end of May. For some time previously there had been evidence that the German big ships were considering a sortie, and air raids on the "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" at Brest were redoubled. The 35,000-ton battle ship "Bismarck," flying the flag of Admiral Lütjens, and a new 10,000-ton cruiser which turned out to be the "Prinz Eugen," were observed at Bergen. Their departure was spotted by reconnaissance planes, the "Alert" was sent out by wireless, and prematurely arranged plans were immediately put into effect. The probable course of the ships was round the north of Iceland and down the Denmark Strait. A careful watch on this channel was necessary, but very difficult in the fog and poor visibility. The work was entrusted to the cruisers "Norfolk" (flagship of Rear-Admiral W. Wake Walker) and "Suffolk," fast ships but very vulnerable.

On May 23, with poor visibility and heavy weather, they sighted the enemy off the north-west coast of Iceland at about six miles' range; wireless warning was immediately sent out and the cruisers started shadowing, in spite of the big chances of their both being blown out of the water. The British ships immediately concentrated. They came from all directions and the first contact was made by the battle-cruiser "Hood," flagship of Vice-Admiral L. E. Holland, C.B., which had the new battle-cruiser "Prince of Wales" working with her. They found the enemy in the early morning of the 24th, and started to engage them with gunfire; after a short action the "Hood" was hit close to X (the third) turret. A colossal explosion followed, which literally tore the ship to shreds, and in a few minutes she had gone with 1,415 lives, only a handful being saved. The "Prince of Wales" received slight damage, and the "Bismarck" was observed to have a fire on board; soon afterwards the enemy coerced to slip away in the midst of the "Prince of Wales" guns, but she was soon picked up by the aircraft of the Coastal Command.

The "Prince of Wales" again made contact in the evening, but only for a short time; the enemy got away to the westward, then south, and finally turned towards the east. Other ships were arriving. At 12.20 a.m. on the 25th the "Victorious" launched a torpedo-aircraft attack and scored one hit. The "Norfolk" and "Suffolk" joined the "Prince of Wales," but at three in the morning of the 25th contact was again lost in the low visibility about 350 miles S.S.E. of Greenland. The British Fleet then took up searching formation, in which other units joined as they came up.

The main body of the Home Fleet, under Admiral Tovey, with his flag

**INTERCEPTION, PURSUIT AND DESTRUCTION OF 'BISMARCK'**

This map, based on the official Admiralty plan, shows the movements of the principal units that assembled to hunt down the German battle-cruisers during May 22-27, 1941. Times are on the 24-hour system, in which 01.00 is 12.01 a.m., 12.00 is noon, and 23.00 is midnight. Dates follow times after a diagonal stroke: thus enemy force first sighted, 20.32-23.32 p.m. on May 22; enemy sunk, 11.01/27 (11.1 a.m. on May 27).
in the "King George V," came from the north-east. Admiral Somerville's Western Mediterranean command, with "Renown" as flagship and accompanied by the aircraft carrier "Ark Royal," arrived from Gibraltar, while the "Rodney" and "Ramillies," on Atlantic convoy duty, joined the sweep.

During the night of May 25/26 the "Prima Eugen" sought her own safety at Brest. At 10.30 a.m. on the 26th a Catalina flying-boat sighted the "Bismarck," steaming east at 20 knots, about 550 miles west of Land's End. She shadowed her in spite of heavy

INITIAL STAGE IN ROUNDING UP THE ENEMY

Top, the German battleship "Bismarck," as photographed from the British cruiser "Norfolk," during an early stage of the chase in the Denmark Strait; lower photograph shows the "Norfolk" firing at the enemy. With the "Suffolk" the "Norfolk" shadowed the "Bismarck" from May 23 to 25, twice the quarry slipped away, but was soon located again.

Photo, Associated Press: Keystone

attack which finally drove off the flying-boat after being hit many times. At 11.15 a.m. the German was sighted by the "Ark Royal"'s planes, and the cruiser "Sheffield" was told off to make contact and shadow her (finding the enemy at 5.30 p.m.). During the afternoon the "Ark Royal" launched a torpedo-plane attack without success, and at 7.30 p.m. another attack with twenty machines. These scored hits—one amidships and one aft—which really doomed the "Bismarck," for she was out of control for some time and could only steam very slowly.

Captain Vian of "Altmark" fame joined with three Tribal class destroyers and the Polish "Piorun" in the early morning of the 27th they attacked. As daylight a striking force of planes from the "Ark Royal" failed owing to poor visibility, but the cruisers made contact at long range and hung on until the battleships "King George V" and "Rodney" came up and started pounding the "Bismarck" by gunfire. The enemy answered gallantly, but every corvette was eventually silenced, and she was heavily on fire when the cruiser "Dorsetshire" was ordered to close and finish her with torpedoes. Two hits on one side had little apparent effect, but one on the other caused her to capsize.

The Tribal destroyer "Mashona" was sunk by German aircraft (which had not appeared during the action) while returning to port, and, reckoning that the "Bismarck" would have supply ships if she were going to work against British commerce, our Fleet carried out a big sweep before dispersing. This resulted in the capture of six supply ships and an armed trawler which had gone out to cooperate. Undoubtedly the destruction of commerce by a force which could overwhelm any likely convoy was the main purpose of the "Bismarck"'s cruise, but there were probably secondary objects—the seizure of the Azores from Portugal was generally accepted as one—which were defeated by the excellent manner in which the carefully planned concentration of British units was carried into effect.

German intrigues in the Middle East to assist in the general move towards the

HE LOCATED THE RAIDER

Contact with the "Bismarck" was lost early in the morning of May 25, 1941; a Catalina flying-boat commanded by Flying Officer Denis Alfred Briggs secured the enemy again on the morning of the 26th and shadowed her until driven off.

Photo, French News
BISMARCK AND HOOD: END OF A NORTH SEA DRAMA

Above, smoke covers the 35,000-ton Bismarck, which, chased and engaged for 6 days, was finally sunk on May 27, 1941, by a torpedo from the cruiser Dorsetshire. Shells from the King George V and Rodney are bursting near, and the enemy is on fire. Below, the battleship Hood, destroyed early on the 24th by an explosion following a shell hit from the enemy.

{See p. 1454 for badge.}

Photo G.P.U.; Topical Press

Oilfields resulted in trouble in Iraq and Syria (see Chapters 165 and 166). In the former the Navy had little to do except to convoy troops to Basrah towards the end of April. The trouble in Syria was more serious and began through the Vichy authorities assisting Germany. Operations were undertaken by British and Free French forces, the landings being covered by a miscellaneous Fleet which also shelled numerous coastal fortifications.

The Vichy force of flotilla leaders and light craft, reinforced by a few units which had arrived from Toulon through Italian-protected waters, occasionally bombarded British and Free French positions, but attacks on floating forces were easily driven off and most of the Vichy ships were damaged more or less seriously when they fled to France before General Dentz surrendered, on July 11, 1941.

In distant waters the enemy's campaign against commerce continued; numerous claims were made by the Berlin radio to striking successes, and enemy mines laid in Australian waters claimed victims. Before the end of the period U-boats were operating two-thirds of the way across the Atlantic; an abandoned raider base had been discovered in the Antarctic; the pocket
battleship "Admiral Scheer" claimed to have sunk 132,000 tons of merchant shipping and to have returned home safely. On the other hand, H.M.S. "Cornwall" sank the commissioned frigate "Pinguin" in the Indian Ocean (announced middle of May), and two days later H.M.S. "Leander" and H.M.A.S. "Canberra" captured the supply ship "Coburg" and recaptured a prize. Other successes were kept confidential in order not to warn the enemy.

From the middle of June the position of Russia became more and more uncertain, until on the 22nd she was invaded by Germany and Rumania without any declaration of war. On the previous day it had been reported that the Germans were taking over Bulgarian naval bases in the Black Sea, and the development of the occupied Northern Norwegian coast had been noted.

To begin with, most of the naval activity was in the Baltic, where both sides had a number of motor torpedo boats and small submarines, and to a lesser extent in the far North, where the White Sea route was Russia's obvious gateway of supplies. In the Black Sea the operations consisted principally of air attacks on Russian ships. After very short negotiations an Anglo-Russian Agreement was arranged, and units of the British Navy began to cooperate in Northern waters.
PRINCIPAL FACTORS IN THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

This map is to illustrate Chapter 12. It shows very graphically how British strategy was hampered by the closing of the Mediterranean route to the East, and indicates approximately the convoy routes to Britain. German bombers based on French Atlantic ports were able to rescue shipping over a wide area; the extreme range from Brest was about 1,500 miles (shaded circular area), while within an effective radius of some 850 miles (shown by inner circle) the peril was even greater.

Specially drawn for The Second Great War by Harrop

1760
Chapter 174

BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC AND THE GRAVE SHIPPING SITUATION OF 1941

Shipping Position at Opening of 1941—Hitler's 'Spring Offensive'—President Roosevelt's Stunning-up—Nazi Hopes of Starving Out Britain—Long-range Nazi Bombers in the Blockade—U.S. Shipping Programme—Shipping Pool—Sinking of the 'Robind Moor'—British Port Organization—Ministry of War Transport—Merchant Navy Reserve Pool—German Surface Raiders

At the opening of 1941 the prospects of the Atlantic battle appeared brighter, as shipping losses continued to decline. Britain had held her own despite the enormous advantages the Germans had gained by their conquests in Europe in the previous spring—bases for U-boats, bombers, E-boats and surface raiders along the vast coastline from Narvik in Northern Norway to the Spanish frontier. Paradoxically, it was to one of the results of the German military campaigns that the shipping position largely owed its strength. The tonnage added to the Allied merchant fleets by the countries Germany overrun and by Greece, then at war with Italy, amounted to over 8,500,000 tons gross, more than three times the tonnage of British ships sunk up to the end of 1940. In the first week of January, 1941, it was announced that the losses were among the lowest of the war. The record for the full month was less satisfactory, but it was the smallest total since the French collapse. Nevertheless, even at the reduced monthly rate of about 200,000 tons of British ships and 100,000 of Allied and neutral, the shipping losses considerably exceeded replacements from the shipyards.

There was no room for complacency and some was evident. Apart from the continuation of a gap between destruction and production, it had still to be proved whether the enemy's reduced success was due to a temporary slackening of effort, to winter weather, or to a solid improvement in British defence. All too soon it was revealed that weather and a pause by the enemy were responsible. On February 24 Hitler announced a new ‘spring offensive’ against Allied shipping. Evidently the U-boat commanders had been schooled to ‘go slow’ until the moment for the offensive arrived. In the last week of February losses jumped from about 50,000 tons a week to 141,314 tons gross. In March British, Allied and neutral losses passed the half-million mark for the second time in the war. They were exceeded only by those of June, 1940, which included the ships sunk during the evacuation of the B.E.F. from France. April saw the highest shipping losses of the war to date—589,373 tons gross. That figure, however, included the Greek and other Allied ships sunk in Greek ports.

AERIAL RAIDERS IN BATTLE OF ATLANTIC

Heavy long-range German bombers such as the Focke-Wulf Condor and Kurier preyed on British and American shipping as it drew near or left the coasts of Europe. Top, right, a Condor is circling round the U.S. merchantman 'Excambion,' then six hours out of Lisbon. Below, a Focke-Wulf Kurier that came to grief at Moma, in southern Portugal, near the Spanish frontier.

Photos, Central Press; Associated Press
The Nazis, as Rudolf Hess confirmed, had pinned their faith in victory over Britain not on invasion but on the policy of starvation by blockade. They knew they must succeed before the vast American shipbuilding programme, in association with the British programme and that begun in Canada at the end of April, could finally turn the scales against them. Once again Hitler resorted to the technique of the blitzkrieg, a technique more suited to land and air warfare than to a sea war of attrition. He failed, and, as in the Battle of Britain, it is only in the knowledge of what was attempted that the extent of the failure can be judged. Germany diverted her attention to Russia.

The measure of the threat to Britain's vital communications—not only with sources of supply of food and materials but with the Empire and forces overseas—was supplied by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons early in April. After reviewing the course of the war in various theatres, he declared:

"But, after all, everything turns on the Battle of the Atlantic, which is proceeding with growing intensity on both sides. Our losses in ships and tonnage are very heavy, and vast as are the shipping resources we control, these losses could not continue indefinitely without seriously affecting our war effort and our means of subsistence."

**U-BOAT CAMPAIGN AGAINST ALLIED SHIPPING**

The German attack upon our merchantmen demanded large underwater forces, for many U-boats failed to regain their bases. Left, below, a German raider in port at the beginning of 1944; note the ice-covered deck and bridge. Centre, stern view of a new enemy submarine on the slipway ready for launching. Right, a submarine tender for provisioning and repairing U-boats.
He added that it was no answer to say that we had inflicted upon the Germans and Italians a far higher proportion of losses compared with the size of their merchant fleets, and that our world-wide traffic was maintained. In fact, over 2,300,000 tons of German and Italian shipping had been sunk, captured or scuttled. While Britain had lost nearly four million tons, Mr. Churchill continued, we have, however, three million tons of foreign or newly constructed tonnage, not counting the con-

U-BOAT 'KILLERS' OF THE ROYAL CANADIAN NAVY

The corvette of today is very unlike its namesake of the time of Nelson; then it was a fast and light flush-deck warship with a single gun of guns, while the modern corvette is a miniature destroyer: speedy, immensely powerful for its size, and well armed. Top, the first corvette built for the Royal Canadian Navy; lower photograph, officers chart the corvette's course. In 1939, 50 corvettes were laid down in Britain and ten in Canada.

Photo: J. Halli: Planet News

siderable Allied tonnage under our control. The immediate supply of ships, as Mr. Churchill indicated, was still satisfactory. But it was imperative that losses should be reduced—every homeward bound ship sunk meant the loss of several thousand tons of supplies—and replacement capacity increased.

The renewed U-boat offensive saw a change of tactics, a change which the Germans exaggerated for propaganda purposes. On occasions, the submarines attacked single ships or poorly escorted convoys in packs—"wolf-pack tactics," as the Germans called them. These tactics were combined with closer cooperation between the U-boats and spotting aircraft. Long-range bombing became a more serious menace with the appearance of the Focke-Wulf Zerstöer and Kurier fighter-bombers, which could sweep half-way across the Atlantic and back. Later the U-boat packs would follow a convoy and attack it from different points after dark, renewing their attacks from dusk the next evening.

The Nazis exceeded all previous efforts in arithmetical computations in an effort to persuade neutrals (and particularly America) that their blockade was bound to succeed. In two days towards the end of February Hitler claimed that U-boats alone had destroyed 192,000 tons of Allied shipping. Earlier it was announced that in the four winter months the German Navy had sunk 1,324,000 tons and the Luftwaffe 513,000 tons, exclusive of the tonnage sunk by mines; the correct figures had apparently been multiplied by two.

Tactically, the two main inter-related causes of Germany's failure to maintain the pace of the spring offensive increased British Naval and air protection, and the beginning of American Naval patrols in the Atlantic. A subsidiary cause was the increasing weight of bombs dropped by British aircraft on enemy docks, shipyards and port areas.

"The defeat of the U-boats and of the surface raiders," Mr. Churchill declared, "has been proved to be entirely a question of adequate escorts for our convoys." Welcoming the "tremendous decision" of the United States to patrol the waters of the Western Hemisphere and to warn the shipping of all nations outside the combat zone of the presence of lurking U-boats or raiding cruisers, the Prime Minister pointed out that British protecting forces would be able to concentrate far more upon the routes nearer home "and to take a far heavier toll of the U-boats there."

Convoy escorts at the beginning of 1941 were far from adequate, but their strength was increasing. In January it was announced that all of the 50 American destroyers transferred to Britain had crossed the Atlantic (see colour plate p. 1058). The quickly built corvettes, vessels of whale-catcher type, specially designed for anti-submarine service, began to make their presence felt. Aerial patrols were gradually extended as Britain's air power was built up.

America's part in the war at sea involved more than the western patrols. It was, in fact, of steadily increasing importance. As mentioned in Chapter 134, a start had been made at the beginning of the year in the largest shipbuilding programme in history. In March the Lease-Lend Bill was passed through Congress and the programme for 200 new emergency ships was doubled, the additional orders being earmarked for Britain under the new Act. In April President Roosevelt proclaimed the Red Sea and Gulf of Aten to be no longer a combat zone from which American ships were barred under the Neutrality Act then in force. American supplies were
soon on their way to the Middle East. By releasing some of the considerable volume of British ships engaged in the long Cape passage this development was an important aid in the maintenance of supplies to Britain.

A further measure with similar effect was the creation in May of a United States shipping pool for “all-out aid to the democracies.” Part of the tonnage included in the pool was transferred to Britain under the Lease-Lease Act. The remaining portion, mainly taken from the large U.S. coastal shipping fleet, was put into subsidiary war service under the American flag, carrying essential cargoes formerly carried by British ships to theatres outside the war zone or to points for trans-shipment to Britain by shorter routes. Thus oil, wheat and other commodities were brought by pool ships to, say, New York for trans-shipment in British or Allied ships, saving many weeks’ voyages. This arrangement was wasteful of shipping resources considered as a whole, but it was a necessary and valuable relief from the effects of the American Neutrality Act.

The pool was reported to involve about 200 ships, and its creation represented the first restriction in American economy due to the world scarcity of ships. Part of the pool, however, consisted of Axis vessels sheltering in American ports and requisitioned by the Government under the Ship Seizure Act passed at the end of May.

It was on a voyage to South Africa that the United States liner “Robin Moor” was torpedoed, shelled and sunk by a German submarine on May 21—the first American ship to be torpedoed in the Second World War. There were eight passengers on board. The American nationality was clearly indicated and admittedly known. But the ship was sunk in mid-Atlantic without provision for the safety of passengers or crew. Such disregard of international law was common in the case of British and Allied ships and the shipping of the smaller neutrals, but it roused the indignation of Americans, who did not learn of the outrage until three weeks later, when two of the crew and one passenger were landed at Parramatta by the Brazilian steamer “Ozorio.” They had sailed and drifted in an open boat for 18 days. The other boats, which had become separated, were given up for lost. But after 13 days at sea they had been picked up by a British ship and two weeks later were landed at Cape Town. President Roosevelt denounced the German terrorism and declared that the United States would neither be intimidated nor would it acquiesce in the German plan of world...
DESTRUCTION OF ITALIAN RAIDER "RAMB I"

The converted minelayer "Ramb I" was armed with 4.5-in. guns and had operated in the Indian Ocean as a commerce raider. On March 9, 1941, she was intercepted by the New Zealand cruiser "Leander" (7,300 tons; eight 6-in. guns). Five salvos caused the raider to strike her flag, and within fifty minutes she sank after a violent explosion. Top, the enemy crew leaves the burning raider. Lower photograph, "Ramb I" settles down by the bows.

Photos, Wide World

Port Directors were appointed by the Minister of Transport to secure rapid clearance of goods through the ports, quicker turn-round and the best utilization of available transport facilities.

At the beginning of March, more than eighteen months after the outbreak of war, the first steps in port labour control were taken—in the Mersey and Clyde areas only. The peacetime system of casual employment was replaced by a guaranteed weekly wage which could be exceeded if more than the minimum time was worked. The scheme was administered by the Ministry of Transport, the dockers virtually being employed by the Ministry. At first it met with considerable opposition in Glasgow, and it was five months before the principles of the new regime were applied to all ports, and a further six to eight months before they were in practical operation in all important areas.

The weakness of the port situation at this period was divided control. The Ministry of Transport, principally concerned with road and rail services, was the responsible authority at the ports. But only the Ministry of Shipping, who had also to exercise authority over some aspects of port administration, was in a position to appreciate the paramount importance of turn-round and to adjust ship movements according to port conditions. This anomalous situation was rectified at the beginning of May, 1941, by the amalgamation of the Ministries of Shipping and Transport—the most important step in organization on the shipping front since the adoption of the requisition policy. The combined department was designated the Ministry of War Transport, and was placed under Mr. E. J. Leathers, a businessman with wide experience in shipping and coal, who had acted as the Ministry of Shipping as Adviser on Coal.

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A month later the reorganization of the combined Ministries was completed and an efficient and coherent Department appeared. It included several fundamental improvements in structure, but the most important was the achievement of a unified system of port control. A new division (termed the Port and Transit Control) was linked to the shipping administrative side of the Ministry. Through the Director of Ports it became responsible for distribution of ships to ports for unloading and clearing of cargoes, for port equipment and for labour. The new regime was soon translated into the equivalent of more ships, more voyages and more materials for the forces and the factories.

As already seen in relation to the ports, there are two main sides to war organization—administrative and labour. Within a day or two of the announcement that the reorganization of the new Ministry had been completed an entirely new basis of employment for officers and men of the Merchant Navy was announced. It involved certain measures of control, but did away with the element of casual labour still to be seen in sections of the shipping industry. In granting continuous employment for officers and men, combined with longer leave on pay, the new scheme earned the title of the "Seamen's Charter." Framed in cooperation with the National Maritime Board, representing shipowners and the officers' and men's organizations, it was made effective through the Essential Work (Merchant Navy) Order, 1941. The Order was similar in outline to the labour legislation already introduced in other spheres, and provided for the registration of ex-seamen who had found shore employment. It came into operation on May 26.
Navy Reserve Pool. On discharge from their ships officers and men automatically became members of the Pool, receiving standard wages or, for officers, 85\% of their basic pay. The Pool ensured that the seamen were available where and when they were wanted. The scheme obviated delays to ships, provided for future personnel requirements, and generally regularized the manning of the Merchant Navy.

A similar system of control, combined with a guaranteed minimum wage, had already been introduced in the shipyards. This, also, was associated with the registration and recall of ex-shipyard workers. The principal objects were to prevent the drift of labour and to secure greater interchangeability within the various areas.

The increased U-boat and air offensive of the early parts of 1941 has already been mentioned. Enemy surface raiders also played a larger part in the war. The sinking of the Port Brisbane and Maimoa by a converted merchant ship in the Indian Ocean is referred to in Chapter 134. On January 1 it was announced that 500 survivors of the raiders' victims had been rescued from Emirian Island in the Bismarck Archipelago—part of New Guinea territory. They had been landed on the island on December 21, 1940 (see note, p. 1416). Only then did some of the details become known of sinkings dating as far back as the previous August, of outstanding courage by seamen and passengers in the face of overwhelming opposition, of appalling conditions in a prison ship, and of contrasting courtesy in another disguised German vessel. Reports told of no fewer than 15 merchant ships destroyed by raiders in the Pacific and Indian Oceans. They included the Port Brisbane, Maimoa, the British and Dominion ships, Tarakina, Rangitane, Komata, Trinster, Triadie, Triona, and Holmwood, the Norwegian Tallyrand, Yimi, and Ringwood, and the French ship Notou. At least four had been sunk within two or three days.

The Tarakina, with a single gun in the stern, was attacked on the evening of August 20, 1940. Against vastly superior gun-power, speed and trained naval men, the merchant ship fought for two and a half hours, having wireless news of the action to Australia. Two-thirds of her crew were killed before the unequal fight was abandoned. The survivors were not among those landed at Emirian, and in the prison ships isolated from the other captives. The Rangitane had over 100 passengers on board when, on November 26, again at night, she wirelessed that a suspicious-looking vessel had been sighted. At once the raider opened fire. The wireless was put out of action, but over the emergency wireless the operator calmly proceeded to give the ship's position. The action was quickly over, with the Rangitane badly battered and her bridge blown away. Though it was dark and the ship was on fire, there was not the slightest panic. The passengers and crew might have been going to church parade” was the description “in a hell of a crew” for fear of being discovered by aircraft, the Germans hurried the abandoning. They boarded the British ship and eventually sank her with a torpedo. Later, aeroplanes did appear, but failed to spot the raider. A stewardess, Mrs. Elizabeth Plumber, lacerated by shell splinters, helped and guided her passengers into the boats and refused medical aid until others had been attended. Ten months later it was announced that she, as well as the Rangitane’s cook and deckhand, had been awarded the British Empire Medal for bravery (see illus. p. 1416).

Two of the German vessels had been renamed “Manyo Maru” and “Tokyo Maru,” and flew the Japanese flag. The one was a “hell ship,” with prisoners herded together in the hold without proper food, sometimes no fresh water, and a machine-gun trained on them. In the Manyo Maru cigarettes, books, and playing cards were handed out and other courtesies shown. One of the raiders was reported to be the “Glenarry,” a fast cargo liner building for British owners in Copenhagen at the outbreak of the war and seized by the Germans. She was said to be commanded by Count Felix von Luckner, a notorious sea adventurer of the First Great War. Another vessel, it was reported, was the former Latvian ship Herzog Jakob, seized by Germany in a Mexican port. Undoubtedly some of the raiders were fitting out in Japan and supplied by the Japanese, then “neutral.” The accuracy of the raiders’ information about Allied ships’ movements led to the closing of four Australian commercial broadcasting stations and the setting up of a Commission of Inquiry in New Zealand.

German raiders, warships as well as converted merchant vessels, were also active in the Atlantic. On Christmas Day, 1940, “a powerful enemy surface warship” had unsuccessfully attacked a convoy and escaped with damage. Her supply ship, the steamer Bade, of 8,294 tons, when intercepted, was set on fire by her crew. On February 12, 1941, a convoy of 19 ships was attacked off the Azores. Six ships were known to have been sunk and a further three were reported missing. It was stated that the raider was a German pocket-battleship, but another version was that she was a heavily armed merchant vessel.

In March the Prime Minister disclosed that the battle cruisers “Scharnhorst”
and "Gneisnau" were at large in the Atlantic and had made some captures as far west as mid-Atlantic. One of the victims was the British tanker "San Casimiro," captured by the "Gneisnau" on March 15. A prize crew was put on board. They finished up in Germany, however, but in a British prison camp, for the "San Casimiro" was soon intercepted by a British warship. German communications, nearly always grossly exaggerating, claimed that battleships had sunk 23 ships of 116,000 tons gross, "during a long operation by strong German naval forces."

In another theater, the Indian Ocean, the first Italian raider to be heard of was sunk by the New Zealand cruiser "Leander." The "Ramb I," by name, was a converted banana ship of 3,667 tons and a speed of over 18 knots, and was the first merchant raider of the war reported sunk. Another commerce raider, the German ship "Pingouin," was sunk in the Indian Ocean in May by H.M.S. "Cornwall." Twenty-seven British merchant seamen held as prisoners were rescued. A few days later a further victory by the "Leander" was announced. Together with H.M.A.S. "Canberra," she had intercepted the 7,400-ton German supply ship "Coburg" and a captured Norwegian tanker, the "Ketty Brovig," with a prize crew on board; both ships were sunk.

In anticipation of the United States seizing 66 Axis ships sheltering in American ports, a sabotage campaign aboard these vessels began at the end of March. Armored guards were placed in some of the ships, but in other cases the crews succeeded in wrecking the machinery. Similar action was taken by Axis crews of ships in South American ports. Previously several attempts to run the British blockade had been made. Some of these ships were captured, others were scuttled. Early in March, however, a German ship did succeed in running the blockade—but in the other direction. The cargo vessel "Leach," of 3,290 tons, had an interesting career. She left Hamburg in August, 1939, and took refuge in Vigo. Near the end of 1940 she reached Bordeaux, having discharged her cargo. In February, 1941, she again set sail and arrived at Rio de Janeiro early in March. With some swagger her master gave address on German foreign trade in wartime. (All the propaganda fuss over the arrival of one German cargo ship in South America was an unintended compliment to the efficiency of the British blockade.) Three months later the British Admiralty announced that the "Leach" had been intercepted on her way to France carrying nickel, kines, castor oil, cottonseed cake, men and coffee.

### Campaign of Sabotage

Crews of Axis ships sheltering in American ports feared sequestration by the U.S., which they tried to prevent by willful destruction. To get the damaged pump of the German tanker "Pauline Friedr.," at Boston, Mass. Below, seen off Pantinarena, is the Italian motor vessel "Pabia," set on fire by the crew apparently to prevent seizure by the Costa Rican government.

*Official figures issued in July, 1941; they were probably increased as later information not published became known.
**Formerly commercial vessels (i.e., containing vessels originally built for naval purposes).
PERSPECTIVES ON THE VICHY PUPPET GOVERNMENT

On May 12, 1941, Admiral Darlan had a meeting with Hitler at Berchtesgaden. Shortly afterwards he reported the result to Marshal Pétain and the Ministerial Council, openly declaring himself ready to work for the Nazi cause. Below we reproduce broadcasts by these two men of Vichy, and grave statements by the United States and British Governments on the implications of the Franco-German entente.

MARSHAL PÉTAIN IN A BROADCAST SPEECH, MAY 13, 1941

France, you have learned that Admiral Darlan has been in touch with Hitler in Germany. We have approved in principle the negotiations between France and Germany. The new meeting enables us to illumine the path of the future and to continue the conversations begun with the German Government.

Today there exists a certain feeling of dispatitude based on ill-informed opinions. But this is not the time to discuss our prospects, measure our risks and judge our actions. It is a question of Frenchmen following me, without any mental reservation, on the path of honour and national interest. If in the discipline of our public spirit we can successfully conclude the negotiations now in progress, France will assume her defeat and maintain in the world her position as a world power and her colonial empire.

SPECIAL MESSAGE TO THE FRENCH PEOPLE: OFFICIAL COMMUNIQUE ISSUED IN WASHINGTON, MAY 13, 1941

The Government of the French Republic has been profoundly moved by the events of the past few days in France, which culminated in the speech tonight by Marshal Pétain. High personalities of the United States Government consider that the moment has come for the French people to choose between the friendship of Germany, the aggressor, and the friendship of the United States.

MR. ANTHONY EDEN, BRITISH FOREIGN SECRETARY, IN A STATEMENT IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, MAY 22, 1941

It was announced in Vichy on May 14 that Admiral Darlan's report on his visit to Hitler had been unanimously approved by the Vichy Government and that the effect of these deliberations would shortly be felt. On the following day Marshal Pétain broadcast a short statement in which he declared that the French people must be prepared for their unsparing acceptance of whatever results might come from the negotiations between Admiral Darlan and the German Government. These negotiations have been described in Vichy as opening up a new phase of the war, but with no guarantee of peace. There is no doubt that the Vichy Government in allowing Syria and Morocco to be used by German aircraft is an example.

President Roosevelt has stated clearly his view of this new and sinister development in Vichy policy, and the United States Government have already taken certain preventive action in regard to French shipping in U.S. ports.

In the confusion and anarchy which have been put in Vichy it has been suggested that the policy of collaboration between the Vichy Government and Germany is to be political and economic only, and it has been stated that the Vichy Government have no intention of attacking Great Britain and still less the United States.

These explanations cannot conceal that the Vichy Government have embarked upon a course which must place the resources and territories of France and her Empire increasingly at the disposal of a Power which is the enemy not only of France's ally but of France herself.

The French people will, I.M.G. Government are sure, regard this policy as incompatible with the honour of France. Nor will they believe that the future of France and her Empire will be better served by surrendering them to Hitler's so-called new order than by resolutely maintaining and defending their independence until such time as the victorious Allies shall complete the liberation.

I.M.G. Government must, however, take account of the acts of the Vichy Government. If the Vichy Government, in pursuance of their declared policy of collaboration with the enemy, take action or permit action detrimental to our conduct of the war, or designed to assist the enemy's war effort, we shall naturally hold ourselves free to attack the enemy wherever he may be found, and in doing so shall no longer bound to draw any distinction between occupied and unoccupied territories in the execution of our military plans.

On August 7 last, I.M.G. Government assured General de Gaulle that it was their determination, when victory was won, to secure the full restoration of the independence and greatness of France. It rests with the French people to determine whether they will play their part in assisting those who have continued to fight for the liberation of France, or whether France will henceforward serve in the ranks of Germany's satellites.

ADAM DARLAN, IN A BROADCAST SPEECH TO THE FRENCH PEOPLE, MAY 22, 1941

France, you have already heard your leader. Marshal Pétain, telling you that it is with his approval that I went to see Chancellor Hitler on his invitation, and that the conversations held between the Head of the German Reich and myself have been approved by him and the Government. The Chancellor has not hesitated to deliver the fleet to him. Everyone knows, and the British better than anyone else, that I will hand it over to nobody. The Chancellor did not ask for any colonial territory. He did not ask me to declare war on Great Britain. During the conversations there was never any question of ceding to Germany any part of France. France chooses freely the path she wishes to follow. She alone decides her present and her future. She will have only the peace which she will have made herself.

I tremble, what some people seem to forget, that France has suffered the greatest defeat in her history that three-fifths of her home territory have been occupied; that we have 6,000,000 of our men held prisoners. This defeat is due to our past faults. From 1919 to 1939 our Government and officials let errors accumulate and were led into looking after interests which did not concern us, to the detriment of our own. At home they allowed the spirit of the nation to be sapped. They legalized indolence and despair. Abroad they carried out their current policy. They constituted themselves the protectors of small European Powers without being capable of producing the arms necessary for the accomplishment of this mission.

Although they decided to help everybody, which would have required a powerful and well-equipped army. They were not able to prepare for war either morally or materially. Yet our Government declared war.

We lost this war by the failure of those who led us into it, and it was because of an indescribable dilletante, which is a terrible memory for many of you, of the failure of our former allies, and of the failure of a Government which wanted to continue fighting after we had become unable to do so, and which then only thought of flight, that the Marshal was called upon to take over the destiny of the country and ask for an honourable armistice.

In June 1940, the victors could have refused an armistice: they could have crushed us, and obliterated France from the face of the world. This did not happen. In May 1941, the victor accepted negotiations with the French Government. Since the interview at Montoire, during which the principle of cooperation was decided upon, France has marked by her actions her willingness to follow this policy. These actions led the Chamber to the consequences of defeat.

Listen closely to these words: the future of France depends largely on the issue of the negotiations. France had to choose between life and death. The Marshal and the Government have chosen life. Our duty is clear. Help the Marshal. Help him with all your strength, so I am helping him, in the task of national reconstruction. Just as he and I, do the higher interests of France guide you in your thoughts and deeds.
Chapter 175

FRANCE UNDER THE MEN OF VICHY

Events in France up to the end of 1940 are described in Chapter 133, and for the most part the present Chapter carries on the narrative up to the middle of the year 1941. But it is useful to include here also a general account of matters political and economic over the entire period of roughly a year after the Armistice of June 22, 1940.

The Armistice terms (see pages 1018-19) divided France into two regions—the Occupied region, including Paris, and the Unoccupied territory, in which the Vichy Government retained to some degree the control of affairs.

Occupied France was dismembered: Alsace-Lorraine was annexed outright and incorporated in the Reich; the Occupied territories to the north of the Somme (the richest French Departments) were isolated and attached, for administrative purposes, to the German army at Brussels; in a word, Flanders, Picardy, and ancient Lotharingia were torn from France. Access to these zones was forbidden except by special permission. Another zone into which entrance was forbidden was that towards the east, including part of Bourgogne and the Franche-Comté. Other parts of Occupied Territory were administered from Paris. A war zone was set up along the coast, and manned by German troops, as part of Hitler's "West Wall of Europe's Defence" against Britain, as he liked to call it.

Hitler's act in permitting one part—albeit the smaller one—of France to remain under some sort of French Government was purely a matter of expediency. The Subtle Motives of the complete military occupation of France would have tied up German forces in France to an extent which would have depleted too seriously the man-power needed for other war fronts. An attempt at complete occupation might have rallied French opposition, and there was the risk that the French Colonial Empire and the French Fleet—neither of which Hitler was in the position to obtain by force—would resume the war alongside Britain and the Free French. Further, it would have been easier to govern through French quislings and collaborationists than by direct German administration. Finally, Hitler, with his uncanny gift for exploiting the worst in human nature, was convinced that by playing on the mingled ambitions and fears of the Vichy clique he could get more real aid from France against Britain than if he attempted to impose cooperation.

Germany imposed tremendous occupation costs on France, and retained millions of French prisoners of war. Hitler used these prisoners as bargaining counters. From time to time he would offer to release a certain number in exchange for more active collaboration from Vichy, and this was to prove one of the most effective forms of pressure on the Pétain Government. But whatever Vichy was expected to do in respect of such bargains the actual number of prisoners to be released was always inconsiderable. The social and economic results of this impounding of so many Frenchmen in the prime of life were far reaching.

Occupied France was immediately set to work on behalf of the German war-machine. At the same time various notorious French quislings, like the defeatist Betz and the Communist-turned-Fascist Doriot, together with the hired quisling press in Paris, were used as a perpetual threat to the Vichy Government. The "Men of Vichy" were given to understand that if they did not fall in with Nazi plans the Germans might at any moment take over the whole of France and place it under the rule of the Paris quislings, whose philo-Nazism and pro-Germanism went much further than that of even the most ardent Vichy collaborationists.

It soon became apparent that Italy was not to be allowed to play much of the victor's role. For that stab in the back of France, which Mussolini had calculated would bring Italy territorial aggrandizement in Nice, Corsica, and Tunisia, turned out to be a disappointment. Hitler had no intention of handing over slices of French territory obtained by a German victory to which Italy had made no substantial contribution. And so Italy's claims were left open, to be dealt with according to expediency in the future. The Italians had to content themselves with being members of the various armistice commissions in France and the French colonial possessions, although as time went on the importance of these missions decreased. The Germans, using their usual technique of infiltration, were able

HOW THE ENEMY GUARDED THE CHANNEL COAST

Apart from heavy anti-aircraft batteries at important points the Germans installed machine-guns in pits along the coastline to deal with low-flying British aircraft which were daily carrying out sweeps over the Channel and enemy-occupied France.

Photo, Associated Press
VICHY’S COMMANDER IN FRENCH NORTH AFRICA

General Maximin Weygand was included in Pétain’s Cabinet of July 14, 1940, but early in September was succeeded as War Minister by General Huntziger. Weygand was dispatched to North Africa, where a strong anti-Axis feeling was developing. Above is seen with Tunisian Legionnaires (June, 1941).

The Republic was blamed for all the shortcomings which had led to France’s military defeat; thus ignoring entirely the fact that many of the Men of Vichy, including the Marshal himself, had had their share of responsibility for defeat. Members of the former Republican Governments were to be put on trial for war responsibility in Riom, at the instance of Hitler. The actual trial did not open until Feb. 19, 1942, and then it had to be suppressed because, instead of becoming an indictment of the Republic for war responsibility, the proceedings became an indictment both of Germany and of Vichy.

In the sphere of local government: the Vichy Government suppressed the departmental and communal and municipal assemblies, where the French tradition of local responsibility was likely to persist. At the same time Vichy dismissed large numbers of primary school teachers, and closed the primary teaching colleges, where such teachers had been trained, the reason being the dominance of Left political opinions in the teaching profession. Similarly, on August 24, 1940, Vichy closed all ex-service men’s associations, and substituted their own Légion Française des Combattants.

On October 28, 1940, Laval succeeded in ousting Badouin as Foreign Minister. Badouin remained for a time as a Minister of State, and subsequently resigned. Four days earlier Pétain, accompanied by Laval, met Hitler and Ribbentrop at Montoire. The main lines of “collaboration” were agreed upon, and this policy was known

eventually to obtain a grip on French colonial territories—none the less real because its operation was hidden behind the facade of “experts” assisting the armistice commissions.

On July 3, 1940, during the very early days of Vichy, there had taken place the British naval operation at Oran (see Chapter 105).

Vichy Policy of “Attentisme”

Admiral Darlan afterwards never lost an opportunity of using the Oran episode as material for his violent anti-British propaganda. In the meantime the Vichy Administration was beginning its strange career of “latecomers” — wait and see — in regard to foreign policy, and repression and para-Fascism in internal policy. On July 14, 1940, a new Cabinet was formed at Vichy which included the following: Marshal Pétain, Admiral Darlan, M. Badouin, General Weygand, M. Laval, M. Caissac, M. Alibert, M. Marquet, M. Bouthillier, M. Mireau, M. Yarnégnay, M. Lémery, General Pojo, and General Colonie.

Laval and Badouin were two of the most assiduous workers for defeatism and capitulation, even before the fall of the Reynaud Government. Badouin had been introduced into the Reynaud Cabinet on the recommendation of Reynaud’s defeated woman friend, the Countess of Perrier. He was generally regarded as “Mussolini’s man” Laval, who in former years had been pro-Italian, now reappeared on the scene as “Hitler’s man.” Even before the collapse of his country Laval had been intriguing to bring about a Government, such as that of Vichy, which would accept defeat and agree to collaborate with the Germans in Hitler’s “New European Order.” Consequently both these men had places found for them in the Pétain administration. This was followed by another Cabinet reorganization on September 6 in which Laval and Darlan strengthened their grip on the administration and policy (see Chapter 133).

In internal policy Vichy lost no time in putting into effect constitutional changes designed to implement Pétain’s “National Revolution.” Actually this was not a revolution, but the imposition of a regime which was a mixture of clerical reaction, Fascism and paternalism, with certain imitations of National-Socialism grafted on to it. Pétain and his colleagues saw in France’s débâcle the chance to carry out their designs to suppress democracy, to abolish the Republic, and to put in its place a quasi-dictatorship under the cloak of “national regeneration” and “salvation through penance.” The wealthy upper middle class supported this policy of Pétain, partly because it feared that a British victory would bring the Socialist Popular Front once more to power in France. In order to emphasize the passing of Parliamentarianism all members of the two Houses of Parliament were forbidden to reside in Vichy, and were sent to the mountain spa of Montoire.

CHIEF OF THE FRENCH STATE

The new French five-franc piece bore the head of Marshal Pétain and the inscription proclaimed him to be Head of the State—a dignity which the Marshal had assumed on July 21, 1940, after calling for the resignation of Léon Blum, last President of the Third Republic.
AMERICAN AID FOR BRITAIN IN BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

The shortage of escort vessels for convoys was made up in some degree by the fifty American destroyers transferred to Britain, all of which had reached British ports by January 1941. Below, one of them is seen in mid-Atlantic later in the year on convoy duty, photographed from a corvette. Top, aircraft from the U.S.A. on board a cargo vessel nearing our shores.

Photos: J. Hall
FRENCH COLONIAL SOLDIERS WHO LEFT SYRIA TO FIGHT

After the fall of France the Italians sent a commission to Syria to enforce disarmament and the reduction of the garrison. Deep feeling was aroused, for many patriotic Frenchmen sympathized with the Allies, and in larger and smaller groups they left the country. This French Colonial Infantry risked invasion from Germany and Italy, and in the autumn of 1940 made its way over the frontier into Palestine.

UNDER THE BANNER OF FREE FRANCE WITH THE ALLIES

Three it was organized as a section of the Free French Army (later the Fighting French) and trained for the day of rehabilitation. In June, 1941—almost a year after the collapse of France—there came the call to take a hand in the invasion of Syria and the overrunning of that territory from the Nertah and the rear of Vichy. A few months later Syria became a main training ground of the Free French Army and Air Service.
SPAHIS WHO JOINED THE ARMY OF GENERAL DE GAULLE

Among French Colonial troops who came over to the Allies were units of the picturesque native cavalry known as Spahis, recruited in Algeria and Tunisia. In desert warfare they had no equal, and when conditions were favourable they played a highly important part in the East African and Syrian campaigns. The detachment here seen were photographed in the Sudan.

Photo. British Official: Crown Copyright

1774
thereafter as the "Montoire" policy. It was then that Pétain and Laval agreed to give Germany the use of French factories for armaments.

On December 13 Pétain discovered a "palace intrigue" on the part of Laval, who was summarily dismissed and replaced at the Foreign Ministry by Flandin. Alarmed by this show of independence, the Nazis demanded the reinstatement of Laval, but this was not to take place until much later, in April 1942. However, there was a "reconciliation" between Pétain and Laval after a meeting at La Porte on January 19, 1941. Laval, for a while went "underground," and spent his time intriguing with Abert in Paris, an intrigue which was to lead more than a year later to Laval being appointed Premier. During this period of Laval's eclipse Darlan rose to the highest position in Vichy after Pétain.

On February 9, 1941, the admiral succeeded Flandin as Foreign Minister, and he also became Vice-Premier. Next day Pétain signed a constitutional act nominating Darlan as his eventual successor as Head of the State. On February 14 Darlan took over the Ministry of the Interior, and eleven days later he formed a new Cabinet. On July 18 he relinquished the portfolio of the Interior to Puechoux, and Benoist-Méchin was appointed Secretary-General to Darlan's office.

The Vichy Government, while under the direction of Pétain and Darlan, never had a clear-cut policy. Albert wanted to restore the monarchy in France; Randonin worked for a Latin alliance, including Spain and Italy; in the apparent hope that it would prove strong enough to counter even a victorious Germany; Puechoux and Benoist-Méchin favoured the most active collaboration with Nazi Germany, as did Marcel Déat. As the full significance of Vichy's policy became plain, resignations from Pétain's National Council became frequent, among them those of André Siegfried and Cardinal Suchard.

While Laval was out of favour the Admiral conducted a policy which became more and more "collaborationist" and correspondingly more and more anti-British. He became the real ruler of France, and the Marshal, although his titular chief, did little more than countenance Darlan's decisions. On August 12, 1941, Pétain in a broadcast announced the conferment of widely extended powers on Darlan. The same day an official decree was issued appointing Darlan Minister of National Defence—which placed the Admiral in the position to give orders to Weygand in Africa—and concurrently

HITLER AND HIS DEPUTY IN THE FRENCH CAPITAL

Top, in Paris Hitler looks towards the Eiffel Tower; the capture of France was a major object of his plan for the enslavement of Europe. Below, Goering leaves the Ritz Hotel, where high Nazi officials in or visiting Paris were housed. Created Hitler's deputy, Goering was appointed Reich-Marshal of Greater Germany in 1939.

Photos, Keystone, "March of Time"
he received a seventh star of his naval rank, which gave him the highest possible position in the French Navy.

On May 12, 1941, Darlan had visited Hitler at Berchtesgaden, and at the end of the month he made a speech violently attacking Britain. Darlan agreed that Hitler should have the use of Syrian aerodromes for the purpose of intervention by the Luftwaffe on behalf of the Italian rebels. General Hountziger, the Vichy War Minister, had misgivings, as had also General Bérenger, the Vichy High Commissioner in Syria. Darlan, however, had his way and the Syrian aerodromes were eventually placed at the disposal of the Germans. During all this period he was a frequent visitor to Paris, where he maintained contacts with Abetz. He went as near to active combat with Britain as he dared without involving the risk of real war. He brought about intensive economic cooperation with Germany, and so close did this cooperation become that it seemed at the time that Darlan’s France was likely to prove more useful to Hitler than was Mussolini’s Italy.

The financing of conquered France during 1940 and 1941 proved simpler than might have been expected. During 1941 the Vichy Government spent 113 milliards of francs, 68 milliards being raised by taxation, while 65 milliards represented a deficit. In addition, 146 milliards a year were paid to the German army of occupation. The total deficit in 1941 thus exceeded 200 milliards. A few French business men who were helping the German war effort profited, but the rest were being steadily deprived of their material wealth, in exchange for what would eventually be worthless paper francs. There was paper money in plenty, but, all the time, the material assets were being sucked up by Germany and industry was being slowly strangled by the lack of raw material and the lack of man power. Many factories in Occupied France closed, and at one time a million unemployed were registered at the labour exchange, two-thirds being in the Paris region. So much food was taken to Germany that millions of French people suffered semi-starvation.

A number of grandiose schemes were put out by the Germans from time to time as bait for further French collaboration. France was promised a leading position in Hitler’s New Europe, and Darlan saw himself possibly holding the position of Lord High Admiral of the “European” navies of the Axis.
GRIM EVIDENCE FROM OCCUPIED FRANCE

Under the street name "Adolf Hitler Strasse" is a notice board with beside it a number of posters. "Don't Forget Oran!" reads one; underneath is another: "With your Scrap Iron we will make Steel for Victory." alongside is a bill for the "Low against Drunkenness," and below it a tragic German announcement that one Marcel Grosier has been executed for sabotage. Below left, letter received by a Frenchman in Britain from a relative in Occupied France through the International Red Cross. Right, stick-out bill posted surreptitiously on wall, etc., in Occupied France; it reads: "String up the traitors: Laval, Darlan, Deat, Frot, Marquet, and all the rest of the sinister Vichy gang."

Au poteau les traîtres:

LAVAL, DARLAN, DEAT, FROT, MARQUET et TOUS AUTRES de la bande sinistre de Vichy.

Ces traîtres n'ont pas qualité pour parler au nom de la France car ce ne sont que de misérables gredins qui touchent de l'Allemagne le prix de leur honteuse trahison.

VIVE LA FRANCE!
Various other schemes were canvassed at the time, including one for a Latin bloc to be composed of France, Italy and Spain. This "Catholic" and "Mediterranean" idea seemed to appeal to Pétain, who held conversations with General Franco and Serrano Suñer. But nothing was to come of it. Germany was the real master, and Hitler throughout held one trump card—that of the millions of French prisoners of war. Vichy was compelled more and more to conform to Nazi orders, but without gaining any substantial relief. Either as regards the huge quotas of goods she was compelled to send to Germany, the reduction of the occupation costs, or the release of prisoners.

The picture in Occupied France was altogether different. Here were to be found most of the people who were anti-German and pro-British, on the one hand, and the small gang of Fascist quislings in Paris. As early as February 2, 1941, these quislings constituted a party on the German Nazi model known as the "Rassemblement National Populaire." Its leaders included Déat and Fontenoy, but the real patron was Lavall. This group and its hired press were used by the Germans and by Lavall to bring pressure to bear on Vichy. They provided the material for a constant threat to form a National Socialist Government in Paris.

The inhabitants of Occupied France began underground movements of resistance to the German occupation, movements which later began springing up also in the Unoccupied territory. A patriotic Peas made its appearance—printed, distributed and read clandestinely. Active sabotage of the German machine began: trains and power stations and arms factories were blown up; Nazi officers and officials were assassinated. For these acts of revolt the Germans took savage reprisals, instituting the method of shooting batches of hostages for the death of one German. Pétain from time to time made feeble appeals against the sabotage and the assassinations, but all to no purpose. The Germans and their French hirelings tried to explain away those acts of patriotic resistance by attributing them to "Jews and Communists," but nobody was deceived by this trick.

People in Occupied France came to the point of resistance sooner than those in the Unoccupied region. They saw the requisitioning of foodstuffs for the Germans while French people had to go without. They saw members
of their families taken off to forced labour in Germany. They experienced
the physical presence of the German soldiers, and felt the machinations of
the Gestapo. French people who suffered as the result of the British
air raids on Occupied France welcomed the R.A.F. as they came over, lit
flares to guide them, and put flowers on the graves of dead British pilots.
Germany turned Occupied France into a great factory for the German war
machine, but she also stirred up there a veritable hornet's nest of resistance.

Such resistance came from various quarters—from the Communists, from
sympathizers with de Gaulle, and also
What Ordinary
Frenchmen
Thought
tradition and, to the anti-Bolshevik
"crusade." But the mainstay of resist-
ance was neither of the Extreme Right
nor the Extreme Left. Rather it was
to be found amongst ordinary French-
men—the "little men"—the peasant,
the trade union worker, and the like.

Faced with the growing resistance of
the French people, and with increasing
pressure by Germany, Vichy then
effort to kill two birds with one stone:
i.e., to please the Germans by
some hostile act against the British,
and to pose as guardian of French
honour. This twofold aim was at-
tempted by agreeing to play the German
game in regard to Syria. (See Chapter
166.) Vichy, which had already ordered
the High Commissioner in Syria, General
Dentz, to place Syrian aerodromes at
the disposal of the Germans for
the Rashid Ali revolt in Iraq (see
Chapter 165), permitted Syria to come
almost completely under German
control. General Dentz was instructed to
meet practically all German demands.

Tunis followed the campaign in Syria,
conducted by the British in concert
with the Free French. It ended on
July 14, 1941, in the triumph of the
Allies, a success which frustrated Hitler's
plan to make Syria a base for a great
attack on the British in the Middle East,
and also resulted in Syria and Lebanon
being granted independence.

Thus a year of French subjugation
to Germany and her French hirelings
ended with the beginnings of a revival
of French resistance, and with a
substantial loss of face on the part of
those Men of Vichy who had forecast
too facilely and inaccurately the future
course of the war. The people of
France had begun to recover from the
numbing and paralyzing effect of the
great catastrophe, and were taking
heart anew.
Chapter 176

STORY OF FREE AND FIGHTING FRANCE
UP TO END OF 1941


The Free French movement—or Fighting France, as its leader, General De Gaulle, now prefers to call it—was founded in London at the time of the capitulation of the French Government at Bordeaux. De Gaulle, an expert in mechanized warfare whose ideas had been taken up and put to use by the German, but not by the French, General Staff, tried as a member of M. Reynaud’s Government to secure that France, beaten at home, should continue the fight from Africa. When the French defeatists won the day, the General came to London and, in agreement with Mr. Winston Churchill, inaugurated the Free French movement.

On June 18, 1940, General De Gaulle’s voice was first heard over the British wireless calling upon Frenchmen to continue resistance. On July 1 Admiral Muselier, who had joined De Gaulle, issued an Order of the Day establishing a Free French Naval and Air Force.

Frenchmen who had been saved from capture after Dunkirk and brought to this country joined the Free French Army in Britain. During the later months of 1940 events moved quickly, and Frenchmen in different parts of the French Empire all over the world rallied to the Free French cause.

On August 7, 1940, General De Gaulle concluded an agreement with the British Government by which the latter recognized him as the leader of the Free French Forces. The adherence of different French Colonial territories followed with increased momentum. Already on July 20 the New Hebrides had rallied to Free France. On August 26 the important territory of Chad, in Africa, did likewise; to be followed next day by the Camerons, and the day after that by French Equatorial Africa. The adherence of these three territories meant the constitution of a pro-Allied bloc of territories stretching right across Africa. It was a factor of great importance to Britain, especially while she was fighting the Italians in East Africa. On September 2 French establishments in the Pacific came over to De Gaulle, to be followed on September 9 by establishments in India (Pondicherry). The next day New Caledonia declared in favor of Free France.

In London on October 27 a declaration was made in regard to the Free French war effort, and a Free French Council of Defence of the Empire was established. As time went on De Gaulle was joined by many distinguished Frenchmen. Amongst famous military names were General Catroux and General Legentilhomme.

On September 23, 1940, there was the abortive Dakar incident. Dakar was in danger of being turned into an Axis base for Atlantic raiding, with the connivance of the Vichy authorities. Called to Dakar by numerous patriotic Frenchmen there anxious to continue the fight, General De Gaulle led a Free French expedition, supported by British Naval units, in the hope of effecting a peaceful landing. But Vichy had infiltrated defeated into the administration, and the De Gaulists were fired upon when they attempted to land. Not wishing that Frenchmen should shed the blood of Frenchmen, De Gaulle withdrew the expedition.

With the opening of 1941 Free French troops were fighting alongside the British in Africa. They took part in the capture of Bardia, in General Wavell’s Libyan campaign against the Italians. By March Free French troops were taking an active part in our Abyssinian and East African campaigns. On April 9 they entered Massawa. Between June 8 and July 14 Free French troops collaborated with the British in the campaign in Syria, under Generals Catroux and Legentilhomme. Meanwhile, on May 20 a commercial agreement had been entered into between Britain and French Equatorial Africa.

The foregoing account gives briefly the main events in the progress of the
FREE FRENCH IN SYRIAN AND LIBYAN CAMPAIGNS

Top, tanks of de Gaulle’s forces marshalling on the Palestinian border for the advance into Syria in June 1941. Below, centre, General Lamartine (High Commissioner for the Free French in Africa) inspecting Marines taking part in the Syrian campaign.

The Italian flag shown below, left, was taken when the south Libyan oasis of Kufra was captured by a Free French motorized column under Colonel Leclerc on March 1, 1941, after a siege lasting 22 days. The column had crossed the desert from Lake Chad, a journey of 600 miles. Right, the graves of four soldiers of the 1st Division of the Free French Forces who fell at Tobruk in January, 1941.
The Free French played a small but important role in both Kreta and Abyssinia, cooperating notably in the capture of Keren, Massawa, and (in November, 1941) of Gondar. The Syrian campaign was painful for the Free French because it involved fighting against compatriots most of whom were actuated by a sense of discipline or had been misled by German propaganda. Subsequently over 5,000 officers and men of the Vichy French—who had been waiting for this opportunity to resume the fight alongside the Allies—joined the Free French Forces.

The Free French Air Force was commanded by General Valin. It operated mainly in Great Britain at this period, though formations took a share in the fight against the Axis in the Middle East. Though there were comparatively few Free French pilots nevertheless scored over fifty official and thirty "probable" victories, and sank 40 enemy ships. Pilots and mechanics flew in some of the most famous British squadrons. The first Free French Fighter squadron in Britain ("Ile de France" Squadron) assumed operational responsibilities in a vital industrial area of Scotland.

In Free French Africa the Air Force maintained constant patrol activity and kept a very sharp eye open for any Axis move which might indicate a sweep on the Colonies which had rallied to De Gaulle. Free French airmen took no part in the Syrian campaign, in order to avoid individual combat between

Free French movement during the first year. In other Chapters the achievements of Fighting French units have been recorded from time to time, and in the following pages a summary of the work of all Services is given.

Great Britain became the headquarters and central depot of the Fighting French, where new recruits were equipped and whence they were posted to formations in different parts of the world. Most of the Free French fighting men were in the Middle East and in Free French Africa. With General Wavell on his advance from the Egyptian frontier to Benghazi were Free French detachments which distinguished themselves at Sidi Barrani, Sollum, Bardia, Tobruk and Soluk. At the same time Free French units operating from the outposts of Northern Chad struck at Italian communications in two audacious raids over hundreds of miles of desert to Kufra and Murzik. Besides aiding the Libyan offensive this move contributed to the success of the British East African campaign, as much as the Italians were prevented from sending reinforcements into Abyssinia.
compatriots. After the Armistice at Ace, Syria became a training ground for Free French air units, and there later emerged two squadrons destined to assume an active operational role. Though this belongs to a later Chapter, we may note that one of them, the "Lorraine" Squadron, did splendid work in the Libyan offensive of November, 1941, and up to the capture of Halfaya took an almost daily part in operations in the Western Desert. The second air unit trained in Syria was the "Alsace" Fighter Squadron.

The Free French Navy included about 50 warships, manned by 6,000 officers and ratings. Many were engaged on work which was secret, but the following ships have been mentioned in communications: the battleship "Courbet" brought down several German bombers; the submarine "Bube" sank a high tonnage of enemy shipping; the submarine "Minerve" had numerous adventures in the course of patrols along enemy sea-lanes, and sank a heavily laden and strongly escorted German tanker; the corvette "Roselys" while on escort duty in the Atlantic encountered and rammed an enemy submarine.

The Free French merchant fleet made a substantial contribution to the

of the Armistice. The biggest ships were "Ile de France" (65,000 tons) and the newly built liner "Pasteur" (30,000 tons). Roughly, 100,000 tons of cargo for the supply of the Allies were transported monthly by Free French ships.

In view of their economic importance to the Allies and the strategic significance they later assumed, some detail will now be given of the Free French colonial territories. Free French Africa stretches from the mouth of the Congo to the southern confines of the Libyan Desert, and covers an area about 15 times as big as England, with a population of 6,000,000. The strategic importance of this territory is considerable. It protects on the west some 700 miles of South Atlantic sea routes, and on the east guards the flanks of the Belgian Congo, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and the sources of the Nile. Its offensive value is notable, for Chad is a perfect jumping-off ground for raids into southern Libya or even for penetration into Tripolitania.

The territory permitted uninterrupted aerial and land communications from west to east Africa. Material coming across the Atlantic could be flown or transported on the ground either from Pointe Noire northwards or from Nigeria to Cairo via the Chad and Khartoum. The economic value to the Allied effort was substantial, for rubber,
AT BRAZZAVILLE DE GAULLE CELEBRATES ANNIVERSARIES

On August 29, 1941, anniversary of the founding of the Free French Empire, General De Gaulle inspected new armoured cars (top) manufactured in South Africa. A year previously the colonies of Chad, the Cameroun, the Gaboon, Ubangi-Shari and the Middle Congo had proclaimed allegiance to Free France under De Gaulle. Larger photograph shows the General (left foreground) with General Lattinres saluting British and Belgian flags at Brazzaville on Bastille Day, July 14. Behind, in white uniform, is M. Eboe, Governor General.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright: Q.P.D.P.

The former French mandated territories of Syria and Lebanon were granted their independence at the close of the brief campaign of 1921. Free French administration was centred in Beirut and Damascus. Syria served as training-ground for part of the Free French Forces, and would assume the utmost importance in the event of the Allies having to ward off an Axis drive into either Turkey or the Caucasus.

Free French colonies in the Pacific (governed by Rear-Admiral Georges Thierry d'Argenlieu) include New Caledonia, the Franco-British condominium of the New Hebrides, and about a hundred South Sea islands, the best known being Tahiti. The strategic role of these possessions in the Far Eastern conflict is twofold.

New Caledonia and the New Hebrides are natural outposts in Australia's defence scheme. Further, these islands provide valuable naval and aerial links in the sphere of Allied cooperation determined by the triangle Port Darwin-Honolulu-Panama.

There are certain auxiliary organizations which should be mentioned. The Volontaires Francaises, or Free French A.T.S., are commanded by Captain Terre, an energetic young Parisienne who was awarded the Croix de Guerre for her services in France with an ambulance unit; she succeeded Madame Machiu, the international tennis star. The Service de la Main d'Oeuvre places French specialized workers in jobs. Numbers of them were employed on war work in this country, notably in Lancashire and in London.

In any estimate of the Free French movement it is necessary to remember that the strength and vitality of the cause are centred not in Britain, nor in any theatre of war, but in France. Here General De Gaulle has a loyal following which inspires a large percentage of the population to passive or active resistance to the oppressors. Of course very little can be said about the activities of Free French partisans—in France or even in the German factories to which many workmen had been sent. But it would be a mistake to judge the value or success of the Fighting French movement by the visible and material results alone. We must take into account also the inestimable contribution to victory which proceeded from the spiritual effect of the movement; it provided a focus for the patriotism of millions of French men and women who looked beyond Vichy for the future of France. It inspired the oppressed to fortitude and endurance, and endowed them with that fine spirit that made people in target areas welcome the British raids on French factories working for the German war machine.
NEW COLLABORATION OF THE FREE PEOPLES

On June 12, 1941, Ministers and High Commissioners representing the Governments of the Allies met in conference in London and pledged themselves to mutual assistance in continuing the struggle against Nazi aggression until victory is won. Mr. Churchill opened the meeting with a fighting speech, most of which is reproduced below.

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AIR FORCE OF FREE NORWAY

The Norwegian Air Force reconstituted in Britain was in charge of Captain H. Riiser-Larsen (seated above, with Major Bjørn O. Enøen). Squadrons operated with the R.A.F., and on anti-submarine patrol flew Northrop N-3 seaplanes (top, left). Other units served in Iceland.

Photos, by courtesy of Royal Norwegian Government.

NORWAY'S MERCHANT NAVY

Largely owing to the exertions of Mr. Trygve H. Lie (right), later Minister of Supply, the tonnage of Norway's merchant ships came over to the Allies. Thus a tonnage of about 4,000,000 became available for the fight against Hitlerism. A most valuable accession was the fleet of tankers (one seen on right discharging at a British port). Above, left, Norwegian seamen on the deck of a British warship which rescued them after their ship had been sunk by a U-boat.

Photos: Keystone, topical, Planet News
Chapter 177

INCREASING BRUTALITY OF NAZI RULE IN NORWAY, HOLLAND & BELGIUM


As the year 1941 opened Germany made new and more ambitious attempts to increase her grip upon Norway, Holland and Belgium. All these formed part of a larger German plan, and linked up with oppressive measures in Occupied France. Germany's main aim was to consolidate her rule in Europe, from Norway to the Franco-Spanish frontier, in order to organize— as she herself put it—the defense of "Europe" against Britain. In a word, the Germans were anxious to secure the western section of Occupied Europe preparatory to embarking upon military adventures in south-eastern Europe and Russia.

The first half of 1941 was a period of intensive organization and repressive activity in Norway, Holland and Belgium. At the same time there was a steady growth of patriotic resistance on the part of the great majority against their oppressors. During this period, too, the contribution to the war on the side of Britain by the Free Norwegian, Dutch and Belgian Governments became greater and more impressive.

German and Quislingist activities in Norway took various forms. In the first place a big effort was made to increase the strength of the "Hird" or storm-troopers of the Nasjonal Samling, Quisling's imitation Nazi party—but the effort failed. In spite of the various privileges and inducements offered recruiting was poor, so that by February 1941 the strength of the Hird was still only some 1,500 members. Most of the new recruits were members of the criminal classes. They were used for propaganda marches, party demonstrations and punitive expeditions against loyal Norwegians—particularly against the schools.

Attempts were also made to bring Norway actively into the war against Britain. On January 12, 1941, Quisling announced that Germany's war against England was also Norway's war, and Hitler had shown his "magnanimity" by consenting to the formation of a "Nordland" Regiment. Norway was to regain her weapons and her military honour, and Norwegian volunteers would get an opportunity to fight shoulder to shoulder with their German comrades for the New Order in Europe. Quisling had counted on recruiting 3,000 young Norwegians, but to the obvious disappointment of the Quisling Press only a few hundred joined, although recruits were promised preference in all public positions after their time of service, together with German as well as Norwegian citizenship and a gift of farms of from fifty to seventy-five acres. On January 30 the first volunteer took the oath before the Gestapo Chief, Heinrich Himmler, who was then on a visit to Oslo.

When Himmler visited Norway again in May 1941, it was not to inspect the Nordland Regiment but to start a Norwegian detachment of volunteers for the Storm Troopers. They were not to go abroad, but were to help the German S.S. in its tasks in Norway. They were given the German title of "Sturmmänner" and wore German uniforms with a skull and the N.S. (Nasjonal Samling) sun-cross. Himmler made them take the oath to "Adolf Hitler, Leader of the Germans," and to Quisling. Acting-Councillor Jonas Lie was made leader.

On June 29, 1941, one week after the German attacked Russia, the Reich Commissioner, Torbøe, announced that Hitler had consented to the immediate formation of a Norwegian Legion to join the anti-Bolshevik "crusade." This was to be exclusively Norwegian, with Norwegian officers.

A tremendous propaganda campaign was instituted, but with little result. The N.S. leaders had hoped for at least 10,000 Norwegian volunteers, but only 1,000 joined and these were mostly Hirdmen who had been ordered to do so. Two months later a first detachment of 700 men, the Viking Battalion, was sent to a training camp in Germany. After several changes of staff the

QUISLINGISM MADE NO HEADWAY IN NORWAY

As this Chapter relates, the "Nasjonal Samling" or Quisling Party had few adherents, despite alternate castrility and threats by the Nazis. Here, an open-covered shelter, someone has accursed sentiments that many felt: "To Hell with the N.S." Copies of similar photographs circulated freely in Norway among the loyalist majority of the people.

Photo, Planet News
Attempts to Nazify the Fishermen's Organization were rejected by the fishermen. Similar attempts upon the Labour unions were also unsuccessful because of the determined opposition of the Norwegian T.U.C.

On May 23 Norwegian actors called a general strike in sympathy with six members of the Actors' Association who

NORWEGIANS HONOUR R.A.F.
Hundreds of Norwegians went to the funeral (top) of three British airmen shot down during a raid on the island of Austevoll, near Bergen. To another grave, that of an 'Unknown British Pilot' (below, right), went a procession of schoolchildren on Norway's Independence Day (May 77); the grave was heaped with flowers.

Photos, British official; Crown Copyright, Associated Press

leadership was taken over by the German S.S. Three-quarters of the strength of the Norwegian Legion came from the S.S., the Hird or the S.S.

German and Quisling attempts to drag down the Church, the schools and the artistic professions were made on a determined scale, but encountered strong resistance. In February the Bishops issued a pastoral letter condemning Nazi attacks on Christianity, and in spite of the ban of the authorities this letter was published through secret channels and read widely.

On February 17 a new law was introduced whereby applications for posts in the Civil Service were to be subject to political allegiance. This called forth a protest signed by 43 organizations.

S. J. McConnell

HOW NORWEGIANS EXPRESSED PATRIOTISM
The Quisling government introduced currency notes for quite low amounts, since Nazi requisitions had brought about a shortage of metal. Norwegians named the 2-krones notes (above) 'Quislings,' and the 1-krones notes 'Uslungs' (cowardly traitors). The comments read: 'To Hell with Quisling'; 'Long Live Norway.'

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

Schools were broken into by Hirdmen because of Nazi anger at the anti-German and anti-Quisling attitudes of both teachers and pupils. In consequence, there were school strikes at Oslo, Bergen, and elsewhere. During April Hirdmen broke into hospitals and arrested the celebrated Dr. Gjessing, because of his protests against attempts to politicize the medical profession. He had been disqualified for life because of refusal to participate in German broadcasts; and on June 26 four directors of the Oslo National Theatre were arrested for refusing to apply to the Quisling Ministry of Culture and Enlightenment for a lecture.

In the meantime King Haakon and the Free Norwegian Government in London became the rallying point of loyal Norwegians all over the world. On April 9, first anniversary of the German invasion of Norway, the King had broadcast from London to the people on the Norwegian Home Front. The Norwegian Government in London signed a military pact with the British Government on May 28. Norwegian forces were cooperating with the British forces. A small but efficient army was trained in Scotland. Detachments of it had taken part in the British
commando raids on Norway. The Norwegian Air Force was reconstituted in Britain; squadrons operated as part of the R.A.F., and also served in Iceland. Units of the Norwegian Navy took station with the British Navy.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of Free Norway to the Allied cause was in merchant shipping. The Norwegian Merchant Navy did yeoman service throughout the period under review and later, despite heavy losses, in the Battle of the Atlantic, bringing supplies of oil and food and munitions of war to Britain. In 1939 this merchant fleet had a registered tonnage of 4,384,902; five-sixths of it came under the control of the Norwegian Government in London. Second only to the British Mercantile Marine in magnitude, it had an oil tanker fleet as big as that of Britain.

In the Netherlands during the early months of 1941 there was the same process of subjugation and pressure by the Nazis. As for Dutch colonial possessions, the Netherlands Indies still a source of economic and military strength to the Allies, though it could be discerned that Japan had ill-concealed designs upon these territories. While the Germans tightened

HOLLAND'S PETROL WAS EARMARKED FOR THE NAZIS

Owing to the petrol famine caused by Nazi expropriations for the war machine Dutch taxi drivers were compelled to use gas as a propellant. Even with a large and unsightly gas-bag such as this, however, the car could run for only 22 miles before refilling.

Photo: Sport & General

their grip on Holland itself, the Japanese were trying to carry out economic penetration of the Dutch East Indies, preparatory (as it later was demonstrated) to an eventual attack upon them. The Japanese proposed all manners of trade agreements, which were refused by the Dutch authorities. The latter realized what was the real Japanese intention, and warned the British and U.S. Governments.

In Holland the severe winter of 1940 had led to unrest, which reached a serious point in February 1941. The Hague was fined by the German authorities 60,000 florins because of damage to German army cars, and at the end of February thirty-five Dutchmen were sent off to concentration camps in reprisal for the shooting of one German sentry at Hilversum. During February also the city of Heerlen was fined 110,000 florins because of "undisciplined behaviour." On the 12th there were riots at Utrecht. On the 19th a German policeman was killed at Amsterdam, and for this the Germans took five hundred Jewish hostages by way of reprisal. On the 25th and 26th there were widespread riots at Amsterdam, Haarlem, Zaandam, Utrecht and Rotterdam. The German authorities then declared a state of siege. On the first day of March Amsterdam was fined 15,000,000 florins. Two days later Nazi burgomasters were appointed in Amsterdam, Zaandam, Hilversum and Haarlem.

A big trial was held at The Hague on March 7, and eighteen Dutchmen were condemned on the charge of membership of a secret organization. Fifteen of them were shot. On the 20th Queen Wilhelmina, broadcasting from London,

BRITISH AIRMEN DROPPED TEA FOR THE DUTCH

Tea, among many other foodstuffs, became very scarce in the Netherlands, and thousands of small packets of tea grown in Batavia were dropped over Holland by aircraft of the R.A.F. and R.C.A.F. Above, a Canadian airman with packets ready to be loaded into the machine for transport.

Photo: British Official: Crown Copyright
CABINET OF THE ROYAL NETHERLANDS GOVERNMENT

Here, at the Government's headquarters in London, is a meeting of the Dutch Cabinet: left to right, Colonel A. Dijkstra, Defence Minister; M. van Kleffens, Foreign Secretary; M. Wester, Minister for Colonies; Admiral Furtner (Navy); and Dr. Gerbrandy, Premier.

*Photo, O.P.P.*

declared: "We will never forget our martyrs.

During May and June the "V for Victory" campaign was conducted by means of the B.B.C. broadcasts from London. The German authorities found themselves for some time unable to cope with or stem the eager response of the Dutch. "V" signs appeared on walls, and were scratched or chalked on German official cars. In various other ways there was evidence of the enthusiastic support of this campaign by the Dutch. Goebels tried to pervert the symbol for his own propaganda.

When Germany invaded Russia in June 1941, the stout Russian resistance aroused great enthusiasm throughout Holland. Most Dutchmen were convinced that Germany would lose, and this enrage on the part of the Nazi authorities and the Dutch population. On June 29 there was a great pro-Russian demonstration at Amsterdam, which the Germans tried to counter by preaching a crusade against Bolshevism. Seyss-Inquart, the German governor, made a speech in which he said that "the crusade has started. Dutchmen cannot remain aloof. They must participate in the European struggle." The Dutch, however, did not respond.

Economic difficulties became more acute during this period. Rationing was gradually tightened. In May special economic judges were approved to deal with the "black market," but the market continued to flourish.

Nazification and anti-Semitism proceeded apace. The Dutch Nazi move-

ment started a burgomaster's course for three hundred members. Introducing more anti-Jewish laws, Seyss-Inquart declared, "We do not consider the Jews to be Dutchmen." On March 15 a decree had been announced "for the removal of all Jews from economic life," and in May Jews were expelled from the Stock Exchange and from the medical profession.

In the field of religion there was increasing resistance to the Nazis, who sought to muzzle the ministers and pastors. As early as January 26 the Catholic bishops issued a letter condemning Nazism and declaring that there would be no sacraments for the Dutch Nazis.

The Germans decreed that school teachers were only to be appointed by departments under Nazi control, but the denominational schools refused to comply with this measure. All journalists were compelled to join the Nazi organization, the profession was closed to Jews, and all broadcasting was centralized and Nazified.

From April what might be called the "financial annexation" of Holland began by means of a new system of payments between Germany and Holland.

The bulk of the Netherlands Navy-cruisers, destroyers and a number of submarines and auxiliary craft—were stationed in the Netherlands East Indies and actively collaborated with the British Navy. In European waters a squadron of the Dutch Navy took part in the activities of the Allied Navies.

A Dutch submarine operated successfully in the Mediterranean.

A squadron of the Royal Dutch Naval Air Service was formed to operate
IL DE FRANCE' FREE FRENCH FIGHTER SQUADRON OF THE R.A.F.

French airmen who escaped from France after the collapse in June, 1940, were joined as time went on by many others who came from all parts of the world to fight under General De Gaulle. For a time they served in various units of the R.A.F. until separate squadrons were formed, the first such being the 'Ile de France' Squadron, of which a flight is here seen with its Spitfires. The Free French Air Force was commanded by General de Brigade Adolphe Martial Valin (ranking as Air Commodore, whose portrait appears on page 178.)
HOW THE GERMANS LORDED IT IN OSLO

As if they had become the owners of Norway the Nazis set about the Germanization of street names and direction signs. For example, they renamed the Torv�enskjolda Place, calling it Rathausplatz ("Town Hall Place"), and erected a big signboard on which were indicated the "Reichstrassen" to important towns. Below, outside the Royal Palace on Hitler's birthday, April 20, 1941.

Photos by courtesy of Royal Norwegian Government.
ASPECTS OF LIFE IN BELGIUM UNDER THE NAZIS

As in all the German-occupied countries, the food situation of Belgium rapidly deteriorated, what with Nazi looting and the compulsory transfer of labour to war industries. Top photograph shows a queue outside a butcher's in Brussels, on a report that meat was being sold. Below, Belgians bring wreaths to the funeral of British airmen killed in an R.A.F. raid.

Photos: Keystone's Agency
HOLLAND COMMEMORATES HER ENTRY INTO THE SECOND GREAT WAR.

In the ruins of the Dutch Reformed Church in Austin Friars, in the City of London, a service of commemoration was held to mark the first anniversary of May 10, 1940. Queen Wilhelmina attended, and the Premier (Dr. Gerhardy) is to be seen on left in the rostrum. The original church was granted by Edward VI in 1550 to Protestant refugees, mainly Dutch; it was destroyed in one of the big German raids of the autumn of 1940.

Photo, Reutel de Gendt
with the British Coastal Command. Many volunteers and conscripts from all parts of the world arrived in Britain to join the Netherlands Brigade named after Princess Irene. Nearly two million tons of Dutch Merchant Marine tonnage, of which one million and a quarter was chartered directly to the British, served the Allied cause.

Much the same story may be told of Belgium during this period. Her colonial territory, such as the Congo, remained under the jurisdiction of the Free Belgian Government in London, but metropolitan Belgium was completely under the heel of the German oppressor. The Germans during 1941 endeavoured to increase their direct grip on the country and also to work through the Belgian quislings. The latter included Léon de Grelle, the Resist (Fascist) leader, and De Man, a one-time Socialist leader who had become "converted" to Hitler's "New European Order." It might have been thought that the sharply marked racial division between the French-speaking inhabitants and those of Flemish origin would have offered an easy opportunity for Nazi subversive tactics. De Grelle led the French-speaking Fascist malcontents, and just such another opportunist was found for the other group, but the Nazi efforts produced surprisingly little result: the fantastic promises to the rival bodies cancelled out to a large extent.

BELGIAN TROOPS FROM CONGO FOUGHT IN EAST AFRICA

Early in 1941 a Belgian Colonial Mission visited Lieut-General Sir A. G. Cunningham, then G.O.C. in East Africa, to discuss the strengthening of Belgian participation in the operations. Here (in profile) M. de Vleeschauwer, Belgian Minister of Colonies, is inspecting native ordnance from the Congo; on the extreme right is Lieut-General Cunningham.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

Employers were forbidden to treat with the old trade unions, and industrial enterprises were riddled with spies and informers. Men who refused to join the local Nazi party had their unemployment and other insurance benefits withdrawn from them. Nazification of the civil service, education and the churches was attempted. Any effort at resistance or sabotage on the part of patriotic Belgians was savagely suppressed or punished, but in spite of all the pressure — moral, physical and economic — brought to bear upon the Belgian people, their resistance grew in strength and intensity with the passing of each month.

During January, February and March the anti-Nazi movement gained impetus and several acts of sabotage took place, including the cutting of telephc lines and the destruction of German army property. In February there were incidents of this kind at Dinant, and the Germans took as hostages the Burgomaster, several advocates, and members of various professions. This was a typical case. Similar acts continued during May, and by June the movement had reached very large proportions.

Loyal Belgians manifested their sympathy for the British. Anti-German posters appeared on the walls and there were demonstrations in favour of Britain. As in the Netherlands, the
British “V” campaign made great strides. Amongst inscriptions on the walls were “Long live Churchill” and “R.A.F.”—besides, of course, “V”—everywhere. Indeed, the “V for Victory” campaign on the wireless originated with the Belgian section of the B.B.C., because the initial V stands for “Victoire” in French and “Vrijheid” in Flemish.

Patriotic Belgians risked their lives by giving help to stray British soldiers who had been separated from their units during the fighting in 1940 and had since lain concealed.

Demonstrations took place from time to time against the quislings, and Rexist meetings were frequently marked by violence. The Belgian clergy also stood up against the German occupation authorities and the local quislings. A typical example was the refusal to administer the sacraments to Nazi extremists. This attitude was approved by Cardinal Van Roey, Archbishop of Malines.

When Germany attacked Russia the Germans endeavoured to raise a Belgian “volunteer” contingent to fight “Belgianism,” but, as in Norway, this was a failure. The “Belgian Legion” was not all representative of national feeling. The Belgian Primate and other bishops refused to allow appeals for recruits to be read from church pulpits, and for this the bishops were heavily fined.

The Free Belgian Government in London became the rallying point of loyal Belgians, but, unlike the Norwegian and Dutch sovereigns, King Leopold was a prisoner of war, and the Belgians were handicapped to some extent. The Belgian King refused German offers to reassume his kingship under German tutelage upon Nazi terms. His attitude was an inspiration to his people, but his stand was a lonely one.

The Belgian Air Force was reconstituted in Britain and soon had as many pilots and planes as it possessed at the time of the German invasion of Belgium. Eighty-eight per cent of Belgian men and fifty per cent of Belgian women in Britain were gradually put on to war work in this country, and among them were a number of engineers, technicians and industrial specialists. Belgian Commando units were formed, which later took part in raids made on German-occupied territories. Belgian parachute units were raised. Steadily a Belgian Army was built up until the time should come for it to take part in a telling stroke against the enemy.
MENACE OF JAPANESE ENCROACHMENT

First Six Months of 1941—Matsuoka Lays Down Conditions for Peace—
Thailand's Dispute with Indo-China: Japan Mediates—European Journey—
Matsuoka Visits Berlin, Rome and Moscow—Hitler's War with Russia—
Matsuoka Dropped from New Japanese Cabinet—More Bernadou on Indo-
China—Britain Cancels Commercial Treaties—U.S.A. Concurs—Southward
Drive in China—Stepping-stones to Further Aggression

When 1941 opened the countries bordering the Pacific were still at peace, with the exception of China, where the “incident” was well on in its fourth year. But in one and all there was talk of war, and preparations for its coming. Japanese ambitions to create a “new order” in Eastern Asia after the totalitarian pattern worked out by the Nazi and Fascist craftsmen in Europe were the subject of eager speculations and of most anxious concern. When would Japan strike? was one question most frequently asked; and, second only to it, against whom would she launch her thunderbolts?

Japanese statesmen still professed their desire for peace, although it was becoming increasingly evident that it must be a Japanese peace. In a speech to the Japanese Diet on January 21 Mr. Matsuoka, the Foreign Minister, was at pains to lay down the conditions for the maintenance of peace between Japan and the United States. The real difference between the two countries was America’s refusal to admit Japan’s right to construct a sphere of self-sufficiency in Eastern Asia. But that right must be admitted, since Japan could not abandon a policy so necessary for her prosperity and her security. If, then, the U.S. persisted in its determination to oppose Japan in executing the New Order in Eastern Asia, Japan must oppose America, even to the extent of entering the war on the side of her allies, her partners of the Axis in the Tripartite Pact. So far as he himself was concerned, Mr. Matsuoka expressed the hope that America would “liquidate past circumstances” and join in endeavoring to avert the impending crisis of civilization.

For the rest, Mr. Matsuoka’s speech was a review of the political situation as it was seen from the windows of the Japanese Foreign Office. He denounced the Chiang Kai-shek regime in China as “riddled with internal disruption,” while its armed resistance had notably declined. Both Britain and America were helping Chiang Kai-shek with money and material, but the Burma route was “being seriously and continuously damaged by our loyal and gallant air forces.”

Turning next to the Netherlands East Indies, Mr. Matsuoka let fall an expression of the opinion that, like French Indo-China, “if only for geographical reasons they should be in intimate and inseparable friendship with our country.” Not unreasonably, this was taken as being a suggestion that the Netherlands East Indies should find a place in a Japanese-dominated “greater East Asia,” and it brought a speedy and firm repudiation from the Dutch authorities. Whereupon there came a Japanese denuhent: Japan was not contemplating any military or political hegemony; all she had in mind was economic co-operation.

Next Mr. Matsuoka referred in his survey to French Indo-China, which had formed the most important route of supply for the “leader in Chungking since the beginning of the Chinese affair,” but which was now, following the agreement of the previous autumn (see page 1484), partially occupied by Japanese armed forces, while the frontier between French Indo-China and China had been closed. Then, Mr. Matsuoka went on, “a movement was now stirring the Thai people for the recovery of lost territories at present incorporated in French Indo-China... Japan, as the leader in East Asia, could not afford to remain indifferent to such a dispute, which she hoped would be settled at the earliest possible opportunity.”

To trace the story of this dispute we must turn back the page to June 12, 1940, when a treaty of non-aggression was signed in Bangkok between the Thai government and France (and also Britain). The Thai government refused

JAPAN MEDIATED IN THE THAI-INDO-CHINA DISPUTE

After Thailand (Riam) and Indo-China had come to blows over Thailand’s demands for the cession of territory Japan proposed an amelioration, which was duly agreed on January 31, 1942.

A peace conference opened on February 7, and by March 15 a treaty between the disputants was signed at Tokyo. Here Matsuoka (centre, left) is signing; beside him is Matsuayi, Japanese ambassador. Seated on Matsuoka’s right are the French delegates, René Robin and Armand Flamant, while on the opposite side of the table are Prince Varavarn (nearest Matsuayi) and the other Thai representatives.

Photo: Wide World
HOW JAPAN PAVED THE WAY TO AGGRESSION

This map shows the state of affairs up to July, 1941. The territories in Laos and Cambodia which Thailand, with Japan's backing, was able to extort from French Indo-China are shaded. So also are the large regions in China which Japan had won from the gallant armies of Chiang Kai-shek. In September, 1940, Japan had secured bases in Indo-China.

To ratify the treaty until their demands for certain cessions of the 1000-mile
tong frontier with Indo-China had been
allowed and made. In October the
authorities in Thailand and French
Indo-China were mutually accusatory,
each alleging the other had violated
the frontier with troops and planes,
and these incidents were followed by
Thailand's demur for the cession of
Cambodia and Laos-territories under
French rule since 1883 and 1893
respectively. The Vichy government
refused any concession in this direction,
while declaring its readiness to ratify
the non-aggression treaty and to submit
to arbitration the possible restoration
of certain islands in the Mekong river.
The Thai Premier, Luang Bipal
Sangman, repudiated any desire on
the part of his country to secure its
aims by force of arms; but such was
the tension on the frontier that by
the middle of November fighting had
broken out at Vientiane and other
places, and bitter accusations were
hurled to and fro concerning unprovoked
attacks, bombing raids, and the
relief of towns and villages. By the
end of the year these incidents had
so multiplied that the Thai High
Command could speak of "hostilities
on a large scale." During the first week
of 1941 fighting was reported at many
points on the frontier; Thai troops
crossed into Cambodia and were said
to be advancing on Siem reap, near Angkor;
and French planes bombed several Thai
villages by way of reprisal for a Thai
bombing attack on Sisophon. Then on
January 20 the Vichy Ministry of Marine
issued an account of a naval battle
fought on January 17 between a French
force comprising the cruiser "Lamotte-
Piequet," assisted by the sloops
"Dumont D'Uville," "Charner,"
"Marne" and "Tahure," and a Thai
squadron made up of two coast-defence
cruisers and three torpedo-boats; it
was claimed that two of the Thai
torpedo-boats had been sunk and the
third damaged, while the French force
had gone unharmed.

Shortly after this engagement Japan
made an offer of mediation. This
was accepted, and on January 29 an
armistice conference was opened at Saigon
board a Japanese warship. The commis-
sion soon reached agreement, and an
armistice convention-to last until
February 25—was signed on January 31.

With unusual promptitude the peace
conference opened at Tokyo on
February 7; France and Thailand
were represented by their respective
ambassadors to Japan, M. Arsene Henri
and Prince Varavarn, while the Japan-
ese representatives were Mr. Matsuoka
and Mr. Hajime
Matsumiya, who had
recently returned from
a tour of Thailand and
Indo-China as Japan's special
ambassador. After ten days of deliberation
no agreement was in sight. In view
of Thailand's attitude, protested the
French envoy, the issue might well
be left to the decision of the sword.

M. Henri also protested against the
presence of a Japanese squadron in the
Gulf of Thailand, since this constituted
a threat which made real discussion
impossible. Here Mr. Matsuoka
intervened, and after the armistice had
been extended to March 7 he put forward
new proposals with a demand that they

BRITAIN AND AMERICA PLAN DEFENCE MEASURES

By April, 1941, it was clear that Japan was at least seeking to take every possible advantage of the
European conflict, if not to proceed to open aggression at a favourable moment for herself.

At Manila, capital of the Philippines, Sir Robert Brooke-Popham (centre), C-in-C Far East,
discussed counter-measures with Admiral Thomas Hart (left), C-in-C U.S. Atlantic Fleet, and
Franklin B. Sayre, U.S. High Commissioner in the Philippines.

Photo, Wide World
STAGE IN MATSUOKA’S ‘MISSION OF PEACE’

Matsukawa, after visiting Moscow, reached Berlin on March 26, 1941, and was given a State reception. Top, with Hitler, to whom he presented a reproduction of an old Japanese car of state; on the right is Goering. Below, left, he chats with Dino Alfieri (centre), the Italian Ambassador, and Ley, head of the Nazi Labour Front. The occasion was a reception given by Ribbentrop, who is seen in the right-hand photograph between Matsukawa and Hitler on the balcony of the Chancellery, Berlin.

Photograph: Associated Press
MATSUOKA MAKES A PACT IN MOSCOW

Yosuke Matsuoka, Japanese Foreign Minister, returned to Moscow after his Berlin visit and in the course of a few days negotiated a pact with the Soviet. Left, at the Yaroslavsky station for his homeward journey on April 13, he talks with Lorovsky, Vice-Commissar of Foreign Affairs; right, Stalin bids him farewell in person—an unusual honour.

Photos: "News Chronicle"

should be accepted or rejected by midnight on February 28. Yet another plan, declared definitely to be a final one, was put forward by the Japanese on March 3, and its main points were accepted on the next day.

The treaty signed on March 11 gave Thailand a great deal; altogether she received about 25,000 square miles—the district of Paklay, in Laos, and a large area in northern Cambodia. Japan guaranteed the settlement, and by way of return Indo-China and Thailand gave assurances that they would not conclude any agreement with a third power for political, military, or economic cooperation against Japan.

Thailand Secures Territory In Thailand the settlement was well received; on the other side, however, Admiral Denoux spoke of "forced arbitration," and a spokesman at Vichy admitted that France had made the concessions demanded of her since she was in no position to do otherwise. The ceded territories were occupied by Thai troops at the end of July.

To return to Mr. Matsuoka. His speech in the Diet on January 21 was heard with concern, even alarm, by many outside Japan—perhaps by many inside, too. As we have seen, the Dutch Government hastened to put on record its determination to keep the Netherlands East Indies outside the Japanese sphere of influence. Australia, America, and Britain were similarly perturbed, even stimulated into action. Broadcasting a few hours after Mr. Matsuoka’s speech Sir Frederick Stewart, Australian Minister for External Affairs, declared that Australia was not likely to contemplate the disturbance of the status quo to the detriment of democratic ideals: "however, a number of influences are at work favourable to a better understanding between ourselves and Japan. Our hope is for the maintenance of peaceful relations even though military alliances with militant nationalism make continuance difficult." On February 12 a joint statement signed by Mr. Fadden and Mr. Curtin, Acting Premier and Labour leader respectively, warned the Australian people that the war had entered on a new phase of the utmost gravity, while in New Zealand the Premier, Mr. Fraser, likewise commented on the deteriorating situation abroad. In March an American naval squadron visited New Zealand and Australia (see illus. p. 1739). American aircraft, it was announced, were being flown direct to the Far East from the west coast of the U.S.A. Hongkong and Singapore saw to their defences, and in April Air Chief Marshal Sir Robert Brooke-Popham, C-in-C. Far East, held discussions at Manila with the U.S. defence authorities on the coordination of the defence of Malaya, the Philippines and the Dutch East Indies. These reactions did not go unremarked in Japan, and Mr. Matsuoka and his Vice-Minister, Mr. Ohashi, hastened to declare that Japan's advance in the

MATSUOKA CONSULTS THE DUCE IN ROME

From Berlin Matsuoka went on April 1 to Rome, where he saw Mussolini, Giannini, King Victor Emmanuel and the Pope. He is here acknowledging, with Mussolini, the cheers of the crowd. After a further short stay in Berlin and a final talk with Hitler the Japanese Foreign Minister set off again for Moscow for further discussions with Molotov.

Photo: Keystone
Pacific would be by peaceful means only. In Washington Admiral Nomura, the newly appointed Japanese Ambassador, exerted himself on similar lines.

Still Mr. Matsunaka continued to attract the limelight. On March 12 he left Tokyo for Europe on what he described as a "mission of peace." Travelling by way of the Trans-Siberian railway, he arrived in Moscow twelve days later, and there, in a very friendly atmosphere, he had a two-hour conversation with Stalin and Molotov. On March 20 he arrived in Berlin, where he was given a state reception; in a message to the German people he declared that among Japan's ideals was "that harmonious world community with room for all nations in which they can realize their wishes and fulfill their ambitions." After conversations with Hitler, Ribbentrop, Goering, Keitel and Funk, the Japanese Foreign Minister went on April 1 to Rome, where he had audiences with Mussolini and Count Ciano, King Victor Emmanuel and the Pope—with the last possibly because of Mr. Matsunaka's Christian persuasion. Arriving back in Berlin on April 4, he had another conversation with Hitler, and then set off for Moscow, not forgetting to wish Germany "good luck and success" in that invasion of the Balkans which she had just launched. In the Kremlin on April 7 he had another long talk with Molotov, and the next few days were filled with discussions, so that on April 13 the way was

RETURN OF THE ENVOY

Matsunaka returned to Japan on April 20, 1941, to be greeted with much enthusiasm. A mass meeting soon after, he praised the Axis. But on June 22 there came Hitler's invasion of Russia, and less than a month after, when a new Japanese Cabinet was formed, Matsunaka was dropped in favour of Vice-Admiral Toyoda.

