THE SECOND GREAT WAR

Vol. 6
GEN. THE HON. SIR HAROLD ALEXANDER, G.C.B., D.S.O.

THE SECOND GREAT WAR
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Edited by
SIR JOHN HAMMERTON
Editor of The Great War, World War 1914–18, Europe's Fight for Freedom, etc.
Military Editor
Maj.-Gen. SIR CHARLES GWYNN, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

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CCXLIV Agreement between the United Kingdom and the United States implementing the Lease-Lend programme, signed at Washington, February 23, 1942. (2159)

CCXLV Britian’s Ultimatum to the Governments of Finland, Hungary and Rumania, November 28, 1941. (2338)

CCL Statement by the Finnish Premier on Finland’s policy towards Germany and Great Britain, November 29, 1941. (2338)

CCLIII Resolution of the United States Congress declaring war upon Bulgaria, Hungary and Rumania, June 3, 1942. (2338)

CCLIV Hitler’s statement to the Reichstag, telling of the declaration of war upon the United States and the agreement with Italy and Japan to make common war on the United States and Britain, December 11, 1941 (2338)
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BLOW THAT SHOCKED THE EMPIRE

On December 8, 1941, the battleship "Prince of Wales" with other units of the Eastern Fleet arrived at Singapore (see illus., p. 526), whence "The Times" correspondent added that the effect on Japanese policy would be eagerly watched. That policy was made clear on the 7th, when Japan attacked Hawaii, the Philippines, Hongkong, Siam and Malaya. On the 8th Rear-Admiral Sir Tom Phillips (C-in-C Eastern Fleet) took out the "Prince of Wales" and the battle-cruiser "Repulse" to intercept Japanese transports moving towards the Kra Isthmus. After having learnt that no fighter escort would be available, but cloudy weather offered some concealment, when later the weather cleared, and he had been sighted by enemy aircraft, Sir Tom Phillips turned back. Receiving a report of enemy landings at Kuantan, he sent off his own planes to investigate; the result was negative, and he told his aircraft to return to Singapore. Then it was that our warships were attacked by Japanese bombers and torpedo-planes: H.M.S. "Repulse," after repeated hits, sank at 12.30 p.m. on December 10 (local time); the "Prince of Wales" went down about an hour after. These photographs show the last remnants of the latter vessel as, listing heavily, she is abandoned by her complement. Of 2,925 in the two warships all but 365 were saved. Sir Tom Phillips perished, and Captain J. G. Lush, of the "Prince of Wales," Captain W. G. Tennant, of the "Repulse," was rescued.

Photo, Associated Press.
LANCASTER HEAVY BOMBER SAFELY HOME AFTER A RAID

The Avro Lancaster four-engined heavy bomber was first reported in action on the occasion of the Augsburg raid on April 27, 1943, when twelve flew across Germany in daylight at a height of 25,000 feet to hit the target. The bomber weighs 60,000 lb, has a speed of about 300 m.p.h., and has a range of about 3,000 miles. The armament is ten Browning .303 machine-guns in four turrets. Normally the crew numbers six.

Photo: Barratt
Chapter 211

WAR COMES CLOSER TO AUSTRALIA: AFTER THE JAPANESE ONSLAUGHT


Feeling in the Dominion after six months of war with Japan might well be gauged by the views expressed by Sir Keith Murdoch, first Director-General of Australia's Ministry of Information and her foremost newspaper proprietor. In the British House of Commons on June 4, 1942, Mr. Churchill was asked by a Member whether the decision to accept battle in the island of Singapore was a military or a political decision, and, if the former, whether General Wavell recommended it. Mr. Attlee, Secretary of State for the Dominions, replied that the decision was taken on military grounds and was the unanimous decision of His Majesty's Government, their military advisers and the commander-on-the-spot. The further question was then asked: "In the Minister's words, that he had every sympathy with General Wavell, and had reason to believe that it was a political decision, not a military one. Is that absolutely untrue? Many people believe that General Wavell was overruled." Mr. Attlee said: "I am not prepared to check up on statements made by individuals."

The opinion of Sir Keith Murdoch could not be dismissed so summarily, for it represented that of at least a large proportion of well-informed Australians.

Australia's Anticipated Invasion

Whether the Secretary of State was wise in not "checking up" on statements made by such men, is, perhaps, a matter of opinion. Had he investigated, he would have found that Australia was bitterly disappointed with the outcome of the battles for Singapore and Java, and was, in fact, awaiting with determination, but with also a great deal of well-founded apprehension, a Japanese assault on the Australian mainland.

In the Daily Mail of February 19, 1942, Sir Keith Murdoch, in an article, said: "The danger of war power in the East have not so easily explainable as Mr. Churchill says. They are not merely the flowing of Japanese arms through the broken dam. These were grave misjudgments and misconceptions by London Service leaders. If these had not occurred, and the quality of our initiatives had been of the type required, we would still be in Malaya."

On March 10, in the same newspaper, Sir Keith Murdoch stated:

"We in Australia are preparing a Japanese attack. Whether it will be an attack on bases like Wytham, Dawes, Mooreby, and Townsville; whether it will be a invasion upon the south-west, or whether it will be a mass movement against the great eastern

WAR AT AUSTRALIA'S DOOR

By March 1942, when posters such as this were issued to stimulate the war effort, Australia had come to a full realization of her peril, with the enemy fast consolidating himself in the island bastion whence he could strike at the Dominion.

While Japan went to war, and June 30, 1942, she was not wholly unprepared. She had been at war with Germany and Italy for the past 22 months. But, like America, she was not unprepared for the shock of the Japanese commitment. Her navy was already fighting Britain; she had practically all her home-based aircraft, and the pick of her fighter-bombers were in the Middle East. Australia was not extending, but she was long, long way from her peak, and almost everything her factories turned out was expected immediately.

Still, she was not doing all she could, by any means, to meet man-power requirements. Plans adequate to meet them were not evolved. Yet it was obvious to the Man-power Government's critics. Problems both at home and abroad, that certain measures would have to be taken through with a ruthless and speed which might arouse considerable opposition. Included in these measures were rationalization of the manufacturing industry and the reconstruction of the distribution, commerce, and finance, industries.

American critics, listening to Australia asking America and Britain for fresh forces to strengthen the Allied position in the Pacific and, therefore, more securely to protect Australia, hinted that the next Australia should show she was making a maximum contribution. The greater would be her chance of getting increased assistance.

All the same, it was because she was to a certain extent self-reliant in the industrial sense that Australia (and through her New Zealand) did not feel as hopeless as she would have felt had she succumbed in the years before 1939 to the arguments of those economic theorists who urged that Australia, like New Zealand, should concentrate on primary rather than on secondary industries. No one of course can say now it was a bad thing that Australia disobeyed such economic theories and ventured to drown the blast of her 114,000,000 sheep in the roar of blast furnaces, the hum of millions of factory
BUILDING UP AN AMERICAN STRIKING FORCE IN AUSTRALIA

When General Douglas MacArthur reached Australia (March 27, 1943) American transports had been for some weeks crossing the Pacific, and quantities of arms and equipment continued to come in under Loan-Lend. Top left, anti-aircraft crew on a U.S. transport which reached Australia in mid-March; top right, U.S. troops disembarking. Last, unsealing medium and light tanks after unloading. Above, American and Australian officers examine a newly delivered B-17 (Flying Fortress) bomber.

General Chiang Kai-shek was to be C-in-C. land and air forces in the Chinese area (including Indo-China and Siam). And on March 17 General MacArthur arrived in Australia, by air, to take up the Allied Command, as well as direction of the final struggle in the Philippines. Major-General Brett was appointed Deputy to MacArthur, and head of the U.S. Air Force.

A panoramic survey of the first six months of war in the Pacific falls into two sections. The first deals with reactions on the home front; the second with engagements with the enemy. Undoubtedly the first reaction was one of dismay. Australia did not, any more than America, believe Japan capable of such a monstrous, unforgettable act of treachery as she perpetrated at Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, when in Washington Japan's Ambassador and her special envoy were pretending to seek a solution to the diplomatic deadlock, but were actually buying time with hypocrisy and falsehoods to enable Japan's war lords to move forces secretly to battle stations. A few days before the blow fell Australia's Minister to Tokyo, Sir John Latham, on a visit to the Commonwealth from Tokyo, stated publicly that he did not fear war in the Pacific, and he saw no need to imagine it would come.

The chief concern, of course, was the almost entire lack of preparedness for...
PORT DARWIN—FIRST TARGET FOR JAPANESE BOMBERS

The first bombs to fall on Australia were dropped on Port Darwin on February 19, 1942. The photograph shows (left) a merchant ship exploding after a bomb hit; right background, a hospital ship afire. In foreground is an American destroyer. Considerable damage was done to harbour installations by this surprise raid. Below, evacuation of civilians after the raid.

Photo: Wide World; Keytamer

London: following consultation with Whitehall, he concluded that the best means of achieving success was by common planning before consultation at the Ministerial level.

Although the war in which Sir Earle Page’s conclusion was expressed was not universally accepted, the core of what he said was approved. In The Times of January 21 the Rt. Hon. R. G. Menzies, asking whether we could have Empire control of an Empire war, said:

“The logical case for an Empire Cabinet of some sort is complete, yet remains the most complex of problems.” He was satisfied that a permanent Australian representative on the British War Cabinet would by no means produce that perfect result at which Australians were aiming. At the same time there would be great positive advantages arising out of his presence in the British War Cabinet.

Various State Premiers urged closer collaboration; the Press advocated it in various forms, ranging from an Imperial War Council, Pacific Conference, or a Pacific War Council. Finally, the latter was set up in Washington—on March 30—with a counterpart in London. (See Chapter 210.) On the Pacific Council in Washington, Australia and New Zealand are represented by Ministers—New Zealand by the Rt. Hon. Walter Nash, and Australia by Sir Owen Dixon. Mr. R. G. Casey, Britain’s Minister of State in Cairo, was until March 19, 1942 Australian Minister in Washington. His acceptance of the position, and membership of the British War Cabinet, displeased Mr. Curtin and a large section of the Australian people because at that particular time it was felt his services to Australia were almost indispensable.

Mr. Curtin’s disapproval of the appointment resulted in the issue on March 21 from No. 10, Downing Street of the text of messages exchanged between Mr. Churchill and Mr. Curtin. It was thought generally in Australia that Mr. Churchill was actuated by only the highest motives; that his intention probably was to give an Imperial colour to his War Cabinet because of the impracticability of setting up an Imperial Conference in London. Such a Conference was not only impracticable, but Canada made it plain that she had no desire for one. Because this view was taken of Mr. Casey’s appointment there was a good deal of regret that it should have been marred somewhat by its sequel.

Since Mr. Casey immediately took up his duties as Minister of State in
Quantities of American equipment arrived on a lease-lend basis. From the start it was plain enough to observers that the impact of this neighbourly invasion would have profound psychological repercussions. On the first occasion that Australia had been invaded in such a way it was by Asiatics: that was in the gold-rush days of 1850. A great deal of good flowed from that "invasion." An impulse was given to Australia's intellectual development and, generally, the experience enriched her. Between then and the first six months of the war in the Pacific there had been no comparable "invasion." Only small waves of immigration from Britain and the European Continent had to be dealt with, and the Commonwealth was visited by few Americans, mostly tourists.

In March the A.I.F. militia and permanent army were combined in one homogeneous force. After MacArthur's appointment (General Blamey, then in a new U.S. naval command, separate from MacArthur's command).

These military announcements were followed by a broadcast to the United Kingdom by Mr. Curtin, who spoke "from the land that is preparing to meet an invasion." By this time the Japanese were pressing down rapidly. With what they had, the Australians were pushing north as fast as they could.

Singapore, with the unexpectedness of a thunderbolt, fell on February 15, the surrender being signed at 7 p.m. local time, 12.30 p.m. British time. General Percival said the cause was shortage of water, petrol, food, ammunition. What General Gordon Bennett, who led the Australians, thought the fall was due to has not been published, although he escaped and, after adventures, turned up in Australia, there writing a report which was forwarded to Whitehall. A special correspondent of The Times, telling a deplorable story of ineptitude and neglect in which the absence of

![Image of an Australian-built aircraft and small-arms]

AUSTRALIAN-BUILT AIRCRAFT AND SMALL-ARMS

Top, Australia was largely dependent, at the outbreak of the war, on the United States, on Wirraway aircraft, based on a type designed for training and built in the Dominion. The Owen sub-machine gun (left, being packed for issue) was invented by Harry Owen, of the A.I.F. It fires at the rate of 600 rounds per minute and resembles the Sten gun.

Second in command in the Middle East, was appointed C-in-C. of the land forces in Australia. And on April 19 MacArthur's headquarters issued a statement on the new command in the S.W. Pacific area. New Zealand, on April 23, made it clear that these new commands in no way involved New Zealand, because New Zealand was declared to be

forceful leadership played a large part, said:

"Until more aeroplanes are made available to the Allied forces in the Pacific so that they can gain edge over the Japanese in the air, it is going to be difficult to hold the Japanese at sea and on the ground. It is not the Japanese who are strong in the air, it is the Allies who are weak."

Japan's success rested on air and naval supremacy. Her air force was a surprise, technically and numerically. The Allied forces met Japan's airmen.
JAPANESE MENACE TO AUSTRALIA

The Japanese conquest of the island of islands to the north and east deprived Australia of her natural shield against invasion. Maneuvering fighter and bomber aircraft could be flown in stages from Japan to Timor, New Guinea, and the Solomon Islands, and the war had come to Australia's 'front door.' But General MacArthur decided to meet the army in New Guinea, and fight out the war there.

Specially drawn for The Second Great War by Julius Gorden

Australians like New Zealand and South Africa, declared war on Japan on December 9 (24 hours after the British Government had declared Britain to be at war with Japan). Putting infiltration tactics into operation instantly, a comparatively small Japanese force, estimated to be about two divisions strong, began to constrain the British and Dominion forces to withdraw from one strong point to another, from one line to another, until at last Singapore was reached; and from Singapore there was nowhere else to withdraw, except across sea, and there were not enough ships to take away the troops who found themselves cut off and trapped.

The first major withdrawal in which Australians took part was enforced on December 10, when the Japanese took Kota Bharu aerodrome, and the Imperial Forces retired southward. There were only a handful of Australians at Hong Kong when, on December 13, the Japanese demand for its surrender was refused—a refusal repeated on December 17 by the Governor, Sir Mark Young. (The water supply cut off. Hong Kong surrendered on December 25.) By December 16 Japan had gained ground in Java, in Malaya; while in Burma the British withdrew from Victoria Point.

From then on the position went from bad to worse. Australia had been sending volunteers to Malaya for a year before Japan struck. These troops, together with British and Indian regulars, had trained for this hour. Now all the visions of a quick, glorious defeat of the Japanese were evaporating with the speed of water in a shallow pan in a tropical sun. Penang was evacuated on December 19. Japan's conquest of Malaya was complete when Singapore capitulated on February 15.

With little variation this story, dismayingly enough, applied to the invasion of the Dutch East Indies. The battle began in December 18. Methodically, the Japanese began at the north and rushed up in the south. It was the southward drive which offered a direct threat to Australia; by the end of January the threat was acute.

Bombs were dropped on Australia for the first time on February 19, when Japanese aircraft swooped on Port Darwin. Meeting with little opposition, hoping to make a trade with superior, they pulled considerable damage to installations and ships in the harbour, besides inflicting casualties. After that there were raids on Broome, on the west coast, and Townsville, on the east coast. The fear was that Japan would take Port Moresby in New Guinea—which would give her the key position north of Australia and from which a grand assault on the Commonwealth might be launched.

General Benasti, on March 2 told Australia that a Japanese attack is coming very quickly. As this warning came after the battle of the Java Sea (February 27), Australians were ready to believe it. In the late afternoon a small Allied squadron sighted and engaged a Japanese fleet protecting an invasion convoy. Although outnumbered, the Allied ships continued the engagement for three days until their entire force was wiped out—five cruisers, six destroyers and the Australian sloop H.M.A.S. "Yarra.

Dutch forces evacuated Batavia on March 5. During March the Japanese bombarded Port Moresby, 15 separate days, with the idea of blasting Australians out of it. On March 8 they landed in force at Salamanca and Lae in New Guinea. The Rising Sun flag was flying boldly now over innumerable islands and a vast amount of territory—from Tongking Gulf to the Java Sea. Imperial and Allied forces had retreated steadily in the face of the invaders.

Australians who were alarmed by the tragic cavalcade of events had their thoughts expressed for them on March 9, by Dr. van Mook, Lieutenant Governor-General of the Netherlands East Indies, who, on reaching Adelaide said: "There should be an end to destroying and retreating." It was easier to say than to do; although next day a vivid flash of encouragement shot through the dark clouds over the Pacific as Allied aircraft, based on Australia, put out of action seven ships of a
There Australia's Battle Was To Be Fought

General Douglas MacArthur, on reaching Australia in March 1942, determined that the battle for the Dominion should be fought out in New Guinea, and not on Australian soil. New Guinea, divided in sovereignty between the Netherlands and Australia, has an area of about 315,000 square miles. Top, in the harbour at Port Moresby, a merchantman is almost hidden by splashes from near bomb hits during one of the frequent Japanese raids. Below, U.S. officers examining wreckage of enemy Zero fighter shot down in the mountains. Right, bombed hangar of Mandated Airlines at Salamaua. Lower right, an American officer visits a Fijian village.

Japanese invasion fleet heading for Port Moresby. It was the first large crippling blow from the air delivered against the Japanese in that section of the Pacific front. Stimulated by their success, the Allies launched new air raids against Salamaua, Lae and Rabaul.

These raids surprised and puzzled the enemy. They were unexpected and the Japanese could not guess accurately how much they were representative of the defensive power of Australia. They also imbued the Australian Federal Government with a renewed spirit of the offensive. Mr. Curtin, broadcasting to America on March 13, declared: "Our minds are set on attack."

Five days later Washington announced successful Allied attacks on Japanese shipping and land installations in New Guinea: 23 ships were put out of action, including four warships; five transports were sunk, and five warships were damaged for the loss of 39 aircraft.

To paraphrase a road sign familiar to motorists, Japan read these signs as: "Halt. Major danger ahead." From March 15 Japan did not cease trying to work her way into a position where she would dominate all the territory, swinging in an arc from Thailand to New Guinea, which lies like a shark fin above Australia. Her last great attempt in the first six months of the war was made between May 4 and May 9, when the Battle of the Coral Sea was fought. Actually, this significant naval and air battle (in which air power was decisive) began off the Solomon Islands on May 4. A part of a Japanese invasion fleet was intercepted by U.S. naval and air forces. On May 4 the battle was resumed in the Coral Sea and resulted in the Japanese fleet withdrawing north. Japanese losses were seven major warships sunk, two probably sunk, and more than 20 damaged; U.S. losses were the aircraft-carrier "Lexington," one destroyer and one tanker.

The pivotal point in all her naval strategy was the Panama Canal, link between the Pacific and the Atlantic. Added to this was her trade routes to the Far East, Australia and South America. Strategically, Britain's main defensive base was Singapore, that wonderful naval base (not remotely resembling a fortress) driven like a huge steel stake into the cross-roads on the Straits of Malacca. It guarded Australia and New Zealand and was the key to the ocean gateways to India. At the end of the first six months a glance at the strategic pattern showed the Japanese were satisfied that control of New Guinea was a vital factor if they were successfully to attempt a large-scale invasion of Australia. On the other hand, the Allies knew that New Guinea must be recaptured and freed entirely from Japanese forces before a firm defensive line could be drawn north of Australia between Timor Island and New Guinea. They were satisfied—not in theory, but as a result of personal experience—that New Guinea was a stepping-stone between themselves and Japan, and that Java was only second in importance.

To prove these strategic facts Japan had taken, temporarily, supreme command over a radius of more than 3,000 miles at a cost to Australia of approximately 20,000 casualties (all Services) killed, wounded, prisoners or missing.
EPOCH-MAKING TREATIES WITH THE U.S.S.R.

On the 25th of April, 1942, the alliance between Britain and Russia was consummated by the signing of a Treaty of Collaboration and Mutual Assistance. The second Part, dealing with common action to preserve peace in the post-war period, was to run for 20 years. In January, both Britain and Russia had concluded a Treaty with Persia, the text of which is also given here.

**Anglo-Soviet-Iranian Treaty of Alliance, Signed at Tehran on January 28, 1942.**

The preamble states that it is based on the principles of the Atlantic Charter and results from the desire of the three parties to strengthen the bonds of friendship and mutual understanding. Treaty contains nine articles:

Article I. Britain and the U.S.S.R. undertake to respect the territorial integrity, sovereignty and political independence of Iran.

Article II. Establishes an alliance between the two Powers and Iran.

Article III. The Allied Powers undertake to defend Iran against aggression by Germany, or any other Power. Iran undertakes to co-operate with the Allies by all the means at its command, but the assistance of the Iranian forces will be limited to military and material assistance. Furthermore the Allies reserve the right to maintain and guard in certain circumstances control all means of communication, and will receive all assistance and facilities in obtaining material and recruiting labour; at the same time the Allies will give full consideration to the essential needs of Iran.

Article IV. Permits the Allies to maintain in Iran such land, sea and air forces as they consider necessary; their presence on Iranian territory will not constitute a military occupation and will disturb as little as possible the normal life of the country.

Article V. Lays down that the Allied forces shall be withdrawn not later than six months after hostilities cease.

Article VI. Binds Britain and the U.S.S.R. not to adopt in their relations with other countries an attitude prejudicial to the territorial integrity or political independence of Iran, nor to conclude treaties inconsistent with the present treaty. Iran will be consulted in all matters affecting her direct interests, and will on her side likewise undertake similar obligations towards the Allies.

Article VII. The Allied Powers undertake to safeguard as far as possible the economic existence of the Iranian people against privations and difficulties arising out of the war.

Article VIII. Lays down that the provisions of the treaty are equally binding as bilateral obligations between Iran and each of the Allied Powers.

Article IX. Lays down that the treaty remains in force until withdrawal of the British and Russian forces from Iran.

**Treaty of Alliance in the War Against Hitlerism, Germany and Her Associates in Europe and of Collaboration and Mutual Assistance therebetween the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. London, May 26, 1942.**

II His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and the President of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:

Have concluded a treaty for that purpose and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Majesty The King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India:

For the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: The Right Honourable Anthony Eden, M.P., His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs;

The President of the Supreme Council of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics: M. Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs.

Who, having communicated their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

**PART I.**

Article I. In virtue of the alliance established between the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to afford one another military and other assistance and support of all kinds in the war against Germany and all those States which are associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Article II. The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into any negotiations with the Hitlerite Government or any other Government in Germany that does not explicitly renounce all aggressive intentions, and not to negotiate or conclude except by mutual consent any armistice or peace treaty with Germany, or any other State associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

**PART II.**

Article III. (1) The High Contracting Parties declare their desire to unite with other like-minded States in adopting proposals for common action to preserve peace and reestablish stability in the post-war period.

(2) Pending the adoption of such proposals, they will, after the termination of hostilities, take all the measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Article IV. Should one of the High Contracting Parties during the post-war period become involved in hostilities with Germany or any of the States mentioned in Article III, the other High Contracting Party will, at once give notice thereof to the Contracting Party so involved in hostilities all the military and other support and assistance in his power.

This Article shall remain in force until the High Contracting Parties, by mutual consent, shall recognize that it is superseded by the adoption of the proposals contemplated in Article III (1). In default of the adoption of such proposals, it shall remain in force for a period of 20 years, and thereafter until terminated by either High Contracting Party, as provided in Article VII.

Article V. The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests and the security of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the re-establishment of peace for the organization of security and economic prosperity in Europe and other parts of the world, in the interest of the United Nations in these objects, and they will act in accordance with the two principles of not seeking territorial aggrandisement for themselves and of non-interference in the internal affairs of other States.

Article VI. The High Contracting Parties agree to render one another all possible economic assistance after the war.

Article VII. Each High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in any coalition directed against the other High Contracting Party.

Article VIII. The present treaty is subject to ratification in the shortest possible time, and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Moscow as soon as possible.

It comes into force immediately on the exchange of the instruments of ratification, and shall remain in force until the High Contracting Parties terminate it.

Part II of the present treaty shall remain in force for a period of 20 years. Thereafter, unless 12 months' notice has been given by either Party to terminate the treaty at the end of the said period of 20 years, it shall continue in force until 12 months after either High Contracting Party shall have given notice to the other in writing of his intention to terminate it.
POSTERS INFORMED, EXHORTED & INSPIRED

Continuing our documentary record of war-time Britain, here is a further selection from the many Home Front posters which helped to sustain and increase the war effort. In the main the appeals were robust, forthright and well directed, though there were appeals (not here illustrated) on to lower levels. Note the striking example issued by the British Railways; and the significant slogan stencilled on goods for export. (See also pp. 357, 348.

FRUSTRATE HIS KNAVISH TRICKS!!!

PREVENT SABOTAGE

[Fire and Wrecking]

Report suspicious persons & things AT ONCE

WHAT MOTORISTS MUST DO

Put out WASTE PAPER

It is used for AMMUNITION and other vital needs

in a raid—

Don't stand and stare at the sky. Take cover at once
TESTING TIME FOR THE HOME FRONT: FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1942

This Chapter covers the period January to June, 1942, a time of disappointment and disaster that called for and found wise and discerning leadership and a ready response on the part of the Nation. Opening with Mr. Churchill's account of his stewardship, on his return from Washington, it closes with his reply to his critics again on July 2, on the motion of censure.

HAVING reached with Mr. Roosevelt what was described by the President's secretary as "a complete understanding on joint planning for present and future military and naval operations," Mr. Churchill left Washington for home early in January 1942. On the way back he spent a brief holiday in Florida and from there proceeded to Bermuda, where he inspected the base recently leased to the U.S. and delivered a speech to the legislative assembly (see illus., p. 1913). Then on January 16 he set off again in a British Airways flying-boat, made the crossing of 3,366 miles in just under 18 hours, and arrived at Plymouth on January 17. A few hours later he was back at his desk in Downing Street.

The Premier's statement on his consultations with the American President was eagerly awaited, more particularly since the news from every theatre of war contributed to the burden of the critics. It was made to the House of Commons on January 27—a long speech, the first of a long debate marked throughout by speaking of the most forthright description. "Since my return to this country," began the Premier, "I have come to the conclusion that I must ask to be sustained by a vote of confidence from the House of Commons." This was a thoroughly normal, constitutional, democratic procedure. A debate on the war had been asked for; he had arranged that it should be carried on in the fullest and freest manner for three whole days. Any member would be able to say anything he thought fit about or against the administration, the composition or personalities of the Government, subject only to the reservation about military secrets. The House would fail in its duty if it did not insist upon freedom of debate and a clear and honest vote.

"It is because things have gone badly, and worse is to come, that I demand a vote of confidence."

Then Mr. Churchill proceeded to his review. He began with a glowing tribute to the glorious achievements of the Russian armies; he went on to describe the "strange, sombre battle of the desert where our men have met the enemy for the first time... upon the whole... with equal weapons."

Next he touched on the war with the vast military empire of Japan. He spoke of the gigantic munitions output of the British Isles, of the shipping situation, of the organization of China's four-and-a-half years' single-handed stand, of the great company of nations who were now united against the Axis. There had been terrific changes in the past three months, particularly the last three weeks. Some of the more important of these dated from his recent meeting with Mr. Roosevelt in Washington. The vanguard of the American Army had already arrived in the United Kingdom; U.S. air squadrons were coming to take part in the defence of Britain and the bombing offensive against Germany; the U.S. Navy was so filled in intimate union with the Admiralty in both the Atlantic and Pacific that henceforth naval movements would be planned together as if the two Navies were one fleet. Yet another great change had been the formation of the League of 28 Nations, based on the principle of the Atlantic Charter. The Premier and President had taken steps for the defence of Australia and the British and Dutch possessions in the East Indies against Japanese aggression. Finally they had established a vast common pool of raw materials and shipping, of weapons and munitions.