Photo, Wide World

clear for the conclusion of a pact of friendship and neutrality between Japan and the U.S.S.R.

Both contracting parties, it was stated in the document, agreed to maintain peaceful and friendly relations between them and to respect each other's territorial integrity and inviolability. Should one of the contracting parties be the object of military action by one or more States, the other contracting party would observe neutrality throughout the whole duration of such conflict. Finally, it was resolved that the Pact should come into force immediately on ratification for a period of five years.

Following the signing of the pact a joint Japanese-Soviet statement was issued to the effect that the U.S.S.R.
SUCCESSIVE MOVES IN THE GAME OF 'GRAB'

By an agreement forced on the Vichy Government in September, 1940, Japan secured the right to establish bases in French Indo-China. At Hainan (top, Japanese column marching in) she made an air base from which the Burma Road was bombed. In June, 1941, she demanded and obtained further territory, and the lower photograph shows her advance guard driving into another town of Indo-China soon after.

Photos, Keystone

would respect the territorial integrity of Manchukuo, while Japan would do likewise as regards Outer Mongolia.

Not unsatisfied (we may believe) with the results of his mission, Mr. Matsukasa entered his train at Moscow for his return journey, and it was remarked that Stalin saw him off — a very unusual honour. On April 24 the Pact was ratified by the Japanese Privy Council and on the next day by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. In America and Britain press comment was critical, but in Russia the newspapers maintained that it represented no alteration in Russia's relations with Germany, Japan's ally. "The U.S.S.R.," said "Pravda," "is as true as ever to its policy which is unwaveringly directed to maintaining peace and avoiding an extension of the war."

Then on June 22 Germany struck at Russia. Maybe Mr. Matsukasa was surprised; maybe he had got a hint in the

New Japanese Cabinet

Kremlin, if not in Berlin. No official comment was forthcoming in Tokyo, but when it was suggested that America might aid Russia via Vladivostok, a Foreign Office spokesman said that "this would put Japan in an awkward and embarrassing position." But on July 16 Prince Konoye and his cabinet resigned en bloc in order to make room for a "stronger government to cope with the national and international situation." The next day Prince Konoye received the Emperor's command to form a new ministry, and its composition was announced on July 18. It was remarkable in containing four generals and three admirals, and among the ministers dropped was Mr. Matsukasa. His place at the Foreign Office was taken by Admiral Toyoda. Abroad, it was felt that Mr. Matsukasa's disappearance was connected with the delicate position in which Japan found herself following the attack made by one of her allies against another; but there was little hope that the new ministry would follow a more pacific policy. Rather, its largely military composition pointed the other way. Japanese interests would be its chief, indeed its only consideration; and those interests were closely bound up with the extension of the "co-prosperity sphere."

That sphere was rapidly extended. In French Indo-China the Japanese took a further stride forward in June. Admiral Decoux, the French Governor, had been refused reinforcements—from a document discovered in the office of the former Vichy High Commissioner in Emphasized, constituted no threat against Indo-Chinese integrity or French sovereignty; on the other hand, "Chinese troop concentrations in Yunnan and British troops and aircraft in Burma and Malaya led Japan and France to fear an Anglo-Chinese attempt to occupy Indo-China. France cannot defeat Indo-China alone. We had proof of that in Syria. Japan's intervention came within the 1940 agreement (the Tripartite Pact), which recognized Japan's predominant position is the Far East and her responsibility for maintaining peace in Asia." So, "is an atmosphere of cordiality," negotiations had been conducted at Hanoi between Decoux and the Japanese General Sumita, and at 8 p.m. that evening had been brought to a successful conclusion.

On the same day, in the House of Commons Mr. Eden, Britain's Foreign
Secretary, indignantly countered the suggestion that Britain had had any designs on the integrity of Indo-China. British relations with Indo-China had been greatly restricted since the fall of France, while those with Thailand had always been excellent. Two days later he made a statement on this latest act of Japanese aggression. "Although there is no official news of the conclusion of a definite agreement between the Japanese and Vichy governments," he said, "or of the occupation of further bases by the Japanese forces, it is quite evident that both these events are imminent. That this new aggression was mediated by Japan has been clear for some time past.

That the occupation of bases in southern Indo-China is taking place with the consent of Vichy, does not obscure the fact that Japan has achieved her object by making demands backed by threats of force if they were not complied with. The miserable plight of the Vichy Government in face of these demands provides one further example of the blessings of collaboration with the Axis. To the sorry tale of humiliations to which the Vichy Government have subjected the French is added the new indignity of having to accept the so-called protection of Japan against a threat which everyone knows does not exist."

From July 26 Great Britain and the Dominions imposed a ban on dealings in Japanese balances, gold and securities, thus freezing Japanese assets throughout the Empire; and at the same time Sir Robert Crewe, the British Ambassador in Tokyo, informed Admiral Toyoda, who (as we have seen) had just succeeded Mr. Matsukawa as Japanese Foreign Minister, that the British Empire's commercial treaties with Japan had been denounced. The U.S.A. took similar action, while the Netherlands East Indies extended the licensing system to all exports to Japan. By way of retaliation Japan issued orders freezing American and British assets in Japan.

Speaking in Washington, Mr. Sumner Welles, U.S. Under-Secretary of State, strongly condemned Japan's recent stroke. The course taken by the Japanese Government was, he said, "a clear indication that it is determined to pursue an objective of expansion by force or the threat of force."

There was not the slightest ground for believing that the U.S.A., Britain, or the Netherlands had any territorial ambitions in Indo-China, or had been planning any aggressive moves against Japan. The American Government could only conclude, therefore, that Japan's action had been taken because of the estimated value of her bases in Indo-China for the conquest of adjacent areas. Japan had never been denied the rights to purchase tin, rubber, oil, and other raw materials in the Pacific area on equal terms with other nations, but the step she had just taken teaded to jeopardize the procurement by the U.S.A. of essential materials, such as tin and rubber, necessary for America's normal economy and for the consummation of her defense programme. The safety of other areas in the Pacific, including the Philippines, was endangered by Japan's action; "the Government and people of this country surely realize that such developments bear directly upon the vital problem of our national security."

But Japan paid no heed to speeches, however condemnatory, however filled with warning. On July 28 Japanese troops to the number of 24,000 began disembarking in Camranh Bay, and in anticipation of their arrival French and Japanese planes roared over Saigon, Indo-China's capital. It was announced that the newcomers were to occupy eight airfields, viz: at Saigon, Phat Diem, Bien Hoa, Soc Trang, Kon Kong, and Phu Kien. Through-out the week Japanese continued to arrive, and very shortly there was not a strategic point or a vital aerodrome without its garrison. Strong concentrations of the invaders were also assembled within striking distance of the Thai frontier, while Camranh Bay was converted into a Japanese naval base.

Indo-China thus fell an easy prey to the Japanese, and the same could soon be said of Thailand. But China was still proving a highly indigestible meal for the Japanese stomach. In spite of nearly four years of heavy and hard campaigning only a fraction of China's vast territories had been brought by the Japanese under their full control. At the end of 1940 the invaders occupied the Chinese provinces on either side of the Yangtze river east of Ichang, together with most of the coast line, including the most important ports with their hinterlands of varying size. Since their power was based on the sea, their control was most effective in the maritime regions and the Yangtze valley; in the more inaccessible regions to the west China's K'ai-shek's sway was complete. Then most of the great cities were in Japanese hands—Peiping (Peking), Hankow, Hangchow, Nanking and Canton. At Nanking, indeed, a puppet Chinese government was installed under the quibbling Wang Ching-wei.

In this vast war zone there was always fighting, but not for long in any one district; the tide of war swept back and forth, engulfing now this region, now that, as the Japanese sought to secure some advantage over their wily antagonist. In November, 1940, the invaders launched a "winter offensive" in east Hupsh, north of Hankow, but after bitter fighting they were able to claim little real gain. In the following January they shifted their attention to the south, launching troops in Bina Bay, east of Hoangkong, and endeavouring to extend their hold on the Canton area. In the same month they delivered a fresh drive in southern Honan, which,
CHUNGKING THE INDOMITABLE

Built on a lofty promontory at the fork of the Yangtze and Kiaolin rivers, Chungking was exposed to constant air attack but carried on undaunted, even after years of war. Top, left, in a cave hospital under the city; top, right, after a raid early in 1943. Factories and machine shops were transferred to the interior (below, left, plant ready for transport); but many industries carried on in the rocky caverns. On the right is part of a newspaper printing plant, with compositors at work; in the room beyond is a typesetting machine.

Photos: Keatinge; Frank Poppier; Wide World
claimed Chungking, was soon completely checked. Then there was a lull in this area until the middle of March, when there was another Japanese offensive up the Yangtze valley from Ichang. This, too, was held, and the Chinese also claimed successes in a strong counter-offensive in north Kiangsi.

Meanwhile the Japanese had continued their landings in the south; by March 5 they claimed to have occupied the South China coast for 250 miles on either side of the Luzon peninsula facing the Japanese-controlled island of Hainan. Their aim was to close a channel of supply which was still operating to the advantage of Chungking; but after a few days many of the ports were re-occupied by the Chinese, the Japanese falling back on an intensification and extension of the blockade. About this time there were indications that the Japanese had other objectives than the closing of one of the few remaining doors into China. From Chungking and Hongkong came reports of large-scale Japanese naval and air concentrations—far larger than would seem to be justified by the strength of the local Chinese forces. A Japanese naval base was reported to be under construction at Bias Bay, almost next door to Hongkong. Strong Japanese air squadrons were said to be based on Hainan Island, where, as likewise on Formosa, land forces were reported to be assembling. There were reports, too, of Japanese warships moving in a southerly direction.

Again there was a lull in the land operations. Then early in May the Japanese launched a vigorous offensive in southern Shansi, on both banks of the Hwang Ho, which the Chinese swiftly countered with an offensive of their own in Shansi, Honan and Hupeh; and in the south the Japanese attacked again, occupying a number of ports, including Ningpo and Foochow, while Chungking, the Nationalist capital, was subjected to a number of savage and devastating air raids.

A few weeks more, and on July 7 what had begun and was still described by the Japanese as "the Chinese incident" entered its fifth year. No longer was it a conflict between two nations merely, said the Chinese Generalissimo in a statement from Chungking; the wars in Asia and in Europe had become closely related. China would never give up the fight against the Japanese aggressor, she would never seek "appeasement," and if those Powers who were in league against the aggressors combined to crush Japan in the Far East, they would be able to impose a settlement of the conflict in Europe.
NAZI POLICY AND STRATEGY BEFORE THE ATTACK ON RUSSIA

Chapter 79

New Year Proclamation to Nazi Party, 1941—Effect of British Air Raids—Trade Agreements With Russia—Foreign Labour in the Reich—Raiders' Speech to Shipyard Workers—Hitler on U-boat Warfare—Occupation of Bulgaria—Swift Changes in Yugoslavia—The Hess Affair: Martin Bormann Appointed Deputy—Invasion of Russia, June 22, 1941

The beginning of 1941 saw evidence of the consolidation of Axis plans in the Balkans. During the autumn of 1940 the way had been paved for the complete economic and military penetration of Bulgaria, her adherence to the Tripartite Pact being considered in Berlin only a matter of time. Axis plans envisaged the early establishment of German troops in Bulgaria; while Yugoslavia, faced with Axis troops on three sides and a hostile sea on the fourth, could not long delay her submission to Axis designs. The elimination of Greece would follow, and further embarrassment for Mussolini must irreversibly impair Axis prestige.

On the Home Front things were not going so well, although the edifices of Nazism were outwardly as strong as ever. But for the people a much-needed tonic was becoming urgent, and it needed to be something more than diplomatic victories and bloodless conquests. "Victory! And in 1941!" was to be the tonic.

With utmost thoroughness the Nazi press and radio blazed forth the Führer's threats and promises. In his New Year proclamation to the Nazi Party Hitler said that 1941 would see the German Army, Navy, and Air Force enormously strengthened and better equipped, and that under their blows the last remaining obstacles of the warmongers would collapse, thus achieving the final conditions for a true understanding among the peoples. He reiterated Dr. Goebbels' warning of the terrible future which would be Germany's if the democracies be victors. In a proclamation addressed to the German Army he promised that 1941 would bring Germany the completion of the greatest victory in her history.

"Britain," said Dr. Goebbels, "is reeling under the heavy blows of our armed forces. She is struggling painfully for bare existence."

To some degree the Germans in their homes and factories were heartened by this incessant "victory propaganda," but against these gains in morale were set the dispiriting effects of decreasing rations and increasing raids by the R.A.F. During the previous summer and autumn the German housewife had been able to enjoy the fruits of Nazi conquests. Here was something tangible—food in many forms and varieties—which had contributed to give Hitler's victories an air of finality. When her harder thus supplemented the end of the war seemed in sight. For how otherwise would Hitler, with his genius and foresight, permit so great an increase of rations both in quantity and quality unless he saw victory round the corner? The mass of Germans interpreted Nazi home policy as it was intended. England, they thought, was really beaten. Soon warmer Churchill would be forced to resign and a "sane" British Government would sue for peace.

This dream ended all too soon when stocks of food began to approach their previous low levels. The Churchill Government did not fall. The English did not sue for peace. On the contrary, there was a irresistible nightly evidence of the enemy's growing strength. As the winter grew in intensity of coldness, enemy raids took on a new and devastating meaning. There could be no mistaking the meaning of the terrible raid on Bremen on January 1, 1941, when more than 20,000 incendiaries (double the number dropped by the Luftwaffe on London on December 29, 1940) fell on the city.

The threshold combination of heavier air raids, lack of sustaining food, and the severe winter contributed to the feeling of frustration which neutral observers have stated was manifest over the greater part of the country, especially in the industrial and dock areas. The mighty Third Reich had no control over these factors, though the efforts might be mitigated by clever propaganda. It soon became apparent to the Nazi leaders that propaganda in itself was insufficient.

The signing of four agreements between Germany and the U.S.S.R.

DUTCH FASCISTS' TRIP TO MUNICH

Anton Adrian Mussert, chief of the Dutch Fascists, visited Munich in January, 1941. He is here seen (first row, second from left; in dark greatcoat) with Himmler, chief of the Gestapo, and Seyss-Inquart, Reich Commissioner for the Netherlands, leaving the Temple of Honour after placing wreaths for German party leaders. Other photographs are printed in page 1457.

Photo, Associated Press
on January 10, 1941, was in part a logical outcome of the situation on the German home front. These agreements were as follows:

1. A new trade agreement, to take the place of last year’s trade agreement, due to expire in February.
2. An agreement about the new Russo-German frontier along the territory of what was formerly Lithuania.
3. An agreement for an exchange of nationals between Germany and Russia, to be applied to the former territories of Latvia and Estonia.
4. An economic and financial agreement relating to questions of property involved in the transfers provided for in (3).

Without divulging precise details, Germany undertook to increase substantially her exports of manufactured goods to Russia, in return for raw materials, oil and grain. This agreement, an extension of that of February 11, 1940, involved a turnover of 1,000 million marks and, at least theoretically, was designed to ease the German shortage of certain strategic raw materials and food. "The largest quantity of grain ever shipped from one country to another," was the boast of the German radio.

These agreements were hailed with great satisfaction in Germany; clearly, said the Nazi press and radio, they constituted a diplomatic victory for Germany and still another blow against the leading European powers. The repatriation agreement, involving 45,000 German nationals from Lithuania and 12,000 from Estonia and Latvia (which brought the total to 300,000 since September 1939), was a measure whose effects were twofold: it removed friction between the countries involved, and for Germany brought some slight relief in the labour problem.

Indeed, the labour shortage was not the least of German troubles at home. The demands of the armed forces had had the inevitable effect of depleting the labour market, already strained by the increasing call upon its resources by the industrialists. Unlike Britain, Germany had no reserves of unemployed to call upon.

According to the "Neue Zürcher Zeitung," a statement in the journal "Reichsarbeiterblatt," dated January 14, gave the number of foreign workers on German farms as 1,350,000, including 650,000 Polish, French and Belgian prisoners of war. By the end of April, however, the German Ministry of Labour estimated foreign labour engaged in farming, mining and industry at 2,000,000 persons, of which 315,000 were Italians. Since the greatest proportion of these were compulsory labourers, forced to work for long hours under poor conditions and for poor pay (the Danes, for instance, received about £2 per week; the Poles 25s. per month), their value to the Reich was unquestionably much lower than it might have been. Constituting about 10 per cent of the people then employed in Germany, it is estimated that their annual contribution to the national income was about £250-300 million, and to the war effort £100 million.

On January 20, 1941, Hitler met Mussolini and, using the Italian military disasters in Albania and Libya as a pretext, secured such a grip on Italy as to turn that country virtually into an occupied region. German and Italian propaganda termed it "closer collaboration" and "unity of command and purpose," but in truth the new arrangement was a cloak for the extension of German control over the Italian war machine and Italian war economy. It may be that Hitler became aware that his Ally's endurance was weakening—to observers outside Axis countries there seemed to be certain signs of this tendency—and took immediate steps.

On January 28, 1941, Admiral Raeder, Commander-in-Chief of the German...
GERMANS TAKE CHARGE IN ITALY

After Hitler's meeting with Mussolini on January 30, 1941, the Italian fighting services and major industries were taken under Nazi direction. Above, led by officers of the Luftwaffe, German troops marched through the streets of Padua. Below, German airmen with large bombs in the Mt. Etna region of Sicily (April 1941).

Photos: Keystone / Photo News

Navy, made a speech to shipyard workers in which he gave warning of the difficult tasks confronting the people. For the German Navy there would be the task of defeating Britain's sea-power and of cutting down her sea-borne supplies, while the Luftwaffe would continue to attack military objectives in the British Isles. No less than 6,300,000 tons of Allied shipping, he said, had been sunk since the war began. Nevertheless, "we do not underestimate England's strength, and we know she is tough. She is fighting for her life and would try to avert disaster by every means."

Admitting that casualties in German dockyards during the past year had been very heavy, he warned the people that R.A.F. attacks would grow in intensity, and drew attention to other difficulties, such as housing and nutritional problems.

That the German leaders were becoming uncomfortably aware of the growing menace of the R.A.F. was further evidenced by a broadcast on January 31 by General Milch, Inspector-General of the Luftwaffe, who warned the people not to expect too much from the anti-aircraft defences. In 1918, he said, the English, with the exception of the Germans, were the best airmen in the world. Referring to night bombing,
he confirmed that defence by nightfighter planes was the most difficult task of A.A. defences, and that incessant work was being carried out to find a solution of the night-fighter problem.

This warning followed closely on Hitler's Sportpalast speech of January 30, marking the eighth anniversary of his accession to power, in which he assured the people that they would never starve and that the leaders had made provision against the lack of raw materials in the shape of the four-year plan. "At sea," he continued. "U-boat warfare will begin this spring, and they will notice that here, too, we have not been asleep. Production has been enormously increased in all fields..."

Following on the Hitler-Mussolini conference Axis penetration in the Balkans was speeded up. Even before this the threat to Bulgaria had increased to such an extent that the unoffical presence of German troops in that country was becoming increasingly embarrassing to the government. On January 14 the Bulgarian Telegraphic Agency issued an official denial that German troops were in the country, a denial which was repeated on February 12, following Mr. Churchill's warning to Bulgaria. So-called German tourists and technicians had been quietly infiltrating into the country for months past, and when German occupation began on March 3, following Bulgaria's adherence to the Tripartite Pact on March 1 and its ratification next day by the Sokolnike (Parliament), the world was not surprised. Axis technique had by now become too obvious for its implications not to be recognized. Thus Hitler scored another diplomatic victory.

But more than diplomatic victories were needed to palliate the effect of hardships endured on the home front. The need for more food and for clothes made of wool instead of creton materials was easily apparent. But food and clothes in greater supply were not avail-

able, despite the exploitation of the occupied countries. Thus, when Hitler addressed members of the "old guard" of the Nazi Party at Munich on February 24, he seized the opportunity to make further assurances to the German housewife, on whom fell the major burden of feeding the nation. "The German people are winterproof," he said. "They have survived thousands of winters in their history, and they are going to survive this one."

On February 13-14, 1941, Admiral Raeder and Admiral Riccardi, chief of the Italian navy, met at Messana for naval talks. As a result a German admiral was appointed liaison officer to the Italian navy, and German control officers were appointed to Italian warships. Henceforth the Nazis were in virtual control of the Italian navy, whose movements would in future be dictated by German strategy and German requirements. As it turned out, the Italians were soon called on to make dooy ce rules and squander their warships for Germany.

With Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria and Italy under Nazi control there remained in the Balkans only Yugoslavia and Greece (apart from Turkey) still comparatively free. A Coup d'Etat in Yugoslavia.

Following Bulgaria's signing of the Tripartite Pact in early March, it was a logical conclusion that Yugoslavia would not be able to resist effectively the economic and military pressure not only of Berlin but also of Bulgaria, Hungary and Italy, and on March 25 Tevtakovich, the Yugoslav Premier, and Gross Markovich, the Foreign Minister, signed the Tripartite Pact in Vienna. But for once German plans in the Balkans were to receive a check. Yugoslav feeling was outraged, and on March 22-27 General Simovich, chief of the Yugoslav Air Force, staged a successful coup d'etat with the whole-hearted backing of the entire country. The Tvetakovich government was overthrown. The pity of it was that this last-minute awakening of Yugoslav nationalism was doomed to fail. On April 6, without warning, Germany invaded both Yugoslavia and Greece, the campaign opening with the indiscriminate bombing of Belgrade. By April 17 organized Yugoslav resistance had ceased, and by the end of the month the Allied Forces had been driven out of Greece. The main forces were transferred to the island of Crete, the German

*IT MIGHT HAVE HAPPENED* IN BRITAIN

The Belgian clandestine newspaper *La Libre Belgique* published this photograph of a Nazi plane stated to have been prepared in 1940 for policing up in Britain when and if the Germans should succeed in invading our country. It is printed in German and English and deals with the requisitioning of many types of goods likely to be of value to an occupying force.
conquest of which in May is described in other pages.

Axis propaganda lost no time. Here indeed were great victories—not decisive, perhaps, yet once again the British had been driven off the continent. Hitler, in his Reichstag speech at the Kroll Opera House, Berlin, on May 4, alleged that German losses in Yugoslavia and Greece totaled only 1,151 killed and 3,892 wounded; he claimed the capture of 342,000 Serb troops and 218,000 Greeks. Nevertheless, in his speech there were signs of concern at the increasing flow of American supplies to Britain. Referring presumably to the

United States, he said that if democratic countries were counting on choking the National Socialist State with the force of their material production there could be only one answer—the German people would never again experience a 1918. "Force of arms," he continued, "will never make us yield. The German soldier will be given still better weapons this year and next year."

Unconsciously perhaps he betrayed the fact that, despite the outward show of confidence, he did not expect 1941 to bring Germany the final victory.

German morale was profoundly disturbed by the flight of Rudolf Hess to Scotland on May 10. The Nazi propaganda machine, for once, failed to convince even its friends among the nations.

Contradictory statements were made in futile efforts to explain Hess's flight. He was suffering from insanity and hallucinations; he was the "angel of peace" and the "would-be saviour of England."

One moment Hess knew nothing of Germany's military secrets; the next, the hope was expressed that Britain would be "sufficiently chivalrous not to worm any secrets from him."

There were two reasonable explanations: either Hess had come to Britain, with Hitler's consent, in the hope of securing an agreed peace; or he had made such a bid on his own responsibility. In any case he would be disowned unless he succeeded.

Hess's escapade was closely followed by the promotion on May 14 of Martin Bormann to Führer, Chancellor, but with that office, however, for the future, under Hitler's own personal jurisdiction. The following day soothsayers, crystal-gazers, fortune-tellers, and astrologers were banned throughout Germany. Was Hitler, said to be a fervent believer in occultism, apprehensive of the future? There were rumours of the arrest of many friends of Hess—Karl Hanfstaengl, proponent of the "lebensraum" theory, and Messerschmitt, the aircraft designer.

During these months (January–June) the Luftwaffe had not been idle. Its operations were extensive. Apart from the night-bombing of British cities, German planes ranged the skies over the Atlantic and North Sea, attacking and sinking Allied shipping; with the
To mark the 25th anniversary of the Red Army, in February 1945, there were celebrations in London, in Glasgow, and in other British cities. His Majesty the King sent a telegram of congratulation to M. Kalinin and ordered the presentation of a Sword of Honour to Stalingrad. Above is Mr. Cowan Dobson's impression of the great meeting in St. Andrew's Hall, Glasgow, which was attended by representative units of the Armed Forces and Civic Defence Services. Mr. Duff Cooper is on the platform, which is decorated with the flag of St. Andrew, and the national emblem of the U.S.S.R. The painting was sent to Russia as a tribute from the people of Glasgow.
BRITISH AND AMERICAN FIGHTER AIRCRAFT

EXCEPT for the Lockheed Lightning, shown at top, right, the types have shown are single-engined fighters—outstanding examples of aircraft employed to ward off intruders. The Typhoon, below, right, is British; the rest are American-built. General H. H. Arnold, Chief of U.S. Army Air Forces, stated that in his opinion the Lightning and Thunderbolt were the best in their class. Comparing engine power, the North American Mustang (top, left) has an Allison liquid-cooled 1,420-horsepower V-1710 motor of 1,400 h.p., while the Lightning is powered by two Allison, each giving 1,794 h.p. The maximum speed of both aircraft is above 380 m.p.h. The Republic Thunderbolt (below, left, in action formation) and the Hawker Typhoon (above, right) are in a different class, with single engine giving an output of 1,500 h.p. The British Typhoon—just like the American Mustang—has a Major Sabre 24-cylinder supercharged engine and a top speed of over 400 m.p.h. The Pratt & Whitney Double Wasp engine of the Thunderbolt (18-cylinder air-cooled radial) gives the same speed. This aircraft is especially designed for high altitude—up to 50,000 feet. Armament of the Thunderbolt is 9 machine-guns; in the Typhoon it is 8 cannon and 8 machine-guns. The peculiar upward mounting of the Typhoon is to make it nearly undistinguishable from the German FW 190, which it resembles in appearance.

Lockheed Lightnings came into service with the Royal Air Force in 1942, and were highly successful in the Tunisian operations. The design is unusual, inasmuch as two fuselages which carry the tail unit.

The Hawker Typhoon, one of the most heavily armed and armoured fighters, scored many successes against dp-and-sic air raiders, E-boats and mineweepers.
SKY DUEL ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT: RED AIR FORCE FIGHTER AND BOMBER TYPES

A German bomber unit is attempting to cover a river-crossing for their retreating forces whilst Russian bombers, operating in support of the Red Army, have attacked dumps and concentrations on the enemy-held river bank. Meanwhile, Soviet fighters are breaking up the German attack.

The German Heinkel 111 in the left foreground has had its starboard engine cowling torn open by cannon fire and the power unit is starting to flame. Through the plexiglas panels of the cockpit the pilot and gunner-bomb-aimer can be seen, the latter training his 7.9 mm. gun on the Soviet MiG-3 fighter sweeping just ahead. To right, is a later Soviet fighter type, the La-5, of all-wood construction, claimed to be more than a match for the Focke-Wulf 190. Seen through the smoke, upper left, are two types of Russian light-reconnaissance bomber: the AK-4 (nearest the corner) and the Pe-2. Both these types fly at 320 m.p.h., driven by two 1,400 h.p. engines.

Specially drawn for "The Second Great War" by Hemsforth.
invaluable assistance of the new Focke-Wulf Kurier, a heavy four-engined bomber with a crew of 6 (introduced into service in January), German air attacks on Britain’s vital life-line assumed worrying proportions. Nevertheless, the Luftwaffe did not escape without loss.

Concerning night-operations against Britain little need be said here, except to measure the degree of success attendant upon these operations. Apart from the heavy damage caused to commercial and private buildings, as well as to historic monuments all over Britain, the Luftwaffe’s intensive and prolonged raids achieved nothing of a decisive character. Certainly the loss of life and the casualties inflicted (18,400 killed, 21,200 injured) were grievances, but even this was negligible considering the scale of the attacks. The price paid for all operations over Britain was the destruction of 1,096 planes.

At sea the most notable feature of Germany’s strategy was her submarine warfare, which was carried out extensively and with great determination. The destruction of 397 Allied ships totalling 1,783,692 tons, as well as their vital cargoes, during the first six months of 1941 was no small achievement. Not all these losses were inflicted by submarines, for German sea raiders and the Luftwaffe claimed a small but important share. Of other operations the most outstanding was the sinking off Greenland on May 24 of H.M.S. “Hood,” Britain’s largest battle cruiser, against which may be set the battleship “Bismarck,” sunk on May 27 after a 1,750 mile chase.

On June 22 Hitler perpetrated his greatest crime by attacking his former ally, Russia (see Chap. 181). An hour after the commencement of the attack Goebbels broadcast a proclamation by Hitler, outlining his reasons for marching against the Soviet Union and accusing her of “desiring to stab Germany in the back while she is engaged in a struggle for her existence.” Stalin was also accused of occupying and bolshevizing spheres of influence in the Balkans, of violation of the German-Soviet treaties, of carrying out subversive activities in Germany, massing 160 divisions on the German frontier and provoking incidents, and conspiring with England for

CONFERENCE BEFORE THE ATTACK ON RUSSIA

When Hitler met Mussolini at the Brenner Pass on June 2, 1941, the world wondered what would be the next Nazi move. It is probable that Hitler wanted to make sure that Italy would play the proper role in the great Russian adventure, which opened twenty days later.

Photo, Wide World

SUCCESSOR TO RUDOLF HESS

After Hess had been disowned by the Nazis, Hitler appointed as his Party Chancellor Martin Bormann (previously Reichskanzler), but brought that office under his own personal control (May 24, 1941).

Photo, New York Times Photo

“still closer collaboration between the political and military leaders of Britain and the U.S.S.R.” The stage was set, the curtain up, for the greatest drama of the world war. Both Axis and Allies knew that when the curtain fell again the fate of the world would have been decided.
RUSSIA ON THE EVE OF THE NAZI INVASION


For the reader is to comprehend the rise of Russia as a new military and industrial force before the outbreak of the second world war and the events that led to the destruction of the uneasy alliance between Russia and her bitterest enemy, Nazi Germany, it is necessary to give a rapid historical review. For this we must go back to 1919.

On November 7, 1917, Kerensky's government fell and there was born the All-Russian Congress of Soviets ("soviet" means council), out of which was to develop the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. At the outbreak of war in 1939 the Union comprised eleven Republics, of which the largest and most important was Russia proper—the R.S.F.S.R. or Russian Soviet Federal Socialist Republic. It had a constitution adopted on December 5, 1936, of which the first Article proclaimed: "The U.S.S.R. is a Socialist State of workers and peasants."
The area of Union territories was a little over 8,000,000 square miles, and its population numbered about 166,000,000. Following upon the German conquest of Poland and the frontier demarcation of September, 1939, the states of Western White Russia and the Western Ukraine voted themselves into the Union. In August, 1940, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia entered the Soviet Union. This, then, was the Russia against which Nazi Germany pitted herself on June 22, 1941.

For twenty years after the launching of the Bolshevist republic Soviet Russia was a pariah amongst the nations. She had no representative at Versailles, no voice in the peace treaties which wound up the four years of the first world war. Throughout 1919 Russia was the scene of civil war. Time after time it seemed that the "Reds," opposed as they were by large armies of "Whites" strongly supported by British, French and Japanese troops and aided by supplies, were about to be overborne. (The purpose of this intervention in Russia by Britain and her allies was the reconstruction of an anti-German front.)

To the astonishment of the world the Bolshevists managed at last to secure the mastery over all their foes. In part their victory was due to the withdrawal by the Allies of military aid to the White generals—Koltchak, Denikin and Wrangel—at the end of 1919; in part it was due to the incompetence of these men themselves, but to a much larger extent it may be attributed to the unwillingness of the people to fight against the Bolshevists. In a large degree the success of the Reds was due to the military genius of Trotsky, who built the Red Army out of unskilled and demoralized remnants of the Tsarist armies. By the end of 1920 the Bolshevist state was firmly established in Western Russia, and within the next two years the last disaffected elements had been expelled from, or exterminated in, the remotest corners of Siberia.

The Red victory had been purchased at a great price. Huge provinces had been laid waste; the Soviet had had to abandon considerable territories which until 1917 formed part of the Tsarist realm. On the Baltic three new States came into being—Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. Poland achieved her independence in 1919; and in 1920, by the Treaty of Riga which brought the Russo-Polish War to a close, the defeated Bolsheviks were forced to cede to Poland a large area in the Western Ukraine.

By the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk Russia had lost all her western provinces, which thus acquired a nominal autonomy under German overlordship. After the treaty Estonia, Finland, Latvia and Lithuania had in turn declared their independence. In the south, Bessarabia had united herself with Romania. Peace treaties with Russia were signed by Finland and the Baltic States in 1920. Thus Soviet Russia's new western frontier bore many a trace of military weakness and strategic inferiority.

Russia was now faced with the colossal task of setting her house in order. The machinery of the new State had to be erected, an army and a navy and later an air force to be organized, agriculture and industry to be put on their feet, and the workers and peasants encouraged and, if necessary, coerced to produce essential goods and perform essential work without which the State could not go on existing. The clumsy and cumbersome administrative machinery of Tsarist days was of little utility, and its personnel had been obstructive. Lenin was the chief
organisation of the new industrial fabric. In 1930 he introduced the N.E.P., or new economic policy, which allowed a certain amount of private enterprise in trade and industry and permitted private profit. When the N.E.P. had served its turn by encouraging production it was terminated (1937) and the first of the great Five Year Plans took its place. Lenin had died in 1924; but the discipline carried on his work. Home-made private enterprise was rooted out and State action alone was relied upon; under the vigorous and

Great Economic ruthless direction of

Stalin the great eco-
nomical experiment was begun. For the first time all the actual and potential resources of a great State were brought within and under the direction of a central planning agency. The first Plan, covering the years 1928 to 1932, was principally concerned with the establishment of basic industries and the increase of the instruments of production, without which no rise in the standard of living was possible. The Russian people were forced to submit to years of toil, with little material reward; but they were given a vision of a bright and glorious future, and the second Five Year Plan (1933-37) was devoted to the production of "summer goods," as well as factories and machinery and equipment of every kind.

The progress achieved was spectacular. Agriculture proved to be the great problem, and the "Kulaks" (small farmers and better-off peasants) opposed the government plans to the point of concealing or destroying grain and eventually of hoarding production to little more than the amount that would feed their own small circle. The Five Year Plans hinged on the success of the Kolkhoz, or collective farm, since only by annal-gamating a number of small farms into one big one could the benefit of mechanization be obtained. A third Five Year Plan was launched in 1937. As before, industrial and agricultural production, new construction and the provision of new consumer goods were to be whipped up to even higher levels.

A few figures will give an idea of the great strides that had been made. In 1913 Russia had produced 4,000,000 tons of cast iron, 20,000,000 tons of coal, 5,000,000 tons of steel. In 1936 the corresponding outputs were roughly 14,500,000 tons, 125,000,000 tons and 25,000,000 tons. Cities now in virgin forests: Magnitogorsk; the great metallurgical centre in the Urals, with a population of more than 300,000; an example. Engineering achievements included the canal joining the White Sea to the Baltic, that connecting the rivers Volga and Moskva; the Turku-Sill railway, the doubling of the track of the eastern half of the Trans-Siberian railway; the great hydro-electric station on the Dnieper. Immense workshops for tractors were built at Stalingrad, Krasnoi and Chelyabinsk, others for motor vehicles at Moscow and Gorky; a great establishment for railway rolling stock at Moscow. The number of workmen employed rose from about ten million before the war of 1914-18 to over 14 million in 1930 and to 26 million in 1937.

One noticeable feature of the third Plan was an intensification of the tendency to regional self-sufficiency and a further shift of the industrial centre of gravity from Moscow, Leningrad and the Ukraine to the east to Central Asia and to Siberian regions hundreds of miles beyond. Many of the most vital industries were destined to be duplicated in the Urals, in the Volga area, and in Kazakhstan near the foothills of the Altai Mountains; and new plants in these distant regions were ordered for concentration with all haste. The reason for these and many similar items in the programme was obvious; the Soviet State was apprehensive of war, and was doing its best to avoid being dealt a crippling blow in the opening weeks of a campaign. In 1934 the Territorial army had been hastened by lack of munitions.

This was the peril to be prevented. Who, then, was the enemy on the Soviet frontier? An enemy that the Soviet feared? Yes! An enemy that the west, it was clear, and as clearly Germany. In 1922 Germany had been the first to conclude a treaty with the Bolshevik State, but the meeting of Rathenau and Chwilin at Rapallo was by now ancient history. The Weimar Republic was dead, and in its place was established the Reich of Hitler, in whose "Mein Kampf" was expressed the most

violent denunciation of Bolshevik ideology and practice. Certainly after the Nazi triumph in 1933, if not before, Stalin became aware of the danger to be apprehended from Nazi Germany. In 1933 France and the Soviet started negotiations for an "Eastern Pact" to include Germany, Soviet Russia, Poland, the Baltic States, Finland and Czechoslovakia. France was to guarantee the proposed Pact, while Russia for her part was to guarantee the Locarno Pact. Germany declined to sign; Poland also giving the reason that she already was party to a non-aggression pact with Germany; Finland made no reply to the proposal, and it is not surprising that in those circumstances the Pact died still-born. In 1934 the Soviet proposed to Germany that the two States should jointly undertake to preserve the independence and integrity of the Baltic States. A like proposal was made to Poland. The German government declined, and Poland refused, while simultaneously signing a non-aggression treaty with Germany.

At the end of 1934 the Soviet Union joined the League of Nations; in May, 1935, she signed a treaty of mutual assistance against aggression with France and another with Czechoslovakia; and in 1937 she concluded a pact of non-aggression with the Chinese Republic. Yet at Munich, in September, 1938, Russia was left out of the conference. Notwithstanding this refusal, the Soviet Union, three days after Hitler's march into Prague, proposed a conference of Britain, France, the U.S.S.R., Romania and Turkey to devise means of resistance to further Nazi aggression. The proposal was rejected—in the opinion of the British Government it was "premature"—but Russia was invited to join with Britain, France and Poland in a declaration against aggression. Russia agreed, but the proposal came to nothing because (so it was believed) of the unwillingness of a Polish Government to enter into any alliance relationship with the Soviet Union.

Then Britain proceeded to give a guarantee to Poland (as well as to Romania and Greece) without apparently consulting the Russian Government until after it had been given. All through the summer of 1939 negotiations were kept up for the conclusion of a Triple Pact of Mutual Assistance between Russia, Britain and France, but the plans came to grief, ostensibly because of the Soviet Union's demand that there should be a joint guarantee of all the Baltic States from

"WE MUST BE READY FOR WAR," SAID YOROSHILY

The occasion was the grand parade of the Red Army in Red Square, Moscow, on November 7, 1939. At the superintendence of Marshal Konstantin Voroshilov, then Defence Commissar; on his left are Stalin, in fur cap, and Molotov, Foreign Commissar. Range on either side are other Soviet leaders. High-def. photograph is of the 25th anniversary parade a year later at the same historic spot.
the Baltic to the Black Sea. Some of them did not desire such a guarantee.

So the way was left open for Hitler. On August 23, while a British and French Mission was still in Moscow, a Pact was indeed signed in the Kremlin—but it was with Germany. What was the reason for this astounding stroke? The principal one, no doubt, was that given by Molotov to the Supreme Soviet Council on August 31:

"As the negotiations had shown that the conclusion of a pact of mutual assistance could not be expected, we could not but explore other possibilities of ensuring peace and eliminating the danger of war between Germany and the U.S.S.R."

It must also be recognized that at this period Britain and France had not a great deal to offer. In space the first two Powers were far distant from Soviet territories, while Germany was at its borders. Probably the Soviet knew as well as did the British Government that our own defences were sketchy and inadequate; that we should be hard put to beat off German forces, let alone afford substantial help to Poland, to whom we had pledged our support. And there was the lesson of Munich clear for all the world to read. Certainly there was deep mistrust in Russia of the British Government of the day—and its intentions, its sincerity and its determination.

On October 31, 1939, the Soviet’s intentions became clearer. Molotov, then Soviet Premier and Foreign Minister, addressed the Supreme Soviet Council, and among the delegates were two from the provinces of Western White Russia and Western Ukraine—territories which had been included in Poland by the Versailles settlement, although, as a leader in "The Times," of November 2 admitted, the provinces were a racial part of the Russian family. Molotov declared that he thought the chief points of Soviet foreign policy were a free hand in international affairs, the continuation of the policy of neutrality, and a wish to shorten the European war. The alliance was a matter of mutual interest. Russia was given a breathing space in which to prepare for the conflict which the Nazis in the Kremlin must have deemed to be inevitable. Hitler’s eastern flank was now secured and he could deal with Poland—soon to be overrun and dismembered. Russia’s gains were immediate. Half Poland fell to her at little cost. Molotov stated the casualties as 731 killed and 1,962 wounded. Next year, following the successful conclusion of the Finnish War, Russia absorbed bloodlessly the three Baltic States and Bessarabia.

So by the early months of 1940 Russia had rectified her frontier to some purpose and could now breathe freely. A buffer of former Polish territory now separated her from Nazi Germany; and she had secured bases in the Baltic States. The peril that had existed in the nearness of Finnish territory to Leningrad had been removed by the cession of the Karelian isthmus to Russia. When the Nazi invasion began on June 22, 1941, these newly-acquired areas were swiftly overrun by the Nazi armies. Yet if the Germans had been able to start the campaign from the 1938 frontier their first onslaught might well have carried them beyond Moscow and perhaps as far as the Urals.

The alliance was to endure for rather less than two years, and Stalin employed the time that had been won in the further development of Russia’s defences. Yet already, if Hitler is to be believed, the Soviet was so strong as to constitute a serious menace to German security. In the Führer’s proclamation announcing the invasion of Russia he dilated upon the way in which the Soviet had seized every opportunity of profiting from the victories which Germany had won, and declared that since August, 1940, he had found it necessary to strengthen his forces in the eastern regions of the Reich because of the "troublesome concentrations of Bolshevik divisions." Then Hitler proceeded to adduce "evidence"—derived in the main from Molotov’s requests when the Soviet envoy came to Berlin in November, 1940 (see page 1291)—that Russia and Britain were contemplating the establishment of a front against the Reich.

From this speech of Hitler’s it is clear that the Russian gains on the Baltic, in Poland, Bessarabia and the Bukovina had been tolerated with very bad grace. On the other hand, there seems little doubt that Russia viewed with the deepest concern Nazi penetration in the Balkans, culminating in the invasion and overrunning of Yugoslavia and Greece and the conversion into satellite states of Romania and Bulgaria.

To those who saw the war from outside it seemed that when the clash came
Russia would be overborne by the Nazi might. Was it likely that the Red Army, which apparently had not been able to defeat the Finns without difficulty, would be able to stand against the force which had swept across France to the Channel in a few days and then had brought proud France to her knees?

In western Europe much of the uncertainty about Russia’s military and economic strength had been due to the successive “purges” carried out by Stalin. Eight high-ranking army officers were shot in June, 1937, the most important being Marshal Tukhachevsky. Later that year many senior officers in the army and navy were shot or removed from their posts. It was hinted that a plot to overthrow Stalin’s government and to set up one with pro-Nazi leanings was behind this great purge, but, whatever the motive, military observers in other countries were unanimous in thinking that it must seriously have weakened the Soviet. And there had been other startling clearances of former associates. Kamenev and Zinoviev had been tried and shot in 1936; others, including Radek, Sokolnikov and Pyatakov, were executed early in 1937; another group, including Kamazhan and Yenikidze, was tried and shot in December. Yagoda, till then head of the O.P.U., was shot together with Bukharin and Rykov (against whom he himself had begun the dread investigations) in March of 1938.

What was the real strength of the U.S.S.R.—in men, in machines, in morale? The “Red Army of peasants and workers” had been formed by edit of March 2, 1918, under Krylenko. The army which fought against the

White Russians and the forces of the Allies after the Peace of Brest-Litovsk was virtually the creation of Trotsky, who led it through the civil war. After this period it was drastically reorganized and disciplined; the fact of class equality did not do away with the need for rigorous obedience and the punctilious fulfillment of military duties.

In 1934 the number of the active army was increased from about 600,000 to almost a million; two years later it had grown to a million and a half. The length of service varied from one to five years. Service was of course obligatory, and these not drawn for the army year by year received military training.

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT, SOURCE OF RUSSIA’S STRENGTH

By great privations Russia built up enormous industries which made her self-sufficient. She exploited her hitherto unused mineral wealth, and the lower photograph shows a plant at Magnitogorsk for making coke used in smelting the rich magnetic iron ore of the region. Top, “Stalinets,” tractors for the mechanized farms, seen in the yard of a great factory at Chelyabinsk.

Photos, Picture Press, Planet News.
which to stem the German invasion. Germany was probably employing much
the same strength. The Soviet was
credited with an air force of about
10,000 machines, with a front-line
strength of about half. This was per-
haps an underestimate.

About the Russian navy, there was
little known. Nominally it contained
four old but modernized battle-ships;
five old cruisers and four modern ones;
the latter armed with 7-in. guns; these
were believed to be about 50 destroyers
and some 170 underwater craft.

In June, 1940, the eight-hour day
and seven-day week were reintroduced,
and industries concerned with war
production were decentralized. Another
point was the constantly increasing
defence budget. In 1940 the alle-
ations were only double the 1938 figures,
and amounted to one-third of the total
Budget expenditure. The estimates for 1941 showed still further
increase, the 1938 figure being trebled.

On June 22, 1941, Hitler struck. The
story of the invasion is told in the
following Chapter. Before the day
was out Mr. Churchill, on behalf of
Britain, had welcomed Russia into the
ranks of the United Nations and had
pledged her our utmost aid.

in their own district. Students had
to put in periods of training and pass
certain military examinations, after
which they were given a commission
in the reserve on completing a year of
service. A decree of September 22,
1935, reintroduced most of the former
army ranks and titles.

The industrialization of Russia under
the Soviet regime had eliminated the
main weakness of the armies in Tsarist
times—incapacity to equip fully the
available man power and to maintain
supplies. Further, the agricultural
policy based mainly on mechaniza-
tion had given the peasants a new standard
of intelligence and initiative, while
contact with tractor and machines
had given a useful mechanical know-
ledge to hundreds of thousands.

Russia sedulously concealed her real
military strength, and did not send
her latest and most powerful weapons
to the great military parades in Moscow.

In March, 1939, Voroshilov asserted
that the bomb salvo (total weight of
bombs capable of being dropped) of the
Red Air Force was twice that of the
Luftwaffe, and even in 1935 General
Guderian, Hitler's tank expert, had
stated that the Soviet Union had
10,000 tanks.

At June 22, 1941, there were believed
to be some 160 Russian divisions with

SOVIET EMERGENCY COUNCIL OF DEFENCE

After the German invasion of Russia on June 22, 1941, Stalin took over the Defence Ministry
from Voroshilov and a Council of Defence was set up. Here are the five members: (front row,
left to right) Molotov, vice-chairman; Stalin, head of Council; Marshal Voroshilov; (back
row) Malenikov, at Supreme Soviet; Lavrenti Beria, chief of OGPU.
SOVIET RUSSIA IS ATTACKED FROM LAND AND AIR

Hitler's armies and air force invaded Russia at 4 a.m. on June 22, 1941. Below are extracts from the German Note handed to M. Dekanov after the invasion had started, from Hitler's address to the Reichstag in which M. Molotov informed the Russian people of this new outrage, and from that in which Mr. Churchill hastened to make a declaration on British policy.

VON RIBBENTROP, IN A NOTE, DATED JUNE 21, HANDED TO THE SOVIET AMBASSADOR JUNE 22, 1941:

I refer to Germany's recent friendly policy towards Russia, the Soviet Union adopted a wholly different attitude. By means of centres chosen in neighbouring countries it attempted, as it had done before, to carry out subversive activities and preparatory measures for sabotage in Germany and the territories occupied by her.

The comprehensive material concerning the anti-German activity pursued by the Soviet Union, which will be published by the Reich Government, proves conclusively that Soviet Russia's declaration constituted a deliberate attempt to mislead Germany into the advantageous terms from Germany's friendly attitude caused the Soviet Government to adopt a loyal attitude towards the Reich. Contrary to all the engagements which they have undertaken and in absolute contradiction to their solemn declaration, the Soviet Government have turned against Germany.

The Soviet Government have violated their treaties and broken their agreement with Germany. Bolshevik Moscow's hatred of National Socialist Germany is stronger than its political wisdom. Bolshevism is opposed to National Socialist in deadly animosity. Bolshevik Moscow desires to stab National Socialist Germany in the back, while she is engaged in a struggle for her existence.

The pressures of the German people are fully aware that they are called upon not only to defend their native land, but to save the entire civilized world from the deadly danger of Bolshevism and to close the way for true racial progress in Europe.

BULLEN, IN A PROCLAMATION BROADCAST BY GERMANY, JUNE 22, 1941:

Never did the German people harbour hostile feelings against the people of Russia. Yet for over 25 years the Jewish-Bolshevik rulers in Moscow endeavoured to set not only Germany, but the whole of Europe, aflame. At no time did Germany attempt to carry out the National Socialist ideals and conceptions into Russia. Yet the Jewish-Bolshevik rulers in Moscow, with their animosity directed against them and upon other European peoples— not only by ideological means, but above all by military force.

While our soldiers from May 10, 1940, onwards had been breaking the power of France and Britain in the west, the Russian military deployment on our eastern frontier was being continued un a more and more menacing extent. From August, 1940, onwards I therefore considered it to be in the interests of the Reich no longer to permit our eastern provinces, which moreover had already been so often laid waste, to remain unprotected in the face of this tremendous concentration of Bolshevist divisions. Thus came about the result intended by the British and Soviet Russian Governments—a policy which aimed at the tying-up of such powerful German forces as the Russian government was in the case that the radical conclusion of the war in the west, particularly as regards aircraft, could no longer be a burden for the German High Command.

This, however, was in line with the object not only of British but of Soviet Russian policy. For both Britain and Soviet Russia intend to let this war go on for as long as possible in order to weaken the whole of Europe and render it still more helpless.

The moment has now come when to continue as a mere observer would not only be a sin of omission but a crime against the German people, and even against the whole of Europe. Today something like 160 Russian divisions are facing our frontier. For weeks violations of this frontier have been taking place, not only on our country, but in the far north, right down to Russia... I have therefore decided today once again to entrust the fate and the future of the German Reich and of our nation to the hands of our soldiers. May our Lord God aid us in this greatest of all struggles.

M. MOLOTOV, IN A BROADCAST TO THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE, JUNE 22, 1941:

Today, at four o'clock in the morning, without giving any reason to the Soviet Government and without any declaration of war, German forces attacked our country. This unheard-of attack is without example in the history of civilized nations. It has been made in spite of the fact that there is a non-aggression pact between Germany and Russia, which was conscientiously kept in every detail.

After the attack the German Ambassador in Moscow, Schulenburg, at 5.30 in the morning, gave me, as People's Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, a Note in the name of his Government that the German Government has decided to proceed against the Soviet Government by concentration of units of the Red Army on the Western German frontier.

In answer to this I declared in the name of the Government of Russia that until the last minute the Government had made no effort to represent the Soviet Government. Germany decided to attack the Soviet in spite of the peaceful attitude of the Soviet, and because of this very fact, Fascist Germany becomes the aggressor. I have also to announce that at no single point have our forces or our air forces allowed any frontier to be violated.

Now that this attack on the Soviet has taken place, the Soviet Government have given our forces the following order: Best back the enemy's invasion and do not allow the enemy forces to hold the territory of our country. This war has been forced on us not by the German people, not by the German workers or intellectuals, whose problems we thoroughly understand, but by a clique of bloodthirsty Fascist leaders of Germany.

Mr. CHURCHILL, IN A BROADCAST SPEECH, JUNE 22, 1941:

At four o'clock this morning Hitler attacked and invaded Russia... This was no surprise to us. In fact, I have been giving warnings to Stalin of what was coming.

No one has been a more persistent opponent of German war than I have been for the last 25 years. I will say no word that I have spoken about it, but all this takes away from the spectacle which is now unfolding. The past, with its crimes, its follies and its tragedies, is history away... Now I have to declare the decision of his Majesty's Government, and I feel sure it is a decision in which the great Dominions will in due course concur. But we must speak out now at once, without a day's delay, I have to make a declaration. Can you doubt what our policy will be? We have but one aim and one single irreducible purpose. We are resolved to destroy Hitler and every vestige of the Nazi regime. From this nothing will turn us—nothing. We will never persuade, we will never negotiate, with Hitler or any of his gang.

Any man or State who fights against Nazism will have our aid. Any man or State who marches with Hitler is our foe... It follows, therefore, that we shall give whatever help we can to Russia and the Russian people. We shall stand by all our friends and allies in every part of the world to take the same course, and pursue it as we shall faithfully and steadfastly to the end. We have offered to the Government of Soviet Russia any technical or economic assistance which is in our power... The Russian danger is our danger, the Russian fighting is our fighting, the Russian suffering is our suffering, and the Russian home is the home of free men and free peoples in every quarter of the globe.
Chapter 181

GERMAN CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA—UP TO THE FALL OF SMOLENSK

Hitler's Threefold Invasion, June 22, 1941—von Leeb's Drive Against Leningrad—Finland Joins the Nazis—von Bock's Objective Was Moscow—von Rundstedt Aimed at Kiev and Odessa—Big Initial Advances by the Nazis Are Checked—Russia's Delaying Tactics—Budyonny's Peril in the South—Fall of Smolensk—Recession to Dnieper Line—After Seven Weeks

The political background in Russia during the years immediately preceding Germany's invasion is described in Chapter 180. After the partition of Poland in 1939 and the occupation by Russia of the Baltic States, both partners in the pact of friendship fortified the new boundary and stationed large forces in the frontier zone. It was clear that Russia placed no great confidence in the pact, and that her acquisition of territory had been mainly with the object of providing a buffer in advance of her previous frontier, behind which her main armies would deploy. It was no doubt hoped that the covering forces in the buffer zone between the former and present frontiers would absorb the first shock if Germany attacked, and would gain time for the main army to complete its mobilization and deployment.

The great weakness of the Russian position was that whereas Germany, being at war, was fully mobilized and war-trained, the Red Army could not be brought to the same state of readiness without exciting suspicion and possibly precipitating an attack. Moreover, the Soviet needed time to reorganize and rearrange up to the standard which, it was clear, Germany had reached, for much of her own equipment was obsolete. Fortunately for Russia a year and three-quarters elapsed before the attack came, and in that period her munition establishments redoubled their efforts. The Finnish war gave valuable experience, and the drastic purge of the Red Army probably removed elements of doubtful loyalty and efficiency.

Germany's occupation of Rumania and the Nazi campaigns in Greece and Yugoslavia did not necessarily imply a threat to Russia, though their results cleared the area and protected the Nazi right flank in the contemplated act of aggression. Before the Balkan campaigns were over there were reports that the Reichswehr was massing on the Russian frontier, but these stories were generally taken merely as an indication of pressure applied to extort a greater measure of economic reciprocity. On June 22 the Nazi armies invaded Russia; there was no declaration of war. German and Rumanian troops advanced from the Baltic to the Black Sea, while the Luftwaffe bombed Russian cities and aerodromes. Although Russia was not altogether unprepared her mobilization was incomplete and operational surprise had been achieved. From the first Germany held the initiative. The Russian primary object was, by delaying action, to gain time for the complete mobilization of her vast resources. Germany, on the other hand, was confident that in a blitzkrieg she would destroy Russia's military power and secure control of her economic resources. Germany, like the rest of the world, grossly underestimated the strength of the Red Army and the new standard of efficiency the Soviet regime had achieved. The German people were promised a complete victory within three months, while many outside Germany, accepting German invincibility and misled by early Russian failures in the Finnish war, expected a Russian collapse in half that time. Yet a study of the Finnish war, especially in its later phases, suggested that in leadership, armament and administrative capacity the Red Army might prove more formidable than that of the

RIBBENTROP ON THE INVASION OF RUSSIA

On the morning of June 22, 1941, after the world had learnt that Hitler's armies were invading Russia, Ribbentrop summoned Press representatives to the Berlin Foreign Office building to hear him read the Note which had been handed to the Soviet Ambassador, dated the day before.

The German Foreign Minister is standing, right.

Photo, Reprinta...
Terrorist regime—the fighting quality of the Russian soldier had never been in doubt. One reason for the world's misjudgement was that the Red Army had kept its secrets well, and little information on which to base a reliable opinion was obtainable.

Although the attack was delivered along the whole front, the main thrusts were made in three directions. In the north Von Leeb's group of armies advanced from East Prussia, through the Baltic States and White Russia, towards Leningrad, and had also the mission of capturing the recently acquired Russian naval bases in Estonia.

In the centre Von Bock's group struck directly towards Moscow, following the main road from Poland north of the Pript river—one of the few good roads in Russia, and Napoleon's line of invasion. South of the Pript marshes Von Rundstedt's group (partly composed of Russians and in a few days to be joined by Hungarians) operated in the Ukraine and Bessarabia— Kiev being the immediate objective of his left wing, while his right aimed at capturing the Russian naval bases of Odessa and Nikolaeu. The great industrial area of the Donets basin provided a still deeper objective for Von Rundstedt. Each group thus had an objective which the Russians would be compelled to defend and protect. In addition to their political importance, both Leningrad and Moscow were great centres of munition production.

Von Brauchitsch (who had commanded the Nazi armies in Poland and in the Western campaign) was again Commander-in-Chief. On the Russian side Stalin retained control, with Zhukov as his Chief of Staff; Voroshilov in the north, Timoshenko in the centre and Budyonny in the south commanded sections of the front.

In the north the main physical obstacles to be encountered were the rivers flowing towards the Baltic, great tracts of forest and marsh, and the Valdai hills. In the centre physical obstacles were fewer, since the line of advance lay in the watershed of rivers flowing to the Baltic and Black Sea. There were of course rivers to be crossed, notably the Berezina, which figured so largely in the Napoleonic campaign, and afforested areas, especially in the approaches to Moscow. The Pript marshes in the initial stages of invasion tended to cramp manoeuvre and to divide the German forces.

In the south the main physical obstacles were the great rivers discharging into the Black Sea, but between them the country was open and provided great facilities for mechanized operations. Moreover, the west banks of the rivers in all cases dominated the left. Throughout the campaigns towns and villages provided centres of resistance to Panzer attacks and had frequently to be bypassed. The Russian railways were of broad gauge and thus could not be used by German rolling stock till the tracks were relaid; though the invaders came prepared for this change-over it added to the difficulty of the ever-lengthening line of German communications. On the other hand, during the summer months mechanized transport could more freely across country over the sun-baked plains.

In its initial phases the German invasion met with immediate success, except on the Bessarabian front, where for ten days German and Romanian troops failed to cross the Pruth until other of the invaders forced a passage of its upper waters.

In Poland and from East Prussia Panzer thrusts penetrated the Russian defences and, in some instances notably at Bialystok, surrounded large groups. The Russians fought with determination, counter-attacking and fighting on even when isolated. Resistance was particularly strong south of the Pript marshes; Przemys was temporarily recaptured after it had been occupied by the Germans, and Lvow stood out for some days, part of the troops holding it eventually cutting their way out after having been surrounded.
Further east in the Luck area there were fierce tank battles in which the Germans lost heavily. North of the Priepet marshes opposition stiffened as Von Bock approached the frontier of Russia proper in the neighbourhood of Minsk. Von Leeb's advance from East Prussia through Lithuania and Latvia met with less opposition; Panzer troops reached Dvinsk on the Dvina on the fifth day, though, with resistance stiffening, the lower Dvina was not crossed till July 1.

On the whole the attack had gone according to plan and German confidence was unshaken. The rate of advance, averaging over 20 miles a day, was certainly impressive, and by the end of the first week most of Russian-occupied Poland had been overrun. In one respect only had there been definite failure: the initial attack on Russian aerodromes had produced little result, for recently aircraft had been dispersed in distant aerodromes out of harm's way. The Russian Air Force was therefore soon able to play an important part, and the Germans failed to establish that supremacy in the air which they had gained in previous campaigns. Moreover, the Russian aircraft that came into action proved to be of much more advanced types than those used in the Finnish war. Russian bombers attacked German cities and Rumanian ports and oil refineries, and it was not surprising that the Germans soon decided to suspend air attacks on Britain and transferred large sections of the Luftwaffe from west to east.

During the first week of the war Finland threw in her lot with Germany, and Sweden allowed the passage of German troops from Norway to Finland—a strange and important minefield concession, for without it the Russian Navy, both in the Arctic and Baltic, could have prevented substantial German assistance reaching the Finns. As a consequence of these developments a subsidiary theatre of war opened on the Finnish frontier; in the south the Finns were fighting to regain lost territory in Karelia, and in the north a German force attempted to capture Murmansk, with a view to denying it as a port of entry for the material assistance. Mr. Churchill had promised to Russia. Finnish intervention clearly indicated eventual cooperation in the attack towards Leningrad, and threatened the naval base at Hangö, at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland, which Russia had acquired in 1939.

Pressing back the Russian covering armies, the German advance continued during the second week without serious resistance.
check, great victories and immense captures of prisoners and material being claimed. Russian rear guards continued to fight stubbornly, and towards the end of the week German complaints of the bad condition of roads indicated that difficulties were being encountered.

In the third week Russian opposition stiffened and it became evident that the Germans had now made contact with the so-called Stalin Line. This was not a heavily fortified position, but a zone of great depth containing numbers of fortified strong points and well-defended physical obstacles. It should be more properly considered as the position in which the main Russian Army deployed and took station behind the covering force in the buffer zone. It stretched from the Gulf of Finland and Lake Peips in the north to the Black Sea, running roughly parallel to the original frontier and some distance in the rear. Lake Peips in the north, the Berezina and Upper Dnieper in the centre, and the Dniester in the south were the main physical obstacles in the line, but towns formed centres of resistance, especially against Panzer thrusts.

It is important to note that owing to the great distances and the limitations of the railway system it took a considerable time for Russian formations to reach their positions after completing mobilization. For recruiting, training and administrative purposes peace stations and mobilization centres, in a huge country like Russia, must obviously be widely scattered; and formations from eastern provinces and Siberia might take weeks, or even months, to reach the theatre of operations. It is clear, therefore, that only a part of the Russian army was available to stem the German advance, though there was an immense and growing mass of reserves behind it.

During the third week Yev Louk was definitely checked by counter-attacks in the neighbourhood of Ostrów, south of Lake Peips, near the Latvian border. In the centre there had been heavy fighting about Minsk, and, though Panzer troops may have reached the Berezina, the line of the river was held. South of the Prypet marshes strong opposition blocked the road towards Kiev about Novograd Volynsk, near the Polish frontier; and, although the Pruth had been crossed, fighting continued in Bessarabia, the Dniester had not been reached. The momentum of the advance had temporarily been lost, and it had become evident to the German High Command (and to the world in general) that Russia was proving tougher than had been expected. A distinct lull
ANGLORUSSIAN PACT OF MUTUAL ASSISTANCE

On the evening of July 22, 1941, a formal Alliance between Britain and Russia came into being with the signing of an agreement to give each other all assistance and support during the war against Hitlerite Germany. Molotov signs for Russia; behind him is Stalin, with Sir Stafford Cripps (British Ambassador to Russia) on his right.

The fiercest fighting was about Pskov (south of Lake Peipus, which protected the Russian right); towards Smolensk, which was reported to be encircled by Panzer forces; and about Novgorod Volynsk on the line of advance towards Kiev. The German main effort was in the direction of Moscow. Perhaps to allay growing disappointment in Germany, where an early end to the war had been expected, Hitler on July 21 announced in a broadcast that the Russian Army had been broken up into disconnected fragments with no recognizable central core, and that the Russian Army had been broken up into disconnected fragments with no recognizable central core, and that it only remained to mop up the isolated groups still holding out. This, of course, was a false picture; for it took no account of the reserves which the Russians had available to replace losses, or of the tactics they had deliberately adopted and which in the long run were to prove successful.

Heavily fighting continued during the fourth, fifth and sixth weeks, but the first week in August showed no notable progress either towards Leningrad or Kiev, and Smolensk, though surrounded, still had not been captured. In the south, the enemy had made no success and Budyonnov's army was in difficulties. The crossing of the upper Dnieper had exposed his right flank, and though the direct advance towards Kiev was still held up 80 miles short of that city, a strong German threat

IN THE FOOTSTEPS OF CHARLES XII AND NAPOLEON

With their usual showmanship the Nazis, on reaching the famous Borodino crossing, put up a signboard which read: "Here the Borodino was crossed by Charles XII of Sweden on June 25, 1708, in his campaign against Peter the Great; and by Napoleon on November 27-29, 1812, during the retreat from Moscow." At the left is the building used by Napoleon as headquarters.

Photos, Associated Press
HOW RUSSIA MET THE FIRST SHOCK OF INVASION

Soviet infantry advance as tanks clear the way (1). Aerial warfare was fierce: one of the many Nazi planes shot down is seen at (2). In (4) civilians are sheltering from bombers in a shallow ditch. Soviet tanks were well hidden when not in action (5); here the crew follow out a route on the map. Behind the enemy’s line of advance there was increasing guerrilla activity; (3) shows the Soviet guerrilla soldier’s grenades and pistol at his belt.

Photos: British Official | Crown Copyright | Keystone | Associated Press | Planet News
OUTSIDE THE CITY WALL OF SMOLENSK

Smolensk, on the Dnieper, some 250 miles W.S.W. of the Russian capital, was evacuated by Soviet forces about August 16, 1941. Its strategical importance, on a vital railway connection with Moscow, is clear from the map on page 1822. Photograph shows the grave of a German soldier close to the city wall.

Photo, Associated Press

developed in a S.E. direction towards Byelaja-Tserkov, cutting the railway between Kiev and the Southern Ukraines. In addition, Rumanians and Germans had forced a passage over the Dniester near its mouth, and had cleared the whole of Bessarabia. Budomyry fell back to the line of the Bug River, leaving Odessa as a thorn in the German side which, while it held out, prevented the enemy from using sea communications to relieve his difficult supply problems. The naval base at Nikolayev at the mouth of the Bug was also threatened, and was in fact captured on August 15 after it had been evacuated and thoroughly wrecked by the Russians.

The river Bug did not provide a good defensive line, particularly as the Byelaja-Tserkov thrust turned it. Moreover, between the Bug and the Dnieper there were no good defensive positions, the terrain presenting facilities for mechanized operations. Any attempt to hold the Bug line must fail, and a retreat to the Dnieper had in fact already begun.

In the north also things were not going too well for the defenders. Though Von Leeb was held up in his direct advance on Leningrad, he had pursued the second part of his mission, the clearing of Estonia and capture of Russian naval bases there. Russian forces in Estonia had a twofold task—to protect the naval bases and to prevent a German advance northwards, to the west of Lake Peipus, which might develop into a threat to Leningrad along the coast of

north end of Lake Peipus were checked, the Russians holding the River Narva, which flows from the lake to the sea.

On the Finnish front the German attempts to capture Murmansk had failed, for the marshy and rocky ground presented great difficulties. But in the south the Finns had made progress on both sides of Lake Ladoga, cutting the Murmansk railway where it skirts Lake Onega and threatening the canal which connects the Gulf of Finland and the White Sea—a channel by which the smaller units of the Baltic Fleet, including submarines, might if necessary be withdrawn to Arctic waters.

During the first half of August the danger to Leningrad had undoubtedly grown serious. Not only was there the menace from Finland as well as the risk of a German thrust north of Lake Peipus, but Von Leeb's main armies had now begun to make progress. Developing an attack with his right wing towards the river Lovat, between Kholin and Lake Ilmen, he reached Staraya Russa, gaining the railway running eastwards through that town. This protected his right flank from Voroshilov's counter-attacks while he pressed on directly towards Leningrad.

The general situation by August 14 (on which date the Russians admitted that "several days ago" they had evacuated Smolensk) was as follows: In the centre, though

BLAZING RUSSIAN TANKS AMID THE CORNFIELDS

Taken late in July, 1941, this photograph shows the advance Russian tanks crippled by gunfire. German soldiers go forward through the corn, followed up by German tanks. The open level terrain gave the utmost advantage to mechanized fighting vehicles.

Photo, Associated Press
IN BATTERED SMOLENSK

As early as the middle of July the Germans claimed the capture of Smolensk, but the Poles fought off the invaders for nearly another month. A German communiqué of August 6 said that the army group of von Bock had gloriously concluded the gigantic battle of Smolensk, but actually the city was not evacuated until about the 20th, after fierce resistance and many counter-attacks.

Photo, Associated Press
FALL OF MINSK, CAPITAL OF WHITE RUSSIA

Minsk was captured by heavy armoured units of the German forces in the early days of July, 1941, after fierce fighting. Much of the town had previously been levelled to the ground by enemy bombers, as the lower photograph shows. Top. German tanks and advance mechanized units entering Minsk.

FLAMING TOWNS IN THE PATH OF THE INVADER

As the Germans advanced through Russia in July 1941 they gained much territory, but the Soviet armies withdrew generally after successfully laying waste the land and so robbing the enemy of material gains. Top, at the Beresina German motor-cycle troops are about to cross on a float—a burning village behind them. Lower photograph, tired Red troops halt for food on the outskirts of Vitebsk.

Photos, Keystone
NAZI ARMoured COLUMN ENTERS A BURNING VILLAGE

Warily the enemy advances through a village which the retreating Soviet troops have left in flames. In one armoured fighting vehicle the gun is trained against Russian aircraft; in the other the weapon is aimed at the wooden building at the left, from which—so says the German caption—attack by Russian snipers is feared. Crouching as they go, Hitler’s infantrymen advance from the lorries.

Photo, Associated Press
Smolensk had fallen, resistance east of that city was still fierce and no marked progress was being made by the enemy. In the north pressure towards Leningrad was increasing both west and east of Lake Peipus, but the German advance was not rapid. In southern Finland the offensive did not immediately threaten Leningrad, but might eventually endanger the communications of the city with northern and eastern sources of supply. In northern Finland the attempts to capture Murmansk had failed. In the south the situation was becoming acute, for, although the advance towards Kiev was checked, the thrust S.E. about Byelaya-Tserkov and Uman, coupled with the German advance along the Black Sea coast, made Budenny's position precarious. Odessa was encircled, and transports were at Nikolayev ready for an evacuation.

The Germans had made a great advance, but results had fallen short of their expectations. They were still a long way from Moscow, and they had failed to destroy the Red Army or render it impotent.

The chief cause of their failure to secure decisive results by blitzkrieg methods was the skill and gallantry with which the Russians carried out a prolonged retreat without losing control and without any sign of demoralization. The world watched the struggle with growing admiration, and the oppressed peoples of enemy-occupied countries began to take heart and to devise means of adding to German difficulties—difficulties which the Germans had begun to admit they were encountering.

Nazi excuses at first attributed failure or incomplete success to the indifferent character of Russian roads, which slowed down movement and hampered delivery of supplies of all kinds. Soon, however, the effectiveness and completeness of the scorched earth policy which Stalin had ordered were also admitted. Everything that might be useful to the invaders was found to have been destroyed or removed. Even the harvest and other food supplies, which were expected not only to meet many of the needs of the army but to replenish diminishing reserves in Germany itself, had been destroyed or removed, as well as agricultural machines and those of industrial establishments. Owing to the lack of local supplies thus brought about, an ever-increasing strain was thrown on the German lines of communication. Never had a ruthless policy been so thoroughly carried out or received such loyal cooperation from the individuals from whom sacrifices were demanded. The unity and devotion of the Russian people in their resistance to the invader exceeded all expectations, and there was a complete absence of traitorous Fifth Column activities which in other countries had been so thoroughly organized beforehand by the invader.

Many had thought that in the face of blitzkrieg tactics and the mechanization of transport the immense spaces of Russia had lost their defensive value and no longer rendered her unconquerable; but as the lines of over-taxcd communications grew longer those Germans who believed this were deceived. Nor was popular resistance purely negative in character. As the advance proceeded, guerrilla parties, sometimes assisted by soldiers who had lost their units and by parachutists, begun to harass the German rear, carrying out demolitions and attacking small detachments and supply convoys. In spite of barbarous reprisals the movement grew and, as it became organized, proved a menace which not only caused great enemy losses but entailed the employment of many protective parties and dissipated the German strength. The moral effect upon the invaders of constant danger and unceasing vigilance was also great.
RUSSIAN ARMY LEADERS AND THEIR NAZI OPPONENTS

MARSHAL TIMOSHENKO, WESTERN FRONT
Of Bessarabian peasant stock, Timoshenko was a conscript in the former Tsarist army. In 1919 he commanded a Red Army cavalry division and defeated Denikin in the Caucasus. He took over the Russian Western Front in July 1941.

MARSHAL BUDYONNY, SOUTH-WEST FRONT
Budyonny, a Cossack, took over command of the Soviet forces in the Finnish campaign of 1939-40 when things had gone badly for Russia. In July 1941 he was appointed to the South-west Front.

MARSHAL VOROSHILOV, NORTH-WEST COMMAND
A former metal-worker, Kliment Voroshilov won renown by his defence of Stalingrad against the White Russians in the civil war of 1919.

FIELD-MARSHAL VON BOCK
Confronted Timoshenko on the Central sector of the Russian front. He had led an army in France on the Somme-Aisne line. In 1940, Field-Marshal Ritter von Leeb, who opposed Voroshilov in the Northern sector.

FIELD-MARSHAL RITTER VON LEEB

Fd.-MARSHAL VON RUNDSTEDT
Budyonny’s antagonist on the Southern sector. In the Battle of France his armies had begun the French defeat by a break-through along the Meuse. With Von Leeb he had been recalled from retirement in September 1939.

1832
ENCIRCLEMENT OF LENINGRAD AND THE CAPTURE OF KIEV

Chapter 182


AFTER the evacuation of Smolensk the Germans evidently met strong opposition east of the city and to the south-west of it on the upper Dnieper. Timoshenko constantly delivered local counter-attacks and had considerable reserves. There is evidence that the Germans looked on Moscow as their main geographical objective, but the drive towards it had now produced a marked salient in their front, owing especially to their failure to cross the upper Dnieper where the river forms the eastern limits of the Priep air marshes. In order to give the advance fresh impetus it was necessary to widen the front of attack and to improve communications which had been rendered difficult by the delay in capturing Smolensk. This meant, though heavy fighting continued, a somewhat prolonged pause to complete preparations before a final advance towards Moscow.

In the meantime the advance towards Leningrad continued with vigour, though progress was slow. In the south the pursuit of Budyony’s army, now in full retreat to the Dnieper from the abandoned line of the Bug, was pressed hard in order to prevent it re-forming behind the Dnieper. Between Budyony’s retreating forces and the Smolensk salient Russian resistance west of Kiev was still strong, and all attempts to encircle that city from the north were checked for some time about Korosten, 70 miles to the N.W. Few details are available as regards Budyony’s retreat, but the German claims to have cut off large forces and to have captured great numbers of prisoners suggest that the withdrawal was not effected without great difficulty and heavy losses. The greater part of Budyony’s armies appear to have reached the Dnieper and to have established themselves there, for on August 18 German communiqués claimed the occupation of all the country west of the river with the exception of small bridges.

In the extreme south, Nikolayev had been evacuated on the 17th, and on the 18th the siege of Odessa (by then partly evacuated) was begun with a definite attempt to capture the port, made chiefly by Rumanians. Odessa was to resist valiantly, repelling many attacks and counter-attacks, before it was evacuated in the middle of October. That, however, is to anticipate events.

Leaving Rundstedt facing Budyony on the Dnieper, and before following events in the Leningrad area, special attention should be drawn to the capture on August 19 of Gonel, situated about halfway between Kiev and Smolensk, some 25 miles east of the upper Dnieper. The importance and implication of this thrust were not at first appreciated, though it indicated that the Germans had passed an obstacle which had given them much trouble. Gonel is an important railway centre. One line goes through Bryansk towards Moscow, another south to Odessa, passing east of Kiev and crossing the Dnieper at Cherkasy, and a third goes S.E., linking up with the railway network of the Donets basin. Gonel therefore provided a basis for thrusts following the axis of the railways—either towards Moscow, a move which might cooperate with an advance from the Smolensk salient, or southwards, threatening Kiev with encirclement. Heavy fighting continued for over ten days to the north and east of Gonel, indicating an advance in the Moscow direction, but it was stopped by Russian counter-attacks before reaching Bryansk.

The advance had the effect of making the Moskow salient less pronounced, while about the same time the capture of Velikiy Lug, on the Riga-Moscow railway to the north of the salient, had the same result. Thus a starting line was established from which an attack towards Moscow could be delivered on a broad enough front to facilitate pioneer tactics at a large scale.

Later the second use which was made of Gonel will be explained, but now we must turn to Von Leeb’s operations. He met with strong opposition and made

HOW THE INVADERS WERE FOILED AT NIKOLAYEV

On the southern front, in the Ukraine, Odessa was invested by the middle of August, and the naval base of Nikolayev with the port of Kherson had to be abandoned by Soviet troops. Before leaving Nikolayev, on the 17th, the Rumanians destroyed three submarines which were under construction, so that the enemy could not make use of them.

Photo: Keystone
no marked progress during the third week of August, but towards the end of that week appears to have gained a footing across the Narva, for fierce fighting was reported about Kurgans, a short distance to the east of the river.

This contact with the outer defences of Leningrad had been made on the shores of the Gulf of Finland. About the same time a threat of Von Leeb's right wing reached Nogorod, an important railway centre just north of Lake Ilmen, on the Volkhov River, which flows from that lake to Lake Ladoga. Combined with the attack on Smolensk, south of Lake Ilmen, this advance threatened to interrupt direct railway connection between Leningrad and the Moscow area. It represented an important success and coupled with the success achieved against Budyonny in the south, may have led the German to hope that Russian reserves in the centre would move towards the flanks, tending to open the way for decisive movement on Moscow.

The threat to Leningrad was becoming very real, especially as the pressure of the Finns on the Karelian front was increasing. Russian resistance was very strong and heavy fighting continued, the cost of August showing little further change in the situation of Von Leeb's main area. Heavy rain fall may have limited the scope of his operations.

Operations were developing in Estonia, where from bases probably in the island of Osell, at the entrance to the Gulf of Riga, bowling attacks on Berlin, Stockholm and other German centres were still made and where part of the Russian Navy still remained at Tallin. By the end of the month the Russian naval forces based at Ventspils, and the neighbouring base of Saldus, Germany claimed the capture of both places, the Russians admitting that they were evacuated on September 2.

The island of Ostiil still held out, though now deprived of naval support, and until it was captured the Estonian front could not be looked upon as closed.

The clearance of Estonia had provided the Germans with a valuable and comparatively short line of communication from Riga to the Narva front, and it was not hampered by guerrilla activity.

During the first week of September it became clear that Von Leeb was attempting to encircle Leningrad, pressure being particularly heavy to the south and towards the east. On September 3 it was claimed that he had reached the Neva, a barrier from the city, and had captured by storm the fortress town of Schlodern at the S.W. corner of Lake Ladoga—probably the result apparently of a rapid Panzer thrust, for it was only six days later that the Panzers actually passed the Neva.

This enemy success was important, for it meant the complete encirclement of Leningrad—an investment which was made all the more secure by the advance of the Neva to the River Sov, connecting the southern end of Lakes Ladoga and Onega, thus precluding their advantage, the Germans reorganized their efforts to reach a quick decision, closing in on the city from all directions and trying to reduce the morale of its defenders by bombing attacks. The fighting became fiercer than ever as the Germans approached the inner defences; but the civil population, by assisting the defenders in every way, showed that their morale was unimpaired. German losses were heavy, and progress was practically ceased. Voroshilov about this time attempted a counter-attack from the Yelhola hills south of Lake Ilmen, in order to relieve pressure on Leningrad, but had no marked success, though his threat probably did not meet with the disheartened effect the Germans claimed. It certainly failed to impair the German communications running through the opening between Lakes Ilmen and Pipo, which, presumably, was their objective. The first snow fell on September 12, making the approach of the northern winter and indicating that the attempt to get quick results might have to be replaced by deliberate siege operations designed to starve out the city. Such a change of tactics would entail many preparations to provide the investing forces with adequate shelter. Leningrad had large reserves of supplies, including new material to keep its numerous factories in operation, and was in a position to stand a prolonged siege, which the temper of the garrison showed it was ready to face. The change in enemy policy was not clearly defined, and it was made less definite by the active defence of the garrison, marked by frequent counter-attacks. Meanwhile in Estonia operations to capture Osel had been in progress, and after initial failures achieved their object about September 20.

There was constant fighting in the Smolensk salient during the first three weeks of September, due mainly to the initiatives of Timoshenko, who made many counter-attacks. No doubt this was partly to upset German preparations for renewal of an advance towards Moscow, and partly in hopes of relieving pressure on Voroshilov and Budyonny. In the second week of the month Timoshenko scored a notable success by the capture of the German positions at Yelis, 45 miles south of Smolensk. This brought about a withdrawal of the head of the salient, almost to Smolensk itself, with the loss to the enemy of some equipage.

This attack, the Russian commandes not only stopped a German drive towards Brjansk, but administered a heavy defeat on Guderian, one of the most able commanders of Panzer forces. These were perhaps the first occasions on which the Germans had suffered definite defeats. Timoshenko proved himself a general of great ability, with the offensive spirit highly developed. There was perhaps a danger that he might exhaust his reserves before a decisive German attack was made, but he

STAGES IN THE INVESTMENT OF LENINGRAD

Marshall von Leeb's right wing reached Sperenberg Island on August 21. This town on the Volkhov stands on an important rail junction, 200 miles S.E. of Leningrad. Right, Finnish launch leaves for the attack on Vyborg, which took place on August 29. Finnish bombers along the Narva front attacked Leningrad from the southwest.

Photo: Kupres; Associated Press

NAZI THRUST ALONG THE GULF OF FINLAND

The Russians had to abandon bases on Ostiil Island about September 4, and three weeks earlier had lost the port of Tallin. Left hand photograph shows the wrecked docks. Tolda, the end of August von Leeb's forces crossed the Narva river and captured the town of the same name. Right, German bombers covering a timber bridge on the west of Narva; in the Across photo are seen a Soviet tank.
After the rapid pursuit of Budyenny to the Dnieper the Germans probably needed some days in which to organize their communications, and to bring up bridging equipment. They had first to capture the Russian bridgeheads established to block the chief approaches to the river, for the main crossings would have to be made in the neighbourhood of good approach roads or railways. The bridgehead at Chehka, where the Odessa-Gomel railway crossed the river, was captured on August 23, and two days later a footing was claimed in the great industrial centre of Dniepropetrovsk.

But it was not till August 29 that the Russians evacuated this city and blew up, at Zaporoze, the great Dnieper Dam which led the Dniepropetrovsk power plant. This act of demolition provided the surest proof of Russia’s “no surrender” determination, for the Dnieper hydro-electric scheme was one of the proudest achievements of the Soviet regime. Fortunately, though it was the main source of power in the industrial Donetz basin, other sources were in operation. Its destruction was a blow to the Germans, who realized that the scorched earth policy would allow little of the industrial machinery of the Donetz to fall into their hands.

It was not until the second week of September that a new danger to Budyenny began to develop, and during the interval his troops on the Dnieper evinced signs of recovery from their retreat and made raids across the river to harass German preparations west of Kiev; but the enemy advance made no progress but it must have become evident to the Germans that an attempt to cross the Dnieper would be dangerous while Kiev held out and Budyenny had reserves with which to counter-attack. They had therefore evolved a plan for taking Kiev by a cooperative use of Von Boek’s and Von Rundstedt’s armies. The first sign was given by the capture on Sept. 12 of Chernigov, a town some 80 miles north-east of Kiev and situated on the river Desna, a tributary which joins the Dnieper at Kiev. This thrust was made by part of Von Boek’s group operating south from the Gomel region, and reinforced an attempt to encircle Kiev from the north, while the direct attack, from N.W. and W., was pressed with increased energy by Rundstedt. On September 14 the enemy captured Kremenchug, on the east bank of the Dnieper half-way between Dniepropetrovsk and Chehka, and on the railway to Kharkov. By the 18th these successes had been exploited rapidly and both the Desna and Dnieper had been crossed on wide fronts; the claws of the pincers were closing round Kiev, while a thrust from Kremenchug to Poltava interrupted communication with Kharkov. The Russians admitted the evacuation of Kiev on September 21, and the enemy claimed that large
DEFENCE OF LENINGRAD

As early as July 12, 1941, the Germans claimed that Leningrad was immediately threatened, and soon thereafter the invaders pressed on to the great Russian city and manufacturing centre from many directions—but Leningrad held fast. 1. Soviet submarine in a reach of the Neva near the city; 2. A.A. observers in camouflageed capes at work with range-finder and binoculars at look-out posts; 3. sappers working on the fortifications; 4. inspector at a Leningrad armament works examines a self-propelled assault gun ready for the front; 5. Germans in a captured Russian trench outside Leningrad.

Russian forces had been surrounded and annihilated east of the city.

The loss of Kiev was a heavy blow for the Germans, but the possession of the first of the politically important centres they had aimed at, besides involving heavy Russian losses, it was clear, too, that the great city of Kharkov was threatened by the advance to Poltava. It would seem that the evacuation of Kiev had been too delayed when the encircling movements indicated imminent danger. Rudny was in consequence left without sufficient reserves immediately available to meet the threat to Kharkov and the Donetz basin, which was also menace by a German advance to the coast of the Sea of Azov. The Germans did not at once press on towards Poltava and Kharkov, nor towards Rostov; but there were indications that they would attempt the capture of the Crimea. It seems probable that at this time they paused in order to develop their full strength for final decision blows on a single front as possible. With their ever-lengthening line of communications such a pause was probably necessary, especially in the south, where the continued resistance of Odessa made the problem of communications acute. For there is a marked absence of railways running west to east along the Black Sea coastal region, and such lines as do exist either start from Odessa and Sevastopol or from Romania, passing through Odessa.

The siege of Odessa went through three phases. At first the Germans by-passed the city, merely isolating it and leaving a force to safeguard their own communications. Then later the Rumanian army was given the task of taking Odessa. When it advanced it was met with fierce counter-attacks, which checked its progress and finally brought it to a standstill. Then followed a period in which the city was invested, with the Rumanians attempting to secure more advantageous positions prior to an attack from close quarters. In this period the Russians made numerous counter-attacks and inflicted very heavy losses on their opponents. When at last the city was in danger of capture it was evacuated, an event which is recorded later in its proper chronological sequence.

The Black Sea Fleet played such an important part in prolonging the siege of Odessa that the contribution which the Russian Navy as a whole was making in the war may well be mentioned here. In European waters it was, of course, geographically divided into three separate parts—the Black Sea and

YELNIA WAS RECAPTURED AFTER 26 DAYS OF FIGHTING

From July 25 until September 3 the enemy held Yelnia, 45 miles E.S.E. of Smolensk (see map, p. 156). In the end Timoshenko's own routed eight German divisions and recaptured the town, a ruinous church in which is seen above. Below the scene of devastation at Uskakovo, 16 miles N. of Yelnia.

Florence, Margaret Bourke-White
Baltic Fleets and the Fleet in the Arctic. There was also a naval force at Vladivostok in Siberia, which in view of Japan's immensely superior naval strength consisted mainly of submarines and river flotillas.

After the evacuation of Nikolaev the Black Sea Fleet had its main bases at Sevastopol in the Crimea and at Novorossisk in Caucasus. In view of its dominating control of the Black Sea, which practically denied to the Axis the use of sea transport except in the neighbourhood of the coast of Balkan countries, the Russian ports were certain to be objectives for German land operations; and not until they could be captured or their use denied to the Russians could the Germans attempt an amphibious operation to secure the oil ports of Caucasus. On the other hand, the Black Sea Fleet, in addition to controlling sea communications, was in a position to land forces in rear of the advancing German armies—a disturbing factor.

The Baltic Fleet included most of Russia's capital ships and numerous submarines. Until its recently acquired advanced naval bases in Estonia and at Hangö in Finland were lost or rendered unusable it constituted a serious danger to Germany's sea communications in the Baltic, causing the retention there of considerable German naval forces. But the main base of the Baltic Fleet was at Kronstadt, at the head of the Gulf of Finland. As the Gulf is closed by ice from December to May operations are then brought to a standstill. In any case the advance of her invading armies gave Germany air control over the Baltic and facilitated the closing of the entrance to the Gulf by minesfields. The Baltic Fleet, with the exception of submarine activities, thus lost its operational potentialities and its main function afterwards was to act as floating batteries in the defense of the approaches to Leningrad.

The Arctic Fleet, based on the ice-free port of Murmansk, was able to play a much more active role. It constantly and successfully attacked German transports and supply ships attempting to serve the army attacking Murmansk, which was largely dependent on sea communications.

The Russian Navy's air component was most efficient. Russian sailors, too, played a most effective and gallant part on land in the sieges of coastal towns. As in the Red Army, a very high standard of training had been reached.

As the war went on it was not merely the gallantry, tactical efficiency and strategic ability of the Russian fighting
forces and their leaders that impressed the world. The administrative capacity shown both in military affairs and industry, and the very high standard of mechanical skill of vast numbers of operatives in the ranks of the fighting Services and in the factories proved that Russia had made immense strides to eliminate former military weaknesses.

Before closing this chapter it may be well to summarize briefly the situation at the end of September, when there was something that nearly amounted to a full in the fighting while the Germans were preparing for a great effort to reach a decision before winter. In the south Von Rundstedt had badly shaken Baden’s armies, and in crossing the Donitz had passed the main natural line of defence of the great industrial and coal producing Donetz basin. The occupation of this area would in itself seriously cripple Russia’s war effort, while farther to the east the rivers Donetz and Don would remain the only physical barriers to stop a German advance that would cut off Russia from her main oil supplies. It was as important to the Germans to deprive Russia of oil as to obtain new sources for themselves; the Russian war machine, like that of Germany, lives on oil, most of which came from the Caucasus. The situation in the south was thus critical, and the German halt at Poltava could only be in preparation for far-reaching continuous efforts. There were ominous signs of an attack on the Crimea also. In the centre the situation appeared more favourable, for Timoshenko’s counter-attacks had had encouraging success, even recovering an appreciable amount of ground. It could not be supposed, however, that the Germans would long accept such a setback; and Moscow was a lure ahead. Its capture promised the disruption of Russian communications from north to south, the elimination of the centre of military and civil control and of a great industrial region; and it would afford shelter for the army of occupation in the approaching winter.

To defend such an objective the best of the Red Army and its reserves would certainly be mustered and might be defeated— that was the chief military incentive, while Hitler no doubt looked forward to showing at Moscow that in him a greater Napoleon had appeared.

In the north Von Leeb had closed in around Leningrad, which if it proved too costly to capture by force, might be starved into submission. But Leningrad showed little signs of yielding, and Voroshilov’s army outside the ring was a factor to be taken into account. The situation of the great city was undoubtedly critical, but there were no signs of immediate collapse. In Finland the failure to take Murmansk had been a definite disappointment to the Germans, and the Finns, having recovered much of their lost territory, were showing little enthusiasm for what appeared to be turning into a war of aggression.

The Russian Air Force and anti-aircraft defences continued to have the best of the argument with the Luftwaffe. Guerrilla bands, Stalin’s scorned earth policy, and the great length of lines of communications all caused difficulties which tended to break the continuity of the German advance and compel it to become a series of bounds of gradually diminishing length, separated by pronounced pauses which the enemy needed to accumulate reserves of supplies in forward areas.
CAPTURE OF KIEV

Kiev, unconquered up to the Germans, had to be fought against for the possession of the Steppes, as a great power movement by Rundstedt, and Bock was set in operation. Some of Bock's formations took Chernigov on Sept. 13, while Rundstedt took Kremenchug two days later. By the 18th the Donipper and Donua had been crossed on wide fronts, and three days later the Russians evacuated Kiev. Left, above, a street scene in the city; right, wrecked bridge near Kiev, with German pontoon structure.

Left, wrecked Russian weapons on a road leading from Gomel—an important railway centre, with lines running (1) through Bryansk to Moscow; (2) southwards to Odessa; and (3) south-eastwards to connect with the lines serving the Donets basin. Gomel fell to Van Bok's forces on August 21.

Photo, Associated Press; Sport & General
Diary of the War

JULY and AUGUST, 1941

Chapter 133

TWO GREAT OFFENSIVES AGAINST MOSCOW, OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1941

Hitler’s ‘New and Decisive Offensive’—Southern Area: Drive Along Sea of Azov—Nazis in the Crimea—Fall of Odessa—Main Thrust Against Moscow—Two-pronged Advance—Women and Children Leave the Capital—Enemy Brought to a Standstill—Russian Command Reorganized—Hitler Orders Another Assault Against Moscow, but it is Abandoned After Three Weeks—Events in the Leningrad Sector

Except on the southern front, where Budyonny’s armies had been heavily punished and where the attack on the Perekop isthmus had begun, the general situation seemed to have improved at the end of September 1941. The opening of the Three Power Conference at Moscow on the 29th, to discuss ways and means by which Britain and the U.S.A. might render assistance to Russia, was encouraging, especially when it reached its conclusions with commendable and business-like speed. Nevertheless, it was only too clear that the German effort was not exhausted and that the temporary relaxation of offensive action indicated only preparation for its renewal, on perhaps a greater scale than ever. The pause was ominous; and Timoshenko, in the centre, though he continued his counter-attacking policy with some success, showed signs of caution, limiting his operations to local engagements.

In the first week of October the storm broke. News of it first reached the outside world when Hitler on October 3 announced that a new and decisive offensive had begun. He assured his listeners that Russia was already defeated and gave them a fresh statement of the number of prisoners captured, and of the guns, tanks and aircraft captured or destroyed. The accuracy of his figures was disputed by the Russians, who published a few days later their estimate of Russian and German losses. No doubt losses on both sides had been tremendous.

In one point at least Hitler spoke the truth. The offensive had actually started on October 2. It was directed in the main towards Moscow, though in the south the attacks on Perekop and across the lower Donufer, along the shores of the Sea of Azov, were also developing in strength.

Before following the course of the main offensive let us see what happened in the southern area (see relief map on page 1844). The attack on Perekop indicated, of course, an intention io invade the Crimea, presumably with the object of capturing Sebastopol, the main base of the Black Sea Fleet, and as a preliminary step towards the invasion of Caucasus. The capture of Odessa (still holding out) and Sebastopol, with the railways leading from them, would greatly facilitate the supply of German armies operating with that objective. The Crimea presented special difficulties, since it could be approached only by the narrow Perekop isthmus, which would have to be forced by sheer weight of metal because there was no room for manoeuvre. The operation might therefore take time, and the force making the attempt required protection against Russian counter-attacks from the east. That the Germans were fully alive to the danger and had taken adequate measures to meet it was soon to be proved. They thrust eastward along the shores of the Sea of Azov and met a counter-thrust which Budyonny had launched with the evident intention of relieving the threat to Perekop—a dangerous attempt, for he had probably insufficient reserves to make it in adequate strength. Furthermore, Budyonny’s northern flank was exposed to encirclement by Panzer attacks. Details of the encounter are lacking, but on October 6 the Germans announced a decisive victory at Melitopol. The Russians must have suffered a severe defeat, for on the 11th they admitted the evacuation of Mariupol, and on the 22nd of Taganrog. Their losses during this retreat presumably were heavy, though certainly not on the annihilating scale claimed by the Germans; for resistance stiffened in front of Rostov (on the Don), and it was not till November 22 that the capture of this city by shock troops under Von Kienst was announced. Even then it is doubtful whether the Germans gained full possession of Rostov, and they were certainly unable to cross the Don.

The success of the German drive along the Sea of Azov had two effects. It ensured the isolation of the defenders of the Crimea and greatly facilitated the advance of the German armies towards the industrial Donets basin and in the eastern Ukraine which, since the beginning of October, had been steadily proceeding on a wide front stretching as far north as Kharkov. Russian resistance to this advance seems to have been in the nature of a gradual retirement, making no attempt to hold any particular line but making use of the many towns in the area to check German progress. The object was to gain time for the removal
of all industrial machinery and the evacuation of skilled workers. Kharkov itself had been stripped of all industrial plant before it was evacuated in the last week of October (capture claimed by Germany, October 24).

If the Russians deliberately adopted a delaying policy on the mainland they undoubtedly intended to prevent the invasion of the Crimea. Unfortunately the Perekop isthmus had not been permanently fortified, and its defences consisted of hastily constructed field works. The position, narrow and with flanks protected by water, was naturally strong, but against it the Germans were able to bring up masses of artillery. By a deliberate advance they gained a footing in the isthmus, but it seemed that they might find it harder to emerge from its southern end, where their guns would be deployed on a restricted front and would be opposed by the converging fire of the defence. Opportunities for the defenders to counter-attack from a flank would also probably occur.

Such would have been the tactical problem in former days, but air power and armour have altered the conditions. Concentrating a great force of bombers to add to the effect of their artillery, and employing tanks to lead the assault, the Germans crashed through the last defences and on October 29 emerged into the Crimean plains. The defenders fell back fighting, part by Simferopol (the capital, lost on November 1) to Sevastopol and part to the Kerc peninsula, the Germans pursuing in both directions. After hard fighting the last of the Kerc force was evacuated on November 29, but the Germans could make no impression on the defences of Sevastopol.

While the attack on Perekop was in progress the situation at Odessa had become more serious, for the enemy had gradually closed in on the city and a decisive assault seemed imminent. The Russians decided not to attempt to hold out to the last but to evacuate the garrison after having destroyed the port installations and everything that would be of value to the enemy. Spread over a period of eight days, the evacuation was carried out with great skill and apparently without the enemy's knowledge, for the Russians say there was no interference, and the Axis claim to have sunk transports is not convincing since no attack by land was launched. Probably air attacks, if they were made, took place only when the evacuation was in its final stage. The Rumanians claimed to have taken the town on
October 16, and the Russians announced its evacuation next day.

The decision to evacuate Odessa was undoubtedly wise, for to have held out to the last would only have meant the loss of good troops needed elsewhere and would also have entailed heavy naval losses in attempting last-minute rescues. Odessa had done its duty well and the Rumanian Army had paid a heavy price for their victory, march into the city, a price increased by the delay-action mines which the Russians had left in large numbers, and which for a long time made conditions perilous for the garrison. No longer concerned with Odessa, the Black Sea Fleet was now able to devote its whole energies to cooperation in the defence of the Crimea and Sevastopol.

The main German offensive on the central front was begun on October 2.

On the Central Front

The initial action was apparently directed to recovering ground lost to Timoshenko's counter-attacks, which were still being made (see relief map in page 1852). Not till the 6th did the Germans claim to have "encircled several Soviet armies" at Vyazma, the important railway centre some 80 miles east of Smolensk on the direct road to Moscow. On the following day a claim that three Soviet armies were faced with annihilation at Bryansk, 150 miles south of Vyazma on the Gomel-Moscow railway, gave evidence of the scope of the German plans. (The Soviet admitted the evacuation of Bryansk on the 12th and of Vyazma next day.) These plans were further elucidated by an announcement on the 9th that a breach made in the centre of the front, 300 miles wide, had been extended eastward and that Orel, 70 miles east of Bryansk, had been in German hands since October 3 (evacuation announced by Soviet on the 8th). The main German armies were making a convergent advance towards Moscow, following the lines of the two railways running through Vyazma and Bryansk respectively, and even wider encircling movements might be expected.

Presumably Panzer spearheads, supported by motorized infantry and followed by slower moving bodies, had penetrated the Russian positions. The capture of Orel suggested a wider and deeper enveloping movement, carried out by a purely mechanized force and designed to sever Moscow's railway communications with the east and south. Heavy fighting was in progress in the Vyazma and Bryansk areas, but the German view was that by standing to fight for these places Timoshenko had "sacrificed the last army capable of giving battle". Orel, it is to be supposed, had not been strongly held, for the Russians admitted withdrawal.

In spite of German claims to continuous advance and to the capture of great numbers of prisoners, resistance remained fierce on the main lines of advance and German casualties were heavy. Bryansk was not evacuated by the Russians till after three days' fighting, and Vyazma was held much longer. No doubt large groups of the defenders were encircled and were either captured or had eventually to take good their escape in small parties. Fighting certainly went on in both

**NAZIS THRUST SOUTH: THEY ENTER TAGANROG**

The great Nazi offensive which began on October 2, 1941, was aimed in the south at Perekop and along the Azov shore towards Taganrog, about 30 miles from the Don mouth. (See map in previous page.) Melitopol fell on October 6, and Mariupol a week later. By October 22 the Germans captured Taganrog, and are seen above cautiously entering the town.

Photo, Associated Press
the existence of efficient Russian reserves, but as Moscow was approached, reserve formations appeared, not only blocking the way but proving their efficiency by the delivery of swift counter-blow. The forest area guarding Moscow from the west gave little scope for tank manoeuvre and much for active infantry defence and the persistent operations of Russian guerrilla bands.

But there was another serious difficulty. The Russian winter was approaching, heralded by rain and sleet storms. Movement of vehicles except on the few main roads was becoming slow and difficult, and troops in the open were suffering the cold, for which they were ill prepared. By October 19 under these conditions the great offensive had lost its momentum and was no nearer than 60 miles from Moscow. At about that distance fierce fighting continued on the main approaches to the city—at Maloyaroslavets, on the Bryansk line; at Mozhaisk, on the Smolensk-Vyatka line; and a few days later at Volokolamsk, north-west of Moscow on the Moscow-Riga railway, along which...

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GERMANS IN THE CRIMEA

Early in November 1941, the enemy gained control of the Crimea; Simferopol, the capital, was taken on the 18th and the Kerch peninsula on the 20th. This photograph shows an enemy mortar unit in the region between the hills and the Black Sea.

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regions till after the middle of October, and German complaints of the difficulties of fighting in the forest regions east of the towns was a sign of the extravagance of their own claims.

It is obvious that the battle area was again a zone of great depth, and that the points reached by enemy advanced groups or Panzer penetrations gave little indication of true progress. The Germans, for example, claimed on October 15 that they were within 60 miles from Moscow and that Kaluga, half-way between Bryansk and Moscow, had been captured. Yet there was certainly heavy fighting going on much farther to the westward; some of it may have been due to guerilla activities which had flared up, particularly in the Smolensk sector.

The threat to Moscow had become so real that evacuation of women and children had begun on October 12. Foreign diplomatic staffs and probably some Government offices were also on the move. The threat was all the more serious because on the 18th the capture of Kalinin, on the upper Volga, 100 miles north-west of Moscow, showed that there was a danger of encirclement from the north as well as the south. Yet, though, their progress was undeniable, all was not going smoothly for the Germans. Their communiqués had refused to admit...
A TANK BATTLE PLOTTED BY TRACKS IN THE CHALKY SOIL.

The scene is the Russian town of Indus, 30 miles north-east of Bialystok in Poland (see map, page 1846). An aerial view before the engagement showed a stretch of green meadow broken only by a cart track—still visible running right to left near centre. All the other tracks were made as the opposing tanks swept on, clashed, swerved, or circled round to jockeying for position. Deep craters show where aerial bombs fell. Some of the fiercer clashes are indicated by whitewash areas.

Photo. G.F.U.
MODERN THREE-DIMENSIONAL WARFARE

In this photograph an advance party of the enemy is seen crossing the Dnieper in tractors on the Pripet—see map, page 1641—after the wooden bridge had been burned down by the Russians. Such parties were built temporary bridges on pontoons for the accessions units which followed. Although the Nazis had to cross the river Brzezina, Pripet, Dnepr and Dnieper in their drive from Poland into Russia proper, their spearhead on the central sector had reached the southeast

MAKES SHORT WORK OF RIVER BARRIERS

of Sevastopol, 20 miles from Moscow, by the middle of July, and many important cities were within the great salient stretching from Lake Peipsi to Astrakhan on the Neva. Mechanized and armored trains with enormous fire-power made this swift advance possible, while aircraft went on ahead and paralyzed the defenses on the left side of the great river. The Germans had been trained to bring to open action in special rubber boats. Photo, "New Frankfurt"
WHEN MOSCOW AND OTHER RUSSIAN CITIES SUFFERED MASS AIR RAIDS

On the night of July 21-22 more than 200 German bombers attacked Moscow and 22 were destroyed. On the two following nights there were other attacks, but few enemy bombers got through. Air raid protection had been well organized. Here is a scene in a shelter beneath an apartment house in Moscow during a night raid, one of many experienced during the late summer and autumn of 1941.
new thrust had developed. These three places marked the limits reached by the direct thrusts towards Moscow. The outer encircling movements were also held up and strongly opposed in the regions of Ord in the south and Kalinin in the north.

Since the check to the German advance might prove to be only a pause preparatory to renewed effort.

PLANT AND MACHINERY WERE SAVED FROM KHARKOV

Little of use to the enemy was left when Soviet troops and a huge army of workers evacuated the great engineering city of Kharkov (October 26). Above is the scene after the Germans entered: factory buildings are mere burnt-out shells; plant and machinery had been transported to factories farther east.

Photo, Associated Press

on October 19 it was considered advisable to declare a state of siege in Moscow, and to transfer the seat of Government to Kuibyshev, a move which had already begun. Stalin stayed in Moscow, which remained the capital, in supreme direction of military operations.

It will be recalled that at this time the situation on the southern front had become desperately critical, and it seems probable that Stalin may have lost some of his confidence in Budenny. The latter was certainly a fine, determined, fighting soldier, capable of directing operations; but his judgement in making decisions seemed to outside opinion to be less reliable. For instance, he probably held on too long at Kiev when it was threatened, and his attempted counter-move in the Azov region verged on rashness.

Whatever the reasons were, on October 24 a reorganization of the Russian Command was announced. Timoshenko relieved Budenny on the southern front, and Zhukov, Stalin's Chief of Staff, assumed command of both northern and central fronts, relieving Timoshenko and Voroshilov. The latter and Budenny were given the task of organizing and training the reserve armies in process of

ON THE WAY TO VYAZMA

These Soviet tanks are moving forward to the defence of Vyazma, a highly important railway junction (see map in page 1851). The Germans claimed to have entered the town on October 6, 1941, but fighting went on for a week or more afterwards.

Photo, Associated Press
surrounded, resisted all attacks. On November 3 Kursk was captured, thus straightening the front between the central and southern offensives. By the beginning of November the Germans must have concluded that there was little hope of capturing Moscow in the late autumn, and were anxious to organize a winter position which could be lightly held, allowing troops to be withdrawn for rest and reorganization, and to obtain shelter. But Hitler's heart was set on Moscow, and he told the General Staff that it was there they must find winter quarters.

A change in the weather may have given his Staff some hope that his intuition might prove right. Early night frosts had now formed a treacherous crust on the mud, but when rain stopped and frost increased, the ground hardened, and such snow as fell did not impede mechanized traffic. In the third week of November to that extent conditions became more favourable, and it became apparent that Hitler was not daunted by the prospect of winter, but was determined to take Moscow at all costs. About November 18 fighting at Tula, Volokolamsk and Kalinin became intensified, indicating that a new phase in the offensive had begun with an attempt to close the pincers on Moscow. By the 22nd a thrust from the Kalinin region had reached Klin, though Kalinin itself may not have fallen completely into German hands. Progress was also made from Volokolamsk and a dangerous movement east of

**TWO MAIN ATTACKS ON MOSCOW**

Shaded area shows territory occupied by the enemy up to December 1, 1941. The main big offensive opened in October. On October 7, an advance towards Orel and Bryansk on the 8th and of Yavna next day. By the 9th a 300-mile-wide breach in the Russian line had been opened. On the 10th Kaluga and Kalinin fell; the enemy was near Malo-Yaroslavets.

Renewed German Offensive

Improving weather enabled another German attack to be made in mid-November; Klin was reached, and at places the Germans were only 25 miles from Moscow. But by December 7 the assault was abandoned for the winter.

Specially drawn for The Saturday Evening Post by H. L. F. Couvreur

formation. Timoshenko's arrival on the southern front was soon followed by a notable stiffening of Russian resistance, though German difficulties due to the wet weather may have accounted for the slower rate of progress.

During the last ten days of October, though there was no lull in the struggle, the Germans on the Moscow front were by degrees brought almost to a complete standstill, partly owing toRussian reserves coming into action in increased numbers, but even more because mud restricted movement. The only point at which the threat notably increased was at Tula, a great centre of the armament industry. 70 miles east of Kaluga and half-way between Orel and Moscow. The capture of Tula would have been of importance in itself, as well as further threatening the environment of Moscow. But Tula, though

**GENERAL GEORGI ZHUKOV**

General Zhukov took over command of the Russian forces on the Northern and Central Fronts on October 24, 1941. Previously he had been Stalin's Chief of Staff.

Photo, Plenum News
DEFENCE OF MOSCOW, OCTOBER-DECEMBER, 1941

As the map on page 1852 shows, Moscow stands at the focus of roads and railways of unparalleled strategic importance. In the vicinity are numerous manufacturing industries. From October to mid-December the great German assault went on and Moscow mobilized all its resources.

1. Enemy bomber brought down.
2. Poster instructing fire guards and householders to bow to deal with incendiaries.
3. Testing machine-guns in a Moscow small-arms factory.
4. Red Cross party at an A.R.P. exercise.
5. Members of Young Communist Party dig anti-tank ditches outside the city.

Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright / "Special War News" / Planet News
NOVEMBER MUD SLOWED DOWN THE NAZI ADVANCE

Top, right: German lorries soon destroyed Russian roads, making deep ruts into which vehicles sank to the axles (Vyzna district). Off the roads (circle) progress was difficult on foot. Below, a German tank bogged in muddy ground beside a stream. Top left-hand photograph, German pioneers lifting rail tracks to re-lay them to the narrower standard gauge, a vast task carried out with great expedition.

Photos, Associated Press
Tula had developed, by-passing this town to the east.

While these wider turning movements were in progress direct attacks towards Moscow from Mozhaisk and Maloyaroslavets were renewed with fresh violence, and made some progress, though meeting the fiercest resistance. Forests, concrete pill box and other permanent works aided the defence, and the civilian population of Moscow toiled to construct new defences. The German attack was desperate, and by the first week of December the city was in great peril. If the defence had failed at any point the enemy, in a matter of hours, could have gained a footing in Moscow. At plane-fighting was within fifteen miles of it, and at few points on the fronts of attack at a greater distance than 25 miles.

But again winter came to the aid of the Russians. Frost had become bitter and snow was falling heavily. The German troops—thinly-clad, were perished with cold and often unable to use their weapons. On December 8, in the face of disaster, it was officially announced by the enemy that the attempt on Moscow could not be continued under winter conditions. It was evident that the course of the General Staff had wished to take March earlier must now be adopted. The great offensive of 1941 had ended.

On the Leningrad sector of the front winter had set in much earlier and siege conditions had for long prevailed, marked only by local raids, long-range artillery bombardments and bombing. It was learned later that the inhabitants of the city suffered terrible hardships. With houses burned and windows of others broken, lack of fuel and food produced conditions which were the most gallant and hardly people could have borne. The German troops no doubt suffered, too, but at least they had had time to provide themselves with shelter. The frozen ground had also given Vos Leeb an opportunity to extend the area of encirclement east of the city, where marshes had previously offered little scope for mechanized movement.

Towards the end of November

WHENCE, in small quantities, they could go by boat to the Karelian shore. Furthermore, Tikhvin was a step on the way to Vologda through which Allied munitions landed at Murmansk and Archangel must pass on their way to Moscow. Russian reaction was prompt, and the place was recaptured by December 8, a heavy defeat being inflicted on the German forces and important results (recorded in a later chapter) ensued.

At the other end of the front, the Germans, a few days before their offensive had been officially called off, had suffered an even more serious reverse. It will be recalled that Von Kleist's drive along the Azov coast had culminated in the capture of Rostov on November 23. The success was short-lived. On the 28th, by a daring and skillful counter-attack, involving a surprise crossing of the Don, Timoschenko drove Von Kleist out of the city and pursued him relentlessly. Before the enemy could evacuate the outskirts of Tikhvin, a German machine-gun post on the outskirts of Tikhvin.

TIKHVIN WAS NINE DAYS IN GERMAN HANDS

On the last day of November, 1941, the enemy took Tikhvin, 100 miles east of Leningrad (see map, page 1856). For nine days Soviet troops battled to expel the invaders, and at last regained the town on December 8. Top, cleaning off a German billeting sign on a Tikhvin deer; below, German machine-gun post on the outskirts of Tikhvin.

The great offensive from which the German people had been promised so much and which at one time seemed so irresistible had therefore not only failed to fulfill its object, but had been marked at its close with the first definite defeats. The Reichswehr had suffered in the war. There could be no illusions either as to the hardships the winter had still to bring.
ALLIED NATIONS COME TO RUSSIA'S AID

Less than three weeks after Germany invaded the U.S.S.R., Britain and Russia signed an agreement of mutual assistance, the text of which is given below. Britain aid was immediate and practical and resulted in the later cooperation of the United States, arranged at a specially convened conference at Moscow, supplies of all kinds were promised to M. Stalin and his dispatch planned and expedited.

TEXT OF ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT: SIGNED AT MOSCOW, JULY 12, 1941:

The Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and the Government of the U.S.S.R. have concluded the present agreement and declare as follows:

1. The two Governments mutually undertake to render each other assistance and support of all kinds in the present war against Hitlerite Germany.

2. They further undertake that during the war they will neither negotiate nor conclude an armistice or treaty of peace except by mutual agreement.

The contracting parties have agreed that this agreement enters into force as from the moment of signature and is not subject to ratification.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND MR. CHURCHILL IN A JOINT MESSAGE TO M. STALIN DURING THE ATLANTIC CONFERENCE, AUGUST, 1941:

We have taken the opportunity afforded by consideration of the report of your Excellency's representations that the United States could help to release time for Russia. We are of the opinion that the United States could help to release time for Russia by means of the United States material as rapidly as possible.

We must now turn our minds to the consideration of a more long-range policy, since there is still a long and hard path to be traveled before there can be won complete victory without which our efforts and sacrifices would be wasted.

The United States cannot possibly be at war upon a large scale, and before it is possible that there may be any further fighting on fronts that will be developed. Our resources, though immense, are limited, and it must become an essential task as to where and when these resources can best be used to further the principal extent our common effort. This applies equally to manufactured war supplies and to war materials.

We realize fully how important it is to the defeat of Hitlertism and the ultimate achievement of peace to take immediate action for the joint production of war materials. This applies to the United States, to the United Kingdom, to the Soviet Union, and to the other countries of the United Nations, and to the entire world.

Mr. Churchill, in a review of the war in the House of Commons, September 30, 1941:

The British and United States Missions are now in conference with the Chiefs of the British at Moscow, the interval which has passed since President Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill's visit to the Soviet Union, has been used by the allies in the information and activities that have been going on in the mission in Moscow, and in the military situation in the Far East.

The whole course of the war has been surveyed in the light of the new events, and many important supplies have already been discussed.

Our representatives here and our American colleagues have been at great lengths to inform Moscow of the nature of the supplies that are available to Russia, and to the extent to which these supplies can be made.

Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill have been at great lengths to inform Moscow of the nature of the supplies that are available to Russia, and to the extent to which these supplies can be made available.

The United States Missions have also been at great lengths to inform Moscow of the nature of the supplies that are available to Russia, and to the extent to which these supplies can be made available.
PERSIA SAFEGUARDED BY ALLIED ACTION

Long the hunting-ground of German intrigue, Persia was occupied by Britain and Russia at the end of August, 1941, and the menace of Nazi control thus removed.

We give here passages from statements made by the British and Soviet Governments in explanation of their action, and by the new Persian Prime Minister.

Text of the Russian Note to Persia, Broadcast by Moscow Radio, August 25, 1941:

The Soviet Government, guided by feelings of friendship for the Iranian people and by respect for the sovereignty of Iran, has always invariably conducted a policy of cementing friendly relations between the Soviet Union and Iran and encouraging in every possible way the prosperous development of Iran.

However, of late and particularly since the beginning of the portentous attack on the Soviet Union by Hitlerite Germany, the activities of the Pan-Slav-German conspiratorial group hostile to the Soviet Union in Iran have taken on a more menacing character. German agents who penetrated into important and strategic positions in more than 50 Iranian institutions were trying in every possible way to stir disorders and disturbances in Iran, to incite the peaceful Iranian people against the Soviet Union and to bring them into war.

German agents have arms and ammunition disguised at their disposal as a means of fighting in Iran, particularly in the neighbourhood of Migan. Under cover of hunting, they have created near Tehran a military training corps for their accomplices, who came from all ranks of Iranian subjects in Iran. Camouflaged as mechanics and engineers, 30 German spies operated the Iranian war industry.

In their criminal activities these Germans grossly disregarded the elementary demand of respect for the territorial sovereignty of Iran by transforming Iranian territory into an arsenal for preparedness for a military invasion.

This state of affairs demanded the immediate adoption by the Soviet Union of all measures which she was not only entitled to take in full accord with Article Six of the Treaty of 1921 but which she was also obliged to take in the interests of defence.

In the name of the Soviet Union by Germany the Soviet Government has three times, on June 26, July 10 and August 10, drawn the attention of the Iranian Government to the danger threatening her from the espionage activity of the German agents.

Unfortunately, the Iranian Government declined to take appropriate measures and, in consequence, the Soviet Government has itself been forced to take the necessary measures and to act on its own to protect itself from the danger.

These measures are in no way directed against the people of Iran. The Soviet Government has no intentions whatever against the territorial integrity or national independence of Iran. The military measures taken are solely against the danger created by the hostile activities of Germans in Iran.

Statement Issued by the British Foreign Office, August 25, 1941, on the Russian Action in Persia:

During the past months His Majesty's Government have repeatedly warned the Iranian Government of the potential dangers arising from the presence in Iran of an excessively large German colony. German residents in Iran, as in other countries, have long been subjected to the organized discipline of the German Nazi party. As in other neutral countries, German authorities have endeavoured to pressurize their compatriots in Iran. By sending their agents to infiltrate and to replace the resident German community.

The attention of the Iranian Government has, therefore, formerly been called to the destructiveness, in the interests of Iran itself, of adopting effective steps to check this process of infiltration.

There can be no doubt that, in other neutral countries, the German resident community would be employed, whenever an occasion occurred to the Government that the appropriate moment had arrived, to create disorders with a view to assist the execution of German military plans.

It has also been made clear to the Iranian Government that His Majesty's Government regard this as matter of grave concern to themselves. The underground measures taken by the German Government to spread German influence in Iran and to establish eventually German control and domination in that country obviously constitute a serious danger for the Iranian Government themselves, as well as for the British interests in Iran, but they are also a danger to neighbouring countries. India clearly cannot disinteress itself from such developments in an adjacent territory.

Iran is also closely concerned, especially since the Germans in Iran are known to have played a part in the revolt of last April against the legal Government at Baghdad and in the subsequent events, when the rebels were induced to take up arms against Iraq's British allies.

Towards the middle of July His Majesty's Government, realising that the representations made at Tehran for many months past had remained without effect, instructed His Majesty's Minister again to impress upon the Iranian Government, and especially of the utmost gravity and importance, the need for taking immediate action. The German invasion of Soviet Russia, by extending the zone of hostilities to include one of the countries adjacent to Iran, had obviously greatly increased the necessity for an early settlement of this problem.

No doubt, however, because they were reluctant to offend the German Government, even in defence of their own vital interests, the provision of Germans whom the Iranian authorities actually removed from the country was very small, and even in August 16 Sir Roderic Bellard and the British Ambassador accordingly reported to the Iranian Government in the most formal and emphatic manner the view of their two Governments that the German community in Iran should be required to leave the country without further delay.

The Iranian Government's reply shows that they are not prepared to give adequate satisfaction to the recommendations of His Majesty's Government and the British Government in this important matter. It is now clear that further friendly representations to the Iranian Government on the same lines would serve no useful purpose, and that His Majesty's Government and the British Government must take other measures to safeguard their interests in Iran. These will be no way be directed against the interests of the Persian people. His Majesty's Government have no designs against the independence and territorial integrity of Iran, and any measures they may take will be directed solely against the attempts of the Axis Powers to establish their control of Iran.

Ali Firozshahi, Head of the New Government of Persia, in a Statement to the Iranian Parliament, August 25, 1941:

In accordance with the wishes of His Majesty I have been entrusted with the formation of a new cabinet. Members of Parliament are well aware of the intentions of His Majesty in connexion with the reform and progress of the country. The Government and people of Iran have always been, and continue to be, partners of peace and peaceful relations with the rest of the world.

In order that these intentions should be made clear to the world at large, we declare at this moment, when the Governments of Soviet Russia and Great Britain have ordered certain actions to be taken, that the Government of Iran, in pursuance of peace-loving policy of His Majesty, is issuing orders to all the armed forces of the country to refrain from any resistance, so that the cause for bloodshed and the disruption of security shall be removed, and public peace and security assured.
BRITAIN AND RUSSIA TAKE CONTROL IN PERSIA

Axis Intrigue and Infiltration—Key Position of Persia—Ineffectual Allied Protest—Soviet and British Armies Enter Persia (August 25, 1941)—Brief Resistance—Fall of All Mansur’s Government—Iranians Ask for Armistice—Hostilities Cease on August 29—Terms of Peace Settlement—The Shah Abdicates:

When in the late summer of 1941 Britain and the Soviet Union took military action against Persia—or Iran as the country of the Shahs came to be generally called after 1935—they were inspired by the same necessity as that which had led to the occupation of Iraq and Syria earlier in the year: the necessity, that is, to counteract Axis intrigues and to forestall Axis activities in a vitally important area of the Middle East.

It was no hasty move; rather the trouble that gave rise to it had long been simmering. For many months Nazi influence in Iran had been visibly on the increase. The number of “technicians” had grown to unreasonable proportions and they held key places in railways, air routes, and in the chief industries. Then there were hundreds of “tourists” who were undoubtedly Nazi agents or were advance units of one of the German armed forces. Many of these people had come from Iraq after the British occupation. Neither Britain nor Russia could allow this enemy penetration of a country occupying a key position between the Persian Gulf, the Caspian Sea and the Caspian to go unchecked.

The presence of so many Germans in Persia constituted a direct menace to the Russian oil-fields in the Caucasus and to the Anglo-Iranian oil-fields and the security of the Indian Empire.

A British official statement on August 25 (see Hocme Document, p. 1587) pointed out that representations made at Teheran for months past had remained without effect; towards the middle of July the matter had again been brought to the notice of the Persian Government, as a matter of the utmost gravity. Further representations were made jointly by the British and Soviet envoys on August 16, urging the repatriation of the German emigrants. A few Germans were sent out of the country as a result, but many more were allowed to remain. For the most part the representations had been allowed to pass unheeded until at length the two Powers were compelled to take drastic action. At 4 a.m. on August 25 Sir Reader Ballard, British Minister in Teheran, and Mr. Smirnov, his Soviet colleague, presented to the Persian Prime Minister Notes from their respective Governments (see page 1587).

From their replies to the communications previously addressed to them, it was obvious that the Persian Government were not prepared to give adequate satisfaction to the recommendations of Britain and Russia. Since it was now clear that further friendly representations would serve no useful purpose, the two Governments were obliged to take other measures to safeguard their essential interests. But these measures would in no way be directed against the Persian people, or the independence and territorial integrity of the country; they would be directed solely against attempts of Axis Powers to gain control.

The Russian Note referred to anti-Soviet and anti-Persian activities engaged in by the “Fascist-German conspiratorial groups” on Persian territory, particularly since the attack on the Soviet by Germany. Agents of German Fascism, it alleged, had attempted to introduce into the Soviet province of Azerbaijan and the Baku oil region groups of saboteurs and terrorists whose activities were directed at engineering a military coup in Persia itself. German agents had established dumps of arms and ammunition at various points on Persian territory; German residents in the Teheran district had been given military instructions to further their criminal intentions; and German secret service agents were using Persian territory as a base for aggression against the U.S.S.R. Three times since the Nazi invasion of Russia the Soviet had warned Persia of these subversive activities by German agents and spies, and it was regrettable that the Persian Government, by refusing to take the necessary counter-measures, had encouraged the German agents to continue their criminal work. This being so, the Soviet Government found itself compelled, in accordance with the Russo-Persian Treaty of 1921, to dispatch troops into Persia with a view to safe-
GURKHAS ENTER QASRI-SHIRIN, AUGUST 25, 1941

Entering Persian territory from Iraq at Khanaqin, General Quinn's forces occupied the border town of Qasri-Shirin on August 25. This photograph shows some of the Gurkhas who formed part of the mixed British and Indian column advancing through the town. Little opposition was encountered here.

Photo: Sport & General

guarding the security of the U.S.S.R. It was emphasized that Russia had no designs on the territory or independence of Persia.

On the night of August 25-26 Moscow announced that Soviet troops had crossed the frontier into Persia early the previous morning and were moving in the direction of Ardabil and Tabriz. Simultaneously British and Indian troops had entered Persia from the south.

Britain and Russia Take Action

The British troops engaged in the invasion were drawn from General Wavell's command in India, and were under the immediate direction of Lieut.-General E. P. Quinn. The first communiqué describing their progress was issued from Simla on August 26.

British and Indian troops (in red) entered Iran at three points early on Monday morning (August 25). Naval and air co-operation enabled the landing of a force at Abadan, and a small detachment of Indian troops also secured Bandar Shapur (Persian Gulf), where there were two damaged German ships and three Italian ships only slightly damaged. British and Indian troops, including infantry and armoured units, advanced simultaneously into Iran from Khanaqin (Iraq). The oil instalation at Naft-i-Shah and the small town of Qasri-Shirin were occupied without serious opposition. Laodikia were dropped by R.A.F. bombers on Tabriz and other towns explaining the reasons for the operation and stressing that we have no quarrel with the Persian people and no designs on their independence or territory.

The forces attacking in the Persian Gulf area were under the command of Lieut.-General Harvey, of the Indian Army. Starting from Basra in the early hours of Monday morning, he pushed in three lines of attack. One made a surprise landing at the great oil refinery town and centre of Abadan; the second made an all-night march across the sandy desert and captured Khorramshahr from the north; the third had for its objective Ahwaz, an important town on the pipeline, about a hundred miles to the north.

At Abadan there was considerable opposition. For seven hours hand-to-hand fighting continued between the Persian soldiers and Indian troops, who, after sailing down the Tigris in tugs and sloops, had been landed directly at the waterfront. Before dusk, however, the town was captured and the Persian forces retired northwards.

Bander Shapur was also occupied by Indian troops, while Naval units put out of action two Persian gun-boats which had opened fire, set on fire the Persian escort vessel "Babri," and captured two damaged German and three only slightly damaged Italian ships lying in the harbour. Two further German ships that had been beached were captured with their crews. Steps were taken by air-borne troops to give protec-

JOINT ANGLO-RUSSIAN OCCUPATION OF PERSIA

After Reza Shah Pahlavi became ruler of Persia the ancient name of Iran was officially adopted, and this usage was generally followed in the West also. On August 25, 1941, British and Indian troops entered Persian territory at Khanaqin on the Iraq border, while others were landed in the Persian Gulf at Abadan and Bandar Shapur. Soviet troops advanced from Trans-Caucasia towards Tabriz and Ardabil; others entered from the Caspian. British and Soviet forces met at Karava and Sheshat on August 31.
tion to British families in the employ of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. The head of the Persian Navy, Admiral Beyendorf, was killed during the first hours of the attack when organizing resistance near Khorramshahr.

As for the third column, the Indian detachments comprising it had come within 8 miles of Ahwaz when Persian resistance ceased and General Mohammad Shahabadi surrendered the town.

While these actions were being decided in the south General Quinan's men, operating from Khanaqin on the Iraq-Iran border some hundred miles north-

east of Baghdad, had crossed into Iraq near Qasr-i-Shirin and were advancing rapidly along the road to Kermanshah. The spearhead of the attack was constituted by a British Hussar regiment, part of an Indian armoured brigade. When astride the main road between Qasr-i-Shirin and Kermanshah, they met a detachment of Gurkhas and led them in the direction of the Paitak Pass. Another column headed towards Gilan, so as to take in the rear any Persian force which might attempt to hold the strong defensive position of the Paitak Pass where the road crosses the Zagros range. After very slight resistance Gilan was occupied, and within forty-eight hours of leaving Iraq British troops entered Shahabad. Then patrols sent out to reconnoitre the approaches to the Paitak Pass encountered not Persian troops but men of the Indian Army approaching from the opposite direction; to avoid enfilade the enemy had retired. East of Shahabad there was some fighting when the Warwickshire Yeomanry, who had been sent out to take up a position on the Zibiri ridge about seven miles to the east, were caught in an ambush; but when artillery and the Wiltshires had come up to support the enemy made a request for the cessation of hostilities. This being agreed, the British and Indian troops completed their march to Kermanshah, which they entered on August 30.

Meanwhile the Russians were making rapid progress in their invasion from the north. On the first day the Soviet troops advancing from Trans-Caucasia pro-
gressed to a depth of twenty-five miles in the directions of Tabriz and Arakhel; these towns, together with Dilman and Lissar, were occupied by the Red Army on the next day (August 26). An attack was also launched from the Caspian Sea. On Sunday, August 31, British and Russian forces met at Kazvin, 95 miles N.W. of Teheran, and Indian forces advancing from Iraq made contact with the Red Army at Selneh.

Writing from Kazvin a few days later, Reuter's Special Correspondent described Russian infantry and mechanized units:

"Sentries with fixed bayonets stand guarding strategic points, such as the oil pumps, power plant and general headquarters of the army of occupation. Well-armed formations of infantry, also with fixed bayonets, march through the streets, while other soldiers ... rumble by in lorries.

It is significant that Russia has been able to spare so many men and so much fine equipment for her operations in Iran. The Soviet forces here have tanks which have been carefully preserved from prying eyes; heavily-armed six-wheeler armoured cars; field guns and howitzers drawn by tractors and trucks; and anti-aircraft lorries mounting heavy triple-barrelled pom-poms."

"Our party ... met the General in command at the Russian headquarters. Immediately a dozen bottles of vodka were produced, and we sat down to lunch with his staff of senior commanders. As the meal progressed we drank toasts: to the Russian Army, the British Army; to Mr. Stalin and Mr. Churchill; to 'the damnation of Hilter' (with great enthusiasm) and finally to 'Our next meeting in Berlin.'"

By this time there had been a change of Government in Persia. On August 27 Ali Mansur had resigned, and a new cabinet was formed under Ali Pahlevi who told the Persian Parliament that it had been decided to cease fighting.

On August 29 British H.Q. at Simla
announced that envoys of the Shah had met British forward forces and officially notified them that resistance was at an end; a similar message had been conveyed to the Russians. By the end of the week the war was at an end; conditions in the occupied areas were rapidly returning to normal, and the population were everywhere manifesting a friendly attitude. No doubt the British action in importing 650 tons of wheat from Iraq for distribution among destitute Persians in the British-occupied area had much to do with the change of feeling.

On September 10 the new Persian Premier announced in the Majlis that his Government had accepted the British and Russian demands; these included (1) the closing of the German, Italian, Hungarian and Rumanian Legations; (2) the handing over to the Allies of enemy nationals; (3) the withdrawal of Persian troops from certain areas in the occupation of the Allies; and (4) the granting of rail and road facilities for transport of war supplies to the U.S.S.R. For their part, the Allies agreed to pay the costs of their occupation and to continue the payment of royalties in respect of British oil rights in the south and the Russian fishery rights in the north.

Next day the Axis Legations were deprived of their diplomatic status, but the German Minister showed such ingenuity and promptness in destruction that the Allies found it necessary to present a further note to the Persian Government, demanding the immediate internment of enemy nationals. On September 14 the first batch of Germans left Tehran for internment at Ahwaz, but there were only 80 instead of 240. Two days later a second batch of 241 Germans left for internment in India and the U.S.S.R., but the attitude of the Shah’s Government still left much to be desired. On September 16 the Moscow radio accused the Persian Government of “insincerity” and “unforgivable slowness” in carrying out the terms of the armistice. Within the last few days, it was declared, there had been several indications that the demands made by the British and Soviet Governments were meeting with opposition from Germanophile elements which included highly placed personages. Then on September 10 a Persian newspaper had published a leading article expressing regret at the closing of the Axis diplomatic missions. At the same time, the Shah’s Government were postponing from day to day the departure of the Axis diplomatic missions; as a result, several German agents had been enabled to go into hiding and continue their nefarious activities in Persia.

No longer, it was clear, was the Shah persona grata to the Russian and the British Governments, and that there were many Persian dissidents from his rule was made clear when on September 15 the Majlis met in secret session for the purpose of making demands for a number of badly-needed internal reforms. It was understood that a delegation of members would wait upon the Shah the next day, but on that day (September 16) the announcement was made of the Shah’s abdication “on account of failing health.” In his place ruled his son, the twenty-one-year-old Crown Prince, Mohamed Reza Khan. The new Shah took the oath the same day to reign “according to the law of the Constitution and in accordance with constitutional government.” On the same day British and Russian troops advanced to the outskirts of Tehran so as to be the better able to supervise the rounding-up of the enemy nationals who had still managed to escape internment. By September 20 the last of the Germans who had been sheltering in their Legation had been deported, while the diplomatic staffs of the closed Legations had been given facilities to proceed to Turkey. As for the ex-Shah, on September 23 it was reported that he had embarked from Bandar Abbas on October 18 and arrived at Mauritius, the British island in the Indian Ocean which had been chosen by the Allies for his wartime home.

Thus the Allies had succeeded in two of the aims which led to the invasion of Persia: they had expropriated German influence in the country, and had provided proper protection for the oil-funds. Now it was the turn of their third aim: the development of Persia as a corridor for the supply of war material to hard-pressed Russia.

The former Shah, Riza Shah Pahlevi, had done much to improve the communications of his country; under his rule more than 10,000 miles of road had been repaired or constructed, and the

**ALLIED ARMY COMMANDERS MEET AT TEHERAN**

On September 22, 1941, General Sir Archibald Wavell (small photograph) met Major-General Vasili Vasiliévitch Novikov, Soviet Commander in North Iran, for a talk on Allied war aims. The large photograph shows the meeting, with the Allied and Soviet troops on guard and a large number of British troops standing at attention. The meeting was a significant moment in the history of the war, and the photograph captures the spirit of cooperation between the Allied nations.
A BRITISH LIGHT TANK IN KERMANSHAH

Kermanshah was occupied by General Quinan's forces on the morning of August 30. Two days earlier the new Iranian Government had ordered its troops to cease fire, and a request for an armistice was made. British terms were handed to the authorities on the 26th, and were accepted on September 1. Final peace terms were settled on September 9.

Photo, Sport & General

Trans-Iranian railway—the apple of his eye—had been built. But these developments had been along purely national lines; the chief network of communications centred about Teheran and was hardly linked with Russia, while by deliberate act the communications with India were neglected.

As for the Trans-Iranian railway, it was a master-piece of engineering—in its 892 miles there were 225 tunnels and 892 bridges—but for the most part it was single-track with sidings only at the stations (about 10 miles apart). Moreover, it ran from the Persian Gulf not to the Caspian Sea but to the Caspian Sea; while as for its terminal ports, Bandar Shah was being left high and dry by the gradual lowering of the levels of the Caspian, and Bandar Shapur was nothing but a small jetty built over mud flats in a tidal creek.

Yet another drawback was the fact that the railway gauge was the standard 4 ft. 8 1/2 in., while the Russian gauge was 5 ft. and the Indian 5 ft. 6 in. For 20 miles the railway ran through tunnels; gradients were steep, and the zigzag course enforced by mountainous stretches cut down the average speed to 20 m.p.h. It could carry only about 300 tons of goods per day. These were some of the difficulties that British and Russian military engineers swiftly tackled. They set about improving the railway and the terminal ports. Large numbers of British technical personnel, including engine-crews, brakemen, signalmen and fitters for the railway shops, were sent out from Britain, and

linked by a railway between Tabriz and Kazvin; and the extension of the Indian railway from Quetta across Baluchistan to Dushtah—built in the last war but since taken up—was again laid down. At the same time the roads, particularly those connecting with India, were greatly improved and extended. A Transportation Directorate was set up in Teheran to organize the dispatch of war material to Russia, under Brig. Sir Godfrey Rhodes, a former manager of the East African railways; and a Russian organization—Transovertans—was set up to take delivery at a number of places in northern Persia. The United Kingdom Commercial Corporation assembled a fleet of nearly 1,000 lorries to maintain the flow of road traffic.

In all this work the United States joined with Britain and Russia. American engineers supervised the erection of mechanical plant; American lorries, shipped in bulk to ports on the Persian Gulf, were assembled by skilled American mechanics, and were soon speeding along the Persian roads with Russian drivers at the wheel. American locomotives as well as British were shortly hauling their freight through the tunnels and gorges of the Trans-Iranian. American planes were there, too, since Persia became the last stage on the road by which U.S. bombers were flown to the Caucasus. Thus in many a direction before the end of the year Persia was proving of inestimable value to the United Nations.

MOHAMED RIZA KHAN RULES IN HIS FATHER'S STEAD

Riza Shah Pahlevi abdicated on September 16, and his son Mohamed Riza Khan, twenty-one years old, succeeded to the throne of Iran. Inset, the new Shah. Large photograph shows him signing the oath of allegiance to the Constitution in the presence of the Majlis (Parliament) at Teheran. In 1939 he married a sister of King Farouk of Egypt.

Photo, British Official, Crown Copyright; Sport & General
TRANS-Iranian Route to Russia

Allied supplies for Russia are landed at Bandar Shapur or Bushire on the Persian Gulf (see map on page 185). At Ahwaz, on the Trans-Iranian railway, road convoys and trains are made up. The railway to Bandar Shapur on the Caspian goes through Teheran, from where there is a branch also to Krasiv (probably now connected to a line that formerly ended at Tabriz, linking up with Trans-Caucasian). Photographs show scenes at Ahwaz: (1) A Soviet officer directing lorry drivers; (2) unloading grain and stores; (3) locomotives and rolling stock from Britain ready to move off northwards; (4) lorry convoy on the eight-day trip to the Caspian; (5) a lorry of the United Kingdom Commercial Corporation.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright.
Chapter 153

TURKEY'S POLICY DURING 1941: RELATIONS WITH ALLIES AND AXIS

Pact With Bulgaria—Mr. Eden and Sir John Dill at Ankara: A Disappointing Conference—Basic Principles of Turkey's Foreign Policy—Effect of Allied Setbacks—Papen's Machinations—Repercussions of the Yugoslav Coup—Germany Strikes in the Balkans—German-Turkish Pact of Friendship—Russia Invaded—
Iraq and Syria—Allied Action in Persia—Anglo-Turkish Trade Agreement

The year 1941 opened for Turkey with grave anxieties regarding the potential dangers of the Balkan situation. For already it was clear to the Government at Ankara that storm clouds were gathering and that Germany was preparing to use the Balkans as a stepping-stone towards the realization of larger military plans. Germany assured the Turks that she did not intend to embark upon a campaign in the Balkans, but added that the Greek-Italian War could give rise to complications, and that if a British or Allied landing was to take place at Salonika to forestall a German attack on Greece, Germany would regard it as a provocation. In the meantime Anglo-Turkish staff talks—under the provisions of the Anglo-Turkish Alliance—were taking place, and on February 1 Colonel Donovan, who was on a mission of inquiry in the Near East for President Roosevelt, arrived at Ankara.

The Turkish newspaper "Yeni Sabah," commenting on the situation at the time, declared that "any Power which penetrates into the Turkish zone of security is giving notice of her intention not to respect Turkey's frontiers. Turkey will take all the necessary measures before the enemy is already at her gate." This statement, inspired by the Turkish Foreign Office, was clearly meant as a warning to Germany. Turkey was alarmed at German military mobilisation into Bulgaria which was already taking place. But as time went on Turkey's attitude underwent a modification, becoming less definite as the German threat increased, as Bulgarian resistance appeared more doubtful, and as the prospect of Russian support of a Turkish stand against Germany seemed less probable. By February 8 it was clear that Turkish action would be influenced by the form of the impending German invasion of Greece and the extent to which it threatened vital Turkish interests.

Thus it was that Turkey now tried to restrain Bulgaria. On February 11 she called upon Bulgaria to define her policy before it was too late, and the Turkish press alluded to Bulgaria's sequence in the presence of German troops in Bulgaria as a "crime against Balkan neighbours." Next day the Ankara wireless warned Germany that a Balkan campaign would bring her bad luck. The Turkish attempt to hold Bulgaria back from connivance in a German Balkan campaign took the form of the Turco-Bulgarian Pact of February 17. The preamble stated that the agreement was without prejudice to engagements already entered into by the two parties. This meant, on the Turkish side, that the Pact would not in any way invalidate Turkey's obligations to either her British or her Greek Allies. (There was in existence a Turco-Greek Pact signed in 1933.) Bulgaria had no formal pact with other Powers, but she had a secret understanding with Germany.

The Pact, it was hoped, might stave off Bulgarian action, and perhaps Yugoslavia would make a similar pact.

Article I of the Pact declared that Turkey and Bulgaria considered that the staple basis of their foreign policy was to abstain from any aggression. In Article II it was stated that the two Governments, inspired by confidence in each other, were determined to maintain and develop this confidence still further in good neighbourhood relations. Article III said that the two Governments declared themselves ready to seek appropriate means to develop trade between the two countries. The Turkish press put the best face on it, asserting that it would bring peace to the Balkans and prevent the war spreading. "Yeni Sabah" said that "the heroism of our ally Greece will prove sufficient to dislodge the Italians from the Balkans, hence the other way for the aggressor, through Bulgaria, is now closed."

On February 13 Mr. Anthony Eden and Sir John Dill arrived in Turkey, and on the 18th they received a popular welcome in Ankara. Mr. Eden had talks with the President, M. Inönü, and M. Sarajoglou, the Foreign

TESTING TIME FOR ANGLO-TURKISH RELATIONS

When Mr. Anthony Eden (centre) and Sir John Dill (left) arrived in Turkey on February 13, 1941, Turkey had overnight signed the Pact with Bulgaria which it was hoped would moderate the latter country's pro-Axis trend. But the British representatives' discussions with M. Sarajoglou (right) and other leaders could not fail to be disappointing to the British Government.

Photo: Associated Press

1961
Minister, while Sir John Dill saw Marshal Chakmak. In the meantime Sir Stafford Cripps, British Ambassador at Moscow, arrived in Ankara. He was able to give Mr. Eden the latest information regarding the Soviet Government's attitude towards the situation in the Balkans. An official communiqué was issued on February 23 affirming the fidelity of the British and Turkish Governments to the Anglo-Turkish Alliance and their agreement on all the current problems in the Balkans. Mr. Eden and Sir John Dill then departed for Athens (photo on page 1575).

Behind the formal words of mutual agreement in the official communiqué was a situation not without its disappointment for Britain. For it had become clear that there was not much likelihood of the Turks joining with their British and Greek allies to stem the Axis invasion of Greece. A German attack on Greece was imminent. It would in all probability take place through Bulgaria, and perhaps Hitler would succeed by mingled bullying and bribery in inducing the Yugoslav Government to allow passage of his troops through Yugoslavia as well. In the view of the British Government the cooperation of the Turkish Army would have made a great deal of difference to the chances of a successful defence of Greece.

The Turkish argument was that their Army should be reserved against the day when it could be employed to more useful effect—meaning that, in the event of a German attempt to go through Turkey to attack the British in the Middle East, the Turks would resist. Moreover, the Turks said they were then lacking in sufficient war material to be able to make a stand against the Germans. On this point Britain was sympathetic, for the Anglo-Turkish Alliance involved the supply of war material from both Britain and France, and also presupposed the presence of an active French army in Syria to cover Turkey's flank. The fall of France had radically altered the situation. The presence of the French in Syria had now become an embarrassment. Turkey could not now obtain any war material from France, and Britain had been unable to spare very much. It was arranged, however, that Britain would do all that she could, and also that approaches should be made to the U.S.A. with a view to American war material going to Turkey under the provisions of the Lease-Lend arrangement.

Apart from Turkey's manifest inability to wage an offensive against the Axis in view of her shortage of arms and munitions, she was of course influenced by the changing fortunes of the great belligerents. General Wavell's success in turning Graziani out of Cyrenaica early in the year had
encouraged Turkey to take a firm line in official declarations as regards German intentions in the Balkans. But when, in April, the British and Imperial forces sent to Greece proved inadequate to prevent the overrunning of the Peninsula, Turkish policy became less decided. Then followed the disaster to the British and Imperial forces in Crete after their retreat from the Greek mainland; and also there had been a complete reversal of fortune in Libya as a result of the transfer of the bulk of the British forces to Greece, a situation which had enabled the German-Italian forces to retake Cyrenaica.

These Axis successes encouraged the Nazis to bring pressure to bear upon Turkey, and from now onwards there were to be many German proposals to the Turks with a view to inducing them to give up their alliance with Britain. But Turkey never wavered on this main issue. The view held was, generally speaking, that in the long run Britain would win the war, but that on short term the Germans were likely to have big successes. Hence Turkish disinclination to take immediate military risks on behalf of the Allied cause, but hence also Turkish refusal to give up the alliance. This was the key to Turkey's attitude throughout 1941.

As early as March 14 the Germans showed that they were already alive to the potentialities of the situation. It was then, just after the departure of Mr. Eden and Sir John Dill for Athens, that Von Papen called upon President Ionina and presented him with a personal message from Hitler—the first of several such communications. On March 14 Bulgaria had signed the Tripartite Pact, and on February 27 Yugoslavia had signed a pact with Hungary, who was herself tied to the Axis. On March 7 articles appeared in the Turkish press urging the Yugoslavs not to give the Germans passage through Yugoslavia to take Greece in the rear. But already things were moving too quickly. The regime of Prince Paul was already committed, through fear, to acquiescence in the Balkan policy of the Germans. Turkey's attitude at this time was explained in an interview given to the American press by a high Turkish political personality, who said:

"Turkey would take action at the moment when, in collaboration with Britain, she could make the most effective use of her army and geographical position. She would not waste her strength by trying to spring behind the German forces, should they attack Greece. Russia would be glad to see Turkey put up a fight, but Turkey did not expect help. Russia would not do more than protest if the Germans reached the Hardamiltons."

By March 13 Turkish mobilization was completed. On the 16th President Ionina spoke to Hitler in friendly but non-committal terms. From Russia Turkey received assurances on March 24 that the Soviet Government would do nothing to embarrass Turkey should her relations with a third Power (meaning Germany) grow rapidly worse.

In Yugoslavia there had been the anti-Axis coup d'etat which resulted on March 27, in the expulsion of the chief Regent and the ministers who had engineered the country's adherence to the Tripartite Pact. On April 6 Germany attacked Yugoslavia (see Chapter 157). A week later the Yugoslav Government informed Turkey that Bulgaria was cooperating with Germany in the fighting against Yugoslavia. The Turkish Government then passed a law extending the term of military reserve service, and proclaimed at the same time the continuance of the policy of non-belligerency. These two actions were, indeed, symbolic of Turkish policy at the time.

German diplomatic attentions were not abated, for on April 17 Von Papen went to Berlin again to consult with Hitler on further steps. Berlin considered the moment propitious. The Balkans were about to be overrun by the Axis forces, and trouble for the British was being fomented in the Middle East—in Iraq and in Syria. Thus a situation of increasing difficulty for Turkey was being created, and this, in the view of the Axis politicians, should make it easier to win over the Turks.

All through these troubled months Turkey was subject also to the influence of Russia—whose own position ex-sae was ambiguous, to say the least of it. On April 18 it was stated in Ankara that the Soviet Government had informed the Turkish Government that Russia hoped Turkey would not make any concessions to Germany. The Turks did not make any political concessions, but they felt that it was expedient to keep on friendly terms with Germany in the economic sphere, so long as this did not imply giving way on any vital questions. Thus on the 29th there was signed a commercial agreement between Germany and Turkey providing for Turkish supply of tobacco in exchange for German machinery and arms. More Turkish reservists were called up on May 1.

By now events in the Middle East were rapidly moving towards a serious crisis for the Allies, with potential dangers for Turkey. The revolt of the Iraqi king, Rashid Ali, on April 3 (see Chapter 165) was alarming, for a
WHILE AN AERIAL BATTLE RAGED ABOVE THE KREMLIN

The remarkable photograph at top was taken while a German raid on Moscow was in progress. Raiders had just dropped flares; the tracks of tracer shells and the explosions of others fired by the ground defences are seen. Below, a group of Soviet fighter pilots operating near Moscow; Colonel Grinev (seated, second from left) by the end of August had shot down 27 enemy aircraft.

Photos: Margaret Bourke-White
IN THE MOSCOW SECTOR OF THE RUSSIAN BATTLE LINE

Kalinin, 500 miles N.W. of Moscow, was captured by the enemy on October 25, 1941. This photograph shows German soldiers searching for isolated Russians. Intense opposition was met in this region, and by mid-November the enemy was being thrust back. On December 15 Kalinin was again in Russian hands. Top, all that was left of a wooden school building at Shalk, near Moslink, was the brick stoves and chimney stacks.

Photo: Planet News; Associated Press
SAFEGUARDING THE WORLD'S LARGEST OIL REFINERY

The island of Abadan, on the Shatt-al-Arab at the head of the Persian Gulf, was captured by Imperial forces on the morning of August 25, 1941; the lower photograph shows British soldiers guarding the oil refinery of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company (formerly the Anglo-Persian). Top, the Iranian flagship ‘Babr,’ sunk at Khorrainahahr on August 25, during the British attack.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright
NEW ZEALANDERS MEET TANKS FROM TOBRUK GARRISON AT EL DUDA

After driving out the enemy from Sidi Rezegh on the night of November 25-26, 1941, the New Zealanders pushed on next day to El Duda on the Axis highway. There they made contact with a force from Tobruk which had sailed out to close the “corridor” till then existing between the opposing armies. In the words of a Press observer with the troops, the New Zealanders had the offensive spirit in evidence.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright
German success in the Middle East would have meant the eventual cutting off of Turkey from her British ally in Egypt. Turkey offered to mediate in the Iraq dispute, but such intervention was not required, since Britain soon succeeded in bringing the revolt to an end. Eight days after an armistice had been signed (May 31) in Iraq the British and Free French forces were marching into Syria to free the territory from the Axis-controlled Vichy administration (see Chapter 166). This was effected by July 11, and the British and Allied position became firm again. The danger of Turkey's isolation from her allies passed.

Germany (with the coming invasion of Russia in the last stages of preparation) had been taking steps to safeguard herself in the Balkans, and Von Papen reappeared at Ankara at the beginning of June with fresh schemes. He presented President İnönü with a personal letter of friendship from Hitler. On June 3 a number of German business men and industrialists arrived in Turkey to seek an extension of German-Turkish trading relations. The Turks were pressed to conclude both a political and a trade agreement. Turkey expressed herself willing to enter into a pact of friendship, on condition that it did not mean anything prejudicial to the Anglo-Turkish Alliance. The outcome was the German-Turkish Pact of Friendship of June 18; its text is printed in the Historic Document No. 239 (page 1873).

Towards the end of June, a few days after Germany attacked Russia, Turkey declared her neutrality towards the new conflict and the Turkish Foreign Office informed the British, Russian and German Ambassadors that Turkey would keep the Montreux Convention regarding the Dardanelles. On June 29 the official Turkish news agency—Agence Anatolie—denied that Von Papen had made peace overtures to Britain via Turkey. This followed upon the circulation of a report that the German Ambassador had made such suggestions and that Turkey had been promised by Germany part of the Caucasus. At the same time Turkey published a Russian denial of Hitler's allegations to the effect that Russia had demanded bases on the Dardanelles.

For some time there had been a German-inspired whispering campaign to the effect that Britain and Russia had agreed to territorial rearrangements in favour of Russia and at the expense of Turkey. In this the Germans were playing upon long-standing Turkish suspicions of Russia, which still remained strong. During the early stages of the European war there had been many rumours of German-Russian accommodations at the expense of Turkey. Now that Germany was attacking Russia the German propaganda machine attributed similar anti-Turkish designs to Britain.

In order to counter such lies the British and Russian Governments, on August 10, made a declaration to the Turkish Government that the two Governments remained faithful to the Montreux Convention and had no aggressive intentions regarding the Straits; and that, while Britain and Russia appreciated Turkey's desire to keep out of the war, they would render her help if she should be attacked by a European Power.

To add to the political complications there now came the crisis in Iran, where the Nazis, foiled in Iraq and Syria, were stirring up strife and disaffection. Short-sighedly the reigning Shah played into Axis hands and encouraged Nazi intrigues. This obliged London and Moscow to take action. On August 25 the British and Russian Ambassadors notified M. Sarajoglu, the Turkish Prime Minister, of the Anglo-Russian move into Iran (see Chapter 184). At first certain sections of the Turkish press were not too friendly towards the Anglo-Russian occupation, but later, when it was seen that Britain and Russia were adhering strictly to their promises not to infringe Persian independence, the tone became more friendly. Hitler, in an interview with the Turkish Ambassador in Berlin, had stated that Germany had no intention of attacking Turkey, but could not remain indifferent if Britain and Russia took action in Iran.

Von Papen made another of his frequent visits to headquarters, reaching Berlin on September 2. When the full story of these days is able to be told it may well appear that this man-capable, experienced and unpculpable—played a major part in such success as his Führer's schemes achieved in the Middle East. Expelled from the U.S.A. for complicity in bomb plots in 1916, he had emerged from obscurity in 1932 as German Chancellor under Hindenburg, and had then helped Hitler to power. In 1934 he narrowly escaped the purge that killed some of his friends.

Early in September Clocibus, the German trade negotiator, reached Ankara at the head of a German Trade Delegation. (Clocibus had been to Ankara in July and had unsuccessfully tried to obtain contracts for road and railway construction.) On the 33rd Von Papen returned from Berlin, and this was the signal for propaganda to the effect that the German advance towards the Caucasus would be irresistible; that Germany had no designs against Turkey; but that a new situation would be created—by the arrival of the German forces on Turkey's Russian border—to which Turkey would have to adapt herself. In effect the Nazis threatened that Turkey would have to come to terms with the "New Order." Hitler would set up in the Middle East—following a victory over Russia. In return
Turkey was offered territories which had once formed part of the Ottoman Empire.

Towards the end of September there was concluded an Anglo-Turkish Trade Agreement covering foodstuffs to the value of £1,400,000. Immediately the Germans renewed their own pressure for a trade agreement. What they wanted especially were supplies of chrome ore, but M. Sarajevo told Von Papen and Clovis that such supplies would not be possible. (Certain quantities of this mineral had been set aside in repayment of British credits granted in 1938.) Early in October Clovis renewed his demands and asked that Turkey should supply chrome ore during 1934-35 to the extent of 150,000 tons. The Turks countered by suggesting a supply of 90,000 tons during these years, provided that war material previously ordered from Germany by Turkey, to the value of £18,000,000, was delivered before 1934, and also that the chrome deliveries should be against equivalent German deliveries of war material for the two years in question. (British purchases of chrome from Turkey had previously been arranged up to 1941.) Clovis accepted the Turkish terms. The value of the goods to be exported from Turkey was £10,000,000,000, including raw materials, tobacco, cereals, cotton and minerals.

During November the Germans made a strong effort to damp down the expression of pro-British sympathies in Turkey. Appeals were made to the Turkish-German military comradeship of the last war. On the 17th this campaign took a more concrete form in the arrival in Ankara of the German Press Chief Schmidt, who tried to induce the Turkish Government to muzzle the pro-British section of the Turkish press. But Schmidt failed in his mission and departed in due course.

Throughout the period under review Turkey maintained her role of armed neutrality. It may be said that she interpreted the alliance statically rather than dynamically. Turkey's refusal to help Germany politically or militarily constituted an obstacle to the Nazi Middle Eastern plans.

Turkey was not deterred from her chosen course during the difficult days of the Truce and Syrian crisis. Likewise, although the swift German advances in Russia and the threat to the Caucasus gave cause for grave anxiety, the Government at Ankara did not change its policy. The measure of the energy displayed by Germany in her attempts to win over Turkey—sometimes by bribes, sometimes by threats, and sometimes by a combination of the two—was the measure of Turkey's value as an ally to Britain. In this sense, then, Turkey rendered good service to the Allied cause during 1941.
TURKEY'S ATTITUDE TO THE WARRING NATIONS

Firmly resolved to preserve a policy of strict neutrality for as long as possible, Turkey backed her decision both by strengthening her defence as a reply to Germany's mangled threats and intrigues and by arranging or renewing trade agreements and pacts of friendship with her nearest allies, namely, Bulgaria, and with Russia and Germany. Some of the relevant documents are given below.

TEXT OF A TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN TURKEY AND GERMANY, SIGNED IN ANKARA, JUNE 18, 1941:

The German Reich and the Republic of Turkey, inspired by the desire to place the relations between their two countries on the basis of mutual trust and sincere friendship, have agreed, within the limits of the present commitments of both countries, to conclude a Treaty.

For this purpose the appointed plenipotentiary of the Reich Chancellor, Franz von Papen, and the Foreign Minister of the President of the Turkish Republic, Saracoğlu, have, on the basis of the power vested in them, agreed:

Article 1. Germany and Turkey bind themselves mutually to respect the integrity and inviolability of their national territory, and not to resort to any measures, direct or indirect, aimed at their Treaty partner.

Article 2. Germany and Turkey bind themselves in future in all questions touching their common interests to meet in friendly contact to reach an understanding on the treatment of each question.

Article 3. The above Treaty will be ratified and the documents of ratification will be exchanged in Berlin. The Treaty comes into force from the day of signature and will be valid for 10 years. The parties will at the time specified come to an understanding on the prolongation of the Treaty.

M. SAMACOĞLU, IN A STATEMENT MADE TO THE PRESS, JUNE 18, 1941:

TURKEY and Germany, who had not for centuries been opposed to one another in the course of the vicissitudes of world events and whose relations have always been clear and correct, have in the Treaty, the text of which was published today, placed the foundation of their friendship on the most solid basis and confirmed for the future that the two countries will not oppose each other in any way.

Thus the Turkish and German nations have once again held out the hand of friendship in a new atmosphere of absolute security.

As it has been pointed out, other actual and existing obligations of the two parties are unaffected, and it is confirmed that these obligations do not affect the conception of the Treaty.

It is with great pleasure that I notify the signature of this Treaty, which constitutes an important historical document of friendship.

TEXT OF ANGLO-RUSSIAN PLEDGE OF ASSURANCE AGAINST AGGRESSION, ISSUED BY THE BRITISH FOREIGN OFFICE, AUGUST 12, 1941:

On August 12 the British and Soviet Ambassadors called at the Turkish Foreign Office and presented Declarations in identical terms. The text of the British Declaration is as follows:

H.M. Government in the United Kingdom confirm their fidelity to the Montreux Convention and assure the Turkish Government that they have no aggressive intentions or claims whatever with regard to the Straits. H.M. Government, as also the Soviet Government, are prepared scrupulously to observe the territorial integrity of the Turkish Republic. While fully appreciating the desire of the Turkish Government not to be involved in war, H.M. Government, as also the Soviet Government, would nevertheless be prepared to render Turkey every assistance in the event of her being attacked by a European Power.

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Greece and Yugoslavia After the Nazi Conquest of April 1941

The immediate effect of Axis occupation of Greece was easily discernible in the rapid lowering of economic and social conditions throughout the country. Food stocks, tobacco, oil, and other essential commodities were plundered wholesale; supplies of food dwindled so rapidly that only half a pound per day was allowed each person. Matters were further aggravated by the lack of housing, due mainly to enemy bombing and requisitioning.

Following the defeat of the Greek and Allied armies and his Government's escape to Crete, M. Tsomocos (Greek Premier and Foreign Minister), announcing changes in the Cabinet, vowed on April 28, 1941, that the fight for liberty would be continued from overseas, and that Greece would again be free and the greater for her struggle. Two days later the Germans announced the setting-up of a quisling regime under General Tsolakoglou, notorious for his disgrace in the Greco-Turkish war of 1920. Professors who had studied in Germany and were imbued with German "Kultur" were given the chief portfolios, this new regime being described by the German authorities as a "Greek orientation of the Axis programme for a new European order."

In London, Prime Minister and Foreign Minister: M. Tsomocos; Minister of Finance: M. Varvareos; Minister of Labour: M. Dimitriatos; Permanent Foreign Under-Secretary: M. Stamosopoulos.

In the United States, Under-Secretary of State for Shipping: M. Theophanides.

In Greece itself, Axis measures designed to suppress the people continued apace; in September and October there were wholesale massacres of Greeks in Western Thrace and Greek Macedonia. In early October reports reaching the Greek Government in London indicated that many uprisings were taking place in the Drama and Kavalla districts, despite strong Bulgarian measures to suppress them. The revolts became so serious that five German regiments had to be called in to restore order. By mid-November, 921 civilians had been shot or hanged in Greece, excluding massacres, and about 3,500 persons deported to Germany for forced labour.

During October new and significant evidence was forthcoming of massacres.

KING GEORGE OF THE HELLINES

This autographed portrait by Captain Peter McKroy was sketched while the King was in Cairo and finished later in Cairo, where his Majesty and some of the Greek Ministers went to avoid persistent German attempts at capture.

By courtesy of the New Zealand Government.
ATHENS IN THE FIRST WEEKS OF NAZI OCCUPATION

In the first flush of conquest the Nazi soldiers were inclined to fraternize with the Greek people, and the photograph at top, left, shows Athenians inspecting a Nazi armoured car. At lower right a German soldier stands beside a billet. 前景 at the tomb of the Unknown Warrior. All foodstuffs and many other commodities quickly became scarce. Top, right, a queue waiting to buy vegetables; lower left, horsed vehicles (note the horse’s condition) were the only conveyances for civilians.

Photos: Keystone, Pictorial Press
a decree imposing severe penalties, including even death, for failure to declare all stocks of food in private possession. Combined with the enormous rise in prices (in September a loaf of bread cost the equivalent of five shillings), this created appalling conditions, especially among the young; it was common to see children raking in dustbins and rubbish heaps for scraps of food. The dangers of malnutrition were worsened by the lack of medical supplies. Whooping-cough and diphtheria began to take a heavy toll of young lives; an authoritative report at that time (September 1941) stated that the lives of 2,000,000 children would be jeopardized with the coming of winter.

Germany, it was clear, had made famine an instrument of her policy. Despite great difficulties the Allied nations, as well as neutral countries, rallied nobly to the assistance of the stricken people; a second shipload of food from Turkey arrived on November 14, and further cargoes continued to reach Greece at irregular intervals. In Crete, too, during this period (April-December 1941), guerilla warfare was making itself felt, even women taking part. Here also “reprisals” were savage. On July 27 the Greek Legation in London announced that 500 Cretan women had been deported to Germany for helping in the defence of the island. Later, on October 12, M. Tsamoulos gave details of some of the terrible atrocities perpetrated on the island.

Yugoslavia, of course, came under the Nazi heel immediately. German occupation was completed. A Berlin statement on April 18 indicated Axis aims for the territorial organization of the country: (1) the return of territory to former owners on the basis of nation-
Germany, Latvia, Hungary and Bulgaria (see map and table in page 187).

On the diplomatic front the Axis followed familiar lines: age-old differences and prejudices between Croats, Slovenes and Serbs were resurrected, embellished and blazoned forth by every conceivable will and political subterfuge.

Berlin, enraged beyond measure by the coup d'état of March 27, had already announced that the Serbs had "forfeited any right to active cooperation." The brutal suppression of the Serbs, the arrest of Patriarch Gavrilic (head of the Yugoslav Orthodox Church and one of General Simovich's closest supporters), the establishment of Gestapo rule, the ruthless requisitioning of foodstuffs and housing, and the wrecking of national

The partition of Yugoslavia was not long delayed, and events during April, May and June indicated that Axis policy was the complete
dismemberment of this
kingdom of the Serbs,
Croats and Slovenes.
The Italian annexation of Dalmatia and Slovenia, the recapture of Albania and the Hungarian annexation of the Banat, among other significant events, were pointers which indicated that the Axis was determined to prevent the reestablishment of a united Yugoslavia.

At later periods these annexations were followed by others, until the entire country, apart from "independent states," had been divided between

Occupied Greece and Yugoslavia
(April-December 1941)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Perpetrator</th>
<th>Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>Wrecking communication and cutting telegraph cables</td>
<td>100 people executed at Veliki Beograd, Yugoslavia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>Road-clearing</td>
<td>Civilians executed at Sarajevo, Town of Gusinje burned to the ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>Poisoning of wells at a concentration of Serbian (Cross-Face) and non-Croatian population</td>
<td>150 people executed in Croatia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>Burning 25 houses in three towns, 130 Italians, 35 Serbs, 22 Croats, and Mobrini</td>
<td>Town of Visin shot by German dive-bombers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>German attack on railway</td>
<td>1,000 people arrested at Zemun; 300 others, of whom 4,000, killed; 6,000 wounded; 1,000 executions at Kraljevac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>Killing 9 German civilians</td>
<td>All children under age 14 in Groznjan deported to Auschwitz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>Killing 200 Russian soldiers</td>
<td>All buildings burned and destroyed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Press Bulletin of Roy. Inst. of International Affairs and Russia's Contemporary Archives

ANTI-SEMITISM IN CROATIA

Under the quisling Pavelich the Jews in Croatia were persecuted in the familiar Nazi fashion. The six-pointed star of Judah had to be worn on back and breast, with an initial designating "Jew." This photo shows a Jew of Zagreb wearing the badge, which was yellow cloth.

Photo, Associated Press

memorabilia were inter-related events such as other conquered peoples had to endure as the price of resistance to Hitler.

The Yugoslav Government, in exile, had associated itself with the Allies' pledge to destroy Nazism. King Peter, in a proclamation issued before leaving Yugoslavia, pledged himself and the Government to continue the fight for national freedom. This Government was constituted of General Simovich as Premier, Dr. Yovanovich as Second Vice-Premier, and M. Nimbich as Foreign Minister. Dr. Machek, First Vice-Premier and Croat Leader, had remained in Zagreb; later, in June, he had been taken to Berlin, but German efforts to induce him to join the puppet Croat government were unsuccessful.

The outlook in Yugoslavia was gloomy, but soon there was to be a radical
NAZI REVENGE FOR YUGOSLAV RESISTANCE

The German attack on Yugoslavia was preceded by a proclamation in even more florid terms than usual, revealing Hitler's rage that his plans had been checked. No mercy was shown to the civilians. The lower photograph shows Yugoslav priests forced to do physical exercises under Nazi guards. It is clear they are at the point of collapse. Top, hostages shot at Chabuta in reprisal for a sweep on the town by Milosevic's chetnik bands.

The following report gives an admirable picture of the position in early summer:

"In September there was heavy fighting S.W. of Belgrade, in which both the enemy and the patriots suffer heavy casualties, particularly in the towns of Sabac and Valjevo. In both these towns were fired on by dive-bombers and artillery in German, positive expeditions and hundreds of civilians shot. Heavy fighting also occurred in Old Serbia, Bosnia-Hercegovina, and Montenegro, necessitating the raising of German and Italian infantry units and aircraft to deal with the situation. Amongst particular patriots successes were the capture of a large group of German and Italian munitions in a surprise raid at Kragujevac, the biggest armament in the country (September), and the hiding of in mid-November of a German column of 200 men by the 1st Serbian Alpine Guards."

Serbs, "Jews and Communists," and the clergy were singled out for systematic persecution. In Banjaluka (Bosnia) 12,000 Serbs were virtually exterminated by the Ustašić (Croat Fascists) in a pogrom, while hundreds of Serbian
YUGOSLAV AIR AND LAND FORCES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Learning over the radio that Belgrade had fallen, the commander of a Yugoslav Naval air squadron lost his seaplanes in a flight first to Greece and then to a base in the Middle East. Top, beaching a Yugoslav seaplane of the Do-nier type. Below, swearing in recruits for a battalion of the Royal Yugoslav Guards raised in the Middle East.
BARBARITIES WHICH WILL PROVOKE A DREADFUL REVENGE

As in all the countries they overran, the Nazis tried to crush and cow the population of Yugoslavia by atrocious cruelties and mass executions. But despite all this, brave patriots rallied to the national forces under General Draza Mihailovich. This photograph, taken in the main square of Belgrade, shows a victim of the Gestapo.

The clergy were tortured and killed. The Serbian Orthodox Church, in a report published in London in January 1942, gave details of terrible atrocities against Serb clergy and civilians in Croatia.

A similar policy was followed in Slovenia, concrete evidence being given in a statement issued in London by Dr. Krek, the Yugoslav Vice-Premier, on October 1.

"The Slovenes," he said, "are dying and calling for help." He declared that the Germans, unable to carry out the Germanization of Slovenia (incorporated into the Reich as "Sudetenmark"), were pursuing a policy of systematic extermination of the Slovenes as a nation.

In early October the vast scale of guerrilla activities in Serbia compelled the Germans to send a Panzer division against them, while the Luftwaffe bombed the towns of Leskovac and Niš. Hostages were killed in hundreds as reprisal measures.

In a report published in November 1941 by the Inter-Allied Information Committee, it was stated that, excluding German, Hungarian and Ustaša massacres, over 5,000 hostages had been killed to date; from a second source it became known that about 184,000 workers had been deported to Germany.

The growth and scope of General Mihailovich's military operations compelled General Nedić to begin negotiations for the cessation of hostilities. Mihailovich agreed to the suggestion, on condition that all German forces first left the country, a condition which Nedić could not fulfil. The resulting failure of the negotiations ushered in a new era of fighting more violent, more intensive and more widespread than any yet experienced. The Germans reacted by authorizing Nedić to levy 40,000 men to cope with the situation, and when this failed they had to intervene themselves, and sent three divisions into the country. General Mihailovich had under his command by December some 20,000 trained men, organized on a military basis, with a G.H.Q., a general staff, and radio communications.

Financial and other assistance was freely rendered by loyal citizens, while men and women of all classes rallied to his flag.

In a statement issued in London on November 26, General Simovich said that the execution of hostages had nowhere reached such proportions as in Serbia. "Our Allies," he said, "in their growing air power have a means of restraint which is well known to the Germans."

On December 2 German and Fascist forces of three divisions launched a determined attack against the Yugoslav position in the Western Morava valley, but apart from one slight withdrawal Mihailovich's patriots resisted successfully. The end of the year saw Mihailovich (who was in constant touch with the Yugoslav Government in London) in control of vast areas of the country and with a powerful, well-armed military force at his back.
WAR DRAWS CLOSER TO OUR DOMINIONS AND COLONIES

Chapter 157


During the second half of 1941, so far as the Dominions and Crown Colonies were concerned, the dominant factor was Japan's entry into active hostilities on December 7, Malaya, Burma, Ceylon, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand all faced a menace which was different in kind from any threat to their liberties suggested by the previous 18 months of hostilities.

The Union of South Africa, thanks to the vision of Field-Marshal Smuts, was alive somewhat earlier to the fact of war at its threshold. Italy's declaration of war on June 11, 1940 made it plain then that the African continent was directly threatened, and South African troops at once began that struggle with the Italians which led to the complete collapse of Mussolini's African empire. The story of the South African army's fight in Italian Somaliland and Abyssinia is told in Chapter 170, up to the point where the Duke of Aosta surrendered at Amba Alagi in May 1941. The remaining Italian forces in Abyssinia retired to the mountainous country north of Lake Tana. On September 28 the garrison of Wolchofet surrendered, and when Gondar surrendered on November 28 and 10,000 more prisoners were taken, the campaign was at an end.

The official communiques gave the prime credit for the concluding battles to East African troops. In the second half of 1941 practically 100,000 mid-African troops were serving against the German and Italian armies—Kenya being responsible for about 42,000, Uganda for 21,000, Tanganyika for 18,000, Northern Rhodesia for 7,000, and Nyasaland for 9,000—apart from the defense forces raised in Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The services rendered by the African natives were multifarious, and there were some remarkable instances of self-sacrifice; for example, a native living in South Nyeri, Kenya Colony, gave the colonists three pigs, being his entire possessions. Native troops crossed the continent to take part in the East African fighting—in particular, regiments from the Gold Coast and Nigeria. A force of Somalis and Arabs from Aden helped to the recapture of British Somaliland. Perhaps the most valuable service rendered by the native protectorates in West Africa was opening up and keeping open the trans-continental motor-road connecting such a port as Lagos with the fighting forces in the East. Free French forces operating from Brazzaville assisted in this work. Under Sir George Giffard a small army based upon the Gold Coast came into being in the first two years of the war. From the important airports at Lagos and Takoradi a vital air line stretched out to Cairo, whose communication with India was possible if the need for supplies justified a special effort.

The jungle airfields, which were in daily use during the later months of 1941, served British, American, and Belgian pilots and suggested aerial developments which would have another and more acceptable significance when peace came and the interior of Africa was opened up more fully. Mails and

SOUTH AFRICANS IN CUNNINGHAM'S LIBYAN OFFENSIVE

From its victories in Abyssinia, the greater part of the South African force joined the Eighth Army in Libya, where General Cunningham opened his offensive on November 12, 1941. Below, advancing troops shelter from an enemy shell. On the right, a South African soldier looks at the tomb of Sidi Rezegh, around which was fought one of the fiercest battles in the Dominion's history.

Photos, South African Official
South Africans were employed in the attacks upon Halfaya ("Hell Fire Pass") in company with a Free French force. Halfaya surrendered to the South Africans on January 18.

At the end of the East-African campaign, Sir Archibald Sinclair, Secretary for Air, stated that the operations of the South African Air Force were a primary factor in winning the victory. As he said, the S.A.A.F. moved to the Western Desert to carry on operations with the same dash and verve they had displayed in the Eastern Desert. Apart from air power in Africa about 700 South Africans were working with the Royal Air Force in Britain, and by the end of 1941 the list of decorations awarded to them was near the century mark. Before the present war began, the force numbered 1,300 men. When it attained its twenty-first birthday, on August 29, 1941, its strength was 22,000.

For the rest, Field Marshal Smuts was hamp-ered throughout the period by the unpatriotic attitude of his par-liamentary Opposition. General Hertzog, one-time Prime Minister of the Union, on October 23 declared in favour of National Socialism. The declaration was more than the Afrikaner Party as a whole could accept, and one section, led by Mr. Havenga, broke away from Hertzog.

The Australians, who had done such good work in earlier Libyan fighting, were now finishing the Syrian campaign. On June 24 a mixed Australian and English force occupied Mers Ayun and then thrust forward against the Vichy positions in the deep wadi near Damiur. Another Anglo-Australian force was meanwhile making for Beirut. The Damour river was crossed on July 7 after force fighting. British patrols spent four nights groping along the banks of the river in search of a possible crossing, and one regiment had to force its way across a miniature Grand Canyon, with a gage fully a 1,000 feet deep. Vichy troops stood their ground for a while, but the dash of the Anglo-Australian attackers was

### EMPIRE CASUALTIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Officers</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
<th>Dominion</th>
<th>India &amp; Burma</th>
<th>Ceylon</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Killed</td>
<td>5,007</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5,830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wounded</td>
<td>26,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33,007</td>
<td>5,034</td>
<td>5,034</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>41,995</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Deaths from natural causes excluded.
AUSTRALIA MAKES READY

(1) On December 9, 1941, Lord Gowrie (centre), Governor-General, signed Australia's declaration of war against Japan—
with him are, left to right, Mr. Forde, Minister for the Army; Mr. Curtin, the
Premier; Mr. Chifley, Treasurer; and
Dr. Evatt, Minister for External Affairs.
(a) Sandbagged buildings in Sydney. (3)
Air raid shelters in Brisbane street.
(4) Barbed wire defences in coastal areas
near Victoria.
AUSTRALIAN AND NEW ZEALAND PILOTS WHO WON THE V.C.

Wing Commander H. E. Edwards (top left) and Sergeant J. A. Ward (right, portrait by Oswald Birley) gained the V.C. for operations during July 1941. The former led a daylight attack on Bremen (July 4) against intense opposition, flying at about 500 feet for miles inland and bombing the target unseen at night, above, just before the bombs fell most successfully. Four of his formation were destroyed. Born in Australia, he had a disability due to a flying accident. Sergeant Ward, a New Zealander, was second pilot in a Wellington which was set on fire by cannon shells when returning from an attack on Münster during the night of July 7. He climbed out on to the wing, though the astro hatch (B, in lower photograph), kicked holes in it, and, lying prone on the wing, smothered the flames in the fabric. He was killed with the pilot. Helped by the navigator, he got back into the aircraft. His bomber failed to return from an attack made in September, shortly before he was to have been decorated by the King.
too much for them. On July 18 “Cease Fire” was sounded in Syria.

When the Australian Premier, Mr. Menzies, arrived back in Sydney on May 28 after his British and American tour, 400,000 Australians were under arms in the Army, the Navy and the Air Force, being one in four of the male population between 18 and 40. But Mr. Menzies felt that this was not enough. For a few weeks he worked for a coalition government which would unify Australia’s war effort, but without success. First, a section of his own party deserted him, necessitating a new Cabinet led by Mr. Fadden, his second-in-command. This Government was short-lived and Mr. Fadden resigned on October 3. Then Lord Gowrie, the Governor-General, asked Mr. Curtin (Labour leader) to form a Cabinet. Mr. Curtin had led the Labour Party in the Commonwealth Parliament for six years and was 56 years of age when he assumed office. The Australian War Service League agitated strongly for conscription during the autumn of 1941, causing some doubts to the new Premier. The first Labor Budget, introduced on October 26, showed that the cost of national defence in Australia had risen in three years from £11,000,000 to £217,000,000.

The Australian Navy suffered a disaster when the cruiser “Sydney” was lost off the north-west coast of Australia on November 19, with all her officers and men, numbering 645. She engaged and sank the armed raider “Koromran,” ex-“Steinmark.” About the same time the “Farranatta,” with 111 officers and men, was torpedoed. On July 5 the Australian destroyer “Waterhen” sank, after being bombèd in the Mediterranean, but there were no casualties.

The first intimation to our Dominions and Colonies that Japan might soon make heavy calls upon their man power and production came on July 27, when Japanese forces landed in Indo-China and the authorities responsible to Vichy, France accepted the situation with scarcely a murmur.

Japan’s apparent reluctance to be drawn into actual combat had hitherto deceived many Australians, and even the advance into Indo-China was not accepted as decisive evidence. Real doubts about the possibility of continued peace arose when, on October 16, Japan established a 1,250-mile airline connecting Pelew Island and Portuguese Timor, the latter being only 450 miles from Port Darwin. As a counter-measure Australia mined a

Can Canadian reinforcements for Hong Kong. This was announced from Ottawa on November 16, 1941, that reinforcements had reached Hong Kong, soon to meet the fury of the Japanese attack. Hong Kong surrendered on Christmas Day, and some 2,600 Canadians were among the garrison.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright

1,000 miles of ocean-way in the neighbourhood of the Barrier Reef, New Guinea and Thursday Island.

Just before December 7 a squadron of Australian-built Bristol Beaufort bombers had reached Singapore, together with considerable reinforcements of Australian gunners and infantrymen. Britain’s loss of naval dominance owing to the sinking of the “Prince of Wales” and the “Repulse” on December 10 brought about a rapid worsening of the situation. Penang was evacuated on December 19, and it became plain that the threat to Singapore was serious.

Australia’s declaration of war upon Japan (December 9) was approved by the House of Representatives at Canberra on December 16, when Mr. Curtin announced that Mr. Duff Cooper, representing the British War Cabinet in the Far East, had been asked to include Mr. W. G. Bowden as Australian representative on the War Council charged with the conduct of the fighting in the Pacific. This was a step in the direction of a constitutional change which the Australian Government and people had strongly at heart—the creation of a truly Imperial War Cabinet, in which the Dominions would have equal voices with the United Kingdom. Soon after, Mr. Curtin in a newspaper article bluntly stated that “without inhibitions of any kind Australia was looking to America, free from any pangs about her traditional links in kinship with Britain.”

The pronouncement was sharply criticized by Mr. Menzies and other Australian leaders, with the result that Mr. Curtin explained that he desired to reaffirm the steadfast determination of Australians to hold Australia for the Empire, adding: “Australia, however, is no mere Colony and our voice must be heard.” In the event Sir Earle Page came to London for a time and represented Australia on the War Cabinets.

In New Zealand a special secret session of Parliament was called to deal with the crisis arising from Japan’s entry into the war and met at Wellington on December 11. New Zealand meets the Challenge

Mr. Fraser, the Prime Minister, announced that the Air Force was fully mobilized and ready for action and the Navy was prepared for all eventualities. The calling up of Territorials and the National Reserve were other measures. Mr. Fraser was fresh from a visit to London, made in June, so he had personal knowledge of Britain’s war effort and her reactions to Dominion needs. The loss of the cruiser “Dunedin” was announced on December 17; she had been sunk by a U-boat in the Atlantic.

In Canada, too, the Japanese move into Indo-China aroused apprehension and the Dominion at once speeded up certain measures. Canada decided to
send units to assist in the defence of Hongkong, and their arrival in that Colony was announced by the Canadian Prime Minister on November 15. The force numbered about 2,000 and included a battalion of the Royal Rifles of Canada and another of the Winnipeg Grenadiers. These troops, with British and Indian units, defended the island from December 7 (when Japan attacked by air until Christmas Day, “which marked the end of one of the most gallant episodes in the history of Canadian arms,”) to use the words of Mr. Balfour, Defence Minister. The enemy main assault by sea and air began on December 8, and on the 29th the heroic garrison surrendered.

Canada’s declaration of war upon Japan came on December 8. Like Mr. Fraser, Mr. Mackenzie King had been in contact with the British Government, as he visited London in August 1941, travelling by a bomber plane. Summing up the reaction of his countrymen to the attack upon Pearl Harbour and Hongkong, he said:

“It is now a war of hemispheres as well as continents. To the Battle of the Atlantic has been added the battle of the Pacific. The world-encompassing danger has grown into actual conflict in all quarters of the globe. This continent, through the action of the Axis powers, has been drawn into a world conflict to the extent of the entire resources.

By this time more than 287,000 Canadians had enlisted in the Army, Navy and Air Force, and more than 80,000 of us were already serving outside Canada. The Canadian Air Force, which numbered 4,000 before the war, was now more than 100,000. It included 21 Canadian squadrons organized overseas, of which 16 were fully operational. There were 130 aerodromes in the Dominion, and 2,000 buildings devoted to air training and equipment. In addition, 660,000 Canadians, of whom 75,000 were women, were producing and distributing weapons and supplies of war, including field guns of all sorts, Bren guns, ammunition, Bf types of aircraft, and tanks. Mr. Mackenzie King’s statement that the “entire resources of the Dominion were in the conflict” was not an overstatement.

Imposing as were the preparations of the Dominions for meeting the crisis, the efforts of certain smaller units of our overseas Empire were also notable. Ceylon, for example, was manifestly threatened in the event of Singapore giving way. Speaking in December 1941, Sir Andrew Caldecott, the Governor, said: “It is up to us to make ourselves fit to play a front-line role, should events require.” Considerable British forces were quickly sent to the aid of Ceylon, while the islanders did their part by calling up the Ceylon Planters Rifle Corps and by establishing local factories for war supplies. Flying training was also instituted.

The Seychelles, in the Indian Ocean, raised a defence force and sent airman overseas. Mauritius, situated on a network of supply routes connecting India and China with Britain, established compulsory military service for its Home Guards, and also imposed a tax on sugar, all of which was used to help the war effort, the great part of the levy going to Britain direct.

On every hand our Dominions, and the Colonies both great and small, quickened the tempo of their war effort during these threatening months. When in December the Japanese menace became an open aggression all-flung themselves without limit into the struggle. Men, machines, munitions, foodstuffs, raw materials were made available to the Motherland in a united drive to hasten ultimate victory.
Chapter 188

COMMANDO RAIDS DURING 1941


Following the evacuation of Dunkirk and the withdrawal of the B.E.F. from France in the summer of 1940, much thought and attention were given in British military circles to the whole question of Army training and tactical manoeuvres. Many a flaw had been revealed in the old system, in the methods which had come down from the days of the last war, even from the days of wars of an earlier period still. The Germans, it was clear, had made themselves masters of many novel features in the art of war; they were disciplined in a technique highly original in many ways, and one whose value it had to be admitted, was amply demonstrated by its success in the rough-and-tumble of actual conflict.

Thus it came about that at the War Office, at the headquarters of the various Commands, and in the training centres throughout the country, where the returned divisions of the B.E.F. were being reorganized and re-equipped, and new drafts were being received in an increasing flow—at all these there were indications of a new outlook, of a new method of approach to the problem of mechanized warfare. One result was the devising of a new form of drill—battle drill as it came to be called—adapted to modern conditions. More novel still was battle training, executed under conditions of the most dangerous make-believe and with the use of live ammunition. Another was the formation of regiments of specialist troops equipped to deal with the manifold machinery of modern war. Yet another departure was the training of special bodies of servicemen drawn, in the first instance, from many units and called "commandos."

The word "commando" first came into popular use during the war in South Africa (1899-1902), when it was applied to those self-moving bodies of armed bantangs whom the Buren used to such good effect against the less mobile Britons. Now the name was revived, and an interested public detected it embroidered on the sleeves of men in battledress. It was permitted to be known that Commando troops were in process of formation, and newspaper correspondents were allowed to see something of their training.