"Therefore," concluded the Premier, "I feel entitled to come to the House of Commons, whose servant I am, and ask them not to press me to act against my conscience and better judgement and make scapegoats in order to improve my own position; not to press me to do things which might be charged for at the moment but which will not help in our war effort; but, on the contrary, to

IN THE 'BRITISH RESTAURANT' AT MERTON, SURREY

It was decorated by pupils of the Slade School of Art to designs by John Piper, representing the ruins of Merton Abbey, scenes of the severe air raids which tore down and blinded away not only the people's homes but many existing establishments where they might have gone for meals, the "British Restaurants" set up by the Food Ministry won instant success and appreciation. The 1,000th restaurant was opened at Slough on August 23, 1941, by Lord Woolton, Minister of Food.

Photo, "The Times"
AIRCRAFT PRODUCTION


Appointed President of the Board of Trade on February 4, 1942, he was formerly Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Aircraft Production. Later in the month he became Minister of Aircraft Production, his place at the Board of Trade being taken by Dr. Hugh Dalton.

PHOTO: SSPORT & GENERAL: TEEMMENT PRESS

SECRETARY FOR WAR

Sir James Grigg, K.C.B., K.C.S.I.

From his Civil Service post at the War Office, he was appointed Secretary for War in succession to Captain Macnamara on February 22, 1942. Before joining the War Office in 1939, he had been Finance Member of the Government of India.

PHOTO: SPORT & GENERAL: TELEGRAPH PRESS

On the second day Mr. Attlee, Lord Privy Seal, formally moved a vote of confidence in the Government. The debate was opened by Sir J. Wardlaw-McLauchlan, who acknowledged the immense service which Mr. Churchill had rendered in visiting America, but for the rest was outspokenly critical, particularly over the situation that had been revealed in the Far East. He expressed extreme disgust at the flight of fancy indulged in by officials at Singapore and by some of the recent communiques from Cairo. Coming then to the home front, he expressed the view that in their desire and determination to win the war the Government as a whole was giving their encouragement and their aid. I have never ventured to predict the future. I cannot, for my original programme, "blood, toil, tears, and sweat," which is all I have ever offered and to which I added five months later, "Many shortcomings, still, take, and disappointments." But it is because I saw the light glooming behind the clouds and brightening upon new paths that I make so bold now as to demand a declaration of the confidence of the House of Commons in an additional weapon in the armoury of the United Nations.

First to follow the Premier in the debate was Mr. Pethick-Lawrence, who began with a caustic reference to those who for various reasons had been paying lip-service to Mr. Churchill's leadership while at the same time seeking to undermine it. He hoped the Premier would, after proper investigation, cause a drastic purge to be made of these back-liners. But for the rest, like nearly every other speaker, he was in an anxious vein, and the note of criticism was seldom absent. Why had the" Prince of Wales" and the "Repulse" been sent to eastern waters without proper air protection? he inquired. Mr. Erskine-Hill asked how it was that in Malaya they seemed to be so certain before Earl W Wearmouth there was nothing to worry about; Sir H. Willmott delivered a vitriolic attack on the Civil Service; Mr. Henderson stormed that the Prime Minister's disclosures that production was now better than it had been; what really mattered was that it was not big enough, and had not been properly conducted.

AFTER A YEAR OF CLOTHES RATIONING

New books of clothing coupons were issued from June 1, 1942, containing 60 coupons intended to last until July 31, 1943 (later extended to August 31). A quarter of a million tons of shipping had been saved on textiles alone during the first 12 months of the rationing scheme.

On the third day there were more critical speeches, the most notable being those by Mr. Roffe-Bellish and Earl Winterton. Then Mr. Churchill replied. It had been a full and free debate, he said; no criticism had been hampered or stifled—such a debate, indeed, as would have been impossible in any other country conducting a war. Because of this freedom the House of Commons had a great responsibility.

Premier's Reply to Critics

Point by point he answered his critics on the battles by sea and land, on the less dramatic but equally important events of the production front. Then he came to the naval disasters in which our two great warships had gone down. After a whole-hearted defence of
Sir Tom Phillips' action in Malaya, he came to his conclusion. "I offer no apologies. I offer no excuses. I make no promises. I have finished. Let every man act now in accordance with what he thinks is his duty, in harmony with his heart and conscience." The House divided and the voting revealed 464 for the vote of confidence, with Mr. Maxton as the solitary occupant of the "no" lobby.

Overwhelmingly large as was the Government's majority, it did not indicate anything more than the Commons' belief that in that grim hour Mr. Churchill was the only possible captain of the ship of state. It was a personal triumph, not an affirmation of confidence in the men who were the Premier's aides in his tremendous tasks. So it was not surprising that the debate was followed by a partial reconstruction of the Cabinet. On February 4 it was announced from 10, Downing Street, that Lord Beaverbrook had been appointed Minister of Production, his place as Minister of Supply being taken by Sir Andrew Duncan; at the same time Col. J. J. Llewellyn had become President of the Board of Trade, but the new arrangement apparently did not work satisfactorily, since a fortnight later, on February 19, following the grave tidings of the invasion of Burma, the fall of Singapore, and the escape of the Nazi warships from Brest, a reconstitution of the War Cabinet was announced. Mr. Attlee became Deputy Prime Minister and Secretary for the Dominions; Sir Stafford Cripps assumed the duties of Leader of the House of Commons, while holding the portfolio of Lord Privy Seal; Mr. Oliver Lyttelton would

**UTILITY 'LIGHTER'**

Owing to short supplies of matches the petrol lighter came into even greater demand, and various Government patterns were put on the market at the controlled price of 6d. 6d. at the end of 1941. They were made mainly of plastic, and used little metal.

return from Cairo to assume general direction of production as Minister of State; Sir Kingsley Wood was omitted from the new War Cabinet, although he continued to act as Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Beaverbrook and Mr. Greenwood were dropped from the Government altogether.

Yet more changes were to come. On February 22 the rather surprising appointment was announced of Sir James Grigg, a permanent Civil Servant, to the post of Secretary for War; at the same time Lord Cranborne became Colonial Secretary and Leader of the House of Lords; Dr. Hugh Dalton, President of the Board of Trade; Lord Portal, Minister of Works and Buildings; Col. Llewellyn, Minister of Aircraft Production; and Lord Wolmer, Minister for Economic Warfare.

Another list of ministerial changes was published on March 4, the most interesting appointment being that of Sir William Jowitt as Paymaster-General —in itself a sinecure post, but it was

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**MADE FROM UTILITY CLOTHES**

The sponsoring by the British Government of textile materials which could be made up into serviceable and attractive clothing for men and women at reasonable (controlled) prices proved a great boon. Here are typical examples. Insert in the official label which distinguished Utility garments.

*Photo, New York Times*
Away with the Railings!
The removal of railings from streets and parks provided metal for the foundries to turn into weapons, and saved the importation of scrap, of which half a million tons per annum used to be obtained from the U.S.A. alone. To pedestrians and bus passengers it opened up vistas such as this—Park Lane, Hyde Park, in Spring, 1944, with crocuses in full flower. 

The Moslem League leaders also would not relax their demands, so that early in April the Draft was withdrawn and Sir Stafford returned to London, having carried out his onerous mission with great tact and skill. (See Chapter 223.)

Opening his War Budget for the year 1942-43 in the House of Commons on April 14, Sir Kingsley Wood drew a picture of a country which, in spite of an immense load of taxation and borrowing, was still financially sound. He claimed that the Government's economic policy was being justified by its fruits. Prices had been stabilized; the prices of the main staple foods showed some reduction; and although in clothing there had been a gradual increase, the Government was taking direct control of prices, and Utility clothing was to be fostered. Rents had been practically stationary since the outbreak of war, and railway fares were now stabilized. As a result, the cost of living index was 29 per cent above pre-war, as compared with 36 per sent in April 1941. For the coming year the Chancellor estimated the expenditure at £3,236,479,000, while the revenue, it was anticipated, would amount to £2,637,100,000, leaving a deficiency of £1,639,379,000. The Purchase Tax on a number of "luxury

W.V.S. Prepares Food for Bombed-Out People

This emergency "Food Flying Squad" was staffed by personnel of the Women's Voluntary Service, and is seen at Canterbury after one of the heavy raids on that city. The W.V.S. undertook all sorts of work arising out of war conditions as they affect the population, and was a strong pillar in Civil Defence. 

Photo, Associated Press
WOMEN WHO REPLACED MEN

Over a wide field women took the place of men in work demanding patience, skill, initiative and devotion. More often than not, those in engineering works and shipyards and other places performed duties upon the correct execution of which the lives of soldiers and sailors and airmen depended. Top, left, assembling Stan guns at a Royal Ordnance factory. The Stan machine-carriage, a British invention, was put into mass production in June 1942, and was issued to increasing numbers to the regular Armed Forces and the Home Guard. Top right, checking final details of completed Merlin engines for aircraft. Top, right, dockyard workers coming ashore from a British destroyer which is being refitted. Centre, left, Scottish girls who felled and transported timber in the Highlands.

Photos: British Official. Copyright: E.N.A.

“New York Times”
SAVING PETROL AND RUBBER

Along with the abolition of pleasure motoring went a drastic control of commercial transport. Much long-distance haulage was diverted to the railways; local deliveries were pooled, the motor vehicles of various traders being utilized in a common scheme serving all.

Photo, Tornedo Press

had been no bread shortage. Then on 13 March Lord Woolton announced that with a view to conserving vitally important shipping space, the government had decided to increase to 85 per cent the ratio of flour from wheat milled in the country, so "white" bread would be no longer available. As from April 6 its sale was made illegal, save under special licence; the only bread sold from that date would be national wholemeal or authorized brown bread, made from wheat of at least 85 per cent extraction. (The effect was to obtain a greater yield of bread [or flour] from the corn milled.)

A new Acquisition of Food Order issued in March banned the hoarding of unrationed foods beyond the reasonable needs of the household, etc., for four weeks. The Meals in Restaurants "points" rationing scheme was extended to take in condensed milk and breakfast cereals, and the office tea ration was cut to 3 lb; instead of 1 lb a week for 20 workers—all from April 6. On May 12 it was announced by Lord Woolton that from June 1 restaurant meals would be restricted to three courses, and food would not be served after 11 p.m. (midnight in London) except to hotel residents and night workers, in establishments specially licensed to serve such workers and travellers. As from June 15 the price of restaurant meals would be limited to 5s., with maxima for whisky, gin, and beer (and wines or cocktails), a maximum of 2s. 6d. for cabaret and dancing, and of 9d. in each 5s. for service. Some luxury hotels would be permitted to make a "house charge," maximum £1 6s.

Although these and a host of similar measures were obviously inspired by a concern for the general good, there continued to be some, in all classes of society, who were resolved if possible to obtain more than their fair share of a severely restricted stock. "Black-market" operations in foodstuffs, as in some raw materials, clothing, fuel, petrol, and other goods subject to rationing and public control, gave rise to much anxiety. New regulations were passed to make the way of the black marketer harder, more expensive, and more dangerous; on March 11 Mr. Herbert Morrison announced that under the Defence Regulations the maximum penalties for black marketeering had been raised to 12 months' imprisonment on summary conviction, and to 14 years' penal servitude on indictment.

Coming now to clothing, Dr. Dalton announced on March 17 reductions in the issue and extension of the validity of the coupons. The production of Utility clothing was entrusted to a number of designated firms. An order was made prohibiting the manufacture of men's double-breasted coats and turn-up trousers, and putting a limit on jackets and pockets; men's shirts were to be shorter, and pyjamas were to be pocketless. Women's Utility garments were to be blended simplicity with excellent value for money. Domestic soap was rationed from February 9.

Whether or not to ration fuel gave rise to animated debate. On March 17 Dr. Dalton announced that the government had resolved upon the introduction of a comprehensive scheme for the rationing of coal, light, and power; Sir William Beveridge, assisted by Sir Stephen Tallents, had been asked to prepare a scheme so as to ensure a sharp reduction in domestic consumption. On April 21 Dr. Dalton said that the Beveridge Report had been received, and that the government had decided to introduce fuel rationing on a points system in accordance with his recommendations. But, when issued as a White Paper, the scheme was given a very hostile reception, largely because (so it was asserted) it would involve the setting up of fresh departments, employing more than 10,000 clerks. In the Commons the Labour members—most of them—supported the Beveridge proposals, but Conservative opposition was so strong that the scheme was greatly modified; a fuel target was to be fixed for each dwelling, etc., and this would permit the consumer to

consume with a good conscience—there was no penalty for overstepping the "target"—so many "points" of fuel, according to the number of rooms in the house and its locality (north, midlands, or south). Coal was taken as the basis, and if other fuels were used, then 1 cwt. of coal was reckoned to be the equivalent of 5 therms of gas, 100 units of electricity, or 2 gallons of paraffin. Rationing was to begin on July 1. This plan, too, aroused much criticism, particularly from those who alleged that the Ministry of Fuel—a new ministry, of which Major Lloyd George was appointed the first head on June 1—was apparently of the opinion that in England the isotherms ran north to south, while, in fact, they ran from east to west. The "target" scheme was connected with a great advertising campaign, but many doubted whether any considerable number of householders would be able to determine their "target," still less keep to it.

The basic petrol ration, it was announced on March 12, would be abolished on July 1, after which allowances would be granted only in cases of proved necessity. These private motoring was discredited for the duration.

In the course of a debate in the House of Commons on woman-power on March 8, Mr. M. S. McCorquodale, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Labour, stated that 5,000,000 women had already registered, and of these 1,500,000 had been interviewed and more were being interviewed at the

SPLINTER PROTECTION ON 'TUBES' AND BUSES

By the use of a diamond-shaped aperture in the protective window setting passengers in Underground trains and in buses were given a better view than was possible with ordinary or round openings. This work is being carried out.

Photo, Associated Press

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DEAN OF CANTERBURY SURVEYS HIS RAVAGED CATHEDRAL

Bombs had fallen near Canterbury Cathedral during the Battle of Britain, on October 11, when some of the stained glass was shattered, and on the 25th (see illus., p. 2122). A direct attack was made by the Luftwaffe on the night of May 31–June 1, 1942, "as a reprisal for the terrorist attack by the British Air Force on the inner city of Cologne," according to the German High Command. Here the Dean, the Very Rev. Dr. Hawlett Johnson (left), and his Secretary, Mr. A. T. D'Eync, examine the wrecked Cathedral Library.
BRITAIN'S MIGHTY PRODUCTION EFFORT REACHES ITS PEAK

By the end of 1940 the output of Britain's steelworks and armament factories was reaching a revolutionary figure. But the building of a mighty Army and the demands for war for the Navy and Air Force raised a mass-production problem only to be solved by the up-to-date science of war itself, which took naturally to the new tasks and proved an outstanding success.

Above, a former housemaid, Miss Kathleen McCarthy, operates a machine for slitting the case-hardened body of a six-pounder gun (Royal Ordnance Factory). Top, centre, a work in practice barrels for the R.A.F. (Ministry of Aircraft Production Factory). Right, changing an aero-engine steel rolling turners, top right, taking a sample from another limestone for testing.

Dorset coast photographs by sport & General and "Illustrated."
NEW BADGES OF THE BRITISH AND ALLIED SERVICES

Most of these need no explanation. Defensivé guns on merchant ships are manned by units of the Maritime Regt. (shoulder flash of the R.A.), personnel of our ground defence wear the next badge to right—seen in this case on the shoulder of a woman of the A.T.S. Fires breaking out on Army property are dealt with by the Army Fire Service. The R.E.M.E. bring specialized technical experience to the problems of today’s mechanized warfare.

Other badges are given in p. 3655; those of auxiliary war services in p. 1540.
rate of 50,000 a week. Every month some 150,000 women were placed in jobs; and since the war began the number of women employed in munitions and other vital war industries had risen by 1,500,000. Mr. MacCorquodale foreshadowed that an increasingly large number of "mobile" women would be transferred from their present employment in the less essential industries to industries of greater importance to the national war effort; it had already been announced that women shop assistants from 25 to 30, except some engaged in retail food and coal distribution and specially trained "key" women, were being called up for the war factories. On March 12 it was announced that married women with no children living with them, and who had already registered, were likely to be interviewed for full or part-time work in munitions and other work in their own districts, to take the place of mobile women who were being transferred to other areas.

Not long afterwards Mr. Bevin stated that not far short of half of Britain's total population—some 20,000,000 men and women—were serving in the Armed Forces, Civil Defence, munitions, and other jobs more or less directly connected with the war effort. Even so, thousands, tens of thousands, hundreds of thousands more men and women were required for the war factories which were coming into production in town and country. In April the Home Secretary, Mr. Herbert Morrison, stated that about one-third of full-time Civil Defence and one-sixth of the National Fire Service personnel would be released for work in war factories, since not only was it now necessary to "replac[e] defensive thinking by an offensive will to victory," but everything possible had to be done to relieve the strain on the country's man-power. As a result, a number of the more highly skilled craftsmen were released for industrial employment, and arrangements were also made for closer working between Civil Defence and the Home Guard.

Although thus denuded of something of its strength, the Civil Defence organization was kept at a high pitch of readiness. This example of official foresight was more than justified, since in May the long-continued immunity from large-scale air raids came to an abrupt termination: a number of English cathedral cities—Canterbury, Norwich, Exeter, York and Bath—were subjected to what were called Baedeker raids, ostensibly in revenge for the devastating raids on Lübeck and Rostock.

Transport came to an ever-increasing extent under Government control. The process of centralizing road traffic was speeded up, and in June the Minister of Transport announced that a number of canals would be controlled in the same way as the railways, so as to afford some further relief to the heavily taxed road and rail systems. Every measure short of actual prohibition was tried to prevent the public from making unnecessary journeys: "Is your journey really necessary?" appeared in every ticket-office window, and the exhortation may have done something to cut down civilian travel, although the limitation and the eventual complete suppression of private motoring could not but have its effect on railway traffic returns.

The efficient and highly profitable running of the railways as a single unit under public control encouraged all parties who were inclined to believe that public corporations afforded an efficient and satisfactory half-way house between private enterprise and state socialism. This view was forcibly expressed in the House of Lords on January 17, when Lord Reith (formerly Minister of Works and Planning) initiated a debate on the future of the essential public services. Lord Portal, Minister of Works and Buildings, depre-

THE WARNING SIREN

The air-raid siren was mounted on a suitable building, or on a lattice tower or iron stand. In two towns, different pitches gave the penetrating chort which sounded the alert when modulated and the all-clear otherwise. The sirens were operated from adjoining police stations (Philpot, Middlesex). Photos, Brit.: Imperial Press

NEW RIFLE AND BAYONET

Early in 1945 a new and shorter bayonet (right) was issued, only 6 inches long instead of the 17 inches of the former type (at left). It went with a new pattern Service rifle, more easily mass-produced and having a heavier barrel. Thus, after many years, the sword bayonet was superseded, and a cramped type of triangular section took its place. Photos. "Daily Mirror"
ANGLO-RUSSIAN TREATY OF ALLIANCE AND MUTUAL ASSISTANCE

The text of the Treaty is printed in page 3107. It was signed on May 26, 1942, at the Foreign Office and was to remain in force, as to Part II, until the signing of peace. Part II, concerned with the preservation of peace and with resistance to aggression after the war, was to run for 20 years. Left to right: Mr. Maisky, Ambassador to London; Mr. Molotov, Soviet People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs (signing); Mr. Anthony Eden, Foreign Secretary; Mr. Churchill; Mr. J. B. See, Deputy Premier.

Dr. William Temple, who succeeded Archbishop Lang on February 22, had long been noted for his progressive views. Dr. Garbett, Bishop of Winchester, who followed Dr. Temple as Archbishop of York, had also revealed himself as one concerned with implementing the social gospel of Christianity.

Relations with the U.S.S.R. were consolidated by the signing on May 26, 1942, of a Treaty of Alliance and Mutual Assistance, to run for 20 years. The text is printed in p. 2107.

In June Mr. Churchill crossed the Atlantic to visit Mr. Churchill, President Roosevelt for the third time. He arrived in the States on June 18. On June 22 a joint statement was issued by the President and Prime Minister to the effect that they were consulting concerning the earliest and maximum concentration of Allied war power upon the enemy, and reviewing or concentrating measures which for some time past had been on foot to develop and maintain the effort of the United Nations. On June 25 there was a meeting of the Middle East Council, attended by President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill, Mr. Mackenzie King (Prime Minister of Canada), and other representatives of the Allies; and, as the Chinese Ambassador to the U.S.A., Mr. Litvinov, his Russian colleague, were also in attendance by the two statesmen, Mr. Churchill—crossing the Atlantic as on the way out, by air—returned to London on June 27, and on his arrival a joint statement was issued in London and Washington reviewing the consultations which had taken place. "The Prime Minister and the President have met twice before," ran its concluding paragraph. "There is no doubt in their minds that the overall picture is more favourable to victory than it was either in August or December of last year."

Implicit in these events and statements was more than one suggestion of the North African expedition to be launched so successfully in the following November. But although the plans were laid or furthered in Washington in June, not a whisper of what was afoot could be uttered. So it was that the chorus of criticism continued to beat on an easy wicket. On July 1 a motion of censure on the Government was moved in the House of Commons by Sir John Wardlaw-Milne, on behalf of a small number of members of all parties. "This House (it read), while paying tribute to the heroism and endurance of the Armed Forces of the Crown in circumstances of exceptional difficulty, has no confidence in the central direction of the war." Opening the debate, Sir John Wardlaw-Milne stated that the motion had only one object—that of helping to win the war in the shortest possible time. It was not an attack on the officers in the field; it was a definite attack on the central direction of the war in London, where the cause of our failures lay far more than in Libya and elsewhere. He criticized the Premier for adding to his enormous responsibilities by combining with that office the duties of the Minister of Defence; and he was also consistent concerning the organization, or lack of organization, of supply. But though there were many present who showed their eagerness to echo his accusations, his suggestion that the Duke of Gloucester should be appointed C.-in-C. of the Army was heard with almost incredulous surprise. Another highly critical speech came from Admiral Sir Roger Keyes, and many other members joined in the bombardment of the Treasury Bench. Mr. Oliver Lyttelton spoke at length in defence of the Ministry of Production, but it was Mr. Churchill himself who, on July 2, gave the final answer to the critics. In his speech he ranged over the whole field of the truly global war. "I ask no favour either for myself or the Government," he declared just before he sat down. "I undertook the office of Prime Minister and Minister of Defence at a time when the life of the British Empire hung on a thread. I am your servant. You have the right to dismiss me when you please."

In the event, only 25 members were ready to take up his challenge. On the vote being taken, the Government was found to have a majority of 451.
Chapter 213

BRITAIN'S NEW TACTICS IN AREA BOMBING, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1942

Here Captain Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., A.F.R.Ae.S., reviews events during the period in which, under Air Marshal Sir Arthur T. Harris, Bomber Command developed the concentrated attacks upon German industry and communications which dealt such heavy blows at the enemy's war machine. He also explains the policy of the United Nations in aerial warfare.

Mr. Winston Churchill returned from America by air in British Overseas Airways' Boeing-built flying boat "Berwick" on January 17, 1942. From Norfolk, Virginia, he flew via Bermuda to Plymouth, England. The ocean crossing from Bermuda—3,055 miles—was completed in five minutes under 18 hours. The Prime Minister handled the controls of the flying boat himself for twenty minutes (see illus., p. 1018).

The British Prime Minister's visit to President Roosevelt was of great moment to the air war. Air Chief Marshal Sir Charles Portal (Britain's Chief of Air Staff) accompanied him. From then onwards there was close collaboration in the air between Britain and America on every fighting front. The air forces of the United Kingdom, the Dominions, and those of the American Army and Navy became a distinct and united fighting force, working together to the common end everywhere, under the command of officers of either nation, as might be found desirable.

The forward outlook at the beginning of 1943 was brighter than it had been since the European war began, but the immediate situation was extremely difficult. America was not ready for war. She could not at once deploy any great forces. She had suffered a grievous blow in the Pacific by the partial or complete destruction of 177 Navy and Army aircraft at the three Hawaiian airfields of Kanoaie Bay, Hickam and Wheeler. British air strength, which had been building up steadily, suffered a severe check relative to that of the Axis by the immediate deployment of Japan's full air power. It was impossible for Britain to meet all the demands for home defence, the war at sea, the North Africa campaign, the Middle East, Russia, and the sudden emergency call for help from the Far East. There were not enough aircraft to go round, and something had to be sacrificed.

Anglo-American policy was laid down by the American President and the British Premier: the sacrifice had to be made in the Far East. Airplanes which were to have gone to Australia were diverted during this period to North Africa, where, at the end of June, the British Eighth Army was forced to retreat to El Alamein after General Auchinleck's initial successful drive into Cyrenaica. This paucity of aircraft was the main factor which compelled the conflict to take the course it did. Mr. Roosevelt announced on January 9 that the aim of the American aircraft war industry was to be 60,000 aircraft in 1942 and 125,000 in 1943. (In 1942 55,000 were actually delivered.) The United States Army Air Forces were to be expanded to 1,000,000 officers and men during 1942.

The United States Army Eighth Air Force was at the United Kingdom to join in the ultimate being waged against Germany and Western Occupied Europe by the British, Dominion, Polish, and Czech squadrons operating in the Royal Air Force Fighter and Bomber Commands. The strategic bombing policy of Britain was primarily for a night campaign; that of the United States Army was for a day programme. The bombers of the U.S.A. reached England during the spring of 1942. They first went into action by bombing Rouen on August 17, 1942.

The most outstanding new British aircraft was the Avro Lancaster, which had the excellent quality of ease of manufacture, and good flying characteristics. It could carry a maximum bomb load of 18,000 lb. at about 300 miles an hour, and was popular with its pilots. (See illus., p. 2008.) Though the last of the three new four-engined bombers to come into operation, its qualities brought it quickly to the front rank of heavy bombers. After a few night operations the Lancaster was mentioned in action on April 17, 1942, when No. 44 Squadron sent 12 out in daylight across France and into Germany to attack the M.A.N. factory at Augsburg in Bavaria, where Diesel engines for submarines were made. They flew without escort at less than 100 feet, and near Paris were engaged by German fighters. Four were shot down.

These casualties occurred in the second flight of six bombers, led by Squadron Leader J. D. Nettleton, a 25-year-old South African. With his own rear guns out of action Nettleton flew on to yet far distant Augsburg, accompanied by one other Lancaster. They came over the roof tops to their target and dropped delayed-action bombs square on the factory. The second Lancaster, hit by A.A. fire, crash-landed in flames. With his aircraft riddled with bullets, Nettleton flew back to his base, sole survivor of his flight. He was awarded the Victoria Cross, the tenth air V.C. of the war, and...
LUEBECK WAS THE FIRST TARGET OF THE NEW CONCENTRATED RAIDS UPON GERMAN WAR INDUSTRY

Seating down the enemy’s defences instead of trying to evade them, our bombers in hundreds attacked Luebeck on the night of March 28-29, 1942. Below is an R.A.F. photograph of part of the devastated area afterwards: the distance from A to B is 1,500 yards. Top, Hamelstrasse (see air view) after what the “Hamburger Fremdenblatt” termed “one of the most damaging attacks of the war.” Left, the Cathedral, on fire after the raid.

Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright
The British bombers were designed to achieve their maximum speed at about 18,000 feet, a useful night compromise. But, in daylight, anti-aircraft gunfire was both accurate and strong at that height. It was mainly to avoid anti-aircraft fire that the bombers hedge-hopped to their targets. The American bombers had been intended for day operations, were fitted with special engines and armaments, and designed to fly at 25,000-30,000 feet, where the gunfire was much less concentrated and less accurate. But it was necessary to carry guns to beat off fighters, and owing to the weight of their heavier armament, the American bombers transported a considerably smaller bombload than the British machines.

The British four-engined bombers, capable of concentrating a very heavy weight of bombs on a single target, enabled new tactics in the area bombing to be initiated. Air Marshal Arthur T. Harris (who was made K.C.B. in June) brought this form of attack to a high state of development after his appointment as Commander-in-Chief Bomber Command on February 20, 1942. He was a great believer in bombing the Boche. He was also well aware of the growing power of defence against the night bomber—the increase in A.A. firepower and the growing efficiency of night fighters. Successful night air attack became a problem of beating down the defences, not one of attempting to evade them. The operation required the most precise work to ensure the greatest possible concentration of bomb loads over the desired target. In consequence, “air lanes” from the bases in the United Kingdom to the selected target were worked out, and bombers were allotted exact times, heights, and routes.

With hundreds of bombers streaming in upon the target from several directions it would be extremely difficult for acoustic or radio locating apparatus to pick out one approaching aircraft from another for the gunners. Moreover, when the weight of bombs began to fall, the search for targets and the effectiveness of the gunners and searchlights would be so reduced as to reduce their efficiency. Simultaneously with this development came new and larger bombs—1,000-lb. and 8,000-lb. missiles—with a deadlier shock and blast effect.

One of the earliest of the new pattern raids was the attack upon Lübeck on the night of March 28-29. A large area of the city was gutted by fire and explosions. Then followed the April raid on the Malmö area near Poissy

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'SNISEN SAG' AT GDYNIA

After her flight from Brüx on February 12, 1944, the German battleship made her way to the Polish Baltic port of Gdynia, where she was photographed by the R.A.F. Extensive repair work is in progress: (A) Turret missing; (B) all the turrets; (C) armour, too, is missing; (D) camouflage around the stern.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright
On the other hand, the increasing number of four-engined bombers coming into service, scaled up the weight of bombs that could be dropped, because they carried heavier loads. Well within a year after the thousand-bomber raids, attacks by 300 and 400 four-engined aircraft were unloading about 300 to 1,000 tons of bombs over one target, and these were more distant targets, too, such as Berlin.

In what the German Government stated were reprisals, the R.A.F. raids on German industrial centres like Cologne, Essen, and Bremen, which was the concentrated attack on German industrial centres the Luftwaffe began a series of attacks (called Baedeker raids, from the name of the German guide-book) against cathedral cities of England. Exeter was selected for one such raid on the night of April 24–25. About 30 bombers tore the heart of Exeter into rubble and flames and reduced the beautiful old High Street (after the debris had been cleared away) to an open space, on either side of the roadway, to naked earth. The Cathedral (just off the High Street) was damaged, but not destroyed. There could be no claim that any industrial or war objective was sought. It was the vandalism of what the Germans themselves call “cultural monuments” that was intended; and that alone was fulfilled.

There was something cheering to the people of Coventry, London, Manchester, Plymouth, Hull, and other previously bombed British cities in the thought of the thousand-bomber raids. Here was retribution for what the Luftwaffe had done to them. They looked for more raids of this magnitude. What had happened? They asked, when the thousand-bomber raids did not continue. The answer is, these great raids were an experiment, a test of staff method, aircrew operational efficiency, and at the same time a means to bring to bear upon Germany a severe blow, right in the heart of the main submarine manufacturing centres. For this purpose aircraft not normally available to Bomber Command were pressed into service. Aircraft and crews from Coastal Command and Operational Training Units participated, some of the latter making their first action flight over enemy territory. The scale of the attacks could not be kept up because there were not aircraft available to make them. The demands from all the other war fronts were increasing, and Bomber Command had to suffer in consequence. The strength of Bomber Command increased by only 10 per cent during the whole of 1942.

These intruder fighters flew to the neighbourhood of German air bases from which the bombers came, and then awaited their return. Sometimes they caught them coming out. A proportionately large number of German bombers was destroyed or badly damaged in this way. As with the bomber war, the fighter war was carried into the enemy camp.

Fighter aircraft carried the war into the air over the enemy-occupied territory by day, providing escort for short-range bomber attacks, then mostly made by Bostons or Hurricane fighters. They flew over the zone which could be penetrated by Spitfire, Whirlwind and Hurricane fighters—that was from about Flingshurst to Cherbourg, and inland, at the deepest, to about 50 miles. They attacked coastal vessels, road transport, railway locomotives and trains, canal barges, troops’ billets, gunposts, everything and anything that offered a target to their machine-guns or cannon. (The Hurricane Ic then carried four 20-millimetre cannon-guns, or 12 Browning machine-guns.)

A British Official: Crown Copyright
guns. The Spitfire VB carried two cannon and four machine-guns. The Whirlwind carried four cannon.)

The fighter-bomber was first developed by the R.A.F. in the last summer of the First World War. In the Second World War it was first employed by the Luftwaffe during the Battle of Britain. Its value lies in the great manoeuvrability and speed of the fighter, a combination which enables it to swoop upon its target at a very low level and aim the bomb almost as a fast bowler delivers his ball at the wicket. The bomb falls downwards and forwards, and hits the target with a high forward velocity—more like a bullet than a bomb. When used against ships, the bomb may hit the side of the hull and penetrate, or strike an obstruction in the superstructure. On land, after hitting a building the bomb may go right into it through the wall, and then explode after a brief delay of perhaps three seconds—just long enough for the bomb to fly out of the danger zone of its own missile. For the bomb, in its short free flight, travels forward almost at the same speed as the aircraft, and hits almost at the moment the bomb passes over the target.

When the bomb has been released, the machine becomes a pure fighter—fast, manoeuvrable, well-armed, able to take quick evasive action or to fight in self-defence or in offence. The bomb may fall flat on the surface it strikes, and rebound into the air. Bouncing bombs have sometimes jumped over three houses before their delayed-action fuse exploded them. Sometimes they have almost jumped up and hit the fighter they came from. But in spite of theseocaal errors the fighter-bomber has proved a deadly weapon against small ships, or armies in the field, and for all air bombing work by day, where low flying is an advantage either to avoid gunfire or to put the bomb down in an otherwise awkward place.

The air now played an increasingly important part in the war at sea. Aircraft operated from the United Kingdom, Iceland, Newfoundland, the United States seaboard, and West Africa to provide air cover over the Atlantic. U-boats were driven farther out into mid-Atlantic, beyond the range of patrolling aircraft from all bases. In this area protection was afforded mainly by escort vessels, and there the submarines collected in packs. During the first three months after America's entry into the war, and before anti-submarine measures were fully organized within the new sea zone, heavy sinkings were effected by the enemy in the Caribbean Sea and surrounding waters. (See Chapter 29.) Coastal Command received more powerful types of aircraft and became a complete air force within the R.A.F. The short-range Ansons, which had done useful work in close patrols, were replaced by long-range four-engined Liberators and Halifaxes.
bombing, in addition to marine aircraft such as the Sunderland and Catalina flying boats, the Hudson reconnaissance aircraft, and the Boulton-Paul bomber. The latest types of fighter, Sperati, Hurricanes, and Beaufighters—the last with three cannon and four machine-guns—were employed to protect convoys against air attack during the approach to United Kingdom ports.

The Luftwaffe used aircraft to protect submarines leaving and entering the U-boat bases in Western Europe. Air battles took place over the Bay of Biscay and off the Norwegian coast. German long-range reconnaissance aircraft, principally the Heinkel 111, were used to gain air superiority. The Kondor force of landplanes, escorted by the Focke-Wulf 200 Condor, was very effective in spotting U-boats for the submarines. It was reported that German submarines were attacked whenever encountered. Submarine bases became high-priority targets in the list for Bomber Command. Heavy attacks were maintained against St. Nazaire and Lorient, while Brest was mass-raidied during the four nights following April 23.

The most remarkable episode in the air war at sea was the break-out of the battleships "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" and the heavy cruiser "Prinz Eugen" from Brest on February 21. The warships—battered from the air at frequent intervals while on the move—were at last free to proceed to the western parts of the Channel. The weather was such that it was impossible to put the battleships out of range of the German coast.
THE 'BAEDER' RAIDS

Following the heavy R.A.F. raids on Rostock and Cologne at the end of April 1942, German officials said that in reprisal the Luftwaffe would now go out for every building starred in Baedeker's guides, while the 'Boeren Zeitung' gloated over damage to such buildings at Bath and Exeter. Top, York Station (April 25-29); centre, left, west portico of the Assembly Rooms at Bath—Bath chair in foreground (April, nights of 25 and 26); lower left, the ancient Boar's Head Inn, Norwich (April 27-28); lower right, Exeter Cathedral, where damage to St. James's Chapel is seen (April 24-25). (See also Illus., p. 2124.)


F. W. Tattersall.
NEW TYPES EMPLOYED BY THE LUFTWAFFE

In Russia the Germans used the Blohm & Voss 141, seen on the ground in (1) and in flight in (2). The engine is on the port wing, while the cabin for a crew of three is on the starboard. The Focke-Wulf FW-190, shown in (3) and (4), came into service at the end of 1941; a fast fighter, designed around the engine (a BMW 13-cyl. twin-row radial) and armament (four cannon and two machine-guns). The Blohm & Voss HA-38 seaplane (4) has compression-ignition engines—three Junkers-Jumo 205C 12-cylinder. The top speed is about 370 m.p.h. and the range 2,400 miles.

Photos: F.N.A.; Sport & General; Associated Press; G.P.O.
R.N., escorted by 50 fighters. They attacked the enemy in the face of a furious anti-aircraft gun barrage; no Swordfish returned; six survivors were picked up. Lieut.-Commander Evon de was posthumously awarded the Victoria Cross, the first to be won by the Fleet Air Arm in this war. Four officer survivors were awarded the D.S.O., and the naval airmen who was saved reserve the Geo. Cross Medal. Eleven members of the squadron who did not return were mentioned in dispatches, and it was said of them: "Their was the courage which is beyond praise."

Coastal Command Beauforts claimed three torpedo hits. Fighter-bombers and fighters attacked the escort vessels Blenheim, Halifax, Hampden, Manchester, Stirlings and Wellingtons of Bomber and Coastal Command attacked, but were handicapped by bad weather. They had to drop their bombs from a height in order to get the necessary bomb velocity, but gained only an occasional sight of the vessels through gaps in the clouds. Conditions were almost impossible for our bombers, as mines were laid ahead of the ships. The enemy were later located in Wilhelmshaven, Kiel, and Trondheim, and had suffered damage. In the air-sea action the R.A.F. lost 20 bombers and 16 fighters, and claimed the destruction of 13 enemy fighters. The battleships were again pounded in their new bases by Bomber Command. On May 17 the "Prince Eugen" was intercepted on route from Trondheim to Kiel by 50 Hudsons, Beaufights, and Beauforts, and again damaged.

Meanwhile in the Far East Japanese forces gained victory after victory. Singapore fell on February 15. The loss of Upper Burma and the Dutch East Indies followed. Everywhere the United Nations were outnumbered in the air, and the enemy's air weapon cut through their defences with appalling speed. Air raids began against Northern Australia on April 4; Colombo was raided on April 5; India's first air raids occurred on the 6th; Timor's naval base was raided three days later. During this aggressive action Japanese carrier-born aircraft sank the cruisers "Devonshire" and "Cornwall" and the aircraft carrier "Hermes" near Ceylon. Corregidor, mercilessly dive-bombed and shelled, surrendered to the Japanese on May 5.

The United Nations stood with their backs to Australia, hitting out with aircraft at the Japanese invaders of the islands in the immediate north of Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobe, Osaka and Nagoya were bombed on April 18 by Mitchell bombers led by Major-General

PHILIPPINES RAIDED BY AUSTRALIA-BASED AIRCRAFT

On April 13-14, 1942, Brig.-General Ralph Royes, U.S. Army Air Force (inset), led 13 American fighters in a flight from Australia to attack Japanese bases in the Philippines (see page 203). The squadron comprised three Flying Fortress aircraft of the type seen above, and ten B-25s. Shipping at Manila, Cebu, Davao and Batangas was bombed, and a number of American and Filipino personnel picked up.

Photos, Associated Press; Pictorial Press
DOOLITTLE TAKES OFF TO BOMB TOKYO

Major-General James H. Doolittle led the squadron of American Mitchell medium bombers which flew from the aircraft carrier 'Hornet' a distance of 800 miles to bomb the Japanese capital on April 18, 1942. Besides Tokyo, they attacked Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobe, and Osaka. A total of 64 airmen taking part made their way to Free China, eight were taken prisoner in Japan (some put to death), five were interned in Russia, where one aircraft made a forced landing, two were missing and one was killed.

Right, President Roosevelt decorates Major-General Doolittle with the Congressional Medal of Honor; left to right: Lt.-Gen. Arnold, Chief of U.S. Army Air Forces; Mrs. Doolittle; General Doolittle.

James H. Doolittle, former Schneider Trophy winner, to whom President Roosevelt later presented the Congressional Medal of Honor. A year after, on the anniversary of the raid, it was made known that the aircraft had taken off from the carrier 'Hornet,' which took them to within 800 miles of Tokyo. After bombing objectives in Tokyo and other cities, the aircraft could not reach assigned landing grounds in China, as had been intended. One landed in Russian territory, while others came down in China or in Chinese waters. Of 34 men taking part in the operation, five were interned in Russia; eight were made prisoners in Japan and suffered punishment (some being executed); two were missing and one was killed. The other 64 made their way to Chinese army camps and thence back to American territory. In the original plan the carrier was to have gone 400 miles nearer the Japanese capital, but it ran into enemy forces at 800 miles away and there was a fear that its object had been detected by the Japanese.

On April 31, 1942, a White House statement announced that nine days earlier a protest had been lodged with the Japanese Government against the punishment of the crews of two American bombers captured by the Japanese on the alleged grounds that the men had intentionally bombed non-military installations and had fired on civilians. The U.S.A branded these charges as false, and announced that it would hold personally and officially responsible officers of the Japanese Government who participated in the punishment of the American aviators. Japan was solemnly warned that for any other violations of her undertaking regarding prisoners of war, or for any other acts of criminal barbarity inflicted upon American prisoners, the American Government would visit upon the Japanese Government the punishment they deserved.

By seizing the aerodromes, British carrier-borne aircraft played a great part in the initial landing operations in Malagasy in May. On June 4 the battle of Midway Island began; it ended in an overwhelming defeat for the Japanese Navy by American air power, without a single shot being fired from a gun. This air success removed from Hawaii the threat of invasion. The United Nations were beginning to hit back in the Far East.

In the Mediterranean, Fleet Air Arm and R.A.F. aircraft were constantly engaged. The introduction of the Kittybomber into the desert war began that fighter-bomber-army cooperation which was to mean so much to subsequent victories; the air attack assisted in delaying Rommel's advance into Egypt during Auchinleck's withdrawal to El Alamein. Malta, awarded the George Cross by the King on April 16, had more than 2,500 alerts by the end of June. Having started its own defense with three Gladiator fighters called Faith, Hope, and Charity—now it was hitting back with increasing force.

The R.A.F. Regt. was formed on January 3, 1942; the Army Air Corps and Glider Pilot Regt. on February 27.

The shape of things perhaps to come was seen in the combined attack upon Bruneval, near Le Havre, on February 27. The wireless station was wrecked, and the coast defences overcome from the rear by British parachute troops, dropped from Whitley bombers in their first action in northern Europe.

And by the middle of 1942 the turning point in the air war in favour of the United Nations was reached. Plans to evacuate Ceylon, announced on March 12, proved unnecessary. The Australian Government's early fear that Northern Australia would have to be evacuated because of American and Australian forces united under General MacArthur's resolve to counterattack the Japanese invaders of New Guinea. The successful air-sea battle of the Coral Sea, fought in the first half of May 1942, frustrated the Japanese attempt to invade Queensland. The tempo of air war in the Pacific shifted. Our retention of Port Moresby as an advanced base became the most important factor in the Australasian war zone.

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Chapter 214

U-BOAT ATTACK SWITCHED TO THE WESTERN ATLANTIC

The entry of the United States into full belligerency, while it mobilized untold industrial resources for the cause of the United Nations, brought them the aid of a large and efficient air arm and promised that of a huge army, involved at the outset in large shipping losses as Axis submarines turned on the freighters of our Ally. The setbacks and achievements of the first six months of 1942 are therefore reviewed.

The U.S. people no longer wondered whether the U.S. was winning. That statement was made by a responsible American journal in November 1941—just one month before the Japanese launched their surprise attack on the Pacific naval base at Pearl Harbor. It referred not to the war as a whole but to the war at sea, and particularly to the Battle of the Atlantic. It serves to underline the gradual but steadily increasing participation of the U.S. naval and air forces in clearing the enemy, in President Roosevelt’s words, from “waters the protection of which is necessary for American defence”—waters that stretched as far as Iceland. That phase of the Atlantic battle is reviewed in Chapter 19.

It was a successful phase which offered substantial promise that the tide had at last turned. Then came the final “show-down”: America was at war with Japan, Germany, Italy, and their satellites.

It is necessary to bear in mind the statement quoted above in order to appreciate the turn of events: a sudden alarming rise in Allied shipping losses. The United States’ entry into the war with the whole of her substantial Navy now thrown into the struggle, did not bring about an improvement in the defensive war on the trade routes. The result was a weakening and not a strengthening of the Allied “lines” on this front, as a time when the front itself became suddenly far wider, encompassing not only the mid-Atlantic shipping routes but the whole of the North American seaboard. To the attackers, principally German submarines, the area for masauding operations had spread wide—an unqualified advantage—and the targets had doubled. This on the one hand. On the other the United States Navy had not only to meet the substantial threat of Japanese sea power in the Pacific to the best of its ability, but, at Pearl Harbor, had already sustained devastating losses in that single, treacherous

1941, it was announced that the steamer "Lahaina," had been shelled by a submarine and sunk 11 days previously between Hawaii and San Francisco. Two ships had been attacked "off the coast of California."

On December 17 the "Manini" and "Pusa" were sunk in the Pacific. A few days later the tanker "Emidio" was torpedoed within sight of watchers abore. Another tanker, the "Montebello," was sunk about the same time. Towards the middle of January 1943 the scene shifted to the Atlantic coast. A Panamanian ship was torpedoed 60 miles off Long Island. Four American ships, two of them tankers, were sunk "off the East

TRAINING GUNNERS FOR OUR MERCHANT SHIPS

Maritime Regiments of the Royal Artillery were formed in the summer of 1940 to man the guns on merchantmen against air attack. Here a number of men are learning the use of sights. They wear the familiar khaki uniform with a shoulder bridle bearing an anchor and the letters A.A.

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright
U-BOATS ATTACK CURACAO AND ARUBA

The Dutch West Indian islands of Curacao and Aruba, a few miles off the coast of Venezuela, contain the largest oil-refining plant in the world. On account of the deep-water anchorage here ruin oil is brought in tankers from Venezuela for refining, the output normally being 480,000 barrels daily. The islands were shelled and tankers attacked by enemy submarines in February 1942. Top, a tanker off Curacao aitk being torpedoed; below, a torpedo found on the beach at Aruba; later, while being dismantled, it exploded and killed four persons.


Cecot—within a day or two, some of the attacks apparently having been made audaciously close to American shores.

Farther out to sea, at night time, a U-boat surfaced about 100 yards from the "Lady Hawkins," a passenger liner belonging to the Canadian National Steamship Company. The submarine gave no warning, but fired two torpedoes. The "Lady Hawkins" heeled over and sank. There were 282 passengers and 109 crew on board. It was dark; there was no time to launch some of the lifeboats, and two others were smashed. Seventy-six passengers and crew crowded into one of the boats, which set sail for land. They were rescued five days later—but not all of them; five of that crowded company of men, women, and children had died.

February saw an intensification of the attacks off the Atlantic coast. The largest cargo ship in the world, the Swedish ore carrier "Amerikaland," was torpedoed with the loss of over 20 lives. The steamers "Sangil" and the tankers "India Arrow," "Rochester," "China Arrow," "W. L. Steed," "Republic," "Thalia," "La Carriere" and "Cities Service Empire" were among those reported sunk. Between mid-January and mid-February 25 ships had been sunk in these waters. It was evident the Germans were concentrating their efforts against tankers carrying oil northwards from the Gulf ports and the West Indies. Off the entrance to the Gulf of Venezuela the Dutch West Indian island of Aruba, where there are huge oil refineries. At 1:30 a.m. on February 16, 1942, a submarine, lying less than a mile off shore, opened fire on the refineries. Seven tankers in the vicinity were attacked and three of them sunk. This was the prelude to many U-boat attacks in the Caribbean area, over 4,000 miles from the U-boat base at Brest. By February 23, it was announced, 114 ships had been attacked in the Western Atlantic. On the other hand, 56 attacks had been made on enemy submarines, but only three were definitely known to have been sunk.

These losses on the eastern seaboard of America, said the First Lord of the Admiralty some months later, "proved a grievous drain on the tonnage available to the United Nations... U.S. Eastern Seaboard Sinking of the tonnage available to the United Nations..."

At times they were as much as three-quarters of the total tonnage sunk. Towards the end of February the Prime Minister confirmed the truth of the story told by unofficial Press reports. During the past two months there had, he said, been a "most serious increase in shipping losses." Part of this increase was due, of course, to the fact that new waters were involved, for the Pacific sinkings were by no means insignificant to begin with. But this theatre soon became the battleground for more essentially military operations than were seen in the Atlantic. This was not the slow, steady, threatening war of attrition—the desperate effort to sever the economic arteries that stretched across the Atlantic, round the Cape of Good Hope and through the Arctic to Russia. It was a battle of changing tempo; of swift advances by sea and land that occasionally swept up a harbour half full of merchant ships; the sinking of military transport ships and the disorderly ships retreating from Singapore—a battle of sudden surprises. It was the scene of the great air-naval battles of the Coral Sea and Midway which, by the end of June 1942, had halted the sensational progress of Japan. The chief menace was still hidden in the green waters of the Atlantic—occasionally revealed by the huge bubbles of air and swirl of oil that sometimes followed the explosion of a depth charge.

The mouth of March saw no diminution in the heavy Atlantic and Caribbean sinkings. Coastal defence...
GRIEVIOUS DRAIN ON SHIPPING TONNAGE

U-boat activities off the eastern seaboard of North America early in 1942 caused a serious loss to the United Nations, amounting at times to three-quarters of the total shipping casualties. Here are typical incidents of the grim warfare:
1. Circling around a northern American freighter, a U.S. patrol vessel searches for the U-boat.
2. Survivors from a merchantman torpedoed 150 miles off Halifax, N.S., are hauled aboard H.M.C.S. "Red Deer," a Canadian minesweeper.
3. In (3) it seems a Chinese seaman, unconscious from exposure.
4. Norwegian tanker "Vargger" sinks off the New Jersey coast, not far from Atlantic City. All 3 crew were rescued.

Photos: Kayeone; Associated Press.
BLIMPS PROTECT AMERICAN SHIPPING FROM U-BOATS

Small airships much as this one from the United States Naval Base at Lakehurst (N.J.) cruised slowly on patrol over the Atlantic routes, spotting and giving warning of submarines and mines. They carried depth charges with which to attack enemy under water craft, and supplemented the routine patrols carried out by naval craft and aeroplanes.

Small airships, or "blimps," were considerably strengthened in an effort to provide protected "lanes" for the shipping traffic sailing north and south past Cape Hatteras. Air protection was increased; safe night anchorage provided. Small airships ("blimps") cruised over the water at slow speeds, dropping depth charges when a U-boat was spotted. The sinkings fell off for a time, but in May the U.S. authorities were reluctantly forced to adopt the convoy system along the eastern seaboard. This meant a serious reduction in carrying power because of delays, slower speeds and port difficulties. But it was eventually proved to be the solution to the very serious menace in those waters.

Many anti-submarine vessels, including the ubiquitous corvettes, were sent from Britain to help the U.S. Navy in its new task, and others under construction were earmarked for America. Planes and pilots of the Coastal Command brought the benefits of long experience in U-boat hunting.

In the Western Atlantic the Germans were considerably strengthened in an effort to provide protected "lanes" for the shipping traffic sailing north and south past Cape Hatteras. Air protection was increased; safe night anchorage provided. Small airships ("blimps") cruised over the water at slow speeds, dropping depth charges when a U-boat was spotted. The sinkings fell off for a time, but in May the U.S. authorities were reluctantly forced to adopt the convoy system along the eastern seaboard. This meant a serious reduction in carrying power because of delays, slower speeds and port difficulties. But it was eventually proved to be the solution to the very serious menace in those waters.

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Small airships much as this one from the United States Naval Base at Lakehurst (N.J.) cruised slowly on patrol over the Atlantic routes, spotting and giving warning of submarines and mines. They carried depth charges with which to attack enemy under water craft, and supplemented the routine patrols carried out by naval craft and aeroplanes.

Phot. Keystone

At the beginning of February Brazil took over 90,000 tons of Axis shipping sheltering in Brazilian ports. On February 15 the passenger and cargo vessel "Buarque" was torpedoed off the Atlantic coast; it was night-time and the Brazilian flag painted on the side was floodlit. This was the first attack against the shipping of Brazil, and many others followed—the "Olinda," sunk by shelling a few days later; the "Arabutan," torpedoed early in March; the "Cabeço" in April; the "Paraguai" and "Gomes de Almeida" in May; and the "Comandante Lyra," which reached port after being torpedoed. Brazil replied by requisitioning

six laid-up Danish ships and by attacking the U-boats from the air.

Germany's policy failed with Brazil, which in July declared war on the Axis. Attacks were also made on Argentine ships, including the tanker "Victoria" and the former Italian steamer "Río Tercero," both followed by "profound regrets" from the German Government. The Government of Argentina took no action apart from protests. Uruguayan, Venezuelan, Chilean and Mexican ships were also sunk, with results which were hardly according to the Axis plans. On May 28 President Camacho said that Germany's sinking of two neutral Mexican tankers "in a cowardly ambush" had compelled Mexico to defend her honour. A state of war was declared.

The effect of the adoption of convoys along the Atlantic seaboard was partly to divert even greater numbers of U-boats to the Caribbean Sea, the Gulf of Mexico and the South Atlantic. Though the efficiency of the defence of those coastal waters was improving as more escort ships became available, and was to improve further, sinkings were still on a serious level in June 1942. On the 30th—a day that was spent, in Washington, in urgent conferences by shipping and naval experts summoned by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt—it was reported that 13 ships had been sunk in the Caribbean area in 12 days, and that losses in the Western Atlantic since December 7 (most of them since the turn of the year) amounted to 290 ships—150 off the U.S. east coast, 108 in the Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico, 35 off Canada and 17 off South America. The actual losses were not revealed, although renewed demands in the British Parliament and the Press were made for a resumption of the publication of shipping losses in some form. "As for the public," The Times remarked, "the lack of knowledge must blunt the edge of its appreciation of the quintessential importance of the sea in the scheme of victory."

The crucial position of merchant ships in this general scheme is emphasized by three factors: (1) success in the U-boat blockade represented the Nazis' only hope of withstanding the mounting strength of the United Nations; (2) that strength could be coordinated and brought to bear where and when it would be most effective by means of merchant ships; (3) in the immediate military sphere, merchant ships were vital to the sustenance of the Middle East armies, to the building up of forces...
COLOGNE AFTER THE 1,000-BOMBER RAID OF MAY 30-31, 1942

Actually 1,256 R.A.F. bombers took part in this great attack, which lasted 65 minutes; 24 machines were lost. Two thousand tons of bombs were dropped, and an area of 3,000 acres, including the heart of the great Rhine city, was hit to miss. The Cathedral escaped. Cologne is a great industrial and railway centre, with large chemical and engineering works, rubber plants and machine-tool shops.

Photo, British Official, Crown Copyright

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MEN AND WOMEN SHARE OUR ANTI-AIRCRAFT DEFENCE

Top, A.T.S. girls take part in a realistic exercise in which tear gas is used and all gas precautions are taken; here, muffled up in anti-gas clothing and masked, they are operating a predictor and range-finder. The first of the Mixed Batteries (men and women working together) went into operation at a gun site near London in the late summer of 1941.

Below, one of London’s powerful defence batteries on the alert.

Photo, Planet News; Pay
DESTRUCTION OF THE MEDIEVAL GUILDHALL AT YORK

York was attacked on the night of April 19-20 by 20 German bombers, five of which were destroyed. Only the four walls of the Gothic Guildhall were left after the fire which followed the bombing, were seen at its height. During the period April 24–29, 1942, Easty, Bath, Bristol, Norwich, and York had been bombed in what the Germans called crystal raids. There was a heavy casualty list in April: 928 killed and 968 injured and detained in hospital.
BOMB THAT MISSED THE ROYAL CRESCENT, BATH

Bath was the second target of the so-called ‘Hanseler’ raids made by the Luftwaffe in ‘reprisal’ for R.A.F. raids on Luebeck and Rostock. Fifty German bombers were engaged on the night of April 25-26, 1942, and 30 the following night. Five and three of the enemy were destroyed. The old Assembly Rooms (see Illus., p. 227) were burned down and nine churches were damaged, besides Bath Abbey. Other historic buildings also suffered.