Commando-men were shock troops, drawn from many regiments. Their training was so rigorous that 93 per cent of the volunteers who had entered for some of the courses were returned to their units as being unable to attain the extraordinarily high standard of personal physique and military excellence that was demanded of them. They had to be crack shots with all the small arms of the modern army; they were expected to be expert in the handling of explosives, and to be deadly exponents with the bayonet and knife. They had to be capable of marching 25 to 30 miles a day across difficult country, and be able to put up a good fight at the end of it. They were trained to operate independently for long periods, living on the country, catching their own food and cooking it. They were also instructed in amphibious warfare—in the use of small craft, in rapid disembarkation and disembarkation by day or by night, in all sorts of weather.

And every Commando had to be able to swim a considerable distance with full equipment and with his rifle kept high above the water. Soon it was stated that the Commandos had given the word "tough" a new and fuller meaning.

But the main point was that for the first time in the country's history the British public was given a foretaste of what the British Army was up to, and what it had been doing. The Commandos were not only a fighting force, they were a symbol of the British Army's determination to be ready for anything.

LT.-COLONEL GEOFFREY KEYES, V.C., M.C.

An Acting Lieut.-Colonel Keyes at the early age of 35, he was awarded the M.C. for gallantry in the battle of El Alamein. He was posthumously awarded the V.C. for his part in the attack on the H.Q. of Rommel's Afrika Korps, 350 miles behind the enemy lines in Libya. He was mortally wounded after a most courageous entry into the principal building.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright.
RAID ON LOFOTEN ISLANDS, MARCH 4, 1941

From fish-oil plants in Northern Norway the enemy was obtaining valuable oils and fats for his war industries, so a joint British and Norwegian force raided the Lofoten (see map in page 199) and destroyed the installations, besides sinking enemy shipping there. 1) Captured German seamen, Norwegian buildings, and air staff staff (dressed for security reasons) being embarked. 2) Nazi flag captured by Commando men. 3) British landing craft nearing the shore. 4) Oil tanks set on fire by our forces.

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright / J. Hall
in February 1941 may also be regarded as Commando upset. But the first Commando raid proper was that on the Lofoten Islands on March 4, 1941. Made in conjunction with Norwegian Marines, it had for its objectives the destruction of a plant used for the production of fish oil (a source of gyaxrin and hence of explosives), the destruction of any German ships or shipping under German control found in the locality, and the seizure of Germans concerned in the control of the fishing industry and of any local quislings who might be aiding and abetting the enemy.

"The raid developed early on Tuesday morning," stated a joint Admiralty and Norwegian Naval Commando, based on March 5. "German shipping and shipping under German control were dealt with by our light forces. Meanwhile, Norwegian Marines and British troops were landed. All the ships of the raid were carried out with conspicuous success. Nine German merchant vessels and one Norwegian merchant ship under German control were sunk and also a German armed trawler. The houses inflicted upon the enemy shipping totalled approximately 30,000 tons. The largest still sunk was a German ship of about 16,000 tons, which was fully laden.

"Having achieved all their objects, the Allied forces withdrew, bringing with them 212 German prisoners and 10 quislings. Our Raids also brought back to England a considerable number of Norwegian patriots who were anxious to join their countrymen fighting for the cause of freedom.

"The opportunity was taken to supply, for the benefit of the local population, consignments of foodstuffs, soap, cigarettes, clothing, and other comforts of which the Norwegian population has been robbed since the German occupation. The removal of the Germans and quislings made it possible to supply those stores to the Norwegian population without danger of their being directed by enemy use. The raid was carried out with little opposition, but one German naval officer and two ratings were killed. No damage of casualties were sustained by our forces."

Barlota, in Libya, was the next scene of Commando activity. The description of this raid, released for publication some seven months after its occurrence, is interesting in that it would seem to have been the first official mention of a British Commando, and it was deemed necessary in the Ministry of Information's descriptive statement to add an explanation of the term: "a small body of picked and highly trained troops." The raid, the statement went on, "was typical of the kind of thing for which the Commandos are trained, and was the more successful because it was in fact bloodless.

Barlota had been recaptured by the Germans in April 1941, and shortly afterwards British G.H.Q. wanted to
COMBINED RAID ON VAAGSO, DECEMBER 27, 1941

The objective was enemy ships, plant and stores on Vaagso and the adjacent island of Maaloy (see map in page 197). Above, Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten, Chief of Combined Operations, inspects Commandos before setting out for Vaagso. Inset: Sapper I.C. Haydon, D.S.O., O.B.E., who commanded the military forces.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

know whether the town was actually occupied by Axis troops, whether coast defences had been organized there, and whether the harbour was being used to supply the enemy's forward troops. They were also anxious to create a diversion which would force the enemy to withdraw from the front some of the armoured forces which at that time were threatening our defence lines east of Sollum.

BOMBING OF THE GERMAN AERODROME AT HERDIA

The nearest German airfield to Vaagso was at Herdia, about 200 miles south (see map in page 197). Our Blenheims made a low-level attack, destroying runways and crippling enemy fighters on the ground. Arrow at left indicates a German aircraft, about to take off, which ran into a bomb crater; arrow near centre points to tail of another machine protruding from hangar.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright
enemy were on the alert, and that the whole attempt would be a failure. But it was only one of our beach parties that were ineffective, and the silence that followed proved that Bardia itself was undefended.

"By 12.45 our men were in Bardia. Again there was silence. Men scattered this way and that. It was not the carefully rehearsed plan. Suddenly there was an explosion: then a second and third. A red flare rose to the sky, lighting up the old Italian barrack buildings. The road bridge had been blown up, the coast defence battery on the top of the escarpment had been blown sky-high, and a great dump of new tires brought across the desert. For retaking the enemy's supply store was burning fiercely. But at least the raid's object had been achieved.

"Then there was a roar, and along the road into Bardia came two motorcycles bringing enemy scouts to see what was afoot. They learnt, soon enough, that everyone lay at them with grenades and tommy-guns. But they got through to report to the enemy's headquarters that this was the raid, no casual shelling from the sea, but an invasion by British land troops. Tanks and armoured cars were hurriedly dispatched to repel the invaders, and with the lighting of the threat against our own defence these the full purpose of the Commando's raid was achieved. The men scrambled down the score-covered slopes, leaving behind them a torched by the flames of burning stores, and scrabbled back into the boles which punctuated the minute—put in again to the trenches, on which the surf raised by a high wind was now beating heavily.

"One boat missed the rendezvous in the darkness, but sailed safely into Tobruk next day, and another went off to the wrong side and found no boat waiting; otherwise the whole operation went like clockwork."

**How the Enemy Fortified Maaloy**

Some of our Commandos are examining a German field gun on Maaloy which had been adapted for coastal defence. The battery was silenced by covering it with earth. Behind are flames from burning buildings. Inset, Major J. M. Churchill, M.C., a bagpiper enthusiast, who piped the men ashore. He is also seen on the extreme left in the larger photograph.

Photos: British Official. Crown Copyright. O.P.U.

Next the Commandos were in action in Syria. In the early morning of June 11, 1941, a force of British shock troops landed on the beach behind the Yebbi_device positions on the Litani river and wrought havoc amongst the French gun positions. Within 15 minutes of landing one of the Commandos had smashed his way into the French barracks, landed down the flag from the masthead, and brought it back to his captain. Later it was learnt that the leader of this daring episode was Lt.-Col. Keynes, who was awarded the M.C. for his gallantry.

Colonel Keynes was the hero of the next Commando incident to be recorded—one of the most daring episodes of the war. This was the raid on Rommel's headquarters in the Western Desert. On November 12, 1941, three days before General Auchinleck opened his offensive in Libya, 30 Commandos were landed on enemy territory some 35 miles behind the front. For two days they lay hidden in a wadi. Then on the night of November 17 they made their attack, their main objective being the administrative headquarters of the Afrika Korps. What followed is quoted from the citation of Colonel Keynes' posthumous V.C.:

"At zero hour on the night of November 17-18, 1941, having dispatched the evacuation party to block the approaches to the house, he himself with the two others entered the house, turned the guards out of the house,rendered the place harmless, and on the day of November 18, 1941, the house was destroyed by the keepers."

Bad weather frustrated the plan for evacuating the raiders and on November 19 a considerable force of Germans and Italians attacked the little party. The Commandos broke up as previously arranged into a number of small groups, who made for the Jebel Akbar mountain area. Eventually, after many narrow escapes, the survivors rejoined our forces, forty-one days after being landed in enemy territory.

Before the end of 1941 there were two more Commando raids, both in northern
DESTRUCTION OF OIL WORKS AT VAAGSO

Killing on the snow-covered landing stage, British Commando troops guard against snipers or counter-attacks while the buildings go up in flames. At the left is one of the local fishing craft which bring raw materials to the factory for conversion into fats.

(PHOTO: BRITISH OFFICIAL / CROWN COPYRIGHT)

waters. The first (in mid-August) was directed against the Norwegian island of Spitsbergen, lying well to the north of the Arctic Circle. A mixed Canadian, British, and Norwegian force under Canadian command was involved, and the main purpose of the landing (said an announcement made by the War Office on September 8) was to prevent the enemy from utilizing the rich coal stocks of Spitsbergen for fuelling their transports operating along the Norwegian coast.

Supported by a formidable battery of Royal Navy warships and Fleet Air Arm planes, the British Commando-men, with the Canadians and Norwegians, landed on the island, manned gun posts and constructed defence positions with a view to beating off any enemy air raids. But no raiders appeared; indeed, there was no indication that the Germans were aware of the invasion. The Norwegians on the island welcomed the invaders with open arms, and 700 of the mums and their families went back with them to England when the work of destroying the plant and coal dumps had been successfully completed.

Then two days after Christmas British soldiers, sailors, and airmen went into action for the first time in a "combined operation," their objective being German ships, plant, and stores on the German-occupied islands of Vaagso and Maaloy, off the Norwegian coast, 100 miles north of Bergen. Arriving at Vaagso just before daylight on December 27, British light naval forces, led by Rear-Admiral H. M. Burrough, C.B., put ashore. The Commando-men, with some Norwegian troops, were under the command of Brigadier J. C. Haydon, D.S.O., O.B.E.

There were two main landings, and both were successful. At Maaloy the entire Nazi garrison were killed or taken prisoner; military storeshouses and ammunition dumps were blown up. At South Vaagso enemy resistance was somewhat stiffer and our forces suffered some casualties in the street fighting; eventually, however, they gained complete control of the town. Oil tanks, a wireless station, and industrial plant owned by a quaking were destroyed. Meanwhile this was going on, R.A.F. bombers and fighters were in action against enemy planes and ships and aerodromes. At 2.45 in the afternoon the Allied forces were withdrawn, all objectives having been attained. British casualties were reported to be slight, but some 70 German were killed and about 100 prisoners were taken. Eight enemy ships were beached or destroyed. One solitary German tank encountered in the raid was soon put out of action.

Beyond a doubt the operation was a most successful one, and Combined Operations H.Q. paid a high tribute to the quality of the British troops and to the promptness with which they had achieved their mission.

MORE GLIMPSES OF THE RAID ON VAAGSO AND MAALOY

Left, four of the Germans taken prisoners at Maaloy being escorted to a British transport. Right, some of our Commandos advance through the smoke caused by smoke from the burning oil tanks and stores. Enemy shipping of 75,650 tons was destroyed in the course of the raid.

(PHOTO: BRITISH OFFICIAL / CROWN COPYRIGHT)
Diary of the War

SEPTEMBER and OCTOBER, 1941


September 2. Air battle raging near Leningrad. Day raids on Berlin; heavy night attacks on Frankfurt and Wiesbaden.


September 5. U.S. destroyers "St. Louis" and "St. Louis" bomb and sink in Gulf of Suez.

September 6. Announced that our submarines in Mediterranean have sunk 11,000-ton Italian tanker. Allied losses reported to be 3,000.

September 7. German counter-attack in Kethola and other areas. Heavy night raids on Dublin.

September 8. War Office announces raid on Spitak by British, Canadian and Norwegian troops; coal mines wrecked. Norwegian population brought into France for protection. German aircraft attack shipping at Ostend. Night raids on Rhine Island.

September 9. Russian counter-attack in Kethola and other areas. Heavy night raids on Brussels.

September 10. Heavy raids on Turin, Genoa and Messina.


September 13. Russian counter-offensive begins. Night raids on Berlin and other areas.


September 15. Night raids on Hamburg and Lundenburg.


September 18. German peace talks in Molotov, Yaroslav and Tiraspol. German peace talks in Yaroslav, Molotov and Tiraspol.

September 19. R.A.F. makes night raids on Stettin and targets near Stettin.


September 23. German troops pushed back in east. Night raids on Berlin.


September 25. Moscow, night raids; Leningrad attacked by Stakhs and heavy bombers.

September 26. Night raids on Calais, Dunkirk and Cologne; also on targets in Denmark and Hamburg.

September 27. Heavy fighting in Crimea. New Soviet offensive against Leningrad. Important British convoy in Mediterranean. Ships through with low of one freighter and damage to H.M.S. "Norman.""Nelson.""Nelson."

September 28. British and U.S. delegations to Three Powers Conference arrive in Moscow. Night raids on Tunis, Tunis and other targets.


September 30. German drive against Kursk bogeys. Night raids on Stettin, Hamburg and Cherbourg.

October 1. Night attack on targets in S.W. Germany, including Stuttgart.

October 2. Creation of eastern and western armies in Middle East officially announced. Night raids on Dover and St. Nazaire.

October 3. Night raids on Odessa. Night raids on these of Dunkirk, Rotterdam, Antwerp and Brest. Australian Premiere A. W. Padden, resigns.


October 5. Soviet claims 200 miles advance in Ukraine and 30 villages occupied in three days. Heavy night raids on Tripoli and Benghazi.

October 6. German launch large offensive against Moscow. New Russian Cabinet formed by Mr. Castro.

October 7. Terrific German onslaught along 350 miles from Vistula to Brest. Air attack on Berlin by R.A.F.


October 10. Night raids over Calais area and on Cologne and Hamburg. Threatening attack over Balkans.

October 11. Italian envoy in Mediterranean breaks up by air attack. Night raids on Florence, Bologna and Trieste.

October 12. Germans evacuate Yozu. Heavy night raids on Nurnberg, Munich and other targets.

October 13. British and French destroy "Bremen" sunk by torpedo off Ireland.


October 16. Russian envoy in Odessa. Heavy-night raids on Le Havre, Dunkirk and other targets.


October 18. Fighting around Kalmun, loose.' Night raids on Naples.

October 19. German attack on Taganrog. Heavy night raids on Bremen, Wilhemsen and London.


October 22. New German offensive at Tula. Night raids on Mainz, Le Havre and Berlin.


October 24. German claim capture of Kurkov. Night raids on W. Germany, Naples and targets in S.W.

October 25. Heavy fighting at Kalmun and in Crimea.

October 26. German reported 19 miles from Bostock. Night raids on Corbey, Nantes and Pessac. Heavy bombs over Benghain.

October 27. Russian counter-offensive in Crimea. German air attacks on Bostock.


October 30. Russian landing around Tula. U.S. destroyers "Blunts James" sunk by torpedo off Ireland.

OUR CONVOYS GET THROUGH

Here are photographs of two typical attacks on British Mediterranean convoys during the latter half of 1941. The earlier, on July 22-24, cost us the destroyers "Fearless"—seen on fire after an aerial torpedo attack in (4)—and six aircraft. The enemy lost an E-boat, a submarine and a dozen Italian aircraft; one of the 13 is seen diving into the sea in (3). An attack on a bigger scale was made on another British convoy at the end of September. On the morning of the 27th the battleship "Nelson" was hit by a torpedo from an Italian midget and her speed reduced; (4) shows the splash of the torpedo, right centre; in (5) the battleship is seen just after the torpedo struck her. We lost three aircraft against the enemy's 13; one ship in the convoy was sunk.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright.
British Newsreel
Chapter 186

THE SEA WAR EXTENDS: DISASTER IN THE FAR EAST


From a large part of the second half of 1941 the naval war was devoid of any major incident, although there was plenty of minor excitement with losses on both sides. It was only at the end of the period that Japan's weakness, though not unexpected, entry into the war opened a new phase. In the early months most of the interest was in the Mediterranean. The situation in Northern Africa was still very fluid, and everything depended upon supplies, all of which had to be sea-borne. The handled in constant attack and counter-attack, in which the air forces of both sides participated. The Axis powers had the shorter sea route, but were handicapped by our unerring attacks in which the fortresses of Malta had a big influence, so that the island was subjected to German and Italian air attacks of steadily increasing intensity. Most British supplies went round the Cape, but occasionally it was necessary to hurry a convoy through the danger area of the Mediterranean, the only route to Malta. Such convoys were usually detected by enemy air scouts and attacked with great energy but varying effect. Aircraft were generally used, the Axis navies assisting by submarines while Italian surface craft were employed principally in convoying.

In July an Italian attack on this sort was beaten off by the convoying vessels, but H.M. destroyer "Fearless" was sunk. At the end of September there was a very much bigger affair of the kind, an important British convoy escorted by heavy ships being attacked in the Central Mediterranean. The Italians made extravagant claims, but later had to modify these, and admitted that the Italian fleet, although at sea, had refused to give battle. Actually the battlecship "Nelson" was hit by a plane's torpedo, her speed being reduced, and one merchant ship in the convoy was damaged. Attempts were made to tow the merchantman to her destination, but her slow speed was impeding the venture and she was accordingly sunk. This was one of the costly in persuading Axis merchant shipping to run the risk in anticipation of special decorations and extra pay. Every available ship was put on the run, from 20,000-ton Atlantic liners (which were packed to capacity with troops) to little sailing ships from the wine trade, which were considered to have a reasonable chance of shipping through by their obvious unimportance. Counter-measures of all kinds were undertaken, handicapped by the Italian Navy's traditional distaste for risking material.

Not only was Malta an important factor in the British line, both for aircraft and naval vessels, but its continued resistance was regarded as a bitter blow on Italian capability, after Italy's spokesmen had claimed that it could be reduced in a matter of weeks. In addition to the air operations and a picturesque attack was made in July with a new type of Italian mortar-towed vessel described as a "suicide weapon," but it failed utterly and every boat concerned was destroyed. A somewhat similar attack on Gibraltar in September, carried out by motor torpedo-boats transported within short range by big surface vessels, had very little better success. All the time British submarines and aircraft were keeping up their attacks on Italian convoys, and the nerves of the naval personnel on convoying duty were obviously wearing very thin. On one occasion Italian destroyers shelled one another in the confusion of the attack; on another several of the escorting warships left convoy to sort things out.

Captain W. G. Agnew, R.N., acting as Commodore in command of a cruiser force, with his broad beam flying in the "Aurora," distinguished himself at the end of the year by chasing attacks on Italian convoys. On November 9, 1941, he encountered a group of 10 supply ships well protected by two cruisers and four destroyers. The cruisers made
LOSS OF THE AIRCRAFT CARRIER "ARK ROYAL"

Late in the afternoon of Nov. 13, 1941, H.M.S. "Ark Royal" was hit by two torpedoes from a U-boat while returning to Gibraltar after a sweep. She was taken in tow and every effort made to save her, but at 4.30 next morning she had to be abandoned, and sunk two hours later. Only one of her complement of 1,500 lost his life. Above, a destroyer going alongside to take off her crew. "Inset, her captain, Captain L. E. H. Maund. (See also Illus., pp. 735, 736, 849, and 1599.)

Photo. "The Daily Mirror." \* Planet News

off at full speed and escaped; the first British report was that all the merchant ships had been sunk, together with two of the destroyers, a third being damaged. It later came to light that all four of the destroyers had gone to the bottom. Captain Agnew received his C.B. for that particularly dashing action and on December 1 he repeated it, intercepting the destroyer "Adriatico" escorting the munition carrier "Ammiraglio Caracciolo" and the tanker "Mantovani." All three of the Italians were sunk, without any damage or casualties to the British.

A very brilliant little night action occurred in December, when H.M. destroyers "Sikh," "Miort" and "Legion," with the Dutch destroyer "Isaac Sweers" (warned by planes) encountered two Italian cruisers, a torpedo-boat and a motor torpedo-boat. Our warships immediately attacked with gunfire and torpedoes, hitting both cruisers. One of them blew up and sank, while the other was soon blazing furiously from stem to stern. The motor-boat was sunk and the other torpedo-boat severely damaged, after which the enemy force returned to its base. In the same month the Italian submarine "Ammiraglio Caracciolo" was sunk by a destroyer, the only one of several known cases to be named.

On the Syrian coast the concluding stages of the unhappy campaign against the Vichy authorities who were assisting the enemy were carried out in July, when several small hostile warships were sunk by British and Free French ships, while most other Vichy craft interned themselves in Turkish ports.

Against the Mediterranean successes there were two heavy losses in November. On the 13th, when the "Ark Royal" was returning to Gibraltar after a sweep, she was hit by two torpedoes. She took a heavy list and her electrical plant was put out of action, but she was taken in tow and had got to within 25 miles of Gibraltar when she capsized and sank. Only one life was lost, owing to magnificent discipline. On the 25th three of our battleships were exercising off the Egyptian coast and were altering course at 17 knots when a submarine hit the "Barham" with at least four torpedoes. She rolled over and sank in a few minutes with a heavy death-roll.

In the Italian Ocean area the remaining Italian forces in Abyssinia surrendered in July, but some warships contrived to escape, some of the larger submarines making their way home and the cruiser "Eritrea" making a very adventurous voyage to join the Japanese. In August, there was trouble farther east, where German plotting in Iran necessitated Anglo-Russian operations with naval help on both fronts, the Iranian Navy being destroyed.

In November, there being ample evidence that French ships from Madagascar were carrying cargoes destined for Germany, a convoy of five was intercepted off the South African coast. In spite of efforts to settle them they were taken into port, where large quantities of contraband were found.

Against Russia most of the earlier German naval movement was in the
Baltic and Arctic areas. In the Baltic the enemy suffered severely through over-confidence in dispatching transports while the Russian Fleet was very much in being. His losses were heavy; on one occasion alone 13 big loaded transports and two escorting destroyers were destroyed by Russian surface craft, while there was constant attrition by small surface craft, submarines and aircraft. In the Baltic the Germans used their small submarines, built very largely for training purposes. Their casualties were heavy and they caused very little interference with the big Russian ships which were constantly bombarding land positions as the Germans slowly advanced along the southern shore. This advance seriously embarrassed the Russian Navy by depriving it of many bases, but strategic islands and ports changed hands repeatedly. The Finnish coast defence ship “Himarmen,” pride of the Finnish Navy, was sunk in an attack on Hangö.

When the German advance reached the defences of Leningrad the Soviet men-of-war based there and at Kronstadt cooperated most effectively. It was reported, apparently on good authority, that many of the smaller Russian submarines were moved through the Stalin Canal to operate in the Arctic, where practically all the German troop movements were by sea.

The British Navy also cooperated in the Northern area. In September a cruiser force under Rear-Admiral P. L. Vian (of “Cossack” fame) attacked a German convoy off the North Cape in thick weather. The enemy was taken completely by surprise; the training cruiser “Bremse” and three other escorting vessels were sunk, with several of the cargo ships. The Fleet Air Arm and the Royal Air Force constantly cooperated in air attacks, and the work of the Russian submarines, which claimed many successes, was supported by our underwater craft. Among these the “Tigris” and “Trident” were given full credit for good work in November. In a long cruise under very difficult conditions the “Tigris” sank five enemy ships and seriously damaged another; while the “Trident” hit seven ships, of which three were seen to sink—two of them packed with troops—and four were claimed as probable. German submarines were very active in the Baltic Sea and even in the White Sea.

In the Black Sea area the Russian Navy took the initiative at once, but for a time could do little but bombard enemy positions on the Romanian coast. In August a German army, advancing by land, occupied Nikolayev dockyard, but the ships afloat had been removed and those on the ships destroyed (see illus., p. 1833). Russian warships constantly harassed the enemy transport and bombarded their armies. In December the Black Sea Fleet landed troops on the Kerch peninsula and at Feodosia, in the Crimea.

In home waters the German battleships “Scharnhorst” and “Gneisenau” and the heavy cruiser “Prinz Eugen” at Bremerhaven were a constant menace to British communications and were repeatedly bombed. In July the “Scharnhorst” contrived to slip out, leaving her old berth occupied by a 500-foot tanker with small craft at bow and stern, all of them covered with her usual camouflage. The
HOW U-111 AND U-570 WERE CAPTURED

On September 8, 1941, a Hudson aircraft of Coastal Command sighted and attacked U-570 in the Atlantic. Forced to the surface, the enemy surrendered. After 3½ hours the Hudson was relieved by a Catalina, which stayed until our warships arrived. U-111 was captured some weeks later by the Naval trawler ‘Lady Shirley,’ commanded by Lieut.-Cmdr. A. H. Gallaway, R.A.N.V.R. (now), after attack by depth charges and gun-fire. A vivid impression of the action by Mr. Charles Pearson is reproduced below.

Photos, British Official. Painting, Crown copyright reserved.

U-111 was immediately detected by aircraft of our Coastal Command; the battleship was traced to La Pallice and heavily attacked there, so she returned soon after to Brest, with its very heavy anti-aircraft protection. In the Channel and North Sea the activity was mostly by light craft—motor torpedo-boats, patrol vessels, gunboats, etc.—which were constantly attacking the communications and merchant ships of the other side. As Britain’s strength increased, our operations gradually assumed more and more of the offensive, although enemy attacks on our convoys off the East Coast were maintained. In November the famous “Cossack” was sunk by torpedo or mine.

Submarine attacks on Allied shipping continued, but even the German radio had to admit repeatedly that the British protective measures were becoming more and more effective. The Admiralty kept silence with regard to most of the operations, but a few unusual cases were reported, among them the capture of a U-boat from the air. On September 8 a Hudson plane on patrol over the Atlantic sighted the German submarine U-570 and attacked her with bombs and machine-guns. The attack was so effective that the
In the Far East the situation became more and more threatening as the months went by and Japanese assistance to the Axis was obvious. Reinforcements were sent to Hongkong and Singapore; British and American leaders held a conference at Manila to arrange mutual support (see illus., p. 1798), and in November it was reported that the battleship "Prince of Wales" was en route to Singapore. On November 18 the Australian cruiser "Sydney" was sunk with all hands in an engagement with the heavily armed raider "Kormoran" (ex-"Steinemark"), which was also sent to the bottom (see illus., p. 1718).

Then, on December 7, Japan bombed Pearl Harbour and Hongkong while her envoy were still talking peace in Washington. On the 10th the "Prince of Wales" and the "Repulse" left Singapore, on receipt of news of Japanese transports advancing on the Malayan coast. They were escorted by a few destroyers only. Mr. Winston Churchill later announced that the Navy had only one aircraft carrier available at the time, very busy in home waters, with all the rest under repair. Admiral Sir Tom Phillips (C-in-C. Eastern Fleet) was informed that no fighter aircraft were available for his protection after his ships had left the harbour, but in the

TRAGIC LOSS OF THE 'PRINCE OF WALES' AND 'REPUULSE'

In a gallant attempt to intercept Japanese transports bearing the Malayan coast, Admiral Sir Tom Phillips (instant) took out the new battleship "Prince of Wales" and the battle-cruiser "Repulse", with a small destroyer escort, on December 10, 1941. Later, when visibility improved, he turned back towards Singapore, but was picked up by an enemy reconnaissance plane and attacked in force from the air. In top right of photograph, four bombs are bursting close to the battleship, which is burning furiously; at lower left is the "Repulse", also on fire. Both warships sank soon after noon, local time. (See also illus., p. 1906.)
low visibility ruling he carried on in the
hope of intercepting the Japanese force:
when it later cleared, he turned back.
He had already been sighted by the
enemy off Kuantan; they notified a
big airbase 400 miles away, and an
intensive air attack was started.

A large number of planes hailed bombs
down from 15,000 feet, their object very
distinctly to distract attention, although
the speed of the "Repulse" was reduced
by a hit which started a fire in the
engine room. The

Loss of
Repulse and
Prince of Wales

These torpedo-carrying
bomber planes handling a much larger
torpedo than was usual from the air.
Many of these aircraft were shot down,
but several hits were scored on the
"Repulse," whose light armour and
subdivision had always been recognized
as a weakness, and she speedily sank
soon after noon (local time) on the 10th.
One hit on the stern of the "Prince of
Wales" put her propellers and rudders
out of action, so that she became
imobile and a sitting target for successive
waves of planes. After numerous hits
she rolled over and sank—about half an
hour after her consort. British fighter
planes then appeared and permitted the
rescue of about 2,300 out of under 3,000
officers and men in the two ships, but the
Admiral was not among them.

Before the end of the year Hongkong
was forced to surrender owing to the
water supply being cut, and with the
danger to Singapore fairly well realized
a new phase of the Naval War had
started. The United States had been

SURVIVORS OF THE "KORMORAN," SUNK BY H.M.A.S. "SYDNEY"

Little is known of the fate of the Australian cruiser "Sydney." In an engagement off Western
Australia in November, 1941, she fought and destroyed the enemy armed raider "Kormoran,"
but went to the bottom herself with all on board. Survivors from her opponent were picked
up by a passing vessel and eventually interned in Australia. Here are 26 in a rubber raft
which is towing a dinghy.

"Hitler's Torpedo Was Directed Against Every American"

These were Mr. Roosevelt's words about the torpedoing of the American destroyer " Kearny,"
on October 17, 1941, some 330 miles south-west of Ireland; 11 of her complement were
lost. Together with other like outrages at this period, the attack roused American leading to
fever heat. Photographic shows damage to the "Kearny.

Phot. Wide World

deal a crippling blow by the sudden air
attack on Pearl Harbour. Two battleships ("Arizona" and "Oklahoma")
and three destroyers were sunk; 91
naval officers and 2,638 seamen were
killed and 656 wounded; in addition,
there were over 400 Army casualties in
the engagement. In Parliament on
December 11 Mr. Churchill said:

"The Japanese onslaught has brought
upon the United States and Great Britain
very serious injuries to our Naval power.
... No one can moderate the gravity of the
troop that has been inflicted in Malaya
and Australia, or the power of the new
antagonist that has fallen upon us, or the length
of time it will take to create and manufac
ture the great forces in the Far East
which will be necessary to achieve absolute
victory." In the Far East, in fact, the Allies
had lost in two sudden strokes that
command of the sea without which a
successful war could not be waged. But
the setback was only temporary, and
the coming months were to see a resolute
bid—despite other serious reverses—to
recover lost ground.
Chapter 190

CRUCIAL BATTLE OF THE SEVEN SEAS


The struggle at sea which centred on the efforts of the Axis Powers to sink merchant ships trading to Great Britain came to be known as the Battle of the Atlantic because that ocean was the main and decisive area. In terms of land warfare the Atlantic was the supply line on which the armies in the field depended for their sustenance. If that line could be severed or damaged to such an extent that the flow of supplies was reduced to a mere trickle, the enemy would not have to face the hazards of a pitched battle, for the resistance of the opposing forces would quickly dwindle. But the Atlantic was not the only supply line. The sinking of an Allied merchant ship in any sea or ocean directly contributed to the success of the Axis plans, which aimed at the destruction of carriers wherever they could be found, and faster than they could be replaced. More correctly, therefore, the battle which merchant seamen fought continuously from the first gunboat was, in the phrase of the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Battle of the Seven Seas. In the latter half of 1941 that fact was emphasized.

The major developments in this war at sea were governed by the far-reaching developments of the war as a whole. Thus in 1939 the first mark of the bitterness and savagery of the years to come was made at sea—the sinking of a passenger ship with the loss of over a hundred civilian lives. In the following year the Axis overrun Europe, gained bases along a vast coastline from which to strike harder and stranger against merchant ships, and turned the tide of the Atlantic battle to their favour.

The heavier attack culminated in a great spring offensive in 1941, which was associated with the opening of Hitler's war with the Soviet Union. But the spread of the land war brought new supply routes at sea—stretching communications, broadening the areas of attack, thinning the line of ships across the Atlantic and exposing the new line northwards to Murmansk and Archangel to serious dangers. Nevertheless, the course of the Battle of the Atlantic had been turned once again; this time to the advantage of Britain and her Allies. For the first time since September 1939 losses were reduced by a substantial amount. The curve of sinkings was falling away: the curve of new construction was slanting upwards.

Though in December 1941 the smouldering embers burst into flame and the war became world-wide. Again the sea campaign shifted violently. Losses began to mount once more and new sinkings were involved. The full mobilization of American resources and man-power gave a renewed promise of victory. But the deterioration that was to come in the shipping situation contained a threat of the utmost gravity. The Atlantic Ocean was still the pivot.

Though it was to be overshadowed by later developments, the falling off in shipping losses between June and December, 1941, was of great importance. The effect of the German spring offensive of 1941 is discussed in Chapter 174. After rising to a peak of over 350,000 tons gross of British shipping sunk in May, and half a million tons when Allied and neutral ships were included, losses fell back in June to the level of the winter months, the official total for that month, being 329,296 tons, of which 298,984 tons were British ships. With the publication of those figures on July 15 the official monthly returns of shipping losses ceased. The following statement was issued by the Admiralty:

"After today it is not proposed to continue to publish the shipping losses, due to enemy action at regular intervals, because valuable information is by this means given to the enemy. From time to time we shall, however, consider the publication of shipping losses as may be required."

Though the promise implied in the last sentence was not fulfilled—despite a political agitation many months later—a clear indication of the losses until the end of October 1941 was given by Mr. Churchill to the House of Commons.
SURVIVORS OF THE AMERICAN 'STEEL SEAFARER'

This American freighter was attacked by a German dive-bomber about midnight of September 5-6, 1941, at the entrance to the Gulf of Suez. She had the customary large flags painted on her sides to denote her nationality. She sank in 20 minutes, but all her hands were saved—some by a Danish vessel and others by a British warship, on whose deck they are here seen, interested in the guns.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

The Prime Minister's statements indicated that in the quarter July, August and September sinkings of British, Allied and neutral tonnage amounted to about 540,000 tons gross, representing an average of about 180,000 tons a month. That allowed for the addition of a little over 70,000 tons to the published total for June, representing news of sinkings received subsequent to the publication of this figure. There was a slight increase in October to about 210,000 tons. And in November the 'great recovery' of the previous four months was 'fully maintained.'

The several phases in the Battle of the Atlantic as represented by the losses of British, Allied and neutral ships up to this period are shown in the accompanying table of average monthly losses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Merchant Shipping Losses</th>
<th>Total gross</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British, Allied and Neutral</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British, Allied and Neutral, May-May 1941 (nine months)</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British, Allied and Neutral, June-July 1941 (nine months)</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British, Allied and Neutral, Oct.-Nov. 1941 (two months)</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for 27 months</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first phase was nine months of unrestricted U-boat warfare on ships of all nationalities. The second phase followed the occupation of Norway and the collapse of France, with the enemy's acquisition of bases from Narvik to the Spanish frontier and the intensification of attacks from the air. The third phase represented the spring offensive of 1941, which was checked in June of that year. The sharp reduction which marked the fifth phase of this never-ceasing battle brought the first substantial reduction in losses since the enemy's capture of the Channel ports and Norwegian bases. That was its significance. For there was no reason to believe the U-boat campaign had slackened in the vigour of its attacks. Indeed, Mr. Churchill declared in November that there were never more U-boats or long-range aircraft operating than at that time.

The general explanation for the drop in losses down to the level of the early months of the war could only lie in improved convoy arrangements on the North Atlantic route. A Commodore of Convoy, Rear-Admiral Burgers-Watson, gave it as his opinion towards the end of November that the worst of the Atlantic Battle was past—and he had been sailing that ocean since the beginning of the war. Escorts, he said, were stronger and convoys of up to 100 ships could cross the Atlantic in comparative safety. (Admiral Sir Percy Noble, Commander-in-Chief Western Approaches, revealed about this time that 'recently 100 ships in convoy have crossed the Atlantic from America to Britain without loss,' an event which he described as of an importance equal to a minor battle in Libya.)
SOUTH AFRICAN MARYLAND BOMBS TRANSPORT IN WESTERN DESERT

After the successful East African campaign of 1941, concerning which Sir Archibald Sinclair stated that the operations of the S.A.A.F. were a primary factor in winning the victory, South African airmen took up the fight in Libya along with the Eighth Army. Above, a Maryland bomber of the S.A.A.F. draws away after dropping a stick of bombs on enemy transport vehicles in the desert (December 1941).
On December 27 a combined British force attacked enemy shipping off the islands, and wrecked oil tanks and factories. Nine local quinlings were brought away, with a number of loyal Norwegians who wished to join the Allies. Top, British Commandos mopping up after fighting in the main street of Vaagso; in lower photograph our men are seen returning to their ships after the operations.
DESTRUCTION OF OIL STORES ON SPITSBERGEN

The islands of Spitsbergen, under Norwegian sovereignty, have rich deposits of coal, copper and asbestos. Germany was planning to use the coal for supplying her forces in the Murmansk offensive, and Allied action was imperative. On September 8, 1941 a combined Canadian, British and Norwegian force landed on the islands, burned coal and oil dumps, wrecked the mines, and brought away Norwegian miners with their families. This photograph shows burning oil dumps at Barentsburg.
ILL-FATED BATTLESHIP ARRIVES AT HER FAR EASTERN STATION

H.M.S. "Prince of Wales" was laid down on New Year's Day, 1937, and completed early in 1941. She was damaged in the action which ended in the sinking of the "Bismarck" on May 24-27, 1941. Thereafter she carried the Premier on his journey to meet Mr. Roosevelt in August, went to Singapore as Sir Tom Phillips's flagship in November, and, with H.M.S. "Repulse," was sunk by Japanese torpedo-bombers about mid-day of December 10, 1941.

The United States and the Battle of the Atlantic: Principal Events, July-December, 1941

July
7
American forces land in Iceland.

Aug.
17
Flying the Panamanian flag, the American-owned ex-Danish cargo steamer "Rona," torpedoed and sunk 500 miles south-west of Iceland ; 24 missing.

Aug.
3
U.S. destroyer "Greer," attacked by U-boat 200 miles south-west of Iceland; torpedoes missed.

5
U.S. cargo ship "Westchester" bombed and sunk near St. Nazaire.

11
President Roosevelt announces "New Deal" policy. American-owned, ex-Danish cargo vessel "Mountainside," of Panama registry, torpedoed and sunk 506 miles south-west of Iceland.

19
Cargo vessel "Pink Star," American-owned, Panamanian flag, sunk by submarines south-west of Iceland.

27
The tanker "J. C. White," torpedoed, exploded, and sank in Baltic Sea; one crewman killed.

Sep.
1
In a message to Congress, President Roosevelt calls for revision of Neutrality Act.

10
Flying the Panamanian flag, the American-owned ex-Danish cargo vessel "Beulah Venture," sunk 300 miles south-west of Iceland.

17
U.S. destroyer "Eck RegexOptions," attacked by U-boat 200 miles south-west of Iceland; reached port.

19
The cargo vessel "Iceland," flying the American flag, torpedoed and sunk south-west of Iceland.

20
U.S. light cruiser "Renamed Jamestown," attacked by U-boat off Iceland; seven officers and 88 men missing.

Oct.
11

Nov.
9
U.S. cruiser captures German motor boat "Gnomad" sailing under the American flag.

13
Bill revoking Neutrality Act to permit arming of U.S. merchant ships and their entry into war zone passed by House of Representatives (312 votes to 101).

Dec.
1
United States at war with Germany and Italy.

"Mount," had been torpedoed and sunk in the South Atlantic (see Chapter 174).

Early in July United States forces landed in Iceland, and President Roosevelt as Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. forces issued orders to the Navy: "that all necessary steps be taken to ensure the safety of communications in the approaches between Iceland and the United States." This meant that American warships and merchantmen would from now on be sailing in the war zone as defined by the Axis, but not the zone laid down in the American Neutrality Act, for the border of that zone passed just east of Iceland. On August

17 an ex-Danish ship taken over by the U.S. Maritime Commission and flying the Panamanian flag was torpedoed and sunk 300 miles south-west of Iceland; while on September 5, the "Steel Sea-farer" was bombed in the Gulf of Sorra, the second merchant ship flying the Stars and Stripes to be sunk by Axis attack.

Of greater significance had been an attack by a German submarine on the American destroyer "Greer" off Iceland (September 4). The torpedoes missed, but to the Americans that was not the point. The shooting had begun and now the U.S. Navy was ordered to "shoot first." To a momentous speech on September 11 President Roosevelt declared:

"Let this warning be clear. From now on, if German or Italian vessels of war enter the waters the protection of which is necessary for American defense, they do so at their own peril. The orders which I have given to Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army and Navy are to carry out that policy—at once."

"Our patrolling vessels and airplanes" the President added, "will protect all merchant ships—not only American ships but ships of any flag—engaged in commerce in our defensive waters."

Following further incidents off Iceland and in the South Atlantic, President Roosevelt on October 9 sent a Message to Congress urging the revision of the Neutrality Act to permit the arming of U.S. merchant ships, as a "matter of immediate necessity and extreme urgency." He also called for the repeal of the provision banning U.S. ships from trading in belligerent zones, so that American goods could be delivered under the American flag and the true intent of the lend-lease Act carried out. The necessary Bill was introduced at once, and in the middle of November it was passed by the House of Representatives. Before another month had passed America was at war with the Axis Powers.

Whether American naval vessels had succeeded in sinking any of the U-boats engaged in the attacks south-west of Iceland was not known, for it was announced that the U.S. Navy Department would follow the British Admiralty's policy of silence about the success of the anti-submarine campaign. The Admiralty on occasions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date Reported</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tonnage</th>
<th>Formerly Owned By</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>July 16</td>
<td>Lady Noemi</td>
<td>4,904</td>
<td>Canadian National Steamship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 4</td>
<td>Swiftsure</td>
<td>1,712</td>
<td>Isle of Man Steam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 15</td>
<td>Teutoburg</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>Canadian Pacific Steamship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 3</td>
<td>Cordelia</td>
<td>1,749</td>
<td>British India Steam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 28</td>
<td>Chelidonna</td>
<td>8,874</td>
<td>British India Steam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3,003</td>
<td>British India Steam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
master of one ship himself brought down an enemy plane on its first attack; he was awarded the O.B.E. On another occasion, a small merchant ship, the "Nephrine," was in a convoy which was attacked by about 10 German aircraft. One plane was driven off by the ship's machine-guns, when a second came at the vessel in a low-level attack. Just as the aircraft was rising to clear the mast, it was hit on the engines. Oil spattered down on the deck; the plane struck the mast and crashed into the sea.

Not only was the defensive armament of merchant ships continually improved and gunnery training extended, but new methods were introduced. In October, it was announced that to combat the menace of the long-range aircraft now being used to an increasing extent against Atlantic shipping, certain ships had been provided with fighter aircraft which could be catapulted into the air. After dealing with the enemy, the pilot had to land at a shore base if there was one within reach, or in the sea close to the ship so as to be picked up. "This new method of trade defence,"

Departed from that policy. Several encounters between merchant ships and submarines were announced which demonstrated the effectiveness of the merchant Navy guns as well as the effectiveness of their defensive armament. In one instance a U-boat, attacking a convoy at night, received a direct hit in the conning tower with the first shot when the main gun had been brought to bear, machine-gun tracer bullets being used to give the direction. The submarine came back for more — and got it. She sank after two more shots had found their mark. From the beginning of the war up to October 7, 1941, seventy successful gun engagements had taken place between merchant vessels and U-boats, the latter either being sunk or driven off. At the same date 81 enemy aircraft had been shot down by the defensive armament of merchant ships and fishing craft.

By prompt action and good shooting the


SHIPPING LOSSES COMPARED WITH THOSE OF 1914-18

The heavy line in graph indicates losses of merchant ships from September 1939 until November 1941 — when the issue of official news of sinkings was discontinued. Note the remarkable similarity to the losses during the war of 1914-18 over a like period (lighter line).

During these months stories of the courage and stamina of merchant crews against incredible odds were legion. These men faced not merely the weapons of a ruthless enemy but the horrors of starvation and madness as they drifted for days on rafts and in lifeboats, through the paralyzing cold of the North Atlantic or exposed to the grim menace of sharks in southern waters. Among the ordeals of some parties were 500 miles in the North Atlantic in an open boat; 15 days on a partly submerged float, in the blistering tropical sun with

The Allied Mercantile Marine

(And losses sustained since each country entered the war up to July 1941)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Foreign Tonnage</th>
<th>Total Tonnage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>2,631,000</td>
<td>8,410,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1,200,000</td>
<td>3,800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>805</td>
<td>1,230,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1,078,000</td>
<td>3,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>470,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>540,000</td>
<td>1,670,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,280,000</td>
<td>18,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Merchant Shipping Losses by Enemy Action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>British Losses</th>
<th>Allied Losses</th>
<th>Neutral Losses</th>
<th>Total Losses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 8, 1940-Dec. 31, 1940*</td>
<td>2,281,460</td>
<td>157,030</td>
<td>271,660</td>
<td>2,609,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 1, 1941-June 30, 1941*</td>
<td>1,257,620</td>
<td>126,700</td>
<td>122,000</td>
<td>1,406,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 1, 1941-Dec. 31, 1941 (appendix)</td>
<td>4,660,122</td>
<td>1,498,047</td>
<td>1,012,346</td>
<td>7,170,515</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Official total as published in July; approximately 70,000 tons to be added for sinkings reported subsequently.
“SURVIVORS PICKED UP”

Behind the brief announcement of rescue lies often a story of fearful hardships, heroic endurance and fine courage. Documentary photographs from the Battle of the Seven Seas: (1) After 10 days in gale-swept waters an officer and two seamen (one badly wounded) are rescued by a British cruiser; only that morning their lifeboat had capsized. (2) Survivors from another torpedoed merchantman about to be picked up. (3) Seaman of a bombed ship swims to a life buoy thrown from a destroyer. (4) This man and another were the only survivors from a U-boat attack. (5) After 11 days this raft was sighted by a British warship, on it was one pitiful survivor, with the bodies of two officers which he had not strength to push overboard.

Photos: Associated Press; Central Press; Keystone.
"PRINCE OF WALES," WITH PREMIER ON BOARD, PASSES AN ATLANTIC CONVOY

Returning from his meeting (August 14, 1941) with Mr. Roosevelt in the North Atlantic, Mr. Churchill orders the battleship to alter course so that he will get a close view of an Atlantic convoy which passes. Note defensive gun at stern of the nearest merchantman. Insert, an Italian supply ship sunk by the R.A.F. of Mediterranean Command. Atop, defense of merchantmen against enemy dive-bombers: balloons are being transferred from a balloon launch to merchant ships.
an escort of sharks and only one biscuit for food; nine stormy days in a lifeboat—11 men were buried at sea, then a lonely rocky coast was sighted, and out of the 12 men who reached that shore only six survived.

A notable Merchant Navy award was made in July 1941—the M.B.E. to Second Engineer Miss Victoria Drummond. Her ship was attacked and damaged by German aircraft. She sent the engine-room staff above and stayed alone to coax an extra knot or two out of the engines. That ship owed her escape to the skill of her master and the bravery of her Second Engineer.

News of German surface raiders in the second half of 1941 was less one-sided than in the former months. In September a British submarine sank an Italian ship of the “Ramb” class in the Mediterranean; one of these vessels, small but fast, had been acting as a commerce raider when she was sunk by the New Zealand cruiser “Leander” six months earlier (see Illus., page 1765). On November 22 H.M.S. “Devonshire” sank a German merchant raider in the South Atlantic. A few days earlier, near Australia, H.M.A.S. “Sydney” came upon the heavily armed merchant raider “Kormoran” (ex “Steermark”). The German ship was sunk, but the “Sydney” was also lost—wth all hands. The “Kormoran” had been roaming the Atlantic and Indian Oceans for a year and had sunk nine merchant ships. She was armed with at least six 5·3-in. guns, carried two aircraft, and had torpedo tubes under water and on deck.

By the end of 1941 enemy action had accounted for about 8,500,000 tons gross of British, Allied and neutral shipping since the beginning of the war, while Axis losses were about 5,000,000 tons gross, though the world’s trade routes had been denied the enemy. It was an urgent task to keep shipping losses below the rate of new construction and to build up shipping as the springboard for offensive action. The huge American shipbuilding programme, stepped up to war proportions early in 1941, was beginning to bear fruit, while mon-o-war and merchant ships continued to flow from British yards at an increasing rate.

**WARSHIP LOSSES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warships Lost</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>U.S.A</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British Ships</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WARSHIP LOSSES** (NAMED SHIPS ONLY)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warships Lost</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>U.S.A</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British Ships</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Numerous other vessels have been sunk, particularly German and Italian submarines and German U-boats, whose names have not been announced. The above applies to a lesser degree to Japanese losses for the period December 7-31, 1941.*
BATTLE-SCARRED BUT DAUNTLESS, LONDON CARRIES ON

Photographs of the Metropolis as the second year of war came to a close: (1) Bombed North London church serves as emergency water tank for fire-fighting. (2) Base of Nelson Column in Trafalgar Square (publicity for new national bond). (3) A temporary shortage of sweets and tobacco was later rectified. (4) A.I.R.P. for the Eros statue in Piccadilly Circus (see also Illus. No. 1, p. 831). (b) Tomato queue increased production and better distribution made this accident fruit much more plentiful later. (b) Famous London statues removed to Berkshire, Herts, for their own safety: the Burghers of Calais from Westminster, George III from Cockspur Street, William III and Viscount Wolley.

Photos, Fox, Topical Press, F. R. Winstone, Associated Press
Chapter 191

HOME FRONT, JULY-DECEMBER, 1941: GIGANTIC EFFORT FOR GREATER ARMS PRODUCTION

All Aid for Russia—Churchill-Roosevelt Meeting and the Atlantic Charter—Urge for More Production—Cabinet Changes in July 1941—Auchinleck and Wake Exchange Posts—Three-Power Supply Conference in Moscow—New Fire Prevention Order—Concentration of Industries—Home Guard Reorganization—Japan Enters the War—Mr. Churchill, Again Visits America

H igh summer of 1941 found the British people comrades in war with the Russians who, separated by much more than distance, by past traditions and present ideologies, were now brought very near by Hitler’s invasion. The involvement of the Soviet Union deprived opposition to the war, chiefly coming as it did from the Communist Party of Great Britain, of such point and power as it had ever possessed, and in factories and workshops British workers strove their utmost to give the most tangible expression to their feeling of solidarity with their Russian comrades. It had only to be understood that the output was destined to help in the defence of Leningrad, Kiev, or Odessa, for the production-curve to go rocketing skywards. In September there was a “Tanks for Russia” week which resulted in a 20 per cent increase on the previous “best.”

So far as the British were concerned, those summer months were months of preparation, although already there were some who urged that, if not a second front, at least a series of diversions should be embarked upon so as to relieve the terrific pressure on the Russians. Mr. Churchill had no difficulty in meeting the critics and indeed, following his bold declaration (on June 22) of aid for Russia, the Premier was enjoying a further lease of his always great popularity. That popularity was still further enhanced by his venturesome journeys across the Atlantic.

First news of Mr. Churchill’s meeting with President Roosevelt was given by Mr. Attlee in a special broadcast from Downing Street at 3 p.m. on August 14. “I have come to tell you about an important meeting between the President of the United States and the Prime Minister,” he said, “which has taken place, and of a Declaration of Principles which has been agreed between them.” Then the Deputy Prime Minister proceeded to read the statement which the two statesmen had agreed to issue, in which it was briefly recorded that the President and Prime Minister, accompanied by officials and high-ranking officers, had met at sea and had examined the whole problem of the supply of munitions of war. Lord Beaverbrook, Minister of Supply, had joined in these conferences prior to proceeding to Washington to discuss further details with the officials of the United States Government. Then followed the joint declaration which will live in history as the Atlantic Charter (see Historic Documents, page 1086).

The Prime Minister had made the journey on board the new British battleship “Prince of Wales,” and among those who accompanied him were Admiral Sir Dudley Pound, First Sea Lord and Chief of Naval Staff; General Sir John Dill, Chief of the Imperial General Staff; Air Chief Marshal Sir Wilfrid Freeman, Vice-Chief of the Air Staff; and Sir Alexander Cadogan, Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. The President, who it was given had taken a fishing cruise off the coast of Maine in his yacht, “Potomac,” had embarked on the United States cruiser “Augusta” to meet Mr. Churchill on board the “Prince of Wales”; those accompanying him included Admiral Harold Stark, Chief of Naval Operations; Admiral King, Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Atlantic Fleet; General George Marshall, Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army; Mr. Sumner Welles, Under-Secretary of State; Mr. Harry Hopkins, Mr. Averell Harriman, and the President’s two sons, Ensign Franklin Roosevelt and Captain Elliot Roosevelt.

During the conversations the President and Prime Minister sent a message to M. Stalin stating that they had considered the report of Mr. Harry Hopkins on his return from his recent visit to Moscow, and were consulting together “as to how best our two countries can help your country in the

DURING THE ‘TANKS FOR RUSSIA’ WEEK

The week beginning September 22, 1941 was set aside as one in which Britain’s entire output of tanks should be earmarked for the Red Army, thus striving for life against the mighty Nazi hosts. Here women workers applying finishing touches to Matilda tanks are painting a greeting to our Russian Allies.

Photo, Keystone

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On his return journey, Mr. Churchill, called at Iceland, where he reviewed British and American troops, and arrived back in London on August 18. On the 24th he broadcast an account of his "informal talks with our great friend, the President of the United States." "Exactly where we met is a secret, but I don't think I shall be indiscreet if I say that it was somewhere in the Atlantic." The next three days, went on Mr. Churchill, were spent in company, in council, with Mr. Roosevelt, while the two states were in continuation. The meeting was symbolic of the deep underlying unity which now exists, and of the mature and fruitful relations between the English-speaking peoples throughout the world.

Then Mr. Churchill pointed out the differences shown in the joint declaration from the attitude adopted by the Allies during the latter part of the last war. The United States and Great Britain do not now assume that there will never be any more war, and, instead of trying to run German trade by all kinds of additional trade barriers and limitations, they had definitely adopted the view that "it is not in the interests of the world, and of our two countries to make any war between people or to shut out from the means of living for itself and its people by its industry and enterprise."

Next came a message of hope to the oppressed peoples of Europe: "Help is coming; mighty forces are arising in your behalf. Have faith, have hope; deliverance is sure." Four months later, Mr. Churchill crossed the Atlantic again, this time on board the battleship "Duke of York." His arrival in Washington was officially announced on December 23; accompanying him were stated to be Lord Beaverbrook, Admiral Sir Dudley Pound, Mr. J. G. Winant (U.S. Ambassador in London), Mr. Averell Harriman (Roosevelt's special representative), and a considerable technical staff. As before, Washington was about to engage in consultations with the Prime Minister on all questions relevant to the joint war effort of the two countries. Mr. Churchill's address to the American Congress on December 26 was a milestone in the history of Anglo-American co-operation. (For text see page 1968.) From Washington Mr. Churchill went on to Canada, where, on December 29, he arrived in Ottawa and on December 30 addressed the Canadian Parliament. Again his enthusiasm, his confidence, his hope, were evidenced by him in a great personal triumph. On January 1, 1942, he returned to England and arrived back in London on January 17.

'Popular as was the Prime Minister, he was not immune from criticism in these summer months of 1941; till less so was his Government. He was charged with carrying too much responsibility, and surrounding himself with Ministers and advisers who, with the notable exception of Lord Beaverbrook, were 'yes men.' In particular it was urged that the Prime Minister would do well to relieve himself of the portfolio of the

NEW MINISTERS IN THE JULY CABINET

Among Cabinet changes of July 19, 1942, was the transfer of Mr. H. H. Asquith (right) from his post of Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs to the Presidency of the Board of Education, vacant by Mr. Averell's resignation. Mr. Brendan Bracken (left), appointed Minister of Information, was a practical journalist long associated with leading newspapers.

Photos: Topical Press
Minister of Defence. But Mr. Churchill insisted that it would be quite impossible for him to remain at the head of state with reduced power or decreased responsibilities.

From every quarter came expressions of deep concern for the progress of the nation’s war effort. In the House of Commons M.P.s of all parties were loud in their complaints of Civil Service dilatoriness; of industrial inefficiency; of a growing dissatisfaction, of frustration. Occasionally the criticism welled up into a ding-dong battle. Thus in July there was a long debate on War production, of which was the demand that a “real Ministry of Production” should be set up; and there were allegations of inefficiency and waste. Widespread publicity was given to a despatch by Sir John Wardlaw-Milne that the country was working at only 75 per cent of full efficiency; and Col. Moore-Bružazon, Minister of Aircraft Production, was unable to do much to convince the critics that things were nothing like so bad as they seemed. The Prime Minister on July 14 expressed his concern over some of the statements and allegations. Such statements, he said, were reported widely and gave an impression to the world that we were managing things badly. Still the critics were unrepentant and unsubdued, and on July 25 a motion for the appointment of a Minister of Production to co-ordinate all aspects of production was tabled by a group of M.P.s. Again there was a lengthy debate, and again the Prime Minister was called upon to reply. On the whole his review of the country’s effort was encouraging; production in all its forms had gone steadily and swiftly ahead, he asserted, not only in volume but even in momentum. As for the demand for a Minister of Production he rejected it out of hand.

"Where is the Minister who is going to teach the whole Ministry of Aircraft Production how to make aircraft? How can he be so much better than our own statesmen?" he asked. "Where is the Minister who is going to interfere with Lord Beaverbrook’s control and discharge of the functions of the Ministry of Supply? When you have decided on the man let me know his name."

If members were not satisfied, then he hoped they would not hesitate to go.

INTER-ALLIED CONFERENCE AT ST. JAMES’S PALACE

Representatives of Britain and the Dominions, of Russia, of Czechoslovakia, Poland, Norway, Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, Free France, Greece and Yugoslavia gathered at St. James’s Palace on September 24, 1941 to endorse the Atlantic Charter and formulate plans for re-provisioning Europe after the end of the war. The table plan at left gives the names of the delegates.

Photo. B. R. A.
GIGANTIC SCHEME OF FOOD DISTRIBUTION

In readiness for simultaneous sale throughout the United Kingdom on November 17, 1941, approximately 30,000 tons of canned meats, fish and beans were distributed to shops. Most of these commodities came from the U.S.A. A points system of values for this food was introduced; A and B coupons were worth one point each, while C coupons counted as two each (see below). Above, filling cases with powdered milk made to supplement supplies of liquid milk.

Then a great many of the people in war industry were trainees and newcomers. There had been widespread dislocation as a result of air raids; key war industries had to be dispersed throughout the country.

"In spite of all the troubles," have lamented, the Ministry of Supply output in the last three months has been greater than in the three months of the Dunkirk period. The Ministry has delivered one-third more of the goods it is capable of making. Despite dislocations, increased production has been achieved, and as the Ministry has described, each man is turning out, on the average, daily, as much as he did in the early months of the war.

We are now in the 22nd month of this war. We have lost large stocks of equipment on the beaches of Normandy, our food has been rationed, our coal restricted, and yet, even in this seventh quarter of the war, our total output of warlike stores has been nearly twice as great as in the seventh quarter of the last war, and has equaled our production in the fourth quarter of last year. To reach in two years the level only achieved in the fourth year of the last war is, in itself, an achievement which deserves something better than floods and jams."

Mr. Churchill made a number of changes in the Cabinet. On June 25 it was announced that Lord Beaverbrook (who since May 1, on the retirement of his post as Minister of Aircraft Production, had been Minister of State) had been appointed Minister of Supply in place of Sir Andrew Dunne, who was returning to the Board of Trade in succession to Mr. Oliver Lyttelton. Two days later Mr. Lyttelton was appointed Minister of State in the Middle East; on the same day it was announced that General Sir Archibald Wavell, C-in-C, Middle East, was exchanging posts with General Sir Claude Auchinleck, C-in-C, India. Further Cabinet changes were announced on July 19. Mr. R. A. Butler was appointed President of the Board of Education in place of Mr. H. Ramsbotham, elevated to the peerage, Mr. Brendan Bracken became Minister of Information in place of Mr. Duff Cooper, who was given the appointment of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and (it was stated) was about to proceed to the Far East to examine the arrangements for consultation and coordination between the British military, administrative, and political authorities, with a view to suggesting how these arrangements could be made more effective. At the same time Lord Hankey exchanged the Chancellorship of the Duchy for the post of Paymaster-General—now combined with the chairmanship of a number of War Cabinet committees and other special duties.

Although America was not yet actu-
PREMIER AND PRESIDENT CONFER IN WASHINGTON

On December 23 Mr. Churchill reached Washington with Service chiefs for a conference with President Roosevelt on the vital issues raised by Japan's attack. In (2) the Prime Minister and Mr. Roosevelt are seen at the Council table; in (3) Sir John Dill, Sir Dudley-Pound and Sir Charles Portal study maps at the British Embassy. On December 26 Mr. Churchill addressed Congress; three days later he reached Ottawa, where on the 29th he spoke to the members of the legislature in the House of Commons (1). Later he inspected Naval Cadets (2); Government House in background.

Photo: British Official - Crown Copyright | Associated Press, Keystone
The Allied Conference was addressed by Mr. Churchill.

"This, then, is the message which we sent forth today," he said in his final message, "to all the States and nations bond or free, to all the men in all the lands who dare for freedom's cause, to our allies and well-wishers in Europe, to our American friends and helpers drawing ever closer in their might across the ocean: this, the message—lift up your hearts. All will come right. Out of the depths of sorrow and sorrows will be born again the glory of mankind."

Meanwhile, the face of Britain and the life of the British people were changing fast under the impact of war. Hardly a day went by but citizens, men and women alike, were subjected

to fresh restrictions or enlisted in further efforts. Private motoring was still permitted, although the supply of petrol was restricted. From August 1 motorists were required to keep logs showing the day and distance and purpose of each journey, it being understood that pleasure motoring was no longer to be indulged in. Later in the month Britain was divided by the Minister of Fuel into a hundred areas, each of which was equipped so as to be able to carry on in the event of a breakdown of communications through enemy action. Supplies of coal and coke were limited. The concentration of industrial firms was speeded up. The Essential Work Order was applied to the iron and steel industries and to the docks. On August 23 the Government announced an agreement with the four main-line railway companies and the London Passenger Transport Board providing for the annual payment to them of £43,000,000 per annum, the Government assuming the risk of loss.

Early in September there came into force an order for the compulsory enrolment of men for the Fire Guard
Since the passing of the Fire Services Act in June the country's 1,400 fire brigades had been merged into 32 fire forces as a National Fire Service. Week by week the Ministry of Food reported progress in the business of keeping Britain's millions "fighting fit." On December 1 the distribution of tinned meats, fish and beans was rationalized by a points system.

In the House of Commons on December 2 Mr. Churchill announced that the time had come to extend the obligation for National Service to include the resources of women power and man-power still available. Some of the principal proposals were that men would be liable for compulsory military service up to the age of 51. The block system of reservation was to be changed to one of individual deferment, and the ages of reservation would be raised by one-year steps at monthly intervals beginning on January 1, 1942. The age of entrance to the Army was reduced to 18½ years. Unmarried women between 20 and 50 would be made compulsorily liable to service in the Auxiliary services or Civil Defence. Married women would be invited to join these, and would continue to be directed into industry. Boys and girls between 16 and 18 were to be registered, interviewed and encouraged to join one or other of the organizations in which they could obtain training for national service. The crisis of equipment was largely over, said the Prime Minister, and 1942 would be dominated by the question of man-power—for the factories, the arms at home and overseas, the Navy and the R.A.F. Then we had to keep our engagements to Russia. After considerable debate the new National Service Bill received the Royal Assent on December 18.

On December 15 a White Paper giving details of the Government proposals for the reorganization of the Home Guard was published. These included compulsory enrolment for men between 18 and 50 in areas where an insufficient number of Home Guards was forthcoming under the voluntary system; volunteers to the Home Guards lost their right to resign at 14 days' notice; a Home Guard who, without reasonable excuse, absented himself from parade or duty would be liable to penalties, and the maximum period of training was to be fixed for the time being at 18 hours spread over a four weeks' period.

The last month of 1941 was overshadowed by Japan's attack on British and American outposts in the East. War against Japan was declared on December 8; and on the 8th Britain considered herself at war with Finland, Rumania and Hungary, since those countries had refused to cease hostilities against the U.S.S.R. The L.I.P. members in the House of Commons moved what was in effect a vote of censure on the Government on November 27, but this was defeated by 326 votes to 2.

So the year drawed to its close. On Christmas Day the King came to the microphone. "We are coming to the end of another hard-fought year," he said. "During these months our people have been through many trials, and in that true humility which goes hand in hand with valour have learnt once again to look for strength to God alone. So—I bid you all—be strong and of good courage. Go forward into this coming year with a good heart."
HISTORIC EIGHT-POINT ATLANTIC CHARTER

On August 14, 1941, it was announced that Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt had met at sea and, after conferences lasting three days, had drawn up a declaration of the joint stand of the United Kingdom and the United States. We give below the text of this momentous document, with some later elaborations by Mr. Churchill and the supporting resolution endorsed by the Inter-Allied Council.

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES, KNOWN AS THE ATLANTIC CHARTER, ISSUED BY THE PRIME MINISTER OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, AUGUST 14, 1941:

The President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, representing his Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, being met together, deem it right to make known certain common principles in the national policies of their respective countries on which they base their hope for a better future for the world.

First, their countries seek an end of all war.

Second, they desire to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned.

Third, they respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and they wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them.

Fourth, they will endeavor, with due respect to their existing obligations, future arrangements for disarmament, and other international questions, to be made by all nations, great or small, with the object of achieving and maintaining a world in which all nations live in peace at freedom from fear and want.

Fifth, they desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all the nations of the world in pursuit of peace and the security of their own and other peoples.

Sixth, after the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny, they hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries, and which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want.

Seventh, such a peace should enable all men to traverse the seas and rivers without hindrance.

Eighth, they believe that all of the nations of the world, for their ends as well as spiritual reasons, must ensure to the abandonment of the use of force.

Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea, or air armaments are continued to be prepared, and since armaments which menace, or may menace, aggression outside their frontiers, they believe, pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security, that the disarmament of such nations is essential.

They will likewise aid and encourage all other peace-loving peoples that may be the victims of aggression.

Mr. Churchill, in a Broadcast Speech, August 23, 1941:

We have the idea when we talk to the President and I—that, without attempting to draw final and formal peace in the war, it was necessary to give all peoples, and especially the oppressed and oppressed peoples, and the nations on the road to freedom, and to establish a system of international law which would make such a war impossible, to ensure that there will never be any more war again. On the contrary, we intend to take steps to prevent the recurrence of such a war, by effectively disarming the guilty nations while maintaining suitable protection.

The second difference is this: that instead of trying to ruin German trade by all kinds of additional trade barriers and hindrances as was the case of 1917, we have definitely adopted the view that it is not in the interests of the world and of any two countries that any large nation should be unprepared or shut out from the means of making a decent living for itself and its people by its industry and enterprise, and that these far-reaching changes of principle upon which all countries would have some part.

Mr. Churchill, in a Speech in the House of Commons, September 8, 1941:

I have, as the House knows, bitterly and constantly deplored the formulation of peace arms or war aims, however you put it, by His Majesty's Government at this stage. I deplore it at the time when the end of the war is not in sight, when the conflict against and with the enemies of the world are unceasing, and when we have to consider the conditions and associations at the end of the war and the government of the world. It is a serious issue that the governments of Great Britain and the United States are in a state of mutual confidence, and that two parties have agreed to a statement of one of them shall not thereby without consultation with the other seek to publish special or other statements which shall be died or which shall be published in the British Commonwealth with ourselves, subject to the amendment of the same or which and may be publish in the British Commonwealth with ourselves, subject to the amendment of the same or which and may be publish in the British Commonwealth with ourselves, subject to the amendment of the same or which and may be publish in the British Commonwealth with ourselves.
FOUNDATIONS FOR A BETTER FUTURE FOR THE WORLD

On board our battleship 'Prince of Wales' and the U.S. battleship 'Augusta' were held those historic meetings between Premier and President in which the Atlantic Charter was drawn up (see in p. 1920). Here are photographs taken mostly on the British battleship: (1) Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill (inset) at Piersas Service on August 10, 1941;


(1) Service on the 'Prince of Wales' on August 10; (2) right background is the battleship 'Augusta,' while U.S. seaplanes patrol overhead.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright
A remarkable reversal of bombing attack and defense in the most noteworthy feature of the air war during the second half of 1941. Up to little more than a month before the Germans launched their attack upon Russia in June, the bombers of the Luftwaffe had been repeatedly over England in force. They had been almost continuously on the offensive. Though the bombers of the Royal Air Force had been hunting back to the limit of their powers, these powers were not sufficient to enable anything approaching an equal weight of bombs to be discharged against targets in Germany. But the change came in mid-1941. The actual process was spread over several weeks, but by July it was complete.

On July 2 Bomber Command of the R.A.F., under Air Marshal Sir Richard Peirse as Commander-in-Chief, attacked targets in Bremen, Cologne, and Duisburg and started numerous fires. On the following night Bremen, Bremerhaven, and Essen were attacked for the cost of seven bombers. Thereafter, at frequent intervals, aircraft of Bomber Command struck at Germany in gathering force, while Germany, heavily engaged now in Russia, found herself unable to mount any really large counter-attacks.

At the same time, in daylight, the fighter sweeps which had started in the early part of the year were increased in number and strength. Frequently a small force of medium bombers went over occupied France escorted by large formations of fighters. The object of these attacks was two-fold: to bomb some selected target and, further, to lure enemy fighters into the air so that our fighters might take a toll of them. On the day of the first bomber raid mentioned, there was a daylight operation which included the bombing of Lille railway junction and of the aerodrome at Marville. Such operations characterized the whole of the second half of 1941. They were supplemented by night-fighter operations which grew in scope and intensity. These came to be known as “intruder” operations and were conducted by both twin-engined and single-engined machines, the Hawker Hurricane and the Douglas Havoc being exceptionally employed. The pilots of Fighter Command went over to enemy-occupied territory at night and waited for opportunities to strike at enemy bombers returning from or settling out on raids, or for any other suitable targets.

It was most convenient to deal first with the operations conducted by Bomber Command, because these showed a great number of points of special interest. Afterwards the work of Fighter and Coastal Commands can be examined. It had long been the expressed or implied policy of the British Government to build up a strong bomber force, based on the United Kingdom, and to employ it in striking at targets in Germany itself. The policy had the approval of most people in the country, but there had always been some uncertainty about its effects. And the essence of the uncertainty concerned the air support that would remain available for the land and sea forces. It was thought that if the main industrial effort were to be devoted to building large bombers
LONG-NEEDED WARMTH AND REALISM IN ANGLO-RUSSIAN RELATIONS

Drawn together by a common peril, the Governments and peoples of Britain and the U.S.S.R. rapidly moved towards a better comprehension of each other's problems. M. Maisky, Soviet Ambassador to Britain, was an indefatigable worker in this sense; he is seen here clinking glasses with Mr. Churchill, for whom on August 29, 1941 he gave a luncheon at which representatives of all the Allies were present.
BOMBER COMMAND IN THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC: ATTACKS ON ENEMY SHIPPING AT BREST, CHERBOURG, AND BREST

Between mid-March and 30th July, 1941, Bomber Command made 1,500 sorties in search of enemy shipping. Of about a thousand ships sighted, no fewer than 1,200 were hit and sunk and another 1,500 damaged. These photographs show attacks on shipping in ports. Top left, in a major raid attack on Bordeaux and Nantes, smokes from the wrecked ships and factories in the vicinity. In the distance one of the raiders is making its run over the target before tossing its bombs. Bottom left, a trip from the south to Nantes, the effect on the target is seen at a distance. Top right, photo of a raiders with a target and a ship in the background. In the attacks on Brest of July 24, the German coast was hit with bombs. The black bears looked like a thick flock of black birds.
NERVE CENTRE FOR THE AIR WAR AGAINST GERMANY

Operations Room at Headquarters of Bomber Command, deep underground, protected by massive concrete and a huge earthen mound. (A) The Air Officer Commanding in Chief 1940–41, Air Marshal Sir Richard Peirse, also seen at left in inset. (B) Air Vice Marshal R. H. M. S. Sandby, Senior Air Staff Officer, Bomber Command; also inset, right. Here are worked out and set in motion the day and night operations which incessantly curtail Axis production for war purposes.

Photo: British Official - Crown Copyright - Tropical Press - Planet News
for the strategical bombing of Germany there might be a risk that the Royal Navy and the Army would have to go short of air support in some of the critical campaigns.

Events tended to show that this criticism was well founded. During the second half of 1941 Bomber Command began to enjoy the increased strength conferred upon it by devoting the major part of the British industrial effort to the production of heavy bombers. The big new machines came into operation; the Short Stirling was seen in greater numbers, and the Avro Manchester and the Handley Page Halifax also made their appearance in many big raids. The Stirling and Halifaxes are four-engined aircraft, the Manchester is twin-engined, but all three types are large and heavy, the gross weights being in the region of 90,000 lb., and over. In consequence many man-hours had to be devoted to their manufacture in quantity. They were known to be good machines for low carrying. Their bomb loads exceeded anything previously contemplated in military aviation. Five tons could be taken by some of them on a load of medium length, while on a short haul the bomb load could be even greater.

**DAYLIGHT ATTACK ON KNAPSACK, AUGUST 12, 1941**

Four-tour Blenheims set out to bomb the power stations at Knapsack, near Cologne; they were escorted as far as the Dutch coast by Westland Whirlwind fighters, of the type seen above. The importance of the target is shown by the number of smoking furnaces belonging to the great steel works, dependent for their electricity upon the power stations seen in left foreground.

The only thing that the critics felt anxious about was whether strategical bombing could be sufficiently effective to warrant reducing drastically the direct, close air support that could be given to the Navy and Army. It was obvious that a huge strategical bombing fleet could not be built up at the same time as large close-support forces. It was a choice between the two. Bomber Command, with unexcelled heroism and with the greatest possible skill, mounted attack after attack on targets in Germany, and these attacks increased in strength. Figures were not always given for the raiding force but occasionally some statement was made. On October 12, for example, three hundred bombers went out over Germany.

Reports of the results were universally favourable. Air Ministry news service dispatches spoke repeatedly of immense fires and great destruction. High Air Ministry officials, including the Secretary of State for Air himself, promised the devastation of Germany by strategical bombing at frequent intervals. There could be no doubt that damage was being done to the enemy's war potential, but when this achievement was related to other events in the larger picture of the war the doubts began to return. Berlin was repeatedly attacked during this period: On July 25 four-engined aircraft went there, and again on August 2, when four were reported missing. On September 2 another attack was made, and a further one on September 7.

The attacks went up in strength, but so did the casualties. From the four of August 2 the losses increased to nine on September 2 and 20 on September 7.
SECRETS OF ENEMY AIRCRAFT

Above, the nose of the Me 210, a twin-engined fighter armed with four machine guns (here uncovered) and two 30-mm cannon (mounted in lower half of fuselage). The big opening in nose is for a camera. Below, British experts examine a captured Me 210 with a single-engined fighter. Right, a Heinkel 111, medium bomber, fitted with a cable booster in front.

Meanwhile, the German armies continued to advance in Russia, and when Japan entered the war her aircraft sank the "Prince of Wales" and the "Repulse" within three days (on December 10). A balance appeared to be struck between the bombing effort against Germany—which mounted in volume and effectiveness—and enemy gains elsewhere, which increased in extent. It began to appear that the choice was between the destruction of places in Germany and the capture of places by Germany and her partners. And many people believed that the capture of territory was still of greater permanent value than the destruction of enemy resources up to the full limits of long-range strategic bombing.

Throughout the latter half of 1941 the points came to be discussed with attention. In People in Britain left that the Royal Air Force offensive was still nowhere near the weight of the German offensive against this island in the earlier months. They felt that if they themselves could survive the heavier German attacks and still make ready, with more munitions, for further efforts, the German crews might be able to do the same. In consequence, they argued, the industrial effort was wrongly directed when it was devoted to strategic bombing instead of to close-support aircraft for the Royal Navy and Army.

This point of controversy was not to be resolved in 1941. In that year events, however, favoured the critics rather than those who supported the official policy. The call from the Royal Navy for more air support and from the hard-pressed Army in Malaya was urgent and compelling. The public felt that the successes of Bomber Command against Germany were dust and ashes compared with the real immediate needs of the men who were fighting against such tremendous odds on land and sea.

Nevertheless, the exploits of our bombers called for admiration and there were some brilliantly executed long range attacks. British bombers had to pierce a wide band of powerful defenses in order to reach their targets. They had to fly anything up to six times the distance the German aircraft had to fly when they were attacking Britain. Yet our aircrews achieved their purpose, found their targets, and hit them with ponderous effect. Nor is it to be understood from the foregoing that the whole of the Royal Air Force effort was concentrated on strategic bombing. That was its main purpose; but in addition the fighter sweeps continued all the time, the work of the Coastal Command went on, mines were laid in enemy waters at every opportunity, photographic reconnaissance was maintained, and intruder operations were undertaken at night. In Libya the land forces were given the fullest and most efficient air assistance that the limited forces there could supply; raids were made on Italy; Malta was protected. A Wing of fighter aircraft took the field in Russia alongside the Red Air Force. (Sent in the first place to help in repelling a German drive towards Murmansk, its secondary object was to demonstrate its Hurricanes to Soviet pilots and ground crews who in turn, were to become instructors of other Russian personnel; the latter would take over the Hurricanes which were being sent from Britain. See also p. 581.) Over and above all these, some amazing feats of daring were achieved in the field of specialised kinds of daylight attack.

Something must be said of two of these special operations, in July and in August. Both were supremely courageous and daring raids. In July Brennan...
was attacked from a low level. The formation, led by Wing Commander H. L. Edwards, who was afterwards decorated with the Victoria Cross for the part he played, went through the most vicious air defences in all Germany to place their bombs with precision on the target. Some idea of the hazards of the flight can be had from the fact that Wing Commander Edwards was skinning the ground so low in his machine that at one time he passed under a high-tension cable (see illus., p. 1884). No less daring was the great attack on the German power stations at Quadrath and Knapsack, near Cologne. This was made by six squadrons of Bristol Blenheim light bombers, a type that was extensively used for all daylight-bombing operations during the whole of the period under review, but which was not of particularly advanced design and was at a disadvantage in coping with fighter attack.

The six squadrons of Blenheims set out on August 12 with an escort, partly composed of Westland Whirlwind single-seat twin-engined fighters—this being the first time that the Whirlwind had appeared in the official communiqués as being in action. Owing to range limitations the escort could only cover the Blenheims as far as Antwerp. Here the fighters turned back, to be replaced by further formations of fighters which were to snatch back the Blenheims as they raced for home after completing their mission. It was an amazing attack. Some of the Blenheims carried automatic cameras, and after the raid the public in Britain saw how the pilots and aircrews of the Royal Air Force had made a call right in the centre of a heavily defended region and had, with the utmost exactness, placed their bombs upon it.

The Blenheims were repeatedly attacked by enemy fighters. They bore on, however, skimming the tree tops, fighting both on the way out and on the way back to their fighter cover waiting and watching for them at Antwerp. Twelve Blenheims were lost, but the attack was a success not only for the damage it did to a key point, but also for the way it demonstrated to the world the fighting spirit of the Royal Air Force. For this gallant affair showed that British pilots were just as ready when the call came, to make sacrifices as the much-vaunted pilots of other countries.

It has been said that the raids on Germany (both those on the Ruhr, where German heavy industry is concentrated, and those farther afield, as well as others on the key places of Hamburg, Kiel, Hannover and Frankfurt) were only a part of the total bombing offensive, though they were the chief part. But Italy was not left out of the reckoning this year. Italian forces felt the bombing powers of the Imperial and Allied air forces working in the Middle East at frequent intervals. They felt them not only in their own country, but at points in North Africa. On July 4 Derna, Benghazi and Mekne were bombed, and on July 6 Palermo was heavily raided.

Naples railway station was attacked on July 9. Tripoli on August 21. On September 10 came the heaviest raid on Italy up to that date, when the Royal Arsenal at Turin was attacked by a powerful force of bombers. Four of our aircraft were missing after this raid, in which a good deal of damage was believed to have been done.

On September 28 Genoa, Turin and other places in northern Italy were attacked. It is only possible here to quote a few instances by way of illustration of the form taken by these attacks. Many of the places mentioned...
MALTA, A KEY POINT IN THE MEDITERRANEAN OFFENSIVE

The very possibility of Axis air bases which made Malta vulnerable encouraged the island at the same time with the power to strike often and hard at the enemy. On November 30, 1941 it had its first air-raid alert. Top: Hurricanes lined up ready to take off; in the background is Siemiratta, the ancient capital of the island. Left: A cross worn by operational airman defending Malta.

Photos: British Official; Crown Copyright. "Daily Express"

Air Force in subjecting Germany to air bombing pressure from two sides (east and west) at the same time. These hopes were not realized in the period under review, partly because the Soviet armies were being so hard pressed that the Russians decided—wisely as most people believe—that their air forces must devote all their powers to providing close support for the armies in the field, and that strategic bombing must be left until the land front could be stabilized.

In this respect the Soviet authorities appeared to regard the power of strategic bombers to produce quick results in much the same way as the German high command. For the belief is widespread that the German strategic bombing of Britain in 1940 was undertaken only as an interim process while the German armies were being prepared for their next stroke. Probably that stroke was originally intended to be against Britain, and it had the strategic bombing sufficiently weakened the country that is probably where it would have fallen.

A notable incident in the air war in Russia was the appearance in September of a Wing of Royal Air Force fighters on the northern part of the front. It was led by Wing Commander H. N. G. Ramsbottom-Tollerwood, a New Zealander and a holder of the Air Force Cross. The Wing was equipped with Hawker Hurricane fighters, machines which earned the full approval of the Red Air Force pilots who flew them.

The British pilots in their turn were invited to try some of the Russian aircraft and they reported very favourably on the I-17 single-seat fighters and on the Soviet dive-bombers.

The final bombing activity concerns the German cruisers "Scharnhorst," "Gneisenau" and "Prinz Eugen." Two of the three took refuge at Brest in March and were joined in June by the "Prinz Eugen." While these vessels were sheltering at Brest it fell to Bomber Command to make repeated attacks upon them. On July 23 the "Scharnhorst," left Brest and moved to La Pallice, 340 miles away, and on July 29 a strong force of Armstrong Whitworth Whitley bombers attacked the harbour at La Pallice. In December, with the "Scharnhorst" back at Brest, powerful attacks (nine at night and two by daylight) were made on the naval base and hits were secured on the ships, although—as was later to be proved—quite sufficient damaging ones to immobilize them for long. A heavy daylight raid was carried out on December 18, and on the 23rd a force of Halifax bombers, with Spitfires escorting them, made another attack. (Some six weeks later, after the enemy warships had escaped along the Channel into the North Sea, Mr. Churchill stated that in 10 months 4,000 tons of bombs had been dropped in the course of 3,200 bomber sorties against them.) Our losses in these operations had been 45 aircraft and 247 R.A.F. personnel.
The choice of these objectives was due to the operation of the target selection committee which works within the framework of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Committee. And in all considerations of the bombing activities of the R.A.F. it must be remembered that, although the Commander-in-Chief of Bomber Command can recommend targets, it is not in his power to decide. That comes from higher authority. It follows that the question of whether the policy of strategic bombing is right or wrong has to be settled not by the Royal Air Force but by the War Cabinet itself.

At that level the published statements are sufficiently clear to make it obvious that the War Cabinet believes that the damage done to Germany by strategic bombing will take effect soon enough to counterbalance the losses of territory suffered by the Allies while the necessary forces are being assembled.

Extremely important in weighing the bombing policy was the statement of Mr. Winston Churchill on November 10 at the Mansion House. Our air force, he said, was now at least equal in size and numbers to the German air power, and indicated that Germany would feel the strength of this growing arm ever more severely in the future.

The R.A.F. operations, 1941

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<th>Bomber Command</th>
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Another objective they were intended to keep the German positions under frequent observation, and, further, to provide Fighter Command pilots with continuous experience and help in maintaining them in full fighting readiness.

The German response to these sweeps was typical. German war doctrine is the doctrine of concentration in its severest form, and it was realized at once by the enemy that any attempt to interfere with the British sweeps would entail losses to the German fighter strength, and that these losses would not be likely to bring a commensurate return. In consequence, the German air force adopted the ignominious but

Battering of German Warships at Brest

The battle-cruisers "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" were joined in June 1941 by the cruiser "Prinz Eugen." One at Bomber Command, many attacks were made on April 6 by Flying Officer Kenneth Campbell (right) in a Beaufort torpedo-aircraft. His torpedo, at point-blank range, caused serious underwater damage to one of the battle-cruisers. He did not return, and about a year later was awarded the V.C. A later attack, on December 18, is shown in large photograph.
militarily expedient plan of staying on the ground during a great many of the R.A.F. sweeps. The British fighters were permitted to tour occupied France with no other opposition than that provided by anti-aircraft artillery.

This plan, however, could not always be followed. One way of preventing the Germans from following it was to constitute the fighter forces as a specialized “escort.” A normal escort is there to protect the bombers and to ensure, whatever the cost to itself, that the bombers are able to fulfill their mission. The escorting fighters are, in fact, the servants of the bombers. But in the means adopted by the Royal Air Force for building up the usefulness of the fighter sweeps the roles were reversed: the bombers were now the servants of the fighters. They were there, usually in very small numbers, merely to attract the German fighters into the air. Although the German fighters might stay on the ground while strong British fighter formations patrolled the area, they could not well do so while our light bombers toured overhead, selected targets at leisure, and bombed them.

In consequence these R.A.F. operations did much to foil the German tactics and to force German fighters to take the air. When they went up the British aircraft, though working under the disadvantages which must always attach to interceptor fighters on the offensive, were able to shoot down many enemy machines and thus to justify the sweeps. Great feats were carried out on these sweeps, but it was also inevitable that good men should be lost. Wing Commander D. R. Bader, the great fighting pilot who has artificial legs, and Flight Lieutenant E. S. Lock, a man of high courage and supreme airmanship, were both reported missing in the month of August, and there was all the time a steady drain on the personnel of Fighter Command. There was little doubt, however, that the fighter sweeps produced a sound return for the effort expended and for the losses of men and machines incurred.

The German aircraft which our pilots had to deal with during this work were mainly Messerschmitt 109 and H0 fighters, the first being the well-known single-engined type and the second the twin-engined. Both had been used in numbers during the Battle of Britain. The Messerschmitt 109E was being supplemented in increasing numbers by the 109F. Changes had been made to improve the aircraft’s performance at height. The square wing tips of the 109E had given way to rounded and rather pointed tips; the shape of the nose had been modified, and the armament had been changed. Though lighter, it included the extremely efficient Mauser 10-mm cannon in one arrangement. Interpretation of the German intention in developing this 109F version was that German pilots had found the high-cover Spitfire too much for them in the past, and that it had been decided that a German machine with better high-flying qualities was needed to counter it.

After the operations of the Bomer and the Fighter Command came those of Coastal and Army Cooperation Commands; but Army Cooperation Command, during this time, was undergoing a period of intensive development and its part in the air war was not to become prominent until later. Coastal Command, under the operational direction of the Admiralty, continued to work against enemy submarines in the Battle of the Atlantic. It also supported Bomber and Fighter Commands in attacks on enemy shipping, and undertook large numbers of special missions on its own. Perhaps its most remarkable feat, though not necessarily its most valuable, was when a Lockheed Hudson of Coastal Command captured a U-boat in the Atlantic. This achievement was reported by the Admiralty on September 8. The captain and crew of the Hudson told their story afterwards, and it appeared that they had forced U-570 to surface in a damaged condition, and that its crew
then displayed the white flag in token of surrender. No hen has ever shepherded her chicks with greater solicitude than the captain and crew of that Hudson than shepherded their U-boat. They circled round and round it, after reporting what had happened, and still being relieved by another aircraft of Coastal Command, which took up the watch when the Hudson's patrol was running low, they signalled to the new

Principal Events in the Air War

July-Dec 1941

July 1. B.A.F. bombed enemy works at Rome, part of the Bremen, and industrial parts of Hamburgerhaven, 7 aircraft lost.


12. Sea target of Hafen aircraft raided Malta. Also flown by Malta fighter, relief dropped.

19. Hardly successful daylight raid on docks at Rotterdam. 17 ships, estimated 50,000 tons, 4 aircraft lost. 17 enemy aircraft took considerable damage and heavy casualties.


21. Enemy battleship Schlesien attacked before night at La Pallice and hit by boat of 6-2000-ton boats. One British bomber destroyed. 2 enemy立体 FIG.

23. Large formation of bombers attacked Schlesien and Cunarder at Brest and La Pallice in heavy daylight operation. Direct hits 8 aircraft. 15 enemy and 7 fighters hit. 21 enemy fighters shot down.

Aug. 1. B.A.F. local air attacked night at Lagoona, Pisa, La Spezia, and Verona, and other Mediterranean and German aircraft. Sicily, Catania, and Catania airmen were also attacked.


9. Baked bombs hit Berlin and German airmen by night.

17. Great daylight raid on power stations at Hamburg, Dusseldorf, and Recklinghausen. Enemy power station at Dusseldorf also hit. 3 aircraft destroyed, 5 damaged, and 12 aircraft attacked.

21. Night attack on Hanover, Brunswick, and Hannover to raid 100 aircraft. Shots of 12.

26. Swordfish from Ark Royal took 200 aircraft from Scapa.


3. (Night). Also Malmesbury and Coburg, 2 aircraft lost but saved by enemy aircraft.

7. Heavy night attack on Berlin. Kill and other objectives in Germany also raided. Four hundred strong employed. 29 aircraft lost.

10. Italy raid Bari, successful target, Thun.

11. Heavy night attack on Bari on Schlesien, 21 aircraft lost.


13. 20th B.A.F. bombers attacked shipyards, batteries, and railway station at Hamburg, Dusseldorf, and Munchen. Also attacked searchers at Le Havre, 600 tons.


Oct. 8. Heavily bombed: also Brest, Dunkirk, Ostend, Helgoland, and Brodic. 3 aircraft lost. 25 aircraft lost.

Nov. 12. B.A.F. force met on Brest-but attacked by enemy, 7 B.A.F. aircraft lost. Also Brest, Colonge, Mainz, and other targets. Missed, 2000 tons, weather conditions.

14. H.M. Aircraft Carrier Ark Royal took 25 aircraft. 17 aircraft took 500 tons on Habour, sunk 2500 tons in one day. 2500 tons in one day. 2500 tons in one day. 2500 tons in one day. 2500 tons in one day. 2500 tons in one day.

18. Additional aircraft with tanks on board. Libros. Advance and Brest occupied.

Dec. 22. B.A.F. raided Naples at night.

27. Three raiders and heavy fighter-bombers in W Germany hit during night. Also heavy fighter-bombers in Belgium, bombs at Brussels, bomb, and seaplane in Norway. Nine bombed by 2 aircraft lost.

BRITAIN'S NEW TWIN-ENGINE HEAVY BOMBER

The Avro Manchester (top), of which particulars were revealed in November 1941, had two engines (Rolls-Royce Vulture). There are gun turrets in nose, fuselage, and tail; the wing span is just over 90 feet. The British Beaufighter (below) is used for both day and night operations; armament is four cannon and six machine-guns.

Photo: British Official. Venaja Copyright. © British Press

arrival the importance of not losing their prize. (See illus. p. 195.)

Enemy supply ships were attacked on many occasions by Coastal Command aircraft, Bristol Beauforts often being used, and the pilots, in addition, were ever trying to spread their protective covering farther out over the ocean for the British convoys. But the main duty of Coastal Command, as ever, was to help in the defeat of the U-boats. Aircraft were constantly out on patrol and many attacks were made.

During the latter part of 1941 the Atlantic ferry service was being built up at a fast pace. This service was to become one of the main bomber supply lines, and the work done in preparation was to be repaired many times over in the future. In December Captain O. F. Jones, the well-known commercial pilot, set up a record for a crossing made under wartime conditions: he flew a Liberatortfour-engined bomber from America to England in less than nine hours.

In the space here available it is possible to mention only a few operations of the Royal Air Force, the Imperial and Allied air forces during the six months under review. Nor can a detailed account be given of enemy air operations over Britain. The accompanying table gives a selection of some of the more remarkable events.
November 1, 1941. Air raids on molded and S. coast (84,000 actions destroyed). Germans capture Sinopes. General.


November 4. R.A.F. raids on Dunkirk, Ostend, the Ruhr and Breslau. Germans reach Black Sea coast.

November 5. Mr. Salitino Rusev appointed additional Japanese envoy to Washington.

November 6. H.M. Force "Guilf

November 7. bomber forces attacks Berlin, Cologne and Manchester. 37 of our bombers lost.

November 9. Royal Navy destroys two German destroyers off Taranto, and sinks three Italian destroyers. German claim capture of Yaha.

November 10. Loss of H.M.S. "Cossack" announced. Mr. Churchill states that German in the air has been achieved. German claim capture of Yaha.

November 12. Gondar, with a garrison of 10,000, on inland.

November 13. United States neutrality Act revised. H.M.S. "Ark Royal" torpedoed off Gibraltar; sinks next day while under tow.


November 15. Canadian reinforcements reach Hongkong.