Photo: Crampsh. W.241
AMERICAN MERCHANTMAN BRINGS SUPPLIES TO ALEXANDRIA

Besides new merchant ships built to British orders the U.S.A. constructed large numbers for her own use under the emergency programmes to make up for losses sustained by submarine attack. Combined Boards decided the priorities for cargoes and destinations, just as other Boards adjusted production between the two countries, and a joint Middle East Supply Centre was established to reduce the demands on shipping still further. A new American freighter enters the port at Alexandria with supplies.

in the Pacific theatre and to the maintenance of the supply routes to Russia, feeding the main fighting front. In short, in President Roosevelt's words, "the battle of production" was already on the way to being won; "the battle of distribution" was at a critical stage.

The answer also to these problems was threefold: to defeat the U-boat or blunt its power by stronger and more effective naval and other action; to increase the output of new merchant shipping, which did not yet even equal the tonnage being sunk; and to put each ton of existing shipping to the utmost effective use. These were the three facets of a single task. The answers were sought in many ways subsidiary to the main sea struggle. At the beginning of March it was stated that Britain's food imports were to be reduced, and later the milling of white flour was prohibited. The introduction of the "national loaf"—in which a greater percentage of the milled grain was used, including parts formerly classed as offals—meant a saving of between 500,000 and 600,000 tons of cargo space annually.

In other ways the demands on shipping were reduced. It was mainly with this in mind that, under the initiative of the Ministry of War Transport, there had been set up what was known as the "Middle East Supply Centre." Its task was to supply the civilian needs of 50 million people living in an area of 2,500,000 square miles, which included Egypt, Turkey, Palestine, Syria, Cyprus and half a dozen other territories formerly supplied largely by Mediterranean shipping. The aim was to make the area as a whole as self-supporting as possible, and in every other way to reduce the demand on ships that were needed to bring troops and war weapons round the long Cape route to the desert armies defending Egypt, the Suez Canal, and the strategic stronghold of the Middle East.

In the wider sphere were the problems of the integration of British and American resources, not only so as to obtain joint effort and avoid duplication, but to achieve the most effective joint use of available tonnage and to harmonize production programmes with the necessity of reducing demands on shipping. In January 1942, as a result of consultations between Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt, "combined boards" were set up to deal with munitions, raw materials and shipping, with representatives in London and Washington. The Combined Shipping Adjustment Boards were designed to achieve, in principle, a pooling of shipping resources without, in fact, the creation of any such physical pool. By this means the margins of shipping on the various routes were dealt with in the most satisfactory manner from the point of view of economy in shipping as a whole.

Even in the case of individual ships the work of the Boards came into play to see that by due-tailing British imports and U.S. Army supplies on an Atlantic voyage, for instance, a ship would be most effectively loaded by weight as well as by space. The general plan of integration was carried a stage further in June with the setting up of a Combined Production and Resources Board and a Combined Food Board.

It was noted above that, besides achieving the most effective use of ships, the other parts of the threefold solution to the "battle of distribution" had to be sought in the blunting of the U-boat weapon and the stopping up of merchant ship production. As to the former,

FIRSTFRUITS OF GIGANTIC SHIPBUILDING PROGRAMME

America's shipbuilding target for 1942 was 2,000,000 tons deadweight. At the beginning of February there arrived in a British port the 'Ocean Vanguard,' built in the U.S.A. for Britain—first of many thousands of her kind to be turned out by mass production. Component parts were made in engineering yards all over the country, for assembly at the seaboard. The site and 3rd Engineers are seen at the controls.

Photo, Keystone
COASTAL COMMAND'S VIGOROUS OFFENSIVE IN THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC

During the year 1942 aircraft of Coastal Command flew more than 25,000,000 miles, mostly on anti-submarine patrols, which numbered 12,000. Three hundred attacks were made on U-boats, and over 4,000 on enemy shipping. Top, a Hudson of the Dover Squadron, R.C.A.F., flies low over the North Sea in search of enemy shipping. Below, seen from an escorting Flying Fortress, a convoy from America nears Britain. Inset, W.A.A.F.s at a Coastal Command ground crew load parachutes into a Sunderland flying-boat.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright. Foo
there was no doubt that the chief hope lay in stronger convoy escort and improved anti-U-boat measures. But the bombing of U-boat bases and shipyards was also a factor of considerable importance. St. Nazaire, Emshaven, Hamburg, and other places were frequent targets of increasingly heavy bombing raids aimed at reducing the enemy’s power at sea. The Secretary of State for Air stated in March that 40 per cent of Bomber Command’s total effort during the previous year had been expended on targets chosen by the Navy. There is little doubt that in 1942 that percentage was, if anything, increased. One of the most spectacular raids of the war, the daylight bombing of Augsburg, 500 miles into Germany, was aimed at the M.A.N. works turning out Diesel engines for U-boats.

The first half of 1942 saw the huge American shipbuilding programme getting into its stride: 3,000,000 tons deadweight—more than the total British, Allied and neutral losses from September 1939 to the end of 1941—were promised for 1942. By June considerably less than half this tonnage had been completed, but the momentum of the vast effort could be seen to be gathering. At the beginning of February there had arrived in a British port with her first cargo a ship more appropriately named, perhaps, than any other in history—the “Ocean Vanguard.” Built in America under British Admiralty auspices, she was indeed the vanguard of thousands of standardized “tramp” ships, mass-produced to form the backbone of the greatest industrial effort over seen.

It was ships that sustained the United Nations during these months of accumulation of strength. But it was men who kept the ships at sea—a number of many nationalities linked by common dangers and the qualities, in uncomon degree, of bravery and fortitude. They faced the hazards of weather—“an exceptionally rigorous winter,” in the words of Admiral Sir Percy Noble, Commander-in-Chief, Western Approaches. They faced the constant danger of the usually unseen torpedo and the deadly mine. They ran the gauntlet of seemingly incessant aerial attacks in convoys to Malta, convoys to Murmansk and Archangel; attacks pressed home with ruthless daring and aimed always at the merchant ships and the cargoes in their holds. There was a glorious part: but it was also a grim one, more so than any other. For besides the lethal weapons of war were horrors of a more sinister kind—slow freezing in bitter northern waters, death by starvation, suicidal madness, the lonely helplessness of a raft in mid-Atlantic. No efforts were spared by the authorities to improve lifesaving measures and, by every means, the chances of survival from a sunken ship wherever it might be. Improvements in equipment were constantly introduced, and much thought and experiment expended. But it is less than just to the men on whom so much depended to forget or ignore the part of those experiences that is far removed from the dash and glory of battle.

The story of the Norwegian cargo ship “Blind” is just one in dozens of similar “incidents” of the Atlantic Battle. She was torpedoed, and 17 of the men found themselves in one of the open boats. The sea was rough enough to wash the men overboard more than once. Ships passed without seeing the lifeboat. The men were 66 hours in that boat, and many went mad and threw themselves overboard, although sharks were close behind. They would begin to talk confusedly of comfortable beds and hot coffee, and one by one they lost their reason,” said a survivor. Only six were saved. Such ordeals might be matters of hours, days, or weeks—the conditions were never the same, and it was on the conditions as much as anything that survival depended.

In one instance a seaman arrived in Australia after spending nearly two months in an open lifeboat, the sole survivor of a ship torpedoed by a Japanese submarine on December 7, 1941. Another was 46 days on a raft. Not a proper raft but just a float apparatus—lashed boards 3 ft. square—was the home of seaman Edward Gordon Elliot for 13 days in shark-infested waters under a scorching sun. There were more than one clinging to this affair to begin with. The sharks “kept swimming round us for days, waiting for us, trying to sweep us off with their tails, diving under our float, and trying to bump us off.” They had no food, but thirst was worst of all. It was a terrible strain to keep myself from drinking sea water—to keep myself from taking just a drop to rinse my mouth with.

Seamen sometimes “got their own back” with the guns of their ship. Occasionally a merchant ship succeeded in ramming a submarine. One of the many remarkable exploits against a U-boat was the action by the naval trawler “Lady Shirley,” the loss of which was announced in January (see p. 1999).

It was on January 31 that one U-boat excelled herself. That evening a report was received in the Admiralty that the Royal Mail steamer “Britannia” had been torpedoed 450 miles north of the Azores. The “Britannia,” however, was known to be elsewhere. Shortly after,
the message was urgently repeated and
the name of the ship was given as the
"Spreewald," last heard of at Yokohama in August 1941. A search
disclosed a patch of oil three miles wide.
The "Spreewald"—a German ship—
had sunk, the victim of a U-boat.

An exploit of a different character,
demonstrating great courage and deter-
mination, came from northern waters.

When Norway was
Invaded ships of the
Norwegian merchant
marine implicitly carried
out instructions from London, despite
German orders begging them to come from
Norwegian owners. But a number of
Norwegian ships found themselves in
Gothenburg, in Sweden, where a dispute
arose as to their ownership. They had
been chartered to Great Britain by the
Norwegian Government, but Germany
claimed the ownership. The
Swedish authorities arrested the ships,
and legal and diplomatic discussion
followed. In March 1942, when the
Supreme Court at Stockholm recognized
the immunity claimed by the British
Government, which refused to accept a
summons to attend the Court, the
arrest was repealed.

A month later the 10 or 11 ships
involved, under cover of snow and fog,
took the German blockade of the
Skagerrak. The Germans, who
had been waiting all the winter, dis-
covered the unescorted convoy. The
"Skytteren," a former White Star liner,
converted into a whale-oil factory ship,
and the "Buccaneer," a tanker, were
sunk. Varying reports announced that
two or three of the ships were scuttled
by their crews, and it is known that two
more ships returned to Swedish waters,
where their English captains were
arrested. Germany protested to the
Swedish Government for allowing guns
to be put aboard the ships, and accused
the British diplomatic representatives
of being involved in the affair. The
Ministry of Information in London
described the courageous efforts as
having been "partially successful."

About the same time a Norwegian
coastal vessel was dramatically kid-
napped and brought to England. A group
of young Norwegians decided to seize a ship
and navigate her across. They boarded
the "Galtesund" as passengers at
various ports of call, and when she left
Flekkiford they whipped out revolvers,
seized the bridge and engine room, and
forced the captain and crew to obey.
As the ship failed to arrive at the next
port of call it was announced she had
met with an accident. She was spotted
by R.A.F. planes, which sent a trawler
to guide her through British minefields.

As the first half of 1943 ended the
scene was sombre. With the fall of
Tobruk in Libya a threat to Allied
maritime strategy in the Middle East
was renewed. In the Far East Japan
had been checked, but not defeated.
In the Atlantic the U-boats still hunted
dangerously. At the end of
June Mr. Churchill returned from
Washington, and a joint statement
recorded: "Because of the wide exten-
sion of the war to all parts of the world,
transportation of the fighting forces,
together with the transportation of
munitions of war and supplies, still
constitutes the major problem of the
United Nations."
**Diary of the War**

**MARCH AND APRIL, 1942**

**March 1, 1942.** Russian offensive in Khorj peninsula and N. of Sevastopol. Japanese land on Mindanao.

**March 2.** General Sir Archibald Wavell consumes command, India and Burma.


**March 7.** Rangoon evacuated.

**March 8.** Big Japanese landings at Salamaua and Lae (New Guinea).


**March 12.** British garrison withdrawn from Ambana. Mr. Oliver Lyttelton appointed. Min. of Production.

**March 14.** Gen. Sir H. Pownall appointed to Ceylon Command.


**March 18.** Successful Allied air attack on Japanese shipping, etc. in New Guinea.

**March 19.** Mr. R. G. Casey appointed. Min. of State in Cairo and missions British War Cabinet.

**March 20.** Eighth Army units land Rommel in Cyrenaica. British-Italian Treaty of Friendship.

**March 22.** Three-day naval action in Mediterranean; small squadron under Rear-Adm. Van fights off strong enemy force attacking convoy to Malta. Loss of British ship "SS Yorktown.

**March 23.** Japanese occupy Ambana; British submarines sink two Italian submarines in Mediterranean. Staffad Crimp arrives at Delhi with H.M. Govt.'s proposals for Indian settlement.

**March 24.** Corregidor heavily bombed.

**March 25.** Sir Stafford Cripps meets Congress Party and Moslem leaders.

**March 26.** Three-day air attack on Corregidor begins.

**March 27.** General Blamey appointed C-in-C Allied forces in Australia; Pres. Quezon reaches Australia from Philippines. Sir Stafford Cripps meets Mr. Gandhi; launched force of Navy, Army and R.A.F. attack New Guinea base at President in New Guinea.

**March 28.** At night, heavy R.A.F. raid on Labuan.

**March 29.** British Govt.'s proposals for Indian settlement published. Allied convoy on route to Marakesh attacked by German naval force, which is dispersed by the war.

**March 30.** R.M.S. the King broadcast. Loss of H.M. cruiser "Challenger" announced. Pacific War Council set up in Washington. Sir Stafford Cripps broadcasts to peoples of India.

**March 31.** Treaty of Amity between China and Turkey.

**April 1, 1942.** Japanese begin heavy assault on Bataan positions. Chinese forces withdraw from Tumakau after a week's heavy resistance. Heavy Japanese attack on Tugue. At night R.A.F. bombs Malaya works at Poes.ay.

**April 2.** Indian Congress Party replies to British proposals. At night, R.A.F. raid again raids Po.ay.

**April 3.** American merchant ship Mandalay is sunk by Japanese bomb-Bangkok. American bombers raid Bangun and Ambanan from Indian bases. Loss of H.M. destroyer "Hedyphor" announced.

**April 5.** Japanese bomb Colombo, blowing up 27 aircraft. At night, R.A.F. bombs Colombo and Amban from Indian bases. Loss of H.M. "Tangier" announced.

**April 6.** Attack on Bataan positions goes on. American forces land on Bougainville (Solomon); they bomb ports in Madiera Fringes.


**April 9.** Successor of Wainwright's forces on Bataan; Wainwright goes to Corregidor. Japanese bomb Trincomalee, losing 21 aircraft; H.M. cruisers "Dover land" and "Cornwall" and the aircraft carrier "Hiryu" are sunk by enemy aircraft. British submarines sink Italian cruiser in Mediterranean.

**April 10.** Breakdown of Indian agitation; Congress Party rejects British proposals. Japanese land on Cebu and on Bilbato Island.

**April 11.** New Cabinet in Bulgaria under Plisoff as Premier and Foreign Minister.

**April 12.** Heavy bombing and shelling of Corregidor. In Burma, many 90m. offensive N. of Tumakau; British withdraw. Iron breaks off relations with Japan.


**April 14.** Pierre Laval becomes chief of Vichy Govt. R.A.F., in a raid on Port Blair (Andamans), destroys 13 Japanese flying boats.

**April 15.** British forces in Burma retire to new positions on Irrawaddy. Air raid, R.A.F. bombers attack St. Nazaire.

**April 16.** More Japanese land in Petsch; George Cross awarded to Malia.

**April 17.** Olliffe at Yunnansuimga destroyed by British forces as they withdrew. Lancaster bombers attack Amsbury in daylight; seven out of twelve lost in the air.

**April 18.** American medium bombers loaded by Maj.-Gen. Doddall, raid Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Yokohama and Nagoya; take off from U.S. aircraft carrier "Hornet" when 100 miles from Japan. Von Leeb removed from command on Long island. Free French submarine "Surcouf" announced. 1st. Enemy submarines sink Corviglia. Pétain appoints Admiral Darlan as his successor, and also as Chief of Naval forces.

**April 21.** General Giraud escapes from fortress at Köningstein to Switzerland.

**April 22.** Loss of H.M.A.S. "Vampire" (destroyer) announced. Reconnaissance raid on Sundog by Combined Operations forces. Announced that American forces are in India.


**April 24.** German night raid on Exeter; first of a series of repeat bombing s ("Baedeker"") raids of Cathedral cities.


**April 26.** After a speech to the Reichstag, Hitler is accused of war crimes and is declared a war criminal. Announced that American forces are in India.

**April 27.** Night raid on Norwich.


**April 30.** H.M.S. "Edinburgh", damaged by U-boat at Arzio (sink in later attack on May 2).
BLACK-OUT IN NEW YORK

The two larger photographs were taken early in 1942, one from the Radio Corporation of America Building, looking south. Top, time 9:29 p.m.; just before a test black-out; below, at 9:30 p.m. The glow in background, against which the Empire State Building is dimly silhouetted, came from an area not included in the black-out.

Right, air-raid precaution notice on a lamp-post in Fifth Avenue.

Photos, Fox / "New York Times" Photos
Chapter 215

SIX MONTHS OF GIGANTIC EFFORT IN THE UNITED STATES

In this Chapter, covering the first half of 1942, the story of America's war effort is told by Spencer Brodley, Editor of "Current History" (New York). The reactions of the people to the crippled disasters of December 1941 and the following months are described—the enormous programme for war construction, the building up of the armed forces, the gradual and all-compelling marshalling of American opinion behind the President.

The United States was organizing for war—was, in fact, already in the war—well before Japan struck the first blow on December 7, 1941. The outbreak of the conflict in Europe more than two years before had made many Americans, and none more than President Roosevelt, feel that they would inevitably become involved. A vast defence programme had been launched and was being steadily expanded in spite of strong opposition from the various anti-interventionist and anti-war sections of the community. Thus it happened that, although Pearl Harbour came as a shock which for the moment left the nation breathless, it did not by any means find America having to start from scratch in organizing for the struggle.

Primarily America could contribute to the war effort of the United Nations by throwing the full weight of her industrial power into the scales, but the United States Government never intended to be content with only providing weapons and supplies. It meant to take as big a hand in the actual fighting as any other nation waging war on the Axis and to be one of the chief artificers of the victory on which the future peace of the world should be built. Hence it was inevitable that America should have a part in planning the grand strategy of the war commensurate with her contribution to the common cause.

This immediately gave rise to the question of the High Command and the necessity for the most effective coordination of the plans of the British and American war leaders in particular. First of all, changes were made in the American command as a result of the disaster at Pearl Harbour. On December 17, 1941, it was announced that Admiral H. Kimmel, Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet, Lieut.-General W. Short, Commander of the Hawaiian Department of the United States Army, and Major-General E. Martin, Commander of the Army Air Corps in Hawaii, had been removed from active duty. This cleared the way for the appointment of a liaison in Washington to coordinate the United Nations' war effort in the Pacific area. A further result was that when General Douglas MacArthur escaped from Bataan to Australia he was put in command not only of the American forces but of all United Nations forces in the south-west Pacific.

The original Pacific Council in Washington did not include all the British Dominions nor the Netherlands Government-in-exile, which, with Great Britain and the Dominions, worked together through another Council in London. Late in March, after a conference of representatives of the United Nations (at which Dr. Herbert V. Evatt, Australian Minister of External Affairs, was prominent), a new Pacific Council was set up in Washington, the members including Great Britain, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands East Indies, Canada and China. Its purpose was to discuss the political ramifications of the war effort to the end, as President Roosevelt put
it, of assuring "the complete cooperation and understanding of all the nations concerned." The Pacific Council in London kept in close touch with the new body. Here, as in so many other directions, America was striving to make the "United Nations" mean all that the name implied. Vital as was the military and political cooperation that had been initiated, it would have been incomplete without machinery for economic collaboration between the United Nations. Foremost among the organizations created for this latter purpose were the joint economic boards set up in January 1942 by Great Britain and the United States to pool and distribute shipping, munitions and raw materials.

The Lease-Lend Act, which had become law on March 11, 1941, played an ever more important part in the American effort to increase and consolidate the fighting strength of the United Nations. By May 31, 1942, aid from this source had already amounted to $8,500,000,000 and was rising to an estimated annual rate of $8,500,000,000. War materials accounted for more than half the figure, but manufactured goods and foodstuffs were also being sent abroad in large quantities. After negotiations for more than six months Great Britain and the United States, on February 23, 1942, signed a treaty implementing the original lease-lend programme and providing for reciprocity wherever possible. One consequence of this was that, as American troops moved overseas, British and also Australian aid was afforded on an ever-increasing scale. The Lease-Lend Pact opened the way for "all other countries of like mind" to enter into similar arrangements.

One of the questions on which Britain and America might perhaps not have been able to see eye to eye was the relative importance of the war in Europe and the war in the Pacific. Nevertheless, it was agreed that the United Nations should aim at knocking out Germany before turning in full force against Japan. To this there was some opposition in the U.S.A. among those who clamoured against trusting the war in the Pacific as a "side-show." But it was obvious that America could not wage war on an equally large scale on both sides of the world, and that the most that could be done until Germany was defeated would be to keep open the trans-Pacific lines of communication and to hold the enemy in the South-West Pacific so that Australia would be safe from invasion.

Another important question of grand strategy that America strove to prevent from causing friction concerned Russia. Premier Stalin's insistence on a Second Front in Europe was regarded by most Americans as necessary for the speedy defeat of Germany; but in certain influential quarters the old fear of Bolshevism was still alive and was said to be obstructing the wholehearted aid that Russia so urgently needed. When, however, Molotov (Soviet Foreign Com- missar) visited Washington late in May, President Roosevelt took the occasion to strengthen Russo-American relations. The most definite result of Molotov's stay in America was the signing of a major Lease-Lend Pact, similar to that between Britain and America.

Its main purpose was to increase and speed up deliveries to Russia despite the added demands on American production and the dangers that lurked along the sea lanes. American aid had already been by no means inconsiderable, and now there was the assurance that it would be greater and more effective. As for a Second Front, the White House announced that during Molotov's visit "a full understanding had been reached on the "urgent tasks of creating a Second Front in Europe in 1942."

To judge by the discussion that followed, these words were not quite so clear as they seemed, for it was argued that the understanding did not refer to the actual opening of a Second Front, but to the "urgent tasks" that would yet have to be carried out before a Second Front could be opened in 1942. The general trend of opinion seemed to be definitely toward regarding Russia as one of the Great Powers that were destined to play an important part in the post-war world, and with which it would be advisable to prepare to work and live. This fact was recognized in the provision in the new Russo-American Agreement for post-war cooperation.

American organization for war during the first six months of 1942 was determined primarily by the immediate demand of defeating the Axis powers, but it was obvious that many of the measures adopted to this end were at the same time shaped by the gradually developing idea of the part that America should play in the Peace settlement. Many Americans, for instance,
NEW PACIFIC WAR COUNCIL.
The first meeting was held on April 1, 1942, at the White House, Washington, Mr. Roosevelt presiding. Left to right, around the table: T.V. Soong (China); Walter Nash (New Zealand); Dr. Herbert V. Evatt (Australian Minister of External Affairs); Lord Halifax (British Ambassador to Washington); President Roosevelt; Hume Wevng (Canada); Alexander London (Netherlands); Harry Hopkins (President Roosevelt’s adviser). The purpose of the Council was to discuss the political aspects of the war effort so as to assure complete cooperation and understanding.

Photo, Keystone

looked upon the United Nations’ Pact as intended not only to produce a cohesive programme for fighting the war, but also as the nucleus of a world organization for peace and security that might either replace the League of Nations or pave the way to its revival and reconstitution on a sounder basis. In any case, the widespread discussion of Peace plans assumed practically without exception that Isolationism was extinct and that the United States would occupy a commanding position in the post-war world.

Not until the full reality of war broke upon the people did the mighty industrial giant that is America wake up with a roar that reverberated through the factories and worksheds, the mills and the mines spread over its three million square miles of territory. Thus came such startling changes as the country had never before witnessed—changes that no American dreamed were possible, even as it became increasingly certain that war lay ahead and that everyone would have to share in the storm and stress. Of these changes none was more impressive than the way in which the production machine was swung over from peacetime needs to the

DECLARATION OF TWENTY-SIX UNITED NATIONS.
Representatives of 26 countries met in Washington at the end of December 1941, and after conferences a joint declaration was signed on New Year’s Day, 1942, pledging them to employ their full resources against the members of the Tripartite Axis Pact and its adherents (see p. 397).
The second page of the Declaration, with some of the signatures, is here shown.

Photo, “New York Times” Photos
VISIT WHICH STRENGTHENED RUSSO-AMERICAN RELATIONS

Towards the end of May 1942, Mr. Molotov, the Soviet Foreign Commissar, went to Washington, where he signed the famous Lease-Lend Agreement for his country and discussed with President Roosevelt the opening of a second front in Europe. (Left to right) Admiral King, Mr. Cordell Hull (Secretary of State), General Marshall, Mr. Molotov, Mr. Litvinov (Soviet Ambassador) — in front of the Russian bomber in which the visitors flew back to Moscow.

Photo, Paul Popper

arming and equipping of the millions of fighting men that it was unhesitatingly resolved should be thrown into the breach. This required that many more millions of people should be mobilized to provide weapons and supplies for America's armed forces, as well as for the United Nations which had already been receiving aid all over the world. On December 7, 1941, about 55,000,000 persons were gainfully employed in the United States; within six months the number rose to 59,000,000—about 40 per cent of the total population. Of that number over 10,000,000 were directly engaged in war work and many more were producing materials needed by America's allies abroad.

Some observers who followed day by day the steps by which the American war economy was brought into being could not help getting the impression that America was muddling through. Yet the wrangling and friction that furnished the theme of endless newspaper stories merely reflected the necessary and not at all excessive discussion of ways and means that in a democracy should attend any vast enterprise. Actually, when one looks back, the remarkable thing is how smoothly and rapidly everything fell into place. This is proved by the enormous increase that soon began in the production of weapons and the innumerable items of war materials and supplies.

When President Roosevelt announced to Congress on January 6, 1942, his production programme for the year, the world, and particularly the United States, wondered whether it would be possible for the nation to turn out 60,000 warplanes, 45,000 tanks, 20,000 anti-aircraft guns, and 8,000,000 tons of shipping within twelve months. Although some items on the list were reduced because of the need to increase others, on the whole the programme was well under way within six months. In short, even in these first months America was magnificently living up to the pledge it had given to become "the Arsenal of Democracy." Without this vast production, it is highly improbable that the tide of battle would have begun to turn so soon against the Axis Powers.

Obviously someone had to pay and go on paying for the effort. This was the burden that fell on the American people, of whom a large proportion enjoys a higher standard of living than many other peoples. When the war came, despite vast resources, an abundant supply of raw materials and a highly developed industrial system, a strain was placed on the American economy that few had foreseen, and that puzzled many who believed that the nation could be involved in a world war and at the same time go on doing business and enjoying life as usual. Not even America was equal to that. Shortages, not only of vital materials but also of many small things that contributed to comfort, began to make themselves felt and to

BRITISH AND AMERICAN PRODUCTION CHIEFS

In June 1942 Mr. Oliver Lyttelton visited Washington to confer with his "opposite number," Mr. Donald M. Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board of the U.S.A., seen here (left) lighting Mr. Lyttelton's cigarette. On March 31st Mr. Lyttelton had been appointed Minister of Production, with chief responsibility for British war production as a whole.

Photo, Keystone
CHANGE-OVER IN U.S. CAR INDUSTRY

In January 1942 the vast motor-car industry of America switched over to the production of military vehicles. (Top, left) Ford No. 30,327,999 rolls off the assembly line—the last for the duration. Petrol (gasoline) sales were cut by 20 per cent in March, and after May 15, when official rationing began, the average motorist could get only three gallons per week; ration card below. The effect on America’s highways is graphically shown by the photographs of the West Side Highway along Riverdale, New York (lower, left), before rationing; this in a country with nearly one motor vehicle for every four persons.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
OFFICE OF PRICE ADMINISTRATION

GASOLINE RATION CARD

THE ACCOMPANYING USE OF THIS CARD CONSTITUTES AN AGREEMENT THAT THE HOLDER WILL RESERVE THE HOUR AND REGULARLY SUBSEQUENT GALLONAGE RATIONING AS STIPULATED BY THE OFFICE OF PRICE ADMINISTRATION

[Blank card with fields for owner's name, street address, city or post office, make, model, year, state, and registration number]

READ INSTRUCTIONS ON REVERSE SIDE OF THIS CARD

ONE UNIT ONE UNIT ONE UNIT ONE UNIT ONE UNIT ONE UNIT ONE UNIT
Affect the people in all sorts of unexpected and disconcerting ways. Materials required for the production of armaments were strictly rationed for civilian use, if, by chance, surpluses were available. Goods needed by America’s allies on the battle-fronts were allocated to these countries under Lend-Lease and were consequently limited for American consumption. At the same time foreign sources of supply, particularly those in the Orient, were cut off. These restrictions and shortages were felt all the more because of the tremendous increase in purchasing power in the hands of American war workers. More people than ever before were trying to buy steadily decreasing quantities of goods.

Before the war, there had been over 32,000,000 motor vehicles, or nearly one for every four persons, in the United States. Americans had come to imagine that existence was hardly possible without a car, and had grown accustomed to buying a new one every few years. In fact, not a few “traded-in” their used cars for the latest models every year. To such a people a ban on driving for all but essential purposes was perhaps as severe a deprivation as could be thought of. Yet it came about, and one of the strangest spectacles in the months after the Pearl Harbour disaster was the steady disappearance of automobiles from the streets and motor highways.

On New Year’s Day, 1942, the Government ordered the stoppage of the manufacture of new motor-cars and of the retail sale of new cars and lorries. A few days later, the automobile industry was called upon to begin converting its plants to war production, a change that was carried out with remarkable speed. Instead of between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 passenger cars a year that were formerly being built, the manufacturers began turning out a steady stream of army lorries, jeeps, tanks, aeroplanes, aeroplane parts and even ammunition.

To conserve rubber, the rationing of tires began on January 5, 1942, and from that time on only war workers, doctors, and others in essential occupations were entitled to buy new tires. In the first month the effect was that only 357,974 tires were sold instead of the normal monthly turnover of 4,000,000. At the same time the Government restricted the retreading of old tires, and drivers had to do the best they could with what they had. Nor was this the whole of the American motorists’ problem. A shortage of
tankers that carried petrol soon made itself felt, particularly on the Eastern seaboard of the United States. Even before the war an informal system of petrol rationing had begun in the summer of 1941, when filling stations closed at 7 o’clock every evening in order to limit sales. On March 19, 1942, the Government ordered a 20 per cent cut in petrol retail sales, and filling stations began to ration supplies to drivers with renewed vigour. By May the situation had become so acute that official rationing came into force. Ration books were issued, and after May 15 the average American motorist was entitled to only three gallons of petrol a week. A larger ration was granted to those who were engaged in essential industries or who had to use their cars for business or other necessary purposes. Pleasure driving was no longer countenanced, and Americans had to find other ways of getting from place to place — or else they had to stay at home.

Shortages and restrictions steadily became the rule in every aspect of daily life. On January 27, 1942, Donald M. Nelson, head of the Drastic War Production Board, Rationing authorized Leon Henderson, (Federal Price Administrator) to ration all goods and commodities sold at retail. Almost immediately the amount of cotton and woollen textiles available for civilian use was cut 50 per cent. Only 20 per cent

U.S. ARMY NEWSPAPER

The first issue of ‘Yank,’ appearing on June 26, 1942, contained a contribution by President Roosevelt entitled ‘Why We Fight.’ The cover, here reproduced, showed an American gun-carrying in Australia.

Photo, “New York Times” Photo

of the 1941 output of electric light bulbs was available for 1942; vacuum cleaners were subjected to an annual reduction of 25 per cent. After January 15 no more spirituous liquor might be manufactured, the alcohol being transferred to the production of explosives. However, it was estimated that the amount of liquor on hand would be enough for four years. Sugar made an early appearance on the scarcity list, and rationing became the rule, with a maximum quota for each person of 50 pounds a year. A 10 per cent reduction in the manufacture and delivery of tin cans, ordered by the War Production Board late in January, struck at the American fondness for canned foods.

- The restrictions on car driving had led to a new vogue for the bicycle, but in April the sale of new bicycles was prohibited, and Americans were forced to rely still more upon their feet for locomotion. In the same month the manufacture of radio sets and photographic apparatus was discontinued for the duration of the war. Non-essential building also came under a ban, while regulations to save fabrics in ready-made garments opened an era in which men would have to forgo turn-ups on trousers and women would have to be content with plain skirts.

Not a day passed without some change in the way Americans were accustomed to live. On May 4 they got their first ration books, which were for sugar.

Petrol rationing, as we have seen, came a few days later. Everywhere shortages cropped up and restrictions came into force to modify the American tradition that everybody could do as he pleased. But it seemed that the great assault on their prized individualism was being taken in good part by the vast majority of the people. They realized that all these inconveniences and discomforts were necessary for the waging of a total war, and, since they were more fully employed and better paid than ever before, and the country itself was not under attack, they also were aware that their burden was a light one compared with the peoples of countries actually ravaged by the war.

At the core of practically all America’s problems was the question of manpower — how to assign the greatest possible number as well as the right kind of men and women to various duties of service and war labour: the Selective Service Act of 1940, popularly known as the Draft, had already made military duty obligatory on millions of Americans. The result was that the strength of the Army had grown from 174,000 in July 1939 to over 1,600,000 towards the end of 1941. There, as soon as America was in the war, the Draft was extended to all males between the ages of 18
MORE ACCOMMODATION FOR WAR WORKERS

War activities brought so many people to Washington that, in the American phrase, apartments were often rented from the blueprints—looked up before they were built. This photograph shows new building operations undertaken near the American capital early in 1942 in an attempt to ease the situation.

Photo, "March of Time"

and 65, with liability for military service for all between 20 and 45. The expansion of the armed forces from this point onward was so steady that at the end of the first six months after Pearl Harbour there were 2,500,000 men in the Army, 525,000 in the Navy and 100,000 in the Marines; 10,000,000 workers were employed in war plants and were thus entitled to deferment of military service.

It was not long before the respective needs of the fighting forces, industry and agriculture gave rise to a manpower controversy.

War Dept. Farmers and producers of war materials sought to hold back workers they regarded as essential, and in some quarters there was criticism of the War Department for aiming at an Army on a larger scale than would be needed. But since the military leaders were credited with knowing how many million men would be necessary for the dual war in Europe and the Pacific they were allowed to go ahead with little actual opposition. Naturally industry, business and numerous other peace-time activities began to suffer from growing labour shortages, while the everyday conveniences and comforts which the people looked upon as a matter of course became increasingly scarce. Inevitably women were pressed into service in ever larger numbers. Not only were they now employed in factories and workshops, but they were given opportunities in jobs that had never before been thought of as women's work. America had always been a country where women had more freedom and scope than elsewhere; now they were wearing the trousers to an extent unprecedented anywhere—and literally so as "shacks" came widely into fashion. Congress marked its recognition of the women's part in the war by creating the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps—the "WAACS"—the first of such organizations to release men in uniform from desk jobs for more strenuous kinds of service.

Altogether, therefore, the first six months after Pearl Harbour saw the United States make remarkably good progress toward becoming a nation organized for total war. In part that was due, as has already been said, to the many measures of preparedness that had been adopted and put into operation before the nation became directly involved in the conflict. But that progress would not have been possible except for the combination of the vast natural resources, the extensive and highly developed industrial plant and equipment, the organizing ability and technical skill and abundant and vigorous man power that had already made the United States the greatest single productive unit in the world, and therefore the most formidable for the waging of a long war that depended as no other war ever had on the use of machines.

Yet even all this might not be enough against a resolute and ruthless and efficient enemy if with the machine there were not the right kind of morale among the men who handled them. Of that morale there was no doubt. No war in American history had provoked so little internal opposition, and nowhere was there any disposition to argue that it would suffice to remain on the defensive. The American people were as nearly unanimous as any people could be that only by smashing offensives, first against Germany and then against Japan, could the war be brought to a speedy and victorious conclusion.

On December 7, 1941, the day that the Japanese attacked at Pearl Harbour President Roosevelt won his long struggle for his belief that this was a war that America could not keep out of, and that when it went in it would have to be with everything America had. Behind him on that stand were the overwhelming majority of the American people.
Chapter 216

LATIN AMERICA AND THE WAR: GROUPINGS AND REACTIONS

After Japan struck at the United States in December 1941, the 20 Latin American Republics were brought up sharply against the realities of the great conflict which had divided Europe, and was now to threaten all America. How they acted during 1942, and some of their major problems, are here discussed, with an account of the Pan-American Conferences.

In considering the attitude of the 20 Latin American republics towards the Second World War it is essential to bear in mind certain fundamental characteristics common to them all. Not least of these is the historical fact that there is a Latin American "outlook on life" which is liberal and democratic. This applies to all the peoples, though not to all the present regimes: the "New State" of Brazil, for example, was a quasi-Fascist dictatorship, while the government of Argentina was oligarchical, reactionary and almost feudalistic. The Argentine Government was the only one among the twenty countries to show any pro-Axis leanings. Another characteristic of the Latin American nations is their willingness to get together to settle their disputes and to plan for common aims. The two characteristics mentioned decided in advance what would be the attitude of Latin America in the struggle, and there have been no surprises. Events and clashes of the war have produced the expected reactions. The table in page 2158 indicates attitudes and groupings.

No event served so greatly to canalize attitudes and groupings as the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, December 7, 1941. After it opinion crystallized; a whole hemisphere awoke to threatening danger, and began to act. Before that date, and of considerable importance, was the gradual realization of sinister Nazi intentions in regard to Latin America, as shown by blatant Fifth Column activities and public exposure of local German plotting. U-boat attacks made without warning on unarmored shipping belonging to Latin American countries or off their coasts created widespread indignation. A considerable contribution towards the creation of a pro-Ally public opinion was the defeat of the Luftwaffe by the R.A.F. in 1940, while the courage and character shown by the people of Britian during the period of heavy aerial attacks on cities and ports in 1940-41 evoked the sympathy and admiration of Latin Americans everywhere. Then there had been the Battle of the River Plate (December 13, 1939). No Axis propaganda could counteract the psychological effects produced by these events, in which Pearl Harbour was the climax. While in 1939 the isolation of the Americas made Latin American neutrality tenable, isolation was no longer a reality after the 1940 Axis threat to Brazil from Dakar, and the great initial advantage won by Japan by her foul blow to U.S. naval power. A continent moved into action.

Interrelationships among themselves and the relations of Latin American nations with the U.S.A., as shown by Roosevelt's policy and the trend of Pan-Americanism, facilitated the organization and coordination of war effort. The highly successful policy of the "Good Neighbor" launched by the first Roosevelt administration caused a steady weakening of Latin American hostility towards the U.S.A., which had grown during years of an exploiting "dollar diplomacy." Pan-Americanism may be defined as the tendency of the independent nations of the New World to associate on a basis of common interests for common aims. The Pan-American Conference at Panama in 1939 initiated discussions on hemisphere problems arising out of the threatening world situation, and some solid progress was made. But the results of that Conference must be regarded merely as preliminary when one considers the basic achievements of the next Pan-American Conference, held at Rio de Janeiro, January 15-28, 1942. This was attended by representatives from the whole continent, with ten of its countries (including the U.S.A.) now at war with the Axis, and three with diplomatic relations broken off.

The remainder had either extended non-belligerent rights to American

WHEN V SIGNS MARKED ALL NAZI BUILDINGS IN LA FAZ

Soviet broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy and Japan in January 1944; she declared war on them in April 1944. Long before, however, the people of La Faz (the capital) had shown where their sympathies lay. The above photograph, taken in the late summer of 1944, shows Victory V's painted overnight on the front of an important Nazi building.

Photo issued by the Ministry of Information
nations at war or had reaffirmed solidarity in the face of Axis aggression. The U.S.A. and Mexico had already taken a realistic step by the creation of a Joint Defence Commission. The Rio Conference produced highly concrete results, which may be summarized as follows:

It was agreed that the republics, "in accordance with the procedures established by their own laws and in conformity with the position and circumstances obtaining in each country," would "recommend the breaking off of their diplomatic relations with Japan, Germany and Italy," and that they would not renew such relations without prior consultation.

Solidarity and determination to collaborate for hemisphere defense were reaffirmed.

While Argentina and Brazil opposed the proposal to adhere to the Atlantic Charter, the Conference took cognizance of the Charter and expressed approval that it conformed to the spirit of American heritage.

Argentina refused to agree to the proposal to declare all allies of the U.S.A. non-belligerent.

It was resolved that no American State at war with a non-American State should be treated as other republics as a belligerent, and it was recommended that facilities be granted to those countries which, in the opinion of each government, contribute to the defense of hemisphere interests.

Relations should be continued with governments in exile of Axis-occupied territories fighting for sovereignty.

Resolutions passed embraced a variety of measures for cooperation and coordination of all relevant activities, from Fifth Column to aviation facilities for American citizens and nations to the exclusion of those of the Axis, and the creation in Washington of an Inter-American Military, Naval and Technical Commission.

Other resolutions dealt with economic, commercial and financial measures for collaboration, including the elimination of barriers against the free flow of strategic minerals and war materials. Agreement was reached on a Joint War Production Plan, and for intensification of the work of the Inter-American Development Commission.

Finally, that collective security should be founded on "just, effective and liberal economic systems," and that a new order of peace must be supported by economic principles to ensure equitable and lasting international trade with equal opportunities for all nations. To this end an Inter-American Technical Economic Conference charged with war and post-war problems should be created.

Altogether some 40 resolutions, recommendations and declarations were approved by all America at this most important Conference. After which must be regarded as a landmark in American history.

The 100 per cent success hoped for was not reached, chiefly because Argentina had forced a weakening of the original resolution in favour of all-round severance of relations with the Axis. Yet the progress made was solid; the Conference provided the essential blueprint for continental effort and
CHRYSLERS BUILD M-3 TANKS INSTEAD OF MOTOR CARS

When the great automobile industry of America settled down to the building of armored fighting vehicles and transport liners, its output was enormous. In normal times it had turned out between three and four million passenger vehicles per annum, and now it had to tackle President Roosevelt’s programme for 45,000 tanks, with hosts of other military vehicles, during the year. Above, General Grant tanks, M-3s, in the Chrysler works at Detroit.
OPENING OF THE PAN-AMERICAN CONFERENCE IN THE

President Getúlio Vargas of Brazil, made the opening address to the delegates, the Foreign Ministers of 21 American Republics: United States, Argentina, Paraguay, Guatemala, Ecuador, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panamá, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, Venezuela, Mexico, and Panama. Mr. Secretary Welles, American Under-Secretary of State, was leader of the United States delegation. Twice previously the

TIRADENTES PALACE AT RIO DE JANEIRO, JANUARY 13, 1942

Conference had met—in 1938 at Lima, and in July 1940, at Buenos Aires. On the present occasion, Secretary Welles, in the words of Mr. Secretary Welles, was to take counsel as to the future of our Governments should take under the shadow of this new threat to our continued existence as free peoples. See related statement on page 214. He talked for many a common policy of defense and immediate action against Axis agents.

Photo: Rupert Nor product
NEW YORK WELCOMES BRITISH AND AMERICAN WAR HEROES

The tumultuous greeting to war heroes on June 8, 1945, as they rode up Broadway to a civic welcome by the Mayor.

Mr. La Guardia. Among the guests of honor were: Sqr.-Ldr. J. D. Stretton, V.C.; Wing-Cdr. M. Lennox, D.F.C.;


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collaboration in the war, and may be considered the keystone of all-American collaboration.

Notwithstanding this considerable achievement, all was not plain sailing, and the Latin American nations were, in fact, tormented by difficulties and anxieties. First, the world shipping problem had rapidly become so acute after the outbreak of war that those countries had to face the prospect of severe economic crisis; and this had not diminished by the end of 1942. Every republic had to face in varying degree the Axis Fifth Column activities, which in some constituted a real menace. One million Germans in Brazil, 250,000 in Argentina, 50,000 in Chile, and thousands in the other countries—mostly Nazi-faced Germans, organized for sabotage, subversion, and even military action—this was an internal tank of perilous proportions. It caused a veritable nightmare for the safety of the Panama Canal, of north-east and southern Brazil, Uruguay and the Magellanic territories of Argentina and Chile—all vulnerable areas. Vast Italian populations added to the danger: two millions in Argentina, as many in Brazil, 65,000 in Uruguay, 23,000 in Chile, and 30,000 in the other countries.

While many of their institutions were under strict Fascist control and collaborated with the Germans, it was estimated that two-thirds of the Italians in Latin America were anti-Fascist and democratic. Their strongest link with Italy was the clergy, who did not subscribe to democratic doctrines and collaborated politically with Spanish clergy who were mostly Falangist in sympathy. In August 1942 at Montevideo, a "Pan-American" Conference was held representing eleven million mixed Italians. It declared absolute solidarity with the United Nations and approved the Atlantic Charter. President Roosevelt's master-stroke of political warfare in declaring that Italians in the U.S.A. were not to be treated as enemy aliens evoked joyous repercussions among the Italians of Latin America, and provided a powerful counter-force against the Nazi-Fascist-Falangist Fifth Column.

In quite another category were the Japanese, since events showed that every Japanese resident abroad was a probable agent of the Tokyo government. There were over 200,000 Japanese in Brazil, 22,000 in Peru, 6,000 in Mexico, 7,000 in Argentina, and 7,000 scattered throughout Central America. Everywhere they became a cause of apprehension—in São Paulo the police placed the Japanese menace above all.

FEELINGS RAN HIGH IN NEUTRAL ARGENTINA

There were two million Italians and 250,000 Germans in Argentina, together with 7,000 Japanese, which perhaps accounted for that country's acute attitude towards the Conference proposals at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942. Top, in front, seated, Mr. Summer Welles (right), with Dr. Enrique Ruiz Guiraldi (Argentina Foreign Minister) at a Conference function. Lower photograph: a brawl at Buenos Aires between medical students and pro-Fascist nationalists.

Strong Anti-Axis Groups

German and Italian, and introduced drastic measures to deal with it. In addition to German, Italian and Japanese sources of anxiety, there was everywhere in Latin America the Spanish "Falange Exterior," that branch of the Spanish Fascist Party which functions abroad, proclaims the subtle doctrines of "Hispanidad" (Spanishness), and, because of linguistic, cultural and spiritual affinities with the peoples, was a magnificent cloak for the dissemination of totalitarian philosophy, for espionage, and pro-Axis activities generally. The Nazi Ibero-American Institute in Berlin under General von Faepke, with branches in Barcelona and Madrid and agents in Bolivia's "Foreign Organization," in every Latin American country, provided direction for the Spanish Falangists everywhere.

There was a genuine desire in all the Hispanic countries for friendship with a clearly neutral Spain, which must always be to them the motherland and not just a regime. With this went two anxieties: first, for the pro-Axis activities of Falangists, and second, lest Nationalist Spain should be drawn into the war on Hitler's side. General Franco's publicly proclaimed (December
8, 1942) wish for a Hitler victory shocked millions of Hispanic-Americans. The unequivocally pro-Axis declarations of responsible Spanish Ministers since 1939, and in 1942 the realization that Nationalist Spain was putting herself on a war footing, created profound suspicion and the growth of political estrangement throughout Latin America. In Mexico, the government decided in 1942 to treat Spanish republican refugees as allies, and all supporters of General Franco as enemies. Elsewhere, a distinction was drawn between the two categories into which Spaniards—millions of them in Latin America—had divided themselves. The government of General Franco felt compelled to intensify propaganda to allay suspicions; and Falangists began to observe caution.

Such were the main outlines of the political picture of Latin America at the end of 1942. Argentina maintained neutrality and some aloofness, an official aloofness not representative of public feeling. The ruling oligarchy inclined to the view that the landed, industrial and financial interests it represented could not lose and might even gain by an Axis victory, but that the most certain gains would follow neutrality. Foreign Minister Ruiz Gutierrez, authoritarian in sympathy, held rigidly to neutrality. The disclosures in 1940–41 by Argentine Deputy Taborda of local Axis conspiracies, the publication in 1941 of Roosevelt’s map of Ger-

**WHEN MEXICO MADE UP HER MIND**

On May 22, 1942, Mexico declared war upon Germany, Italy and Japan. Top, left President, Manuel Avila Camacho, promises unlimited cooperation with the United Nations. Right, poster calling on the people to remember May 13, when the Argentine tanker “Potecho, del Llano” had been sunk by a U-boat; below, demonstration in the Plaza de la Constitucion, Mexico City, after another such outrage.

war intentions in Latin America, Sumner Welles’s warnings in October 1942 and the sinking of Argentine shipping by U-boats did not shake the immovable attitude of the Argentine government.

From the beginning, Mexico’s attitude was never in doubt; for Mexico was politically the most progressive Latin American democracy. By May 1942 Germany claimed to have sunk over 150,000 tons of “enemy” shipping in the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean and to the east of the Antilles. This claim indicated the nature of the war to be waged on Mexico’s Atlantic doorstep and the problems to be faced. The government indicated its willingness to do anything within its power to help the United Nations. Mexico declared war upon Germany, Italy and Japan on May 22, 1942. Unrestricted submarine warfare had struck at the hemisphere’s lifelines at every converging point. Mexican bases for America’s naval units and aircraft, plus facilities provided by the defense bloc formed by Caribbean republics at war, all
helped to counter the U-boat menace. The menace to her long and vulnerable coastline from Japanese naval power in the Pacific caused Chile to maintain neutrality, though the people were whole-heartedly pro-Allied. She broke off diplomatic relations with the three Axis Powers on January 26, 1943, and next day President Rios stated that "The road chosen by Chile will lead to sacrifices which we shall face with the conviction that they are the price to pay for the defence of democracy and the dignity and future of our country."

Brazil, closest economically of all the Nations. On April 18, 1942, the oil installations on the Dutch island of Curaçao were shelled by a U-boat (see illus., p. 2123). Here and at Aruba were immense refineries. Cuba, Haiti and Santo Domingo moved in accordance with the wishes of Washington; Panama virtually became United States territory.

The sinkings on the Atlantic seaboard and in the Caribbean accelerated the creation of machinery for collaboration in hemisphere defense and for active assistance to the United Nations. The Washington Pact (January 1, 1942), the Caribbean Commission (March 9, 1942) and the Inter-American Defence Board (March 30, 1942) were its most important instruments. The first Inter-American Conference on Social Security was held in Santiago in September.

One other factor had profound influence throughout Latin America: the German aggression against the U.S.S.R. and the heroic fight of the Russians. Hitherto the Latin American attitude in regard to the Soviets was a mixture of suspicion, hostility and indifference. Now it changed to admiration and friendliness, and finally to desire for the resumption of diplomatic relations, and Mexico, in fact, decided to resume relations. The Anglo-Russian Alliance gave impetus to this change of opinion.

All the factors enumerated above contributed towards focusing, from the United Nations' point of view, on one vast objective towards which the Latin American countries could make their

BRAZIL DECLARES WAR UPON GERMANY AND ITALY

Brazil had a million Germans, twice as many Italians, and 200,000 Japanese within her borders. On August 22, 1942, she declared war on Germany and Italy and broke off relations with Japan. Below, a patriotic demonstration in front of the U.S. Embassy, Rio de Janeiro: left, a German bookshop wrecked some months earlier. Above, Brazil's President, Dr. Getulio Vargas.
AXIS DIPLOMATS LEAVE BRAZIL AND PARAGUAY

Here is the scene on the quay as the Axis representatives prepared to leave Brazil after the rupture of diplomatic relations by Brazil (January 28, 1942) and Paraguay (January 30). Baggage is being got ready for the steamer which took them to Lisbon. Brazil declared war upon Germany and Italy on August 22.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

The greatest contribution: economic collaboration. For this no complete statistics are available. Of Latin America, Hitler said: "We shall find all we want there." There is hardly a war material or a strategic mineral which one or other of several of the 20 republics cannot provide. The vital importance of Latin America to the United States war effort cannot be gauged: by December 1941 the U.S.A. was obtaining from the southern republics 34 per cent of her copper, 20 per cent of tungsten, 25 per cent of zinc, 20 per cent of lead, and per cent of antimony and important percentages of other strategic minerals. Britain also drew heavily for war materials and for meat and grain.

The list of Latin American products essential for war would almost fill a column. Rubber, cotton, wool, copper, manganese, iron, graphite, monazite, platinum, petroleum, cobalt, zinc, molybdenum, sulphur, asbestos, antimony, tin, bismuth, barium, cinnabar, emery, kaolin, mica, molybdenite, saltpetre, silver, lead, soapstone, talc, wolfram, tungsten, rock crystal, diamonds the list is formidable.

In view of Allied losses of rich territory to Japan one may well ask where the United Nations would stand without the vast potential of Latin American resources. The continent of 20 republics, stretching from the U.S.A. to Cape Horn, occupies a vital strategic position for the United Nations, and is now playing a part even more important than it did in the war of 1914-18. Here is an immense storehouse capable of providing all the minerals of war, one which received the fullest and most detailed attention of Nazi Germany, and was marked down for eventual aggression and enslavement.

It was that "outlook on life" of the Latin Americans which proved to be the decisive factor in bringing them over to the side of the United Nations. It was their willingness to collaborate for common ends which made their collaboration so useful. It was their economic and industrial wealth which rendered them invaluable.

LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS AND THE SECOND GREAT WAR

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* Brazil broke off diplomatic relations with Japan on May 4, 1945, but by the end of 1945 had not declared war against that country.
* Bolivia declared war on April 20, 1943.
* Chile broke off relations with Germany, Italy and Japan on January 20, 1943.

END TO FALANGIST INTRIGUES AT HAVANA

Backed by Nazi funds, local Falangists (pro-Fashist) in Cuba carried out subversive work under the guise of social activities. The photograph shows a Falangist restaurant in Havana which the authorities closed down early in 1941. Cuba declared war upon the Axis a few days after Japan entered the war.

2158
AGREEMENT IMPLEMENTING LEASE-LEND PROGRAMME

The American Lease-Lend Act became law on March 11, 1941. There were somewhat protracted negotiations between the British and United States Governments before, on February 23, 1943, their representatives signed the far-reaching Agreement the text of which is here printed. It provided for reciprocation, so that when American troops went overseas to Britain or the Dominions aid was afforded to them through the machinery of 'Lease-Lend in reverse.'

WHEREAS the Governments of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America declare that they are engaged in a common undertaking, together with every other nation or people of like mind, to the end of laying the bases of a just and enduring world peace secure and order under law to themselves and all nations:

And whereas the President of the United States of America has determined, pursuant to the Act of Congress of the 11th March, 1941, that the defence of the United Kingdom against aggression is vital to the defence of the United States of America:

And whereas the United States of America has extended and is continuing to extend to the United Kingdom aid in resisting aggression:

And whereas it is expedient that the final determination of the terms and conditions upon which the Government of the United Kingdom receives such aid and of the benefits to be received by the United States of America in return therefor, should be deferred until the extent of the aid required is known and until the progress of events makes clearer the final terms and conditions and benefits which will be in the mutual interests of the United States of America and the United Kingdom, and which promote the establishment and maintenance of world peace:

And whereas the Governments of the United States of America and the United Kingdom are mutually desirous of concluding a preliminary agreement in regard to the character of the defence and other aid and in regard to certain considerations which shall be taken into account in determining such terms and conditions, and the making of such an agreement has been in all respects duly authorised, and all such terms and conditions and formalities which it may be necessary to perform shall be executed prior to the making of such an agreement in conformity with the laws either of the United States of America or of the United Kingdom have been performed, fulfilled or executed as required.

The undersigned, being duly authorized by their respective Governments for that purpose, have agreed as follows:

Article 1. The Government of the United States of America will continue to supply the Government of the United Kingdom with such defence articles, defence services, and defence information as the President shall authorize to be supplied.

Article 2. The Government of the United Kingdom will continue to contribute to the defence of the United States of America and the strengthening thereof, and will provide such articles, services, facilities or information as it may be in a position to supply.

Article 3. The Government of the United Kingdom will not, without the consent of the President of the United States of America, transfer title to, or possession of, any defence article or defence information transferred to it under the Act, or permit the use thereof by anyone not an officer, employee or agent of the Government of the United Kingdom.

Article 4. If, as the result of the transfer to the Government of the United Kingdom of any defence article or defence information, it becomes necessary for that Government to take any action or make any payment in order fully to protect any of the rights of a citizen of the United States of America who has patent rights in and to any such defence article or information, the Government of the United Kingdom will take such action or make such payment when requested to do so by the President of the United States of America.

Article 5. The Government of the United Kingdom will return to the United States of America at the end of the present emergency, as determined by the President, such defence articles transferred under this Agreement as shall not have been destroyed, lost or consumed, and as shall be determined by the President to be useful in the defence of the United States of America or of the Western Hemisphere or to be of use to one of the United States of America.