November 16. Germans claim capture of Kadhia.

November 17. British Commandos raid on German H.Q. in Oporto.

November 18. General Sir Alan Brooke appointed C.I.G.S. Lieutenant-General E. T. W. St. V. P. becomes C-in-C. Home Forces. Imperial forces in Libya open an offensive on line Salloum-Taraabul.


November 20. Great tank battle with Rommel's forces around Sidi Rezegh.

November 21. Tobruk garrison makes a sortie to join Imperial troops near Sidi Rezegh.

November 22. H.M.S. "Devonshire" sinks German raiders in South Atlantic. Germans claim capture of Yaha.


November 25. Rommel sends tanks against Egyptian frontiers from the West, to attack our forces in rear. German launch new attack on Tobruk.

November 26. Major-General Ritchie takes over command of 3rd Army from General Wavell. Tobruk garrison advices to El Duda and other advanced units of 8th Army near Sidi Rezegh early on 27th. Marshal Tukhmanans advance 36 miles in 48 hours.

November 27. Gondar surrenders.


November 29. In Libya, British succeed in securing forces advance to the coast, south of Benghazi. H.M. submarines "Tigris" and "Triton" sink eight enemy supply ships in Arctic waters.

November 30. German pressure corridor between Tobruk and Sidi Rezegh. Malta has its 13th air raid alert.


December 2. H.M.S. "Prince of Wales" arrives at Salerno to join Admiral Sir Tom Phillips' flagship. H.M.S. "Parnassus" announced lost off Australian coast. Russian prime Mr. Kedroff of Smederevo for peace.

December 4. General Sir Henry Maitland-Wilson appointed to command new 9th Army, Middle East.

December 5. Australia takes emergency war in Pacific.

December 6. Britain at war with Finland, Hungary and Rumania. President Roosevelt sends personal appeal to Emperor of Japan for peace.


December 9. Australia, New Zealand and South Africa declare war upon Japan; China declares war upon Germany and Italy; Japanese land on the Philippine island of Luzon. Russians retake Bataan.

December 10. H.M.S. "Prince of Wales" and "Repulse" sunk by Japanese. Admiral Sir Tom Phillips and Captain Leach (of flag) missing. 2,000 saved. Russia begin counter-offensive along whole front.

December 12. British destroyers sink two Italian cruisers in Mediterranean; Dutch submarines sink four transports off Thesaloniki.

December 15. Hongkong requests surrender; Chinese forces in Canton region attack Japanese in rear. Beginning of five-day battle in Libya. British demands war upon Bulgaria.


December 18. General Sir W. Eden, British ambassador in Moscow, and Imperial forces occupy Portuguese Timor. At night enemy lands on Hongkong from mainland.


December 20. Russian retake Yolobolanik.


December 27. British raid on islands of Tonga and Malaya, off Norway.


December 30. Mr. Churchill addresses Communist. Parliamentarian. Italian All-Party Congress decides in favour of participation in war effort; Mr. Gandhi resigns. Russians retake Kalma.

December 31. Iraqi attack Basra.
WAR IN RUSSIA: SOVIET COUNTER-OFFENSIVE OF DECEMBER 1941


Until German generals write their reminiscences much that occurred and much that affected the course of events in Russia during the winter of 1941-42 must remain a matter of speculation. Did the German General Staff concur in Hitler's plans or was its advice rejected? It has been suggested that some of the army commanders, even while preparations for the great offensive towards Moscow were being made in September, considered that the season was too far advanced for it to be safely undertaken. If there were misgivings then they were probably allayed by the scale of the offensive and its blitzkrieg character, which held out hopes of rapid and decisive success. But when the offensive was brought to a standstill towards the end of October by the tenacity of Russia and by autumn mud, plans must certainly have been made for winter dispositions irrespective of preparations for renewal of the offensive when frost should have hardened the ground. Thus, when the final attempt to capture Moscow failed the Germans must have had an organized front to fall back on; and their main immediate problems were the withdrawal from exposed positions difficult to supply, and the retention of ground which, recently captured, there had been no opportunity to organize for defence or occupation, but which they were unwilling to abandon.

In order to appreciate the achievements and difficulties encountered by the Russian counter-offensive it is necessary to review the situation when the Germans, owing to the suffering of their troops from cold, were threatened with collapse. The original scope of their offensive had been modified during the pause in November between its first and second phases. The wide movements towards Kalinin in the north and Tula in the south, at first evidently intended to encircle Moscow and its defending armies, had been directed inwards to cooperate with the direct attack from the west on the city, the capture of which had become the sole object. When the offensive was abandoned, these offensives movements were nevertheless very much in the air, with difficult communications and exposed to counter-attack. Withdrawal of the outflanking forces was inevitable, and the German announcement of withdrawals to straighten the line probably referred specially to them. Particularly in the south the position was dangerous, for the gallant resistance of Tula had compelled the Germans to by-pass it to the south-east instead of closing in on Moscow. It is not likely that the west of Moscow the Germans contemplated withdrawal, but intended to hold on to Volokolamsk, Mozhaisk, Malo Yaroslavets and Kaluga as springboards for an offensive in the following year. They probably intended at these points merely to disengage their troops, withdraw them to shelter, and in general to organize this part of the front for winter occupation.

In the absence of records the system on which the Germans intended to organize this and other parts of their

STORMOVIKS DESTROY NAZI TANK COLUMN

Transmitted by radio, this photograph shows Russian "tank-busters" attacking a German column; hits are visible, and tanks are turning over. The Stormovik is an armoured fighter plane fitted with a powerful cannon of 37 mm. (nearly 1 1/2 in.) calibre, and firing armour-piercing shells. A remarkable photograph of a low-level attack.

Photo, Polish Official - Press Corporation
front, and its special problems can only be deduced from the course of subsequent events. The chief immediate problems must have been the provision of shelter for their ill-clothed troops, and the maintenance of communications when winter restricted the use that could be made of motorised transport. It is probable that the Germans, believing the Russians to be so exhausted as themselves, did not expect heavy fighting in the winter, and that their defensive preparations were in the first instance designed mainly to check guerrilla activities. These considerations obviously entailed the consignment of the bulk of their troops in the neighbourhood of large towns served by good railway communications, for there shelter could best be obtained and distribution of supplies would be easiest. Considerable numbers of troops must, however, have been distributed along railway lines for their protection, and the railways afforded an easy means of supplying such detachments and of reinforcing them as required.

A more difficult question must have been how to deal with the areas, often very large, not served by railways. In

Next

Supply

Problems

occupied and placed in a state of defence by small units, in order to prevent them becoming centres for guerrilla bands. In many areas the movement of guerrilla bands and the operating of guerrilla activities by mobile action. The supplying of these detachments most obviously have been difficult in the winter, and it is very improbable that any large body of guerrillas could have been maintained in the field by mobile action. The supplying of these detachments must have been difficult in the winter, and it is very improbable that any large body of guerrillas could have been maintained in the field by mobile action. The supplying of these detachments must have been difficult in the winter, and it is very improbable that any large body of guerrillas could have been maintained in the field by mobile action.

Rostov by counter-attacks launched before the German attack, the offensive was abandoned indicated that the Russian, in spite of their losses during the year, were still full of fight. Yet few people realised, probably least of all the Germans, that their losses were capable of a sustained offensive during the winter, especially after the exhausting struggle in defence of Moscow. It speaks volumes for the strategic and administrative genius of M. Stalin and his advisers that in spite of the desperate situation in the basin never seem to have been stabilised, and that he sustained the fortresses by the extreme right.

To turn now to the Russian counter-offensive, the recapture of Tiflis and

THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW, DECEMBER 1941

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the tankers, were always in danger of complete envelopment.

A great source of strength to the German front was the lateral running railways running behind it from LENINGRAD to VITEBSK and thence through Smolensk and Bryansk to Kharkov. It facilitated movements of reserve formations and linked up the lines which ran forward to the key towns at the front. Furthermore, the towns along it provided well- spaced centres for occupation.

After the failure to take Moscow the front for the winter was probably intended to run from Schlusselburg in the north through Novgorod and Stretaya Rossa to Riev. The gap of 100 miles between the last-named towns could only be lightly occupied, since, owing to the Volya Hills and Khidr marshes, road and railway communications were insufficient. From Riev, evidently a particularly important centre, it was probably intended that the front should run through Volokolamsk, Mozhaisk, Malo Usolye, and Kaluga to Orel, but, with the exception of Orel, these places were recaptured by the Russians before they could be consolidated, and in their stead the Germans added new fortified centres. South of Orel, the fortresses were key points, and the railway connecting them provided intermediate defence. From Kharkov to the Sea of Azov the German lines were strongly held, and it is clear that the Russians were not interested in capturing the area, which was of great strategic importance.
forms on various parts of the front, but nowhere does a major attack seem to have been deliberately staged.

In general there probably was an intensification of the fighting in numbers of local attacks. But north and south of Moscow the counter-movements certainly started as a Russian vigorous pursuit of an enemy who was carrying out a deliberate withdrawal. It was here, therefore, that progress first was most marked. The Germans, except for the condition of their troops, should have had no difficulty in withdrawing without heavy loss, for they would in the first instance have got away all transport and stores that could be spared and have organized rearguards through which troops engaged in fighting could retire. Disengagement of troops in contact with the enemy, owing to the exhausted condition of the men and to the state of the ground, may have been difficult, especially as the well-clad Russians must have been much more active. Under winter conditions, however, pursuit could not have been vigorously maintained until Russian reserves had been available to form well-organised pursuing forces, for the German rearguards would soon have checked any ill-organized advance.

As it was, the rate of pursuit which, for some time appears to have averaged six miles a day, was highly creditable considering the state of the ground and the resistance of rearguards. It is absurd to compare it, as some have done in depreciating the Russian effort, with the rate of advance of the Germans under summer conditions after a long-prepared offensive. The rate of pursuit was in any case sufficient to compel the Germans to abandon much material and many wounded or exhausted men.

As early as December 8 reports came of many successful Russian attacks on the Moscow front, but the first notable success was the recapture on the 9th of Elsta, an important railway centre 100 miles east of Orel, where two German divisions were heavily defeated. This place probably marked the right flank of the main October offensive, and it is likely that the Germans intended to hold on to it, at least for a time, to cover the withdrawal of the troops that had thrust south-east of Tula. By the 11th, the Russian advance was well under way on the whole front from Elsta to Tula. In Eastern Ukraine and east of Leningrad successes were also reported, following the defeat of the Germans at Rostov and Tikhvin. West of Moscow there was less movement, but the
Germans were under heavy pressure and were suffering desperately from the cold. Then, on the 15th, it was evident that the German thrust north of Moscow was being withdrawn, and was hard pressed. Klin was recaptured on that day, and Kulinty, a division, it was claimed, being routed.

The German force attacking Moscow from the north had been composed mainly of panzer and motorized divisions, possibly because there were no railways running in a direction to facilitate the maintenance of large numbers of infantry. But the extreme cold affected motor fuel, and the lack of railways must have led to the abandonment of much material. Wholesome M.T. vehicles under the prevailing conditions could not have carried heavy loads.

The situation of the Germans, with their troops suffering desperate hardships and their supply organization breaking down, was becoming serious. Soviet cavalry and ski troops, now appearing in numbers, gave the Russians for the first time superiority in tactical mobility over their opponents. But the Russians, too, had their difficulties. It was hard to maintain supplies, for even where railways existed they had been damaged by demolitions. The Soviet troops were handicapped also by inability to make full use of wheeled vehicles, which not only affected supply problems but made it impossible to bring forward an adequate number of guns to support attacks on the German rearguards, who could in consequence use every building as a stronghold.

Possibly it was this that saved the Germans from complete disaster. Yet the pursuit was pressed vigorously and the capture of villages and towns was daily recorded. By December 20 it was evident that the Germans had lost their grip on Moscow, though with Mozhaisk in their hands they were still dangerously close to the city. At Leningrad the Russians had also gained an important success, for the advance from Tikhvin had secured the railway as far as the southern shores of Lake Ladoga. From there, when the ice thickened, the railway was extended across the lake, which during the winter enabled supplies to reach the city.

How across the Germans considered their situation was shown when on December 21 Hitler announced that he had relieved Von Bock from command and had personally assumed responsibility for operations. About this time a number of other generals also paid the penalty for failure. Everywhere, except in the Crimea, the Nazis had now lost the initiative and were retaken.

Map: How the danger to Moscow was averted.

In the first week of December 1941 the Germans were only 25 miles from Moscow at some points, but by the end of the month they were back all along the southern sector and freed the antropols from the threat of capture. The broken line shows the Russian front when the repulse began; the black line to the west indicates the position about a month later.
either in retreat or standing desperately on the defensive. But in the Crimea Sevastopol was being heavily attacked and the Russians, though fighting hard, were with difficulty holding the outer defence of the fortress.

As December drew to a close the pursuit continued, but supply difficulties were beginning to slow the rate of advance, although the Germans had been given no opportunity to establish an organized defensive system in the areas they had so recently captured. On the 30th they were driven out of Kaluuga, a railway centre they certainly did not intend to abandon, for a strong force was defeated in the attempt to hold the town. On the previous day the Russians achieved an even more notable success. The Black Sea Fleet on a stormy night put ashore strong forces on the Kerch peninsula and at Feodosia, in the Crimea. The Germans, who had probably reduced their garrison to take part in the attack on Sevastopol, were surprised, and at the end of the year the Kerch peninsula was again firmly in Russian hands. Feodosia, the Germans soon recovered, but presumably had to withdraw troops from the Sevastopol front to effect its recapture and to prevent the Russians at Kerch becoming a menace to German communications at Perekop. The Kerch victory, which reflected immense credit on the Black Sea Fleet as well as on the troops who landed, undoubtedly prolonged the resistance of Sevastopol, which was subsequently to involve the Germans in costly operations.

On the Moscow front Soviet troops were now entering the area reached by the Germans in the first phase of the autumn offensive, and the recapture on January 2 of Malo Yaroslavets, and of Volokolamsk about the same time, mark the end of the pursuit phase of the Russian counter-offensive. The story of its later phases, in which organized German defences were encountered, is told in a later Chapter.

During the final phase of the German offensive and during the withdrawal the Luftwaffe evidently lost whatever measure of air superiority it had held in the earlier stages of the campaign: bombers, transport planes and defensive fighters; but short-range planes (needed for intervention in ground fighting) required airfields near the combat zone, and these airfields must have been in bad condition and inadequately equipped. The Germans were also faced with the always difficult task of changing bases during retreat. Transport difficulties may in many cases have made the supply of petrol to aeroengines a serious problem.

The year 1941 had not been a good one for the Luftwaffe, and before closing this Chapter it is worth considering why in Russia it had failed to play the predominant part it had played in other German campaigns. Primarily it was because in the air Germany was engaged in a war of many fronts. She had been compelled to come to the assistance of Italy in the Mediterranean, and Malta, Libya and Crete took their toll and entailed making strong detachments. The Battle of the Atlantic made demands on her aircraft industries, and R.A.F. bombing raids compelled her to retain a high percentage of her fighter aircraft in the west. Furthermore, on the Russian front itself the fact that practically three campaigns were being conducted simultaneously split dispersion. Yet the main credit for the inefficacy of the Luftwaffe must be given to the Russian Air Force. In numerical strength and efficiency of its personnel and equipment it could stand comparison with its opponent, and it received valuable assistance from the formidable and highly trained anti-aircraft defences of the great cities and centres of industry. Not till it suffered from the loss of aircraft manufacturing establishments did it stand in danger of having to admit inferiority.

So many mistaken views were held before the war about the Russian Air Force that a technical description of its aircraft and tactics is given here.

Soviet doctrine of the employment of air forces resembles the German more closely than the British. It insists that the first duty of all aircraft available is cooperation with the land forces. Acting in accordance with this theory, the Soviet has made a notable contribution to air tactics by its development of methods of low-flying attack on ground troops and armoured vehicles and tanks. It was primarily for these attacks that the H-3 monoplane, better known as the Stormovik, was introduced. It is a single-engined machine of classic design, and it has a 12-cylinder, liquid-cooled engine. The Russians have been extremely reticent about this as about other of their aircraft, and we have only the
SOVIET AIRCRAFT TYPES

Little has been divulged about the Russian fighters and bombers, but there are some remarkable aircraft. (1) M.I.G.3 single-seat fighters, which carry light bombs and have a speed of 370 m.p.h. (2) Y.A.K.-1 fighter aircraft on the assembly line; both this type and the M.I.G. have a general similarity to our Spitfire. (3) D.B.-2-F. medium heavy bombers crossing the front line to attack the enemy. (4) P.E.-2 twin-engined medium bomber being made ready for a raid. This type has a high speed.
German reports of the Stormovik's armament to go upon. These credit the machine with two cannon and two machine-guns, but more important than this gun armament is the self-propelled bomb.

This latter is one of the few new air weapons, and it has been used with great success by the Russians against enemy tanks. In essentials it consists of a bomb with a rocket attachment, the object being to give the bomb a greater initial speed so that it would otherwise have and thereby to gain accuracy and penetrative power. Against tanks the self-propelled bomb is believed to have had much success.

The Russian fighter aircraft follow a formula not much different from that of the Spitfire. The MIG-3 and the YAK-1 both have a certain general similarity to the British machine, although it is believed that their dimensions are smaller.

Russian bombers in the medium twin-engined class have been rapidly developed, and the PE-2 conforms to the most advanced ideas of streamlining and general structure. There can be little doubt that the Germans found the Soviet air force more powerful than they expected, and that the enemy was disconcerted in particular by the methods of low-flying attack and by the violent fighting aggressiveness of the Russian fighter pilots.

A feature of Russian fighter tactics which illustrates this aggressiveness is the employment of ramming as a normal tactic in certain conditions of combat. At first fighter pilots were disinclined to believe the reports of Russian ramming tactics; but confirmation came from high Soviet officers, and it appears that a technique has been developed which enables an enemy aircraft to be destroyed by partial ramming while allowing the Russian pilot a good chance of escaping alive by parachute, and even sometimes of getting his damaged aircraft home.

Soviet heavy bombers were in evidence for a time shortly after the German attack, but from then on the great winter campaign was fought without their appearing in large numbers. It was only much later that it became known that the Russians were working on some extremely promising designs of large, weight-carrying, four-engined machines.

Over all the air campaigning in Russia there was the dominant fact that it was devoted by both sides to providing cooperation and close support for the enormous land forces there engaged.
BRITAIN TRAINS PARACHUTE TROOPS ON A BIG SCALE

The first official news of British parachutists was given in a communiqué of February 15, 1941, referring briefly to the dropping of units in Southern Italy for certain demolition work in connection with enemy ports. Here are parachute soldiers at manoeuvres in Britain. Insert, a sergeant wearing his special helmet and carrying a Thompson sub-machine gun.

Photo: Central Press; G.P.U.
ARMoured TRAINS PLAYED A GREAT PART IN RUSSIAN DEFENCE

A glance at the map in page 1539 will make it clear how much the Soviet cities depended on the railway for supplies, but in winter these lines provided a means also of vigorous offensive-defence. The photograph shows a Soviet armoured train on its way to the front in the Leningrad sector. Such trains dealt smashing blows in the Moscow zone also, notably near Tula.

Photo, British Official. © Crown Copyright
GERMAN CAVALRY IN THE GREAT RETREAT

After an abortive offensive against Moscow late in November the Germans announced on December 8, 1941, that main operations had stopped for the winter. In fact the Russian counter-offensive, which carried our Altai, 250 miles in four months, was in full progress and all the roads in the central sector were witnessed scenes like that above, with weary German troops retreating westward.

1943
Chapter 194

HOW THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE MET THE GERMAN INVASION

In Chapter 180 the current of affairs during the years preceding the outbreak of the Second Great War is traced, and Anglo-Soviet relations are examined. In the present pages is told the story of the Home Front in Soviet Russia during the first six months of the Russo-German conflict.

From a perusal of Chapter 180 the reader will realize that the overnight transformation of the Soviet from an ally into a victim of Hitlerite Germany had presented certain political problems to the Allies. In the first place there was concern about the failure of the British approach in 1939 and about the pact made with Hitler. There was also the deep dislike of Russian political systems as British people conceived them. There was, of course, the unexplainable contradiction between the declared "world revolution" policy of the Comintern and the much milder and practical conduct of foreign relations by the Soviet Foreign Office. There were large numbers in Britain and—almost as important—in America to whom at first glance cooperation with Russia seemed impossible.

The memory of the invasion and partition of Poland ranked and had been exacerbated by that of the invasion of Finland—both, as Mr. Churchill's statement in Chapter 180, were dictated by Soviet fears for security, but this was hardly appreciated in Britain and the U.S.A. The uncertainty that prevailed in Britain on Sunday, June 22, 1941, was swept away in a few words by Mr. Churchill's unequivocal statement over the radio that evening that Britain would at once go to the aid of Russia. The Russian danger, he said, was our danger, and the danger of the United States.

On July 8 a Soviet military mission arrived in London by air to discuss military ways and means of cooperation between the two countries. Four days later an agreement was signed in Moscow pledging both countries to mutual assistance in resistance to a common enemy, and to abstinence from either separate peace or armistice. A few days earlier, on July 5, Mr. Litvinov, the Soviet Ambassador to the Court of St. James's, and General Sikorski, Prime Minister of Poland, had met at the Foreign Office. At that date Poland still considered herself in a state of war with the U.S.S.R., but after talks which continued for two weeks the former antagonists became reconciled, and the Russo-Polish Treaty, July 30, was signed in London. The Hitlerite partition of Poland was declared void, diplomatic relations between the U.S.S.R. and Poland were resumed, and collaboration in fighting Germany was agreed upon. A Polish army was to be formed in the U.S.S.R.

On the same day (July 30) Mr. Harry Hopkins, personal representative of President Roosevelt, conferred with M. Stalin's in the Kremlin. Three days later an agreement was signed which pledged the United States to assist the U.S.S.R. in her struggle against Hitler.

On August 15, by which date the German army of invasion had swept eastwards to a line threatening Leningrad, Moscow, Kiev and Odessa, Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt sent a joint offer of "all aid" to M. Stalin. They proposed a Moscow meeting. On that day the British Mission to Moscow was announced. Headed by Lord Beaverbrook, it included Messrs. Balfour, Lassey and Macnaghten. Mr. Harriman was appointed President Roosevelt's representative. The Moscow conference ended in definite plans for joint action, and in a spirit of goodwill and friendship. The British delegations returned to London on October 10. In November the United States made a loan of $1,000,000,000 to the U.S.S.R. and supplies began to flow to Russia from both America and Great Britain.

The subsequent appointment on Nov. 6 of M. Litvinov as Ambassador to Washington was significant. He had suffered in the past for his advocacy of warmer relations between the U.S.S.R. and the democracies, and had lost his post of Foreign Commissar in March 1939, when the Soviet appeared to be moving closer to Germany.

In short, difficulties which a few months previously had seemed deep-rooted and irremovable vanished quickly in an atmosphere of goodwill and community of purpose. On December 1 a Soviet-Polish Declaration was signed at Moscow, and on the 29th of the same month further talks took place in that city between M. Molotov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Eden, and Liint—General Nye, C.I.G.S.

It is now necessary to estimate the extent of the material and economic damage suffered by the U.S.S.R. through the loss of territory to the enemy. The main German advance in 1941 took place during the 10 weeks up to the end of August 1941, after which the pace was very much slower. By the end of August the line, from north to south, ran from Kingissepp, about 30 miles west of Leningrad, through Novgorod and Smolensk, to Kiev and Dnepropetrovsk, with Odessa invested. Excluding the Finnish front, the German advance had covered an area roughly 1,000 miles from north to south, and varying in depth from east to west from three to five hundred miles. The central part of this front was represented by the Pripyat Marshes, the north by the Balkan States, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, and the south by the Ukraine.

In normal times the Ukraine provides 20 per cent of Soviet Russia's wheat and many other cereals. Here, also, is the Donetz Basin, a very rich area with
RUSSO-POLISH DECLARATION OF FRIENDSHIP

The good effect of the Russo-Polish Treaty of July 30, 1941 was reinforced by the joint declaration of friendship between the two governments signed at Moscow on December 4. Here is the same three days earlier when M. Kaimin (Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet) received General Sikorski (second from left) and General Anders (right), Commander of the Polish Army in the U.S.S.R. On extreme left, M. Kof, Polish Ambassador; third from left, M. Vychinski, Deputy People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

60 per cent of the Soviet Union's coal, 80 per cent of her iron ore, 50 per cent of her steel, and 70 per cent of her aluminium. The great industrial plants which had been erected in the chief cities of the Ukraine under Stalin's Five-Year Plans—Kiev, Kharkov, Stalingrad, Dneprpetrovsk and Odessa—were supplied with power from the gigantic hydro-electric scheme on the Dnieper.

Pursuing the policy of "scorched earth" as set forth by Stalin in his speech on July 3, the great dam at Zaporoze, masterpiece of Soviet creative imagination, was sacrificed on August 28. The blowing up of this immense engineering work stopped the wheels of most of the Ukrainian industry.

Stalin's speech was a magnificent call to arms. He said that in the areas occupied by the enemy:

"foot and horse guerilla detachments must be created, as well as groups of saboteurs entrained with the launching of guerrilla warfare everywhere, with laying of bridges and roads, with wrecking telephones and telegraph communications, and with setting forests, depots and trains on fire. It is necessary to create, in the invaded area, conditions unsuitable for the enemy and all his auxiliaries."

"In the event of retreat of the Red Army all railway rolling stock must be brought away. We must get leave a single pound of grain or a single gallon of petrol to the enemy. All Valuable materials, including non-ferrous metals, corn and fuel, which cannot be taken away, must be completely destroyed."

This was the spirit in which the Russian people met the invader. Hitler was faced with totalitarian resistance, but it exacted a dire toll upon the resources of the Soviet Union.

There stood in the path of the invader a second and equally important area of the U.S.S.R.—the Caucasus. Here were coal, nickel, iron and manganese, while 75 per cent of Russia's oil came from the famous Baku wells. It will be plain that Germany's rapid advance involved Russia in a major problem of supply. The contingency had been foreseen, and provision made to minimize the loss while rendering the conquered territory of little or no value to the enemy.

The term "leap-frog industries" (which is Stalin's) describes precisely what happened throughout 1941 as the Germans advanced into the rich industrial southwest. The system is based on the proposition that the worker and his machine are inseparable, individually, considered as factory units. Therefore, as the enemy approached, Soviet industry went back to safer territory, there to continue war production.

The Voroshilov factory was situated at Dneprpetrovsk. Between September 30 and October 11 the complete plant was removed to the Urals together with the workers. On the latter date the wheels were turning again. By December the factory was actually improving on the output at the time of the leap-frog jump from the Ukraine to the Urals. The heroic character of the enterprise is obvious when one considers what such relocations involve by way of rail transport; in one case 7,000 trucks were necessary. The Voroshilov factory was assigned to the Urals because it needed steel. Precision plants in need of electric power were assigned to the Volga; chemical industries leapfrogged to Karaganda and Kuznetsk. Plants that could not be saved were destroyed by the Russians.

In 1944 the Urals, in the east, were almost entirely agricultural. Today the area is industrial. The main work, done with the help of American technicians, was accomplished by 1940, in which year Magnitogorsk, today a city of nearly half a million workers, was founded on an empty site. In such new towns as Sverdlovsk, Chelyabinsk and Magnitogorsk are the main metallurgical and armaments plants which largely replace those destroyed in the west. Within this area is about a quarter of all the mineral resources of the U.S.S.R. and from its mines come one fifth of her coal, one fifth of her iron and one fifth of her steel.

But the duplicate industrial communities in the Urals are not self-sufficient, for their coal must come from Kuznetsk, western Siberia, and from Karaganda in Kazakhstan. The switch-over was not without disadvantages and hindrances to production.

Stalin's call to the civil population was obeyed with enthusiasm and a
WARE GUERILLAS! KEEP YOUR WEAPONS READY!

Bottom right: German military police spot a notice forbidding Nazi vehicles to advance along an account of guerilla activity—they are too procured in two. The other photographs show the Russian side: top, partisans pledge themselves to defend their homeland to the last drop of blood. Left, Soviet poster: (1) Stir up guerilla warfare in the enemy’s rear! (2) Destroy communications; (3) bridges and roads; (4) warehouses; (5) enemy parties. Partisan operations, combined with the ruthless application of the “searched earth” policy, caused the diversion of large numbers of German troops from front-line duties.

Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright / News Chronicle.

Partisanen-Gefahr

Einzelfahrzeuge, halt! Durchfahrt nur von Fahrzeugen aufwärts,
Waffen bereithalten

Das Kommando General.

1940
dug a resolve. On the twenty-fourth anniversary of the Soviet Revolution (November 7, 1941) the Central Committee of the Party adopted 30 dogmas for the people. The first of these runs:

"Metallurgy exterminate all enemy manpower. Destroy German tanks and lorries. Blow up bridges and roads. Block the roads for supply trains. Cut the enemy's telephones and telegraph communication lines. Burn the stores and baggage trains of the German invaders. Long live the heroic Soviet guerillas!"

The guerilla groups and bands which sprang up knew that they could expect no mercy from the enemy, but they continued to attack transport columns, tanks and groups of Germans by day and night. When the enemy persecuted men and women remaining in occupied villages and hamlets the guerillas generally took terrible revenge. Soon the German forces felt the effect of guerilla and partisan warfare and the obstinate tactics of the remaining civil population. Large forces had to be strung out along the numerous supply lines to protect ferry convoys. Every mile of the German advance into Soviet territory increased the danger. Sentries went in fear and trembling, for they knew not when and whence the surprise attack might come. Improvised petrol grenades were used to wreck tanks and other armoured vehicles. "Booby traps" and impediments were devised to hold up advancing columns.

The effect was twofold. First, it caused great damage to the enemy's materiel and communica tions; secondly, it undermined his morale. Nazi troops became increasingly nervous in the conquered areas as the guerillas became more numerous, more daring and more skilful. For example, one partisan detachment in Byelo-Russia swooped on a town, destroyed the garrison, held the place until German reinforcements arrived, and then retreated. Another detachment permitted German infantry to cross a river, then set fire to the pontoons to prevent retreat, and killed 300 soldiers thus isolated. Tanks were fired on, bridges blown up, villages burnt and columns of troops ambushed. These activities were organized and directed by recognized leaders. It was these same people who applied the "scorched earth" policy laid down by Stalin. The summer crop in the Ukraine was mostly gathered in and removed before the Germans could seize it. What remained was destroyed by driving cattle through the growing wheat. In some areas tractor-drawn rollers completed the work of destruction. The military importance of this aspect of this vast campaign lay in the circumstance that it deprived the advancing German armies of the traditional advantage of the invader—namely, opportunity to live on the country overrun.

A passage in the "Frankfurter Zeitung" of July 30, 1941 reflects the disillusionment of Germany. "The war in the East," said this journal, "has developed upon quite different lines from the war waged last year in the West. It has become the most hazardous war in history. There is no longer any front line, and fighting goes on over a considerable depth...

In a German attempt to organize the conquered territory two methods were brought to bear. German landowners were brought in to take over collective farms whose workers had fled to forest or marsh as guerilla fighters. Then reactionary Russian elements were mobilized to create anti-Communist groups throughout the occupied territory. Prominent among these were ex-soldiers, "White" Russians and the Kulaks—the former peasant proprietors who had withstood collectivization. These latter were promised the return to private ownership of the land. Behind the German lines there went on breathlessly the military engineering activities of the Todt organization in making and improving roads and railways. Dr. Todt, a distinguished engineer, had been given high military rank for this task. His major problem was due to the circumstances that the U.S.S.R. railway gauge was broader than the standard gauge used generally in Europe, thus necessitating the prodigious engineering task of relaying the track to take German locomotives and rolling stock. Later, in October, Hitler created the "Eastern March." It included the Baltic States, Western Poland, White Russia and the Ukraine. Alfred Rosenberg, a Balf, and the philosopher of "race purity," was put in charge. Berlin proclaimed this creation as a development as important as the discovery of America. "There will be an explosion of energy from the East," it was predicted.

September brought the tide of battle to the gates of Leningrad. Berlin
announced that the city would fall by September 5. Against this objective, with the purpose of capturing the city before the early winter of the north, both army and Luftwaffe were hurled. The strategy aimed at starving out Leningrad. The Nazi radio threatened Leningrad with the fate of Warsaw and Rotterdam.

Non-Russian estimates of the potentialities of the Soviet had been based on a memory of conditions prevailing in Tsarist days. But Stalin’s Five Year Plans and the immense enthusiasm of a dynamic people had brought about a vast change. Soviet Russia had become competent and highly organized, both industrially and militarily. Nazi Germany discovered the power of the Soviet military machine when Marshal Voroshilov gave battle from Leningrad. This bold and stout defense disconcerted Berlin, whose spokesman said on September 10: “The defence of Leningrad grows every day more desperate. Day by day fresh Russian divisions seem to spring out of the earth to attack our German lines without respite.” Later in the month Berlin prophesied the end of the Russian campaign and the collapse of Stalin’s regime during that winter.

In Leningrad the population faced the rigours of a winter siege. By Lake Ladoga ships brought supplies to the city until, in November, the lake froze. Thereupon, the invaders intensified their attack, hurling 40 divisions against the city. Propaganda leaflets were dropped in an attempt to sow dissension. The defenders, however, every man, woman, and child of whom was assigned a duty, constructed a railway over the frozen lake, a feat without parallel in engineering history. The Lakeway saved the city.

There was no electricity, and hence no public transport. All came and went on foot in 30 degrees of frost, living on an attenuated diet. There was no coal, but fuel gathered from fences and old wooden buildings took its place. The bread ration dropped to 3 oz. There was no farm produce, no milk, butter or vegetables. Even under such conditions, and batted day and night by bombing planes and artillery, Leningrad contrived to continue its cultural activities. Shostakovich composed his Seventh Symphony between spells of fire fighting. Theatres gave performances. There were concerts.

On October 1 Hitler launched his fifth offensive. As we have seen in Chapter 181, he had taken Smolensk. Now he coveted Moscow, hoping to succeed where Napoleon had failed. By October the Nazi leaders were hard put to it to explain to their people the protracted nature of the Russian war. On the 3rd Hitler went to Berlin, where Goebbels had prepared the way by an article in “Das Reich,” in which he said: “This war is our last chance, but it is the greatest.” Hitler then promised “tremendous happenings.” Fifteen thousand miles of railway had been relaid, and 10,000 miles of standard gauge laid by Dr. Todt’s organisation. On October 9 Hitler issued an Order of the Day to all troops. They were to deliver the last great blow before winter. Three weeks were to bring “the greatest victory in the world.”

Some days later the Russians retook Kalinin. The old capital stood
MOSCOW UNPERTURBED

Heavy raids on Moscow began in the last weeks of July 1941. British A.R.P. experts had arrived to coach the Russians in fire prevention, etc., but Soviet officials soon evolved a system of their own. Inevitably there was damage by incendiaries and H.E. bombs, but Moscow was ready. (See illus., p. 1853.) Top, left, a damaged church; right, the New Jerusalem Monastery after a raid. Underground stations had been designed with a view to use as shelters (centre, right). Below, typical scene during the winter of 1941: Manezhnaya Square and Gorky Street.
secure. To Mr. Harry Hopkins Stalin said: "The front will remain west of Moscow; Russia is very large. Russia is pitiless. Russia will not fall back into slavery. Russia will win the war."

There followed the great drive towards Moscow, described in Chapter 183. By October 19 the outrun was allowed. Moscow did not fall, and Hitler’s boast about "the greatest victory in the world" proved an empty one. Within Moscow the people were well organized for defence, and A.R.P. obligations applied to all. The great collective farms to the east continued to pour produce into the city. Theatres, cinemas, concerts and exhibitions carried on. By the end of the year it was said that not one working hour had been lost during the raids, and but one case of looting was on record. For the civilian life became grim and tense—but men and women had become accustomed to total effort during the long years of the successive economic Plans which put Russia on her feet and steered her for the impending conflict. Women had long taken a great part in commerce and industry and in the professions, so that they naturally stepped into the breach when their menfolk went to the battlefronts.

In Moscow there was a splendid organization for the care and treatment of wounded. Eminent surgeons treated the many brain and spine cases, and other complicated lesions due to the murderous effects of modern warfare. Upwards of 1,500 blood donors—many of them women and girls—attended daily at the three transfusion institutes to give new life to wounded soldiers.

The ravages of German bombs were soon made good by repair workers, many of them women. Moscow had many bassasement buildings, and in the lowest storey safe and efficient shelters were established (see illus., p. 1870). Everywhere there was evidence of steady nerves and a dogged determination to see the job through to victory.

There were months of suspense and imminent danger; women not on essential work were sent away, together with

children; in mid-October Government and diplomats left for Kubansky, a state of siege was proclaimed. But towards the end of the month, the Russian counter-attacks gave new heart to the people of the capital, and three weeks later there were successes at Kalinin and Tula to cheer them still more. Another Nazi offensive began on November 25, but was short-lived; two weeks later the Germans abandoned the great drive against Moscow. The bravery of its defenders and the fortitude of its citizens had defeated Hitler. The limited

It had no armament factories. The people defended the city with what they had. Mines were made out of cinema film-tins, and makeshift armoured cars and tanks were contrived. The front line was only a tram ride out of Odessa. Women and children crowded the trams with rations for the men in the front line. To the end Odessa fought on. It became a city of the dead.

On October 24 Stalin declared Hitler’s blitzkrieg a failure. He gave the Russian casualties as 1,750,000 killed and wounded, estimating that Germany had lost 4,000,000 men. He lamented the absence of a "second front." Hitler disputed these figures in his speech of November 6 and put the Russian losses at eight to ten million.

On November 22 Rostov-on-Don fell to a concentrated attack, synchronized with the most critical assaults on Moscow, but by then the force of the German drive was spent. Stories of the suffering of her troops filtered through to Germany less sure than six months earlier. On December 19 Hitler took over as Supreme Commander from General von Brauchitsch. There were rumours of dissensions between the German army command and Hitler, and it is possible that the conflict between the demands of political warfare and straightforward campaigning had indeed caused uneasiness. The belated renewal of the German attack in November may have been due to the need to demonstrate to Japan—that almost ready to strike against British and American outposts—that Hitler and his armies were still able to pin down Russian armies and, further, could compel the Soviet to bring reinforcements westward from Siberia and Manchuria.

A vastly conceived and well organized assault, like the German many-pronged invasion, carried out with the surprise made possible by diplomatic turpitude, was bound to achieve big initial successes. The first six months of the German campaign in Russia gave Hitler great material gains, and made it clear that in the armies and people of Russia the Nazis had redoubtable antagonists who would resist to the last.
DEFENCE MEASURES AT SINGAPORE

A special correspondent of 'The Times' in Singapore described the great naval base as the core of British strength in the Far East. That strength was contingent, of course, on the Allies retaining naval control of the Pacific to that area.

1. Constructional work in progress at the docks; on left is the immense floating dock, big enough to take the largest battleship.
2. The King George V graving dock, 1,000 ft. long and 130 ft. wide, the world's largest dry dock.
3. Thousands of tons of barbed wire just unloaded for the landward defence line.
4. Floats and chains constituting the boom defence guarding vital channels to the harbour.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright; Associated Press; Planet News.
Chapter 195

JAPAN MAKES READY TO STRIKE: PRELUDE TO THE PACIFIC WAR

Penetration in Indo-China and Thailand—Anti-British Propaganda—Konoye Cabinet Resigns: General Tojo Takes the Helm—Unpardonable Crimes


By her occupation of Indo-China at the end of July 1941 (see Chapter 178) Japan in effect threw down the gauntlet to Britain and the United States. To acute-minded observers in Tokyo and Washington, in London and Berlin, it was clear enough that the decks were being cleared for action: war was an ever-increasing probability. Henceforth the question was not so much: will Japan strike but when? As yet, however, and for some months still, Japan was hesitant. For the moment: “peaceful penetration” was her best card to play.

Siam (Thailand) was the next victim of Japanese “squeeze.” At the end of July the Tokyo press and radio waxed indignantly eloquent over allegations that Britain was concentrating troops in large numbers on the Siam-Burma frontier and that British warships were parading off the Siamese coast. These demonstrations, supported by the hostile attitude of Chinese in Siam, were intended (so it was averred) to induce Siam's submission to Anglo-Saxon demands. But Siam was not without friends, said the Japanese newspapers. Let her follow the excellent example so recently set by Indo-China and accept Japanese protection; let her cooperate with Japan in building the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.” Otherwise, warned the gentlemen in Tokyo, the fate of Siam could be none other than that of Syria.

At first these warnings and conjurations fell on deaf ears: Marshal Luang Bipol Songram, the Prime Minister, seemed to be more mindful of the fate of Indo-China than of that of Syria when, on July 29, he declared that his Government was intent on maintaining friendly relations with all nations, and had been subjected to no pressure, military or economic, from any quarter.

Speaking in the House of Commerce, on August 6, Mr. Anthony Eden, the British Foreign Secretary, declared that Anglo-Siam relations had been friendly for over a century, and Britain asked for nothing better than that they should remain so: any action which would threaten the independence of Siam would be a matter of concern for Britain, more particularly since it would constitute a threat to the security of Singapore; and Sir Robert Craigie, H.M. Ambassador in Tokyo, had been British and the U.S.A. Although Prince Konoye's Government reiterated its declaration that Japan wanted peace, the Foreign Office spokesman in Tokyo seemed to be not altogether convinced that the Siamese Government had not been subjected to outside pressure.

Meanwhile in Siam itself the Government maintained its stand. Siam would resist any and every aggression on the part of a foreign power, it was asserted; and the Bangkok radio declared that the Siamese forces would not yield an inch of territory—they would adopt a scorched earth policy if need be, they would use poison gas, they would fight to the last man. Any invader who succeeded in overrunning Siam would find the country a “vast cemetery of the Siamese nation.”

Japan had to be ready for any emergency, declared Prince Konoye on July 30; his Government was doing all in its power to mobilize the resources and manpower of the nation; and three weeks later the Japanese Cabinet adopted a programme of national general mobilization, providing for the speeding-up of the production of war materials, the establishment of a regime of self-sufficiency within the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere so far as iron, steel, coal and other vital materials were concerned, the maximum utilization of merchant shipping, and the guarantee of a minimum standard of life for the Japanese people. Next month all Japanese males between 14 and 40 and females between 14 and 25 (except those with dependants) were made liable to national service in farms, factories and mines.

In spite of these and many equally vigorous measures the Konoye administration failed to weather a political storm that blew up a few months later. On October 16 the Cabinet resigned, and the next day the Emperor, after consultation with the Elders Statesmen and Marquis Kido, Lord Privy Seal, called upon General Tojo to form a Government. The new Cabinet, announced on October 18, included Gen. Tojo, who assumed the portfolios of Home Affairs...
FIRST AUSTRALIANS TO REACH MALAYA

Taken in April 1941, when war still seemed a long way from the Malay Peninsula, this photograph shows Australian troops marching along a Malay road. Commonwealth forces which took part in the disastrous campaign included the Eighth Australian Division (2nd and 4th A.I.F. Brigades).

As the autumn drew on the situation grew more tense. British and American nationals in Japan were urged to leave, and large numbers of Japanese were repatriated from America. Every speech of General Tojo was phrased in terms of a bellicose nationalism; Japan, he declared time and again, was at the crossroads and must rise or fall. The Japanese newspapers continued to fulminate against Britain and still more against the U.S.A. America must cease giving aid to China; she must acknowledge Japan's leadership of the Co-Prosperity Sphere, she must support the freezing of her trade; she must recognize Manchuria. To these demands and declarations America and Britain presented a firm front. Colonel Knox, Mr. Roosevelt's Navy Secretary, said on October 24 that the situation in the Far East was severely strained, and that if Japan persisted in her expansionist aims a collision was inevitable. America had been long-suffering and patient, but it might well be that to go further along the path of liberty and forbearance would be misunderstood. "Grave questions are about to be decided," he said; "the hour of decision is here."

On the same day Mr. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State, expressed the opinion that "at any moment war may be forced upon us by the criminal paranoid Hitler or by Japan."

Then in London Mr. Churchill, speaking at the Mansion House on November 10, referred to an uncertain term in the increasing tension in the Far East.

"Having fought for the Japanese alliance nearly 40 years ago," he said, "and having always done my very best to promote good relations with the Island Empire, and having always been a sentimental well-wisher of Japan and an admirer of her many gifts and qualities, I would wish with keen sorrow the opening of a conflict between Japan and the English-speaking world. The United States' time-honoured interests in the Far East are well known. They are doing their utmost to find a way of preserving peace in the Pacific. We do not know whether their efforts will be successful; but if they fail, I take this occasion to say — and it is my duty to say — that should the United States become involved in war with Japan, the British declaration will follow within the hour."

A few days later the Emperor called an Extraordinary Session of the Diet, which met in Tokyo from Nov. 15 to 21. Speaking as Minister of War, Premier Tojo said that Japanese forces were stationed in a vast area of East Asia from Manchuria to Indo-China; they were making heroic efforts to destroy the Chungking regime and to accelerate the establishment of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. Japanese "punitive" forces had greatly reduced Chiang Kai-shek's fighting strength, so that he was no longer able to take the offensive. None the less, the Chungking army was still estimated to number 2,000,000 men, "thanks partly to a wealth of man-power and partly to the assistance of third Powers." The Japanese occupation of China was
making great progress, and sufficient coal, iron ore, salt and cotton had been secured to counteract the economic restrictions imposed by Britain and America in pursuit of their "freezing" policy.

On the next day General Tojo delivered a speech on national policy. Britain, the U.S.A. and the Netherlands Indies, he declared, by their military measures and economic blockade, had created a state of unprecedented national crisis, which Japan was striving to overcome not only in her own interest but for "the cause of peace in East Asia and the world." To resolve this crisis he proposed a programme on the fulfilment of which depended the success of the mission to Washington undertaken a few days before by his Government's emissary, Mr. Saburo Kurusu. The Japanese Government, he said, would expect that third Powers would refrain from obstructing the successful conclusion of the China affair; that countries surrounding the Empire would refrain from constituting themselves a direct military menace, and would nullify such hostile measures as the economic blockade and restore normal economic relations with Japan; and that the utmost efforts would be exerted to prevent an extension of the European War and the spread of disturbances into East Asia.

The Foreign Minister, Mr. Togo, also spoke. He, too, expressed the view that Japan was at the cross-roads of her 2,600 years of history, "for which reason she was contemplating a high degree of defence and the building up of the national morale." Then came a reference to the Kurusu mission.

"There is naturally a limit to our conciliatory attitude," he said, "but I think an amicable conclusion is by no means impossible if the Government of the United States are on the one hand as genuinely solicitous for world peace as are the Imperial Government, and on the other hand understand Japan's natural requirements, her position in East Asia, and consider the situation as it exists there in the light of realities." But, he concluded, "should a situation arise that would menace the very existence of the Empire or compromise Japan's prestige as a great Power, it goes without saying that Japan must face it with a firm and resolute attitude."

With unprecedented speed the Diet passed the Bill for authorizing military expenditure to the tune of 3,800,000,000 yen; and in both the House of Peers and the House of Representatives resolutions were acclaimed supporting the Government in its declared policy. "We are pleased with your Labour in cooperating in the execution of State affairs, in conformity with our wishes," said the Imperial message to the Diet.

The "China affair" showed no sign of being brought to a speedy conclusion. Many hundreds of thousands of Japanese troops were still bogged in the Chinese morass, and the swaying tide of battle swept here and there across the vast countryside. During July there was a lull in the military operations, but on the 30th Chungking was savagely bombed, and during the first fortnight of August air raids on the capital of Free China went on almost continually by day and by night. A thousand Japanese aircraft were said to be employed in these attacks, some of the greatest and most devastating so far. In the raid of July 30 a U. S. gunboat, the "Tutuila," was hit and the affair gave rise to another dispute with America, which was then settled by the payment by Japan of an indemnity for the damage done. Foochow was evacuated by the Japanese early in September, but in the month they launched a new offensive in Northern Hunan with a view to the capture of Changsha, capital of the province, and an important railway junction. Some 80,000 men were reported to compose the attacking force, and for days there was bitter fighting, with heavy casualties on both sides.

At one time the Japanese claimed to have occupied Changsha, but the city was held throughout by the troops of General Hsueh Yen, who had lured the enemy into a trap. On October 2 the Japanese announced their "voluntary withdrawal" from Changsha, although a few days later they claimed the capture of Japanese Trapped at Changsha.

BREWSTER BUFFALO FIGHTERS DEFENDED MALAYA

In the air over Malaya Britain was at a disadvantage, and instead of the speedy and magnificent Hurricanes and Spitfires our pilots flew slower aircraft like the Buffalos—here seen in formation over the Malayan coast. The top speed of this American single-seat fighter was 335 m.p.h., and it was armed with six machine-guns.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright
Chinese Victory at Changsha

The Japanese attack on North Hunan during the last week of 1941 was intended to stop Chiang Kai-shek sending troops to the aid of the Allies, but it failed. Instead, four Japanese divisions were trapped and about 30,000 were killed or wounded. Top, Chinese attacking the enemy between the Laotao and Liuyang rivers. Right, General Hsueh Yüeh, nicknamed 'Little Tiger,' Governor of Hunan Province and field commander of the Chinese armies there. Left, one of a ‘suicide squad,’ which killed seven of a Japanese advanced post. Below, Japanese troops surrender. In the previous September Japanese forces reached the suburbs of Changsha, but were then driven back.

Photos, Pictorial Press
of Chenchow. The Chinese countered with the recapture of Ichang, the Treaty port, on the Yangtze above Hankow, but less than a week later were expelled by strong Japanese forces. However, early in November they had a new success in the recapture of Chenchow. Local fighting continued in many places, and after more than four years of war there was not the slightest indication of any desire on the part of Chiang Kai-shek to come to terms with the invaders. Before the year’s end China’s war had become merged in a world-wide struggle, and so far from being alone in her resistance to the Japanese aggressor she was hailed as a principal member of the United Nations.

In Burma the authorities did their best under the pressure of events to put the defences in a state of readiness.

Burma’s Defence Measures

New aerodromes were constructed; Brewster Buffalo fighters were brought from America and Blenheim bombers from Britain; troops were assembled on the Siamese frontier. A new Defence Council was set up in August, with the Governor, Sir Reginald Dorman-Smith, and Premier U Saw as President and Vice-President respectively. At the end of November large troop reinforcements were reported to be arriving at Rangoon. As in India so in Burma, however, there was considerable political unrest; and U Saw went to London to discuss the grant to Burma of Dominion status. After talks with Mr. Churchill and Mr. Amery, U Saw expressed himself not at all pleased with the situation.

"It is my desire," he said in a statement to the press on November 3, "to see that both Burma and Great Britain pull well together, and that is why I brought a message of good will from the people of Burma. The British Government has given assurance to India and Burma that it will give those countries self-government one day, but when that day will come is another question. I only want a definite assurance that Burma will be placed on the same level as other members of the Empire."

At a luncheon given in U Saw’s honour the next day Mr. Amery stated that constitutional controversies could not be entered upon at that juncture. So U Saw left London a disappointed man. Later he was arrested and interned on the charge of having been in contact with Japanese authorities since the outbreak of war with Japan.

In India, too, political questions were well to the fore. Since July 1 General Wavell had been Commander-in-Chief, and under his able direction much progress was made. On September 3 it was announced at Simla that the Indian Army now numbered 700,000 men, representing a growth of 460,000 during the past twelve months, while on the supply front Sir Muhammad Zafrulla Khan was able to give an impressive report of recent achievements. This was in spite of the fact that all the political parties, Congress in particular, remained ostentatiously aloof from participation, while subversive and revolutionary activities of the more extremist groups continued to receive the attention of the police.

Then at Singapore there were the same signs of preparation, of readiness to accept the challenge. Large convoys of Australian, Scottish and Indian troops arrived in August and right up to late November; the R.A.F. also received considerable reinforcements. Early in September Mr. Duff Cooper, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and the Minister charged with the investigation of British defences in the Far East, arrived at Singapore. Here he was visited by General Wavell.

Hongkong, too, resonated with the clatter of war preparations. Maj.-Gen. Maltry, the G.O.C., stated that the Colony’s defences had been considerably strengthened, and that for its size it probably had more big guns than any other place in the Empire. On November 16 Mr. MacKenzie King, the Canadian Prime Minister, announced that a Canadian force under Brig. J. K. Lawson had arrived in Hongkong. (See Illus., p. 1885.)

Japan meanwhile was proceeding with her plans. Late in November reports were current that Japanese warships were sailing off the coast of Siam, that Japanese troops were massing in Indo-China over against the Siamese frontier—reports which led Marshal Luang Bipul Songprap to invite, and receive, fresh assurances from the Japanese ambassador that Japan had no hostile intentions against Siam. All the same, a Siamese High Command was constituted, and several classes of reservists were called to the colours. The Kurusu talks were still proceeding in Washington, but only the most incorrigibly optimistic could persuade themselves that they were likely to bear any substantial fruit. On November 25 Mr. Cordell Hull handed to the Japanese ambassador, Admiral Nomura, a document which was believed to...
MOMENTOUS CONFERENCE WITH CHINESE LEADERS

Eleven days after the arrival of Sir Archibald Wavell (9) and Lieutenant General George Brett (8) at Chungking on December 22, 1942 came news of the setting up of a unified Allied Command in the South-west Pacific, with General Wavell as C-in-C. and General Brett as his Deputy. Here the British and American leaders are seen with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek (5), Madame Chiang Kai-shek (4), Sir Archibald Clark Kerr (3), then British Ambassador to China, General Lanchester Deming (1), head of the British Military Mission, Brigadier-General John Magruder (7), head of the American Military Mission; General Ku Ying-chin (6), of the Chinese Staff, and Mr. Owen Lattimore (2), personal political adviser to the Generalissimo.

Photo, Pictorial Press

containing the American terms for a settlement. The Japanese reply was evasive, and there were many who suspected that Kurusu was playing for time, and their suspicions were confirmed by a fighting speech delivered by General Tojo on November 30. "Japan, China, and Manchukuo," he declared, "are completely united in their efforts to establish a New Order in East Asia based on justice and morality, as well as the formation of an axis for permanent peace." The Powers of Europe and America were trying to exploit the thousand millions of East Asia "to satisfy their greed," and Japan would "proceed over the corpses of our comrades in the construction of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.

Japan was about to strike: that now seemed clear. But still the direction of her aggression was uncertain. In Malaya and Hongkong they stood at arms; in Australia Mr. Curtin called a War Cabinet; in Washington Mr. Kurusu still exchanged notes with Mr. Hull.

December 6 came and President Roosevelt, in a final effort for peace, sent a personal message to the Emperor Hirohito. But the time had gone by for such exchanges. Japan was bent on war. At 7:30 a.m. on December 7 the U.S. Fleet in Pearl Harbour was bombed and put out of action, and before the day was out the Philippines, Malaya, Hongkong and the American islands in mid-Pacific had all been attacked. Shortly after this news reached Washington Admiral Nimitz and Mr. Kurusu appeared at the State Department with Japan's reply to the latest American note. Mr. Cordell Hull read it with rising indignation, "In all my fifty years of public service," he declared, "I have never seen a document more crowded with infamous falsehoods and distortions—on a scale so huge that I never imagined until today that any Government on this planet was capable of uttering them."

The swift march of events after this is described in following Chapters, but there are certain facts which, relating to the later weeks of December, should be told here. On December 22 General Sir Archibald Wavell and Lieutenant General George Brett, U.S. Army, visited Chungking to confer with the Generalissimo, Chiang Kai-shek. General Brett had held the post of Chief of Staff, U.S. Army Air Corps. Five days later General Wavell took over the defence of Burma, and Lieutenant General T. J. Hutton was appointed G.O.C. Burma. On January 2 it was announced that Chinese troops had entered Burma to serve under Wavell. Next day came the announcement of the setting up of a unified Allied Command in the S.W. Pacific, with General Wavell as C-in-C. and General Brett as his Deputy. On December 29 Air Chief Marshal Sir R. Brooke-Popham was replaced as C-in-C Far East by Lieutenant General Sir Henry Pownall, whose selection for a special command had been made known on November 18.

Japanese forces made another determined attempt to capture Chungking at the end of the year, but were heavily defeated and sustained 30,000 casualties.
Chapter 196

AMERICA PREPARES TO MEET THE JAPANESE CHALLENGE

President Roosevelt’s task in the first months of 1941 (see Chapter 172) had been mainly that of bringing home to the American people the reality, extent and urgency of the world war situation as it menaced the United States. His clear vision and sincere idealism had to a large extent achieved his purpose, but even after the sinking of the “Robin Moor” (see Chapter 172) the world war still remained for the masses remote and only indirectly their own concern.

This reaction was reflected in the nation’s trade and industry, which continued to be mainly concerned with luxury production. For example, between January and June of 1941, despite the dynamic drive of Production-Controller Krueger, only 15 per cent of the total American production was for the export of war materials. The sales of such luxury articles as refrigerators, electrical cookers and private motor vehicles all increased—from 35 per cent to 51 per cent. Coupled with the labour disputes mentioned in Chapter 172 were such iminimal factors as overlapping, administrative interference, arceracy between munition manufacturers and government departments.

This initial lag was steadily overcome. Thus by May the steel industry was operating at 99.2 per cent of capacity—50,000,000 tons a year—and by July the President of the Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce, Mr. J. J. Honett, announced that aircraft production was nearing the 1,500 per month mark. On Labour Day (September 1) the President reiterated his warning to the nation: “The danger, he said, “which threatens the world is not past.” He foreshadowed the imminence of war, saying: “The United States is undoubtedly at peace, but will she be so next year?”

By the end of June national sentiment already marched ahead of national performance. This change may be measured with fair accuracy by numerous polls taken about this date. On possibly ran to Russia,” he added. On the same day the same spokesman announced that the President had lifted the ban on the export of arms under the Neutrality Act and that henceforth American ships would carry war materials to Vladivostok.

On June 23 M. Maisky, Russian Ambassador to the Court of St. James’s, Mr. Winant, American Ambassador, and members of the British Cabinet went into conference. These events oriented American public opinion. In early spring the Gallup Institute had conducted an inquiry which resulted in 81 per cent of those questioned declaring against any United States expeditionary force to Europe, and only 41 per cent in favour of convoys. Figures so low are less surprising when the racially complex character of this cosmopolitan State is borne in mind, with its large blocks of Axis nationals.

A second poll, in early summer, revealed the swing of the pendulum; already 62 per cent answered that they would rather go to war than see Great Britain defeated by Hitler.

Despite this upward curve of the belligerency graph the German attack on Russia did not altogether assist the President in solidifying opinion against Germany. The subversive elements in the land became immediately active. Old prejudices against the Russian way of life were stimulated by unscrupulous propaganda.

SPEEDING AMERICAN AID TO RUSSIA

In July 1941 President Roosevelt sent Mr. Harry Hopkins (right) to Moscow as his personal representative to confer with Premier Stalin about the acceleration of supplies from the U.S.A. As supervisor of the Lend-Lease programme, Mr. Hopkins was in a special position to deal with the question.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

June 22 came Hitler’s invasion of Russia, followed the same day by Britain’s whole-hearted affirmation of support for the latest victim. Mr. Sumner Welles, endorsing Mr. Churchill’s policy, condemned the Nazi onslaught as “treacherous, dire and murderous.” We are going to give all aid we Roman Catholics were reminded that Russia was “the godless state.” The industrialists were not allowed to forget that their way of life could not exist under Stalin’s regime. Yet, so courageous was Mr. Roosevelt, and so high did his personal prestige stand, that by July 11 he was able to grant a credit
Harriman was sent by the President to Moscow, Mr. Hopkins having meanwhile visited London. These were weeks of close cooperation between Russia, Britain and the United States for the pooling of war resources and the co-ordination of the war effort.

While these events were directing the eyes of the American people to the drama of the Battle of the Atlantic, the activities of Japan were causing grave apprehension. The trend of events is reviewed in Chapter 195, so that only a brief outline need be given here. Japan was obtaining further territory in Indo-China, this was admitted by the Vichy Government on July 23.

On July 24 Mr. Summer Welles said: "The Japanese Government is giving a clear indication that it is determined to pursue an objective of expansion by force or threat of force." He added that his Government could only conclude that the action taken was because of the estimated value to Japan of bases for a further and more obvious movement of conquest in adjacent areas.

Speaking the same day (July 24), President Roosevelt said that the policy of appeasement towards Japan was at an end. Next day, simultaneously with similar action in Britain and the Dominions, Japanese assets in the United States were frozen. On the 26th Mr. Roosevelt created a new army command—U.S. Forces in the Far East. The Philippines were put under American military command.

A curious feature of American public opinion at this time was the tendency to underestimate the purpose and power of Japan. Her in "Shoot First" order to the U.S. Navy with China was cited as evidence of military limitations. The President and his advisers had a shrewder judgment. In August Japan began to move into Siam and, simultaneously, the Press of Japan opened a campaign against Mr. Roosevelt and the British Prime Minister. It was plain that for America the tide of war was rising, east and west. Germany now threw off all pretence and attacked United States shipping, though a state of war existed between these countries (see Chapter 199). On September 11 the President gave the order to the U.S. Navy to "shoot first." (Since April 26 the American Fleet..."
LIEUT.-GENERAL A. G. L. McNAUGHTON, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Commander-in-Chief of the First Canadian Army in Britain from October 1939, he was Chief of the Canadian General Staff from 1929 to 1935, and G.O.C. Heavy Artillery of the Canadian Corps in the First Great War. President of the National Research Council of Canada. On December 27, 1943, it was announced that L.t.-Gen. McNaughton had asked to be relieved of his command on grounds of ill-health. This was granted.

Direct colour portrait by Kurash, Ottawa.
GENERAL GEORGE C. MARSHALL

Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army since April 27, 1939. In 1902 and 1903, and from 1913 to 1916, he served in the Philippines. He was with the American Expeditionary Force in France in 1917, on the general staff of the First Division. After the war he was aide-de-camp to General John J. Pershing for five years. From 1924 to 1927 he was stationed in China. In 1941 he endorsed aid to Britain and early in the summer urged Congress to extend the period of training of conscripts and to raise the ban on overseas drafts outside the Western Hemisphere. In July 1942 he visited London with Admiral King (below) and reached agreement with British Chiefs of Staff on plans for the subsequent Mediterranean offensive.

ADMIRAL ERNEST J. KING

Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Fleet and Chief of Naval Operations. He served in the Spanish-American war, and in the First Great War was assistant to the chief of staff of the Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Fleet. In 1933 he was promoted to Rear-Admiral, and he was Vice-Admiral in command of the Fleet's aircraft battle force, 1938-39. On February 1, 1941, Admiral King was made Commander of the Atlantic Fleet and on December 20, thirteen days after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, he was designated Commander-in-Chief of the whole Fleet. On March 9, 1942 he succeeded Admiral Harold R. Stark as Chief of Naval Operations, thus combining the two highest ranks in the U.S. Fleet.

Direct colour photographs by Pictorial Press
had been patrolling—not convoying—thousand miles east of the Atlantic seaboard.

In the second week of August there came the historic meeting of the British Prime Minister with President Roosevelt in mid-Atlantic on board the battleship "Prince of Wales," at which was drafted the declaration of Allied aims known as the Atlantic Charter. An account of this event is given in Chapter 191; the text of the Charter is printed in page 920. Broadcasting on August 24, Mr. Churchill described the Charter as "a simple, rough and ready wartime statement of the general goal towards which the British Commonwealth and the United States mean to make their way."

The presence of the heads of the fighting forces at this conference alarmed the Isolationists and others, too, in America. Coupled with the President's pledge to destroy Hitlerism and Nazism, it led them to fear he was pushing the country into the "shooting war." On August 21 Mr. Roosevelt adroitly defended his action. The Declaration, he averred, could be rejected only by those prepared to compromise with Hitler. "Such a peace," he told Congress, "would be a gift to Nazism to take breath, armed breath, for a second war to extend its control over Europe and Asia, to the American hemisphere itself."

The Charter clarified the salient war aims, and defined the ideals in national and international life towards which both democracies were striving. Further, it demonstrated to Nazi Germany the solidarity of the English-speaking world. It is fair to say that the President had gone as far as his country approved, and it is certain that nothing he could say or do could carry the country farther at the moment. It was on August 20, shortly after the Atlantic meeting, that Mr. Churchill and Mr. Roosevelt sent a joint message to Stalin offering him the utmost possible aid against Germany, and also proposing a tripartite conference in Moscow to discuss the use of war materials and how best their countries could apportion their resources. (See page 1856.)

For the performance of the program upon which he had determined President Roosevelt had to secure first...
an amendment to the Neutrality Act of November 4, 1939. (This law provided for the sale of armaments to belligerents on the cash-and-carry basis, but forbade American ships to carry them into combat zones.) Secondly, he had to overcome Congress's consent to the suspension of the cash-and-carry clause of the Lease-and-Lend Bill of March 12, 1941. On November 17 (when the President signed the new Bill) the law was revised: American ships were ordered to be armed, and were no longer prohibited from entering belligerent ports. At the same time the President secured from Congress authorization to increase the loan to Russia, at that date standing already at $13,000,000,000.

The Atlantic conference was not without its effect upon Tokyo. On August 25 the Japanese Ambassador told M. Molotov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs, that the sending of war supplies from the U.S.A. to Russia via Vladivostok placed Japan "in an extremely delicate and difficult position." Molotov assured his questioner that any such war materials would be used against Germany alone. A simultaneous protest to Washington resulted in a temporary suspension of American shipments to Vladivostok. "The United States," said Mr. Churchill on August 21, "are labouring with infinite patience to arrive at a fair and amicable settlement which will give Japan the utmost assurance for her legitimate interests." These words had reference to the protracted and inconclusive talks between Admiral Nemura, Japanese Ambassador to the United States, and Mr. Cordell Hull. On August 26 Mr. Roosevelt sent a military mission to China. On the 29th Prince Konoye, Prime Minister of Japan, sent a personal letter to Mr. Roosevelt and the President undertook to handle matters personally.

But no such talks were likely to produce agreement. Japan was merely manoeuvring for position, and it is questionable whether anything more
ennuished in 1937, namely, that no recognition would be given to states taking territory by force of arms. On October 16 the Japanese Prime Minister, Prince Konoye, resigned and a new government was formed three days later under General Tojo, whose militaristic ambitions were common knowledge (see Chapter 190). Yet Tojo offered peace by negotiation—though to him this meant peace only at the price of satisfying all Japan's far-fetched ambitions—and on November 5 he dispatched to Washington Mr. Saburu Kurusu to assist the Ambassador in the new discussions. The Press of Japan became more and more provocative. The Foreign Minister (Mr. Togo) accused both Britain and America of plotting against Japan (see p. 1957). The new Premier, General Tojo, added further conditions—"hands off Japan's Chinese enterprise." On November 17 the Japanese envoys visited the President. That evening news from Tokyo told of vast votes for war purposes.

In Tokyo Mr. Grew, U.S. Ambassador, was under no misapprehension as to the danger. On November 3 he had telegraphed to Washington a warning against acceptance of any treaty that the weakening and final exhaustion of Japanese financial and economic resources would result in Japan's collapse as a militarist power. He also spoke of the possibility of Japan's adopting measures with dramatic and dangerous suddenness which might make war with the United States inevitable. Again, a fortnight later, Mr. Grew in a cable called attention to the necessity for vigilance against a sudden Japanese naval and military attack.

On November 20 Kurusu terminated the talks. Six days later Mr. Hull handed the Japanese envoy his reply. The next day the envoy saw the President, Washington—and indeed the whole world—waited. But not
Japan made a formal declaration of war on the United States and Great Britain. In London Mr. Churchill met his Cabinet at 12:30 a.m. on December 8, when news had been received that the Japanese had not only bombed Singapore and Hongkong, but had attempted a landing in Malaya; Britain's declaration of war, "in view of this wanton act of unprovoked aggression committed in flagrant violation of international law," was a foregone conclusion. Shortly afterwards, at 3 a.m., the Netherlands Government followed suit.

Later in the morning the Congress of the United States met in Washington, listened to the President's eight-minute declaration with its dramatic: "I ask that the Congress declare that since the unprovoked and dastardly attack by Japan on Sunday, December 7, 1941, a state of war has existed between the United States and the Japanese Empire," and passed the war declaration—the Senate by 82 votes to none, and the House of Representatives by 388 to one. Within a few minutes the President's signature brought America formally into the war. On December 11 Germany and Italy declared war on the United States, and the wheel had turned full circle. Next day Mr. Churchill with Lord Beaverbrook went to Washington. On the 26th the
Prime Minister addressed Congress, in an oration which won America entirely (see Historic Documents, page 1968).

"Some might be depressed," said Mr. Churchill, when he spoke, like the President, of "a long and hard war. But their peoples would rather know the truth, however sombre." In concluding he remarked that the catastrophe of a second war in one generation might have been averted if the United States and Great Britain had kept together after the last war and had taken common measures for safety.

"I avow my hope and faith that in the days to come the British and American peoples will, for their own safety, walk together in majesty, in justice, and in peace."

In a statement on Mr. Churchill's visit Mr. Roosevelt said: "There is of course one primary objective in the conversations to be held, that purpose is to defeat Hitlerism." General unity in the conduct of the war was the goal, and conferences were held with Dominion representatives, with representatives of the free Governments of Europe, and with the heads of missions of 29 Latin-American Republics.

On December 23 Mr. Churchill left for Ottawa, where he addressed the Dominion Parliament (see illus., p. 1917). On the first day of 1942 he arrived back in Washington, and on this day, there was the first fruit of the conferences just referred to. A joint declaration was signed by the United States, Great Britain, Russia, China, the British Dominions, India, the free Governments of eight European countries overrun by the Nazis, by Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and San Salvador. These Governments subscribed to the programme of purposes and principles embodied in the Atlantic Charter; they pledged themselves to employ their full resources against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which they were at war, and to cooperate with each other and not to make a separate peace with the enemies.
PREMIIER'S ADDRESS TO CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON

Mr. Winston Churchill, in an Address to the Two Houses of Congress at Washington, December 30, 1941:

Mr. Churchill spoke of his American forebears and his American mother, and said that throughout his life he had been in harmony with the tides which had flowed on both sides of the Atlantic against privilege and monopoly. He had "desired constantly towards the Gettysburg ideal of the government of the people, by the people, for the people." He spoke of the immense strides that had been made in the conversion of American industry to military purposes, and that the broad flow of munitions in Britain had already begun. There followed a tribute to the glorious tradition of the British navy by the Russian arms and people. Mr. Churchill said that the "beautiful Mussolini" had crumpled already, and was now but a lackey and a scum. He reviewed the course of events in Libya and spoke of his hopes for General Auchinleck's success. Then he turned to the attack recently made upon Britain and America by Japan.

Consequences of the Japanese Onslaught

The onslaught upon us, said Mr. Churchill, so long and as secretly planned by Japan, has presented both our countries with grievous problems for which we could not be fully prepared. If people ask me— as they have the right to ask me in England—why is it that you have not got ample equipment of modern aircraft and weapons of all kinds in Malaya and our territories in the Far East, I can only add to the evidence which General Auchinleck has gained in the Libyan campaign. Had we diverted and dispersed our gradually growing resources between Libya and Malaya we should have been found wanting in both spheres.

If the United States had been found at a disadvantage in the Pacific Ocean, we know that to no small extent because of the aid you have given us in munitions for the defence of the British Isles and for the Libyan campaign, and above all because of the supply of the Allied Nations which are at hand, and which has been in consequence successfully and prosperously maintained.

Of course it would have been much better, I freely admit, if we had had ample resources of all kinds to be able to defend our southeastern flank. But in measuring how slowly and reluctantly we brought ourselves to large-scale preparations, and how long these preparations took, we had no right to expect to be in such a fortunate position.

The choice of how to dispose of our limited resources had to be made by Britain in time of war and by the United States in time of peace. And I believe that history will pronounce that upon the whole—and it is upon the whole that these matters must be judged—the choice made was right.

Now that we are together; now that we are linked in a righteous comradeship of arms; now that our two considerable nations, each in perfect unity, have joined all their life energies in a common resolve; now, since that has happened, our steady light will gleam and brighten.

Many people have been astonished that Japan should in a single day have plunged into war against the United States and the British Empire. We all wonder why this dark design, with its laborious and intricate preparations, had been kept so long hidden. As a matter of fact, they did not choose our moment of weakness 13 months ago.

Viewed quite dispassionately, in spite of the losses we have suffered and the further punishment we shall have to take, it certainly appears an irrational act, but it is, of course, only prudent to assume that they have made very careful calculations and think they see their way through.

Nevertheless there may be another explanation. We know that for many years past Japan has been dominated by secret societies of subalterns and junior officers of the Army and Navy who have required them to fall upon successive Japanese Cabinets and Parliaments by the assassination of any Japanese statesman who opposed or did not sufficiently further their aggressive policy. It may be that these societies, dazzled and dazed with their own schemes of aggression and the prospect of easy victories, have forced their country against its better judgement into war.

They have certainly embarked upon a very considerably undertaking. And after the outrages they have committed upon us at Pearl Harbor, in the Pacific area, in the Philippines, in Malaya, and the Dutch East Indies they must now know that the stakes for which they have decided to play are mortal.

When we compare the resources of the United States and the British Empire with those of Japan, when we remember those of China, which have so valiantly withstood invasion and tyranny, and when we also observe the Russian menace which hangs over Japan, it becomes still more difficult to reconcile Japan's action with reason and sanity.

What kind of a people do they think we are? Is it possible that they do not realize we shall never cease to persevere against them until they have been taught a lesson which they and the world will never forget?

Members of the Senate and members of the House of Representatives, I will turn for one moment more from the turmoil and convulsions of the present to the broader basis of the future. Here we are, together facing a group of mighty foes who seek our ruin; here we are, together defending all that which to five men is dear.

Twice in a single generation the catastrophe of world war has fallen upon us, twice in our lifetime has the long arm of fate reached across the ocean to bring the United States into the forefront of battle itself. If we had kept together after the last war, if we had taken common measures for our safety, then this renewal of the curse would never have fallen upon us.

Do we not owe it to ourselves, to our children, to mankind to make sure that these catastrophes do not engulf us for the third time? It has been proved that isolation may break out in the Old World which carry their destructive ravages into the New World, from which, once they are abed, the New World cannot escape.

The Pestilence of Nazism Must be Controlled

But we are in the midst of the conflagration, and there is danger that the centres of hatred and revenge should be constantly and vigilantly starved and treated in good time, and that an adequate organization should be set up to make sure that the pestilence can be controlled at its earliest beginnings before it spreads and spreads throughout the entire earth.

Four or six years ago it would have been easy, without shedding a drop of blood, for the United States and Great Britain to have insisted on the fulfilment of the disarmament clauses of the treaties which Germany signed after the First War, and that痼疾 should have disappeared. In the case of the Germans these raw materials which we declared in the Atlantic Charter should not be dowered to any nation, victor or vanquished.

That chance has passed. It is gone. Prodigies hammer strikes have been noiseless and have not been heard again. If you will allow me to use other languages I will say that he must indeed have a blind soul who cannot see that some great purpose and design is being wrought out here below of which we have the honour to be faithful servants.

It is not given to the man that he shall understand the work of the future. Still, I saw my hope and faith, sure and inviolate, that in the days to come the British and American peoples will for our own safety and for the good of all walk together in majesty, in justice, and in peace.
Chapter 197

WAR IN THE PACIFIC: THE ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOUR

Unheeded Warnings and Inadequate Preparations—Knock-out Blow at Naval and Army Airfields—American Warships in Pearl Harbour—First Phase of the Air Attack—Fatal Seven-Minute Lag in A.A. Fire—Second Phase: Coup de Grâce—Remarkable Salvage Work—Guam, Wake Island and Midway
(The campaign in the Philippines is described in Chapter 210)

It was on Sunday morning, December 7, 1941, at 7.55 a.m., that a fleet of Japanese aircraft attacked the American naval base at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, with bombs and torpedoes. A Japanese declaration of war on the U.S.A. (and Britain) did not come until hours later, on the evening of December 7, British Summer Time.

So war came to the Pacific. From the very first the pace was set by Japan, who possessed many solid advantages. She was fighting on interior lines; her bases were numerous and excellently placed for the aggressive strokes she contemplated. The mandated Carolines, Marshall and Mariana islands in the central Pacific lay right athwart America's communications with the Philippines; the occupation of the Chinese coast, of Indo-China and now of Siam—whose resistance to the invader was of only a few hours' duration—made Japan's descent on Hongkong, Malaya, and the Netherlands Indies a matter of no great difficulty. At the same time her own islands lay well removed from the main battle zone, remote beyond hundreds of miles of sea across which ranged the squadrons of a navy that had long ranked third in the list of the world's navies.

Strategically then, Japan was excellently placed. The Japanese armies were numerous, well-trained and practised in the art of war, fanatically zealous. It is true that economically Japan was weak in many of the raw materials that are also war materials—coal and iron and oil in particular; but she had used up the years of preparation to good purpose. So it was that Japan struck hard, with swift efficiency, not in one place but in many. Her aim, it was clear, was to cripple her foes at the outset by seizing or putting out of action their principal bases; this done, to proceed with the conquest of those territories which were rich in all the natural wealth which Japan herself lacked.

The attack on Pearl Harbour was a knock-out blow. This was made clear even in the preliminary report issued by Secretary Knox after a visit of investigation. The report of the commission charged by the President to allocate responsibility accused the two responsible commanders of dereliction of duty and stated that they had received many warnings of possible hostilities for months past. Admiral Kimmel had been warned by Admiral Stark, Chief of Naval Operations, ten days before the attack that Japan was expected to make an aggressive move within a few days. On the same day the U.S. Chief of Military Intelligence advised Army officials in Hawaii that peace negotiations with Japan "have practically ceased; that hostilities might commence, and that subversive activity might be expected." There were subsequent warnings, the report continued, in the next few days, but these "did not create in the minds of responsible officials in the Hawaiian area apprehension as to the probable imminence of air raids." (Admiral Kimmel and Lieut-General Short were relieved of their commands nine days after the Japanese attack; later it was announced that they would be court-martialled.)

The preparations at the great American naval base were woefully inadequate. Admiral Kimmel and Lieut-General Short lived and moved (it would seem) in almost watertight compartments; what the one did was seemingly of little or no concern to the other. An attack by Japanese submarines and the possibility of sabotage by Japanese in Hawaii had been envisaged and guarded against to some extent, but the chances of Japanese air raids were thought by the

MIDGET TWO-MAN SUBMARINE SUNK AT PEARL HARBOUR

This frail underwater craft was shelled and slammed by U.S. warships during the attack on Pearl Harbour. Left, the aft compartment, where the motor was fitted. Right, the submarine after being raised. It may well be described as a death-trap. Similar vessels were used in a Japanese raid on Sydney Harbour on the night of June 7, 1942.

Photos, Associated Press
THE ENEMY TOO HAD CASUALTIES AT PEARL HARBOR

Left, a Japanese dive-bomber comes down in flames on December 7, 1941. At the right, an enemy torpedo-bomber after salvage from the bottom of the Harbor later in the month. In all, the Japanese lost at least 88 aircraft on the morning of the 7th—28 by naval action and 60 destroyed by army fighters.

Photos, Keystone; Associated Press

Local commanders to be slight. The attack when it came was therefore a complete surprise.

Shortly after 6:30 a.m. on December 7, a small Japanese submarine was sunk by a U.S. patrol plane and the U.S.S. "Ward" in the prohibited area off Pearl Harbour. Yet, though a destroyer was dispatched to investigate no alert warnings were issued. Even the anti-torpedo net across the entrance of the harbour, normally closed during the hours of darkness, was left open after permitting the entrance of two U.S. minesweepers just before 5 a.m., with the result that a midget Japanese submarine of a novel type was able to penetrate the harbour, where it was sighted at 7:45 a.m. and sunk about an hour later. A third small submarine grounded in Kaneohe Bay and was captured. Still no alert was issued, but at 8:02 a.m. the net was closed.

No permanent installations of aircraft warning systems had yet been completed, and the temporary systems which had been provided had shut down at 7 a.m. One N.C.O. under training had remained at the listening-station, and at 7:02 a.m. he happened to pick up what he thought was a large flight of aircraft slightly east of north of Oahu, at a distance of about 120 miles. This was reported 18 minutes later to an inexperienced lieutenant at the central information centre, who "assumed that the planes were friendly planes and took no action." Actually they were Japanese planes—in the first phase of the devastating assault on Pearl Harbour and all air bases on Oahu.

Much of the account that follows is taken from a report on the Pearl Harbour disaster issued a year later by the U.S. Government. At 7:55 a.m. Japanese dive-bombers swarmed over the Field and Army air base at Hickam Field and the Naval air station on Ford Island. A few minutes earlier the Japanese had struck the Naval air station at Kaneohe Bay. Some seconds later enemy torpedo planes and dive-bombers swung in from various sectors to concentrate their attack on heavy ships at Pearl Harbour. The enemy onslaught, based on exact information and aided by surprise, was very successful.

In the first phase 21 torpedo planes made four attacks, while 30 dive-bombers came in eight waves. Fifteen horizontal bombers also took part. A battleship ready with its machine-guns opened fire at once, and was progressively joined by the remaining A.A. batteries as all hands were called from General Headquarters. The machine-guns brought down two and damaged others of the first wave of torpedo planes. Practically all the battleship A.A. batteries were firing within five minutes; cruisers within an average time of four minutes. Destroyers, opening up machine-guns almost immediately, averaged seven minutes in bringing all anti-aircraft guns into action. The lag of some minutes in building up fire power...
CRUSHING DISASTER AT PEARL HARBOUR

This unique photograph, taken on December 7, 1941, from one of the attacking enemy aircraft, shows the Ford Island base at the height of the onslaught; in centre background is the battleship "Utah" lying on its side (close-up at left, below). On far side of island smoke rises from an aircraft carrier (two cruisers near by, one leaking oil); a towering column of water is visible at centre, thrown up by an exploding bomb. Below, right, pall of smoke from the burning battleship "Arizona." An arrow shows an enemy bomber evading the A.A. shell-bursts.

Photos, Associated Press: Wide World: Planet News
spell disaster. Sufficient damage was done by the enemy in those precious minutes to prevent any adequate distance by gunners thus taken at a disadvantage. Fighter defence had been ruled out by the prior enemy attack on Naval and Army air stations. Out of 202 Naval aircraft on Oahu Island 150 were permanently or temporarily disabled by the enemy's concentrated assault, most of them in the first few minutes. Thirty-eight took to the air, the others being blocked off from runways or being ready. "Too late in the day" was the official statement put out. By a remarkable coincidence, 18 reconnaissance-bombers from a U.S. aircraft carrier on route arrived at Pearl Harbor during the attack; four were shot down and the rest (except one) immediately took off again to meet the enemy. On the Hickam and Wheeler airfields of the Army Air Force 66 fighter aircraft were destroyed, besides 23 bombers and eight other types. There were 202 Army aircraft in all on the island, but owing to damage to hangars and runways very few were able to take off in defense of the Harbour.

At Pearl Harbour, there were 86 warships of the Pacific Fleet, not counting small craft (no aircraft carriers were present). They included the battleships "Arizona," "Oklahoma," "California," "Nevada" and "West Virginia"—all of which were either sunk or damaged so severely that they would be out of action for some time.
LAST SUPPLIES TO REACH WAKE ISLAND GARRISON

Wake Island, the mid-Pacific U.S. Naval base, was first bombarded on December 8, 1941, simultaneously with attacks on the other distant outposts of Midway and Guam. (See relief map in page 192.) The tiny Wake Island garrison held out until December 22, in face of merciless bombing.

Photo, Wide World

In addition the destroyers “Shaw,” “Cassin,” and “Downes,” the minelayer “Oglala,” the target ship “Utah,” and a large floating dock were in like plight. Three other battleships—“Pennsylvania,” “Maryland,” and “Tennessee”—and the cruisers “Helena,” “Huskow,” and “Raleigh” were damaged.

The first phase of the Japanese attack lasted half an hour. From 8:30 a.m. to 8:40 a.m., there was a comparative lull, though there was a sporadic attack by dive-bombers and horizontal bombers. The onslaught of 15 minutes was ended by the appearance of horizontal bombers, which crossed and recrossed their targets from various directions and caused serious damage. While the horizontal bombers were thus engaged, dive-bombers reappeared—probably the same ones that had taken part in the earlier attacks. This second phase, lasting about half an hour, was devoted largely to what the report calls “strafing.”

All enemy aircraft retired by 9:45 a.m.

The number of Japanese aircraft engaged was estimated at 160 (torpedo-planes, dive-bombers, and horizontal bombers). “Undoubtedly,” says the report, “certain fighter planes were also present, but these are not distinguished by types and are not included in the above figures. The enemy lost 28 aircraft due to Navy action, and the

mon Killed and 876 wounded; a year later 900 more were still reported missing. Army casualties totalled 226 killed and 390 wounded.

Eight days after the disaster a brief official report by the Secretary of the U.S. Navy announced that the battleships “Arizona” (26 years old), the destroyers “Shaw,” “Cassin,” and “Downes,” the target ship “Utah,” and the minelayer “Oglala” had been

FORD ISLAND NAVAL AIR STATION, DECEMBER 7, 1941

At 7:55 a.m. Japanese dive-bombers attacked the U.S. air stations at Pearl Harbour and in a few minutes destroyed most of the grounded aircraft. Here is the same at Ford Island: wrecked and burnt seaplanes show up against a third background of flames from an explosion.

Photo, U.S. Navy Official
TRAIL OF THE RAIDERS IN LUZON

When Manila was bombed for three hours on December 27, 1941, the ancient church of Santo Domingo (1), in the walled city, was wrecked and set on fire. Cavite, the U.S. Navy Yard, headquarters of the Asiatic Fleet, was attacked on the 29th; a stream of civilian refugees is seen in (2); and burning barges at the dockyard in (4). Instances of attacks on non-military targets are given in (3), where U.S. soldiers examine wreckage at Parañaque, outside Manila; and (5), the market place at San Pablo, about 40 miles from the capital, after a very heavy attack on Christmas Day.

Photos: Keystone, Associated Press, Planet News
DEMOLITION TO COVER MACARTHUR'S WITHDRAWAL

Behind the American and Filipino columns, as they made their way towards the Bataan Peninsula, special units (including many Filipinos) blew up bridges and destroyed roads in the path of the advancing enemy. Filipinos are here placing charges to complete the destruction of a railway bridge on Luzon.

Photo L.N.A.

Guam, southernmost of the Marianas Islands, of which the rest were held by the Japanese under mandate, was a naval and air station. The Washington Treaty had precluded fortifying it, and though this Treaty expired in 1967 it was not till early in 1941 that the United States began its construction in earnest. The garrison was about 600 military and marines. Guam was attacked by air on December 8, and its last message was received on the 10th. From Japanese claims it appears that the port of Apra was taken on the 10th, and that Agaña (the capital) fell next day. 350 prisoners (including the Governor, Admiral McMillan) were taken. The minesweeper "Penguin" was sunk in the opening attack, which also demolished the cable office.

Wake Island was a fueling station for warships and aircraft, and had an area of about a square mile. Situated roughly midway between the Philippines and Hawaii, it was an emergency landing ground, armed with a few 5-inch guns and having a garrison of about 400 Marines, with a dozen aircraft. Eight aircraft were destroyed by the first Japanese raid, on December 8. After two further air attacks next day there was a naval bombardment on the 10th,
proceeded at dawn by another raid from the air. The defenders' guns put up a brave show, sinking three destroyers and a light cruiser. One more of their own aircraft was destroyed. The enemy made another attempt at a landing on the 11th, but retired with the loss of a submarine. But bombing attacks went on by night and day, and soon every building on the tiny outpost was demolished. The final and overwhelming assault came on December 22: many bombers took part, and Japanese destroyers shelled the defenders. Out of the two remaining aircraft one was destroyed and the last came down with its pilot wounded. In their last message towards the garrison said that they had disabled two enemy destroyers. The Japanese landed on the morning of the 23rd.

At Midway Island the story was different. A Japanese cruiser shelled the station for half an hour and withdrew. A Naval force was built up and the enemy, preoccupied by other more urgent operations elsewhere, made no serious attempt to capture Midway until six months later. Then on June 4, 1942, a large-scale naval attack was repelled by U.S. forces under Admiral Nimitz, who inflicted heavy losses on the enemy. An account of this will be found in a later Chapter.

Concurrently with the operations against Hawaii and the mid-ocean American outposts there was a lightning attack upon the Philippines. Aircraft on Luzon, about 40 miles from Manila, were bombed, and most of the packed aircraft destroyed on December 8. Two days later the principal Naval base, at Cavite, was wrecked. Airfields had been seized by the enemy in the north: on the 22nd large numbers of Japanese (estimated at 50,000) were landed in the Gulf of Lingayen and the main assault began. American and Filipino forces under General Wainwright fought a delaying action and retreated slowly southward, covering the withdrawal of the main defending forces into Bataan. A few days later the enemy landed at Antimena, on the isthmus, about 70 miles south-east of Manila, and at two places even nearer the capital. Though Manila was declared an open city on the 28th it was heavily bombed for days afterwards. Corregidor, the island fortress in Manila Bay, was bombèd on December 29. Manila was evacuated on the first day of 1942, and the Japanese occupied the city on January 3. A detailed account of the campaign in the Philippines is given in Chapter 210.

MASTERPIECE OF SHIP SURGERY

Though the U.S. Fleet at Pearl Harbor was crippled by the surprise attack on December 8, 1941, it made an amazing recovery. The destroyer Shaw (top) received a direct hit and settled down awa"
BRITAIN AT BAY IN THE PACIFIC

In this Chapter we give a broad though brief survey of the strategic background of the many-pronged Japanese attacks in the opening weeks of the campaign, with special reference to the assault upon British possessions and protectorates. The disaster at Pearl Harbour has been described in Chapter 197, while the campaign in the Philippines is the subject of Chapter 210. For the Battle of Hongkong see Chapter 199, and for the Malayan campaign Chapter 205.

The stealthy moves by which Japan made ready for open war upon British, American and Dutch possessions in the Pacific and the Far East are described in Chapter 196. The sudden onslaught upon American outposts was the subject of the Chapter that precedes the present one. After Vinny's acceptance of Japan's proposals for the settlement of the dispute between Siam and Indo-China on March 2, 1941, the advance of Japanese policy to attack in the southwest Pacific became clear. The surrender of more bases in Indo-China to Japan after an ultimatum on July 23 completed the move which had begun in the previous September, when Indo-China, helpless since the collapse of France, had given way to Japan's first demand.

The storm was about to break, but still it seemed that the Japanese might really be looking to the north in the hope that Russian preoccupation in the west would give them occasion for attacking in Manchuria. Moreover, it was thought that until Germany's Russian campaign had been crowned with success Japan would refrain from embroiling herself with the two greatest naval powers in the world. So Mr. Cordell Hull's warning to Japan on August 6 and, eventually, the dispatch of Mr. Kuruma as special peace envoy to Washington were taken to imply a reluctance in Tokyo to proceed to extremes. The accession of General Tojo to the premiership on October 18 was ominous: for the first time the militarists had been able to put one of themselves at the head of the Cabinet and thus to set the seal on complete control of Japan's foreign policy.

Even then it is doubtful whether the two English-speaking democracies credited Japan with so cynical a disregard of decency as to couple Mr. Kuruma's mission with lavish preparations for war. Yet, as the Chinese could have told them, such duplicity was true to form. The event showed that elaborate plans, which enabled Japan to strike simultaneously on December 7 at the Hawaiian Islands, at Midway Island, Wake Island, Hongkong; the Philippines, Siam and Malaya, must have been in train even before Mr. Kuruma departed from Tokyo. The chain blow in this multiple threat fell at Pearl Harbour on December 7, when Japanese aircraft effected a surprise and inflicted heavy losses on the U.S. Pacific Fleet stationed there, this being formally embodied in a ten-year Treaty on December 21.

On December 8, too, the Japanese made their first raid from the air on Singapore. By landing just north of Kuantan they were able to make a double attack in North Malaya, owing to the rapid advance of troops through Siam, the railway being used to bring their forces right up to the Malayan border. Effective fifth-column work and long-thought-out arrangements for coping with the Malayan terrain (which held no secrets for the Japanese) enabled them to overrun Kedah and the northern region and throw out an early fender into Burma, where, in its southernmost tip, the British garrison had withdrawn from Victoria Point after destroying the aerodrome. On December 17 a mass air raid was launched against Penang. The comparatively small garrison in the north of Malaya was involved in confused fighting, but could not hold the invaders.

In this theatre of war the Japanese had profited by a major success at sea. On December 9 H.M.S. "Prince of Wales," flagship of Admiral Sir Tom Phillips, the new Commander-in-Chief of the Far Eastern Fleet, and H.M.S. "Repulse," with four small destroyers, had penetrated into the Gulf of Siam in the hope of meeting the Japanese fleet and destroying transports. Unaccompanied by an aircraft carrier, this naval force sought to surprise the Japanese. The risks were great, but great, too, would have been the achievement of sinking Japanese transports and putting capital enemy ships out of action.