Article 6. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the United Kingdom, full recognition shall be taken of all property, services, information, facilities or other benefits or considerations provided by the Government of the United Kingdom subsequent to the 11th March, 1941, and accepted or acknowledged by the President on behalf of the United States of America.

Article 7. In the final determination of the benefits to be provided to the United States of America by the Government of the United Kingdom, the terms and conditions thereof shall be such as not to forestall commerce between the two countries, but to promote mutually advantageous economic relations between them and the betterment of world-wide economic relations. To that end, they shall include provision for agreed action by the United States of America and the United Kingdom, open to participation by all other countries of like mind, directed to the expansion, by appropriate international and domestic measures, of production, employment, and the exchange and consumption of goods, which are the material foundations of the liberty and welfare of all peoples; to the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and to the protection of industries and other trade barriers; and, in general, to the attainment of all the economic objectives set forth in the Joint Declaration made on the 12th August, 1941, by the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

At an early convenient date conversations shall be begun between the two Governments with a view to determining, in the light of governing economic conditions, the best means of attaining the above-stated objectives by their own agreed actions and of seeking the agreed actions of other like-minded Governments.

Article 8. This Agreement shall take effect as from this day's date. It shall continue in force until a date to be agreed upon by the two Governments.

Signed and sealed at Washington in duplicate this 23rd day of February, 1942.

On behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland:

(Signed) HALIFAX.

His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at Washington.

On behalf of the Government of the United States of America:

(Signed) SUMNER WELLES.

Acting Secretary of State of the United States Government.
CAMOUFLAGE: TRIBUTE TO THE R.A.F.

In and around Berlin camouflage against air attack was carried to extremes. By a lavish use of netting an attempt was made to disguise big building blocks so that roads appeared to run across them (1). The pavement of the great east-west traffic artery (2) was hidden by netting on poles, from which the tops of spruce 'trees' protruded; the Victory Column in Großer Stern, a square on this same thoroughfare, was painted grey and its base concealed by a timber structure (3). On the lake in the Lietzensee park the Germans erected a suburban landscape, with grassy lawns and red rooftops supported on posts (4).

Photo: Illustrated Press
TWELVE MONTHS WHICH MARKED THE TURNING OF THE TIDE IN GERMANY

A review of events on the German Home Front during the 12 months which followed the invasion of Russia. This period saw the first substantial setback to Hitler's armies and the failure of the tactical and strategical methods which had gained him lightning success in Western Europe a year earlier. Inside Germany it was a period of questioning and disillusionment.

The vast conquests by Hitler's armies up to the invasion of Russia had been achieved with about a quarter of a million German casualties. Germany would have been well pleased to call a halt and consolidate her gains, and millions of Hitler's people failed to understand why it was necessary to begin a war with Russia, the ally of two years' standing. But when this new venture seemed to be going well, the feelings of surprise, bewilderment, and anxiety gave place to satisfaction at the success of yet another of the Fuhrer's master-strokes. From the coveted granary of the Ukraine would come corn to swell the diminishing supplies of the Reich; oil of the Caucasus would soon be available in plenty; above all, the Bolshevik bogey would be laid for good and all.

The many who had been perturbed by the Nazi-Soviet Pact of August 1939 became more easy in mind as that episode was put into its proper perspective as a clever piece of typical Hitlerian strategy. Now they knew where they stood. After the Russian armies had been dealt a few knock-out blows the German forces would advance to Leningrad and Moscow and there dictate a peace which would bring all Europe under German control. The Bolshevik regime would collapse, to be replaced by a collabora-tionist government ready to work with Hitler. The entire business would be settled before the end of the year. It was an alluring prospect.

Hitler's armies drove back the Russians, and at the end of three weeks had reached the Stalin Line marking roughly the partitioning of Poland. Germany was told: "The main strength of the Soviet armies is now broken." By early August Smolensk had fallen. Then the Russian armies began gradually to bring the invaders to a halt. Neither Leningrad nor Moscow fell, and the Stalin government was as firm as a rock. Scorched-earth tactics denied food and shelter to the invaders; somewhat plaintively a German newspaper of the time complained that:

"we have to reckon with the Russians' policy of destroying everything as to deprive their enemies of every possibility of housing and feeding themselves... Unlike what happened in France (1940) it is no longer the foreign country but Germany herself which is our true line of supply."

This was a different sort of campaign. Instead of sending home silk and furs and luxury foodstuffs the German soldiers were soon to be clamouring for warm garments to keep out the intense cold. From the Ukraine only half a million tons of corn were obtained to supplement the meagre supplies of Germany, where bread shortage had caused the consumption of potatoes to jump from 13 to 23 million tons. Tractors and lorries and farm machinery had to be sent from the Reich to the Ukraine, with the men to work them.

Casualties were on a very different scale. Soon the German newspapers began to have pages filled with the traditional 'In Memoriam' notices; on this page is a photograph of some from the Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, Berlin; Hamburger Nachrichten, and the Voelkischer Beobachter, Berlin. (Alarmed by the multitude of death notices the authorities tried to control their publication, and prescribed a brief uniform style. But soon people reverted to the more personal form.) The Voelkischer Beobachter later restricted the number of notices to 20 per day. By the middle of 1942, after a year's campaigning in Russia, the German casualties must have totalled at least 1 million, of which a million had been sustained on the Eastern front.

FRACTION OF THE PRICE PAID IN RUSSIA

Most of the memorial notices in these cuttings from newspapers published in Berlin, Hamburg, and Cologne during the period July 12-14, 1941, refer to German officers killed on the Russian front. There were so many that newspapers had to ration them, and Goebbels ordered a brief, formal notice to be used in future.

Photo, A.P.D.
FIRST DELIVERY FROM THE COVETED UKRAINE "GRANARY"

Hitler and other Germans had long coveted the beautiful produce from the fertile black-earth region of the Ukraine, and one of the first acts of the Nazi garrison after German forces entered the country was to dispatch a trainload of butter, poultry, eggs and other food supplies, even here on arrival in Berlin. As the text explains, the invaders were foiled by the Russian scorched-earth tactics, and obtained little more, while they had to send German labor and machinery to cultivate even that.

Photo, Keystone

labour for agriculture and industry, and this deficit was not fully made up by the war prisoners of various nationalities set to work in the Reich. Three months after the Russian invasion had begun there were over two million foreigners working in Germany, with probably three-quarters of a million prisoners of war. By the spring of 1942 half the agricultural labour was alien, while over the entire field of industry one in four employed was a foreigner.

In his speech in the Berlin Sportpalast on October 3, 1941, Hitler said that Russian prisoners then numbered 24 million, while he claimed that more than 14,000 Soviet aircraft had been destroyed or shot down, 22,000 guns and 18,000 tanks had been destroyed. Many German listeners appraised these statements by the claim for aircraft, which was so palpably an exaggeration that little credence was given to the rest. Hitler boasted that "this opponent is already broken and will never rise again." His most important utterance was that about a new offensive which was to finish off Russia before the end of the year.

"Fifty hours in progress which will help to defeat the enemy in the East, I am speaking on behalf of those millions who are at present fighting."

This operation, of course, was the drive against Moscow. Dictated as much as anything by domestic politics and the urgent need to still the mutterings on the German home front, it made swift progress at first but was frustrated by the clever strategy of Zhukov, and in early December Hitler called off the offensive.

The stubborn optimism in official quarters is shown by the strange affair of Dr. Dietrich and the conference of foreign press representatives. Dietrich, who was head of the German official news agency, called the correspondents together for important news—this was on October 9—and told them that 60 to 70 Russian divisions were encircled in pockets, and that Russia was finished, to all intents and purposes, as a fighting power; he wagered his reputation on the accuracy of this statement. A report of the German High Command stated that Timoshenko had "sacrificed the best thoroughly trained and equipped Russian army capable of giving battle on the whole Russian front."

It was small wonder that Germans began to distrust the official announcements blazed out by loudspeakers erected in the main streets, and listened in secret to foreign broadcasts. Goebbels, in his newspaper "Das Reich," castigated these "untouchables," as he called them:

"Two death sentences and recent terms of penal sentences prove that some people cannot refrain in the evening, behind closed doors, from secretly tuning on to the London broadcasts in order to enrich their political and military knowledge with British misrepresentation."
and further weaken morale. Concentrated raids on industrial targets were another matter. On July 6-8 1941 there was the devastating three-night attack on Münster, when possibly a quarter of the city was wrecked.

A feature of the German defenses was the concrete and steel tower, a hundred feet high, to accommodate an A.A. battery with its locating and searchlights. The lower part of the structure was designed as a shelter. Such towers were erected at key-points, and other batteries were placed on the tops of specially strengthened existing buildings. Camouflage was carried to enormous lengths, when entire streets would be roofed over with green netting, and lakes and railway stations, for example, would be disguised in similar manner with netting and canvas. At the beginning this may have misled our bombers, but the ruse was soon penetrated.

A cross-section of German morale during the first six months of the Russian venture is given by an analysis of letters to German soldiers on the Eastern Front, made by the Soviet authorities. Some 16,000 letters were examined, all found either on the battlefield or on captured Germans. Letters written from June to August 1941 displayed resentment at the war in 19.5 per cent, increased in November and December to 75 per cent, and in January 1942 to 77 per cent. Three-quarters of the letters sent from Germany to the Eastern Front expressed dejection, discontent, complaints, and indignation against the war. In the period September-October, 1941, 81 per cent of letters contained complaints connected with losses, 61 per cent complaints about the protractedness of the war; 60 per cent about the air raids on German cities; and 19 per cent about food difficulties. (Soviet War News, April 9, 1942.) It confirms this analysis when we note that Goebbels admonished housewives not to write complaining letters to their menfolk at the front.

Although food rations were meager there was no direct shortage; the lack of fats pressed most hardly upon all. Meat was cut to three ounces per person per week in August; butter was reduced to two ounces in September, and skimmed milk was substituted for some of the fat ration. Peasants were forbidden to sell their produce otherwise than through authorized channels, but speculators greedily bought up what they could persuade the farmers to sell. In this connexion two peasants were prosecuted for a strange attempt to hoodwink the local police. With a girl in a bridal dress between them on the seat they stopped their lorry outside an inn and went inside for refreshment. To an inquiry why the girl would not join them they said that she was going to the neighbouring town to be married by proxy to a soldier in Russia, and felt a little “blue.” They stayed drinking so long that a curious policeman strolled up and spoke to the bride-to-be. When she made no reply he investigated—and found beneath the wedding garments was a slaughtered hog which the peasants were taking to sell clandestinely in the town not far away.

In June 1941 the meat ration stood as follows, per week per person:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Night</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Very heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400 grams</td>
<td>500 grams</td>
<td>600 grams</td>
<td>1,000 grams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After a reduction in April 1942 the allowance became:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Night</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Very heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300 grams</td>
<td>400 grams</td>
<td>500 grams</td>
<td>900 grams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In October 1942 there was an increase, and Goebbels made much of it, coinning the slogan “The War Works For Us.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordinary</th>
<th>Night</th>
<th>Heavy</th>
<th>Very heavy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300 grams</td>
<td>400 grams</td>
<td>500 grams</td>
<td>900 grams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But, as will be observed, the weekly ration still stood below that of June 1941. Moreover, the official rations could not always be obtained at the shops.

In August-September, 1941, there was a significant limitation of "Brownshirt" activities. The S.A. (Sturm-Abteilung, i.e. storm-troopers) had been Hitler's striking force during the climb to power, and had been rewarded with honours and high places since that victory of 1933. It had suffered in the purge of 1934, and had seen the swift
BOMB DAMAGE IN BERLIN, DECEMBER 1941

After concealing and minimizing the effects of R.A.F. and Russians raids for a long while the Germans changed their policy and began to 'play-up' bomb-damage in their propaganda—when it had greatly increased in degree and could no longer be hidden from the people. Left, in Tausenstreetstrasse after the R.A.F. raid of December 20-21, 1941; centre, repair work on the Prussian State Library building, Unter den Linden; right, in Mecklenstrasse.

Photos, Pictorial Press

growth of a rival party army, the S.S. (Schatz-staffel, i.e. protective squadron). But, under Viktor Lutze, it went on giving para-military training to hundreds of thousands, and from the beginning of the Second Great War it had constituted a leaven of sound party men in each company of troops at the various fronts. In August 1941 (this is given on the authority of Howard K. Smith, Berlin correspondent of United Press*) the official journal of the S.A., the S.A. Mann, was discontinued and a ban was placed on district S.A. meetings. The familiar brown uniforms were henceforth to be worn only on specific orders.

Concurrently there was an enlargement of the S.S.—in numbers, in duties, and in authority. Its supreme commander, Heinrich Himmler, was also chief of the Gestapo (Geheime Staatsspolizei, i.e. secret State police). The Waffen-S.S. (armed or military S.S.) was thrown into the struggle on the Eastern front, in time of emergency, though its nominal duties were policing the region of combat and dealing with guerrillas and underground enemies. This organization was built up into a separate army numbering probably half a million, with divisions in the occupied countries and others in Germany itself. These were in addition to the ordinary S.S., occupied with police work such as the rounding up of Jews, supervision of factories and other industrial concerns, and various duties connected with civilian Germany. Hitler soon withdrew his Waffen-S.S. divisions from the Russian front, where it seemed they had been thrown in only when they seemed likely that a swift decision might have been possible. Probably the main object of this force was to serve as a bulwark between the leading Nazis and any possible uprising. With its separate training establishments and its unorthodox methods of recruiting, the Waffen-S.S. stood apart from the Reichswehr, with a direct individual allegiance to Hitler. It could be employed, if need should arise, as his personal army against the Reichswehr generals and their following.

On November 8, 1941, Hitler made his customary cnation to the Old Guard of the Munich Putsch of 1923. He was still making fantastic claims of success in the Russian campaign, and still apparently confident that his glowing prophecies would be fulfilled. Boldly he declared: "Never before has a gigantic empire been smashed in a shorter period than has Soviet Russia this time." After stating that the Germans had taken 3,600,000 prisoners he went on to calculate that on this basis there must have been a total loss of at least 8 to 10 million Soviet soldiers. "No army can ever recover from such losses, not even the Russians." Russian territory occupied, Hitler went on to claim, represented an area about five times as large as England, comprising about 60 to 75 per cent of all industries and raw materials in Russia. About Leningrad Hitler made an admission and a boast.

"We are now on the defensive, and the other side must attempt to break through. I shall certainly not sacrifice one more man than is absolutely necessary. The city is enclosed and no one will ever free it. It will fall into our hands."

A fortnight later Rostov was recaptured, and the Russian counter-offensive became general along the entire front early in December. But official propaganda was still in the strain of cheerful confidence. The fact was, of course, that the blitzkrieg had failed and that instead there had to be waged a long war in which infantry would now have to take the shock and do the hardest work. Official spokesmen began to lift the veil a few weeks later, when it must have become obvious that the truth could no longer be concealed from the people at home. A winter campaign with all its horrors and hardships—its fear and worries for the womenfolk—was unavoidable.

Writing in the Voelkischer Beobachter in mid-December, an official historian admitted that the German High Command had underestimated the strength and efficiency of the enemy; that they had belatedly come to realize that, man for man, the Russian soldier was at least the equal of the German. Then official propaganda changed to a stressing of the discomforts, even miseries, of the men at the front as the temperature fell to 25 degrees below freezing point. On December 11 Hitler addressed the Reichstag. He announced the Axis declaration of war against the United States, and said that Germany had signed an agreement with Italy and Japan not to conclude an armistice or
peace with the United States or Great Britain except in complete mutual agreement. He made the usual fantastic statement about Russian casualties and losses, and put those for Germany at: 152,534 dead; 577,765 wounded; and 33,344 missing. "On the Eastern front it was only the outbreak of winter that could check the German operations, but with the coming of summer there would be no further check." The German soldiers had fought in the winter storms of November and December, freezing in snow and ice. Most of his speech was given up to abuse of President Roosevelt.

The German radio hinted at coming movements to the west, when the Russian front had been stabilized. The Westdeutsche Beobachter spoke of the complete change in the world picture.

"After June 22 we turned again towards the east. Today, six months afterwards, we know that nothing was as we had expected it to be."

On December 12 Das Reich (Goebbels's organ) said:

"Our German unity is only of recent date. We are still bearing the scars from the divisions of the old-party politics. Carefully and jealously we have to watch that they do not reopen even in a single place."

The plain warning given by Hitler in his speech had pointed to considerable apprehension on the Home front:

"At a time when thousands of our best men are dying, nobody must expect to live who tries to depreciate the sacrifices made at the front. No matter under what camouflage he tries to distort this German front or to undermine the resistance of our people, to weaken the authority of the regime, or to sabotage the achievements on the Home front, he shall die for it."

In a Berlin communique of December 17 there came the news that shortenings of the front were being undertaken according to plan for the transition from offensive operations to positional warfare in winter. On December 19 Hitler dismissed Field-Marshal von Rundstedt and himself took over the command of the German army. The official proclamation declared that reasons of State demanded that all powers should be concentrated in one hand.

"The realization of an inward call and his own will be taken upon himself responsibility weighed with the statesman Adolf Hitler when he resolved to be his own Grosswissenschaftler. The announcement went on to emphasize the factors which had "induced the Fuehrer to follow his intuitions and to influence in the strongest possible manner the operations and equipment of the divisions in this sphere."

Hitler made a long appeal to the German army at the same time.

Goebbels next day (20th) broadcast an appeal for gifts of warm clothing for soldiers at the front, and read a message from Hitler. Door-to-door collections of clothing would be made from December 27 to January 4—felt-lined boots, jack boots, socks, stockings, underclothing, pullovers, scarves, gloves, blankets and ground sheets. "These at home," said Goebbels, "will not deserve a single peaceful hour if even one soldier were to be exposed to the rigours of winter without adequate equipment."

On the night of December 30-31 there was a British raid which undermined the growing power of the R.A.F.

A vivid description was given by Joseph W. Grigg, Jr., of the United Press staff:

"There were two separate alarms, and planes flew over the city at intervals for the greater part of the night. The flak barrage, which had been strengthened since its early stages, kept up a non-stop crescendo which rocked the office where I happened to have night duty. The all-clear sounded at 2 a.m. but at the weary, under-mined Berliners crawled grumbling from their shelters, a British plane turned about, flew back, and dropped a couple more bombs. A great cloud of smoke followed over the downtown district from a fire in a big department store in the Alexanderplatz, s. a store's throw from the Secret Police headquaters. Two bombs, aimed possibility at the near-by Zoo station, landed plumb in the middle of the broad Tannenbaumstrasse. In the West End, blew out doors windows right and left and smashed through the walls of the subway tracks beneath. Factories started work hours late that morning, papers were not delivered, there was no bread in the bakeries, the whole life of the capital was in chaos until early noon."

On Christmas Eve Goebbels broadcast in gloomy strain, telling the Home front to become worthy of the soldiers at the front. Ribbentrop painted the horrors and misfortunes which would ensue if the people did not support the soldiers in their fight. Not only the Nazi regime but the entire people were involved.

It was Germany's hardest Christmas. The Frankfurter Zeitung, after saying

**COUNTING HIS GAINS**

In a speech at the Berlin Sportpalast on October 3, 1941, Hitler made extravagant claims of successes, and said that Russia was already broken and would never rise again. Below, left, a German sentry on the Russian front wears a woman's fur coat.

All sorts of strange apparel were used to supplement inadequate official issues.

*Photo, Associated Press*

this, pointed out that the tasks that the German people had to face were never greater and graver. The Hamburger Fremdenblatt said:

"There had never been anything harder than the fight of the infantry before Moscow. In their worn-out overcoats, with green hoods on their heads full of frozen breath, steel helmets covered with old shirts, they look more like old peasant women."

This calculated gloominess had a purpose. Nazi propaganda could not ignore

*"This is the Scourge," Frederick Osborn and others. Wns. Homeznan, Ltd., London.*
the prevailing depression and discontent on the Home front, and the next best thing was to sublimate this mood and direct the mauvais sentiment of which German character is so largely compounded into a harmless, and perhaps useful, channel. By dwelling on the hardships of the manfolk in Russia attention might be diverted from the grotesque mismanagement by Hitler and the High Command which had brought about the catastrophe that threatened on the Eastern front. However, grumbles such as these in the following extract from Das Reich show that a substantial number of people were not towing the line:

"But certain people, especially those who are little affected by the war, have grown accustomed to take their small, often negligible, daily troubles much too seriously. When, at Christmas, rail-waysmen have to carry potatoes, coal and vegetables for the Home front, and armed with boxes, wood and supplies to the battle front, and have therefore no time to convey pleasure-weeks to Oberhof or Garmisch, the grievances become the subject of hours of excited discussion. They seem to regard the soldier as one whose happiness it is to win the conflict for him. Some people complain when the air-raid defenses are switched off because of air-raid dangers, as if they really could not be expected to take the trouble to find some other German broadcasting station."

Bearing in mind the drilling and training and regimentation the Germans had been subject to during the pre-war and war years under Nazi rule, it is remarkable that there were so many grumblers that Goebbels had to take them to task in this way.

So the New Year opened with the Eastern armies involved in a bitter conflict in which for the first time they had to yield ground to the enemy. Emotions like "shortening of the front," and "positional warfare" did not delude the Home front. The bubble of German invincibility had been pricked; the advantage gained by a treacherous onslaught and the long years of arming had been evoked out. It was now indeed a fight for existence against the ever-growing might of the Allies. The war might go on for years more. Already there was official talk of a coming spring offensive. The thoughts of the older people went back to the grim years of 1917 and 1918—towards the defeat and the lean decade that followed.

Various changes were made in the army commands. Von Bock had been retired in December at about the time of Von Brauchitsch's dismissal. On January 17 came a brief announcement of the death of Field-Marshal Walther von Reichenau, Commander-in-Chief of the army group before Moscow. He had had a stroke, said the terse official statement, and died on his way back to Germany. Reichenau was in his early fifties, an athletic and robust man who had distinguished himself in the Polish campaign, where he saw the Vistula at the head of his men, and in the drive through the Low Countries and France. After the collapse of France he had been promoted Field-Marshal. At the close of the 1914-18 war he had been a Major. Von Bock was brought back to succeed Reichenau. Other leaders, including Von Rundstedt and Guderian, had dropped out owing, it was stated, to ill-health, which seemed a flimsy excuse, since several were soon reinstated in commands.

Early in January it was given out that half a million trench coats, 3½ million pairs of stockings, and 14 million jerseys had been collected for the soldiers in Russia. A strange item in this list was 3,714,690 shawls. On the 30th, in Berlin, Hitler addressed Nazi party members and some soldiers from the Eastern front. He said that the worst was behind in Russia, and in the spring
they would start rebuilding. "How this year will end, I do not know," he went on. "Whether it will bring victory I do not know, but wherever the enemy appears we shall break him. This year will again be a year of victory." As in other speeches, he insisted that there would not be another 1918. Doubtless he realized only too well that in the minds of older Germans there was ever present the specter of defeat. However much many of them might dislike the Nazi regime they would support it and him rather than face the prospect of a military collapse like that of 1918, with its aftermath of hunger, humiliation and inflation. Hitler pointed out that the only road open to Germany was that of fighting and success, which was true enough as long as the German adhered to him and his confederates.

Major-General Fritz Todt, Minister of Munitions and the organizer of the vast work behind the German fighting fronts, was killed in an airplane crash in February, and Professor Speer was appointed to succeed him. Another Death of appointment, a few weeks earlier, had been that of Jakob Werlin as inspector-general of the motor vehicle department, responsible only to Hitler. Transport problems had been worsened by the R.A.F. attacks and the consequent transfer of many manufacturing plants eastward. Over the head of Selbs, Minister of Labour, a controller was appointed in the person of Dr. Mansfield; at the end of March Mansfield was succeeded by Fritz Sammel, Gauleiter of Thuringia.

Evidently more forceful methods than those of Mansfield were needed. Ley, leader of the Labour Front, had been touring the U.K. to stimulate production, and had told workers that, though they often worked 16 hours daily, they must demonstrate to the world that, like the soldiers of Germany, they were the best in the world. The Labour Ministry invented the slogan: "Two to Produce as Much as Three." In April Sammel issued a decree that school children from the age of ten upwards were to work on the land "in short spells or uninterruptedly, according to agricultural requirements." This was to tie in force until November.

A reduction in fat, meat and bread rations was announced on March 19, and came into force on April 6 (see page 2161). It was due, said the official explanation, to the fact that very large numbers of foreign workers and prisoners of war had to be fed. Later, Goebbels stated in Das Reich that a postponement of such cuts would have resulted, within six to eight weeks, in more serious difficulties in the food situation. Weather conditions had been bad for agriculture during the previous two years; potatoes were short everywhere, and some towns had no vegetables. (Potatoes were soon afterwards rationed at 5 lb. per head per week.) On May 23 Walther Darre, Minister for Agriculture, was replaced by Backe.

Hitler spoke at a Berlin commemoration of the war dead on March 15, 1942:

"Only today do we realize the full extent of the preparations of our enemies. Whatever fate lies in store for us it can only be less ominous than what lies behind us. The Bolsheviks, who would not defend the German troops and their allies in winter, will be annihilatingly defeated by us in the coming summer."

On April 26 Hitler addressed the Reichstag. He asked for new powers—"...the legal right to compel everyone to do his duty, and if, in my opinion and in accordance with my conscience, he does not carry out his duties, to dismiss him irrespective of who he is or what acquired rights he may possess. . . . I therefore expect German justice to understand that the German nation does not exist for the convenience of that justice, but that justice exists to serve the nation."

Here was a clear and unmistakable exposition of the Nazi creed. Goering, who spoke next, named Hitler supreme law lord, and a decree to this effect was approved by the Reichstag. For the disasters on the Russian front Hitler blamed the early and severe winter—the worst winter, he said, for 140 years. "We have mastered a fate that broke another man 130 years ago," he said, referring to the defeat of Napoleon I. As to the air war, he charged Britain with having started the bombing of civilians, and said that from now on he would reply blow for blow.

Beginning with the big raid on Luebeck on the night of March 23-29, the R.A.F. had gone on to batter Rostock on four consecutive nights (April 23-26), while Augsburg had been bombed in daylight on April 17. The Luftwaffe countered, on the night of April 24-25, with a "regional" raid on Exeter—a fairly safe operation. Then, after our thousand-bomber raid on Cologne (May 30-31), Hitler sent his armament to attack Canterbury the following night. But the R.A.F. made two more thousand-bomber attacks—on Essen (June 1-2) and Bremen (June 25-26)—while Luebeck and Flensburg were bombed in daylight on July 16. At last, under these massive blows, Germany's war industry began to suffer, while civilian morale was affected. Cold comfort was given by a Kiel newspaper which said that the best shelter was a strong heart, and not concrete. After the Rostock bombings the Hamburger Fremdenblatt said that it was entirely useless to travel to Rostock, because the inhabitants left long ago for places like Mecklenburg.

The A.R.P. services seem to have gone to pieces under the heavy blows and have been reinforced. After the raid on Cologne, Himmler took over control and the S.S. everywhere were placed in charge of A.R.P.
The move suggests that workers were becoming restive and were leaving the neighbourhood of much-bombed towns. Evacuation was strictly regulated; women and even children, "needed for work in the town," were obliged to remain.

In Hitler's speeches and in other official utterances there was apparent a realization that until Britain had been brought to her knees Germany's gains could not be consolidated. Indeed, the "New Order" could hardly proceed until the island enemy had been laid low for all, and the chosen weapon was the U-boat, since the Luftwaffe had failed. On January 30 Hitler had said that:

"On the other hand, submarines have been smashing Rommel's plans. He intended .... to drive the German submarine from the ocean and to leave only a few vessels to be defended by the British; and this was the reason for the fall in the sinkings of vessels. It was not due to a shortage of submarines; the contrary, the number of submarines had increased enormously."

The Japanese attack had relieved Germany of fear in the American quarter, he continued.

The man entrusted with submarine warfare was Vice-Admiral Karl Doenitz. U-boat Ober- leutnant during the First World War. On October 1918, he had been captured in the Mediterranean and went into a British prison camp till the end of the war. A zealot to whom the rising Nazi party gave free rein, he built up a great submarine force and introduced the system by which these craft could be constructed in quantity inland and transported in parts to the assembly yards at the coast—much as is done with mass-produced cargo vessels today. At the head of the German navy was Grand Admiral Erich Raeder, who had built up the fleet as Doenitz had the underworld squadrons. (Later Raeder was to be superseded by Doenitz, who was 15 years his junior.) In October 1941 Hitler had spoken of a change in war production, and had said that in large sections Germany had been able to stop manufacture. The truth was probably that a shift had been made to the production of U-boat parts and components.

The U-boat squadrons moved to the waters off America, and for a time had things much their own way. There was a shortage of escort vessels, and U.S. merchantmen had at that date not been provided with defensive armament. In his speech of April 21 Hitler said:

"German U-boats are making themselves more and more felt. Numbers increase from month to month in a regular flow. Today the highest figure in the world is left far behind."

**Aus deutscher Kriegsgefangenschaft**

**Der französische General Giraud geflüchtet**

*Berlin, 21. April 1942*

Der französische General Giraud, der sich in deutscher Kriegsgefangenschaft befindet, ist aus der Festung Königstein geflüchtet.

Der General war wegen seines Gesundheitszustandes größeren Bewegungsfreiheit gewährt worden. Er macht sich dieses Entgegenkommen zunutze und flieht.

100,000 RM. Belohnung

Jeder, der dem ausländischen General bei seiner Flucht beistellt, wird mit dem Tode bestraft. Für die Ergreifung des Generals sind 100,000 RM. Belohnung ausgesetzt. Der belästigte abgebliebene General Giraud ist 1,80 bis 1,85 m groß, schlanke, breite Nase und hohe Stirn, dunkler Haar und gebräunter, spricht deutsch mit französischem Akzent. Beschuldigte Müllers Zimmer nimmt jede Wehrmachts- und Polizei- Mikrofonen an.

100,000 REICHSMARKS FOR HIS RECAPTURE

Dated April 25, 1942, this German advertisement offers the sum for the recapture of General Henri Giraud. Taken prisoner on May 30, 1940 (see Illus.), he had been a prisoner of war in the fortress of Königstein, whence he escaped in April and made his way via Switzerland, to Vichy. In November 1942 he escaped from France by submarine and went to North Africa to command the French forces fighting there with the Allies.

Photo, *New York Times* Photo

The other main objective, after the submarine war against Britain and America, was the blocking of convoys to Russia. In February the battleships "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" had broken out of Brest, together with the heavy cruiser "Fritz Eugen." They had reached the comparative safety of the North Sea ports, though battered on route and after getting there. From German and Norwegian harbours surface craft and submarines, sided by aircraft, sailed out to shell, bomb and torpedo Allied merchantmen and escorts on the northern route to Russia; for much aid was reaching the Soviet by this route. But the traffic could not be stopped.

In conclusion, a few facts may be given about Germany's relations with her allies and victims; more will be found in other Chapters dealing specifically with those countries. Quisling and Terbovens visited Hitler on February 13, 1942, and were made much of. Quisling, before returning to Norway, proclaimed that country's fidelity, gratitude and devotion to Hitler. From Rumania, Antonescu had been summoned, and was received by Hitler in company with Küchel and Ribbentrop on February 11; nothing but the usual platitudes about "faithful friendship" and "fighting in brotherhood instead of being foreign to each other" were published about this meeting, but it probably meant new demands upon Rumania's man-power and industry, and it was said that 11 divisions had been asked for by Germany. Of different stuff was the conference between Hitler and Musolin in Salzburg (April 29-May 1). Military and air leaders of both sides were present at the discussions, which were concerned mainly with the Mediterranean situation or with demands for reinforcements on the Russian front. German newspapers went out of their way to deny rumours that Italy wanted a separate peace. From Switzerland Hitler was said to have demanded 75 locomotives as a price for continued coal supplies.

On June 4, 1942, Hitler visited Marshal Mannheim, ostensibly to give him his 75th birthday. Leading generals accompanied the Führer. The Führer had been growing restive and had shown that he were ready, for their part, to conclude peace. The German set-back in the past winter had alarmed Finland, and Hitler's visit had the object of allaying this apprehension. In this he seems to have succeeded, but the position, both economic and military, at the end of June was a difficult one for the Nazi. All would depend upon the fortunes of the coming offensive, for which there had been unparalleled preparation during the last few months.
Chapter 218

NAZI-OCCUPIED EUROPE: DENMARK, NORWAY, BELGIUM AND HOLLAND

Covering the eighteen months July 1941 to December 1942, this Chapter is based on information made available by the Free Governments and the Danish Council in London. The story is necessarily incomplete, for reasons of security, but it sheds a light on the perils, hardships, courage and achievements of our loyal allies languishing under Gestapo rule.

Allowing for local diversities, Nazi policy in the occupied countries of the west was similar in fundamentals. As long as there was a reasonable chance of collaboration or of tolerance by the inhabitants and local administrations the German officials permitted a degree of autonomy and a semblance of freedom, while taking all military measures which seemed at the moment to be necessary. In the Netherlands and Belgium they had been eager to persuade the people that the war had ended, and that once the fact of German conquest had been accepted, life would go on much as before. Obviously this move, if it succeeded, would save the enemy much in effort and manpower: resources and materials would be available for the Reich, and the policing of the occupied territories would be easy. So, with the aid of local quislings, an attempt was made to modify, and the Nazi rule was light unless resistance was encountered. During the twelve months July 1941 to June 1942 the military prospects of the Allies were not rosy, and the spectre of a second front in Europe had not yet arisen to perturb the enemy. He could afford to go slowly with the dragooning of the conquered lands. But as the months went on his policy was obviously coloured by fear of an eventual Allied invasion.

Apart from measures such as the building of defensive works and the strengthening of garrisons, two other important steps were taken to hamstring the local patriots. Food supplies were cut down in stages to the point at which they merely permitted a bare subsistence; men and women were drawn off into forced labour in Germany; a rigid control was clamped down upon workers, so that any opposition or recalcitrance was punished by the cancellation of relief or the withdrawal of rations. Extremist reprisals were taken on the relatives of men who slipped the country to join the Allies. Gradually a docketing of ex-soldiers was carried out, to be followed later by wholesale imprisonment, or deportation to prevent any assistance to an Allied landing force. The population was evacuated from "danger" points, so that no collision with the liberators could be possible. It seems an inescapable conclusion that the conquered peoples were deliberately brought to near-starvation point in order to cripple resistance.

RIBBENTROP WELCOMES SCAVENIUS

Erik Scavenius, the Danish Foreign Minister, was summoned to Berlin in October 1942 to receive Nazi orders, and a fortnight later he formed a new administration of which he became Premier. Above, he is seen on arrival at Berlin a year before (November 24, 1941) to sign the Anti-Comintern Pact: Ribbentrop (right) is greasing him.

Where it suited Nazi policy a country was left for some time with a certain measure of autonomy, political and economic—and for just as long as the results warranted. For two-and-a-half years Denmark was favoured among Nazi victims, and the Germans instanced her as a shining example of the benefits to be derived from compliance with the "New Order." But towards the end of 1942 this policy altered. In October Erik Scavenius, Danish Foreign Minister, was summoned to Berlin to receive the latest German demands, one of which was that a new government must be formed forthwith. On November 8 Scavenius became Premier in an administration selected to please the enemy. Three days earlier Karl Rudolf Best had replaced Von Berthe-Fink as German Ambassador at Copenhagen. Best was an officer of the S.S. and the Gestapo, with little experience of diplomatic service. Other German demands were for more Danish workers to go to Germany, for increased supplies of manufactured products, and for cargo ships to be built in Danish yards.

About Scavenius there were conflicting opinions. After he had signed the Anti-Comintern Pact at Berlin on November 25, 1941, he was regarded as a traitor and had to return by a deviated route to the Danish capital. But Scavenius was merely carrying out the wish of his Government, to which the King consented—though the extreme pressure exerted by the Germans left no alternative but that of open resistance to the Nazis. Gunnar Leistekow, former foreign editor of Social-Demokraten, Copenhagen, regarded the action of Scavenius in forming the new Cabinet of November 8 as "a last attempt to stay off—for a time at least—the complete Nazification of the country."

Before the war Britain had taken half of Denmark's exports of dairy produce. Germany at once emptied the country of foodstuffs and other commodities ever and above a subsistence margin. Then there began a progressive killing off of livestock. In April 1942 the production of pork and eggs had dwindled to one-third. A million pigs had been commandeered, alive or in carcasses, representing nearly the entire annual production. By the middle of 1942 some 50,000 Danes were working in Germany. By the end of 1942 the Danish National Bank had paid out to farmers, shipowners, industrialists and others £115,000,000 since the invasion, representing goods delivered or services rendered to the

* "Forskin Affair," January 1943, New York
COPENHAGEN'S WARM GREETING TO KING CHRISTIAN

In extremely difficult circumstances Christian X did his utmost to cheer his people and to avert some of the evils of Nazi rule. Here he is seen on the thirtieth anniversary of his accession to the throne. Not long afterwards he met with a riding accident and on October 27, 1942, temporarily handed over his duties to Crown Prince Frederik.

Photo, Associated Press

Germans. All that the Bank had to show as cover was a credit of equal amount on the Clearing Account in Berlin. Fuel rations (Denmark was dependent on Germany for coal) for domestic consumption were very small. The cost-of-living index rose by 65 per cent, while wages increased by 20 per cent. Only many commodities became too dear for the lower wage groups.

Yet, as long as the Danish Government could satisfy Nazi demands, the country still had a fair measure of freedom, while her neighbours Norway withstood the brutality of the Gestapo and the heavy hand of the occupying army and officials. Small wonder that Government and King strove to avert the ultimate evil of Gestapo rule. King Christian X, in the thirtieth year of his reign, had to hand over his duties to Crown Prince Frederik in October 1942, because of illness which followed a riding accident. The King, when changes of Cabinet were enforced, firmly refused to accept any Government which had not a Parliamentary sanction. In the crisis of November 1942 Parliament had had to choose between Scavenius and the quixotic Frits Clausen, Leader of the Danish Nazis. The King showed in many ways his abhorrence of Nazi methods. When Danish torpedo-boats had to be given up to the Germans he shook hands with each of the crew, some 800 in all.

The mettle of Norway's resistance to the Nazis was demonstrated by the attitude of the Church, which as long ago as October 1940 had set up a Council under the seven bishops, the first step in the creating of a Church Front to protect religious liberties. In the following January these ecclesiasties, led by Bishop Berggrav, had protested to Skancke, the quixotic Minister of Church and Education, against the violence and brutality of the Hird (quixotic storm-troopers) and against the Nazi decree which abolished the right of doctors, lawyers and clergy to retain secrecy about matters confided to them in the execution of their duty - the Magna Carta of conscience to the bishops termed it. The Norwegian Clergymen's Union had been one of the 45 trade and professional organizations which had signed the manifesto to Reichskommissar Terboven on May 15, 1941 (see page 1788).

In September Skancke centralized the clergy asking them to sign an appeal in connection with the so-called crusade against Bolshevism and international Godlessness. Since practically all the clergy refused to sign, the Minister had to let the matter drop.

Things came to a crisis on February 1, 1942, at Trondheim. A quixotic bishop, Blessing Dahle, went to conduct a Festival Service to mark Vidkun Quisling's appointment that same day as Minister-President, or Premier. Dr. Fjelbu, Dean of Trondheim, postponed his own service until 2 p.m.; Dahle preached to a small congregation of local pro-Nazis at 11 a.m. As soon as Dahle had finished, the cathedral began to fill with worshippers to hear the Dean, but the police closed the doors.

Outside, for half an hour, thousands of people, including nearly the entire clergy of Trondheim, sang hymns and the National Anthem; within, Dr. Fjelbu preached to those who had gained admission before the police had intervened. A few days later the Dean was dismissed. On February 23 the seven Crisis at bishops met at Oslo; next day they resigned their administrative offices, while maintaining the right to exercise their spiritual vocation. All the clergy but two supported this action, as did religious bodies throughout Norway. Dean Hygen, of Oslo, was asked by Skancke to take over Bishop Berggrav's functions, but refused and resigned his own office. At Easter other deans and the clergy resigned in a body. Early in April Bishop Berggrav was arrested.

A Provisional Church Council was formed, and in August discussions were opened with the quisling Church authorities, but on September 26 the leaders of the Norwegian Church abandoned the discussions. The obstacle was the demand that, before any negotiations could be opened, the bishops should give a declaration in which they publicly...
MORE U-BOATS FOR THE ONSLAUGHT ON ALLIED SHIPPING

Admiral Karl Dönitz, commander of the German submarine forces, was a pioneer in the mass production of underwater craft on inland engineering works and their assembly at coastal shipyards. By means of these comparatively small and simplified submarines he hoped to break the strength of the United Nations. Here are some nearing completion—probably at a French Atlantic base.

Photo: Keystone
HOW GERMAN ARTISTS SAW THE WAR

Many examples of the widely varied output of British war artists have already been given in this work, and in this and the opposite page German art, during the war period is illustrated. The difference in outlook and treatment is illuminating. Whereas British painters were obviously entirely untrammeled by any restriction of style or handling, with the result that their work was both spontaneous and convincing, the German artists exhibit a portentous solemnity and almost slavish realism to which they have evidently been condemned by the dictates of official war culture. With them the heroic gesture is predominant and the traditional glorification of the soldier heavily emphasized. As records of contemporary military uniform these German paintings are no doubt excellent, but they scarcely set down the posterity the reactions of a great nation in the throes of a life-or-death struggle for existence.

Paintings exhibited at the Munich Art Exhibitions, 1941 and 1942.
Bearer of Knights Cross to Iron Cross of the Bodyguard of Adolf Hitler

In the Atlantic

Ernst Rössen

Claas Bergom
NEW MERCHANTMEN TO REPLACE NORWAY'S WARTIME LOSSES

Launched at a Scottish shipyard on December 31, 1941, by Norway's King, the 'Kong Harald VII' was the first replacement to her Merchant Marine which, by this date, had lost 300 of its ships in war service for the Allies. Of the first fleet of Norwegian tankers Mr. Noel Baker (of the Ministry of War Transport) in April 1942 said that they were to the Battle of the Atlantic what the Spitfires were to the Battle of Britain in 1940.
recognized the quising Government. The beach was later widened when quising leaders were appointed to new congregational councils, with orders to prevent the use of the churches by the dismissed bishops or priests. State police had to be called in to force the old councils to give up registers, archives and keys.

Norwegian teachers were just as consistent in their refusal to implement the "New Order." They had gone on strike in November 1940, and many had been dismissed; there had been another strike in February 1941 to protest against quising interference. In the following April there was a court warning that anyone who then refused to join the Nazi-controlled organization would be banned from the schools. Nearly all stood out, and in reprisal some 500 were packed into a small coaster ship and sent to the north of the country to work for the Germans. Conditions were appalling, and food was so scarce that some of the men who were employed to unload carcasses of meat at a port ate part of the flesh surreptitiously while carrying it.

Pro-Nazi controlled law and justice, for the 15 judges of the Supreme Court, who had resigned in November 1940, had been replaced by Quisling's nominees. In the spring of 1941 a "People's Court" had been established to try political prisoners. In February 1942 the Nasjonal Samling (Quisling's party) set up its court to try its own members. As to the medical profession, since its determined stand against the dismissal of Dr. Gjettig, director of the Dikemark Mental Hospital near Oslo, in April 1941, it had been more or less left alone.

Despite the appointment of pro-Nazis as chairman and secretary of the Trades Union Congress the members had remained steadfast. They sent an ultimatum to Terboven on June 30, 1941, demanding the reinstatement of dismissed officials and the opening of wages negotiations. In part they won, for their officials were released and the Nazi controller was withdrawn. When in the following September a decree was issued forbidding workers to buy milk at their work places a series of strikes broke out in Oslo. Terboven took this opportunity to crush the trade union movement: Viggo Hamstein, the legal adviser of the T.U.C., and Rolf Wiekstrom were executed; about a thousand workers were given long terms of imprisonment. A decree by Terboven made strikes and lockouts illegal and imposed the death sentence. Odd Fossen, head of the Nasjonal Samling's trade group organization, was appointed chairman of the T.U.C., and quising commissars were put in charge of the unions.

The strength of the Nasjonal Samling at the end of 1941 was estimated at about 80,000 members, including children. Many youngsters had joined the Hird and travelled in gangs through towns and villages terrorizing people. Boys of 13 and 14 brandished their weapons and had been known to make peaceful citizens at the revolver point, lie down in the gutter and drink dirty ditch-water, and recite the Lord's Prayer. In February 1942, as has been end of 1942 this prediction had not been fulfilled. He had also said that the existing arrangements would lead to the establishment of a Riksting (National Assembly).

Norwegian seamen and shipowners were the victims of much vindictiveness. In August 1941 the Shipsowners Association, joined by the Gestapo, came under a German controller. Later on, in February of the next year, it was taken over by the Quisling Party; almost every Norwegian shipowner disavowed the association. Captains and crews of merchant ships which had gone over to the Nazis were offered bribes, via the radio, if they would sail their ships into Axis-controlled ports. In the spring a daily broadcast was begun to Norwegian seamen, giving them pathetic messages from their relatives in Norway and imploring them to return home with their ships. These began messages were concocted from details given in forms on which relatives had been told to furnish particulars of sailors serving abroad.

In June 1942 Terboven ordered the shipowners to set up a committee for achieving closer cooperation with the Nazi-controlled Association, but this move failed. Finally, shipowners were made to pay income tax (150 per cent of average earnings, 1938-39) on a presumed profit earned by their ships sailing in Allied service. An example of the seamen's spirit is the exploit of a handful who seized the small passenger ship "Galleon," plying between Bergen and Osla, and sailed her to Britain in April 1942.

Norwegians were much cheered by the raids carried out from Britain by Combined Operations Command, as it came to be called. Norwegians themselves had taken part in the raid on fish oil plants and shipping in the Lofoten on March 4, 1941 (see p. 880), when a number of patriots had been transported to Britain. A detachment of Norwegian soldiers formed part of the mixed force which raided Spitsbergen on August 25, 1941. Coal and oil dumps were destroyed, the mines wrecked, and again many Norwegians among the population were brought off. Just after Christmas (December 27, 1941) the islands of Vaagso and Maaloy were attacked by Commandos, the objects here being oil stores, wireless stations and industrial plant (see p. 892). The stimulus and encouragement such raids afforded to the oppressed people can well be imagined.

A brilliant R.A.F. raid in daylight by four Mosquitoes interrupted Quisling's
Belgian prisoners of war were kept in prison camps the Flemish were sent back home. Extensive areas were proclaimed to be Flemish by the Nazis, and certain large cities also, including Brussels. Children were taken away from French classes and made to learn Flemish. Politically and culturally, every initiative was held out to the Flemish nationalists. A “Vlaamsche Nationaal Verbond” was set up, into which other Flemish organizations were merged, including the Flemish section of the Resistants. Its head was Staaf (Gustave) De Clercq, who has been described as a “public-house Führer”; the nominal leader was Borns. De Clercq appointed Gouwels (district leaders), formed a Flemish brigade of storm troops, and instituted a Flemish Guard to maintain order in the newly created Flemish provinces. Members of the V.N.V. were given high posts under the German administration. The party had sent 16 deputies to the Belgian Parliament, De Clercq had been arrested as a doubtful character by the Belgian police on May 10, 1940, but later, of course, obtained his freedom.

Leon Degrelle, founder and leader of the Resist (pro-Fascist) party, had also been arrested on the morning of the German invasion, together with his three fellow deportees. They were sent to France, but were freed after the Franco-German armistice in June.

WHEN R.A.F. MOSQUITOES BOMBED GESTAPO H.Q. AT OSLO

The photograph below was taken from the first of the Mosquito reconnaissance bombers which, on September 23, 1944, bombed the Gestapo Headquarters (A) from about 100 feet. (B), the central cupola on which our pilots saw the Nazi flag, (C), the University building.

Photo, British Official, Copyrighted

SALUTE TO PATRIOTS

A national day of mourning for the Norwegian victims of the Gestapo was secretly fixed (February 27, 1944); black and red mourning crosses were painted on many prominent places in the city, and at the entrance to the underground station in Oslo, are set on signposts and lamp standards.

Photo, Associated Press

Then there was Henri De Man, a former finance minister, leader of the enemy-sponsored “Union of Manual and Intellectual Workers,” which took the place of the former trade unions. To the German workers he urged a policy of resignation and acceptance of the German conquest—views which he proclaimed in his journal, Le Travail. The Resistants republished their newspaper, Le Pays Réel, which the Belgian Government had suppressed; the Brussels pro-Fascists issued the Nouveau Journal, while the enemy’s official organ was the Brusseler Zeitung, printed on plant commandeered from the Brussels daily, La Dernière Heure. The chief organ of the Flemish nationalists was the Volk en Staat.

Despite this superabundance of quelling newspapers—and there were other minor ones—the great bulk of the Belgian people went stolidly on their way, unaffected by the extravagant slogans and the more subtle propaganda. As a sample of Resist publicity we may cite Degrelle’s description of the Walloons as “French-speaking Teutons sprung from the same race as their brothers in the north and east.” By an insidious perversion of what normally
was an inoffensive nationalist movement the Germans lomented grievances among the Flemish-speaking population and tried to infect even the Walloons with similar racial absurdities. In the main the Flemings refused to be a party to the Nazi intrigues. They preferred to bear the same hardships and privations as their Walloon compatriots.

At the beginning of 1942 the strength of the Flemish nationalists was about 5,000 members, and of the Rexist about 2,000. Numerically these parties were insignificant, and only the German backing gave them such power as they enjoyed. They quarrelled among themselves and were by no means unanimous or united in their subversive activities.

During 1942 German infiltration into workers. There was steadily increasing pressure on workmen and independent craftsmen to "volunteer" for work in Germany. If men refused, their unemployment relief ceased. Small manufacturers, hard hit by the slump, were given the option of going to Germany; in default their ration cards were cancelled. The Germans claimed that 300,000 men had volunteered, and it is probable that in fact two-thirds of this number had taken up work across the frontier under what amounted to duress.

Normal food rations at the beginning of 1942 amounted to (per person per week): 3 oz. fats, 10.5 oz. meat, 3 lb. bread, 2 lb. coffee, 1 lb. sugar, 0.4 lb. potatoes, 7 pts. milk. Often the full in Germany, for the total number in enemy hands after the surrender was no more than 70,000, of whom many had been repatriated. Refugees, too, had come back from France, and the enemy, with an eye to their value in the labour market, had even provided transport for their return. The average load of weight among Belgian working men was 12-26 lb., and among women 14-26 lb. Cases of tuberculosis increased a hundredfold; rickets, an almost unknown complaint in normal times, became common. An investigation of schoolchildren in Brussels showed that less than one-fifth attained a normal weight for their age group.

The severe winter of 1941-42 claimed many victims among the very young and the aged; at Ghent the mortality was the highest ever recorded. Belgium is a densely populated country—700 inhabitants to the square mile—and normally imported more than half the food supply needed for her people; in consequence the German invasion and occupation left her in dire straits.

Pro-British manifestations were observable in all sections of the people. The Flemish newspaper, De Nationale-Socialist, reported the existence among the Antwerp police of a pro-ally culture group. Homage to R.A.F.

When R.A.F. machines were forced down and the crews taken prisoner there was a spontaneous exhibition of sympathy. On the graves of British pilots killed in crashes there were flowers brought by people who walked miles to pay this tribute. Russian prisoners of war sent to the coast for defence work were given cigarettes, food, and clothing. When British bombers flew over at night en route to Germany, Belgians went to the windows or roofs to watch, and there were cries of "They are here!" At Ostend crowds gathered in the streets during an alert to watch the R.A.F. bombers. In Flanders there was a custom of keeping a vacant place at the table, reserved symbolically for "den Engelsman" — the Englishman who should come to liberate Belgium.

Sabotage of German-controlled plant and equipment of all kinds was widespread, despite the extreme penalties meted out. Railway tracks were sabotaged all over the land; buildings were set on fire; petrol was stolen from enemy depots; factories, garages and engineering works were blown up in a never-ceasing attack on all that might aid the enemy. By the end of 1942 the known executions of patriots numbered 3,000—ten times as many as during the four years of German occupation, 1914-18. The flame of patriotic ardour
burned brightly in the men and women of this generation as in the last.

In Belgium, as in Norway, the clergy led the people in resistance. In 1914-18 the Archbishop of Malines had been Cardinal Mercier (a Walloon), who had defied General von Biessing. This time it was a Fleming, Cardinal van Roey, who encouraged his flock to abstain from anything approaching collaboration with the enemy. In January 1942 the Cardinal in a sermon declared: "The Church... cannot tolerate conditions that would stifle her, such as those existing in Germany. It is illegal for Catholics to collaborate with an oppressive regime. On the contrary, they must resist it..." He refused to recognize a quisling burgomaster of Malines appointed in January. Six months later, on National Independence Day, he paid an official call in the traditional way upon the Chevalier Dessain, the real burgomaster whom the enemy had dismissed. The clergy consistently refused to officiate at services for Belgian Rexist and Flemish nationalist soldiers killed on the Russian front, actions in which they were backed up by the Cardinal and the bishops. In an address to a congress of Belgian young people at Wavre on August 11, 1941, Van Roey again emphasized that it was wrong to collaborate in the establishment of a tyrannical regime.

Of clandestine newspapers there were at least 60—including of course the revived "La Libre Belgique," which had published its first number of the 1940 edition on August 15 of that year and ran soon to a circulation of 40,000—passed from hand to hand. In July 1941 sixteen inhabitants of Liége were sentenced by the German military court for having edited, written and circulated illegal pamphlets and newspapers. The penalties ranged in this case—a typical one—from eight months' solitary confinement to 25 years. The latter was pronounced upon Jean Jusquinet, a lawyer.

Herzog Burgomaster Adolphe Marx of Brussels, whose stalwart opposition to the German administration in 1914-18 made him the scourge of resistance, had a worthy successor in Dr. P. J. van de Meulebroeck. At the end of June 1941, when he was superseded by a Nazi nominee, Dr. Meulebroeck issued a proclamation stating that if he had complied with certain German demands he would have spared honour and duty, and have disobeyed one of the fundamental laws of his country. "I am, I remain, and will remain the one and only lawful burgomaster of Brussels. I am therefore not saying goodbye, but 'au revoir.' In leaving you temporarily I ask you to endure your hardships and sufferings calmly, courageously and with confidence." These were the inspiring phrases of his farewell. The Burgomaster was arrested the same day, together with the Chief of the Brussels Police and the owner of the Guilot Press which had printed the proclamation. The press was closed, and a fine of $500,000 francs was imposed on the inhabitants of Brussels. A month earlier the Alderman of Verviers had taken similar action against a Rexist burgomaster. King Leopold maintained consistently the attitude he had adopted when he became a prisoner at his castle of Laeken on May 28, 1940. His position had been made clear by Cardinal van Roey in a pastoral letter shortly after. The King had signed neither pact nor treaty, even of a military nature, with the Germans; he had in no way infringed the constitution of the Belgian people. Leopold considered himself a prisoner of war; he refused to parley with the enemy and was just as steadfast in his refusal to be moved by appeals made to him by quislings of either
Flemish nationalist or Rexist brands. A few days before November 15, 1941 (the King’s name day), the Germans forbade any public demonstration; since the King regards himself as a prisoner of war, said the official communique, he will certainly not wish for any political demonstration in his honour.

On September 11, 1941, the King married Mademoiselle Marie Lilian Bael, daughter of a former Belgian Minister of Agriculture. He stated that his wife renounced the title and rank of Queen, and made it a condition of the marriage that any children of the union would have no claim to the throne. She would be known as Princess de Réthy. On July 18, 1942, a son was born and was named Prince Alexander.

Despite superficial resemblances in the late of Holland and Belgium there were wide differences. Belgium had a population of over 6,000,000, mainly engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, while the Netherlands, with a million more inhabitants, was mainly agricultural. Both were densely populated, the average person per square mile in both countries being about 700 persons. The Netherlands was active in the campaign that its Royal House was free in Britain or other Allied lands, to the fame, patriotism, and to inspire the war effort in the Dutch Empire. The timely broadcasts of Queen Wilhelmina to her oppressed people had an immeasurable effect in mitigating spiritual and physical hardships and strengthening their will to resist the Nazis.