Unfortunately the risks materialized. Bombers and torpedo aircraft attacked and both the "Prince of Wales" and the "Repulse" were sunk. (See Chapter 189.)

The disappearance of British naval power in the Far East—for that was the consequence of the loss of those two fine ships—removed the last obstacle to Japanese invasion. In Borneo three enemy landings were reported on December 17. Gallant work was done by the small naval and air forces of
COMMANDED AUSTRALIAN IMPERIAL FORCES, MALAYA

Lieut.-General Gordon Bennett, C.B., D.S.O., is here seen reviewing Australian troops at Kuala Lumpur. When Singapore fell on February 15 he was taken prisoner but escaped to Johore and eventually made his way to Sumatra, whence he managed to reach Sydney, N.S.W.

Photo: Paul Peppe

The Netherlands East Indies—their submarines struck at the enemy in the South China Seas and in the waters around the Philippines.

The loss of Kota Bharu in Kelantan with its airfield on December 10 was a severe blow to the defence of Malaya. The invaders were now pressing down the west coast of the peninsula as well as the east. Heavy fighting was reported in Kedah on December 12; then on December 18 it was announced that the defenders had withdrawn from Kedah and Province Wellesley and were reorganizing south of the river Krian. Then Penang was evacuated, and on December 19 it was stated in Singapore that a complete evacuation of the island had been carried out. So far as possible it was "searched," but the process was rendered difficult by what Mr. Bissaker, a member of the Penang Legislative Council, described as the "evaporation" of the native civilian population in the face of continuous Japanese bombing; the essential services were disrupted, and there seemed "looting, pollution, dirt, stink, debris, rats, blood — innumerable horrors which cannot be mentioned."

Throughout the campaign in Malaya, indeed, the native populations, with the honourable exception of the Chinese colony, for the most part performed the role of largely disinterested spectators.

By December 29 Ipoh had fallen, and at the end of the year the Japanese had Kuantan and Selangor in their hands. Penang had fallen on December 13, giving the Japanese command of the northern end of the Straits of Malacca and an outlook on the Bay of Bengal. Tenasserim received its first air raid on December 11—the harbinger of the attack on Burma, where on December 25 the Japanese raided Rangoon from the air. They were brilliantly checked by the combined operations of the Royal Air Force and the American Volunteer Guard attached to the Chinese Command.

Hongkong Island is about 32 square miles in area. The Colony includes an additional 390 square miles of leased territory on the mainland barely a half-mile away. The total population of nearly 2,000,000 had been swollen by the influx of refugees since the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937. The Island consists of a ridge of hills rising to 2,000 ft. In peacetime Hongkong, with excellent sea, air, radio and telegraph communications, was one of the big Far-Eastern world ports. By rail from Kowloon (the leased territory) it was within two hours' journey from Canton, which, however, had been in Japanese hands since the end of 1937. Communication with Chungking had been since established and maintained by air, despite occasional Japanese attack.

Under the Washington Treaty, 1922, Great Britain undertook to refrain from heavy fortification of Hongkong, but Japan's refusal in 1935 to adhere to the limitation of naval strength freed Great Britain from that obligation. The time factor and the necessities of diplomatic exigency prevented adequate attention to Hongkong's defence needs in the light of the conditions created by Japan's occupation of China, and the development of aerial warfare. Hongkong had no aerodrome capable of housing the fighter planes which alone could deal with a Japanese threat from the mainland. Unless Kowloon could be held the task of defending Hongkong was impossible. Moreover, the capture of Canton and the advance of the Japanese troops to within easy reach of the Kowloon frontier in the course of Japan's operations against China had accentuated the danger to Hongkong if Japan should enter the war on the side of the Axis. The seizure of Hainan Island, in violation of Japan's treaty engagements with France, and the occupation of the Spratly Islands (brought under the administration of Formosa in the early stages of the Sino-Japanese War) further accentuated Hongkong's danger.

Reinforcements of the garrison by the dispatch of Canadian troops to supplement the British and Indian troops stationed on the Island and in Kowloon had indicated a desire to hold Hongkong as long as possible, but if a...
U.S. COMMANDERS IN THE PHILIPPINES

General Douglas MacArthur (right) had served in the Philippines for years and had acted as President Quezon's advisor in building up a native defense force. When he was ordered to Australia in February 1942 he handed over the command to Major-General Jonathan Wainwright (left), who by a fighting retreat had held off the enemy while the main forces were withdrawn into Bataan.

Photo, Kayotuna
PEARL HARBOR VICTIMS

The U.S.S. "Shaw" was one of three American destroyers put out of action at Pearl Harbor on the morning of December 7, 1941; the top photograph was taken as her magazine exploded. Yet, despite the destruction in her bow, she was salvaged and later put again into active service (see illus. in p. 1976). The battleship "Arizona," seen below on fire after the bombarding, was the only warship to become a total loss out of 19 sunk or badly damaged on that occasion.

PHOTO: U.S. NAVY Official Photo, News
PROUD WARSHIPS REDUCED TO WRECKAGE AT PEARL HARBOR

In a few minutes on the morning of December 7, 1941, Japanese dive-bombers and torpedo-planes destroyed battleships and lesser craft and damaged scores of others. Here, in foreground, are the destroyers 'Downes' (left) and 'Cassin,' the latter a jumbled mass of wreckage. Behind, the flagship 'Pennsylvania,' which suffered relatively light damage.

Photo, U.S. Navy Official
AIR STRATEGISTS' GRIM PROPHECIES COME TRUE

Between 7.55 and 9.45 a.m. on December 7, 1941, the American Pacific Fleet in Pearl Harbour was put out of action by Japanese bombers and torpedoes, even battleship and most of the aircraft being disabled. In white circle an enemy bomber is diving down through the column of smoke rising from the shattered battleship 'Arizona.' At the left are smoke clouds rise from the floating dock, where the magazine of the destroyer 'Shaw' had just exploded, and from the Navy Yard. Further left are Hickam Airfield and Schofield Barracks.

Photo, U.S. Navy Official
The siege of three months could have been maintained that probably was the limit set to its endurance. The air factor and the use made by the Japanese of their control of the Chinese littoral in Kwantung and Formosa rendered even that modest claim untenable. Hongkong Island had been in British hands since January 1841, when a small fishing community of a few thousand inhabitants, it had been handed over by the Chinese Government under the Convention of 1860 with a leasing of further adjoining territory on a 99 years' tenures in 1898. So the centenary year of Hongkong's history coincided with its tragic fall to Japanese attack.

When the enemy moved on December 7 the situation in Hongkong developed adversely for the defence with catastrophic rapidity. Within twenty-four hours after the first attack Kowloon, the leased territory on the mainland, was overrun by Japanese invaders after a gallant defence in which Third troops distinguished themselves. Retirement to the island fortress of Hongkong transformed defence into a forlorn hope. Naval craft had had to be withdrawn, and the Japanese occupation of Kowloon made Hongkong's position desperate. The Kowloon garrison held out until December 15, but before then—on December 9—Japanese aeroplanes had already started to attack the island, and Japanese troops to seal it under cover of artillery located on the mainland. On December 19 Hongkong was isolated and Japanese forces had already made a landing, to meet with heavy opposition from the British, Canadian and Indian troops composing the little garrison, in which too, British and Chinese volunteers played their gallant part. Chinese forces behind Kowloon attempted to create a diversion from Canton, but events moved too fast for this effort to succeed. (See Chapter 199 for detailed account.)

On December 22 the Japanese managed to get a foothold on the northeast of the island and, with the other forces already in position, to make a triple attack which split up the defending forces. By December 23 the water-supply was virtually finished. Just before 5th, at Kowloon, the Japanese received the surrender of the Governor on their own terms. Hongkong depended for its water-supply mainly on Kowloon, across the water—far more than Singapore did in respect of the waterworks on the mainland at Johore Bahru. To both places this remote water-supply proved the Achilles' heel of the defence.

Summing up the position at the turn of the year, it may be said that resistance in the Philippines was coming to an end; Hongkong had fallen; Singapore had yet to be added to the Japanese bag, but martial law had already been declared in the doomed city—the actual order being issued on December 30. Four days earlier General Pownall had taken over the Far East Command from Air Marshal Sir Robert Brooke-Popham. The attack on Burma could not be fully developed until the Japanese had disposed of Singapore and had made good their intention to occupy Sumatra and Java.

There remains China. For a full understanding of the Allies' strategy and some knowledge of China's long struggle...
against Japan is necessary, and an account of this conflict is given in Chapter 200. The primary objective in Japan's attack on the British and American possessions in the Pacific was undoubtedly the Burma Road. The "liquidation" of the "China Incident" was plainly declared to be the chief aim of Japanese war policy. The fall of Hongkong and the completion of Japanese hegemony in the International Settlement of Shanghai were serious blows to the Chinese, who had been actually at war with Japan ever since July 1937, and had been the victims of Japanese aggression since September 1931. In Hongkong had been gathered the headquarters of the Chinese Maritime Customs and other organs of the Chinese administration. Through Hongkong, for a long time, China had had a precarious but definite link with the outside world. That link being cut, the Burma Road and the thin and uncertain highway to Russia in the north-west remained.

Chinese troops were promptly made available to join in the defence of Burma, but the absence of land communication between Burma and India was a grave handicap. A railway survey had been made in the distant past, but construction had not been sanctioned because the cost made it improbable that the line could be commercially profitable in view of the cheapness of sea communications. Moreover, the defence of Burma had not been regarded as a formidable problem, owing to the difficulty of the north-east frontier and the good relations existing between the Chinese and the British Empire. In 1943, when Kelantan and Trengganu had been transferred from the protection of Siam to that of Great Britain and became part of Malaya in return for abandonment of extraterritorial privileges in Siam, it had been thought that a similar agreement could be arrived at in respect of Patani, thus making the boundaries of Malaya and Burma comterminous. This would have given British control to the isthmus of Kra and to Singora, the only port on the China Sea on the east coast. The defence of the Malayan peninsula would have been greatly facilitated thereby.

After the war of 1914-18, when railway communications from India extended into Persia, there was for a short time discussion of the possibility of building a trunk line through Baghdad from Constantinople to Quetta, across India and Burma to Singapore. Diplomatic reasons led to the withdrawal of the Durzad extension of the Indian railways into Persia, Patani remained in Siamese hands, and the Indo-Burma railway project was pigeon-holed. Thus the position of the Burma Road after the Japanese occupation of Malaya was bound to become serious. It was plain that Burma would be frontally attacked with the object of putting the road out of commission and so inflicting on the Chinese a further deadly blow. The hope behind this objective was one other than that of so discouraging General Chiang Kai-shek that he would be amenable to overtures on lines which he had stoutly rejected when he and his countrymen were alone in their struggle against Japan.

Japan's drive to the south-west Pacific had begun with a startling series of successes in which surprise was the chief ingredient. It is admitted that at Pearl Harbour the Japanese caught their opponents off guard. That could not be said of Hongkong or Malaya. But deft use of diplomatic pressure at all points of contact with British authority in the Far East had given the Japanese considerable advantage. Observers in Japan knew that the Germans and Italians, ever since the war in Europe had broken out, had been gaining an ever-increasing ascendancy over the Tokyo Government. Japan had made a blustering attempt to overawe the Netherlands East Indies without success. Yet she had other strings to her bow. Relying on the unwillingness of the British Government to add to its war commitments, especially after the collapse of France, she exploited to the full the technique of what came to be known as fifth column work in every

RANGOON RAIDER BROUGHT DOWN

Burma had its first air raid on December 21 at Toungoo, and 14 days later came the first heavy attack on Rangoon, where the docks were the target. Over 500 people were killed, and much damage was done to houses in the neighbourhood. Here are the remains of a Japanese bomber shot down.

Photo, Kyaukme
British possession where she had consular offices.

In Malaya and Burma (and in a less degree in India) Japanese traders, and especially barbers and photographers, had long established themselves. In Shanghai Japan had rapidly developed plans for control of the International Settlement, and some of the foreign press received direct or indirect subsidies from her. In Singapore there was the Japanese golf club, stimulated by the ban on Asiatic membership in other institutions. There was also an evening English-language newspaper edited by an Englishman with a Japanese Foreign Office diplomat openly at his elbow. Japanese owned estates in Malaya, Borneo and Java. Japanese fishermen went far afield, not only to the coast of western America, but even to the verge of Singapore's littoral. Penetration in Siam had been rapidly increased, especially after Japan's mediation between that country and Indo-China.

In this crisis British administration in Malaya was at a grave disadvantage. It was many-headed, and covered territory not all of which was directly under British control. There were curious complications in both military and civil jurisdiction. Into this variegated picture came the British Ambassador at Tokyo, fighting a diplomatic rearguard action; the British Ambassador at Chungking, the British Minister at Bangkok and the British Consul-General in Batavia, none of whom would take exactly the same view of the Malay authorities' needs. Late in the day a Minister of State was sent out to Singapore, but he arrived just as the curtain was about to ascend. On the top of all this the menace to Australia had to be taken into account. Reinforcements had been sent from Singapore to India and Australia during 1940. The impregnability of the naval fortress had been publicly affirmed. The arrival of these reinforcements was taken to mean that measures were being taken to secure the hinterland had been addressed. Burma also received a certain addition to her defence in the air and on land. At the end of the year, therefore, the belief existed that Burma might hold out. Even Singapore's swift surrender was not foreseen by the general public.

Burma's position deserves examination, although its desperate plight did not become evident until 1942 had arrived. Separated from India administratively in 1887, the country had been given the status of an Indian autonomous province without the support of a central government. "Burma for the Burmans" was the political axiom on which successive Burmese Ministries endeavoured to work. Political malaise—chiefly showing itself in hostility to the large Indian element in the population, necessary though this was for the trade and commerce of a people who preferred leisurely ways of life— handicapped the administration. The main difficulty was the inadequacy of the garrison once the outer bastions of British power in the Far East had gone. The defence of Burma was within the jurisdiction of the Commander-in-Chief Far East. It was transferred to India after the Japanese had struck.

How was it that the admitted significance of Singapore as a key to Indian defence (including that of Burma and Ceylon) and to the security of Australia found such scant reflection in the ability of its defenders to retain it? The fall of France is the answer. That disaster not only presented Great Britain with an urgent need to preserve her own security and to restore the situation in the Middle East, where French naval and military support had been so vital, but it also created in Indo-China a menacing weakness of which the Japanese quickly showed their desire to take advantage. The entry of Russia into the War and the obligations falling upon Great Britain to help that hard-pressed ally still further complicated the problem of the Far East after July 1941.

Ever since Japan's attack on Manchuria British diplomacy had been making bricks without straw. In Tientsin, Peking and Shanghai Japanese aggression could be met only by steady calmness and the hope that dignity would cover inability to do more than renounce as the seeping of China's sovereignty proceeded to the ultimate...
Japan's seizure of bases in Indo-China revolutionized the position in Malaya. The heavy guns of the naval fortress might point sternly to the south and south-east across the Malacca Straits, but Japan thenceforward commanded naval and air bases which gave her access to the weak and immature airfields of Burma and the Malayan hinterland. Singapore's front had been well guarded, but the rear was open to the enemy.

No one could have imagined that Siam would prove a barrier once Indo-China permitted the Japanese to enter: the mischief went farther. Those responsible for India's defences could not be expected to foresee that, in the event of a Japanese attack, Indo-China would not be in the hands of a powerful neutral or ally, but, on the contrary, would be a ready accomplice for the enemy. When France fell and Japanese designs became apparent in September 1940 (when the first surrender was made by Indo-China), the need for bracing Great Britain to her own defence and the reinforcement of Egypt dominated British strategy. Later came the threat to India from Iraq and Persia — again helped by French defection. To have made Burma and Malaya secure, large-scale air reinforcements would have been necessary, to say nothing of mechanised land forces.

Plans for thus strengthening the British position in the Far East undoubtedly have given occasion for the characteristic Japanese development of the theme that Singapore was designed to restrict the liberty of Japan in Asia. In this double dilemma it is plain that British statesmen felt bound to take risks which perhaps were not apparent even then in their full gravity, for reports on Japan's military and aerial adventures in China did not warrant belief in the existence of such an efficiently marshalled army of all arms as suddenly emerged in the south-west Pacific.

As the operations developed during the fatal month of December it was clear that gallantry was not enough to delay the enemy. In a tropical climate British, Indian, and Australian troops fought at a disadvantage against superior enemy forces. No help could be expected from the civilian population, Malay, Indian and Chinese. What they could do, on the basis of improvisation, was done, but in the event the first Japanese air raids on Singapore showed that the experience of Malaya would be repeated. Reinforcements thrown into the island at the last minute did nothing to diminish the gravity of its plight.

So at the end of 1941 Japan's entry into the war had been crowned with spectacular success. She had introduced into naval warfare a new factor in the extended use of aircraft, either shore-based or carrier-borne, for attacks on warships at sea. By accurate timing of her offensive she had temporarily secured command of the sea. Her plan to wrest from the United Nations the resources of Malaya and the Netherlands East Indies and to secure a belt of islands from which aerial attacks could be launched on Australia, Burma and India was revealed. The Allies could not hope to rectify their position by a speedy stroke. They had first to decide upon their central plan and then to take measures to execute it. Meanwhile their forces diminished by disaster would be fighting desperately until the momentum of the enemy's assault could be slowed down. This did not happen until further losses were sustained.
Chapter 199

HEROIC DEFENCE OF HONGKONG,
DECEMBER 8-25, 1941


HONGKONG, the strategic background of which is described in Chapter 198, was one of these outposts of Empire which were tenable only as long as Britain possessed sea and air supremacy—or at least parity. The disaster to the American Fleet in Pearl Harbour on December 7 and the sinking of the "Prince of Wales" and "Renown" in the Gulf of Siam three days later gave Japan the mastery at sea; in the air, over the Pacific, Britain never had command during those fateful months.

The relief map in page 1989 gives a clear impression of the terrain: the island covers about 32 square miles, and its heights rise up fairly steeply to about 2,000 feet. On the mainland were the leased territories, covering about 390 square miles. Here, at Kaitak, was the island's only aerodrome. Added to other handicaps there was the presence of nearly 2,000,000 civilians on the island, for the normal population had become swollen by many refugees after Japan's seizure of Canton in 1937. It was no wonder that there soon appeared, in the brief official communiques, references to difficulties of rice distribution.

A "stand-by" order was issued on December 1; troops were recalled to barracks and Navy men were instructed to stand by at immediate notice. In the evening an official announcement stated:

"The Government considers it desirable that persons not required for duty in the Colony in the event of an outbreak of hostilities, and who are able to remove themselves and their families from the Colony should take any existing opportunity to do so."

A special evacuation ship was chartered, but the response from people wishing to leave Hongkong was so small that it was cancelled, and passages were booked in other steamers for the few who had registered. All Hongkong's volunteer force was mobilized on December 7. Next day the Japanese attack began with two air raids; in the first 27 aircraft took part. They dive-bombed and gunned various places on the island and around Kowloon. Japanese troops could be seen massed near the frontier of the leased territories, and they were putting up field bridges at two points, ready to cross.

The Hongkong garrison was commanded by Major-General C. M. Maltby and comprised the 2nd Bn. Royal Scots and the 1st Bn. Middlesex Regiment; a battalion of the Winnipeg Rifles and another of the Royal Rifles of Canada (under Brigadier-General J. K. Lawson); the 3/14 Bn. Punjabis and the 5/7 Bn. Rajputa; the Hongkong Volunteer Defence Force; and the normal complement of artillery, engineers, and signals units, together with Royal Navy and Royal Marine units.

During the morning of the 8th Japanese troops invaded the leased territories. There was a whole division, with another in immediate reserve, and in view of their own small numbers our troops withdrew after carrying out planned demolitions. Contact was maintained near Taipo and along the Castle Peak road, where a Chinese company of sappers took a leading part in the operations. One British Bren gun patrol ambushed a Japanese platoon in this area and wiped out the enemy, while a Japanese scout, seen signalling from what he apparently took to be a normal mound, was blown sky-high when the concealed British mine beneath him was exploded.

There was no enemy advance during daylight on the 9th, but in the afternoon our troops withdrew into position on "Gindrinkers' Line"—named after Gindrinkers' Bay. Sgnt Moe Redoubt was taken by surprise Japanese attack at 11 that night (it had been held by a platoon of Royal Scots); but elsewhere the line was intact. The enemy had thus been able to establish a pocket south of Jubilee Reservoir, and next day he tried to break through towards the Taipo road. Though he failed in this, it was clear that he was now in

AFTER CANADIAN REINFORCEMENTS REACHED HONGKONG

Ottawa announced on November 16, 1941 that Canadian troops had reached the Colony to strengthen its garrison. Here Major-General C. M. Maltby, G.O.C., chats with Brigadier J. K. Lawson (right), the Canadian Commander, who was later killed in the defence of the island.

See also Illus., p. 1985.

Photo, British Official.—Crown Copyright

1987
GOVERNOR OF HONGKONG

Sir Mark Aitchison Young, K.C.M.G., went to Hongkong in 1937 as Governor and C-in-C. Since 1938 he had held a similar appointment in Tanganyika Territory. His repeated efforts to negotiate with the Japanese and his determination to hold out till the end and until he was taken prisoner made him ever famous.

Photo, British Official Crown Copyright

greater strength and using reserves, so that a readjustment of our lines was advisable. At dusk on the 10th, therefore, the Royal Scots drew back to the Golden Hill Line, near the Lat Cha Tok Peninsula, while the aerodrome at Kaitak was evacuated.

The positions on the mainland were weak, and on the morning of the 11th, strong pressure on our left flank, held by the Royal Scots, caused a reverse which was only checked by the prompt use of our scanty reserves, including a company of the Winnipeg Grenadiers. At midday the decision was taken to evacuate the mainland: that night, except for the Devil's Peak position, so under cover of darkness the small and hard-pressed units were withdrawn. Enemy groups constantly tried to turn their flank, and there was some rioting in Kowloon itself. Two companies of Punjabs who lost contact with the rest made their way to Devil's Peak Peninsula, whence they were taken off next evening with the rest of the defenders—the 57th Bn. Rajputs and a mountain battery of Royal Artillery. Stonecutters' Island had been heavily bombarded all through the 11th by the enemy, and was evacuated that night.

Thus by December 12 all our forces were back on Hongkong Island.

There was artillery bombardment at intervals during December 12, with sporadic bombing from the air, and though the civil population remained calm, their morale was shaken. It was on this day that the distribution of rice gave cause for anxiety. Next day was what the official communiqué described as "difficult": shellings grew worse, and various gun and searchlight positions were put out of action, since the enemy had all the fixed defenses accurately ranged. In Kowloon the Japanese could be seen collecting theta and launchers with which to ferry troops across to the island. The enemy commander sent a delegation with an offer of terms, his ultimatum being due to expire at 3 p.m., but this was summarily rejected by the Governor, Sir Mark Young. Hongkong was not going to be presented to Japan; she would have to pay for its conquest in blood.

So it was made clear to all the world that Hongkong would play its allotted role without shrinking. As a leader in

"The Times" put it 10 days later, the garrison held a large Japanese army in check; it inflicted on the enemy heavy losses of life and ammunition; it postponed the opening, urged by Japan, of a sheltered southward supply route beside the sea along the coast of China. There would be no surrender as long as the gallant British and Canadian troops, with the brave Indians and Chinese of the garrison, could obtain food and water to sustain them and munitions to fire at the enemy.

In a message to the Governor and defenders on December 14 Mr. Churchill said:

"We are watching day by day and hour by hour your stubborn defence of the port and fortress of Hongkong. You guard a vital link long famous in world civilization between the Far East and Europe. - - All our hearts are with you in your ordeal. Every day of your resistance brings nearer our certain victory."

Artillery duels went on throughout December 14 and 15; the enemy's shellings grew heavier and were extremely accurate and only the more recently sited of our gun positions escaped. More than half the pillboxes between Lye-man and Bowring had been put out of action by the 15th, and on Lamma Island, where the enemy had been observed two days earlier, further troops were landed.

Parties were seen approaching the High Junk and Clear Water Bay areas; near Customs House a column of enemy mechanized and mule transport was dispersed by our gun-fire, and also a troop concentration in Waterloo Road. Two further days of heavy shelling and bombing followed, and when Japanese raiders was brought down into the sea on the 16th. On the 17th came further enemy proposals to enter into negotiations for surrender. Following is the text of Sir Mark Young's reply.

"The Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Hongkong declines most absolutely to enter into any negotiations for the surrender of Hongkong and he that this opportunity of notifying Lord-General Takahashi Sakui and Vice-Admiiral Suetsugu Niki that he is not prepared to receive any further communication from them on the subject."

From Chungking there came news of a Chinese attack on the enemy in the Tamsui and Shunshin areas (only 10 and 27 miles north of Hongkong).

HONGKONG'S AIR RAID SHELTERS

The entrance to a shelter excavated in the rock. Hongkong had its first alert on December 2, when nine Japanese bombers attacked Kowloon, on the mainland. During the next 17 days there was little repulse for the garrison and the civil population, and to the horrors of air attack were added those of artillery bombardment.

Photo, Planet News
EIGHTEEN-DAY BATTLE FOR HONGKONG

On the mainland the Japanese attack began on December 8, and our troops withdrew to Hongkong Island on the 12th. During the night of December 18-19 the enemy landed in some strength at Tai-koo and Lye-mun, and in the following days extended their hold despite a most gallant defence. Our resistance ceased at 7.5 p.m. on Christmas Day.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Felix Othon

CHINESE ATTACKS

Mound was defended by a battalion of Canadians, two companies of Indian infantry and a scratch force of gunners and machine-gunniers. Lye-mun and Sai-wan were overrun, and Forts Collins and D'Aguilar were abandoned after the guns had been destroyed. A gallant but unsuccessful counter-attack was made to regain Mount Parker, Mount Butler and Jardine's Hill in the afternoon of the 18th.

Telegraphic communication with Hongkong was cut in the morning and London lost touch with the garrison, but for a time Ottawa was able to communicate with Brigadier Lawson.

A Japanese account of the landing on Hongkong Island said that the first detachment embarked at 0.30 on the night of the 18th; units landed in the N.E. part of the island, also at points N.E. of Victoria City and at the foot of Jardine’s Hill, which was taken at midnight. More Japanese detachments were ferried across later, while a 12-hour bombardment was maintained. Victoria City was occupied, and the British troops withdrew to Victoria Peak.

Communication with Hongkong was restored on the 21st, by way of Chinking, when messages were telegraphed to the British Embassy there. Sir Mark Young contradicted a Japanese story that he had left the island, and to the heroic garrison of Hongkong he gave this message:

"The eyes of the Empire are upon you."
Regiment, a determined enemy attack was thrown back.

Among Canadian casualties was the regrettable loss of Brigadier J. K. Lawson, who was killed by shellfire, together with the senior staff officer, Colonel P. Hennessey.

On December 24, raiders set alight the countryside all round Mount Cameron with incendiary bombs. Dive-bombers made unceasing attacks and there was heavy fire from mortars. Important reservoirs had fallen into the hands of the invaders, and though

"Be strong, be resolute, and do your duty."

Our forces made a counter-attack from Stanley towards Tytam Gap, but although many of the enemy were killed, the operation was not a success and we sustained about a hundred casualties. The Winnipeg Grenadiers, in the face of concentrated fire from light machine-guns and mortars, made a bold and persistent attempt to retake Wong Nei Chong Gap, but were repulsed with heavy losses.

Chungking was now in hourly contact with Sir Mark Young, who had stated that he would hold out till the end and until he was taken prisoner.

The position on December 22 was as follows: there was an isolated British force in Stanley; the enemy held ground to the east of the Gap and our own troops the ground to the west. Small groups of British soldiers were holding out elsewhere in isolated positions. Ammunition was running out and it was difficult to replenish it; the water and transport situation was now grave. All night and right up to the evening of the next day the island was bombed from the air and shelled by mortars and artillery. On Mount Cameron a position lost to the Japanese during the night of the 22nd was regained by Royal Marines, but all efforts by our troops at Stanley to drive back the Japanese towards Stanley Mound were unsuccessful. At Leighton Hill, held by units of the Middlesex

**AFTER A DOGGED FIGHT AGAINST ENORMOUS ODDS**

Top photograph, from an enemy source, shows defenders of Hongkong being marched away to a Japanese prison camp; some of the men seem to be naked. Below, Japanese artillery shelling positions on the Island from Chungking.

Photo, Keystone
the Public Works Department made superhuman efforts to repair pipes, the enemy destroyed them again and again. The garrison and population had to face observed artillery only from the mainland but from heights on the island itself. Food was very scanty, and the troops were tired out by their terrible struggle against enormous odds. The conflict could not last much longer, and in fact it ceased on Christmas Day at 7.5 p.m.

The last military action against the garrison, according to the Japanese, was taken at 5.50 p.m., when a bomb dropped its load on the besieged. The British Naval and Military Commanders had told Sir Mark Young that no further effective resistance could be made, and Sir Mark, after a parley at Kowloon with the Japanese authorities, tendered the unconditional surrender of Hong Kong. The garrison was ordered to disarm at noon on the 25th.

So the gallant defenders of Hong Kong passed into captivity. They had deserved well of any honourable enemy and one would have expected to be able to state that they met with the treatment they merited. But it seems that the Japanese were infuriated by Hong Kong’s refusal to surrender, and vengeance was wreaked on the helpless prisoners. On March 10, 1942, Mr. Anthony Eden told

a tale of stark horror to the House of Commons. He said it was known that 500 officers and men of the British Army were bound hand and foot and then bayoneted to death. Ten days after the capitulation wounded were still being collected from the hills and the Japanese were refusing permission to bury the dead. Women, both Asiatic and European, were raped and murdered.

At the end of February 1942 the Japanese Government stated that the prisoners numbered: British, 5,072; Canadian, 1,689; Indian, 5,829; others, 357.

ATTACK ON THE HONGKONG AERODROME

The Colony’s only airfield was at Kai Tak, on the mainland in leased territory (see map in p. 189). It was bombed by the enemy on December 8, 1941; top, a wide shot (note, wrecked British aircraft on ground at right); lower photograph, a bomb burst just across the airfield. Kai Tak aerodrome was evacuated on December 10.

Photo, Flight News
CHAPTER 200

CHINA AND JAPAN IN THE DECADE BEFORE THE SECOND GREAT WAR

In order to explain the sequence of events which brought Chinese troops into Burma, there to fight alongside British and Imperial forces under General Wavell's command in December 1941, a brief account of the renaissance of China and her long struggle with Japan is here presented.

Western impacts on China in the 19th and early 20th centuries coincided with the decay of authority at Peking, where, since 1644, the Manchu dynasty had ruled. After Japan's crushing victory over China in 1894, when Korea passed into Japanese protection, the formidable international intervention to suppress the Boxer Rebellion in 1900, and, above all, Japan's victory over Russia in Manchuria in 1905, the fading power of the Emperor in China gave increasing stimulus to the activities of the revolutionaries who, under Sun Yat-sen's leadership, formed the Kuomintang Party at Canton nearly 40 years ago.

Revolution plunged the country into civil war in 1911. The Kuomintang was not the undisputed authority in the new Republic which in 1912—October 10, the "Double Tenth"—took its rise on the ashes of the Manchurian Empire, when the young Emperor Hsuan Tung abdicated, after a rule of four years. Internal strife continued. Sun Yat-sen retired to leave the field to Yuan Shih-kai, whose decision to assume the imperial style was nullified by his death soon after, in 1916.

In August 1917 China's entry into the World War on the side of the Allies diverted attention from the dissolution which prevailed. When the war ended China withdrew from the Versailles Conference in protest against condonation of Japan's tenure of former German possessions in Shantung.

In 1922 the Washington Conference, in which China, Great Britain, the U.S.A., Japan, France, Italy, and the Netherlands and Portugal took part, framed the Nine-Power Treaty by which the sovereignty of China was guaranteed. Her position in Shantung was recognized, albeit in the subsequent negotiations with Japan certain claims which Japan had "jumped" in 1915 were not restored.

Meanwhile the contending ambitions of various war-lords, each of them with his separate army, delivered China over to the distractions of civil war. The masses of the people had not yet been moved by the reformist activities of the Kuomintang, whose leadership in 1924 was strengthened by reorganization. The Russian Borodin, member of the Communist International, had become adviser to the Kuomintang in 1923, and gained considerable influence. (He had spent several years in the U.S.A. and had graduated at an American university.) Sun Yat-sen died in 1925, bequeathing to the country a testament in which the constitutional progress of the new republic was outlined. First it was laid down that military operations would clear the ground by eliminating "war-lordism"; then there would be a period of political tutelage or consolidation, and when that was concluded the final establishment of constitutional government would emerge.

In 1926 General Chiang Kai-shek, who had been Sun Yat-sen's military lieutenant and the Commandant of the Whampoa Academy, put himself at the head of the Kuomintang's army to break the power of the war-lords. The campaign, which sought to create unity, lasted about five years. The seat of Government was set up in Nanking in 1928. In 1930 Chiang Kai-shek was able to regard himself as the head of a unified China, although the provinces of Kwangtung and Kwangsi in the South held aloof and a Communist regime had established itself in the fastnesses of Kiangsi. These Communist forces were eventually driven out, but succeeded in evading destruction. After a historic trek westward and then
DEFENDERS OF JEHOL AGAINST THE JAPANESE

In 1931 Japan began the seizure of Manchuria and the Chinese province of Jehol, which she later turned into a puppet state under the name of Manchukuo (February, 1932). General Tang Yu-hua, Governor of Jehol (here seen leaving his H.Q. at Chengtihuo), commanded the Chinese troops defending the province.

Photo, Topical Press

Thus, in less than half a century territory owned or controlled by Japan was increased in area from 147,000 to 765,000 square miles. Japan’s foreign policy kept step with this expansionist trend. Her alliance with Britain lasted 20 years—from 1902 until Great Britain, in deference to the new faith in collective security and to the prevailing opinions of Canada and the U.S.A., allowed it to lapse in 1922. During its continuance Japan had exploited its value to the full. There were uneasy moments, especially at that period of the last War when a German victory seemed probable to the Japanese Army, and fears that they had backed the losers oppressed many Japanese.

The Washington Conference (1922) left Japan with a feeling of soreness, but she was committed to the outward observance of the collective security idea. What was known as the Shidehara policy carried her a long way in cooperation with the Western Powers in their new treatment of China. In 1931 it seemed that this solidarity had reached a high-water mark, notably in the British negotiations for the abolition of extra-territoriality, in which not only the U.S.A. but also the other Powers (including Japan) showed sympathy.

Already the influences which were to destroy the jerry-built security of the Pacific had begun to work. In 1927 a conference of Japanese military and civil experts on Far Eastern problems

eastward to the north, they settled in Shenai, where in 1937 they finally came to terms with Chiang Kai-shek.

Modern Japan dates from 1868, when victorious clans destroyed the feudal system and restored the Emperor to executive rule, but actually put themselves in the position of governing behind the façade of his authority, to which ever-increasing divinity was outwardly ascribed. A Treaty with Russia in 1875 recognized Japan’s claim to the Kurile Islands—thus starting again an overseas expansion which had ceased some 300 years before when the death of Hideyoshi signalled the withdrawal of Japan’s armies from China. In 1879 Japan annexed the Lindia Islands.

In 1895 victory over China gave Japan Korea as well as Formosa, the Tercuadores and a foothold in Manchuria in the Liaotung Peninsula. Pressure by the German, French and Russian representatives in Tokyo induced Japan (on the advice of Great Britain) to return Liaotung to China. That decision was reversed after Russia’s defeat 10 years later, when Japan secured the southern half of the island of Sakhalin (Russian sovereignty over the whole of which she had recognized in 1875), and took over the lease of Liaotung (which by treaty China had accorded to Russia in 1888). Korea was formally incorporated in the Japanese Empire in 1910. Meanwhile Japan had strengthened her hold on Southern Manchuria, where she acquired in 1906 complete control over a zone 17 miles each side of the South Manchuria Railway line from Dairen to Changchun. After the War of 1914-18, in which she sided with the Allies—and took advantage of the position to make on China the notorious “Twenty-one Demands” in 1915—Japan secured some 2,400 small Pacific islands under mandate.

WHEN CHIANG KAI-SHEK TACKLED THE WAR LORDS

In March 1927 General Chiang Kai-shek, new leader of the Nationalist armies, broke up the Chinese Communists at Shanghai and shortly afterwards set up his own Government at Nanking. Have Nationalists at Shanghai are building a barricade; note the two-handed execution sword borne by the soldier at the right.

Photo, Topical Press
had been held at Tokyo in the premiership of Baron Tanaka, himself a specialist on Manchuria and Mongolia and the patron of Japan's stormy petrol, General Dobara. Tanaka's suicide in 1929 followed quickly on his resignation. Apart from the conferences an important event during his term of office was the assassination of China's strong man of Manchuria, Chang Tsu-chin—a crime committed under Japanese direction. In short, the real controllers of Japan were coming to the conclusion that Japan's position in the Far East had been served by a sufficient long-sustained lip-service to the international ideals of the West. They noted with secret satisfaction the effect of disarmament on the physical strength of Great Britain, the U.S.A. and France in the China seas. They had been able to create an unwilling acquiescence in the limitation of naval armaments—a limitation actually to Japan's advantage—with restrictions voluntarily accepted by Great Britain and the U.S.A. on the fortification of Hongkong and the Philippines. The spearhead of this movement against the Shidehara policy was in the Army, with the Navy a jealous yet not disapproving coadjutor.

The hoisting of the flag of revolt came on September 18, 1931, when a thinly veiled pretext—the probably "planted" destruction of a portion of the railway line near Mukden—gave the Japanese Army in Manchuria the signal for a lightning attack on the unready Chinese garrison and led to the eventual annexation of Manchuria. In due course the former Emperor of China, whose name Hong-Tung had been changed to Henry Pu-yi, was made Japan's puppet Emperor of Manchuria under the name of Kang Teh. This Manchurian "incident" sounded the death knell of the world's peace. It directly inspired the reoccupation of the Rhineland by Hitler and Mussolini's rapine of Abyssinia. It began the slide down the slippery slope of Munich, the invasion of Poland and the second World-War. Japan's policy drew her away from the Anglo-Saxon nations into the uneasy company of Germany and Italy. She was playing as always for her own hand. The seizure of Manchuria was followed steadily by encroachment southward over the Great Wall of China. In January 1932 a Japanese attack on Shanghai was unexpectedly resisted by Chinese troops. After four months' desultory fighting the Japanese armies withdrew.

In the North, Japanese penetration held its ground. Jehol had been added to the Manchurian "bag," and a buffer state of East Hopei had been created under the guise of a demilitarized zone. From it Japanese goods poured into China in breach of all agreement and, supported by forcible restraint on Chinese preventive ships operating in the Gulf of Pechili, went to swell Japanese imports free of duty. By 1935 Peking and the surrounding province of Hopei were virtually under Japanese suzerainty, General Chiang Kai-shek's Government being desperately anxious to avoid an open clash in the precarious state of China's new-found unity. In January 1936 Japanese pressure and disregard of the sovereign rights of China had reached the limit.

Relief came the next month when the Japanese military extremists temporarily overplayed their hand by a nautical attempt to seize the Emperor's person. This exploit included the assassination of three Cabinet Ministers who had incurred the Army's displeasure. The outbreak was quelled thanks to the prompt intervention of the Navy on the side of established authority. The Army soon recovered its power and in the process showed that the intentions of the militarists were in tune with its own policy. Its grip on the police and, through the police, on public opinion tightened. All signs of parliamentary government disappeared. In developing support of their policy the militarists energetically assailed the organs of free speech. They exercised never-slabbing pressure on the political parties to the point of eventual extinction. They secured control of the press and radio (short-wave sets and therefore access to outside opinion were denied to the Japanese people from 1932 onwards). They "built up" systematically the twin notion of the divinity of the Emperor and the divine origin of the Japanese people far beyond the range to which tradition had hitherto extended. This effort at hypnotizing and thus rendering more docile an always docile people was marked by increasing trampling of rights and restrictions on foreigners within and outside Japan. In China it led to the full exploitation of the weakness of British and American military strength by outrageous attacks on these nationals.

Successive changes in the personnel of the Japanese Government showed a progressive subservience to the militarists' creed. Its basis had been derived at the Tanaka Conference already mentioned: the assumption by Japan of the leadership of East Asia with a view to world dominance. The stages were to be by way of the conquest of North China, after the seizure of Manchuria and Mongolia, the eventual control of China and the advance to possession of the South-West Pacific Archipelago, including Malaya, Netherlands East Indies, India and ultimately Europe and Central Asia as the goal. By wittily concealing the fact that Japan had access to raw materials in the British Empire and elsewhere the propagandists tried to persuade their people to adopt the
Germanic fallacy which misled world opinion in the early stages of Hitler's attack on the Versailles Treaty.

When in 1935 the Reitl Ross Mission visited Japan on its way out to China for the purpose of assisting the Chinese Government's currency reform programme, Japan's financial experts were ready to cooperate in a plan from which Japan would have been the first to benefit, and indeed committed themselves to assurances in that regard. That did not suit the book of the militarists. As soon as the Mission set foot in China a military spokesman of the Japanese Army in Tsingtao, fellated against it. After that no voice in Japan dared justify support of the Mission. Japanese policy was strongly marked by a vehemently expressed fear of "Communism." To that end General Chiang Kai-shek and the Chinese Government were constantly accused of favouring communist activities. Yet it can hardly be doubted that when the came formally to sign the so-called "Anti-Comintern Pact" with Italy and Germany, Japan's leaders knew full well that they were challenging Great Britain, whose defeat at that time (September 27, 1940) they confidently expected. When, later, Germany attacked Russia, Japan was still disinclined to believe in an Axis failure. She had by the summer of 1941 made full use of technical assistance from her Axis partners: she had step by step prepared her spring board in Indo-China and South-eastern China; and she was ready to strike. Whether Germany won or lost Japan would be secure in her gains—that was the general view of her soldiers, sailors, and politicians. The record since 1931 had pointed to success after success by strokes invariably made at appropriate moments when he two chief naval rivals were otherwise preoccupied: in 1931 by the world economic depression, in 1937 by the menace of Hitlerism, in 1940 by the fall of France, and in 1941 by Germany's apparently successful invasion of Russia.

How did Japan's aggression in China fit in with this picture? The necessity for consolidating the fighting services after the military mutiny of February 1936 eased her pressure on China in that year. There was much talk of economic cooperation. A mission of Japanese businessmen seemed to promise the establishment of better relations. The Chinese, looking to the never-ending erosion of their soil, only asked that political agreement should precede the economic rapprochement. This the Japanese regarded as putting the cart before the horse. The mission returned to Japan empty-handed.

In December 1936 Chiang Kai-shek was captured by the Chinese Communist Army and held a prisoner at Sian. His release, in dramatic circumstances, which evoked a remarkable demonstration of the Chinese people, was subsequently found to presage a peaceful termination of the differences between his Government and the Communist leaders. He pledged himself to contentenque no more fighting between Chinese, and the Communists agreed to put themselves and their forces under the orders of the Kuomintang, adopting the Kuomintang badges in place of the red sickle and hammer.

As the literate recalcitrant province of Kwangtung had already joined the rest of China under Chiang Kai-shek, and Kwangsi had been mollified though not converted, the Japanese saw that China's unity was becoming the real factor in the situation. Despite their dominant role in Peking, Chiang Kai-shek was the leader to whom all China began to look. In July, after a clash between Chinese troops and the Japanese Army provocatively manoeuvring at Marco Polo Bridge near Peking, the Japanese struck. Quickly overrunning the north, they hoped that Chiang Kai-shek would accept the inevitable. But on July 20 at Kuling he bluntly told his people he was prepared to resist the invaders, provided he had a united nation behind him, and provided it was realized that defeat, blood and tears would be China's portion until time enabled her to eject the powerful invaders. He was joined in Nanking by General Pai Ching-hai, the Kwangsi leader, and fears of disunity vanished. From that time, however much the Japanese might describe it as an "incident," war between China and Japan had begun—to be merged later in the worldwide struggle against the Axis Powers.

The Chinese made their main thrust in the Shanghai area, where the
superiority of Japanese air and naval forces met with a gallant resistance. Shanghai held out for three months, during which time 100,000 Chinese fell in the Kiangwan salient alone. So the campaign developed. In Shantung early in 1938 the Chinese gained a major victory at Taiko-chang and delayed the Japanese armies by breaching the dykes of the Yellow River. Nanking fell soon after the Japanese entered Shanghai.

The Chinese people were powerless to repel the invaders by mere force of arms. They adopted the scorched earth policy to help their soldiers; and, better still, by mass migration to the west, they collected industrial and intellectual resources for the prosecution of the war in the remote hinterland when, by sheer weight of men and munitions, the Japanese had occupied the chief nerve centres of China's business and economic life. In addition to Peking, Tientsin, Taotung, Shanghai, Nanking, Canton and Hankow were in Japanese occupation by the end of 1938. The Chinese coast had been under blockade from September 1937, but the fall of Canton left China with precarious outlets to the sea. In 1939 Hainan Island came into Japanese hands and in April 1941 Ningpo and Foochow fell.

This gave added importance to the road which had been opened between Burma and Chungking in January 1939. Temporarily closed in June-September, 1940, owing to British inability to throw down the gauntlet to Japan at that time, it became the focus of Allied assistance to China, but when Japan launched her attacks on Great Britain and America her successful invasion of Malaya and Burma again cut off the road from communications with the sea.

There is no doubt that the closure of this outlet was a major objective in Japan's South-west Pacific campaign. Thus isolated as soon after the entry of the two Anglo-Saxon nations into the war on her side, China was undoubtedly disappointed, but the firmness of Allied support enabled her to resist blandishments which the Japanese hoped would succeed in inducing Chiang Kai-shek to come to terms.

During 1942 Japan seemed to have been fully justified in her belief that entry into the war would be profitable. She had succeeded in further limiting China's command of outside resources. She had set up in the South-west Pacific a chain of defences which not only gave her abundant raw materials but also provided points of vantage from which her sea-borne attacks on India, Australia and New Zealand could be developed. Soviet Russia, grappling with Germany in the West, had not been able to face war with Japan. So the Pact of Neutrality signed by Mr. Matsuoka at Moscow in April 1941 continued to govern Japan's relations with Russia, although on the Manchurian borders and in Mongolia the two countries were constantly sparring under the guise of "Mongolia versus Manchukuo."

Japan had underestimated China when hostilities started in 1937. At the same time Japanese operations on the mainland were never allowed to divert attention from the major project of preparing with the utmost care and elaboration for the great adventure. So, having driven the Chinese forces into Szechwan, the Japanese High Command was content to use the campaign for training tank troops and for testing methods of guerrilla warfare. The troops which marched through Shanghai in December 1937 to celebrate the capture of the city were nothing like the first-line forces of a great Power. That was all of a piece with the systematic processes of deception whereby Japan sought to lure the Western nations into a false sense of security. Yet Japan also underestimated the strength of her adversaries—in particular, their power of recuperation. This resulted in heavy setbacks at sea when once the U.S.A. appreciated the reality of the grim and ruthless challenge offered at Pearl Harbour.
JAPAN MAKES WAR UPON BRITAIN AND AMERICA

On the day after Japan had struck simultaneously at Hawaii, the Philippines, Malaya and Hongkong, her Emperor issued a Rescript declaring war upon the British Empire and the United States of America (printed below). We also give the Resolution of the U.S. Congress declaring war on Japan, Mr. Churchill's communication to the Japanese Chargé d'Affaires in London, and Queen Wilhelmina's Proclamation to the Netherlands. There follows the Order of the Day issued by British Commanders at Singapore.

RESINCT OF THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN, DECLARING WAR ON THE UNITED STATES AND BRITAIN, DECEMBER 8, 1941

We, by the grace of Heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on the throne of a line unbroken for ages eternal, join upon you, our loyal and brave subjects: we hereby declare war on the United States of America and the British Empire. Men and officers of our army and navy will do their utmost in prosecuting the war: our public servants of various departments will perform faithfully and diligently their appointed tasks, and all other subjects of ours will pursue their respective duties. The entire nation, with one will, will mobilize its total strength so that nothing shall misservice to the utmost limit of our war aims.

To ensure the stability of East Asia and to contribute to world peace is the far-sighted policy which was formulated by our great, illustrious, imperial grandoise and by our great imperial size, constituency, and which we take constantly to heart. To cultivate friendship among the nations and to enjoy prosperity in common with all nations has always been the guiding principle of our empire's foreign policy.

More than four years have passed since China, failing to comprehend the truth of Japan's sincerity and effectiveness of our courage, disturbed the peace of East Asia. Although there has been re-established a national government of China, with which Japan has effectuated neighbourly interaction and cooperation, the régime which has survived at Chungking, relying upon American and British protection, still continues its fraternal opposition.

Eager for the realization of their irredentist ambition to dominate the Orient, both America and Britain, in giving support to the Chungking régime, have aggravated the disturbances in East Asia. Moreover, these two Powers, inducing other countries to follow suit, incessantly military preparations on all sides of our empire to challenge as they obstructed by every means our peaceful commerce, and finally reported to direct our military forces by means of economic relations, menacing gravely the existence of our empire.

Patiently we have waited and long have we endured in the hope that our Government might retrieve the situation in peace, but to our adversaries, showing not the least spirit of conciliatory accord, they proceeded to settlement, and in the manner they have intensified economic and political pressure to compel our empire to submission thereby.

This trend of affairs would, if left unchecked, not only nullify our empire's efforts of many years for the sake of the stabilization of East Asia, but also endanger the very existence of our nation. The situation being such as it is, our empire, for its existence and self-defence, has no other recourse but to appeal to arms and to crush every obstacle in the path. Hallowed spirits of our imperial ancestors guarding us from above, we may upon the loyalty and courage of our subjects in our confident expectation that the task bequested by our forefathers will be carried forward.

The Emperor concluded by expressing the hope that "the sources of evil would be speedily terminated and enduring peace immutably established in East Asia, preserving thereby the glory of our empire."

RESOLUTION OF UNITED STATES CONGRESS APPROVING THE DECLARATION OF WAR UPON JAPAN, PASSED ON DECEMBER 8, 1941:

Whereas the Imperial Japanese Government has commenced unprompted acts of war against the Government and people of the United States of America;

Therefore the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled that a state of war between the United States and the Imperial Japanese Government, which has been thus brought upon the United States, is hereby formally declared and the President hereby is authorized to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on the war against Japan, and to bring to the conflict to a successful termination all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

COMMUNICATION DISSENTED TO THE JAPANESE CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES IN LONDON AT 12 M. ON DECEMBER 8, 1941:

Sir,—On the evening of December 7th His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom learned that Japanese forces, without previous warning either in the form of a declaration of war or of an ultimatum, with a conditional declaration of war, had attempted a landing on the coast of Malaya and landed Singapore and Hongkong.

In view of these wanton acts of unprovoked aggression, committed in flagrant violation of international law, and particularly of Article 1 of the Hague Convention relative to the opening of hostilities, of which both Japan and the United Kingdom are parties, this Majesty's Am- bussador at Tokyo has been instructed to inform the Imperial Japanese Government in the name of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom that a state of war exists between the two countries.

I have the honour to be, with high consideration,

Sir, Your obedient servant,

(W. S. CHURCHILL.)

PROCLAMATION BY QUEEN WILHELMINA OF THE NETHERLANDS TO THE PEOPLE OF HOLLAND, BROADCAST FROM BRITAIN ON DECEMBER 8, 1941:

This Kingdom considers itself at war with Japan because of the aggression, which since at the peace-loving nations one after the other, has been in our firm alliance. Now that the friendly American and British peoples are being attacked, the Kingdom of the Netherlands puts all its military power and all its resources at the disposal of the common war effort. The Netherlands did not hesitate to resist the attack with courage when they were wretchedly assailed in Europe.

ORDER OF THE DAY BY AIR CHIEF MARSHAL SIR ROBERT BROOKE-P xếp, G.C.S.I., AIR EEAST, AND ADMIRAL SIR GEOFFREY LAYTON, G.C.M.G., CHINA STATION, DECEMBER 8, 1941:

JAPAN'S action today gives the signal for the Empire Naval, Army, and Air Forces and for the Forces of the Allies to go into action with a common aim and common ideals. We are ready; we have had plenty of warning and our preparations have been made and tested.

We do not forget at this moment the years of patience and forbearance. We have borne with dignity and discipline the petty insults and incursions inflicted on us by the Japanese in the Far East. We know that these things were only done because Japan thought she could take advantage of our suppressed weakness. Now, when Japan has decided to put the matter to a stern test, she will find that she has made a grievous mistake.

Let us all remember that we here in the Far East form part of the great campaign for the preservation in the world of truth and justice and freedom. Confidence, resolution, enterprise, and devotion to the cause must and will inspire every one of us in the fighting services, while from the civilian population, Malay, Chinese, or Indian, we expect their fidelity, stickiness, and secrecy which is the great virtue of the East, and which, will go far to assure the fighting men to gain a final and complete victory.
Chapter 201

AUCHINLECK'S OFFENSIVE AND THE SIDI REZEGH BATTLES

Eighth Army Advances, November 18, 1941—Opening Clash at Sidi Rezegh—Widespread and Confused Battle—Magnificent Stand of the South Africans—Hoskins' Eastward Dash to the Egyptian Frontier—TobrukSortie—Rommel Breaks the "Corridor"—Sieg of Tobruk Raised—Tide of Battle Turns—Rommel in Full Retreat—Reconnaissances of Derna and Mechelli—Enemy Cut Off South of Bengazi—Cleaning Up at Bardia, Sollum and Halfaya—Enemy Stand at El Aghella

As first light on November 18, 1941, Britain's Eighth Army in Egypt, under the command of Lt.-Gen. Sir Alan Cunningham, advanced into Cyrenaica from the positions they had occupied since the end of May. From the coast east of Sollum to the oasis of Jaraflub far to the south they pushed ahead. British infantry and armoured formations, New Zealanders, South Africans and Indians, Free French and Poles; and before darkness fell they had effected a considerable penetration on a 130-mile front, establishing themselves along the escarpment from Sidi Omar to Bir el Gobi. "So skilfully had our fighting units been insinuated into their concentration areas," announced Cairo on the night of Nov. 19, "so good were the arrangements for deception, camouflage and dispersal, coupled with the support of our air forces, that enemy observation and interference from the air prior to and during the advance were negligible.

By yesterday evening, in heavy rain, our forces had penetrated over 50 miles into enemy territory. Up to that time little or no enemy opposition had been encountered." The next day the advance continued with marked success, and the Prime Minister was able to give the House of Commons on Nov. 20 an encouraging picture of the operations. The offensive had been long and elaborately prepared. He said: they had waited nearly five months in order that the Army should be well equipped with all those weapons which had made their mark in this new war, in which, "as in a sea battle, all may be settled one way or the other in the course of perhaps two hours." Although it was far too soon to indulge in any exaggeration, the British and Empire troops engaged could be trusted to fight with the utmost resolve and devotion, "feeling as they all do that this is the first time we have met the Germans at least equally well armed and equipped.

That same afternoon the battle in Cyrenaica was joined in earnest. British armoured forces engaged German tanks in the vicinity of Sidi Rezegh, south of Tobruk, and the enemy lost 70 tanks and 33 armoured cars in the fray. In another clash between Sidi Rezegh and Sidi Omar a further British armoured formation successfully engaged German tanks advancing from the Bardia-Gambut area. The enemy were still holding their positions between Halfaya and Sidi Omar, but British pressure was steadily making itself felt. On the 20th New Zealand forces continued their advance through heavy rain from their initial positions west of Sidi Omar. Rapidly capturing Sidi Azeb and Capuzzo, they pushed on westwards round the Capuzzo road, and by the evening they had reached positions south of Gambut, leaving a detachment to occupy Bardia, which was reported to be clear of the enemy. Meanwhile Italian troops captured Sidi Omar Nuovo, nine miles north of Sidi Omar, taking a large number of prisoners, and gradually extended their hold in the rear of the enemy's positions at Halfaya. Then the "Tobruk rats," moving out, strove hard to hold up the British attack at Sidi Rezegh.

For days and nights the tank battle raged in a vast parallelism in the desert, bounded on the north by the Tobruk-Bardia road, and on the south by the El-Abd track, some 40 miles to the south of Bardia. The battle was terrifyingly strange, such as had never been seen before in the whole long history of war. Said an R.A.F. fighter pilot who looked down on it from the air:

"Guns were blazing on all sides as those land cruisers made for each other. It was impossible to pick out from our position which was which. Most of them were on the move, but there were normal stationary and no longer firing. Several hundred of them appeared engaged in a grim show-down. It must have been a concentrated ball of steel against shell and steel against steel. It was like looking down on some prehistoric form with fire-breathing, sky-bridged mammoths pitted against each other in a terrific struggle, lumbering slowly forward, swinging this way and that, each intent upon the destruction of the other." At the close of each day's fighting there came from Cairo an account which, as it proved, was far too optimistic in its colouring. In fact, as Mr. Churchill admitted in the House of Commons on Dec. 11, "the Libyan offensive did not take the course its authors expected. . . . The picture that was made by the commanders beforehand was of a much more rapid battle. . . . They had the idea that the whole German armoured force would be encountered by our
FOR THE SECOND TIME BENGHAZI WAS OURS

On Christmas Eve, 1941, units of General Ritchie's Eighth Army entered Benghazi and armoured cars of the South African Field Force are here seen as they pass under a bomb-scarred arch into the city soon after. By January 29, 1942, our forces were again leaving Benghazi, in the face of Rommel's successful drive from El Agheila. Wavell's army had taken Benghazi on February 6, 1941, but the Germans were in again eight weeks later—April 1, 1941. (See Illus. pp. 1576-7, 1593, 1595.)

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright.
AFTER THE SORTIE FROM TOBRUK.

Many times the town of Tobruk called out to attack the enemy. At last, on December 16, 1941, a force from Tobruk made a stand at El Adem with South African and Indian troops from the north-east, and the long siege was raised. Here, at a desert medical clearing station, British wounded and many prisoners are being cared for by Red Cross workers, both British and German, while a Highland piper entertains.

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright
armour in a mass at the outset, and that the battle would be decided one way or the other in a few hours."

But though "almost at the first bound we reached Sidi Rezegh, dividing the enemy in two," the German General, von Ravenstein, whom we captured, expressed himself very well when he said: "This warfare is a paradise to the tactician, but a nightmare to the quartermaster."

At Sidi Rezegh the New Zealanders and South Africans were heavily engaged. In a bloody encounter Brigadier Barenscholz's New Zealanders of the 6th Brigade Group, temporarily attached to the 30th Corps and detailed to close the enemy's exit to the west, lost 13 out of 50 tanks, while half the 26th Battalion became casualties. The N.Z. 26th Battalion was sent to support the 5th South African Brigade at Sidi Rezegh, and were there attacked by a panzer division. The New Zealanders were able to hold their ground for a time, but after knocking out some 50 of the enemy's tanks had to be withdrawn. The South Africans, however, were overrun. From Friday to Sunday afternoon (Nov. 21-23), said General Smuts in a broadcast on Nov. 26, they fought an action comparable with the stand of the South Africans at Delville Wood in March 1918. In a struggle of the fiercest character they held their ground against repeated air, panzer and infantry attacks, made by greatly superior numbers, and kept on fighting until their ammunition was exhausted and resistance became physically impossible. They were reported to have lost 1,200 men dead, wounded and missing; but, said General Smuts, "let us not count our losses. They are the gain of South Africa."

While the South African ride men were being rounded up as prisoners, following a charge in which the German tanks had rushed on seven abreast and 10 deep, some British tanks broke through to their rescue; they were not in sufficient strength to turn the tide, but in the scrimmage a number of South Africans were able to take advantage of the confusion and make their way to the British lines.

Between November 25 and 26 what Mr. Churchill called the first main crisis of the battle developed. On the 24th General Auchinleck, the British generalissimo, proceeded to battle headquarters and on the 26th decided to relieve General Cunningham, and to appoint Major-General Ritchie, a comparatively junior officer, to the command of the 8th Army in his stead. "Since November 26, therefore," said Mr. Churchill on Dec. 12, "the 8th Army has been commanded with great vigour and skill by General Ritchie, but during nearly the whole time General Auchinleck himself has been at battle headquarters. Although the battle is
not yet finished, I have no hesitation in saying that, for good or ill, it is General Auchinleck's battle."

One of the new commander's first acts was to issue an Order of the Day.

"There is no doubt whatever that the enemy will be beaten," it read, "his position is desperate. He is trying to break out in all directions to distract us from our objective, which is to destroy him utterly. We will not be distracted, and he will be destroyed. You have got your teeth into him. Hold on. Bite deeper and deeper, and hang on until he is finished. Give him no rest. There is only one order—attack and pursued. All out, everyone!"

While terrific fighting raged over the plateau near Sidi Rezegh, while the South Africans licked their wounds and the New Zealanders continued to make hard going along the shore and over the escarpment towards Tobruk, the men in Tobruk fought to join up with their comrades battling in the desert just above them, and far to the south the 5th Indian Division, in cooperation with British and South African mechanized forces, captured Aujila and Jalo, while British mobile forces were making progress near Jarabab—Rommel on November 25 staged a diversion, possibly in the hope of relieving the pressure on his main body.

A mechanized column roared eastwards across the frontier into Egypt south of Sidi Omar. But it was seen...
BLOODY BATTLEGROUND OF SIDI REZEGH

During the nine battle that went on for a fortnight in this region Sidi Rezegh was taken from the enemy three times and lost twice. It was finally cleared of the Germans on December 7, 1941. Top left, Maj-Gen. von Ravenstein with a British staff officer after his capture on November 29. Since June he had commanded the 91st German Armoured Division. Top right, surrender of an Italian tank. Centre, tanks and mobile workshops ablaze after capture by South Africans. Below, graves of South Africans on the Sidi Rezegh battlefield. General Smuts compared the heroic action of the 5th S. African Brigade with that glorious stand of two days at Delville Wood in March 1916.

Photos, British and South Africans
Official / Crown Copyright
TOBRUK'S 200 DAYS OF SIEGE

On November 10, 1941, the Tobruk garrison struck fiercely at the invading German and Italian armies and sailed out to join the Imperial Forces. More than 2,000 of the enemy were captured, and 80 field guns; on the 27th, the men from Tobruk joined up with New Zealanders of the Eighth Army at El Duda (left). A New Zealand colonel and the commander of a Tobruk tank adjust the Union Jack at the masthead; see also illus., p. 387b. Right, a Landmater has fired a loyalty sign to the 24-kilometer post at a Tobruk exit. Below, Africa Korps prisoners on the shores at Tobruk.

Photos: British Official • Crown Copyright
THey WON THE V.C. AT SIDI REZEGH, TOBRUK AND EL DUDA

Ind. Lt. G.W. GUNN, M.C., R.H.A.
On November 21 in the Sidi Rezegh area his battery of 12 anti-tank guns engaged 60 tanks. When all but one of his guns had been knocked out he continued to work that one, though his ammunition poster had been set on fire, and hit many enemy tanks before he fell dead with a head wound.

Rifleman JOHN SEELEY, K.R.R.
On November 21, during a sharp attack at Sidi Rezegh all but one of his company officer became casualties. Taking with him a Bren gun he charged a strong-point containing an anti-tank gun and machine-guns and silenced it. His platoon could now advance. Seeley later died in hospital.

Photo: For Reproduction: A.R.U.

Lieut. P.J. GARDNER, M.C.
(Royal Tank Regt.) On November 23 near Tobruk, with two tanks he went to the aid of a armoured car under heavy fire. After repeated attempts to tow one of the cars he picked up a badly wounded officer from it and took him to safety. Capt. Gardner was later killed.

Photo: For Reproduction: A.R.U.

Capt. J. E. B. JACKMAN
(Royal Northumberland Fusiliers.)
On Nov. 25, British tanks attacking a vital ridge at El Duda were held up by gunfire. Capt. Jackman led machine-gun trucks up the ridge into action on the threatened flank. Next he drove across the front between our tanks and the enemy and secured the left flank. He was later killed.

The German communique claimed that over 9,000 British had been made prisoners to date, including three generals, and that 814 tanks and 137 planes had been destroyed or captured; the Italians for their part claimed 1,000 prisoners taken at Sidi Rezegh.

Adverse weather made operations more difficult during the next few days, but nothing could deter the bombers of the R.A.F. and their comrades of the South African A.F. Supply dumps and columns were persistently strafed, and off the coast and in the Central Mediterranean supply ships were damaged or sunk. On December 5 Cairo gave out that “the tempo in eastern Cyrenaica has again quickened,” the main incident being a series of attacks by the enemy on El Duda, South-East of Tobruk, in which the defenders had to code some ground. Italian troops were reported to have been in action near Bir el Gobi, a number of Italian tanks being destroyed; and New Zealanders shot up a German column west of Memmis.

Daily the communiques mentioned small-scale engagements: El Duda featured often, and then El Adem, where Rommel had an important airfield. Near Bir el Gobi there was a clash in the moonlight on December 6. South-east of Tobruk patrols were active, encountering little or no opposition. In the frontier areas operations against

V.C. FOR BRIGADIER CAMPBELL

Brigadier (later Maj.-Gen.) John Charles Campbell, was awarded the D.S.O. for his leadership in Libya in the summer of 1942. In December, during Wavell's offensive, he gained a lift for the south-east of Tobruk, where he organized the enemy's main tank concentrations and captured them for attack or counter-attack. He was awarded the Victoria Cross, the first of which General Auchinleck was presented with, and the V.C. for gallantry and leadership at Sidi Rezegh on November 22-24, 1941. Twice Campbell himself manned a gun, and after being wounded, he acted as leader. He was later killed in a car accident.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright
SHELL VERSUS ARMOUR—A GERMAN SOLUTION

To the age-old contest between projectile and armour the desert battles added another factor: the anti-tank gun, besides being powerful enough to pierce its opponent's armour at full range, must itself be as speedy as the tank. The enemy converted some of his tanks to self-propelled heavy guns, as seen above; but the United Nations soon countered this weapon with a mobile 105 mm. gun-howitzer, nicknamed "The Priest."

isolated enemy garrisons still holding out were proceeding satisfactorily: in the capture of the three Omars (Sidi Omar, Sidi Omar Nuovo, and Libyan Omar) Indian troops took 59 guns.

At length the situation began to show an improvement. In the communiqué of December 8 it was apparent that Sidi Rezegh was once again in British hands; here the Border Regiment were reported to have found 18 modern German tanks and much equipment lying abandoned on the ground. A New Zealand divisional dressing-station which had been overrun when the enemy rushed Sidi Rezegh a fortnight before was recovered, with some 700 wounded Anzacs still within.

NIGHT TANK BATTLE BEFORE TOBRUK

Below, German armoured cars taking part in a night engagement; the streaks of light are from tracer shells. Above, left, an American M-3 light tank racing across the Western Desert during the early days of Auchinleck's offensive; its crew was drawn from a famous Irish regiment.

Armoured patrols of the 11th Hussars working in the same area joined hands with patrols operating from Tobruk: on December 9 El Adem airfield, evacuated by the enemy, was occupied and the next day Cairo announced that British troops from Tobruk joined hands in El Adem with South African and Indian troops from the south-east, although the enemy are still in strength on the western defences. The siege of Tobruk has therefore been raised, and road communication has been opened with the east." On the same day South African armoured cars and mobile columns of Buffs, Punjabi and Rajput troops worked round the enemy's flank at Acruma.

Already there had been some movement of the enemy. Now, "under the vigorous pressure of our forces, with the fullest and most effective cooperation of our air forces," it was accelerated. The tide of battle was on the turn. Rommel, it was clear, was in full retreat.

To quote again from Mr. Churchill's review given on December 11:

"The first stage of the battle is now over. The enemy has been driven out of the
positions which barred our westward advance, positions which he has most laboriously fought for. Everything has been swept away except certain pockets at Bardia and Halfaya which are hopelessly cut off and will be mopped up or starved out in due course. It may be deduced that Tobruk has been relieved—or, as I prefer to state it, has been disengaged. The enemy, still strong, but severely mauled and largely stripped of his armour, is retreating to a defensive line to the west of the Tobruk fortress, and the clearance of the approaches to Tobruk and the establishment of our air power thus far forward to the west in new airfields enables the great supply depots of Tobruk, which have carefully been built up, to furnish support for the second phase of our offensive with great economy upon our lines of communication. Substantial reinforcements and fresh troops are available close at hand, and many of the units which were most heavily engaged have been relieved and their place taken by others, although we have to keep the numbers down strictly to the level which our vast transportation facilities permit.

The enemy, who has fought with the utmost stubbornness and enterprise, has paid the price of his valour, and I will go so far on this occasion as to say that all changes of the Army of the Nile not being able to celebrate Christmas and the New Year in Cairo has been decisively reversed."

Once Rommel had been ejected from his stronghold on the plateau south of Tobruk, he was given no rest; once Ritchie had secured the advantage, he exploited it to the utmost. The enemy, evading the withdrawal in orderly fashion through Cyrenaica was harassed by land and air, and Rommel's rearguards were hard put to it to protect the mass of infantry and supply columns. In the pursuit a great part was played by desert Commandos or "Jock columns," as they came to be styled, after their leader, Brigadier J. C. Campbell, awarded the V.C. for conspicuous gallantry at Sidi Rezegh on November 21 and 22, 1941, specially created by General Auchinleck to help the peculiar problems of the Libyan fighting. In an interview the General stated that these Commandos were new, highly mobile columns which conformed to no standard formation bitherto known in the British Army, but had proved an effective counter to General Rommel's desperate tactics of allowing small cells of tanks to circulate in the desert like raiders at sea. They varied in size and make-up, but a typical unit would consist of a few tanks, some armoured cars, a few powerful field guns, batteries of anti-tank and anti-aircraft guns, and a detachment of motorized infantry. A force of this description could move about the desert at between 20 and 30

INDIAN TROOPS CHARGE THROUGH THE WIRE TO JALO

Far from the main battle areas a mixed force of British and South African mechanised units with Indian troops pushed on across the desert to Jalo, about 220 miles W.S.W. of Jarabub and 350 miles N. of Cairo. Here the Indians are advancing through gaps made in the wire by carrier, in face of heavy fire from Breda guns and machine-guns. Jalo was captured on November 25. (See map in pp. 165-6.)

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright
EIGHTH ARMY DRIVES ON TO BENGHAZI

Following the same course as Wavell’s Army a year before, British and Imperial forces swiftly captured Derna (December 15, 1941), Sirte (December 21) and Bengazi (December 24). Top left, the end of an Italian ammunition column caught by our artillery on the outside of Derna. Right, armoured cars of the S. African Field Force on the road above ancient Sirte. Below, left, hoisting the Union Jack at Bengazi. Below, right, a wrecked enemy tank beside wheel and caterpillar tracks left by British armoured vehicles in pursuit of enemy columns.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright
miles per hour; every vehicle was self-contained, having enough rations, food, water and petrol for several days. A large number of the men in the Commandos were South Africans. "They have taken to this form of fighting naturally," said General Auchinleck, "because of the fact that the columns are based on the old South African commandos. They have been doing a great deal of damage, harassing the enemy's rear and getting round him with great success."

On December 16 General Auchinleck issued a message of congratulation to Major-General Ritchie:

"After ten days at your advanced headquarters, where I have been able closely to follow the progress of the operations you directed, I wish to tell you how greatly impressed I am by the skill and vigour with which they have been conducted. Such successes would never have been achieved without the unceasing, wholehearted cooperation of the Air Force, whose work has been magnificent throughout."

Following the breaking of the enemy's front at Sidi Rezegh, Rommel's army split into two groups, one retreating along the coast road through Derna and the other taking the more direct road across Cyrenaica through Mekitt to Benghazi. For several days hard fighting was reported to be in progress at Gazala, where a body of enemy troops was brought to bay by the New Zealanders; on December 17 this front was overcome. "All Axis forces in Cyrenaica are now in full retreat," announced G.H.Q. Cairo. The communiqué went on to state that on December 13, 14 and 15 German lorried infantry, supported by all the remaining German tanks, had delivered a number of counter-attacks, the brunt of which had been borne by the 4th Indian Division in the centre of the British line. Although the Germans had temporarily established considerable local numerical superiority, attack after attack was repelled; indeed, during three days and nights of intense fighting, in which all available German air forces were also employed in close support of their tanks and lorried infantry, the Indians and, particularly in the last two days, the 5th Indian Infantry Brigades, had actually made headway. "Aby lashed up by battalions of the 4th Sikh Regiment and 1st Poona Regiment, who had already distinguished themselves on many previous occasions, The Buffs, admirably supported by the 21st Field Regiment, Royal Artillery, played the decisive part in finally driving these German counter-attacks, in which about 20 German tanks and a number of Axis aircraft were destroyed."

On December 18 Derna aerodrome fell into British hands, and also Derna itself and also Mekitt were entered by units of the 8th Army. By day and by night British and French air forces continued their relentless bombardment of the fleeing foe. Every day that passed added to the already large bag of German and Italian prisoners, while the quantities of tanks, guns and small arms captured were described as enormous. Cirene and Apollonia fell to British mobile columns on December 21, and on the next day these columns reached the coastal plain on the Gulf of Sirte, south of Benghazi, thus cutting off the retreat of those of the enemy who were still plodding along the coastal road. G.H.Q. Cairo reported that the whole line of the Afrika
THROUGH A WINDOW IN SOLLUM

Halfaya, Sollum and Bardia were by-passed when the Eighth Army thrust on for bigger quarry farther in Cyrenaica, but their turn came early in January 1942. First, on the night of January 1-2, Bardia was taken (see lower photograph); then on the 17th Halfaya was attacked it fell on the 18th, and at the same time Traverso Scottish began the reduction of Sollum, which surrendered next day. Above, South Africans in Sollum keep watch for any enemy lurking in the houses.

Korps' retreat was interred with abandoned war material in such great quantities that it had been impossible to make a proper count.

On Christmas Eve, Benghazi, the capital of Cyrenaica, was entered by the Royal Dragoons after it had been evacuated by the enemy. The Central Indian Horse captured the adjacent aerodrome of Barce, and a mobile column, including units of the Rile Brigade and the Royal Horse Artillery, seized that of Benina. To the south, columns of the Coldstream Guards, Royal Armoured Corps, and South African armoured cars interposed themselves between the Italians still remaining in the Benghazi area and the Germans retreating towards Jedabia.

With the capture of Benghazi the whole of Cyrenaica, with the exception of a small area about Bardia and Halfaya, came under British control—this after less than six weeks' fighting, in the course of which Rommel's army of over 100,000 Germans and Italians, with three tank divisions, had been completely defeated and very largely destroyed.

That Christmas Day was spent by some British soldiers in Benghazi.

"Despite the cheerlessness of stricken Benghazi," wrote Reuters' Special Correspondent, "which presents a colder appearance than any billeted English town I have seen, our troops did what they could to celebrate Christmas festively. One unit had the supreme good luck to find two turkeys at Barce on their way home. They boiled

and biscuits. In the evening cans were sung by our men as they strolled around the town, and I saw an armoured car cruising along the street with some of the crew perched on top blowing tin trumpets out of crackers. German bombers were over at dusk, but dropped no more than half-a-dozen bombs near the harbour. After all this stretched city has experienced of late, their effort could scarcely be considered as more than a playful slap."

In full retreat from Benghazi, the main body of Rommel's army was continuously harassed by British artillery and aircraft as it passed through the Jedabia area. With swift efficiency, enemy pockets in the desert to the south were over-run, and the survivors hustled steadily westwards or put "in the bag." On December 23 the Germans turned at bay in a desperate attempt to stem the columns advancing on Jedabia. But the counter-attack failed; on that day and the next Rommel lost 22 tanks and another 20 badly damaged, as against the British loss of 14. The counter-attack was renewed on December 30, Rommel throwing into the fight all his remaining tanks with a view to preventing the envelopment of his southern flank. The effort was in vain, however, and after a few more days of persistent pressure, on January 7, 1942, Rommel took advantage of heavy sandstorms which restricted visibility and began to withdraw from Jedabia. Strong rear-guards covered his retreat, but these were successfully engaged by the

ENEMY DUGOUTS IN A WADI OUTSIDE BARDIA

Much of the fighting in the Libyan campaign took place around wadis (reinies or dry river channels) which formed natural defensive positions and, if deep enough, tank traps. Infantry of the 1st and 5th African Divisions, with the aid of British tanks, took Bardia on the night of January 1-2. Our casualties were 30; we took 9,900 Axis prisoners and freed 1,350 of our own men held captive.

Photo, South African Official.
Coldstream and Scots Guards about seven miles south-west of Jedubia. Still farther to the south the King’s Dragoon Guards and South African armoured units made a deep penetration into country only very recently held by the enemy in considerable force.

Meanwhile Bardia had fallen. On December 31, 1941, a fierce attack had been launched on the enemy’s positions by the 1st and 2nd South African divisions—the South African Police, Kaffrarian Rifles, and the Royal Durban Light Infantry, closely supported by British tanks and medium artillery, by the Polish Field Artillery Regiment; and by the New Zealand Cavalry Regiment (mechanized divisional cavalry, commanded by Colonel Nicoll).

During the night of January 1–2, 1942, the South Africans, carried by the bayonet, strongly defended localities covering the town, and at 7.30 on January 2 the Germans and Italians waved white flags at the advancing tanks and infantry. Soon Major-General Schmidt, the Axis commander, was sitting with Generals de Villiers (G.O.C. 2nd S.A. Division) in a staff car receiving (and accepting) the terms for the surrender of the fortress. Some 1,500 British soldiers were rescued from captivity, and more than 7,000 German and Italian prisoners were taken; Allied casualties totalled only 60 killed and 300 wounded.

After the subjugation of Bardia came the cleaning up of Sollum and Halfaya. For several days the enemy forces along the coast and in the hollows of the escarpment were heavily shelled by the Royal Navy and bombed by R.A.F. and Free French planes. On January 11 the 2nd South African division—the Transvaal Scottish—were singled out for special mention—drove the enemy out of most of his positions at Sollum; and next day captured the town. At Halfaya resistance continued until January 17, when the Axis garrison surrendered unconditionally to General de Villiers; some 5,000 prisoners were taken, including Generals de Georgi and Buttafusco, of the Italian 58th Savena division.

Meanwhile Rommel’s retreat was continuing to the west. Jedubia was captured on January 12, and the principal scene of fighting was now near El Aghila. Here the enemy made what was to prove a determined stand. Indeed, El Aghila marked the “furthest west” of Rommel’s retreat and Ritchie’s advance.

LACK OF WATER HASTENED THE FALL OF HALFAYA

The enemy garrison at Halfaya Pass was cut off when the Eighth Army advanced (November 21–23). It was bombed continually by the R.A.F. and shelled heavily. The capture of Fig Tree Wells (left) deprived the garrison of its water, and thenceforward it depended on scanty supplies brought each night by air from Greece. At midday on January 17 the Italian general surrendered unconditionally to Major-General de Villiers (G.O.C. and S. African Division). Among the officers captured was Major the Reverend Bache (seen above on right with General Rommel), the German commander who was in virtual charge at Halfaya.

WHERE BRITISH PRISONERS WERE HELD AT HALFAYA

British and imperial troops captured by the enemy were kept prisoners in this wall. To warn the German and Italian troops in turn became prisoners of war.
SIX MONTHS OF INTRIGUE AND VACILLATION
IN UNHAPPY FRANCE


The second half of 1941 was marked by numerous constitutional changes in advancement of Pétain's national reconstruction, and by an increase in unrest, sabotage and disturbances of various kinds—followed by the inevitable reprisals. On July 18, 1941, Vichy announced certain Cabinet changes. Admiral Darlan relinquished the portfolio of the Interior, which was then taken over by M. Pierre Puchaux, head of the Department of Industrial Production, a change which permitted Darlan to devote himself to his duties as Vice-Premier.

Further changes were made known on August 12, when Marshal Pétain made a broadcast announcing 11 measures designed to "save France," as follows:

1. Suspension of the activities of all political parties and groups, with a ban on public and private party meetings and the display of flags and posters, with severe penalties for infringements.

2. Suspension of Parliamentary immunity as of September 30.

3. Disciplinary measures against civil servants guilty of false declarations in respect of secret societies, and exclusion of Frenemies of high rank from public office.

4. The Legion "remains the best instrument of the National Revolution in Occupied France, but can only carry out its task by the subordination of all its branches to the Government."

5. The number of police to be doubled "to maintain public order."

6. The appointment of Special Commissioners to supervise the spirit in which the laws and the decrees of the central authority are carried out, and which includes "imposing by administrative rounds and secret societies" to the National Revolution; at the same time the powers of the Prefects to be increased.

7. The Labour Charter designed to regulate the relations between employers and workers, to be the subject of a "solemn agreement in a spirit of mutual understanding" and to be promulgated shortly.

8. Reorganization and grouping of the industrial committees to give better representation to small industries and artisans; a revision of industrial and financial policy; and closer cooperation with provincial arbitration bodies.

9. Organization of food supplies on a national and regional basis.

He said that the absence of more than a million prisoners, the most youthful and vigorous elements in the nation, had created immense difficulties in constructing a new and durable constitution.

By an official decree (August 12), Darlan was appointed Minister of National Defence and was awarded a seventh star to his Admiral's rank, thereby placing him in the highest possible position in the French Navy; Darlan was now Vice-Premier, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Marine and National Defence, and Head of the French Fleet. These appointments made him the most powerful man in France after Pétain, and followed the announcement a week previously that he would immediately direct Vichy's general policy in North Africa, General Weygand being thereby subordinated to him.

Pétain's regeneration programme was immediately implemented by several official decrees, the Marshal himself becoming the supreme and sole judge of the "war guilt" prisoners and arrogating to himself the right to order any or all of them to accept hardships or imprisonment.

Three days later all Army officers "fonctionnaires," the Vice-Premier, Secretaries of State, and the Grand Chancellor and Council of the Order of the Légion d'Honneur were obliged to take the new oath of absolute loyalty to the Marshal.

These measures were followed on August 20 by the removal of the Senate and Chamber from Vichy to Montoire. The inevitable protest by members of both Houses and personal representations to Darlan were without effect, as was proved by Pétain's decree of August 29 under which the French Parliament was transferred from Vichy to Châtel-Guyon.

Addressing French ex-service men at Vichy two days later, Pétain announced the creation of a single-party system under the Ex-Service Men's Association being the connecting link. Declaring that his listeners that Vichy's relations with Germany were governed by the Armistice Convention, and that it is our task to surmount the long heritage of distrust resulting from centuries of dissensions and quarrels, and orientate ourselves towards those great perspectives which our activity in a reconciled continent will open to us.
to be the defender of the national revolution and thereby supporting collaboration, the Legion announced as its aims an anti-Republican, Anti-Semitic and anti-Marxist programme.

At the beginning of September 1941 the proposals formulated by the Constitutional Committee of the Lower House for a new constitution were made known. France was to be anocracy, the highest power being invested in the Chief of State, with the exception of whatever authority the latter might delegate to provincial Governors. These, functioning as Chief Executive Officers, in addition to having some of the attributes of the German "Gauleiters," would exercise local powers resembling those of the Provincial Governors of France before the revolution of 1789.

This new "parliament," whose functioning would be purely consultative, would have a high council or senate of 350, of whom the Lower House would choose 175 members, 82 being nominated by the Chief of State and the remaining 13 being representative of the French Empire. The 300 members of the Lower House (Conseil National) were to represent all branches of activity, including the liberal professions, war veterans, and the "family."

In mid-September ecclesiastical leaders in the Occupied Zone announced their support of Pétain's national reconstruc- tion; a similar declaration was made on November 14 by archbishops and bishops of the Unoccupied Zone.

Further evidence supporting the testimony of the Doyen Report (published in May 1941 by the Free French Government and which outlined German territorial designs on France) was forthcoming on August 4, when Free French Headquarters published further documents (dated January 2-15, 1941) which had fallen into their hands at Beirut. German designs were to be implemented by preventing French refugees from returning to their homes, by large-scale conscription of manpower for labour in Germany, by fostering German agricultural colonisation in the areas which Germany proposed to annex, and by the destruction of monuments of the First Great War.

Pétain's decision to be sole judge of the "war-guilt" prisoners was carried further, on September 7, by the creation of a Council of Political Justice to act in an advisory capacity in regard to penalties. A State Tribunal was set up to judge persons "who by their word or even their thoughts committed against the security of the State," including moral responsibility for such activities; it had power to pass sentences of death and life imprisonment, with no right of appeal. This act, which broke all traditions in French constitutional history, was severely criticized as inquisitional by the Free French Government.

In both the Occupied and Unoccupied Zones economic conditions in general were the cause of much dissatisfaction. The food position was very unsatisfactory, as a result mainly of the Nazis' ruthless pillaging of stocks, the lack of agricultural labour, and the shortage of fodder. The reduction in essential food rations introduced on June 30, the issuing of ration cards for animal feeding stuffs on July 9, and the rationing of tobacco on July 12 were measures with obvious implications. As winter approached conditions in general deteriorated.

One consequence of the imitation of Nazi measures was the inevitable repression of Jews, which grew more violent. In August a law was passed permitting the appointment of "Aryan" administrators for Jewish-owned establishments throughout France, and limiting measures for the liquidation of such establishments. With certain exceptions Jewish practice in the medical and surgical professions was restricted to 2 per cent from September 6, a similar restriction applying to Jewish architects from October 2. On December 2 three further laws were published, placing more social and economic restrictions on Jews; the number of open occupations was further decreased and Jews were prohibited from owning any property except that of residence or business.

Vichy's foreign policy, while showing evidence of "attentisme," was nevertheless largely influenced by Germany, who continued to press for greater collaboration. It was under such pressure that Vichy broke off diplomatic relations with Russia on June 23, using the pretext that Russian diplomatic and consular representatives were engaged in activities harmful to the State.

Despite many Nazi demands throughout the autumn for the use of part or all of the French fleet, Pétain remained firm, and refused even to negotiate on the matter when he met Goring on December 1. The entry of Japan and the United States into the war, which restored the balance of power to the Allies on a long-term basis, was reflected in a stiffening of Vichy's attitude and a Cabinet decision to maintain military neutrality.

Vichy's weakness in allowing Japan to acquire more territory in Indo-China (see Chapter 196) led to a statement on August 2 by Mr. Sumner Welles, the U.S. Under-Secretary of State, to
the effect that the attitude of the U.S. Government to France would henceforth be governed by "the effectiveness with which France defends her territory against the aggression of the Axis Powers."

In North Africa Vichy's policy became more concise with the appointment, on August 22, of General Huntziger as Commander of the Forces and the taking away of all military powers from Weypard. The latter was dismissed on November 20—eight days after the death of Huntziger in an aeroplane accident. His opposition both to collaboration with Germany and to any acquiescence by Vichy in German bases, and followed the appropriation on Sept. 4 of a credit of 128,000,000 francs to strengthen Dakar's defences and maintain the port's overland communications with the Mediterranean. Another step was the completion of the Trans-Saharian Railway, the construction of which had been authorized in March 1941. On September 13 Vichy announced that the port of Abidjan, on the Ivory Coast, was being strongly fortified.

During the summer and autumn of 1941 resistance to the Nazis grew steadily stronger. For one thing, there had been Hitler's attack on Russia at the end of June, and the immediate provision of aid by Britain and the U.S. to people were arrested during this period. On August 27 Pierre Laval and the Fascist leader Marcel Diet were shot and wounded by a French patriot named Paul Colette, an act symbolic of the temper of the French people. There were more arrests and a number of executions for anti-Axis activities. Colette was condemned to death on October 2, but this sentence was later commuted to life imprisonment.

September brought more disturbances; terms of imprisonment up to 15 years were passed by special courts on persons charged with "Communist" and "De Gaulist" propaganda, the distribution of seditionary literature, and other activities. There were more mass arrests of innocent persons as hostages; prominent people, including M. Gabriel Péri, the former editor of L'Humaide, were arrested and sentenced to life imprisonment. Despite desperate efforts by the Gestapo and the French police to suppress them, numerous patriotic publications (among them L'Humaide and La Liberation) were brought out and distributed clandestinely.

The Nazis had meanwhile adopted the principle of "collective responsibility" by executing a number of hostages for every German life taken. Thus the wounding of two German officers on September 8 was followed by the arrest of 120 Jewish hostages, among them lawyers and persons in other professions. On September 15 General Stulpnagel, the German military commander in Occupied France, announced the death penalty for anyone found in possession of firearms. General de Lattre, former Delegate-General to the Germans in Paris, was arrested by Vichy on September 1 for expressing in a letter to Pétain the opinion that the only hope of French liberation lay in a British victory. The same day Laval was declared to be out of danger from his injuries.

General Stulpnagel announced on September 18 that an increasing number of hostages, chosen from all classes of the Parisian population, would be shot in cases of further attacks on German soldiers. This was followed the next day by a thinly veiled threat to Vichy from the German-controlled Radio Paris, calling for strong measures irrespective of rank or position against all actively opposing collaboration with Germany. On September 20 the Germans imposed a curfew in the Seine Department, including Paris; theatres, cinemas, and restaurants were ordered to close at 8 p.m.

It was a logical outcome of the rapidly worsening situation when Pétain broadcast next day an appeal to
Frenchmen in the Occupied Zone. The Marshal stated that the Vichy Government formally condemned all anti-German activities, that it would seek to punish the perpetrators, and that while he realized the trials and sufferings of the people, he must demand from them "French Unity," otherwise heavier consequences would fall on the innocent.

A month later Dr. Karl Holtz, military commander of the Nantes region, was assassinated. A curfew was imposed throughout Occupied France from 8 p.m., and a cordon of German troops thrown round Nantes. Fifty hostages were executed and another 50 threatened with death, failed to return by October 23. Next day (October 21) a German major was killed in Bordeaux. Of 100 hostages 50 were executed at once and the rest threatened with a similar fate. Unless the affair was apprehended by October 25. A reward of 15,000,000 francs was offered by Stumpfegel to inform his arrest of the guilty persons. An officer, wounded in the affair, was executed.

German and Vichy reactions followed the usual lines. At the mass execution at Bordeaux the people got caught in sabotage against the troops of occupation. On the 29th, another curfew was imposed which forbade the people to listen to foreign broadcasts under pain of heavy penalties.

In all quarters outside Nazi control, the mass executions brought forth expressions of horror and indignation. The Pope made personal representations to the German authorities. A similar protest by Chile and Costa Rica was quickly followed by other Latin-American States.

A bomb explosion in a Paris restaurant at the end of November killed two Germans and wounded others; this led to the infliction of a 1,000,000-franc fine on Paris. As the year drew to a close repression and social unrest became more evident, Jews being singled out for particularly barbarous reprisals. By now the Nazis must have felt the cumulative effect of the attacks on occupation troops and officials. In Dec. 14 Stumpfegel announced that as a reprisal 100 "Jews, Communists and Anarchists in the pay of Anglo-Saxons, Jews and Bolsheviks" would be executed at once; a 1,000,000,000-franc fine was imposed upon the Jewish population of the Occupied Zone; and a number of "Jews, Bolsheviks and criminals" were transported to Eastern Europe for forced labour. This pitiless measure led to Vichy's first protest to Germany, in a statement in which it was declared that such reprisals would cause widespread unpleasantness in France. Berlin replied that the Vichy authorities ignored the facts of the situation, and despite Vichy's appeal the threat was carried out on December 28 by the execution of 20 Jews.
A survey of the year 1940 is given in Chapter 151. The review here presented covers the year 1941 and summarizes leading events and tendencies in the principal theatres of war. Information not available earlier Chapters were written has been incorporated. Dates have been collated with the Chronology published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs.

The year 1941 ended. London's airfields were still jampacked with the Armageddon of raids to which large areas of their city had been reduced by a very heavy German air raid on the night of Sunday, December 29. This raid was marked by the use of many thousands of incendiaries which, with explosive bombs, had proved enormously destructive. Compulsory fire-warden systems were immediately introducted and the Home Secretary appealed to householders to form 'neighbourhood parties' to guard their homes from the imminent threat. The result was that the losses, although serious, were not so great as might have been expected. In January and February 1941 the casualties (two months) numbered 5,000, but this was to be compared with the monthly average of 13,000 for the 12 months ending April 1940. After the fierce raid of December 29, 1940, the enemy gave up his attempt to bring British morale to the breaking point. In London, there was a severe attack on April 18, when the Luftwaffe lost six bombers; and again, on May 10 there was a raid considerably smaller than that of December 29; the House of Commons was burnt and Westminster Abbey was damaged (251 bombs destroyed). Failure of the German Fire Raids After as much as 9,000 tons of bombs was accomplished nothing; damage was soon cleared up and the life and work of London went on as usual; casualties were accomplished, railways and was making the interruptions to telegraph and telephone networks. The Luftwaffe, early in the New Year, turned to attacks in the western ports as part of the Battle of the Atlantic. From Southampton to the Russians and Dutch they were nightly attacks that caused less loss of life and material damage, but the ports were never put out of action. Coventry and Birmingham were heavily raided in April, when apparently the enemy sought to cut down our armaments production. Casualties in this month exceeded 15,000; in March they had been about 10,000, and this figure was slightly exceeded in May. A wise and well-planned policy of dispersal and camouflage was in operation, with increasing success. The aircraft, short of tonnage, were, however, damaged and were set up all over the country and component parts of aircraft, etc., were made by hundreds of widely scattered concerns. Some loss of output was, but the difficulties were a small percentage and was soon made good.

In the spring and summer the enemy had other raids in the fire, and the strength of the Luftwaffe was diverted to Italian adventures later to the attack on Russia. But the blackening in his air assault on Britain must be explained partly by the bold and vigorous air and ground defenses he compromised — and by his recognition of the failure to weaken our morale by ruthless and concentrated night bombing. Day bombing in any case was too expensive for him. From June onwards the weight and frequency of enemy raids diminished. London had no raid after July 27.

The Strategic Bombing of Germany The air offensive against Germany and Italy for the first part of 1941 followed the pattern of crippling attacks on the enemy's war industries, his transport lines, and the bases from which heb bombarders set out to bomb our cities. The enemy had a large number of ships at sea, and this was our opportunity to make the most of it. At Kiel the shipyards were badly damaged in April; at Wilhelmshaven naval workshops, stores and barracks were destroyed during January and February. Very heavy bombs of new type were dropped at Enden at the end of March, with impressive results. At Bremen by January the Atlas shipyards had been rendered useless owing to further damage to shipsyard receiving direct hits. Two engines had to be brought there from Hamburg in mid-February. In March the Neptune yard and another where submarines were built had to be closed; and in June they were still under repair. The house "Europe" was damaged in the docks again.

By June half of the petrol stock at Hamburg had been destroyed by R.A.F. attacks. The Illusion & Vengeance were destroyed direct hits in January. Later, six out of 20 submarines were damaged beyond repair. In March the Allied and North African land forces were heavily engaged in the desert during April and May. Cologn had 24 raids between January and the end of May. Our two heavy targets were used on Berlin on the night of April 27/28 and one of the last raids on the heart of the enemy capital. At Mannheim the effect of bombing the railways in December 1940 and January 1941 was so serious that long trains blocked goods yards as far away as Breda, and traffic did not become normal until March 1941. Cost for Italy had to be diverted to other and larger targets. Our bombers destroyed the industrial area in March and May, with increasing intensity. During June a greater weight of bombs was dropped on Britain by the Luftwaffe; it has been clear that the enemy's record monthly for the fighting Command Takes the Offensive On fighter squadrons of the R.A.F. were engaged in offensive operations over enemy territory and occupied areas. By "air-sea" our pilots pods back the air front and established superiority over a region extending deep into enemy territory. At the same time, some Air Force units were engaged in night fighting above the enemy's own territory. But the amount of Allied air combat as the result of the Luftwaffe's efforts was far less than had been anticipated. Improved Spitfire and Hurricane, with more powerful armament took part. Half the enemy fighter strength was pinned down on the Western front by these tactics, and by the middle of June the fighter offensive had reached its peak. In the three months May to July 500 German fighters were destroyed for the loss of half this number of the R.A.F. The Hurricanes was adapted to carry bombs for low-level attack on ground targets; other aircraft used were the twin-engined Beaufighter, the Defiant, Havoc and Whirlwind.

Coastal Command of the R.A.F. flew more than 26,000,000 miles during the year. Bombing operations on the enemy's transportation and industries for protecting our shipping, attacking that of the enemy, and raiding enemy-held ports. Besides land type of aircraft, giant flying boats were used on the Penguin and Catalina were used. Some 200 attacks on U-boats were made during the year. In one night seven enemy ships were hit; enemy transports between December and January amounted to 100,000. After Hitler invaded Russia, many attacks were made on enemy supply ships on the way to North Russia. Unwitting raids were made on French ports, and a number of ships were taken in French ports, and in December 1941, U-boat bases. In the hunting down of the "Frisian" aircraft of Coastal Command played an indispensable part. The Boos-Wolf long-range bombers which attacked Atlantic shipping were intercepted and destroyed; on one occasion a Hudson aircraft outflung a German submarine and held it captive for seven hours until our Navy could take delivery.

The Home Front At the beginning of February the cost of the war had amounted to the enormous figure of £20,000,000 per day, of which £10,000,000 went for the fighting services. In the Budget of 1941 the standard rate of income tax was raised from 6s. 6d. to 10s. in the £, while the rate on the first £150 of taxable income was increased from 5s. to 6s. 8d. By rates in the allowance and a reduction in the exemption limit a large number of small taxpayers were brought under tribute. A novel feature was the explicit aim of raising purchasing power as much as the rate of taxation as was due to the reduction of allowances was to be treated as a post-war tax-egg and returned to the taxpayer in due course as a credit in the Post Office Savings Bank.

Prises for important foodstuffs were pegged at a reasonable level by subsidies to the manufacturers. In January the meat ration was reduced to 15 lb. per head per week, in March to 10 lb. per head. The better diet was increased to 4 oz. from March 10 to June 30, and was then reduced to the former allowance of 2 oz. per head per week. Marmalade, syrup and treacle were rationed as from March 17. Cheese was rationed at 4 oz. per head from May 3 until June 30, when it was increased to 2 oz. The amount of milk allowed to adults was considerably cut. A new system of clothing rationing was introduced
BATTLE OF BRITAIN AND THE FIRE RAIDS ON LONDON

Not until the end of 1942 were these vivid photographs released for publication. Top, St. Pancras Station after a bombing raid at the start of the Battle of Britain, in September 1940. The famous single-span roof suffered little damage. On the night of May 10, 1941, the fire raids of the previous six months reached their climax. Many water mains failed in the City of London, where there were 30 big fires. Below (from "Front Line, 1940-1941"), the walls of No. 23, Queen Victoria Street, crash down across the roadway—a remarkable action picture.

Photos: Fort; used by permission of the Commissioner of Fire, City of London.
‘FIND THE ENEMY; STRIKE AT HIM; PROTECT OUR SHIPPING’

So may be defined the duty of Coastal Command aircraft, some of whose stirring exploits were made known for the first time in January 1943. Before ships were able to be degaussed against magnetic mines special aircraft were fitted with mine-detonating coils (close-up of a Wellington, inset) to render such mines ineffective. At top, a Coastal Command Wellington on mine-clearing work (early 1944). Below, the camouflaged German battleship Bismarck (a Dönhöld Fjord just before she made her first and last sortie in May 1941). Coastal Command aircraft took this photograph, shadowed the enemy, and hunted her down until the Royal Navy sank her on May 27.

Photo, from “Coastal Command,” by permission of H.M.S.O.
RED ARMY SCOUTS AT THE OUTSKIRTS OF MOZHAISK

The capture of Mozhaisk (see map, p. 2033) on January 19, 1944, was a great strategic accomplishment, for it diminished the chances of a successful spring attack by the enemy upon Moscow. Top, at the approaches to Mozhaisk: a monastery in the background. Below: Soviet sappers with electro-magnetic detectors clear a recaptured area of German mines.

Early in January an executive was set up under Sir William Beveridge, Minister of Labour and National Service, to administer the call-up. The call-up for military service had been substantial, but the war, combined with the supply of labor, and measures for the better utilization of man and women power were introduced. By April the registration of women for war work was begun, with the enrollment of 100,000 girls of the 20 age group. On June 20 the 1917 group was registered: a few days later, men of the 11–45 group had been enlisted for war work (see Chapter 109).

By May 1941, "Churchill" tanks were coming into production, and 100 were available for the invasion. The tank had been much criticized, and in 1940 the announcement was made that it would be discontinued. This decision was reversed in December 1942. A type of need for the defense of Britain against invasion (expected in the spring of 1941). The "Churchill" (or A 22) was ordered after consideration by the Tank Board, and the work began in July 1940 without waiting for the normal exhaustive trials of a pilot model. After Hitler invaded Russia in June 1941 and the danger of Britain's invasion diminished the tanks were modified for service overseas in an offensive role. Though they did well in the Middle East, they had not been intended for the fighting against the Rommel army of the desert. (See Illus. p. 2058."

Another revelation late in 1942 was that a "Battle of the Atlantic Committee" had been formed in February 1941 to focus on the need for supremacy at sea and plans were made to keep the enemy from landing in Normandy. The importance of this was emphasized during the Long Range Desert Group sortie to Libya and the idea that the Mediterranean would be used for the invasion of Rome came into being.

The British Offensive in Libya

On December 9, 1940, Sir Archibald Wavell became the new Commander-in-Chief in the Western Desert. This change began in the spring of 1941 and brought about the capture of Benghazi, Tobruk, and the elimination of the Italian threat, but things did not go as smoothly as the Allied forces had anticipated. The Italians continued to fight hard and had to be withdrawn in order to protect against further advances. The need to keep the Axis forces isolated in the desert was the key issue for the British, as they could not afford to lose the Axis command.

German Conquest of Yugoslavia and Greece

The invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece began on March 29, 1941. The German forces quickly overran the two countries, and by March 30, the Greek capital Athens was captured. The Greek forces fought bravely, but were no match for the German Wehrmacht. The Greek government fled to Crete, and the Greek army was largely destroyed. The German occupation of Greece and Yugoslavia led to the establishment of puppet regimes and the deportation of Greek civilians to Nazi concentration camps.

Lufthansa's Attacks on British Ports: November 1940 to July 1941

(5) Civilians killed by all raids and to end of 1941)

- **RAVENGROVE**
  - June 8
  - 3 killed

- **LIVERPOOL AND MERSEY-SIDE**
  - May 14
  - 1 killed

- **SOUTHAMPTON**
  - April 28
  - 2 killed

- **CARDIFF**
  - March 16
  - 2 killed

- **SWANSEA**
  - April 19
  - 3 killed

- **PLYMOUTH**
  - April 18
  - 1 killed

- **BIRKENHEAD**
  - May 10
  - 1 killed

- **BELFAST**
  - April 16
  - 1 killed

- **NORTHAMPTON**
  - May 12
  - 1 killed

- **HULL**
  - June 17
  - 1 killed

(5) Based on figures given in "Front Line, 1941-1941," the official story of the Civil Defence of Britain (H.M.S.O.)

Monther after month they maintained contact with besieged Tobruk, bringing in supplies and taking away wounded troops. By May 1941, Tobruk had been relieved, but the Axis forces had continued to push forward. The battle for Crete began in May, and lasted until June. The German forces were victorious, but the loss of Crete was a significant blow to the Allies.

In July 1941, the Battle of Crete began, and the German forces were successful. The British forces were forced to withdraw, and the battle ended in a German victory. The Axis forces continued to push forward, and by the end of the year, the Battle of Greece had ended in a German victory.

The Battle of Britain, which began in July 1940, ended in September 1940. The German forces had been defeated, and the British forces had been able to stop the invasion of Britain. The Battle of Britain was a significant victory for the Allies, and it marked a turning point in the war.
hampere by ineffective disposi- 

tons made by his predecessor, so as not to 

provacy, likewise by shortage of 

material and equipment.

Germany and Yugoslavia: On April 6, 

1941, Belgrade was occupied by 


the principal Yugoslav airfields were 

heavily attacked at the same time. German 

columns advanced from Hungary, Western 

Bulgaria, and Romania, to occupy 

Pattah and the Pisevic area. The 

Yugoslavs advanced in advance of 

a few days later. In the north-west, 

the Greeks threatened the independence, under 

Pavli 

(see April 10) attempted to 

attack the Serbs. The southern 

Yugoslav army was driven back on April 7, losing 

the Greek flank, and the 

Greeks broke through towards 

Sokolica, and 

occupied early in the 9th. Next day the 

Germans reached Mostar and Yamula. 

Belgrade was captured on April 13; the 

Serbian capital Zagreb had fallen 

unoccupied three days before. In 11 days the resistance 

of Yugoslavia was broken; what remained of 

her army surrendered at Serafevo on 

April 17. (See Chapter 15,7.)

sion, the Allies forced the 

Greek breakdown in Crete, 

was to be expected that the 

Axis Powers would leave Crete in peace for 

long. The Allied forces transferred there 

from the Greek mainland included two weak 

and poorly armed Greek divisions, units of 

various British regiments (see table in page 

160), a force of Royal Marine and, for the 

rest, Imperial troops mainly of the 

New Zealand 

and Division. Inevitably all had suffered 

from the long and hard-fought rearguard 

action. Major-General Freyberg, V.C., was 

in command. On the island were only three 

airfields—those of Sitia, Belmo and Heraklion, 

Casablanca (see map in page 116). For the 

first few days there were many air raids by the 

enemy; our few fighter aircraft had to 

be withdrawn because of heavy dive-bombing 

attacks on our bases. The Italian 

aircraft were based on Egyptian 

bases. On May 10 alone the heavy and 

powerful, but also the 

airfield if succeeded, preceded 

next day, an airborne invasion of Crete. 

The story is told in Chapter 158 of 12 days after the 

aircraft, between 12 and 14 May, of varying 

airfields of our airfields if preceded, preceded 

next day, an airfield invasion of Crete. 

The story is told in Chapter 158 of 12 days after the 

aircraft, between 12 and 14 May, of varying 

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The story is told in Chapter 158 of 12 days after the 

aircraft, between 12 and 14 May, of varying 

airfields of our airfields if preceded, preceded.
chiefs joined Muzafara. Defeating tribal leaders and rivalries, the British had been able to control most of the province. The British air support had been crucial. By March 3 they had taken Buraydah and were moving toward al-Marwil. They cut off the large enemy garrison near the town, and on March 26, the British advanced and captured al-Marwil and Umm al-Marwil. The British had gained control of the entire province.

On April 14, the Iraqi-Army command conducted a large offensive against the British forces. They had captured the town of Basra and were advancing toward Baghdad. On April 15, the British launched a counterattack and recaptured Basra. The British forces continued to advance and capture several more towns, including Habbaniyah and Fallujah.

MUCH CRITICIZED CHURCHILL TANK

The A22 tank was designed for the defense of Britain against an expected invasion and built without extensive trials of a pilot model. Later it was modified for offensive work by the heavy infantry and proved its worth as a heavy infantry tank in Italy and Tunisia.

Photo: British official. Copyright: Syrian airforce.
entered Persia from Khalkhin, on the Iraq border. (See map in p. 1835.)

A change of Government, on August 20, peace talks were put in motion. The ships between Stettin and the U.S.S.R. were agreed to be exchanged. But the Shah's Government was slow in expelling Aghian nationals and closing enemy Legations. On September 10, the Shah's Government published a protocol in favor of his own, the Crown Prince, and satisfactory assurances were given to the Allies. British and French columns had met at Kazar, 50 miles S.W. of Kharash, on August 21. On September 14, they advanced to the outskirts of the Persian capital so as to watch the rounding up of Aghian agitators. On the 10th they entered Tabriz, but were not long afterwards. Railway and land routes to South Russia were taken in large numbers and much, and soon a stream of supplies was flowing northwards to our troops. The ports of Tabriz and Isfahan were captured, with a large armament and supplies had been seized and, with this operation in Persia the enemy's road to the East had been blocked. Moreover, Britain was now in direct contact with Russia and Turkey.

**Battle of the Atlantic**

Toward the end of August, the news of the German battleships had become so alarming that when sighted by aircraft from the Ark Royal, the enemy warships changed course and made for the Bret, where the Germans were reported to be making for a possible attack on the Brest. Admiral Henderson, after a day's search,signalled to the American cruiser to report the presence of the German forces, and that an attempt was to be made to carry out the operation.

Meanwhile, there had been a big battle ship in mid-Atlantic. On May 23, the new British battleship Hmsman and the German cruiser Goeben turned south, off the S.W. coast of Iceland, and British warships were concentrated from all quarters. Admiral David Beatty, who was 15 years old at the Battle of Jutland, turned north, heading for the German ships. The British fleet was divided into two parts; the ‘Princ World’ was slightly damaged. The German ships got away westward, then south, and finally turned southward. Torpedo aircraft from Hmsman noticed the Goeben at 12.30 p.m. and dropped their torpedoes on the Goeben, which sank at 3.30 p.m. The Goeben was the first British ship to sink the Goeben, and did it by torpedoes fired by the cruiser ‘Dunstan’.

(See Chapter 173.)

The United States Navy was patrolling the Western Atlantic, under orders to be prepared to strike at the German fleet. On May 21, the first American ship to be torpedoed in this war met her fate. She was the ‘Ramon Moore’, which was sunk by a German submarine. In May British shipping losses rose to a total of 3,800,000 tons, but fell next month to 283,000 tons. Monthly publication of losses was discontinued after June. In July American Naval forces occupied Iceland, and the U.S. Navy was thereafter ordered to take steps to protect communications in the approach to Iceland and the U.S.S.A. Following the torpedoing of the American destroyer ‘Cros’ off Iceland on September 4, President Roosevelt ordered the Navy to ‘close’ the Iceland Sea. The German High Command was revisited the armed of U.S. merchantmen, and to allow U.S. ships to enter belligerent zones. But before another month America was here a belligerent.

**Germany Strikes at Russia**

The German attack on Russia at dawn on August 23 caught the Allies by surprise, and put the morning was for the advance did the Soviet Ambassador with Russia, a Note, dated the day before. The consequence that Germany was at war with the Soviet, Stalin must have been aware of certain mass movements of German forces, and obviously placed little trust in his quondam ally's good faith. In fact, it is rumored that the German High Command expected a gigantic transfer of men and weapons, in which more than a half of the main force was moved to the front. The consequence was that the German forces had been allowed to reoccupy the territory just vacated.

There were three simultaneous German attacks, of which the most important was the attack on the north near Kursk, which was followed by the capture of the entire region of the Dniester. The German advance was so rapid that the Soviet forces were still some 80 miles from Kiev. Lately the enemy forced a crossing of the Dnieper near its mouth and occupied all medical supplies. The final report was received by the Red Cross and Nikolsky was abandoned on August 15. The Bug line was untenable and a retreat to the Dnieper was carried out.

In the north Von Leeb drove Soviet forces out of Estonia and took the naval bases on the coast. For the present, Soviet troops held the line of the river Narva and prevented a German advance N. of the Lake PEpoz, where the situation was still serious. The general position by the middle of August (See map in page 1832). Despite great gains, the war had failed to secure a decisive victory.

One of the gravest drawbacks of the situation was the loss of the railway which runs south from Leningrad to the German border; from Novgorod it was impossible to send supplies to the front. The corresponding gain to the enemy was immense. On August 11 the Germans captured Gomel, and thus gained a railroad connection with Bryansk; heavy attacks for nearly a fortnight enabled them to approach towards Bryansk, but they were driven back by Russian counter-attacks.

In the south Von Leeb made contact with the outer Leningrad defenses, crossing the river Narva and taking Kingsepp towards the end of August. His right wing reached Novgorod, and other formations were advancing on the capital in the south. Nevertheless, operations threatened the direct railway link between Leningrad and Moscow. The Russian forces in Karelia increased their pressure. At the end of August the Soviet forces withdrew from the forts of Tallinn and Baltic, and the whole of Estonia fell into enemy hands. On September 3 Von Leeb took Schlussersburg, and also reached the Neva. The Soviet forces were forced to retreat on the river Svir. A Russian attack from the Valadi hills met with indifferent success, but by Sept. 12 the first snowfall had come and it must have been clear to the Germans that no further offensive was possible. They hope to take Leningrad. Enemy pressure cased off; the garrison made many bold and spirited offensives, in which armored trains were a great help. In the Gulf of Riga, the Russian fleet sank (May 20) after a prolonged resistance. (See map in p. 1832.)

In the Smolensk region Timoshenko took a favorable position on the road to the capital of the city (mid-September). In other attacks, he defeated Guderian's tank force and checked the enemy advance towards Bryansk, which formed part of the German offensive against Moscow. The capital was the centre of a circle of armament and supply industries with an area of about a million square
miles. Supplies of coal and steel, with fuel for motor vehicles and engines, had to be brought from the Ukraine, so that the railway staff of the Crimea and farther was indispensably engaged. Arrangements for getting supplies from the east were not yet in full swing.

German October Offensive

On October 2 Hitler started his "new and decisive" offensive. He directed mainly against Moscow, but with big attacks also in the Crimea and the Ukraine. Soviet troops evacuated Briansk on the 12th, and Krasna next day. The Germans claimed to have surrounded all the Russian armies and, if true, they could, in fact, get to within 60 miles of Moscow by October 12. The fall of Kalinin was claimed on the 16th that of Kalinin, on the Upper Volga. By the 19th, when the offensive had begun to slow down, fighting was raging at Molo Yaroslava, at Mozhaisk, and near Volokolamsk. The weather was worsening, and rain and snow had turned the battlefield into a quagmire which mechanized vehicles found it difficult to traverse. Thus this first great offensive against Moscow petered out. There was a strong belief that Stalin would capture Tula, and on November 2 the Germans took Tula.

Improved weather in the middle of the month made communications easier, and Hitler ordered another attempt to capture Moscow before the onset of winter, followed by normal military operations. It appeared that the strain against the opinion of his generals, but political considerations must have outweighed military arguments. Soon after the middle of November fighting flared up, yet more fiercely at Tula. Volokolamsk and Kalinin; on the 22nd the enemy reached Kalinin, and Tula was bypassed to the east. From Mozhaisk an energetic series of direct attacks upon Moscow were made, and by the beginning of December the Germans were within 15 miles of the capital in our region.

The weather grew worse again after the temporary improvement, and in face of this the heroic resistance of Moscow and the defending armies Hitler had to call off his second attempt.

On the Kerch bridge the earlier onset of winter had slowed down the advance, but the city was bombed frequently and bombarded by long-range artillery. The freezing of the straits allowed Von Leeb to invest more easily the town of Kerch. At the end of November Tikhovskaya, on the all-important Volgograd railway, was in German hands. It was recaptured on December 6, one of the prime targets in a Russian counter-offensive thus set in motion along the entire front.

Budyenny Falls Back

On the Donets, where by August 19 the forces of Von Rundstedt and Budyenny were face to face, the bridgehead of Cherkassy (where the Donets river crossed the Don) was taken by the Germans on August 23. Shortly after entry into the outworks of Kharkov, Donopertechnik was checked, and on the 28th the Russian troops were pushed up the narrow Donets basin forming part of the Caspian which supplied the Donets base.

A great pincer movement against Kiev, in which both von Rundstedt and Budyenny cooperated, began with the capture of Cherkassy (now Cherkassy-Mile, a relatively small town near Kiev, which the Russians evacuated on the 22nd. Boats, landing at the Dnieper, went to the front line to the south. On September 12, the Dnieper was crossed by the German army on its flanks. In the Crimea the Black Sea Fleet landed troops who recrossed Kerch in mid-October. On December 20 Budyenny was replaced by Lodygin, and with the fall of Kiev himself took the supreme command of the army group under Brauchitsch.

Hitler Calls Off the Offensive

On November 8, a few days before Hitler called off the German offensive, the winter, Budyenny delivered a powerful counter-attack on Von Kleist's forces holding Rostov, drove out the enemy, and pursued him to Tmelnik. On a day of Russian troops all along the vast battle line were massing behind the enemy. Budyenny, who was recaptured on December 14, was cleared by von Kleist and Kalko, who took over command of both northern and central fronts. To Voroshilov (formerly on the front) and to Budyenny was given the task of assembling and training the new reserve armies.

Malta and the Mediterranean

The island of Malta played a great role in the Mediterranean. During the second half of 1941, it was a valuable base for Malta and Malta's Malta. A big fleet that broke the poor man's 1830 years old, was another sentence from this tale.

Conquest of the Crimea

The German made a parachute attack on the Crimea on September 27. The attackers were in the air over the Crimea by the 19th, and by the 22nd they had captured Belgorod, which was recaptured on September 27. Von Kleist on November 2, and the enemy were unable to cross the Don. The Crimea was isolated by the Belgorod advance, and there was an attempt to capture the town of Kerch. The Germans also captured the Crimea on October 13. The German army took up a position near Kerch, on the beach of landing the German garrison to the mainland, was made, with dive-bombers and tanks, aided by masses of artillery; on October 20 the enemy broke through and soon overran the Crimea. The last of the Soviet forces at Kerch was got away on November 1. Odessa fell on November 17, and on November 19 the Crimea was occupied by the Germans. The capture of Kerch was the end of the German campaign in the Crimea. The main line of advance was on the 22nd: three supply ships left the port on September 25. On October 20, 1941, a British cruiser was sunk by the Italians in the Mediterranean. A cruiser and a destroyer were damaged.

Hitler's objective was to establish a foothold in the Mediterranean, to cut off the island's supply lines, and to prevent any further aid from reaching the Allies. The British, however, managed to evacuate most of their troops from the island and the German troops were forced to withdraw.

The destruction of the Italian submarine "Ammiraglio Cavour" was announced on September 12. On the 19th, a British cruiser was sunk by the Italians in the Mediterranean. A cruiser and a destructor were damaged.

On the other side of the Mediterranean Sea is the coast of North Africa, and the British battleship "Barbara" by 72-hour bombardment of the Italian coast and the small cruiser "Gebato" in December. In the Western Mediterranean there was the threat of a further attack by the Axis forces.
The Libyan Offensive of November

General Wavell was appointed C-in-C in India on July 3, charging place with General Sir Claude Auchinleck, who took over the supreme command in Egypt from Lord Gort, who had been moved to Greece. Auchinleck's task was to drive the German Afrika Korps from the Libyan desert. The campaign was divided into two phases: the first, from July to September, involved a series of small-scale operations to secure the coast and capture the port of Tobruk. The second phase, from September to November, saw a major offensive towards Tripoli.

Japanese Entry into the War

July 8, 1941, saw Japan enter the war by declaring war on Britain and its allies. This was in response to the Allied invasion of French Indochina. Japan's entry into the war marked the beginning of the Pacific War, which would last until 1945. Japan's entry was a significant event in the war, as it engaged the United States and its colonial possessions in the Pacific region.

JAPAN

JAPAN had been able to land troops with impunity because of the loss of sea power by the Allies in the region. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on the 7th had destroyed America's offensive power for the time, and the grave disaster three days later to British warships in the Gulf of Siam took away the last of the little that had been left. The phrase "Prince of Wales" signified of Admiral Sir Tom Phillips and commanded by Captain H. Lush, went into the Gulf on Dec. 9, accompanied by the battle-cruiser "Repulse," to search for Japanese warships and transports said to be moving towards the Kra isthmus. The Admiral learned, after having that no fighter aircraft were available to him, that he had to rely upon his own low visibility in plane Japanese air reconnaissance. Later the weather cleared, and the squadron was sighted by enemy aircraft; the Admiral then ordered his ships to report enemy transports near Kuantan and set off to reconnoitre the report proved untrue, and not long after this Japanese warships were reported by three waves of torpedo-planes. Two waves were beaten off, but the third managed to hit both warships with several torpedoes. Early in the attack the "Prince of Wales" was hit by three torpedoes, sinking about 12.20. The enemy had carried out a large-scale attack on the 10th, and a small destroyer escort was defeated by three waves of Japanese warships. The Japanese had managed to sink two large warships and destroy the two destroyers.

The Attack on Malaya

Japan invaded Thailand on Dec. 8, meeting with little resistance. Three days later it invaded Malaya, which was defended by the British forces. The Japanese were able to advance quickly due to their superior air power. The British forces were initially unable to effectively counter the Japanese advance, leading to the fall of Singapore on Dec. 25. This was a significant event in the war, as it marked the beginning of the Pacific War and showed the vulnerability of the British Empire in the region.

The Battle of Britain

On Aug. 27, the Battle of Britain began, with the Royal Air Force (RAF) and the German Luftwaffe engaging in aerial combat over southern England. The battle was fought to prevent the Luftwaffe from establishing a secure air link between Germany and occupied France. The RAF was able to repel the German air attacks, but at great cost, leading to a significant change in the war's dynamic.

The Fall of Singapore

On Dec. 8, 1941, Singapore fell to the Japanese, marking the end of the British Empire's military presence in Southeast Asia. The fall of Singapore was a significant event in the war, as it marked the beginning of the Pacific War and showed the vulnerability of the British Empire in the region. The fall of Singapore also led to the captivity of many British soldiers and navy personnel, many of whom were later subjected to harsh conditions in Japanese prisoner-of-war camps.

The Battle of Midway

The Battle of Midway, fought on June 4-5, 1942, was a significant battle in the Pacific War. It marked the turning point in the war and was a significant victory for the Allies, as it marked the end of the German air and naval superiority in the Pacific. The battle was fought to prevent the Japanese from establishing a secure air link between Japan and the Pacific islands.

The Fall of Tokyo

On Aug. 6, 1945, the city of Tokyo was destroyed by the atomic bomb, which was dropped by the United States during the final days of World War II. The atomic bombing of Tokyo was a significant event in the war, as it marked the end of the Pacific War and the beginning of the post-war era. The city was completely destroyed, and the Japanese surrendered the following day.

Chaprer 204

RUSSIAN WINTER OFFENSIVE, 1941-42: THE CLOSING PHASE

The pursuit phase of the Russian winter counter-offensive of 1941-42 has been described in Chapter 193. It followed immediately on the decision to abandon the attempt to take Moscow, and to withdraw from exposed positions to winter quarters, forced on the Germans by the tenacity of Russian resistance and the desperate suffering of their ill-equipped troops from the bitter cold. In confident expectation of a swift victory the Germans had neglected to provide for the rigours of a winter campaign.

The promptness and vigour of the pursuit turned what was intended to be an orderly and voluntary withdrawal into a retreat, which, as Hitler himself admitted in a speech

Hitler's Admission delivered on April 26, 1942, narrowly escaped complete disaster, and which involved immense sacrifices of men and material and of ground gained at great cost. The escape was due partly to the discipline and training of German troops which, despite demoralisation and desperate circumstances, enabled them to retain some of their fighting qualities, and partly to the promptness and ability displayed by the Germans in realising the defensive possibilities of the Russian towns and the railways on which their forces depended for supplies and shelter. Those possibilities were adapted with ingenuity. Yet it is doubtful whether the German retreat could have halted, or have escaped complete disaster, but for the difficulties the Russians experienced in maintaining the initial vigour and weight of their pursuit, as they advanced through country where railways had been put out of action and when heavier snowfalls interfered with practically all other means of transport.

Before dealing with the later stages of the Russian counter-offensive and the development of the German defence we may recall Marshal Mannerheim's dictum that in a Finnish winter major operations are practicable only in close proximity to railways. That dictum is largely applicable to Russian winter conditions, which, in three periods, have differing effects on the military situation. In the first period (from the end of November till the beginning of January) snowfall is comparatively light and, with frost consolidating the ground, conditions do not greatly interfere with movement. It was in this period that the Germans hoped to effect the capture of Moscow, but they failed to realise how Arctic temperatures, made more inconvertible by biting winds, would affect their ill-clad men. Half the period had expired before the Russian counter-offensive was launched, and there was not time to exploit its possibilities before the heavy snowfalls of the second period (lasting through January and February) made vehicular movement almost impracticable.

In the third period (early spring) the growing power of the sun melted snow surfaces in the afternoon, and though frost at night gave a hard surface in the morning and maintained the strength of ice on rivers and marshes, operations became increasingly difficult. In April a final brought them to a complete standstill. Naturally, in the south, climatic changes were less strongly marked, and military operations could be resumed at an earlier date than in the centre and north.

The pursuit phase of the offensive ended when the Russians had won back the ground captured by the Germans in the final effort to take Moscow and were in contact with the positions the enemy had consolidated during the long pause in November. In point of time this coincided with the heavy snowfalls of January. However, attacks on strongly held German positions could be seriously attempted only when the combat zone had for long been stationary, or where rail and road communications were available to bring up the supplies and munitions required for heavily armed forces. Immediately west of Moscow the main armies were in contact and heavy attacks therefore continued, but elsewhere either the pursuit had covered long distances and had lost its impetus, or there were inadequate communications to...
maintain heavy fighting. Nevertheless, where the German front was weakly held owing to the difficulties of communication, lightly armed Russian forces, consisting of cossack, ski troops and sledge-borne light artillery, were able to make progress.

These conditions dictated the further development of the offensive. West of Moscow it took the form of relentless attack on Mozhaik. The recapture of this town, which remained a threat to the capital, was of first importance and heavily armed troops were immediately available. Direct attacks were made on the town, and attempts to envelop it and cut its communication with Vyazma. The Germans fought hard to retain Mozhaik, but with the progress of enveloping movements the place became the apex of a dangerous salient. On January 19 the Russians entered the town. The capture of Mozhaik was a great strategic victory, for it immensely reduced the danger of renewed attacks on Moscow in the spring.

Writing in Soviet War News, Lieut.-General Gurov, of the Red Army, said that his units entered Mozhaik at 3.30 a.m. on the 19th. The first phase of the attack had begun in December with the destruction of the German concentration at Zvenigorod. By January 10 Commander Polosakhin’s units had broken through the enemy salient line south of Kulika mainly by means of an artillery offensive. The Nazis attempted to hold the intermediate positions of Dorkhovo and Shilikovo, but their main strongpoints were overcome by cross-country outflanking movements. While Russian units cleared the country between the by-passed strongpoints other formations routed the isolated garrisons. The
weather was severe, with the temperature at 35 degrees below zero.

Fighting for the town of Moshalsk began on January 18. Solidly built fortifications on the N., E. and S. outskirt were smashed by artillery and mortar fire. Firing point-blank, the Russian guns demolished dug-outs and fortifications on the eastern approaches.

Moshalsk

Won Back Bombers and night fighters destroyed the retreating units on the roads. Soviet troops started to outflank Moshalsk from N. and S., and on the night of January 19-20 the Germans, threatened with encirclement, withdrew most of their garrison, leaving only a small covering force. Russian artillery carried out the final bombardment, and infantry cleared Moshalsk of the enemy.

The Germans retreated to Gzhatsk, halfway to Vyazma, which they had had ample time to prepare as a "hedgehog" centre. This was a strongpoint intended to be held even if positions on its flanks had to be relinquished; such hedgehogs were designed to afford

SOVIET SKI TROOPS RIDE UP TO THE FRONT

In white camouflage suits, with rifles at the ready, Red Army ski troops are taken to an advanced assembly point on sledges towed by tanks. At Stanaya Russa, in February 1942, a ski detachment broke into the suburbs and liberated several hundred prisoners from a war prisoners' camp.

Photo. British Official. Crown Copyright

MOSCOW SECTOR OF THE LONG RUSSIAN LINE

The capture of Moshalsk by the Red Army on January 19, 1942 ended the danger to Moscow. The enemy was driven back to Gzhatsk, and at Rzhev was almost encircled. A brilliant Russian offensive freed Peno, Andreyapol and Toropez and then captured Kholm. By the end of February, the German 16th Army at Stanaya Russa was enveloped and badly mauled. In the Smolensk area, the town of Yukhnev was retaken after a night attack on March 4-5.
Vulnerable spot. Red Army units were met during the night of January 17 by small guerrilla groups emerging from the forests near Kholm. They converged at one point. By 2 a.m. eight guerrilla detachments (800 men in all) were gathered at the outskirts of the town; most of them armed with captured German rifles and grenades.

One group of 400 cut off the approaches to Kholm, while a second group broke into the town. A German sentry saw them and fled, but was shot down by one of the guerrillas. The noise alarmed the enemy, who ran out from houses and barracks. The street fighting that followed lasted for eight hours. The enemy numbered about 1,000 men, and the German Command reinforced these with two battalions, who ran into a guerrilla ambush at the village of Sopki. This second battle lasted 12 hours, although the guerrillas were outnumbered; more than the number of the picked German troops were losses. In the fighting in the town over 400 of the enemy were wiped out. By this time the Red Army formations were ready to storm Kholm, and the guerrillas once more went in to attack.

Swinging south, the Soviet armies took long stretches of the railway between Rzhev and Veliki Luki—perhaps the only case in which German railway defense lines were broken. These successes were of importance not so much on account of the great extent of ground gained as because they left Rzhev with a very precarious supply line. They also threatened the main line of German lateral communications (which ran close to the west of Veliki Luki) and the whole Vyazma salient. In the following winter these gains were to provide a base for Zhukov's offensive.

Stung by the German defenses to west and south of the bulge they had thus formed, the Russians, under Lieutenant-General Kurochkin, towards the end of February concentrated their efforts at its northern shoulder, where Staraya Russa, on the railway south of Lake Ilmen, was a hedgehog held by the 16th German Army (General von Busch). By a surprise outflanking movement they completely isolated Staraya Russa, and for a time the 16th Army was in a critical position, dependent on air transport for supplies. Eventually a relief force re-established communications. A Russian ski detachment broke into the suburbs of the town and rescued several hundred people from a war prisoners' camp.

Throughout the winter the Russians tried without success to break the
LENNINGRAD LOOSENS THE NAZI GRIP

In January 1942 the Russians built a motor road on the ice of Lake Ladoga and enabled food, medicins and other supplies to be taken into Leningrad. Early in February Soviet forces outside drove deep wedges into the German lines around Schleswig. The heavy enemy bombardment was borne with fortitude, while the work in the factories went on. In civilian mechanics from the Putilov works are making light repairs to Russian tanks in the front line.

1) German reconnaissance patrol in the Valdai Hills. 2) Russian tankers cut a way through enemy wire in readiness for an advance; Nazi shells burst in the background.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official; Sport & General; Planet News
Russian Scout Troops Retake Yushkov

Yushkov was one of the most important German strategic points in the Smolensk area, heavily fortified after the Russians had won back Mozhaisk, Kino and Dorogobuzh. On the evening of March 4, 1944, Soviet troops began their assault, and next day broke into Yushkov. Below, officers of the Red Army unit which took the town: left to right, Major-General Karkinovsky (Artillery), Lieut-General Zakharen and Brigade Commander Litvinov.

Photo: British Official - Crown Copyright - Press News

German investment line east of Leningrad. The Germans stated that during January more than 120 attempts had been made to storm their positions. A fortnight later they told 14 attacks during 48 hours on their positions K and S of Leningrad. The Russians infiltrated the German lines and cut communications. Fresh Russian reserves were thrown in, and in two days, for example, 20 places were recaptured from the enemy. Wedges were driven into the German lines around Schleswig, and so, in February, large quantities of supplies reached the city, a measure which saved the garrison from being forced by starvation to surrender.

In the south there was heavy fighting in the Crimea, on both the Kerch and Sevastopol fronts, and in the Donetz basin. (Kerch had been recaptured by the Russians at the end of December, and the enemy was attacking the outer defences of Sevastopol.) Towards the end of January the Russians were reported to be in close contact with the besieging positions of Orel, Kursk and Kharkov, but were evidently unable to penetrate the defences. South of Kharkov Timoshenko made a considerable advance and captured the important railway centre of Lozovaya, thereby opening vital railway communications between Donetprostrovsk and the Crimea, as well as one of the lines leading to Kharkov. His further advance was held up, apparently by German defences along the railway lines.

The railway junction of Lozovaya, 80 miles S. of Kharkov, at the intersection of the Kharkov-Doubs, Poltava-Doubs and Dnepropetrovsk-Doubs lines, forms the gateway between the grain-growing regions of the Ukraine and the Donetz coal basin.

The following account of the storming of the town is by Colonel Polozov (Soviet War News). At dawn on January 27 Soviet troops under Major-General Gorodniansky and Lieut.-General Ryabykh swept through German defences near the town. The enemy hastily occupied fortified suburban houses and station buildings, and the Russians were met with concentrated fire. The Soviet Command decided to encircle the station and blockade it. The vanguard column was ordered to skirt this centre from the S.W. and cut off the enemy's retreat. Despite stubborn street fighting the Russians had taken the suburban buildings by midday and drove on persistently for the centre of Lozovaya. The Germans backed out towards the station, which they planned to hold until the arrival of a Romanian division to reinforce them. But the semicircle was quickly tightened around the station, and by nightfall the enemy abandoned the station and broke into disorderly flight to the west. The Romanians came too late, and fled together with the Nazis.

The Germans had converted Lozovaya into a vital supply base through which they dispatched reserves, ammunition, arms and foodstuffs for Schewel's and Von Kleist's army groups on the Taganrog front and for the Italian Expeditionary Force. At Lozovaya, too, were the stores of the 17th German Army.

As the winter went on operations were more and more hampered by snow and became static, both sides claiming local successes. The Germans suffered
severely from climatic conditions in holding their positions against the constant pressure and harassing tactics of the Russians, in which guerrilla bands and cavalry played a large part. German morale was seriously affected and dread of another winter campaign was widespread among the troops. Immense efforts were made to relieve the suffering of the troops by collecting clothing of all descriptions and by pillaging occupied countries; but nothing could cancel the damage done or the impression produced by the extraordinary lick of Russian fire. The German Staff, which revealed so fully the disappointment of their expectations of a quick victory. The Russian troops also suffered severely in the winter, for they had constantly to fight, with less shelter than the Germans. The troops mostly employed—cavalry, ski troops and guerrillas—were, however, less likely to be required in the coming summer.

By the end of March the thaw had set in and from then till the beginning of May no fighting of importance took place, though on both sides there were intensive preparations for the campaign season, which, it was generally expected, would be marked by a German offensive towards the Lower Volga and the Caucasian oilfields. The chief doubt was as regards the date of its opening, in view of the effects of the winter war on German preparation.

In assessing strategic results, the German offensive of 1941 and the Russian winter counter-offensive may be taken as an integer representing the first year of the Russo-German war. In that year the Germans signally failed to accomplish their purpose. They had hoped in a matter of weeks to shatter Russia's army and to render her impotent as a military power. Failure to achieve this object not only involved them in a disastrous winter war, but left ruinous commitments. The counter-offensive proved conclusively that Russia had survived the onslaught and remained a military power which would grow in strength if not destroyed by renewed attacks. Germany had equally failed to secure the economic benefits for which she had hoped. Russian oil was still beyond her grasp, and the rich territory she had occupied, demurred by Stalin's scorched earth policy, had lost almost all of its natural productivity, which, in addition to labour, required under modern conditions oil and machinery to develop. Despite great military successes the German campaign was therefore marked by failures emphasized by the Russian counter-offensive.


January 8, Japanese land in Java. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 10, Japanese invade Taratea and Caban, Netherland East Indies. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 12, Fall of Java. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 14, General Wavell sets up H.Q. at Batavia. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 17, Mr. Churchill arrives at Plymouth from Bermuda. British forces in Manchuria advance to China. British forces in Manchuria advance to China. British forces in Manchuria advance to China.

January 18, Japanese land in Java. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 20, Japanese land in Java. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

January 21, Japanese land in Java. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 24, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.


January 27, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

January 28, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

January 29, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

January 30, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

January 31, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 1, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 2, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 3, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 4, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 5, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 6, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 7, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 8, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 9, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 10, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 11, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 12, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 13, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 14, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 15, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 16, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 17, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 18, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 19, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 20, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 21, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 22, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 23, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 24, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 25, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 26, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.

February 27, Japanese forces in Burma advance against British forces. British forces withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast. British troops withdraw to southern coast.
CARTE BLANCHE FOR A NEW LONDON?

By October 1941 many of the City's wounds were beginning to heal, and the grim and grotesque scars of the night raids were being tidied up. Compare this photograph with that in p. 1249 (before the big bombings) and another in p. 1360, taken after the heavy fire raid of December 29, 1940. Above, from St. Paul's Cathedral, looking towards the Central Criminal Court, Old Bailey: the cleared area includes Warwick Lane (left) to Ivy Lane, with Paternoster Square between.

Direct colour photograph by Spottiswoode & Co.
CORVETTE FOILS AIR ATTACK ON BRITISH CONVOY

Corvettes have been termed 'U-boat killers' (see illus., p. 1763), but these fast and well-armed craft are the terror also of the German aerial raiders. Here is the scene just after a Heinkel torpedo-plane has been shot down: the pilot's dinghy has become swamped, and a rescue boat is being lowered. Forward on the corvette is the 4-in. dual-purpose gun; there are machine-guns on the tall look-out platform, and more on either side at deck level. Art. behind the Carley floats, is a gun platform with two pom-poms: on a lower platform behind, is a multiple A.A. machine-gun. Depth charges are stowed in the stern chute, while the crew swing another on to the thrower.

A.R. Shugert. From 'Heros of the War Service' United War
Chapter 203

MALAYAN CAMPAIGN AND THE FALL OF SINGAPORE

After an account of the geographical, political and strategic background in the Malay Peninsula, this Chapter describes the Japanese invasion and the successive steps which led to the surrender of Singapore, after a fourteen days' siege, on February 15, 1942. For the relation of this campaign to Japan's major plan of conquest see Chapter 198.

Japan struck at Malaya on December 8, 1941, when Singapore experienced its first air raid. The events which led up to the outbreak of war with Japan are outlined in Chapter 198, where, too, is an account of the diplomatic and administrative background.

Malaya is the name given to the peninsula thrusting south-eastward from the isthmus thrown out from western Siam where that country joins the most southerly tongue of Burma. At the foot of the Malay peninsula, and separated from it by the mile-wide Strait of Perak, is the Island of Singapore, 217 square miles in area.

Leaving out of account the tiny Christmas and Cocos Islands, Malaya is composed of: (1) the Straits Settlements of Singapore, Penang (with the Province of Wellesley on the mainland), Malacca and Labuan; (2) the Federated Malay States of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang; and (3) the Unfederated Malay States of Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, Trengganu and (in Borneo) Brunei. The Governor of the Straits Settlements is High Commissioner for all the Malayan States.

The area of the Peninsula is 52,500 square miles, nearly seven-tenths being densely wooded. The climate is monotonously tropical, a uniform temperature with high humidity and occasional rainfall prevailing. Malaya's economic wealth comes mainly from the rubber and tin industries: tin production in 1937 amounted to 77,000 tons, or one-third of the world's total output.

The population of Malaya at the outbreak of war was about 51 million, of whom over 21 million were Malayan, 400,000 Chinese, 750,000 Indians and 600,000 labourers. In Malaya, there were 50,000 Indians and 7,000 Eurasians; Europeans numbered only 6,000 out of the total population of 570,000. Chinese provided most of the labour in the tin mines and much of it on the rubber estates. The Malaya—mainly Muslims by conversion but singularly devoid of fanaticism—are easy-going, unwarlike and not strongly nationalistic. They were content in the main to leave strenuous commercial enterprise to the Chinese or the Indians.

British relations with Malaya began with the East India Company, who for a short time (1803) made Penang the Fourth Presidency of India. By purchase and goodwill the British traders acquired rights in Malaya, notably by Raffles' acquisition of Singapore from the Sultan of Johore. The administration of the Malayan States was disturbed as little as possible, and this policy was responsible for the comparatively small portion of the territory which came directly under the control of the Governor of the Straits Settlements. In the crisis of 1941 it proved to be a big handicap in defending the country.

Neither Singapore nor Malaya had ever been regarded as requiring defence by force of arms. The comparatively recent establishment of a Naval Base had the object of providing facilities for repairing capital ships in the event of a threat from the sea to communications with Australia and India. Singapore's fortress defences were planned to guard against an attack from the sea. Indeed they were sited in the south of the Island, 17 miles from the Naval Base in the north, which looked across the Strait of Ternate to the hinterland of Johore. Singapore was joined to that hinterland by a stone and concrete causeway: this bore the road and railway as well as the pipe-line which carried water to supplement the supply on the Island itself.

When Britain went to war in 1939, Malaya's rich mineral resources had been languishingly applied to the cause of the Empire. Apart from her yield of rubber and tin, she had made to the Imperial Government a free gift of £17,000,000. Behind that spirit the whole of the population stood. Always the possibility had been kept in mind of a war in which Japan would be an enemy, but such a conflict was thought improbable.

PROSPEROUS ISLAND OF PENANG

Its name comes from 'penang', the areca-nut palm. The official name of the town is Georgetown. When our forces had to withdraw after heavy fighting along the Muda river, Penang was uncovered. Many people had been sent away after heavy air attacks on December 7-13, and the island was completely evacuated of troops and Europeans on the 19th.
AUSTRALIANS IN ACTION AGAINST THE JAPANESE

Left, a 25-pounder gun.Powered by an eight-cylinder air-cooled engine, this heavy weapon can be transported on a high-speed gun at 17,000 yards range, or fired over open sights against targets, etc., or used as a long-range machine-gun. Right, Australian stretcher-bearers tend wounded in the rubber country of western Malaya.

Photo, Keystone

Chief who had led them out to intercept Japanese transports in the Gulf of Siam. Sir Horace Fry, C.B., the 1st Division, had been successful enough to have incurred the displeasure of the Allies, but lack of fighter protection made the operation problematical.

Coming on the top of the successful attack at Pearl Harbour three days earlier, this tragedy removed from the Japanese their chief anxiety—for their vulnerable lines of sea communication. Their drive to the west coast of America would now be developed in the most favourable conditions.

The Prince of Wales and the Repulse had arrived at Singapore on the 12th. Six days later the two big ships moved out on their local mission to the Gulf of Siam. The next day saw the entry of Japanese troops into Bangkok, after a landing operation which was purely symbolic if it had any semblance at all. The Japanese effort had been fumbled out on the west coast of America, particularly in the Gulf of Siam, on the last line of the western “invaders” of the Gulf of Siam, as well as along the coast of Borneo near the mouth of the Sembahan, farther south just over the border of Malaya. The British...
position of the defenders became manifestly difficult. Enemy bombers with completely accurate knowledge of the terrain soon secured command of the air, although in the early fighting British bombers made good use of their opportunities to inflict heavy losses on the invasion troops. Other invasion parties landed at Kuala, roughly halfway along the east coast from Kota Bharu to the tip of the Peninsula.

Severe fighting raged, particularly for the possession of Kota Bharu aerodrome. Enemy transports, ton of which had been sighted south of Kota Bharu, were mauled by the R.A.F. and R.A.A.F. with good effect.

The Japanese forces which had landed in southern Siam pressed across the Malayian frontier into the province of Kedah. Air activity on both sides increased, the enemy bombarding Singapore and several of our aerodromes, while our aircraft bombarded enemy concentrations at Singora and elsewhere. The arrival on December 8 of Dutch bombers and fighters and some naval units as reinforcements was a welcome addition to Allied strength in Malaya. Nevertheless, by December 9 Kota Bharu aerodrome had been abandoned, a number of other airfields rendered unserviceable, and British troops were re-forming farther south.

At the end of the first week's fighting the enemy's strategy could be perceived. It comprised a three-pronged drive down the Peninsula, two coastal thrusts and a central one, with subsidiary drives as military considerations merited. Geographically, this was the obvious strategy, the coastal regions, by reason of their comparative flatness, offering the easiest lines of advance.

The rapidity with which the Japanese attacked the immature airfields of Malaya and reduced the effects of the Royal Air Force gave them early air supremacy. This was of inestimable importance in enabling them to penetrate the jungle. Their occupation of Singora and Kota Bharu put them at once astride of the railway which ran from Singapore along the west coast of Malaya through Kuala Lumpur to Penang, and thence through Siam to Bangkok. At Gemas the line forked, the eastern branch going to Kota Bharu and the western to Penang. Both lines ran again at Singora.

The initial landings near Kota Bharu and along the east coast and at Kuala, consolidated by new invasions, secured for the Japanese a firm hold of the northeast sector. For over a week there was little change in the situation, until on December 21 our forces withdrew 45 miles down the railway from Kota Bharu to Kuala Krai. Then followed a period of inactivity lasting about another week, until the monsoons made conditions so difficult that by January 5, 1942, Kuantan had been abandoned.

Meanwhile, other of our troops were fighting rearguard actions along the eastern coast towards Kuala Trengganu, patrol clashes constituting the main fighting. Between January 6 and 13 the position on this front was somewhat obscure, but on the 14th the Japanese were reported to have occupied Pahang, north of the Pahang river. The R.A.F. attacked enemy shipping and occupied aerodromes in this area, including Kuantan. On January 19 and 20 enemy patrol activity forced the withdrawal of a British outpost at Endan, where the enemy had made several successful landings. A further landing on January 26, with strong naval and air support, was fiercely opposed by the R.A.F., which killed an enemy cruiser and a transport and shot down 12 planes.

In one engagement south of Merating, Australian troops defeated a greater force, inflicting 250 casualties against 50 of their own. But the enemy was too strong, and by the end of the month the Japanese had reached Johor.

The drive down the west coast, which constituted the main prong of the Japanese advance, was made from the outset with apparently unlimited numbers of men, having good air support and with most of the tactical advantages on the enemy's side. The Japanese soldier had a superior knowledge of camouflage, using the tropical flora to the greatest advantage. Moreover, his equipment, medical supplies, and iron rations were such as to make him a self-sufficient unit. He had been trained in jungle tactics, and frequently had seen service in China. While it is true that many of our soldiers had received a hard and comprehensive course of training in fighting in such terrain, their equipment lacked the inclemency which helped to make the enemy soldier such a formidable opponent. By December 12 the fighting in Kedah had increased in intensity.

Penang was one of the first objectives of the enemy's drive down the west side of the Peninsula. By bombing Penang from the air, with the deliberate intention of breaking civilian morale the Japanese achieved a quick success. It must be admitted that serious lapses in the administrative control seem to have contributed to this disaster. The first raid took place on December 11, mainly on the densely-crowded Georgetown area. The central fire station received a direct hit; confusion reigned and the population, lacking effective leadership, gave way to panic. The raids continued on December 12 and 13, when evacuation orders were given. On entering the town the Japanese were able at once to use the small but effective radio station and to start broadcasting in Malayian languages messages which seriously disturbed the morale of the population farther south to Singapore. Nevertheless, the power station and the Penang tin-smelting works were completely denied to the enemy.

During the next week our troops, although reinforced by infantry and aircraft units, were continuously forced to withdraw in the face of Japanese infiltration and outflanking movements. There was heavy fighting along the Muda river, boundary of Province Wellesley and Kedah on the north. Soon the enemy, supported by light tanks, had gained all Kedah and Province Wellesley, thereby uncovering Penang, which was evacuated of troops and Europeans. Our forces, fighting in heavy rains in dense jungle, and thinly spread over an area three times greater than that militarily possible to defend, reorganized on the river Krian.

On December 20 another enemy drive, intended to link up with the west-coast forces, developed in northern Perak, where an encounter on the Grik road resulted in the repulse of the enemy. After a shortull air activity again flared up, the enemy raiding Kuala Lumpur, while our aircraft bombed an enemy-occupied airfield in N. Malaya, as well as the aerodrome at Sungai Patani (S. Siamese). Further raids were made on Sungai Patani aerodrome on the nights of December 27-28. Enemy planes were also busy, bombing Port Swettenham (December 28), the Kuantan and Kuantar airfields (December 29) and other places, as well as Singapore.

On December 29 the British troops, in face of a new outflanking threat from the south-west in the shape of enemy landings in South Perak, and to avoid the subsequent development of a pincers movement by the enemy, withdrew from the tin mining centre of Ipoh, taking up new positions south of the town.

During the first week of January 1942, enemy pressure, assisted by new landings on the west coast at the mouths of the Perak and Bernam rivers, contrived to push our forces still farther south in Perak. With the announcement that the Japanese had forced the Bernam river, the threat to Kuala
JOHORE BHARU AND THE CAUSEWAY

On January 31, 1942, a 99-yard stretch of the Singapore Causeway was blown up to block the invaders, but latter they bridged the gap and sent their vehicles across. (1) shows Japanese one-man tanks at the Johore Bharu side, crossing the canal which allows small craft to pass through the Causeway under a lift-bridge. Two phases of the attack on Johore Bharu are shown in (2) and (3): Japanese charging through; and enemy infantry taking cover behind locomotives.

Photos: Reproduced by Paul Pepper
ORDEAL IN SINGAPORE

Some of the last photographs to be taken of besieged Singapore.

1. Carts were tipped over the docks to prevent the enemy using them.
2. British and native civil defense workers tend victims of heavy bombing raids, the effect of which is visible in [image]. An arrow indicates a pillbox defense.
3. Malay woman nursing her child, killed by a bomb fragment. Inset (a) is the G.O.C. Malaya, Lieut.-General A. E. Percival, C.B., D.S.O., M.C., to whom it fell to surrender Singapore to the Japanese on February 15, 1942. He had been G.O.C. in Malaya from 1936 to 1938.

Photo: British Official/Corbis Copyright: Keystone/Associated Press.
Lumpur (some 70 miles south) began to take definite shape. Desperate efforts were made by the R.A.F. and U.S. bombers, as well as by coastal artillery, to hold up the enemy advance by attacks on enemy landing parties (carried out in junks, fishing craft, sampans, barges and rafts), airfields and troop concentrations, but the invaders had such great superiority in men, tanks, mechanized fighting vehicles, and aircraft, and were being so constantly reinforced, that British strategy dictated a continual fighting retreat. Especially was this necessary in view of the many outflanking movements in the shape of infiltrations and of landings from the sea south of our positions.

By January 7 the enemy had crossed the Slim river, where our forces suffered losses in guns and transport in the severe fighting, and by the 11th the threat to Kuala Lumpur materialized in a big attack which ended with the loss of the aerodrome and evacuation of the town and Port Swettenham. This was a heavy blow to our prestige, and brought the Japanese within 180 miles of Singapore.

**INVADERS' 400-MILE ADVANCE IN 69 DAYS**

Almost unopposed by sea and air, the Japanese landed first on the N. and N.E. coasts of Malaya. A column drove along the E. coast after capturing the airfield at Kota Bharu. The northern group pushed steadily down the W. side of the peninsula. Singapore Island was invaded on February 8-9 and fell on the 15th.

(Note: Rail = Great Eastern, Bukit = Hill; Kuala = River mouth; Sekinah = River; Ulai = River Source.)

Specially drawn for the Second World War by Willy Gordon

Our forces, before withdrawing, destroyed rubber stocks, plant and machinery, mines and bridges, and distributed food stocks freely to the native population. The defenders then took up positions north of Seremban, in Negri Sembilan, but the enemy's rapid advance and follow-up left no time in which to reorganize. Consequently further withdrawals covered by extensive demolitions followed, so that by January 13 the enemy had advanced to Tampin, 30 miles south-east of Seremban.

Our tired and battle-worn troops were now reinforced by Australians under the command of Major-General Gordon Bennett. In action against

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**THEY WERE IN MALAYA**

British and Imperial forces which took part in the Malayan campaign and the defense of Singapore:

- 1st South African Div. (including battalions of 2nd South African Div.)

Besides the artillery regiments included in the above field formations, a number of Coast Artillery Units, A.A. Regts. A.T.A., R.A., and Sapper units, and a number of Porte Compagnies, R.F.A., and Army Troops Companies, also the A.A.G. and A.S.C. C. squares, the medical service, army nurses, and police volunteer battalions.

L.Cpl. G.C. ANDERSON, V.C.

Cpl. A. E. CUMMING, V.C.

By counter-attacking with a small party until all had become casualties, on Jan. 3, 1944, he saved most of our men and vehicles in face of enemy pressure at Brigade R.O. Later, in collecting isolated detachments he was twice wounded.
HOW SINGAPORE WAS OVERWHELMED

Singapore became British territory by Treaty in 1819. The great Naval Base was completed in 1938; the civil airport on the S. coast was built a year earlier. The Japanese landings of February 8-9 were made on the N. coast on either side of the Causeway which carries the road and railway to the mainland. Ubir Island had already been invaded. Our H.Q. was at Klang. Roughly half the island, between the naval base on the N. and Pasir Panjang on the S., was overrun by the 12th. Steadily the enemy extended his conquest, and by the 14th the position was irretrievable. The surrender followed next day.

Specially drawn for These Remarkable Wars by Ellis Garnon

the Japanese in the Negri Sembilan area they won a minor victory by killing some 800 of the enemy and destroying a number of tanks. This success, with a temporary increase in our air force, helped to stabilize the position somewhat until January 18, when Japanese troops effected three landings at Batu Pahat, 50 miles north-west of Singapore. Coupled with enemy infiltrations southwards from Muar, this compelled our forces to make a further withdrawal.

Meanwhile, the third prong of the Japanese attack, pushing down Central Malaya from the Pahang State, had reached the Batu Anum area. Both Australian and Indian forces acquitted themselves admirably, particularly in the Gemas region, where the R.A.F. gave effective assistance by bombing enemy transport in the marshalling yards. By January 19 Muar had fallen.

During the next few days, despite heavy pressure on both the central and west coast fronts, Imperial troops held their positions, fighting back fiercely near Batu Pahat and in the Bukit Payong area (near Muar), and north of Yong Peng. Nevertheless, Batu Pahat fell on January 25, while on the central front the enemy advanced in the Kluang-Ayer Hitam area.

The end of resistance on the mainland of Malaya was now in sight; air raids on Singapore, which had continued day and night almost without interruption, had increased in intensity. By January 29 the enemy had reached Ulu Selili, 50 miles from Singapore on the East Malayan front; they had entered the Pulai area, 18 miles from Johore Causeway, and were in occupation of Pontian Besar on the west coast.

On the night of January 30-31 our forces withdrew from the mainland to Singapore Island, heroically covered by the A.I.F., the Gordon Highlanders, and the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders, who were a courageous stand south of Pulai. This battle to eight weeks' fighting was marked by the magnificent bravery of the Argylls. Their pipers defied the shattered remnants of the regiment to the island shore. A detachment left to make sure that the retreat had been fully covered, was overwhelmed by the Japanese tanks. A staff officer directing the defence of a desperate composite battalion of Gurkhas and Sikhs met three of the Argylls just in front of the main reservoir on the island. They had lost their way and were showing signs of exhaustion, but their thumbs were up.

"Where are you?" asked the staff officer. "Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders," replied the corporal, his stripes half-hidden by the ragged shirt he wore. "Where's the line?"

"Why?"

"My last orders were to join the battalion there, sir."

"There are only Japs in front of me," said the officer.

"If we're the last of the Battalion, I'm..."

the senior officer," explained the corporal. "My last order was to hold the pipe-line."

So with his little command, ragged and worn, this corporal moved into no-man's land. Japanese infantry and tanks attacked within the hour. Bren gun and rifle fire from the pipe-line held them up for a while, and then there was silence. As ordered, the Argylls were in position.

Air raids on Singapore increased in frequency, and on February 3 and 4 much damage was done. The Naval Base was set on fire on the 4th, and was evacuated after demolition four days later. Although Naval Base had been Base lately reinforced by Evacuated at least one Division—comprising men of the Cambridgeshires, Suffolks, Norfolks and Bedfordshires—the task of holding Singapore was becoming impossible. Yet apparently confident declarations were made by the High Command. The end came quickly after the Japanese had managed to land on the island in the north-western corner on February 8.

Ubir Island, on the north-east, was already in Japanese hands. It was about 11 p.m. when the enemy's landing craft made the first landing. Heavy artillery fire and close-pressed air attack covered the invaders' advance, and steadily our defending forces were driven back. More landings were made on the two following nights. On the 9th the enemy took Taiping aerodrome.

WAVELL VISITS SINGAPORE

Only a few days before Singapore was compelled to surrender to the Japanese (February 15, 1942) Sir Archibald Wavell flew to the doomed island from Java. He is here talking to an Indian officer at the garrison.

Photo: Associated Press

3946
They repaired the broken causeway, and soon a stream of lorries was crossing it, bearing reinforcements and ammunition.

On February 11 leaflets from the air, signed by the Japanese commander (Lient.-General Yamashita), called upon the British forces to surrender. They were ignored.

British H.Q. at Fort Canning were shelled continually. Next day almost half the Island had been lost, and our lines ran roughly north to south from the Naval Base to Pasir Panjang. The Japanese captured the racecourse at Bukit Timah, about five miles from Singapore city, and some penetrated the outskirts but were expelled. Our line still ran to the east of the vital reservoirs of McRitchie and Kalang, which became the main enemy objectives and were the scene of desperate attacks and counterattacks. On the north our counterattacks failed to hold off the Japanese, and the arc of resistance, with Singapore city as its radius, grew smaller. British Naval units shelled the advancing Japanese formations, under persistent and accurate naval-air attack. The Japanese were destroyed on the 14th, and the enemy occupation of Blakangmati Island was established.

The scene in Singapore a few days before its fall has been described by C. Yates McDaniel, correspondent of the Associated Press:

"The sky was black with the smoke of a dozen huge fires today as I write my last message from this once-beautiful, prosperous, and peaceful city; now the scene of the burning. I can see the red glow of the fires and the soldiers are marching back and forth along the street, carrying the last of their personal belongings. The streets are filled with damaged vehicles, and the air is filled with the sound of guns.

But the Japanese are not completely alone in the skies. Above them, Japanese airplanes are flying, dropping bombs and strafing the troops below. The Allies have managed to shoot down three of their planes, but the Japanese have lost none. The battle is raging, and the outcome is uncertain.

On February 15, Lieut.-General A. E. Percival (the British commander) sent a flag of truce to the enemy and accepted the Japanese terms. These involved the unconditional surrender of Malaya, Singapore, and the southern tip of the island. British troops with the same 70,000 British troops with much material. At 11 a.m., the "cease fire" was sounded. The Japanese flag flew over the island, and for the time being, Singapore became "Shonan," Light of the South. The disaster of Malaya was complete."

POIGNANT LAST SCENES IN SINGAPORE SETBACK

Not for generations had the Empire been humiliated as it was by the surrender of Singapore on February 15, 1942. Top, the white flag party on the way to meet the Japanese C.-in-C. Lieut.-General A. E. Percival, opposite him, seated are the British commander, Lieut.-General T. Yamashita. Below, before being taken away as prisoners, some of our troops pay homage to fallen comrades.

Photos: Associated Press; Keystone
INDOMITABLE AMERICAN AIR VOLUNTEERS

The American Volunteer Group was recruited from U.S. Navy, Army and Marine aviators for service in defending the Burma Road for China. Formed in the spring of 1941, under Colonel (later General) Claire Chennault, the Group went to China three months later. It sent squadrons to Burma in December 1941 and was renowned for skilled and devil-may-care attacks on Japanese formations of much greater strength, fighting often alongside air men of the R.A.F.

2. A.V.G. pilots defending the Burma Road borne on their jackets an inscription asking all Chinese people to cooperate with them.
3. Lunch in the A.V.G. mess at Kunming.
4. General Chennault indicates a target for the next raid. In July 1942 the A.V.G. was absorbed into the U.S. Army Air Force.

Photos: Associated Press / Sport de Kosmopolis
Chapter 206

INVASION OF BURMA AND THE FIVE MONTHS' CAMPAIGN

Prefaced by a brief description of the political and administrative situation at the end of 1941, this Chapter tells the story of the gallant resistance by Allied forces to Japanese formations which greatly outnumbered them—from the first air raids on December 7, 1941 to the successful withdrawal to Assam, completed at the end of May 1942.

Burma, south of Sikang, between India (Assam) and China (Yunnan) and linked to Malaya by a narrow strip of Siamese territory, is about 261,000 square miles in area. Out of its population of 167 millions about 11 millions are Burmans, the rest being mainly Karens, Shan and Indias, with smaller numbers of Kachins, Chinese and Chineses. The country is largely hilly. The plains are to be found mainly in the Irrawaddy delta, the valleys of the Irrawaddy, Sittang, Salween and Chinwin rivers. Ninety per cent of the people are engaged in agriculture.

Rainfall is abundant in the north or Upper Burma, and adequate in the south of Lower Burma. It is scanty in the central zone, comprising the southern tracts of Upper and the northern tracts of Lower Burma. The dividing line is roughly latitude 20° N., and corresponds to that which the British held in Burma from 1852 on the conclusion of the Second Burma War. The First Burma War ended in 1825 with the cession of Tenasserim and Arakan to Britain; until 1856, when the Third Burma War resulted in the complete annexation of the Kingdom of Burma and the disappearance of the dynasty.

Burma became a province of India, but in 1857 was separated again under the Government of Burma Act, 1858, and remained so until 1886. In 1886, the Government of Burma was united with that of India under the Governor-General, acting through commissioners, and the Government continued to exist with the Governor, acting through commissioners, and over the rest of Burma the Governor was responsible for currency, foreign relations and defence. In all other spheres the Government was handed over to the control of a Cabinet of Ministers appointed by the Governor from members of a two-chamber Legislature—a House of Representatives, popularly elected, and a Senate, half of whose members were nominated by the Governor and the rest elected by the House of Representatives. Thus the transfer of power to the people themselves was real and substantial. This fact is of importance for an appraisal of

The main line and the main trunk road from Rangoon to Mandalay, running along the Sittang river valley, and continuing north-east through the mountainous Shan States to the railway at Lakesh, whence communication with China through Yunnan was effected. The Irrawaddy was navigable for steamers as far as Bhamo, about 175 miles N.N.E. of Mandalay.

The railway from Rangoon to Mandalay ran northward to Myitkyina, and Rangoon was joined to Prome on the Irrawaddy by a line parallel to the Rangoon-Mandalay line, and at Letpadan threw off a south-westerly branch to Bassein, the Bassein river being the westward mouth of the Irrawaddy delta. With Moullineux Rangoon had railway connexion to Martaban, which, on the right bank of the Salween river mouth, stands opposite to Moullineux, whence there was a short southward line to Yee in Tenasserim.

The northern frontier of Burma with China (Sikang) was so inaccessible that no danger could be expected thence. The Burma-Yunnan border was little less difficult and the frontier defence there did not demand elaborate military precautions. Further south the risk of attack from French Indo-China was mitigated by the formidable character of the Mekong river, which bounded the 100-mile stretch where Burma's frontier marched with that of French Indo-China. The remainder of the south-eastern Burmese frontier was with Siam, whence, as events showed, the danger was to come.

Up to 1937 India had been responsible for Burma's military administration. Although communication with India had been improved by the advent of air transport, the sea remained the chief means of communication between Calcutta and Rangoon. The coastal strip of Arakan, which stretched to the Indian frontier in the Chittagong area, was separated from the Burma-Rutland by the Arakan Yoma mountains. No road and no railway had been constructed to join Burma with India.

The garrison in peacetime had consisted of about two British battalions

BRITISH AND IMPERIAL UNITS ENGAGED IN BURMA.
December 1941-May 1942

British—Div of Wellington's Regt.; King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry; Camerons; W. Yorks. Inf. Regt.; East Gloucestershire Regt.; 47th Horsa (Mechanised); R. Tank Regt.
Burma—Burma Infantry; Rangoon Rifles; Burma Armoured Car Corps; Rangoon Mounted Rifles; Rangoon Artillery; Indian Field Artillery; Indian Signal Corps; Indian Telegraph Corps; Indian Railway Corps; Indian Medical Corps; Indian Veterinary Corps; Rangoon Mounted Rifles; Rangoon Rifles; Rangoon Artillery; Indian Field Artillery; Indian Signal Corps; Indian Telegraph Corps; Indian Railway Corps; Indian Medical Corps; Indian Veterinary Corps.
Japanese ships were still carrying large supplies of Burma’s rice to their own land.

Burma’s defence force in December 1941 consisted of one Indian brigade, four Indian units and four mountain batteries; within this organization were two British battalions. So long as Malaya remained able to bar Japan’s entrance to the Bay of Bengal, Burma had reason to be confident. But Japan struck at Pearl Harbour and elsewhere on December 7; on December 19 Penang had been evacuated, and so Japanese forces could look out on the Bay of Bengal. Burma’s anxiety was soon increased—stimulated by the speedy collapse of Siam, whose resistance to the Japanese was never more than a token one, and officially ended as early as December 8. Five days later, on December 15, Japanese patrols were reported at Victoria Point. Mingus received the first air raid on the same day.

On December 15 it was decided to withdraw the small garrison from Victoria Point (then the Kra Isthmus, at the Siamese border). A week later General Sir Archibald Wavell, within British command, Burma came soon after, arrived at Chiangkong to confer with Chiang Kai-shek and General Brist (Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army Air Corps, which later absorbed the American Volunteer Group who had won such distinction in providing aerial defence of the Burma Road) [see illus., p. 1960]. These American airmen, cooperating with the Royal Air Force and the Indian Air Force, were early on the scene in Burma. On December 28 Lieut-General T. J. Hutton became G.O.C. Burma, under Wavell.

Rangoon had its first air raid two days before Christmas, with heavy casualties. Transport and public services were disorganized, and panic caused the flight from the city of many labourers. On December 25 the Japanese were not so successful. Seventeen of their machines were destroyed by British and American airmen, who also reacted sharply to a Japanese raid on Moulmein on January 3 by shooting down seven enemy planes without loss, and by attacking the Japanese-controlled aerodrome at Taik in Siam.

Further attacks on Rangoon from the air developed, but there was no serious fighting in Tenasserim until the middle of January, when the enemy’s progress in Malaya foreshadowed the loss of Singapore (which actually fell a month later, on February 15). The dislocation caused by the air raids of

and the Burma Defence Force (organized after 1937 to dispense with Indian Army units). When Burma was part of India recruitment to indigenious units had been almost entirely from among the Lardiller hill folk—Kachins, Chinna and Karen, the last largely a Christian community. These units naturally formed the backbone of the new Burma regular forces. The fact that Buddhist, the religion of the great majority, forbids the taking of life had always been an obstacle to the Burmans taking kindly to soldiering, but after 1937 there were efforts, which had some degree of success, to stimulate the recruiting of these people.

For frontier defence in the pre-war era a small, competent and unpretentious force of military police (known after 1937 as the Burma Frontier Force) was considered sufficient. When the outbreak of war in 1939 necessitated the creation of a Far Eastern High Command with headquarters at Singapore the Burma Command was brought under that organization, over which Air Chief Marshal Sir Robert Brooke-Popham presided as Commander-in-Chief. He also had within his responsibilities the China Command at Hongkong. In the summer of 1941, when the possibility of attack from Japan seemed large, the difficulty of strengthening Burma’s forces was to some extent increased by the transfer of direction from India to Malaya. India had been hard pressed to supply the expeditionary forces in Syria, Iraq and Persia, to say nothing of reinforcements for Libya.

The danger beacons for Burma, as for Malaya, were fired in September 1940 by Japan’s preliminary occupation of naval and air bases in Indo-China—owing to the helplessness of the French colonial authorities under the Vichy regime. In July 1941 further bases in that area fell into Japanese hands, with Siam still more under Japanese domination, thanks to the manner in which Japan had first encouraged the Siamese to attack Indo-China and then made between the contestants an intervention highly profitable to herself. Reinforcements were provided for Burma on a modest scale, the continuance of Japan’s trading relations with that country being in no way disturbed, so that in June 1941

JAPANESE CROSS THE MOULMEIN RIVER

Drifting west from Siam, the enemy entered Tenasserim in the middle of January 1941 and captured Taewey (see map on p. 2051). Moulmein fell on January 30, after the garrison had removed stores and equipment over the Salween river. Above, Japanese cross the Moulmein on a pontoon bridge; the steel spans had been destroyed by British engineers.

Photo, Keystone
December 23 and 25 on Rangoon prompted the evacuation of civilians, and the city came under military control. By January 19 the Japanese forces had managed to enter Tenasserim in great strength from Siam, and Taoy was taken. Japanese mortars did great execution, and on January 30 Moulinfell. The small garrison managed to get away all stores and equipment over the Salween river, which on February 2 enemy patrols crossed a few miles higher up from the mouth.

By taking Martaban on February 10 the Japanese secured command of both banks of the river. Chinese forces, which by the end of December had entered Burma to share in the defence of that country, attacked Siamese troops on February 9 and drove them over the border into China. Despite attacks by the R.A.F. on Japanese troops at Moulinfell, Martaban, Paun and Thatonin, the enemy advance continued. At Paun, in an engagement where Indian troops specially distinguished themselves, the Japanese were repulsed; but on February 15 the defending forces had to withdraw to the Bilin river line. (See map, p. 2032.)

By this time the fall of Singapore had already been anticipated in the dispatch by the enemy of stronger forces to Burma, where, before the end of the month, those forces were put at 70,000. This enabled the Japanese to press home their attacks on the Bilin river, and on February 20 the British forces withdrew to the line of the Sittang. More and more of the enemy followed up this advance, regardless of heavy losses; British, Indian and Gurkha troops had fought with great tenacity. In a successful defence of a bridgehead on the Sittang, the Duke of Wellington’s Regiment, the Frontier Force Regiment and a Gurkha battalion covered themselves with glory. Philip Jordan, News Chronicle correspondent, has described this action on the Sittang:

“In the early hours of the morning of February 20 it was found to be impossible any longer to hold the bridgehead on the right side of the Sittang. Although many of our troops were on the wrong side of the river fighting the enemy, our aspirers at 3.30 a.m. blew up the bridge efficiently and gallantly. There began what one man who took part in it has described as a party that made Dunkirk look like a picnic. Wounded, dejected and machine-gunned from the air, hundreds of doomed men became victims of the river, at this point some 30,000 yards wide.

“For the next three days and the next three nights hundreds of heads bobbed in the river waters, struggling to reach the farther shore. How many died beneath the rapid punishment from the air is not known. Abandoning all but their arms and the clothes they stood up in, men plunged into the swift current and struck out for the bank. Those who could not swim made their way across—not to safety but to positions from which, without any rest, they would be forced to fight again, even though they had already fought since January 10.

“A brigadier who himself swam the river . . . says that he saw gallantry there that he never saw even in the last war . . . that perhaps the most wonderful thing of all was the way the wounded were cared for and ferried across beneath the blaze of the Burman sun and the howl of Japanese steel.”

The Japanese moved up from Martaban with elephant transport, but by March 1 they had not succeeded in crossing the Sittang. The position of Rangoon quickly became more difficult, for the Burma Road had been cut north of Pauk. Among the Japanese forces was the 18th Division, which had played a prominent part in the capture of Malaya. Allied Air Forces (including the American Volunteer Group) continued to harry the enemy, who, on February 24 and 26, attacked the Andaman Islands from the air, this pointing to a further bid for command of the Bay of Bengal. The withdrawal from Rangoon was finally effected on March 7, following heavy fighting in the

FIVE MONTHS OF REARGUARD ACTIONS IN BURMA

Though gallant and successful local offensives were launched by the Allies in Burma, the campaign was mainly a defensive one, involving a prolonged fighting retreat. Burmese soil was invaded by Japan in mid-December at Point Victoria; a month later the enemy crossed from Southern Siam into Tenasserim and made rapid progress. The collapse of British resistance in Malaya settled the fate of Burma, and our forces eventually retreated up the Chin River valley, fighting a last action at Shwegyin on May 10, 1942, and made their way to Assam. Chinese troops, formerly under General Stilwell, went north-east, harassing the Japanese all the time.
cut off the Allied troops from China. Chinese under the American General Stilwell had by this time joined in the fighting on the Sittang front, and east of Toungoo had engaged Siamese forces under Japanese officers. On March 20 Chinese cavalry came into action and dispersed Japanese forces south of Pyin. Four days later a mixed force composed of Siamese, rebel Burmese and Japanese units was roughly handled by the Chinese, but by capturing the airfield north of Toungoo the enemy was able to cut the road and the Chinese forces were isolated. They managed to extricate themselves after heavy fighting.

March 25 saw the Japanese occupation of the Audalman Islands, which had been evacuated by the small British garrison on March 12. This underlined Japanese command of the Bay of Bengal, to which the arrival of further enemy reinforcements at Rangoon added weight. The United Nations' forces in Burma were badly in want of air support, for although their airmen had been able to inflict heavy losses on the Japanese, the latter had numerical superiority. At the end of March the enemy held a line from Paungdaw to the Irrawaddy valley to Toungoo on the Sittang. Their command of the air enabled them to prepare the way for a further advance by systematic bombing of towns ahead. Thus on April 3 they bombed Mandalay, the greater part of which was set on fire. 2,000 people being killed.

By April 13 the British forces were closely covering the important oilfields.

The fall of Martaban on February 10, 1942 gave the Japanese control of both sides of the Salween, for Meiklim had been in their hands since January 29. Troop guns marched through Martaban on the way to Rangoon. Below, R.A.F. Blenheim bombers turn away after bombing troop concentrations and stores at Martaban.

The Pegu area, where British armoured forces came into action. All installations which might be useful to the enemy were first destroyed. The withdrawing forces had to deal with a formidable road block at Pyinbongyi. The extraction of the defenders had been helped by a gallant diversion in which British and Indian troops ejected the Japanese from Shwegyin, Pyuntaza and Madauk and then returned to their former positions. (See map in this page.)

On March 5, Lieut.-General Sir H.R. L. G. Alexander (who was left in command of the B.E.F. at Dunkirk when Lord Gort was recalled to England) took over the Burma Army from General Hutton. He had to meet a Japanese attempt by advance along the Irrawaddy and Toungoo valleys to

**REGION AROUND RANGOON**

Our troops evacuated the Burmese capital on the night of March 7, 1942, having previously withdrawn from the successive river lines of the Salween, Rifai and Sittang. Two days earlier Lieut.-General Sir H.R. L. G. Alexander had taken over the Burma Command from General T.S. Rutter.
CHINESE IN TOUNGGOO SECTOR

Under the command of Lieut.-General Joseph Stilwell (Chief of Staff to Chiang Kai-shek) men of the 5th and 6th Chinese Armies gave sterling aid to the Imperial troops during the difficult days after the evacuation of Rangoon. Notably in the Toungoo region did they put up a brave show. On March 20 they severely handled the enemy's leading columns; three days later there began a fierce battle around Toungoo. The Japanese took an airfield N. of the town and cut the road, isolating the Chinese, but another division came to their aid and enabled them to cut a way out through the enemy. Here are scenes in this sector: (1) Chinese dig tank traps; in (2) is one of their own light tanks; (3) bringing up ammunition; (4) Chinese artillery with American-built 75-mm. howitzers.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright. "Daily Express"
at Yenangyaung, on which the Japanese were rapidly advancing from Prome (where they had been able to secure considerable assistance from local inhabitants who had been concerned in the Burma rebellion of ten years earlier). Besides the double-pronged thrust up the Irrawaddy and Sittang valleys the Japanese were now launching an attack on the Chinese flank by invasion of the Shan States from Northern Siam. West of the Salween a Japanese force managed to enter Karenni and occupy Pyimma on April 21.

The British retirement to new positions behind Yenangyaung (where the oilfields had been destroyed) was marked by conspicuous gallantry on the part of the King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry. Indiscriminate bombing of towns over a large area characterized Japanese operations at this phase. Victor Thompson, correspondent of the Daily Herald, gives a vivid account of these attacks:

"When the bombing is done we go out to investigate, driving in the direction of a piloted airplane. Of all the town the has been accurately plastered from at least 10,000 feet. These Japanese are good marksmen whether with bombs or mortars or machine-guns. Fires are already spreading, adding to the heat of a Burmese noon. A fat Burman with his blue and white dress smeared with red dirt is busy stamping out a little pile of smouldering rubbish in the middle of the road, while his shop house directly opposite is reduced to five yards away. Another in a doorway sits idly with arms folded. Even the wraith of the dunes does not wake him. When we go close we see that nothing will wake him any more... There is little we can do except watch the skilful A.R.P. service trying desperately to cope with a situation beyond them...

"There is no evidence that any target of military importance was selected. But then this is the second phase of the Japanese bombing campaign. At first they concentrated single-mindedly on military objectives. Then they turned their attention to the civil population, trying to increase the thousands of refugees on the roads."

This added to the difficulties of the retreating British and Indian forces, for the large stream of refugees making their way toward the Assam frontier had to be handled. The Royal Air Force, already strained to the utmost though they were, did magnificent work in assisting in the marshalling of these refugees, who, to the number of some 250,000, eventually made their way into India after great hardships borne with splendid courage and endurance.

General Alexander's choice of retreat up the Chindwin valley into Assam in preference to the line of the railway up to Myitkyina was justified by the event. The Japanese drive from
PROTECTED BY TANKS, ENEMY INFANTRY MOVE UP ON SINGAPORE

Our adversaries were well armed and equipped, while years of training had prepared them for the attack on British and American outposts in the Pacific. Note the curious clout boats of these infantrymen, which facilitated climbing in the jungle. Below, burning oil dumps on Singapore Island at the close of the campaign.

Photpos. Keystone
RANGOON SEEN FROM THE LAST BOAT TO LEAVE

Giant cranes are outlined against enormous smoke clouds as the Rangoon warehouses of the Burmah Oil Company go up in flames. The top photograph was taken on March 1, 1942, from the last troop boat to leave, and enemy troops were then entering Rangoon. Below, a petrol dump at Yezangiung set on fire on April 12, after all that was possible of the precious fuel had been taken northwards in lorries. See also illus., p. 2052.

Photo: Keystone / Associated Press.
FROM UPPER BURMA ACROSS THE CHINDWIN TO INDIA

A party of American soldiers with British and Burmese nurses floated down the Uyu river to the Chindwin, using rafts on which they built rough shelters (below). The rafts had to be abandoned several miles before the big river was reached (see illus., p. 2075), and the final stage covered on foot. Top, crossing the Chindwin in dug-outs. Through a pass on the western side of the valley the party made their way into Assam.

northern Siam brought them across
the railway line at Monywa early
in May, and had the British forces
relied upon that exit they would have
been completely hamstrung in. As it
was, the retreat up the Chindwin valley,
carried out with consummate skill
and indomitable courage, enabled the Burma
army to inflict severe casualties on
the advancing enemy. On May 10
a sharp action at Shwegyin (near
Kalewa) checked the Japanese with
such emphasis that the retreating
forces were able to shake off their
pursuers. The Government of Burma
on the previous day had signalled its
escape by setting up its headquarters
at Dehi.

The Burma army's safe entry into
Assam was announced on May 15.
General Alexander had achieved the
ungrateful task entrusted to him.
The tragedy was illuminated only by
the quality of the heroism and fortitude
which British, Indian, Gurkha, Chinese
and American fighting men had brought
to face it.

Could Burma have been held? The
rapid and powerful thrusts of the
Japanese from Siam in the south in the
advance on Moumein may have come
as a surprise to the
British High Command.

Moumein's fall added to
the danger of Rangoon,
where the morale of the civil population
had been heavily shaken by air raids. The
Japanese drive from northern Siam
completed the difficulties of the defense.

Yet, in reality, the loss of Malaya
seemed to settle Burma's fate, always
assuming that the weak forces there
could not have been more speedily or
weightily reinforced on the ground
and in the air than actually they were.

Burma's fate was indeed linked up
with that of Hongkong, Singapore and
Batavia. The fall of France gave
the Japanese military machine the
chance for which it had been looking.
Britain's preoccupation first with the
Battle of Britain and the Mediterranean,
and secondly with the development
of aid to Russia, limited the extent
to which the British War Cabinet could
take measures in the Far East. India
was heavily drawn upon for the operations
in Libya, Syria, Persia and Iraq.

The Royal Navy's temporary loss
of command of the sea in the Indian
Ocean and the Bay of Bengal accentuated
Japan's dominance after
Singapore had fallen. Rangoon became
a closed port early in the struggle, and
then fell an easy prey to the Japanese.

Much was said at the time of the apathy
or even the hostility of the Burmese
to the British and Indian troops.

OIL OF YENANGYAUNG DENIED TO THE ENEMY

After a Japanese attack on the left flank of the Chinese forces in the Siam States our main force
covering the Yenangyaung oil region was withdrawn (middle of April 1942) and the oil wells
and plant were wrecked. Top, our engineers are collecting electrical machinery for deconstruction.
Below, vital parts of large machinery were cut through with oxygen blowpipes: a gigantic gear
wheel is seen.

Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright, Aus / Associated Press
THROUGH JUNGLE TO INDIA

Some parties of Allied troops had dangerous and difficult journeys through jungle and hill country to reach India in the great retreat from Burma. (1) A clear path at Pasagay Pass (Naga Hills), over 4,000 ft. high, on the Burma-India frontier. (2) Often the jungle was so dense that parties took to river beds. Lieut-General Joseph W. Stilwell (3) and staff made their way through central Burma to Assam; the General leads; (2) followed by his Aidens, Lt-Col. Frank Dunn and 1st Lt. Richard Young. (3) Stilwell’s party takes a brief rest.

making the Burmans more pro-Ally than ever before.

In the epic of Burma's ordeal the British and Indian civilians bore themselves bravely. Britons manned the auxiliary defence forces and gave leadership to the civil organization for the preservation of essential services so long as they could be kept going. As an example of British and Indian teamwork the evacuation of a bank's staff may be cited: they made their way first from Rangoon to Mandalay and thence on a 230-mile march to Calcutta in 26 days, in intense tropical heat over successive passes of 5,000 feet and 7,000 feet through tribal country. It matched the heroic conduct of the British and Indian troops as they fought the Japanese every inch of the way up the Chindwin valley.

Material for passing final judgement on the campaign in Burma will not be available until after the war. It is not possible, for instance, to say whether the diversion to Rangoon of the British division which arrived at Singapore on the eve of surrender might have changed the fortune of Burma. Nor can one assess whether the authorities responsible in the last resort for the security of Burma—as well as Malaya—were fully aware of the power and capacity of the Japanese fighting machine; and if so, whether some effort could not have been made, despite the serious crisis nearer home, to provide both Burma and Malaya with more adequate defences on the ground and in the air as soon as Indo-China became a Japanese spring-board. Generalship in Burma at all events, was not lacking, as General Alexander was destined before long to show in Libya, at Rommel's expenses.

Nor will the British Army have cause to be anything but proud of the Gloucesters, K.O.Y.L.I., Duke of Wellington's and the Royal Armoured Corps in the fighting retreat. They were as magnificent as the outnumbered Royal Air Force, who, with their American and Indian colleagues, took such heavy toll of the enemy better machined and superior in numbers. The same may be said of the Indian Army: the Frontier Force Regiment and Gurkhas recorded valour and chivalry which fully merited laurels more fortunately gained.

GYLES MACKRELL, G.M., D.F.C., SAVED 200 REFUGEES

Learning that many refugees from Burma were stranded high in the Chin State, Mr. Gyles Mackrell, a tea planter of Assam, organized an elegant convoy to go to the rescue. "At great personal risk and after many trials" he got his convoy over the Assam mountains and reached the starving survivors. Two hundred were brought to safety. On January 12, 1944, the award of the George Medal was gazetted.

Mackrell's D.F.C. had been won in the First Great War.

Photo: "Scots Chronicle."
Chapter 207

JAPAN'S ATTACK ON THE NETHERLANDS EAST INDIES

This comprehensive account of the invasion of Borneo and Sumatra has been compiled by Jr. J. N. C. van Heurn of the Royal Netherlands Navy from the most recent information placed at his disposal by the Royal Netherlands Government in London—consisting in the main of reports by eye-witnesses. The reader should consult the large map in page 2058.

When on December 8, 1941, a few hours after the attack on Pearl Harbour and Manila, the Dutch envoy in Tokyo handed his Government's declaration of war to the Japanese Foreign Minister the latter refused to accept it. Japan, who had just attacked two great Powers without a declaration of war, was amazed to receive a challenge from a small and comparatively weak nation. But after the failure of Kobayashi's blackmailing attempts at the conference in Batavia, the Japanese Foreign Office might have known that methods which had succeeded in French Indo-China would not avail them in the Netherlands East Indies. Dr. van Mook, the Dutch Minister for Internal Affairs, was firm in his negotiations, but remained quite unmoved by threats.

Japan had put out feelers for a trade pact early in 1939. In the autumn of 1940 she sent as an envoy Ichizo Kobayashi, Minister of Commerce. During several weeks at Batavia he tried to extort promises of big deliveries of motor spirit and fuel oil—quantities exceeding the entire output of the Netherlands oilfields. He was offered 30,000 tons of motor spirit, in addition to that then being exported to Japan. Chagrined by his lack of success, Kobayashi is said to have told the Dutch they were tools of British and American Imperialism, whereupon the negotiations came to an abrupt end. After a retreatation he departed with the concession he had gained. Later another envoy, the former Foreign Minister, Konishi, was sent to Batavia, where he remained till his recall in June 1941.

From the Netherlands point of view, the immediate declaration of war was the only possible course. The Dutch had long made their choice. They were convinced that there was no possibility of compromise. A trade agreement with Japan would have meant concessions, which would be looked upon only as signs of weakness. Besides that, they were deeply aware of being one of the United Nations. The time for neutral politics had gone, and would never return.

When Queen Wilhelmina made her fateful decision she felt that the slightest delay in taking up the challenge would have brought shame to her subjects. From the beginning the people of the Dutch East Indies understood that there were dark days ahead for the rich and beautiful islands. Help from outside could not be expected in time to decide the struggle, though ultimately the democracies would prevail. Meanwhile, everything must be done to gain precious time and delay the aggressor's plans. Every shell, bomb and cartridge must be used to the best advantage. The enemy must be made to expend time, men and ships. Life must be given for the homeland, for it was better to die than become a prisoner, if victory was to be won in the end. Everything that might be of use to the invader must be wrecked or burned. That was the only course.

The United States was preparing for an all-out aid to the Allies, and the Dutch realized that time was worth gaining even at the cost of heavy sacrifices. On the other hand, the destruction of Japanese shipping would help America later in the final assault against the enemy. Japan's weakness lay in shipping—to transport and supply her armies and to carry to her islands the raw materials she badly needed. The Dutch knew that their precious time might be able to help Australia in her effort to tide over the perilous period between a possible Japanese attack and the arrival of adequate American reinforcements.

So there were many reasons for putting up a stiff fight. The Dutch Navy, found in Vice-Admiral Helfrich, a leader who understood the need to attack at once. He tried to retain the initiative as long as possible before the full weight of Japanese aggression should be directed against Java and its air and naval bases. Once on the defensive, Helfrich knew that he might lose every opportunity of using his small force in the way he desired. He feared that then it might dwindle away without the chance of scoring a success.

DUTCH REPRESENTATIVES AT BATAVIA CONFERENCE

In June 1942 there was a fruitful conference between Netherlands and Japanese representatives at Batavia to discuss trade and economic problems. Dr. H. J. van Mook (right), Minister for Internal Affairs, was adamant in resisting Japanese demands. Rear-Admiral Doorzant (left) commanded the Allied Naval Squadron in the brilliant action off Baw in February 1942.

Photo courtesy of Royal Netherlands Gov.
Every precaution was taken to prevent surprise attacks before the outbreak of declared war. The Dutch Fleet Air Arm based its Dorniers as far north as possible in the outskirts of the vast archipelago, to keep a ceaseless watch. The surface ships were kept in the open sea as much as possible, while submarines were ordered westwards, where they took up position in the Gulf of Siam, south of Cambodia. The commanders were already peeping through their periscopes at Japanese convoys when these started moving westward, in the direction of Malacca.

There was only one British submarine in Singapore at this time, as of course the enemy knew. The sudden appearance of a number of Dutch submarines was a complication which the Japanese had not expected. The Dutch did not molest the heavily escorted convoys on route, but made daring attacks in very shallow water, near the landing places. In the first weeks these submarines sank ten large transports, most of them laden with troops, two tankers, and one large Asagiri-class destroyer. Some of the submarines did not return, and their score is not known. One survivor struggled for 25 hours in the sea, not merely drifting around but actually swimming—an astonishing feat.

In the meantime the Fleet Air Arm had some astonishing results with its heavy and rather slow Do-24 flying boats, built in Holland under licence and fitted with American engines. Gradually most of them were lost in hopeless fights against greater numbers of fast Japanese fighters. Nevertheless, their bombing exploits were remarkable and proved the skill of pilots and crews.

The number of successful combats can for the most part be explained by the Oerlikon cannon in the middle turret. Later on, Dutch pilots brought over Catalinas from America; these had a longer range, but could not stand up to the Zero fighters of the Japanese navy. When the enemy took possession of British oil plants in north-western Borneo, Dutch Dorniers based on Tarakan attacked a heavy Japanese cruiser; it was hit by three 400-lb. bombs and left burning fiercely.

As soon as the Japanese came within range General ter Poorten’s Glenn Martin bombers joined in the attacks and scored many hits on enemy shipping. Unfortunately the Dutch were too weak to prevent the enemy from building and occupying aerodromes on Borneo. The Japanese forces grew stronger every week, and towards the end of the year Dutch Navy and Army bombers had to face heavy fighter opposition nearly everywhere. Their own aerodromes on Borneo were heavily bombed.

Dutch cruisers and destroyers joined the British forces in escort duties, for the large convoys coming from British India through Sunda Strait almost weekly needed the utmost protection against Japanese surprise raids towards the south. Owing to these urgent duties no counter-attacks could be staged against strong enemy forces which took Tarakan and Menado early in 1942.

Tarakan, a small island off the east coast of Borneo, was the first important Dutch possession to fall into Japanese hands. It also was the first Dutch stronghold to show the world the measure of Dutch resistance and the meaning of the scorched-earth policy in that region. The oil obtained at Tarakan is very fine and can be used as fuel for Diesel engines or for oil-fired boilers almost as it comes to the surface, no "cracking" or refining plants being needed. The only certain method of foiling the enemy here was to destroy the oil wells—some perhaps for ever.

When the Japanese landing operations at Tarakan began on January 10 Dutch engineers blasted the shafts with high explosives and filled them with concrete. Oil from the tanks was set ablaze while it flowed into the harbour. The sky was darkened for days by the smoke of the oil burned, and with its ever other useful installation—factories, houses, workshops—that had been erected in the dense jungle for the last 30 years. The fire was not half as big as those at Balik Papan and Surabaya later on, and was not to be compared with the holocaust at Palembang. Nevertheless, it was an inferno that taught the enemy another lesson.

While army bombers attacked the invasion fleet and hit two transport ships the small force of Dutch troops at Tarakan fought delaying actions to prevent the invaders from interfering with
the destruction. When the last reserves had been sacrificed to prevent a breakthrough, a second heavy attack penetrated the defence line, and soon afterwards the main ammunition dump was blown sky-high. Organized resistance ceased soon afterwards. Most of the defenders were killed, but a few escaped and began guerrilla warfare. Very few were taken prisoner. Some survivors reached the mainland in native boats and brought the assurance that Tarakan oil had ceased to flow.

Next day at dawn the Japanese ships closed in and, on the assumption that all resistance had ceased, came within range of the Dutch shore battery. The gunners there had evidently been overlooked by the mopping-up operations of the Japanese land forces. They held their fire and opened up on destroyers and barges at a distance of only a few thousand yards. Before cruisers could silence the battery, two destroyers and some landing barges were sunk.

Tarakan was a smoking ruin, but when the Japanese landed they thought for a moment that their Command had been right in sending some empty tankers along with the invasion fleet. Some derricks were still standing, it is true, but the enemy soon found out that the shafts underground had been destroyed by high explosives. Smearing under this disinformation, they sent a message to the Dutch commander at Balik Papan, farther down the east coast, threatening to shoot anyone who

Flying Fortresses appeared, together with Dutch fighters from Borneo, and hit back also.

Seven of the enemy ships were sunk in a brilliant attack by the American destroyer division, consisting of five “four-stacker” destroyers under Commander Biford, U.S.N. The ample torpedo armament and low silhouette made these destroyers ideal for a night attack, though they were handicapped by the old type of torpedoes they still carried and were forced to close in on the enemy at a very short range. They did this without hesitation, and earned the admiration of all who knew enough to understand what this attack really meant. A Dutch submarine sank a destroyer and hit a cruiser, but was so boldly pursued that the commander was unable to observe if the cruiser had been sunk.

Balik Papan, like Tarakan, was set on fire and soon became a mass of smoking ruins. It had possessed an efficient and up-to-date oil installation with every possible item of modern equipment. The Japanese landed tanks and artillery, crushed the weak Dutch forces, and marched on Samarinda and Banjarmasin, everywhere preceded by the raging fires of destruction. In the endless jungles the remnants of the Dutch troops started a guerilla conflict that was to last for many months after the fall of Java. Soon afterwards Macassar, the beautiful harbour of south-western Celebes, was burned with all its stores and buildings.

The Japanese now realized that they were not yet able to attack Java without grave risks. In three days they had suffered serious losses in ships and no inconsiderable number of their aircraft had been destroyed. The results of the Dutch air attack for three days were:

- 1st day. Large warship sunk; heavy cruiser left burning with a big list; another cruiser set on fire; four large transports and one destroyer left burning.

- 2nd day. Large transport and lighter sunk; destroyer badly damaged; four fighter aircraft brought down.

- 3rd day. Heavy cruiser sunk; cruiser and transport set on fire; three fighters and one reconnaissance aircraft brought down.

In addition, the Flying Fortresses hit a cruiser, sank a transport, and brought down five fighter aircraft.

Including submarines and destroyers, at least 25 enemy ships had been sunk. However prodigious the Japanese might be with their abundant manpower, they could not afford to lose ships and aircraft on this scale.

So they concentrated their bombers and switched the attack to Java’s ports and aerodromes. Meanwhile, the Allies
continued to bomb enemy shipping in the Java Sea. The Allied strength in the area was diminishing, as was emphasized by the loss of Ambon Island (in the Moluccas) early in February 1942. The enemy attacked by air on January 29, and later the same day a Japanese naval force with transports reached the island. No large-scale opposition from Allied aircraft or warships was possible, but the enemy suffered severely from mines laid in the bay some days before. A Japanese cruiser was sunk by fire from a shore battery; another cruiser and a submarine struck mines and sank in deep water; a third cruiser was destroyed by mines in one of the outer bays near a landing place. Prisoners, threatened with torture and death unless they gave away the exact location of the minefields, firmly refused.

When the enemy landed on Ambon, a storm was raging and explosions swept the island, destroying everything likely to aid him. Then the demolition parties turned about and faced the invaders in a grim guerilla conflict that continued for three weeks on this small island, the area of which is only 300 square miles.

Aerodromes in the south of Celebes were now also taken by the Japanese, and the large-scale bombing of Java started. On February 11 Vice-Admiral Helfrich had been appointed Allied Naval Commander-in-Chief in the South-Western Pacific. The choice of the man was the choice of his method: he would do everything to save time, and would therefore sacrifice all to hit the enemy's warships, transport and supply vessels. General van Oyen, the Dutch Air Force commander, was just as ready to send his last bomber against the coming invaders, if he could see a single opportunity to weaken the enemy at any given point. His fighter force was being slowly worn down by the continuous enemy raids on Java. Many of his bombers had already been lost over Malacca, but the spirit of his pilots and crews was excellent. Nor were Helfrich's Naval airmen less cheerful, though their reconnaissance tasks became suicidal as the Japanese established more and more aerodromes for their Zero fighters. One Dutch flying-boat after another disappeared. Very often, before they took off on an operational flight, the men knew they had only one chance in a thousand of returning. Later, Queen Wilhelmina honored the Dutch Naval and Army Air Forces with the highest military decoration—the Order of William—to show that every man in these services deserved the honour.

In the meantime Java had won a few precious weeks. Towards the middle of February it became evident that the Japanese were concentrating ships in the South China Sea, and it seemed that now Palembang was their target. If Palembang fell, Singapore would be cut off at last. Palembang, about 60 miles inland in the southern part of Sumatra, is surrounded by impenetrable jungle and can only be reached over the long Musi river from the east or by rail from the southern tip of Sumatra, where a ferry links the Java and Sumatra railroads. Another route, of course, was by air, and the most elaborate precautions were taken to prevent a surprise by parachute troops.

Palembang possessed up-to-date cracking plants with large installations for the production of high-octane petrol. The oilfields, with shafts and derricks, were some 90 miles deeper in the jungle. Pipelines brought the oil to tanks near the river, where large tankers from all over the world came to load their cargo. There were low brick walls around the oil tanks, and in case of a surprise attack the action of one lever would cause the oil to flow into the washed-off space, where an electrically operated ignition charge would fire it and turn the tanks into a mile-wide barrier of flame. The immense heat would scorch everything within thousands of yards. Further, the plants with their turbines and boilers, engines and motors, were ready to be blown up instantly. Capture by surprise was impossible.

Royal Air Force bombers and fighters from Malacca were welcome reinforcements for the Dutch Air Force. For lack of suitable airfields these British units had had to be withdrawn from Singapore, where the end was rapidly drawing near. On February 18 the Japanese launched their expected attack at Palembang. From about a hundred planes three groups of parachute troops were dropped. Two attacked oil installations, while another made for the airport. Heavy and sanguinary fighting went on all day. The parachutists near the oil plants were

BURNING OILFIELDS OF BALIK PAPAN, DUTCH BORNEO

After the Dutch engineers at Tarakan, N.E. Borneo, had destroyed oil installations and wrecked the oil wells, a Japanese message was sent to the Dutch commander at Balik Papan (see map in p. 239), threatening death to everyone who should apply scorched-earth tactics there. But the engineers did their work thoroughly, and the gigantic fire at Balik Papan on January 22 is seen below. One-fifth of the oil of the Netherlands East Indies came from this great oil centre on the E. coast of Borneo.
Japanese Transports Approach Burning Palembang

Palembang, in southern Sumatra (see map on p. 2558), possessed up-to-date refining and cracking plants to deal with the oil pumped from wells some 90 miles away in the jungle. On February 15, the enemy attacked, first with parachute troops. That evening the oil plants were ordered to be fired, and next night, after a dogged fight, the defenders withdrew. Here a Japanese transport is seen in the wide Musi river. In the background are the burning oil tanks of Palembang.

Picture, Associated Press

wiped out, while the third group was got under control. The Dutch losses here were very heavy.

Most units of the Netherlands East Indian Army comprised both Indonesian and Dutch troops and officers. At Palembang the troops were largely Burning Amboinese, Menadonese, and Javanese. They always went in with the mesang, a sword that they handled very well. The confused fighting in and around the installations gave them many opportunities to use this weapon. In the evening the Dutch commander decided to set fire to the oil plants, since the defenders, weakened by the heavy losses of the first day, might not be able to withstand another attack. So on that night of February 15-16, Palembang was destroyed. Scores of huge tanks burned for days. The mighty factories and refineries were reduced to the same heaps of torn and twisted steelwork as at Balik Papan and Tarakan.

Bluemaxes and Hurricanes of the R.A.F., together with Dutch, Glenn Martins, stranded the fleet of small craft, towed by motor-boats from the Japanese troopships, and heavy losses were inflicted on Japanese soldiers crammed into countless barges. The invasion fleet, at anchor in the northern entrance of Banjir Strait, was also attacked. Several ships were hit and left burning, but the enemy had by this time brought up a large fighter and bomber force. Air battles raged all day long. Towards the end of the second day the Allied air force saw its airfields enlarged by parachute troops and had to withdraw forces from Java, where also some of the British ground-staff and the A.A. artillery evacuated from Oosthaven (on the Sunda Strait) made their way. Most of the Dutch and some British troops retraced into the jungle towards Pahang, on the west coast of Sumatra.

On the first day of the battle for Palembang an Allied naval striking force under Rear-Admiral K. Doormen tried to harass the Japanese amphibious landing. Doorman's squadron comprised five cruisers (H.M.S. "Exeter," H.M.A.S. "Perth," and the Netherlands warships "De Ruyter," "Java," and "Tromp"), together with two British, four Dutch, and four American destroyers. During the sweep along the north coast of Banja the Allied squadron was bombed for seven hours by large enemy formations. Anti-aircraft fire from the ships kept the Japanese planes at a height of about 15,000 feet. Here, as almost everywhere, the enemy used a method of high-altitude pattern bombing, but in this case did not hit a single ship. Nevertheless, Doorman was forced to abandon his intention of attacking the transport fleet, since he could not afford to engage a stronger enemy squadron under continuous air attack. Palembang had promised air support, but was unable to provide it. Any possibility of a surprise attack by night had also gone, as Doorman's squadron steamed off into the Indian Ocean to elude enemy air reconnaissance.

The plight of Java grew worse. All the key points, harbours and aerodromes were being regularly pounded by huge forces of enemy bombers with strong fighter escort. The Japanese fighters increased their range by using stream-lined reserve fuel tanks under their fuselages. These were dropped after emptying them as soon as the aircraft were engaged by Dutch fighters. A similar device had been used in the Philippines.

The Japanese did not proceed immediately to the major attack on Java, but made for Bali, the small island immediately to the west, separated from Java by the Bali Strait, a narrow channel. The first landing on Bali was made on February 18. A week later, with Bali in their hands, the Japanese also held Oosthaven, on Sunda Strait, and were in position to drive at Java from three directions. The battles for Bali and Java are described in Chapter 206.
Chapter 208

BATTLE OF BALI AND THE FIGHT FOR JAVA

The records of the Royal Netherlands Navy have been drawn upon for the following graphic description of the final stages in the conquest of the Netherlands East Indies by Japan. The writer, Shr. Lieutenant J. N. C. van Heurn, in the course of his duties, interviewed many of those who took part in the operations. See maps in pages 2055 and 2074.

After the fall of Singapore and Palembang on February 15, the Allied naval force under Rear-Admiral Doorman steamed through Sunda Strait into the Indian Ocean. British units then went northward to take up convoy duty again, while the Dutch and American cruisers and destroyers sailed south-east to refuel at Tjilatjap, the only port on the south coast of Java. Here the crews could take a well-earned rest. In the blazing hot harbour they quenched their thirst with grapes, oranges and apples from a big cargo vessel which had just arrived from California. The fruit had been destined for Singapore, where the troops and inhabitants would now have to make do on a scanty diet of rice, doled out by their Japanese conquerors.

While Doorman's squadron was refuelling at Tjilatjap the Japanese were preparing for the first operation in their attack on Java—the conquest of Bali, the comparatively small island immediately to the east, separated from Java by the narrow Bali Strait. This beautiful island was a very popular resort of tourists, who came there in the smart K.P.M. liners and in the big American-built planes of the K.N.L.L.M. (Royal Netherlands Indies Airways). These craft were now being used to bring medical supplies and to evacuate women and children from the threatened area. The large aerodrome was intact, though unfortunately it was very vulnerable, being only a few hundred yards from the south-eastern shore of the island.

On February 19, 1942, a large Japanese force landed on Bali, overran the small Dutch garrison and captured the aerodrome. It would now become possible for the enemy to ferry large forces across Bali Strait to Java under fighter cover based on the Den Pasar aerodrome. Bali Strait is very narrow, and from Banjewangan on the Java side very good roads lead deep into the heart of Java, to the town of Malang and the naval base of Surabaya.

It was reported that large invasion fleets were already being assembled in Makassar Strait and in the South China Sea—obviously intended for Java. Gauging the strength of the enemy forces off Bali was very difficult, and the Dutch airmen lost many machines in attacks and in attempts to obtain this information. There was no doubt that the covering force consisted of at least three times as many cruisers as were available to the Allies at that time. But from Batavia Admiral Helfrich gave immediate orders to Rear-Admiral Doorman to attack the enemy with his forces in the Indian Ocean and with others at Surabaya.

The plan was at once very simple and highly dangerous. Doorman's striking force in Tjilatjap consisted of two Dutch cruisers, one large Dutch destroyer and two American destroyers.

They were to proceed at full speed to Lombok Strait (between Bali and the island of Lombok) and engage the Japanese before midnight next day, when the invaders were expected to be busy with landing operations. The night would be fairly dark, with little moon. After midnight there was to be a second attack. A second force, made up of the Dutch light cruiser "Tram" and four small American destroyers, was ordered to steam from Surabaya to the southern entrance of Lombok Strait, after first passing through Bali Strait and rounding the southern point of Bali. (See map in page 2068.)

Both Allied formations had orders to torpedo, shell and machine-gun all ships they encountered, since it was certain these could only be enemy craft. Should they succeed in breaking through, they were to try to reach Surabaya, or to disappear again into the vast Indian Ocean.

There was a snag in this apparently straightforward operation—it was probably that the enemy had already closed in on the coast of Bali To the Allied attacking force the Japanese would appear against a very high and shadowed background of black mountains; the Allied force, on the other hand, would be silhouetted against the light and clear horizon on the moonlit sea behind them. In these circumstances it was very unlikely that the enemy would be taken by surprise. Moreover, before the Allies could shell the Japanese warships and invasion craft it would be necessary to light up the entire bay with star shells, giving yet another warning of Doorman's approach.

After steaming out of the narrow Tjilatjap harbour in the night—a difficult operation—Doorman's squadron raced all next day along the south coast of Java, well out from the shore to elude enemy bombers. The men were very

DUTCH NAVAL C.-IN.-C.

Vice-Admiral C. E. L. Helfrich succeeded Admiral Theun. C. Hart as Commander Allied Naval Forces, S.W. Pacific, on February 21, 1942. He directed the magnificent fight by Dutch, British, and American Naval units until, with the fall of Java and the loss of practically all his forces, he laid down the Command on March 4.

Photo, Central Press
DUTCH WARSHIPS OF IMPERISHABLE MEMORY

Under Rear-Admiral Doorman these cruisers and destroyers took part in the brilliant Battle of Belf and the Java Sea in February 1942. The cruisers "Java" (1) and "De Ruyter" (4) with the destroyers "Fiet Hein" (7) and two American destroyers attacked Japanese warships and transports off Belf on the night of February 19. Both cruisers were damaged and the "Fiet Hein" was sunk in this ten-minute raid. A few hours later the cruiser "Tromp" (2) and four U.S. destroyers made a second attack with great success, but the "Tromp" was badly mauled and escaped with difficulty. The "Java" and "De Ruyter" were torpedoed and sunk on the night of February 27-28 in the course of a fight between Doorman's squadron (including also the cruisers "Houston," "Faster," "Perth," and nine Allied destroyers) and a big Japanese force in the Java Sea.

Photo: courtesy of Royal Netherlands Navy, Secret & Espionage

keen to engage the enemy; they had been bombed for weeks without a chance to hit back, and now their turn to strike was coming. The cruisers had been long engaged in seemingly never-ending convoy duties. To all Navy men this Belf attack meant an engagement with warships and not aircraft—for the repelling of enemy bombers did not mean "action" in the sense in which they understood it.

At 9.00 p.m. on February 19, the bells rang for action stations. First, in line ahead, came the Dutch cruisers "De Ruyter", and "Java"; they were followed by the Dutch destroyer "Fiet Hein." Two U.S. destroyers under Commander Betford (U.S. Navy) brought up the rear. By now the attackers had worked up to full speed: at 30 knots they dashed straight towards the dark black mass of mountains that was Belf. There were what seemed endless minutes of nerve-racking suspense, and then suddenly the leading Dutch cruiser appeared to have sighted something. There came a short flash, the roar of her guns, and a moment later the bursting of star-shells which lit up a number of Japanese ships at close quarters.

From this moment everything happened with nightmare rapidity. The line of attackers steered through many Japanese vessels: cruisers, destroyers and transports were seen to port and starboard. "De Ruyter" had barely time to train her guns and fire. The 40-mm. Bofors guns of both Dutch cruisers swept the decks of some passing destroyers. "Java" fired her 6-inch
gum at several transports, one of which began to burn. By now the enemy had recovered from his surprise and opened fire. The "Java" was hit in the stern by what later turned out to have been an 8-inch shell, but no vital damage was done. Everywhere the enemy switched on searchlights. The "Piet Hein" loosed off her torpedoes: the first went astray, but the second and third hit an enemy cruiser. The American destroyers lived up to their Macassar reputation by sending torpedos into several transports and a cruiser. In the confusion of burning ships, exploding shells and torpedos and the many searchlights it was difficult to estimate the extent of the Allied success, but it was obvious that the Americans had done considerable damage. A casual remark of Commander Binning gave a vivid picture of the situation: "I never saw so many ships so near in all my life."

The Netherlands destroyer "Piet Hein" was unlucky. On the afternoon of the 18th her gunnery officer had told the men that everything would be "like target practice Regulations No. C-4, but that this time the targets would be allowed to shoot back!" This proved to be true enough—but there were too many targets and they all shot back. A heavy shell from a cruiser hit the "Piet Hein" amidships in her boiler room. Steam pressure fell rapidly, and the searchlights failed. Another enemy shell started a big fire behind the bridge. The fire control and range-finders on the upper bridge had already been damaged. The Dutch destroyer was now almost stationary and, while she lay helpless, shells poured into her from enemy ships on both sides. Her commander tried to fire the torpedos still remaining; he turned the ship to starboard, but she now stopped altogether and listed heavily. Just at this moment several of her crew saw a Japanese cruiser go down stern first.

The situation now began to improve a little. An engineer officer went down into the boiler room and managed to shut off the most badly damaged sections of the oil and steam supply systems. Then he tried to carry the unconscious stokers on deck. After saving many of them he himself fell victim to the smoke and heat and failed to come up any more. Others had attacked the fires behind the bridge and in the rear magazines. Now one forward gun opened up again with a new crew. The first team had been swept away by enemy fire. But this brave offensive proved futile: the enemy closed in, and from both sides the destroyer was swept by tracer bullets, while shells struck her again and again. "Piet Hein" had fought her last battle; slowly she settled down in the water. At last her commander gave the order to abandon ship, and all who were able to swim took to the rafts. As one survivor said later, it was a "hell of a job" to get the wounded to the rafts by swimming with them through the oil-covered water.

Shortly afterwards the destroyer was hit by a torpedo, and sank within half a minute. The enemy now turned his fire on to the helpless men swimming towards the rafts, and machine-gunned the floaters themselves. Many were killed; others, after swimming all night, were washed ashore on a small island, but even there some were killed when the surf dashed them against the rocks. Another had been attacked by a shark and had lost a foot. When a few survivors reached the white beaches of Bali they were covered with oil and utterly exhausted. Because of their colour the Balinese at first mistook them for Japanese, but when they spoke in Malay the natives brought them food, washed the filthy mess from their bodies with coconut oil, and gave them "savings." The sailors got in touch with a Dutch civil servant who, like all others in the service throughout the archipelago who were ordered to stay, had stayed near his post. He provided bicycles on which the survivors made their way to the north coast, whence they sailed to Surabaya.

Meanwhile the larger part of Doorman's force had broken through the enemy. Whatever doubts there might have been about the Japanese strength, the Admiral was now convinced that it was not possible to turn and engage the enemy once more. It was, of course, impossible to ascertain the precise result of this ten-minute attack, but

AFTER THE EVACUATION OF BATAVIA

Java was invaded on March 1, and the next few days saw the practical occupation of the island. Here is the scene as enemy advance units approached Tandjong Priok, the harbour of Batavia—capital of the Netherlands East Indies. Oil tanks and tankers had been fired, and little of service to the Japanese had been left undamaged.

Photo: Floral News
Doorman had taken the measure of his opponents. At least six Japanese cruisers had been sighted, and there were probably two more. A few of them were 8-inch-gun ships, as was proved by the hole in the stern of the "Java." So the small Allied squadron once again sailed off into the darkness, leaving behind it the glow of burning ships, one of which was the "Piet Hein," whose memory would henceforth live on in the annals of the Royal Netherlands Navy.

In retrospect it appeared that the entire engagement had come as a surprise to the enemy. The Japanese, who had swallowed their own propaganda, which was false, had become "surprised," and had left the Dutch East Indies. What was once on the Allied side understood, however, was why the Japanese had not bothered to set a guard at the southern entrance of Lombok Strait. With their tactical advantages they sought to have been able to open fire first at any intruder, no matter from which direction he might come. The transports had dropped anchor and were an easy target for torpedoes. Some eye-witnesses even gained the impression that several Japanese cruisers also were at anchor. There was much confusion, it is true, but it appeared as if the enemy had come to the conclusion that the danger had passed when the attackers drew off after the loss of the "Piet Hein." In any event they again neglected to send a destroyer patrol to the southern end of Lombok Strait.

It was in these circumstances that, a few hours later, the "Tromp" and four American destroyers appeared on the scene. The night had become somewhat lighter by this time. The "Tromp" was a very light cruiser, with 6-inch guns and hardly any armor, and her commander thought himself lucky that it had now become light enough to engage the enemy immediately, without having first to fire star shells which would give away his own position. There were even lights on some of the Japanese ships—perhaps attempts were being made to repair damage from the earlier attack. The Dutch cruiser opened fire on a dark silhouette sighted on her port bow. The range was not long and the fire control was able to observe hits. In her wake the four U.S. destroyers, steaming on at 30 knots, headed toward the mass of enemy ships.

So far there had been no hitch in the enemy's searchlights, which shone right into their own gun turrets from the bridge, where the guns were unscreened. In a few moments the "Tromp" was struck by 8-inch shells. One hit the fire control with devastating effects: two officers and several men were killed. The only survivor was the first gunnery officer, and he, wounded in the thigh, could hardly stand. He climbed down, however, from the wrecked control tower and reached No. 2 turret, in front of the bridge.

The gun crews were composition, for they had received no orders, and the entire "fire control" still indicated a target on the port bow, which he now had become quite near. The Roforos A.A. crews did not hesitate for a moment, and trained their power-driven twin-mounted guns against the blinding searchlights. Meanwhile the gunnery officer had ordered his 6-inch turrets into one wild sweep around to starboard. The "Tromp" escaped. A few seconds later it opened fire against the giant. The other gun crews understood and followed suit, firing at breakneck speed, since they knew that it was a matter of life or death and that a second or two might determine whether they or the enemy were destroyed. The guns, aimed at the searchlights, automatically received at this short range a correction which sent the shells into the hull of the Japanese warship. More and more 8-inch shells struck the "Tromp," eight in all. Many of the crew were killed,
LAST DAYS IN SURABAYA

On the Kali Mas river, in the eastern part of Java, Surabaya was the naval and military headquarters of the Netherlands East Indies and an important oil town. The Japanese entered on March 8, to find the naval base a smoking ruin and the quays blocked by sunken ships.

(1) The grim spectacle as the Dutch ships left. (2) Cleaning up after a bombing raid; crater at right was made by a 250-lb. bomb. (3) Indonesian rescue workers searching for trapped victims. (4) Dutch sailors board a Netherlands destroyer.

Photos, courtesy of Royal Netherlands Navy: Associated Press; Paul Popper
but no vital parts of the cruiser were damaged. The ship kept up a high speed and fought back fiercely at the enemy. Suddenly a burst of 40-mm shells from her Bofors gun put out the searchlights which were so hampering the Dutchman, and she now poured in more and more 6-inch shells. The enemy's fire ceased.

During this running fight, the four American destroyers had each launched their dozen torpedoes, hitting a cruiser, several transports and some tankers. Among the enemy there was much confusion, with wild shooting in all directions. One of the American destroyers was hit in the stern, but in spite of the goring hole she was able to follow the "Trump" out of this inferno. Two others, cut off by the Japanese, turned and steamed away southwards.

No commander could expect his vessel to survive after such punishment as the Dutch light cruiser had received, and the "Trump's" captain broadcast what he expected to be his last message: "I am ready to follow you back to the east coast, and I am ready to fight the Japanese."

On this day, as previously, the invasion fleet off Bali was bombed again and again by Dutch Navy and Army aircraft and by American Flying Fortresses. A large Japanese cruiser was seen being towed away towards Makassar. Most of the enemy transports had been sunk. It was estimated that off Bali the enemy had lost 20 ships in all, among them at least one cruiser. Submarines accounted for two more of the invasion fleet. So the use of Bali for the attack on Java by land forces was denied to the enemy. One at least of the three great tentacles was cut, but unfortunately it proved impossible to deal with the others two, and they suffered for the enemy's task.

The defence of Java was a difficult problem. The Government was at Batavia, while the main centre of resistance was Bandung, with its surrounding mountains. Both these towns are in the western part of the island. In the east are the important naval base of Surabaya and the oil centre of Tjipat.

The mountains of eastern Java provide terrain suitable for a prolonged defence, but the crucial factor in the situation was the vulnerability of the island, with 450 miles of northern coast along which the enemy could land almost with impunity. Even if the Dutch had possessed forces two times as strong if
was unlikely that the Japanese could have been prevented from driving across the island and thus splitting the Java defenders in two.

Inevitably, then, the major part in the defence fell to the Dutch and Allied Naval force led by Rear-Admiral Doorman. The Dutch Army had lost much of its strength in land and air battles in the other islands. Now, it became clear, it would have to meet two Japanese forces—one sailing southward from Macassar Strait and the other coming from the South China Sea. So Admiral Helfrich determined to send his small striking force under Doorman against the far superior enemy fleet. As it turned out, the subsequent Battle of the Java Sea was to be the final offensive effort of the United Nations in the South-West Pacific for a long time to come.

After refuelling at Surabaya, Rear-Admiral Doorman made sweeps along the north coast of Madura and Java so as to be ready for an encounter with the invasion fleet from the east. Under his command were five cruisers: “De Ruyter” (Dutch), “Houston” (U.S.A.), H.M.S. “Exeter” and H.M.A.S. “Perth.”

Doorman’s Final Offensive comprised three British destroyers (“Electra,” “Encounter” and “Jupiter”), two Dutch (“Witte de With” and “Kortenaer”), and four American (“Edwards,” “Alden,” “Ford” and “Jones”). The Admiral’s plan was to bring off another night attack like that which had been so successful in Macassar Strait and in the Battle of Bali. Though it called for the taking of great risks and involved the utmost courage and daring, it had certain advantages. A transpor fleet, once landing had begun, was handicapped. Its warships and troopships are an easy prey to torpedoes, and the escort must stay close to the convoy—at the risk of failing to intercept a large-scale attack. Time could be won for the Dutch Army if the planned operation interfered with the concentration of the enemy and depleted the invading force. Doorman could do his utmost against one, at least of the attacking fleets.

Doorman’s force steamed out of the western approach to Surabaya after dark and made its way along the heavily mined north coast of Madura. A landing on this island had been expected, but the invasion fleet moved on farther west along the coast of Borneo, and in view of this the Allied squadron returned to Surabaya once more. Accurate air reconnaissance was impossible in face of the overwhelming strength of the enemy fighters, but while returning from the

HOW THE ‘CRIJSSEN’ ESCAPED FROM JAVA

Reaching Surabaya on March 6, 1942, the Dutch minesweeper ‘Crijssen’ found the naval base a mass of flames and the Japanese near by. Her commander determined to attempt the perilous passage to Australia through the enemy-infested narrow of the Archipelago. Brushwood and foliage were gathered (centre), and the warship was cleverly camouflaged until she was indistinguishable from the shore-line background. Top, the funnel and navigation bridge partly concealed. At bottom, the camouflage completed, the ‘Crijssen’ steams slowly along, hugging the shore; she reached Australia in safety.

Photos, courtesy of the Royal Netherlands Navy
second sweep the Dutch commander at last received some information. The Japanese fleet of warships and transports was now steaming southward and was off the island of Bawean (about 60 miles N. of Surabaya, in the Java Sea); it consisted of 45 transports with several covering cruisers. Doorman immediately resolved to attack. He took a north-westerly course, hoping to come up with the Japanese during the night (February 27–28, 1942). There would be a full moon, and it was likely that the enemy might begin his landings by its light without waiting for dawn.

The Japanese, who had beaten down the Allied air reconnaissance, were fully informed of Doorman’s movements. Under concentrated fire from two or three of their opponents, H.M.S. “Exeter” was hit in the boiler rooms, lost speed, and dropped out of line, leaving the “Housten” as the only 8-inch-gun cruiser. The Dutch commander decided to cover the “Exeter.” As the Allied line turned to port, the Dutch destroyer “Kortenaer” was torpedoed and sank within a minute (at 2:20 p.m.). It looked as if Doorman’s squadron had run into an enemy submarine, for torpedoed or sunk by several ships while Japanese destroyers were still too far distant to be responsible for these attacks.

While the Dutch destroyer “Witte de With” escorted the limping “Exeter” enemy cruisers had been hit, and on balance the Allies had suffered less in this daylight action than the enemy. But Doorman’s striking force had now dwindled to four cruisers: his destroyers had fired their torpedoes and were too low in fuel to join the cruisers in the westward sweep the latter now undertook. The Dutch commander desired to make one final effort to elude the enemy covering force and reach the transport fleet itself, but the weather was unfavourable for such a move. There was an almost full moon, so that in a clear tropical night the visibility was nearly as good as by daylight.

Doorman made the attempt. Enemy aircraft kept contact with the Allied cruisers and indicated their whereabouts by flares dropped incessantly, thus preventing the cruiser force from surprising the transports. So, shortly after midnight, the opposing warships clashed again. The enemy had doubled their reinforcements. Smoke was engaged at a range of five miles, and the “De Ruyter” was hit several times. Suddenly the two Dutch cruisers were torn by violent explosions and quickly sank—they had been torpedoed. U.S.S. “Houston” and H.M.A.S. “Perth” broke off the fight and made for Tanjong Priok, the harbour of Batavia. But the way through Sunada Strait into the Indian Ocean was already blocked by Japanese cruisers, while many enemy torpedo-planes and bombers were available from Palembang and from an aircraft carrier. Both cruisers were lost in the attempt to break through to the Indian Ocean.

The Dutch destroyer “Evertsen” also tried to steer through Sunada Strait, but was caught by two Japanese cruisers and was beached after being badly damaged. After slight repairs H.M.S. “Exeter” left Surabaya with the British destroyer “Encounter” and U.S.A. destroyer “Pope” in an attempt to get through Bali Strait. They were engaged by a strong enemy force and nothing further was heard of them. Four American destroyers were the only warships to escape by making use of the eastern approach, which was not suitable for cruisers, they got through Bali Strait and away into the Indian Ocean, though not without a fight.

By February 28, after the destruction of nearly all the Allied squadron which had fought so hard and valiantly against overwhelming odds, the Java Sea had come entirely under Japanese control. On Sunday, March 1, the enemy landed at three points on the northern coast of Java. Crossing Sunada Strait from Sumatra, one large body landed in Bantam. An invasion fleet landed its
EPISODE IN THE GREAT RETREAT FROM BURMA TO INDIA.

Other stages in this remarkable journey are illustrated in p. 207. The party of American soldiers and British and Burmese mules came down the Irrawaddy river on rafts, which had to be abandoned before reaching the junction with the Chindwin. Here the party is traversing the sandy approach to the big river, across which native dug-outs furnished the only means of passage. A pass on the farther side of the valley led into Assam.

ALLIED RETREAT IN BURMA

Owing to the absence of any substantial supply routes from India, the Burma Army had to be withdrawn. For much of the way it was a fighting retreat carried out in extreme conditions.

From “The Illustrated London News”
troops at Indramayu, about a hundred miles east of Batavia; the eastern fleet of transports put troops ashore near Rembang, 90 miles west of Surabaya. The latter force was attacked by Dutch motor torpedo-boats, which sank an enemy flotilla leader. (See map p. 3974.)

As the result of the first day's operations the invaders had firmly established their beach-heads. While heavy equipment was being put ashore, light troops moved far inland.

Three Javanese Landings

With the limited numbers at its disposal the Dutch Command was unable to concentrate big enough forces at the critical moment to attack the beach-heads on a large scale. The defenders had destroyed Tjepur, the only Javanese oil-centre, situated near the point where the eastern group had landed. In command here was General Ilgen, who had under him a few battalions of infantry and some Marines—opposed by a Japanese force of at least two divisions strong. The defence was thus outnumbered five to six times, and this was typical of the situation at the other landing points. Allied bombers pounded the enemy continually during the first days. Though the enemy's air umbrella was not yet so strong as it later became, owing to the distance from the nearest bases and aircraft carriers, the defence was much too weak to deal a decisive blow to the Japanese in the air.

In the east General Ilgen kept up a determined resistance for eight days, but at last he was surrounded and had to yield. In the west, General ter Poorten had to deal with two enemy spearheads. After fighting delaying actions he fell back to mountain positions around Bandung. The enemy circumvented the Dutch coastal defences and used infiltration tactics on a large scale; advancing rapidly across the Java plains towards the mountains, they left the Dutch "hedgehogs" and other defences far behind them. As a result, most of General ter Poorten's advanced troops were cut off before they could get to the mountain lines. Against key-points of the line itself, the Japanese massed heavy artillery and crushed them by sheer weight of metal. After the first week of the invasion their bombers had free range and could choose their targets with impunity, for the Allied air force had been beaten down and driven off.

Bandung fell, but organized resistance went on for a few days longer, until the mountain positions became untenable owing to lack of supplies and incessant hammering from the air. Small, well-trained groups under General Schilling and General Pezeman continued to fight in the mountains, General ter Poorten and Governor-General van Starrenburgh Stachouwer were taken prisoner. Despite Japanese reports to the contrary, no order was given to cease resistance. On the contrary, in the last broadcasts from Bandung all commanders of Army units were told to fight on to the end. It suited the Japanese plan to minimize the growing guerrilla warfare everywhere, in Sumatra, Java, Borneo and Celebes; the same hard fight went on also in other Dutch islands further east, notably in Timor.

On March 1 Admiral Helfrich left Java with his staff. Naval personnel and the survivors from some Dutch ships were taken off from Tjilitatjap at about the same date. Three days later, on March 4, Admiral Helfrich laid down the command of the Allied Force in that area. His ships had in fact fought on to destruction, and the squadron no longer existed. During the brief period since the Japanese onslaught early in December it had written history and achieved immortality. In the noble comradeship of battle Netherlandish warships, with those of Britain, Australia and the United States, had been handled with boldness, bravery and skill unexcelled anywhere in the many theatres of war east or west, and had taken toll of the enemy to an extent which must have left its influence on the later campaign.

DUTCH GOVERNOR AND C-in-C. ENTER INTERNMENT CAMP

After the fall of Bandung and Surabaya on March 9, 1942, the Governor-General of the N.E.I., Jdr. A. W. L. Tjarda van Starrenburgh Stachouwer (left), and the C-in-C. of the Dutch Army, Lt.-Gen. Henk ter Poorten (right), were taken prisoner by the Japanese and interned above. They are passing together through the gateway into the prison camp.

Photo, Associated Press

By the middle of March the Battle of Java had ended. When the Japanese entered Surabaya (March 9) they found the naval base and harbour a smouldering heap of ashes. Ships had been sunk along the quays and in the harbour entrance. Oil tanks had been alight for a week, and everywhere there was devastation impossible to repair. Surabaya's dockyards and factories, like those of other towns of the Netherlands East Indies, would have to be rebuilt from the ground up, and every scrap of machinery and equipment would have to be brought from Japan.

Java and the rest of the Dutch islands could not immediately be employed by the Japanese as a base for an attack on Australia. The islands had hardly any industrial resources left.

In many ways the conquest must have disappointed the enemy. There were tens of thousands of rubber trees still intact, and rubber still flowed, of course, but the factories had been burnt down and it would be impossible to keep up the production of sheet rubber on a large scale. Tin dredges everywhere had been demolished, together with the plant for treating the product. All that the enemy was likely to get out of Java was rice, grown in abundance by millions of peaceful and industrious Javanese peasants.
BATTLE OF THE CORAL SEA, MAY 6-7, 1942

On May 4, 1942, the American carriers 'Lexington' (3) and 'Yorktown' with escorting cruisers and destroyers under Vice-Admiral F. J. Fletcher had bombed Japanese warships and transports at Tulagi, in the Solomons. Fletcher's forces then steamed into the Coral Sea to deal with other enemy warships. On May 6 aircraft from 'Lexington' sank the enemy carrier 'Nyuukino' (4), seen just after a torpedo hit. Next day, after more heavy attacks from the U.S. carriers, the Japanese force was turned back. 'Lexington' was hit by two torpedoes and many bombs, blowing fiercely she steamed away, but a very heavy explosion (5) of petrol vapour damaged her so much that the crew abandoned ship (1), and she was finished off by American torpedoes. The 'Yorktown' received some, but not much damage.
Chapter 209.

WAR AT SEA: ALLIES' UPHILL TASK IN THE PACIFIC

This Chapter gives a general review of naval activities in all oceans during the first six months of 1942, when the United Nations were reeling from the shock of Japanese aggression. For a first-hand account of the sea battles around the Netherlands East Indies see Chapter 208.

During the early months of 1942 the Pacific demanded most attention, although constant vigilance was necessary in other areas to counter the manoeuvres of Germany and Italy. The Japanese operations, in the main successful, were not only a danger to all Allied territory in the Pacific but threatened the Indian Ocean and the Cape route along which all our supplies to the Middle East army were carried. Japanese methods were not unexpected; they had long been obvious that Japan would not risk her more important naval material against Allied fleets designed and able to meet an enemy in battle. Like Germany, she held her heavy metal in reserve, working southward with her oldest armed ships supported by many cruisers and innumerable small craft.

The Americans were successful in concealing the real extent of damage by the Pearl Harbour attack. Tokyo repeatedly flew kites in search of information about the position and strength of the main U.S. fleet, claiming that it had been entirely destroyed; Washington was perfectly truthful in announcing the ships actually destroyed, but did not tell of those damaged until a year afterwards, by which time they were on service again. The fleet at Pearl Harbour had numbered 36 units, apart from small craft and included eight battleships and seven cruisers. (For a full account of events in Hawaii see Chapter 197.) Of the battleships only the "Arizona" was entirely lost, but four others were so severely damaged that they were out of action for a long time, while three other battleships and many smaller vessels sustained serious injury.

Another serious handicap to the Allies was the shortage of aircraft carriers. The British ones had been designed to work with the fighting squadrons and were large and very expensive ships which took a long time to build; the American carriers were more varied in size, but were less elaborate. The number of U.S. carriers available was not published, but Mr. Churchill announced that in December 1941 the Admiralty had only one on service in the whole fleet; four out of the total of seven had been sunk and two others were under repair. The one which was ready could not be spared to go East. On the Japanese side the number of specially designed carriers had been kept very secret, but in addition Japan was using many converted merchantmen (including tankers and passenger liners) whose speed was quite inadequate for tactical operations with naval squadrons. These auxiliaries, operating from pre-selected bases among the Pacific islands, proved exceedingly troublesome and took the place of shore airfields which would have demanded long preparation.

In the New Year the Japanese accelerated their attacks on the Dutch East Indies, as the obvious step towards an assault upon Australia, while a powerful combined force maintained the investment of the Philippines. The United Nations were outnumbered on, under, and over the water, but their naval forces, particularly submarines, were reinforced as rapidly as possible and the Japanese ships were harried. The closest cooperation between the naval and air forces produced invaluable reconnaissance in spite of many difficulties, which were increased when the U.S.S. "Langley" was sunk in February while carrying a large number of badly needed aircraft. This cooperative reconnaissance of the two arms detected a big Japanese convoy of about 40 transports with cruiser and destroyer escort passing south through the Macassar Strait on January 23, when a six-day combined air and naval attack was immediately launched by the Allies.

Ten transports were sunk or probably sunk and others damaged, while enemy warships were hit by torpedoes and bombs. One cruiser was almost certainly put down. One destroyer was sunk by a Dutch submarine and at least two were "probable" from bombs. At the same time (Jan. 26) two veteran destroyers from the First Great War—H.M.S. "Vampire" and H.M.S. "Thanet"—intercepted a superior Japanese force off the east coast of Malaya covering a landing. One transport was sunk and the "Thanet" picked up survivors; the two British destroyers then attacked the main enemy fleet of one cruiser and three destroyers. In a running fight the "Thanet" was sunk, but one Japanese destroyer also went down and another was damaged. Early in February American surface ships sunk a cruiser off Ambon.

On February 8 Admiral T. G. Hart, U.S.N., was appointed to command the

LOST IN A BOLD SORTIE OFF MALAYA

Two British destroyers made a daring attack on a Japanese cruiser and three destroyers off Entan (E. coast of Malaya) after dark on January 26, 1942—H.M.S. "Thanet" (below) and H.M.S. "Vampire." The enemy retired, with the loss of one destroyer, but the "Thanet" was sunk in the action. A small destroyer, of 900 tons, she dated back to the First Great War.

Photos, Wright & Logan.
Combined American, British, Dutch, and Australian forces in the Pacific, but within a few days he was relieved owing to ill-health and was succeeded by the Dutch Vice-Admiral Helfrich. (See Chapter 268 for a detailed account of the operations in the Dutch-Indian waters.)

On February 19 the Japanese landed on Bali Island, but were successfully attacked by Allied ships under Dutch leadership in one of the most daring exploits in Dutch naval history. On this day also the first active move by the enemy against Australia took place—an air raid on Darwin which caused a certain amount of damage in the harbor. Japanese landings on Java were preceded by the Battle of the Java Sea (February 27), when Admiral Helfrich ordered the Allied forces to attempt to break through the strung Japanese covering fleet to reach the transports. Under Rear-Admiral Doorman they made a sweep along the northern coasts of Madura and Java. The fleet consisted of the Dutch cruisers "De Ruyter" and "Java," and the destroyers "Witte de With" and "Electra," the Australian cruiser "Perth," and the American cruiser "Houston" with four U.S. destroyers.

A night attack on the Japanese was planned, but inferiority in the air prevented exact intelligence being transmitted; the Japanese observed the movement, sending their transports northward for safety while they concentrated their warships. The action started at long range at four in the afternoon, but the enemy, whose superior force consisted of numerous cruisers and heavy destroyers, soon shortened the range under cover of smoke screens.

Considerable damage was done to the enemy in the early stages, but H.M.S. "Exeter," hit in the boiler room and had to fall out of the line, escaped with temporary safety by the "Witte de With." The "Kortenaer" was hit amidships and sank at once. The Allied line then turned southerly to cover the retirement of the "Exeter," but the Japanese launched a destroyer attack at 5:30 sinking H.M.S. "Electra," but losing two and probably three destroyers. Soon afterwards H.M.S. "Jupiter" was sunk, apparently by a submarine. The action was broken off then, but the Allied fleet returned after nightfall in another attempt to reach the transports, seriously hampered because the destroyers had run out of torpedoes and fuel.

The Allies were discovered by Japanese aircraft and soon after midnight the action was resumed at about five miles range. The "De Ruyter" and "Java" were hit by torpedoes and sank rapidly. The U.S.S. "Huron," and H.M.A.S. "Perth" succeeded in reaching Batavia, but after refuelling there and attempting to pass the Sunda Strait they were sunk. Although the enemy losses were estimated at one heavy cruiser and several destroyers sunk, with several cruisers damaged, the wiping out of the Allied fleet permitted the landing operations to continue uninterrupted. On March 1 the "Exeter" with H.M.S. "Encounter" and the U.S. destroyer "Pope" were sunk in Java Sea waters. (See Chapter 268.)

On March 4 the Dutch Rear-Admiral Van Swaerken succeeded Admiral Helfrich in the Allied command, and six days later the naval base of Sunabaya fell. The old American destroyers "Stewart," under repair there, was destroyed. H.M. destroyer "Stronghold" and H.M. Australian sloop "Yarra"
were sunk in the East Indies, fighting gallantly to the last.

Allied air attacks on Japanese ships were incessant. Many of the enemy ships were sunk and many damaged, so that they experienced difficulty in carrying out even temporary repairs in the secret bases they had established in the islands. Allied submarine forces were also increased, and succeeded in sinking a number of enemy vessels of all types. In April two American motor torpedo-boats of Lient. John Bulkeley’s squadron (see Chapter 210) made a particularly daring night attack on a cruiser escorted by four destroyers off Cebu; the cruiser was left in a sinking condition. These comparatively minor successes were encouraging and kept the enemy on the jump, but the situation was exceedingly dangerous. The Allies determined to hold at all costs Port Moresby, which controlled the Torres Straits and the easiest invasion route to Australia. Meanwhile America rushed men and munitions to Australia.

The unexpectedly rapid Japanese advance through Malaya brought the enemy opposite Singapore at the end of January. On the 30th the British withdrew to the island of Singapore, the Navy and R.A.F. assuming a very difficult operation. The Japanese followed them up on February 8, and a week later the fortress capitulated. The loss of Singapore was a terrible shock to the Empire and a grievous setback to the Allied cause. Deprived of the great base, the Allied naval forces were in a very difficult position. The Japanese were vague about the material which they claimed to have captured, and the British made no statement at all. The fall of Singapore left the Indian Ocean practically open from the east, and the Japanese now intensified their attack on Burma, taking Rangoon on March 8 and Mandalay on May 7. The Andaman Islands were attacked by carrier-borne aircraft on February 14 and occupied a month later after the British force had withdrawn.

The overwhelming Japanese naval preponderance in the Indian Ocean threatened very serious results, but surprisingly little advantage was taken of it—although of course there were casualties. Merchant shipping in the Bay of Bengal was attacked by enemy surface craft and seaplanes, and H.M. Indian sloops "Indus" was sunk by bombing attack while attempting to protect Allied ships. On April 5 carrier-borne Japanese planes carried out a very heavy day raid on Colombo, but secured little result, and this at heavy cost. Unfortunately the British 8-inch cruiser "Dorsetshire" and "Cornwall," which had left the port, were sunk by the first dive-bombing attacks. Four days later (April 9) enemy planes bombed the naval base of Trincomalee, Ceylon, when 16 were shot down and their carrier was attacked by British aircraft. H.M. aircraft carrier "Hermes" was suddenly attacked by massed dive-bombers when she had no fighter planes in the air. A heavy bomb struck the ammunition hoist; another demolished the bridge. Several fires were started and the "Hermes" was abandoned in a sinking condition.

As the year wore on Japanese submarines began to show themselves on the East African supply line to the Middle East. There was evidence that the Japanese were using the Vichy-controlled island of Madagascar, and on May 5 a combined Allied expedition which had been prepared in admirable secrecy arrived. Rear-Admiral Syfret commanded the ships and Major-General Sturges, Royal Marines, was in charge of the land forces. Vichy ships in the ports attempted to resist, but had nothing, and the operation was carried out with a naval loss of one corvette only.

On New Year’s Day the Japanese had entered Manila (see Chapter 210). The near-by U.S. naval base of Cavite had already been evacuated. Fighting in the Philippines continued on the Bataan Peninsula and Corregidor Island, in which the personnel of the U.S. Navy and Marine Corps took a full part, although the fleet itself was unable to give much help. Corregidor did not surrender until May 6.

The approaches to Australia were stubbornly contested. On March 20 a Japanese heavy cruiser was sunk and another damaged by aircraft at Rabaul; but on April 6 a Japanese landing in the Solomons caused further anxiety. A month later a big Japanese force consisting of capital ships, aircraft carriers, cruisers, destroyers and small craft covering transports was intercepted apparently attempting a descent on the north-east coast of Australia. It was immediately engaged by an Allied task force and the Battle of the Coral Sea forced the enemy to withdraw next day. After the first action the Allies turned south-west and lured the Japanese into pursuing them within range of land-based aircraft from Australia. It was later officially announced that the Japanese aircraft carrier "Ryukaku" and three heavy cruisers, in addition to nine other vessels, had been sunk and a score damaged. The enemy made great claims, but the official U.S. report

**ADMIRAL HALSEY’S RAID ON WAKE ISLAND**

In a successful attack made on February 16, 1942, and announced on March 25, a force of American cruisers and destroyers commanded by Admiral Halsey sank two enemy patrol boats and three seaplanes; anti-aircraft batteries and aircraft runways were damaged. Above, one of Halsey’s cruisers bombing Wake Island. On March 4 the squadron attacked Marcus Island.

Photo: Keystone
JAPANESE OCCUPATION FORCE
1. Many Japanese ships sighted by Navy patrol planes, morning, June 3, 1942.
2. Enemy ships attacked by Flying Fortresses in afternoon of June 3. Hits on cruisers and transports.
3. Navy patrol planes scored hits in night torpedo attack.
5. Carrier-borne dive-bombers and torpedoplanes attacked 3 carriers and 2 battleships, leaving 3 carriers afloat, helpers, and stopped; 2 battleships a mass of flames; 1 destroyer sunk.
6. Carrier "Soryu" attacked by U.S. submarine; left sinking.
7. Fourth and last Japanese carrier attacked on afternoon of June 4 by carrier-borne dive-bombers. "Hiryu" crippled, sinking later; 1 battleship, damaged, 1 cruiser hit.
8. Army Flying Fortresses attack damaged enemy ships in late afternoon of June 4. Hits on carrier, battleship and heavy cruiser; destroyer sunk.

JAPANESE CARRIER FORCE
2. Carrier-borne dive-bombers and torpedoplanes attacked 3 carriers and 2 battleships, leaving 3 carriers afloat, helpers, and stopped; 2 battleships a mass of flames; 1 destroyer sunk.
3. Carrier "Soryu" attacked by U.S. submarine; left sinking.
4. Carrier-borne dive-bombers made repeated attacks on fleeing Japanese ships; 2 cruisers and 2 battleships sunk.

JAPANESE DEFEAT AT MIDWAY ISLAND SAVED HAWAII
Coming only six months after the crippling American disasters at Pearl Harbor and Manila, the repulse of the Japanese fleet, which sought to capture the Naval Base of Midway on June 3-6, 1942, points to the speedy recovery of naval strength by the U.S.A. A Japanese success here would have opened the way to the overrunning of Hawaii. Leading events are given above the Chart. Top, left, the U.S. aircraft carrier "Yorktown" was hit by aerial torpedoes and bombs; she is listing heavily, with destroyers standing by. While under tow to Pearl Harbor on June 6 she was sunk by a Japanese submarine. Below, a Mogami-class cruiser after attack by American carrier-borne aircraft. Top, right, housing the U.S. flag at Midway during the battle. Altogether the enemy lost the carriers "Akagi," "Hiryu," "Kaga" and "Soryu," and the 8-inch-gun cruiser "Mikuma"; two battleships and the cruiser "Mogami" were damaged.
CAPTAIN C. T. M. PIZEY, C.B., D.S.O., R.N.

Led the destroyer attack on the German warships “Scharnhorst,” “Gneisenau,” and “Prinz Eugen” after they had escaped from Brest during the night of February 11-12, 1942. For his services Captain Pizey was made a C.B.; he had previously won the D.S.O. and bar as destroyer exploits.

Photo: British Official: Crown Copyright

gave the losses as the aircraft carrier “Lexington,” a destroyer and a tanker. Other ships suffered only minor damage. This action was followed by air and submarine activity on both sides. At the end of May a big Japanese cruiser was sunk, and on the 30th the much-publicized Japanese miniature submarines attempted to raid Sydney Harbour (see p. 2106), damaging a small depot ship and losing at least three of their number.

In the North Pacific the operations were principally to divert attention and disperse forces. Thus on February 24 there was a dashing reprisal upon the Japanese at Wake Island; an American force of cruisers and destroyers suddenly appeared, and in a very short time did a great deal of damage for the loss of only one plane. Elsewhere the Japanese carried out a number of nuisance raids with surface craft and aircraft, the latter apparently launched from submarines, in the hope of keeping many American ships tied up.

Operations on a much bigger scale were attempted by the enemy on June 4, when a force of aircraft carriers, with capital ships and cruisers, attacked Midway Island and were repulsed with heavy loss. The defenders were ready for the attack and the Japanese withdrew after three days of ineffectual assaults. Four enemy aircraft carriers were bombed and probably sunk—“Akagi,” “Kaga,” “Hiryu,” and “Soryu”—in addition to the cruisers “Mikuma” and “Mogami.” Three battleships and ten other enemy vessels were damaged. The American losses consisted of the carrier “Yorktown” and the destroyer “Hammann.” The carrier was disabled by bombs and later, after the destroyer had attempted to aid her, both were torpedoed.

An operation even more disconcerting began on June 5, when carrier-borne planes attacked the U.S. naval base at Dutch Harbour in the Aleutian Islands. Four days later, assisted by the usual fog in that area, a combined enemy force descended on the outlying islands of the group, which were practically uninhabited, and established a base at Kiska. There they were constantly attacked and could do little, but conditions favoured them and they remained a direct menace to the Western United States and to Canada.

American submarine attacks in Japanese waters were both sustained and successful, and steadily increased in number. They diverted considerable forces, demanded escort and the arming of merchantmen, and caused a serious shortage of tonnage to the enemy. Convoying warships as well as merchantmen were sunk during these operations.

The role of Germany and Italy during these critical operations in the Pacific was to prevent the dispatch of Allied reinforcements to that area, and for this purpose they intensified the submarine war. Nuisance attacks were carried out on isolated positions and ports, but far more serious was the extension of the area of operations to the Western Atlantic, where depots had apparently been established beforehand. Our losses were heavy, especially before the U.S. Navy could be adequately supplied with patrol craft and American merchant ships could be defensively armed. On the other hand, there were incessant air attacks on the European submarine bases and the areas where submarines were built. Many combined operations took place against these objectives, and a number were not regarded as sufficiently important to be announced.

There was a particularly successful operation against the submarine base at St. Nazaire on March 28. H.M. destroyer “Campbelown” (formerly the U.S.S. “Buchanan”) was brought alongside the lock gate leading to the submarine basin and blown up. Commando troops landed, while lively fighting took place between light naval forces of both sides.

Early in February there was a spectacular (and successful) break-out by German warships at Brest. It might have been designed to help Japan by keeping a considerable British force tied down, or to further Germany’s own plans against Russian supplies.

The battleships “Scharnhorst” and “Gneisenau” and the cruiser “Prinz Eugen” had been sheltering in Brest, the first two since March 1941 and the cruiser since the end of May. They had been bombed a great many times, but the damage had evidently been made good. After dark on the night of February 11-12 they steamed out towards the west. Helped by the weather, they had a strong escort and were protected by a large air umbrella reinforced from shore bases as they proceeded along the Channel. (The air battles over them are described in Chapter 213.) As they got through the Straits of Dover our destroyers and motor torpedo-boats attacked them. Our light craft were immediately attacked by aircraft well out to the heave of the fleeing ships, although without result.

Enemy motor torpedo-boats laid a smoke screen alongside the big ships, and our attack was carried out under great difficulties. Motor gunboats gallantly supported our motor torpedo-boats, and in spite of German destroyers our light craft returned, when they had expended their torpedoes, without

COMMANDER A. C. C. MIERS, V.C., D.S.O.

In command of H.M. submarine “Torbay,” he attacked enemy shipping in a defended Mediterranean harbour; he charged his batteries on the surface in full moonlight, and waited till daylight to discharge his torpedoes. In July 1942 he was interned with the V.C., and 27 of his officers and men also were decorated; in a year “Torbay” had sunk or damaged 70,000 tons of enemy shipping.

Photo: Planet News
casualty and with only slight damage. Later the "Gneissoe," very severely damaged, was observed at Gdynia, and the "Scharnhorst" was seen in dockyard hands at Kiel.

The "Prinz Eugen" went north. She was seriously damaged by H.M. submarine "Tribal" off the Norwegian coast on February 23, and was then towed into Trondheim. On May 17, having sailed with destroyers and air escort for Germany, she was attacked by our aircraft off Southern Norway and hit by torpedoes. Her mission was apparently connected with the German main purpose of intercepting convoys to Russia. In this the enemy was greatly assisted by his advanced naval bases and airfields on the Norwegian coast, so that the Allied convoys invariably ran the gauntlet of attack.

On one of these occasions, at the end of March, German surface craft attacked a convoy, but were driven off by H.M. ships with Russian assistance. Three enemy submarines at least were severely damaged in this action, and of the British escort only the cruiser "Trinidad" and the destroyer "Eclipse" suffered damage. Shortly before this the German battleship "Hirplenz" had been attacked by the Fleet Air Arm off Norway, but had escaped under a smoke screen after bringing down two of our planes. Her departure from Trondheim had been reported by aerial reconnaissance; she was apparently proceeding north to attack the convoy mentioned, but was headed off.

Another noteworthy naval and air attack in these waters lasted from April 30 until May 3. A convoy bound for Russia with supplies and another returning empty were both attacked; three outward-bound ships were sunk and one returning. One German destroyer was put down and another seriously damaged, while many enemy aircraft were destroyed. H.M. cruiser "Edinburgh" was torpedoed by a submarine on the first day of the action; with her steering gear out of action she continued at reduced speed, steering with her screws. Later, when in tow, she was attacked by three destroyers; she sank one and damaged another, but our enemy torpedo got home, and towing became so difficult that it would have endangered the convoy. She was therefore sunk by other of our ships.

Apart from these Russian convoys the main activity in Home Waters was constant actions between the light forces (motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats) and cross attacks on commerce and supply ships. The task of the motor gunboats was to draw off the German warships while motor torpedo-boats got home on the supply ships. There was also an immense amount of mine-laying, largely from the air, making it increasingly difficult for the Germans to persuade Swedish seamen to man supply ships.

In the Mediterranean there was great activity. In April an Allied submarine sank a big Italian 8-inch-gun cruiser. On May 11 H.M. destroyers "Lively," "Jervis," "Kipling" and "Jackal" were attacked by waves of aircraft. Only the "Jervis" survived.

Incessant air attacks on Malta engaged most of our aircraft based there and thus permitted Axis supplies and reinforcements to reach North Africa—despite the good work of our submarines. It became absolutely necessary to throw supplies into the island. On March 22 an allied convoy attempting to force its way through from Alexandria was attacked by four Italian cruisers, which were driven off by the escort without damage. The enemy later returned in greater force, including battleships, of which one was torpedoed. Two enemy cruisers were also damaged as well as one British cruiser and three of our destroyers. The convoy was continually battered from the air, but suffered little damage until it was delayed by a fierce gale which gave the enemy their opportunity, although even then only one merchant ship was sunk.

In the middle of June another big attempt was made to aid the island, with the simultaneous dispatch of two convoys, one from the west and one from the east. The eastern convoy, under Rear-Admiral Vian, found its way barred by two 35,000-ton battleships of the Littorio class, four cruisers, and at least eight destroyers. These ships were attacked by our aircraft from Malta and the Western Desert.

A 10,000-ton cruiser of the Trento class was bombed, and was later sunk by a British submarine; the convoy reached Malta, without being actually engaged, but of the escorting force the cruiser "Hermione," the destroyers "Bedouin," "Hasty," "Grove" and "Airidale," the Polish destroyer "Kujawiak" and 30 aircraft were lost. The Italians had one battleship torpedoed but not sunk, and lost one cruiser, two destroyers and a submarine. The western convoy sailed under Vice-Admiral Curtis. The naval opposition which it encountered was not so serious, but it was under constant air attack and eventually only part of the convoy reached Malta. In the meantime the enemy had advanced in North Africa, the Navy helping to cover Auchinleck's fighting retreat, and on June 21 came the fall of Tobruk.
Chapter 210

HARD-FOUGHT CAMPAIGN IN THE PHILIPPINES

This authoritative account of General MacArthur’s tenacious resistance to Japanese aggression in the Philippine Islands, culminating in the heroic defence of the Bataan Peninsula and Corregidor, is based on the main cables from the Associated Press correspondent with the American forces in Luzon, and Official U.S. Communiques. The campaign lasted five months.

We lost the Philippine campaign on the opening days of the war. More correctly, we lost it before the war started. Our foreign policies and our military policies in the Far East were not coordinated. We were not in any proper sense prepared to implement our political opposition to the Japanese course of empire, or even to defend what we owned.” So writes Mr. Hume W. Baldwin, Military Editor of The New York Times, when endeavoring, in July 1942, to assess the causes of his country’s setbacks in the Pacific. He points out that Japan’s initial blows at the Philippines, like the attack on Pearl Harbor, had one purpose—to neutralize the offensive power of the U.S.A. The United States Fleet had already been weakened by transfers to the Atlantic when the Pearl Harbor catastrophe further reduced its ability to interfere with the Japanese drive towards the southwestern Pacific.

The fate of Luzon and Bataan was, in fact, sealed just before 1 p.m. on December 8, 1941 (local time), ten hours after the attack on Pearl Harbour. The main American bomber force (which apparently consisted of about 30 aircraft) was at Clark Field, 40 miles N. of Manila. Here the machines had been lined up, with crews standing by, waiting orders to bomb Japanese bases at Formosa. American fighters were at Iba Field, near by. Fighters, with some bombers, had been up that morning, but had been recalled for orders. While the expected instructions were being issued the enemy struck from the air.

At ten thousand feet, 94 Japanese heavy bombers roared over Clark Field, showering high explosives on the grounded American bombers, destroying many aircraft and wrecking hangars and runways. In their wake came 56 Zero fighters, which made low-level attacks on ground forces and A.A. batteries. Simultaneously, other raiders dived upon the parked fighter aircraft at Iba Field. At both aerodromes the enemy left a roaring hell of flames from burning planes and, though some aircraft were saved, the main strength of the American air force was gone. Presumably the enemy bombers had flown from Formosa and Hainan, while the fighter escorts had come from two aircraft carriers.

Earlier on the 8th Japanese bombers had struck at American outpost airfields along the N. and W. coasts of Luzon. Even certain “secret” aerodromes completed only ten days before were attacked. By perfectly planned and well coordinated operations the enemy destroyed some aircraft on the ground at every place. Enemy aircraft had been flying over Luzon several nights before war broke out; they had been located by detectors, and once a formation of fighters tried unsuccessfully to intercept them. At Aspar, on the N. coast, at the mouth of the Cagayan river, agents of the Japanese had prepared a large landing ground, which was camouflaged as a rice field. Machines which landed here on December 8 were operating from this airfield a few days later. They were not left unmolested, and American fighters destroyed many in the air or on the ground.

Soon after midnight of December 8-9 Japanese bombers came in over Manila Bay and raided Nichols Field on the outskirts of the city, where American fighter planes were stationed for the defence of Cavite naval base. The raiders were guided by fire from on the ground by local agents. The turn of Cavite came a day and a half later: about noon on the 10th a heavy bomber force crossed the naval base for several hours without hindrance. The first bomb hit a power station and the second a fire station; damage and casualties were heavy. Most of the ships of the squadron were at sea, but by the destruction of Cavite the United States Navy lost its only effective operating base in the Philippines. Its submarines continued to operate for some days in the island waters, where they attacked enemy ships, but most of the surface vessels were withdrawn to Java. Spies and enemy agents aided the Japanese, and a number were captured.

PRESIDENT QUEZON VISITS GENERAL MACARTHUR ON LUZON

Manuel Quezon (right), though debilitated by a long illness from which he had not fully recovered when Japan struck, displayed fine qualities of fortitude and determination. After the evacuation of Manila he shared the dangers and hardships on Corregidor until February 20, 1942, and then left by submarine to visit other Philippine Islands and hear the defense. Eventually, from Mindanao he was flown to Australia, where he arrived on March 27.

Photo, Kyusho.
CHECKING THE ENEMY ADVANCE IN SOUTHERN LUZON

From S. and S.E. Luzon the American and Filipino troops fell back to prepared positions near the capital, mining bridges and destroying roads as they went. Here soldiers of both nationalities were digging pits to take the explosive charges that will wreck a bridge near Nasugbu. (See map in p. 2092.)

During the early days, radio beams were used to guide enemy bombers to Clark Field and Cavite.

On December 5 the Japanese landed at various points along the N.W. and N. coasts of Luzon between Vigan and Apam. Three days later another force landed at Legaspi, in S.E. Luzon, and could not be dislodged. Another stage in the operations began on December 22 with landings in force along the Gulf of Lingayen, 125 miles N.W. of Manila. There were about 80 transports with a large and powerful naval escort.

Despite strong resistance by American and Filipino troops the enemy made headway, landing tanks which immediately went into action.

When the first Philippine President, Manuel L. Quezon, had begun to form a national army in 1935 he had selected as his advisor General Douglas MacArthur, who had recently retired from the post of Chief of Staff, U.S. Army. One of America's ablest soldiers and a skillful organizer, MacArthur also fully realized the vital importance of the Philippines to both his own country and Asia. But although he tackled his complex task of rendering the islands "impeccable" with characteristic vigour and dispatch, political intrigue both internal and external combined with apathy in Washington to make progress very slow. When on July 26, 1941, General MacArthur was abruptly appointed Commanding General of the U.S. Forces in the Far East, it was too late to retrieve the situation.

MacArthur found himself in command of about 50,000 men, most of whom were Filipino reservists, green and untrained, poorly armed and equipped. The few American troops included National Guards from various States, the 31st Infantry, the 4th Marine Regiment, and the Filipino Scouts. Owing to the lack of naval or air support, MacArthur was compelled to fight delaying actions, as the enemy overcame opposition and pressed down southwards from the Lingayen area.

American officers did their best and the Filipinos fought bravely, but the Japanese were in overwhelming numbers and had indisputable control of the air. MacArthur was forced back upon a strategy of withdrawal into Bataan.

The official plan had been prepared some years before; it called for the holding of Bataan for two months, until reinforcements could be sent from America, and took it for granted that the United States would have the necessary air power to protect its troop transports. But it seems that the crushing blows at Pearl Harbour and the mid-ocean bases, plus the enemy's enormous strength in the air, made it impossible to aid MacArthur.

American commanders who knew the truth had a heartbreaking task sending young Filipinos to die on the battlefield in a cause already lost. Those who led the native troops fought gallantly to the end, and served their men to take a heavy toll of the invaders.

The movement towards Bataan was so well screened that, despite a number of agents, the Japanese apparently failed to detect it. On several occasions the invaders might have destroyed American and Filipino forces before they could have reached Bataan, but they did not press their attacks. The Peninsula was at that time virtually undefended, and an enemy landing there would have blocked MacArthur's way into Bataan.

The withdrawal began on December 21. The Japanese advanced rapidly,

HEROES OF BULKELEY'S TORPEDO-BOAT SQUADRON

In the text are related some of the exploits of the six light M.T.B.s commanded by Lieutenant John D. Bulkeley (third from left). Notable among these operations were the taking of General MacArthur's party through the Japanese sea lines to Culebra Island on March 11, 1942, and the transport of President Quezon from the Visayas to Mindanao a week later to board a plane for Australia. Left to right, Ensign A. B. Aker, Lieut. R. B. Kelly, Lieut. Bulkeley and Ensign G. E. Cox.

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despite terrific losses, and threatened to turn MacArthur's left flank. A stand was made along the Agno river, where a fierce battle was fought, but ground had to be given to the enemy. While some units fought a brilliant delaying action to draw off the main enemy force, Major-General Jonathan Wainwright (MacArthur's second-in-command) was able to disengage his army and make his way towards Bataan with nearly all the guns and supplies. Wainwright fought all the way, using a limited number of tanks to the utmost advantage and keeping his line intact. As he retreated, he destroyed bridges and wrecked anything likely to be of aid to the Japanese. Behind his protective screen everything possible was transported to Bataan by land and water.

In S.E. Luzon the Filipinos under Brig.-Gen. A. M. Jones had to fall back as more and more of the enemy landed—

**Landings in S.E. Luzon**

at Antimonan (75 miles S.E. of Manila) and at Maabang (30 miles N. of Antimonan on Lamon Bay). By the 25th there was increasing pressure from this direction. Filipino troops in the sector were inexperienced and few in number, and orders were given for a withdrawal north-east towards Manila. Many units were cut off and were disbanded by their officers. Rifles were buried and the officers made their way towards the capital, destroying bridges as they went. Other enemy forces landed at Nauquig, 15 miles from the entrance to Manila Bay on the S.W. coast.

On Christmas Day a determined attempt was made to halt the Japanese in the south; near Laguna de Bay (see map in p. 2092) American troops counter-attacked with tanks, but the accurate fire of the enemy's anti-tank guns destroyed most of Wainwright's armour. Hewerforth there was virtually nothing between the enemy and Manila but well-paved roads.

From north-west and south-east the invaders were now converging upon the capital, which was declared an open town on December 26, and the civil government withdrawn. Despite this, Manila was bombèd for three hours on the 27th by low-flying aircraft; it was raided again the following day. President Quezon had left for Corregidor on December 24. All the ground supplies at Clark Field had been destroyed by the defenders on Christmas Day; the same night American naval units had set fire to buildings and dumps at Cavite Bay. Port Wynn, on Subic Bay, and the naval station at Olongapo were also destroyed, while military installations around Manila Bay were similarly put out of action.

No attempt was made by Japanese aircraft to bomb troop concentrations on the roads during the 27th.

There were occasions during the critical last ten days of December when the withdrawal into Bataan might have been turned into a disorderly retreat, but MacArthur and his field officers held the army together and successfully completed the operation—an achievement which ranks with the subsequent brilliant defence of the Peninsula. Wainwright's northern army and the troops from south-eastern Luzon under Brig.-Gen. Jones had joined forces in the face of strong enemy attempts to prevent this concentration at the last moment. By 3 a.m. on New Year's Day the task of withdrawal into Bataan was finished: the last blacked-out lorry convoy from Manila crossed the bridge at San Fernando on the road to Hermosa in bright moonlight, and Wainwright's engineers blew up the bridge behind it.

The Bataan Peninsula is 13-30 miles wide and about 32 miles long; its area is a little greater than that of the Isle of Wight. It is dominated by the Mariveles Mountains (4,661 ft.) and,
nearer the neck of the Peninsula, by Mt. Natib (4,225 ft.). A road runs
down the east coast, by way of Hermosa, Oroqui, Abucay, Balanga, Pilar, Linay
and Cabañes (see map in page 3029). The first front line ran from Moron
(on the W. coast) to Abucay, with secondary positions on another line
below Bagan and Pilar. These lines were not continuous, but consisted of "toeholds," machine-gun nests, and
strongpoints. In the original main
defense line the Americans had Mt.
Natib at their backs, giving good
observation for artillery fire. The
flanks were held by Filipino divisions,
while Philippine Scout units were
on the transpeninsular lines, with
United States Infantry—the only
American infantry in the Philippines.
Mechanical excavators cut out two
runways on the ricefields behind
Cabañes (at the S.E. tip of the
Peninsula) for the remnants of
MacArthur's air force—now only a
handful of fighter planes. One hospital
was improvised in a building at
Linay, and another set up in the open
air near Bagan, A.A. guns were
installed overlooking Corregidor and
MacArthur Bay.

A few of the remaining light naval
warcraft patrolled MacArthur Bay; these
were mostly tin-lappers, with three
Bulkeley's
Yangtse gunboats. A
M.T.B.
Squadron
squadron of six torpedoboats under Lieutenant
Bulkeley kept guard off
shore. Ammunition was fetched from
Corregidor Is., in small boats at
night and distributed by lorries, and since
there were few buildings on Bataan
everything was dumped in the open.
Fortunately, the weather kept favourable
during these tense days of prepara-
tion for the imminent Japanese assault
when only aerial attacks had to be met.

The fortress of Corregidor, on an
island off the tip of the Peninsula, was
first bombed on December 29, when 20
of the garrison were killed and 35
wounded. There was a heavier attack
on January 3, and until the 7th the
island was given little respite. Day after
day heavy bombers pounded the defenses
but failed to cripple them. The Naval
station at Mariveles, on the S.W. tip of
the Bataan Peninsula, was also very
heavily bombed and the town razed.
The floating dock escaped damage,
and although the submarine tender
"Canopus" received three direct hits
it was not sunk. Corregidor was at-
tacked by air again on the 9th and 20th.

The Bataan offensive had really
begun on January 6, when the Japanese
came up with American advance
positions; in the clash that followed
some 700 of the enemy were killed.
On the 10th, when his reinforcements
had arrived, the enemy made another
assault (mainly on MacArthur's right
flank), but was again checked and
withdrawn. American artillery north
of Abucay (on the coastal road along
the Bay side of Bataan) played a large
part in this repulse. On the 15th, with
the aid of many dive-bombers, the Japanese attempted once more
to overrun the defenses. Heavy fighting
went on until the 17th, when
MacArthur's center was penetrated,
the positions being recovered by an
American counter-attack two days later.
But the enemy was receiving fresh
troops daily, as his transports landed in
Lingayen Gulf and at Subic Bay. He
opened another heavy attack on
the 22nd, and next day, on the eastern
slope of Mt. Natib, drove a salient half
a mile square into MacArthur's defense
lines.

Both Moron and Abucay had been
taken by the enemy's first drive, but
MacArthur ordered counter-attacks
which retook these key positions.
American infantry drove the
invaders out of the front salient, but so
many snipers had infil-
trated that it became impossible to hold
the line; moreover, the American art-
illery observation posts on Mt. Natib
were lost. The enemy spent his troops
prodigiously, advancing down open roads
under artillery fire which killed thou-
sands; while hundreds more piled them-
severely on up the American wire and
were killed by machine-gun fire. A
remarkable counter-attack on the right
caused the Japanese to draw off troops
which were threatening to drive in
MacArthur's left flank. On January
26 MacArthur withdrew to his second
line, which ran across the Peninsula
from Bagan to Pilar in lower ground
between the two mountain masses of
Natib and Mariveles.

Although the initial frontal offensive
had compelled the defenders to with-
draw, it lacked the strength to push
the advantage farther. In the second
phase of the battle the Japanese tried
new tactics. After a heavy attack along
the entire line (Jan. 29-Feb. 1) landing
parties swarmed ashore during the
night of February 2, at four points on
the western side of Bataan—the nearest
only a mile from Mariveles. Their
mission was to cut the road, but
American sailors and marines, together
with Philippine Scouts, forced their
way into the jungles and wiped out the
enemy. The threat—an extremely seri-
ous one—was countered. At one crucial
point Bulkeley's torpedo-boats sank
several landing barges. Pilots of
American fighters tied bombs to impov-
vised racks and by their daring attacks
WHERE AMERICANS AND FILIPINOS HELD THE ENEMY

Though the story of the Bataan fighting speaks of successive lines of defense, these positions were
close unconnected series of weapon pits and slit trenches to which the U.S. forces gave the
game of loopholes. They afforded little protection, especially from the air, as the one shown at
left makes all too clear. Right, Filipino scouts, one of whom displays a sword taken from a
Japanese officer. These native troops fought magnificently in most adverse conditions.
broke up an enemy effort to reinforce his troops. The Japanese called off the invasion attempt by orders dropped from aircraft, and told the survivors to try to swim back to the transports; few succeeded. There had been an attempted landing on Corregidor during the night of January 31, but this was beaten off by the guns of the fortress and many Japanese craft were sunk.

American field artillery on the Peninsula kept up almost continuous fire at night. Most of the guns were concentrated on a small open tract of ground along Manila Bay. Some gun positions had been hacked out of the jungle on the western flank, but the terrain here made the extensive use of big guns impossible, and in any case there was not enough heavy artillery.

There followed a lull of a few days until February 9, when heavier assaults were made on front and flanks. The American and Filipino troops used the interval to strengthen beach defenses and to improve supply and communication lines. Tanks patrolled the shore lines. On the right flank, Filipino scouting parties penetrated as far as the region beyond Mt. Natib, where the enemy had begun to dig in. The bearing of the Filipinos was splendid, and in the few weeks of battle young recruits had become like veteran soldiers.

MacArthur's men had learned that they could beat the enemy, given a fair chance, and only needed reinforcements to stage strong counter-offensives. But it was impossible to send them the help they wanted, for the Allies had lost the mastery of the Pacific. Moreover, on February 6, nine enemy transports had landed troops along the Liangayen Gulf, and as soon as these formations reached Bataan the struggle recommenced on an even bigger scale. By now there were five Japanese divisions on Bataan, and another holding the lines of communication in Manila was a seventh enemy division.

On the 9th the Japanese attacked in force near the left centre, but were repelled. Enemy suicide squads tried to work round the flanks, and dive-bombers pounded the entire line. A new threat developed with the posting of heavy Japanese artillery on the southern shore of Manila Bay, near Cavite, whence the guns battered Corregidor and other American forts.

In a successful counter-attack during February 12, Igorotes (Luzon natives) aided the Filipino troops. Some rode on tanks and acted as guards; others, armed with rifles and keen-edged bolos (knives), held a line in the hilly country on the west of Bataan, counting to the last in their "foxholes"—pits to hold one or more Filipino—trenches, and machine-gun nests. Where the trees were too close together for tanks to penetrate, Igorote volunteers cleared a way with their bolos. Moros (scarcely more than recruits) from the southern Philippines also took part in the counter-attack and did well in hand-to-hand encounters. MacArthur's tanks overran the enemy positions and the infantry mopped up, strengthening the defense lines.

There was another lull after the 16th, but artillery fire and dive-bombing attacks continued. More Japanese were landed, this time at Olongapo and Subic Bay. Fort Frank and the other fortresses at the entrance to Manila Bay were heavily shelled from the Cavite position. Local counter-attacks by American and Filipino troops gained some success, and on the 25th certain advance positions on the right were taken from the enemy and held; others were relinquished after inflicting heavy casualties on the invaders.

Drinking water became scarce as the weather grew hotter and most of the brooks dried up. The food problem on the peninsula was worsened by the presence of many thousands of civilian refugees who had fled before the Japanese. A refugee camp had been established at Cabanatuan.

American aircraft on March 3 attacked Japanese transports in Subic Bay, sinking three; two launches were also destroyed and many small craft damaged. Enemy stores on Grande Island and at Olongapo were bombed and set on fire. Some of the newly landed enemy formations were surprised on March 8 when moving in lorrries to the eastern side of the Peninsula. 29 of the 90 lorrries in the column were destroyed by artillery fire. Brillian operations such as these emphasized the fact that, if the defending forces could have been reinforced and given normal aid in guns, aircraft, and tanks, the story of Bataan would have been very different.

MacArthur had done all that was possible, and now he was summoned to leave the Philippines. He had been directed by President Roosevelt on February 22 to transfer to Australia, there to assume supreme command of the forces of the United Nations in the S.W. Pacific. He had delayed his departure until he could perfect arrangements within his Philippine Command. He handed over to Major-General Jonathan Wainwright, senior officer remaining in Bataan.

Later, President Quezon stated that General MacArthur had accepted the new post primarily in order that he might reconquer the enemy-occupied areas of the Philippines.

The General and his party left Corregidor on the night of March 11 in four of Lieutenant Bulkeley's M.T.B.s (the remaining two boats had been lost in operations) and sailed for the rendezvous in the Cuyo Islands, off Panay. With the General were Mrs. MacArthur and their little son Arthur. The rest of the score of passengers was made up of technicians and certain high officers of the three Services. After some difficulties the four craft made the rendezvous early in the morning of the 12th.
General Douglas MacArthur's Defence of Bataan

A general map of the Philippines in May 1942 shows the island of Bataan, where the American forces were headquartered at the time. Bataan was an important naval base for the United States, and its capture by Japanese forces would have significant consequences for the war in the Pacific.

The American forces, under the command of General Douglas MacArthur, were caught off guard and were forced to retreat to Corregidor Island, which is located off the coast of Manila Bay. The Japanese forces eventually took control of the island and the American forces were forced to surrender.

The surrender of Bataan and Corregidor marked a significant turning point in the war for the United States, as it was one of the first major defeats for the American forces in the Pacific theater. The loss of Bataan and Corregidor had a profound impact on American military strategy and ultimately led to the United States entering World War II as a full participant.
on the 10th he reported that all communications with Bataan had been cut for 24 hours. Most of the 3,500 sailors and marines on Bataan had been transferred to Corregidor during the hours of darkness. With them had gone a few troops and 68 U.S. Army nurses.

At the time when the Bataan resistance collapsed there were reported to be 36,853 effective American and Filipino troops under Wainwright. Besides these there were 5,500 sick, wounded and non-combatant troops and 25,000 civilians. Late in April the Japanese announced that they had taken 53,400 prisoners in Bataan, of whom 9,553 were Americans. They stated that American and Filipino dead numbered 5,000; out of 1,877 in hospital 986 were Americans. Filipinos constituted the greater part of the defenders of Bataan, the American being mostly men of the 31st Infantry Regt., with the crews of two tank battalions and units of self-propelled artillery, and sailors and marines from Cavite.

At the start of the Luzon invasion air force personnel numbered 5,000; of these, during the latter stages of the battle, some 2,000 fought as infantry after their aircraft had been destroyed or (mainly long-range bombers) transferred to the Netherlands East Indies.

Food had been rationed after January 11, several shiploads of supplies had later reached the Philippines by ships which ran the blockade, but for every cargo landed two had been lost on the way. There had been no shortage of ammunition, however.

With the Bataan Peninsula in their hands the Japanese now began the task of subduing the strong fortress of Corregidor and the other island forts in the north of Manila Bay. There still remained in the north of Luzon small units of American and Filipino troops who fought on in the Cagayan valley, and it is probable that there were other pockets of resistance on the island. An outstanding achievement was a 2,000-mile flight by thirteen American bombers (three Flying Fortresses and ten B-26s) from Australia on April 13-14. Led by Brigadier-General Ralph Royce, they attacked Japanese bases and shipping at Manila, Cavite, Dagupan and Bataan, and brought back 44 passengers, including American and Filipino officers and pressmen.

The American forces in Corregidor comprised (besides the naval and marine units transferred from Bataan) 2,275 officers and men of the U.S. Navy and 1,570 officers and men of the Marines. The island—an extinct volcano—was naturally strong, and had been further strengthened by well-planned engineering works. Even by modern standards it was a tough obstacle for an invader. Fort Mills had been in U.S. hands for 40 years and had guns up to 12-inch caliber and cunningly sited secondary armament. But its strength depended on the holding of the Bataan Peninsula, at the tip of which was the sister fort of Mariveles, with a naval station. The island has an area of about twelve square miles and is long and narrow. From Bataan it is separated by the two-mile-wide channel known as the Boca Chico (North Channel), on the southern side is the wider channel of the Boca Grande (South Channel).

END OF THE FIVE MONTHS' BATTLE

Major-General Jonathan M. Wainwright (right, wearing steel helmet), who was in a prisoner's camp, took over the command of the Bataan and Corregidor forces when General MacArthur left to go to Australia on March 11. After the fall of Bataan on April 9, Wainwright transferred to Corregidor.

FORT MILLS HITS BACK

Corregidor Island, off which is Fort Mills, withstood a siege of 149 days and held out for 27 days after the fall of Bataan. Not till May 8, 1942, did its guns become silent. On one day alone (March 30), enemy air attacks had made fifty attacks on the fort with heavy bombs.

Photo, Associated Press

in which are the three island forts of Hughes, Frank and Drum. Events during the opening stages of its siege have been told earlier in this Chapter.

President Quezon had taken refuge at Corregidor on Christmas Eve. He was slowly recovering from a long illness and his health caused anxiety. On the evening of February 20 he left the island by submarine and safely reached Panay. With his Cabinet he visited various islands to encourage their defense. Eventually, on March 18, Lieut. Bulkeley took him from the Visayas to Mindanao to join a plane for Australia, where he arrived on March 27.

Corregidor held out for 27 days after the fall of Bataan. It had its 250th air raid on April 27 and was bombed daily. In addition, the fortress was pounded by heavy artillery from the Bay and later from guns on Bataan, only two miles away across the channel. From the beginning of May Corregidor and the forts in the north of the Bay were raided from the air a dozen times daily. At midnight on May 4 came the land attack which finally broke down all resistance. First the beaches were shelled to destroy the wire and put machine-gun posts out of action. Then, in steel barges, Japanese troops
crossed from the tip of the Peninsula and rushed the defenses. No further news was received by the outside world until, in the early morning of the 6th, General MacArthur's H.Q. in Australia announced that Corregidor and Forte Frank Drum and Hughes had surrendered. Three hours later the U.S. War Department stated that "the resistance of our troops has been overcome." General Wainwright had chosen to stay with his troops and share their fate.

Some weeks later, in paying tribute to the gallantry and determination of the fortress garrisons, President Roosevelt disclosed the enormous odds against which they had fought. On March 15 about a thousand 240-mm. shells were fired at Fort Frank and Fort Drum; large numbers of smaller shells struck Fort Hughes and Fort Mills. Five days later more than 400 240-mm. shells were fired at Fort Frank, while enemy air echelons made 50 attacks on Fort Mills with heavy bombs. In the weeks that followed this, fire was greatly intensified. Enemy bombers attacked Corregidor at least 300 times.

Corregidor had been bombèd as hour or two after the outbreak of war in the Pacific, it had withstood a siege lasting 149 days, and while it held last the Japanese could not capitalize their gains and make use of the fine harbor of Manila for wider aggressive expeditions. Coupled with the glorious stand of Bataan for 98 days, the long light of Corregidor gained for America (and no less for the United Nations as a whole) the most valuable time in which to build up new strength.

By the conquest of Luzon the Japanese had gained their main objective in the Philippines, though the battle had been a lengthy process, with delays that had played no inconsiderable part in slowing down the already rapid march of aggression. But there are 7,000 islands and reefs in the Philippine archipelago, and it was impossible to comb them thoroughly and stamp out all centers of active or latent opposition.

TWO OF MACARTHUR'S GENERALS

General William F. Sharp, left, was C.-in-C. American and Filipino forces in Mindanao, second largest of the Philippine Islands. Brigadier-General Albert M. Jones commanded the forces in south-eastern Luzon, and successfully withdrew in time to unite with MacArthur's southern army at the river to Bataan. He was personally invited by MacArthur with the Distinguished Service Cross for extraordinary heroism.


Mindanao, second largest of the group, had been attacked by air on December 8, 1941, when bombs were dropped on Davao. The American commander here was Major-General W. F. Sharp, with a force of about 30,000 Filipinos and two companies of Philippine Scouts. His men were said to be armed with old-pattern Lee-Enfield rifles, a number of which were defective. Ammunition was scanty and for artillery Sharp had only a few mountain guns. A Japanese force landed at Davao on December 20 and drove back the defenders. Little information was received until, on January 6, it was learnt that U.S. heavy bombers had sunk a destroyer off Davao and scored three direct hits on an enemy battleship. Then on the 20th fighting which flowed from Australia to attack enemy shipping at Davao and other places in the islands. More of the enemy landed at the end of April, at Cotabato and Parang.

As a continuation of the cease-fire at Corregidor on May 6 the Japanese demanded the surrender of American and Filipino troops on the other islands, and so far as is known General Sharp obeyed Wainwright's orders to surrender.

At Cebu, where Colonel I. C. Scudder was in command, the conditions resembled those in Mindanao, but there was said to be little equipment and no artillery. The first landing was made on April 10, when the enemy was supported by warships and dive-bombers and sent tanks ashore with his troops. The island had been shelled by a Japanese warship on March 1. Despite a fierce resistance for some days Cebu fell into enemy hands on April 11. On May 22, in return for guerrilla activities, the Japanese burnt the city. Panay Island was invaded on April 17, when landings were effected at Iloilo and Capiz. At Mindoro Island a small force of Japanese landed with tanks near Calabanga on March 7, while a warship shelled other places.
JAPANESE CAPTURED IN THE BATAAN BATTLES

They were given food from the scanty supplies available for the American and Filipino troops and are obviously in fine condition, despite the customary Japanese diet of fish, rice and vegetables. Many conclusions might be drawn from this photograph, but at least it offers evidence of the tough task before the United Nations in the Pacific—against primitive people such as these, to whom hardship and short commons are natural.

Photo: Kindt

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BRIEF RESpite ON
CORREGIDOr

During intervals between the
frequent air attacks on Fort
Mills, Corregidor, this sergeant
of U.S. Marines (right) teaches
his Filipino the mechanism
of a Lewis gun. The story
of the Philippine campaign
brings out clearly the loyalty,
comradeship, and fighting
spirit of the islanders, who
fought bravely and gallantly under
their American comrades.

Roughly four-fifths of the
Batangos troops were Filipinos.
Left, a U.S. Army dispatch
rider takes a nap beside his
motorbike, his machine-gun
across his body.

Photo: Koyama, Pictorial
Press