The former Premier, Dr. Colijn, was arrested in July, with members of his party. After a broadcast by Queen Wilhelmina on her birthday (August 31) the Reichskommisar, Seyss-Inquart, banned the use of Royal names or emblems for brands and labels of goods, or by professional organizations. All Crown properties were at the same time seized by the Nazis. Foreshadowing action which followed, Seyss-Inquart in November told the Dutch that an independent Netherlands was not to figure in the Nazi New Order. This declaration at single stroke demolished the wishful plans of the Dutch Nazis who, under Anton Mussert, had anticipated their reward in the shape of place and privilege.

On the morrow of the Japanese attack on British and American outposts in the Far East Queen Wilhelmina issued a proclamation which was broadcast by the Premier, Dr. Gerbrandy, for her over Radio Orange, from which the following passages are quoted:

"Now that the friendly American and British people are being attacked, the King makes the Netherlands give all its military power and all its resources at the disposal of the common war effort... I count on the navy, the army and the air force, on all civil servants, and on all the civil services whose war duty now begins... And I will answer with the Dutch and the people of the Indies..."

How noble the Netherlands East Indies answered the call is told in Chapters 207 and 208.

The familiar pattern of Nazi repression already described in earlier sections of this Chapter was manifest in Holland and the same types of opposition and underground resistance. During January 1942 four Dutchmen were shot as members of a secret organization; four more were shot in Northern France, for intelligence work against the invaders; five farmers were executed for aiding British airmen forced down in Holland; 20 men were sentenced to imprisonment for distributing anti-German leaflets. So the catalogue could be extended for later months. In February 500 were sent to a concentration camp near Amersfoort on the charge of placing bombs in the horses of quinlings.

In April the number of Dutchmen sent to labour in Germany had grown to 150,000. Next month more labour decrees were issued. In August all women between 18 and 40 were ordered to register for recruitment for Nazi women’s labour battalions. Seyss-Inquart issued a decree that Dutchmen would be drafted to guard factories.
railways, etc. The penalty for negligence resulting in damage was death. As the result of the intensified drive for labour the number of Dutchmen sent to Germany had doubled by September, and was then over 500,000. Anti-Jewish laws were made more rigorous. In October 1941 nearly 200 Jews were sent to the sulphur mines in Austria, where many died. In the following April the Dutch Government in London stated that out of 1,300 sent to the concentration camp at Mauthausen about 700 had perished. In May 1942 all Jewish property was registered as the first step towards seizure. Next month the first of the big round-ups took place, and as a result 6,000 Jews were assembled at Amsterdam for transportation to Russia and Poland.

It was reported in June that the Germans had a long-term plan to colonize parts of conquered Poland and Russia with Dutch farmers compulsorily removed from Holland. The cost of this scheme was to be met from funds confiscated from the East Indies concerns whose capital was in Dutch banks. In October the prices of all East Indies shares and international stocks were pegged.

Broadcasting from England in October 1942, Queen Wilhelmina sternly warned all Netherlands who collaborated with the Germans that they would have to accept the consequences, and that these would be serious indeed. But, judging by the counter-measures taken by the Nazis against Dutch patriots, those to whom the Queen's warning was addressed formed a small minority. In May 1942 the German-controlled press complained about rampant sabotage in every industry and trade; in October there were reports of widespread resistance and increasing sabotage. Punishments became more drastic and the taking of hostages began. Two thousand officers of the Dutch Army, with 450 prominent citizens, were sent to a concentration camp in May. Soon after another group of prominent Dutchmen was arrested; among them were former Ministers and Members of Parliament. In July 1,000 hostages were taken; next month five were shot in reprisal for the blowing up of a train, and 200 more were arrested. The first woman to be shot for sabotage had been executed in July. According to a report which came from Moscow, during July and August Dutch patriots destroyed 40 goods trains, set fire to five German aircraft, and blew up a torpedo store in Haarlem.

Much against their will many Dutch workers had to take part in the production of material for the Nazis, but the strict control of rationing and the use of this system to coerce people into obedience left almost no alternative but starvation. The odious manoeuvres was the same as that described in the Belgian section. But the R.A.F. did its best to apply a brake to such forced production. At Eindhoven was the great radio works of the Philips concern, where enormous quantities of valves and similar apparatus were turned out. It was heavily bombed in daylight by the R.A.F. on December 6, 1942.

In October the Nazis began to evacuate people from the Netherlands coastal area, and by the end of the year this operation was almost complete. Preparations were made to meet an Allied landing. An even sterner control was imposed on the long-suffering people of Holland, but the reason for this measure was clearly seen, and in itself was heartening.
Chapter 219

VICHY FRANCE AND THE OCCUPIED REGION, JANUARY—JUNE, 1942

This period saw the opening of the Riom trial of "war-guilt" prisoners and its hasty suspension under Hitler's orders in the middle of April; other events, notable in different connexions, were the escape of General Giraud from Koenigstein and the return of Laval to power as Chief of Government, his main mission being to procure French labour for the Reich. Six character sketches of Vichy personalities are printed in page 2187.

On January 1, 1942, Marshal Pétain broadcast to the French nation. He once again spoke of the dangers to which France and her Empire were exposed, and suggested that a sincere "rapprochement" between Germany and France could be brought about only by a modification of the statute imposed on France by Germany. "Our dignity," he said, "will be restored, our economy relieved."

He referred also to the heavy costs of occupation, the crushing nature of which was borne out by the Minister of Finance's budget for 1942 which, presented on the same day, he estimated would be 120-125,000,000,000 francs. This figure, though comparable to that of 1941 (130,000,000,000 francs), was in effect immeasurably greater, since, as the Minister (M. Bouthillier) declared, the burden of the tribute payable to Germany became heavier in the same measure as France's economy grew lovelier and she accumulated a debt which grew in proportion to her continued impoverishment.

Approximately 50 per cent of France's budget being needed to pay the costs of occupation, no inference is possible other than that the Reich was ruthlessly determined to use the weapon of economics force to bring France into line, a point emphasized by Hitler's retention of over 1,250,000 prisoners-of-war and exploitation of French agriculture. Further proof of Germany's determination to enforce this policy was provided by the threat, contained in a note presented to Vichy towards the end of March 1942, to occupy all French territory unless her demands for huge quantities of food, wine, and locomotives were met.

Moreover, as was revealed by the British Minister of Economic Warfare, Mr. Hugh Dalton, on February 9, German pressure was enforcing the systematic delivery of large and valuable military supplies to their troops in Libya by the French authorities in North Africa. Despite the unsatisfactory nature of Vichy's replies to representations by the United States, during which negotiations all U.S. ship-

SITTING OF THE RIOM SUPREME COURT OF JUSTICE

This Court was set up to try the "war-guilt" prisoners, including Daladier, Blum, Gamelin, Guy La Chambre, Jacomet and Pierre Cot. It proved to be a travesty of justice and, even so, concerned itself mainly with the causes of the French defeat. Hitler forced its adjournment on April 2, 1942, after six weeks. Nearly 12 months later (June 23, 1943) a decree of Vichy in the Official Gazette closed the Riom court. On the left is the Public Prosecutor, Cassagnau; at the back are the six judges and their three deputies.

Photo, Sport & General
FRENCH AIRCRAFT CARRIER "BEARN" AT MARTINIQUE

Of 23,146 tons displacement, the "Bearn" was one of three warships (the others were light cruisers) which the United States asked the Governor, Admiral Georges Robert, to immobilise in May 1942; another request was that merchant ships at Martinique should be put at American disposal. Robert agreed on May 26 to immobilise the warships. Below, Admiral Leahy, American Ambassador to Vichy (right), bids farewell to Marshal Pétain on his recall to Washington for consultation (April 17, 1942). Photos, "Daily Express"; Associated Press.

The previous October, attacked the Marshal's policy of "attentisme" in a Paris radio talk, saying that France risked losing her role in Europe, North Africa, and her Empire if she continued to evade thorough-going collaboration. "It's all false collaboratism," he said, "and the men who want to 'wait-and-see' are deserters."

On January 9 Pétain received General Deenaz (former C-in-C of the Vichy forces in Syria) and three days later: significantly, Vichy Occupation of Island of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which had been occupied by the Free French on December 24, 1941.

The intrigue and counter- intrigues resorted to by those who had used France's downfall as an excuse to indulge in power politics continued to be a source of perpetual worry to Hitler, who sought, above all, for real collaboration, the lack of which De Brinon, the Vichy Ambassador to Paris, complained bitterly about in an interview given to Paris journalists on January 30.

On February 19, 1942, the trial of the "war-guilt" prisoners was opened at Riom, the accused being: M. Edmond Daladier (Premier and Minister of War and National Defence in September 1939), M. Léon Blum (Premier in the "Front Populaire" government of 1936), Gen. Gamelin (Allied Generalissimo, National Populaire," the previous October, attacked the Marshal's policy of "attentisme" in a Paris radio talk, saying that France risked losing her role in Europe, North Africa, and her Empire if she continued to evade thorough-going collaboration. "It's all false collaboratism," he said, "and the men who want to 'wait-and-see' are deserters."

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IN UNOCCUPIED FRANCE

Until November 11, 1944, when Germany occupied all France, there had been the zone unoccupied under Vichy control. Here are glimpses of life there. (1) The "Youth Army" known as "Les Compagnons de France" on parade in Marseilles; (2) a blocking line waiting to enter a Marseilles department store during a rationing period. From Marseilles also come (3), where Frenchmen examine posters which read: "For the People of France, For the Bread of Frenchmen", "For the People against the Starvation-monsters." Petrol shortage is reflected in (4), at Nice, which shows a line of "gazagne" taxis that run on compressed gas in cylinders.
questions of the responsibility for the war, proved itself a very mockery of traditional French justice. Far from dealing with the political causes of the war, the trial concerned itself only with the causes of the French military defeat—these would seem to be summed up thus: (i) The move into Belgium; (ii) The weakness of the French forces; (iii) The delay in evacuating the Maginot Line; and (iv) The abandonment of the Paris region. The trial thus defeated its purpose while allowing widespread publication of facts prejudicial to Vichy and Germany and their policy of collaboration. This unexpected outcome, which angered Hitler to the point of giving public expression to his dissatisfaction in his Reichstag speech of March 15, forced him to reconsider his strategy. He decided to appeal to the French Army and to bring about a new government in Paris that would be more amenable to his demands.

A factor strongly supporting Berlin's intrigues was Pétain's traditional hatred of Britain, one of many frequent expressions of which took place as a result of the heavy British air attack on the Renault works at Billancourt in the environs of Paris on March 5, 1943 (see illus., p. 2121). This legitimate blow at Axis war-production was bitterly attacked by Pétain in a message read at the funeral of the victims on March 7, a vituperation ably backed up by both Vichy and German-controlled radio and press.

It was not, therefore, surprising that the hotchpotch of Vichy political intrigues should gradually begin to assume definite shape. On April 4 Admiral Darlan, addressing the "Conseil National," said that 1943 would be a decisive year for France, and referred to the danger of Bolshevism—"the political change of position of our former allies, who are now the allies of Bolshevism, the most deadly foe of the French people." This warning was followed nine days later by another one, issued this time by Marcel Déat, who had escaped a second attempt on his life when a bomb was thrown at him on March 28 at Tours. An ardent supporter of collaboration with Germany, Déat in a speech in Paris said that the fate of France would be decided in a few hours. France, he said, could either come out openly for collaboration in the new Europe, or Germany would have to force her will on France. "We can," he said, "participate in a European victory or a British defeat."

The following day (April 14), the recent prolonged and heavy attacks on the Vichy attentuates "by the German-controlled press and radio, demanding that Vichy should define its attitude "once for all," which had hastened the climax of Laval's intrigues with Pétain and Abeutz, bore fruit with Laval's seizure of power.

Announcing this, both Berlin and Vichy stated that Laval would return to office as "Chief of the Government with special powers," that the Cabinet would be reconstructed on a new basis of:

**FIRST REPATRIATED FRENCH WAR PRISONERS**

On June 23, 1945, Laval appealed to French workers to go to Germany to exchange for soldiers when the Germans undertook to release. Much pressure was brought to bear on the workers, especially those who had been evacuated from the coastal strip between Boulogne and Dieppe. Above, in Compagnie station, returned soldiers in the first trainload ride with a batch of workers who are going to the Reich under the exchange scheme.
by Marshal Pétain, and that Admiral Darlan, dropping the present office of Vice-Premier, would leave the Cabinet and remain the head of the French Armed Forces, nominally responsible only to Pétain.

Laval, proclaiming his policy, declared that he would aim at maintaining friendly relations both with Germany and the U.S.A., and that these would be based on the solution of the following problems: Maintenance of the integrity of the French Empire; France's attitude in the war between Germany and Britain; and the Alsace-Lorraine question, which only "friendly understanding" with Germany would solve.

On April 17 Pétain received the formal resignation of the former Cabinet, and the next day announced the new Cabinet, of which the Ministers were as follows:


The following day Pétain sought to justify the newly constituted Cabinet in a broadcast in which he said that at a moment as decisive as June 1940 he found himself associated once more with Laval, to continue the task of national recovery.

Under Pétain's presidency the first meeting of the new Cabinet was held in Vichy on April 20. Darlan also being present. Later the same day Laval, in a broadcast to the nation, said that he always returned to power when France was in peril, and blamed the French defeat on former governments. "For a long time," he said, "I have always affirmed that a "preparation" between France and Germany was the indispensable condition of European peace. At Montreux a new political principle was admitted, one in which neither the honor nor the vital interests of France were sacrificed.

The gigantic struggle against Bolshevism has not only extended the scope of the war but revealed its real meaning. Do you imagine that the Soviets, if victorious, would stop at our frontiers?" Assuming Britain of numerous military crises, Laval ended by appealing for unity and cooperation in building the new France.

This strong propaganda speech was followed by an Order of the Day, issued by Admiral Darlan to the Vichy forces, saying "Rely on me, as I rely on you, to follow the path of honour and defend the Empire under the high authority of the Marshal."

These political developments, the causes of an immediate increase in dissension, anti-Vichy and anti-German demonstrations, and sabotage in both zones, were received with anxiety in the Allied countries, and brought about a further split among Vichy officials abroad, some of whom joined the Free French.

An event of great significance to the Allied cause was the arrival in Unoccupied France on May 2, 1942, of General Henri Giraud, to attend the Franco-German talks at Moulins. Giraud, who had been a prisoner of war since May 30, 1940, had escaped from Konigstein Fortress in Saxony a week before (see page p. 3188). He was allowed full freedom of movement, the reason apparently being Vichy's hope of gaining his adherence to and active participation in their policy of collaboration with Germany.

Further talks took place in Moulins on May 11, in which Laval and Goering met to discuss current problems, among them that of speeding up the dispatch of French labour to Germany, in regard to which Laval had already commenced an intense propaganda drive for recruits, and for which numerous German recruiting bureaux had been set up in France. A gesture on Pétain's part, not without significance, was the release the previous day of 5000 "political prisoners."

Then came the British occupation of Diego Suarez, the naval base in Madagascar, on May 7, as a precaution against Japanese aggression. This move was strongly condemned by Pétain in a message to the Governor-General, M. Amet, on May 5, while Laval denied that Japan had attempted to gain control of the island. Similarly, Laval condemned the United States' precautionary action in Martinique—expressed in her note of May 10, in which she required "the immobilization of French warships and aircraft under American supervision", American control of wireless and telegraphic communications and mail censures, American control of commercial traffic and of persons travelling to and from the United States, French military and naval forces to be used for police duties, merchant ships at present immobilized to be put at American disposal, and gold and government funds to be frozen for the future use of the French nation. In a note Laval acceded to some of these demands and expressed...
France's willingness to negotiate through the Governor of the island, Admiral Georges Robert, regarding the other matters.

That Petain was little more than a figurehead in the new Cabinet—an opinion widely held abroad—received some confirmation on June 6, when Laval replaced M. Francois Valentin, Director-General of the Legion (which had so effect become little more than an auxiliary police instrument of the Vichy Government), by M. Raymond Lachal, one of his own most ardent supporters. Petain himself, speaking at a Legion dinner a few days later, gave

senates of workers at Vichy on June 14, declaring that in the interests of France he ardently desired and confidently expected a German victory, because France would become Communist otherwise, he reminded his audience that every French worker going to Germany would have a young German worker to fight against Communism on the eastern front.

On the second anniversary (June 17) of the Armistice Petain broadcast a message to his country in which he admitted the failure of his government to overcome hunger, want, discontent, and even anger among the people or to resign themselves to the downfall of their civilization. "I have been in power for two months," he said; "events have rarely been favourable to me. The Government finds itself confronted with new difficulties—British aggression in Madagascar and American intervention in the Antilles." Referring to Giraud's sensational escape from Germany, France's lack of raw materials, her great unemployment, he indicated that the only hope for the future of the country lay in sending French workers to the Reich.

During this decisive period of France's history discussion, unrest, and sabotage were wide everywhere, particularly after Laval's return to power. The outward and active expression of French hatred for the conquerors and the Vichy regime was countered here, as elsewhere, by pitiful measures of repression, by shootings and other reprisals, and by imposing new and petty laws and curfews designed to curtail even further the limited freedom of the masses. Executions were so numerous that only one or two instances can be mentioned here. On February 2, as a result of dynamite attacks on German army installations and the wounding of German soldiers in January, General Otto von Schamburg, the Military Governor of Paris, announced that 100 French youths—"Jews and Communists"—would be deported to Eastern Europe and that six others had already been shot. This was followed two days later by a decree by General von Stulpnagel imposing sentences of forced labour, imprisonment, fine, and even death for people refusing to deliver any goods for requisitioning which might be demanded.

A Free French report dated April 21, 1942, stated that it was believed 500 Frenchmen had been executed by Germany for taking part in a rising following the British Commando raid at St. Nazaire on March 35.

Among bomb 'outages,' which were numerous, most significant were those aimed at five local headquarters of Deat's Rassemblement National Populaire in Paris in early February, and similar attacks on the offices of Doriot's National People's Party at Cannes, Niort, Nantes, and Bourges in late June. Anti-Nazi and Anti-Vichy demonstrations were of frequent occurrence, as were also food riots, street battles and, especially, attacks on German soldiers. An indication is given by a statement published in Vichy that during 1941 the French police had 9,930 arrests and 12,773 searches, and that between July 1, 1941, and February 18, 1942, some 290 acts of sabotage had been detected.

RENAULT LORRIES DENIED TO THE GERMAN WAR MACHINE

The great Renault factories at Billancourt, near Paris, were bombed by the R.A.F. on the night of March 3, 1942, and immense damage was done to the shops where tanks, lorries and staff were being produced for the Nazis. A general view is given in p. 2121 (where in error it is stated that the attack was made in daylight). Above, wrecked workshops where lorries were made on the Le Seguin.

Photo, Free French Photographic Section.

further substance to this belief when he said: "Laval and I are now marching hand in hand... There are no more clouds between us...."

Nevertheless, while Petain was on the surface openly reconciled with Laval, the policy of Doriot's National People's (Fascist) Party was bringing him into open conflict with Laval, who stated on June 13 that he had forbidden Doriot to organize political rallies in Unoccupied France and to arm the special police of his National Party. "Doriot," he said, "wants to take the power for himself, but the power is the Government, and I am the Government...."

Further testimony of Laval's keen desire to obtain popular support for his anti-Bolshevism programme was forthcoming in a speech he made to repre-
PERSONALITIES OF CONQUERED FRANCE

As an aid to the understanding of the conflicting and tortuous policy of the Vichy Government (see Chapter 219) and the factors which culminated in the collapse in June 1940, the following character sketches are presented.

Jean François DARLAN
Born in 1881; just before the First Great War broke out he was the youngest senior officer in the French Navy. He took an active part in the war and served in various capacities, proud to do his bit. In 1926, when he was appointed to the Admiralty and began to meet political advancement. On September 14th, he became Commander of the French Fleet. After the French surrender he displayed a strong anti-British bias—though this might be explained by anxiety to make the best of the catastrophe for his own country.

In preserving his character it is necessary to bear in mind the peculiarities of French politics and the many changes in administration. He was a suitably despatched "Admiral of the Popular Front," and it was Blum who made him Naval Chief of Staff.

He represented the Admiralty in Pétain's "surveillance" Ministry of June 1940. In February he was advanced to Vice-Premier when Laval fell out of favour, but when Laval returned to power in April 1942 was displaced from political life—in compensation he received the appointment of C-in-C French Forces. In May he ordered Madagascar to resist the Allied invasion. It happened that Darlan was in North Africa when the forces of the United Nations landed (November 1942). Pétain ordered him to resist, but he soon came to terms with the Allied commander and later offered his collaboration. He was then Commandant of the French Legion, and the criticism which this arrangement provoked was dissipated only by the death of Darlan on Christmas Day, 1942, at the hands of an assassin. He was responsible for organizing the Vichy police system on Nazi lines, and supported Laval in the spurious exchange by which the French prisoners of war were to be repatriated in proportion to workers sent to the Wehrmacht.

Marcel DEAT
Returned from the First Great War as a captain, with pronounced anti-German views. He entered the École Normale Supérieure and espoused philosophy, with a bias towards German culture. Later he took up politics and, aided by Léon Blum, became a Socialist Deputy. In 1939, with others, he founded the Non-Socialist Party. This concert favored the reorganization of France on co-operative and fascist lines, and in 1940 was Order Authority, Nation. He was Minister for Air in 1938 when Hitler occupied the Rhineland, and resisted any military steps which might have led to war. His blunt partisanship became notorious during the Munich crisis and was expressed in 1939 in his articles written under the signature "Nous ne voulons pas de France.

His own party, the Assemblée Nationale Populaire, supported Laval. In his newspaper, "L'Événement," he advocated the Parti Unique, entrusting all other parties, of which he hoped to become leader, being the line of cleavage with the organization sponsored by Jacques Doriot, who stood out against absorption in a single national party.

Count Fernand de BRINON
A provocateur Pétain's representative in Paris on November 4, 1940, Otto Abetz, he had been playing the German game since 1936. An interview with Hitler in 1933 brought him to the public eye, and once after this he was advocating a pact between Britain, France, Germany, and Italy to give the Nazi a free hand in the East. He founded the Comité Franc-Aleman and frequently travelled to Germany, where he became a crony of Ribbentrop and was often received by Hitler, Goering and Hess. In 1938 his friend Laval used the Breton as an unofficial envoy to Berlin, where in turn he arranged the visit of Ribbentrop to Paris. Upon the outbreak of war he was arrested by the French authorities and released when the German entry into Paris released him.

Jacques DORIOT
Has been described as a typical reactionary, with a lust for power at any price. The son of a workman, he was a mechanic himself and for a time was a Communist, one of the founders of the French party. He became a Deputy, and was Mayor of St. Denis, in the Paris "Red belt," until in 1933, he wrote about his resignation. With a quick change he switched to the Right in 1934 founding the Parti Populaire Français (originally recruited among workmen) and founding the anti-communist jointviews (1939). After the Armistice Doriot's party amalgamated with the Fascist Pétainists and requested admission to the Government, but was rejected. In 1941 Doriot founded the French Anti-Bolshevik Legion. He claimed to be a man of the Right, and was often at odds with Laval and Deat and personally loyal to Pétain. As strong a collaborator as the others, he was used to training the establish- ment of a complete Nazi state in France.

General Marie Gustave GAMELIN
Born in 1872; to Frenchmen he was architect of the victory of the Marne in September 1914, under the direction of Marshal Joffre. In 1899 he became Chief of the French Army, replacing Ferdinand Foch, who, by the turn of the wheel, was to succeed him; when in May 1914 the armies were staggering under the German invasion. Gamelin was reputed to be a theorist rather than a leader. He became a defensive war. He was engulfed by Fascists and never fought against democracy, and of his remaining patriotism there was never any doubt. But it was during the period between 1936 and 1939, when he was at the helm, that French armament production dropped vertically. He had to idea of blitzkrieg warfare and neglected tank production. He shared the responsibility for the uncompleted Maginot defences from the sea to Montenil. Gamelin was among the soldiers and statesmen arraigned at Riom for the defeat of France, and in September 1940 he was detained in a fortress by Pétain's orders.

Pierre LAVAL
Born in 1869. After working his way through his legal studies in qualification he turned to politics and claimed to be a Socialist-Revolutionnaire, under which label he became a Deputy. An open opportunist during the war of 1914-18. In 1926 he transferred to the Right, and it seems that his pre-German activities date from this period. As Foreign Minister he was concerned in the Évian protocols by which he shut his eyes to Hitler's introduction of conscription. Later he was a party to the understanding which encouraged Münch to attack Abyssinia. In 1936, with Gamelin in office, Hitler occupied the Rhineland, a few weeks later the Popular Front Government was in power and Laval had left office for the moment. He came back in June 1940 as Vice-Premier in time to assist with the surrender of France.

The real Gaullist of France, he is thought to have manoeuvred the selection of Marshal Pétain as a figurehead, who would command the occupied areas. In December 1940 Laval overreached himself and was dismissed by the Marshal, but he reappeared in April 1942 as Chief of the Government, granting Darlan from that position. After this he became the real collaborator, working always to the advantage of the Marshal. With his own Marcel Déat he was shot at and wounded, on April 12, 1941, during a French Legion ceremony at Vichy.
CREATING A NEW DUTCH ARMY AND AIR FORCE

In addition to training establishments in Britain the Royal Netherlands Government had other centres in Canada and the United States. Top right, an Army camp at Stratford, Ontario, where Dutch nationals from all parts of North America were trained. Below, Dutch student-pilots at a U.S. Army base are inspected by their commander, Major-General L. H. van Oeyn (centre). They were here given basic and advanced instruction under a programme worked out by servants of the Netherlands East Indies Air Force in coordination with the U.S. Army Air Force. Another photograph of General van Oeyn is on page 216.

ROYAL NETHERLANDS NAVY AND MERCHANT MARINE

The Netherlands destroyer "Isaac Sweers" above, where an anti-aircraft gun crew is seen at practice with H.M. destroyers "Sikh", "Maori" and "Legion". engaged in strong Italian cruiser force in the Mediterranean in December 1941. One enemy cruiser was sunk, the other was hit ashore; an enemy M.T.B. was sunk and a torpedo-boat damaged. Six officers and men of the "Isaac Sweers" were awarded British decorations for their part in this gallant operation. Bottom left, in November 1941 a Dutch Maritime Court was set up in the Middlesex Guildhall, Westminster, to deal with offences committed in Netherlands ships at sea.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright; Pictorial Press; G.P.O.; Sport & General
Chapter 220

FREE BELGIUM AND HOLLAND, FIGHTING FRANCE, AND NORWAY

A counterpart to Chapters 218 and 219, the following pages tell the story of the progress made by the Free Governments in London, the French National Committee and the Danish Council, in the task of organizing for the liberation of oppressed Europe. Except for Fighting France, where the narrative ends with the opening of the United Nations' campaign for the recapture of North Africa, events are taken up to the end of 1942.

The Free Belgian Government in Britain was fortunate in having funds for prosecuting the war at the side of the United Nations, since a great part of its gold reserve had been saved from the Nazis. Some of this Belgian gold was of the utmost assistance to Britain. At the beginning of March 1941 the Chancellor of the Exchequer explained to M. Gutt (Belgian Minister of Finance) that Great Britain had lent herself white to pay for deliveries of war material from America. Some days might elapse before the Lease-Lend Bill was passed, and deliveries might be stopped meanwhile if Britain could not find gold to pay for them. So Belgium was asked to help by the loan of 3,000,000 ounces of gold, and within three days the requisite agreement was signed. The gold, said M. Gutt in a broadcast on April 12, 1942, had now been returned to the Belgian Government in Britain.

At the beginning of 1942 the 500,000 tons of Belgian merchant tonnage which came into the service of the United Nations had been reduced by nearly half, though a portion of this tonnage was made up by new construction.

War Effort of Free Belgium

More than 100 fishing vessels were converted to patrol vessels, balloon barrage boats and mineweepers, while most of the rest continued to ply their trade and bring supplies to British ports. In the Belgian section of the Royal Navy corvettes flying the national colours took their part in escorting convoys. The section at the end of 1941 numbered 14 officers and 250 other ranks. A training centre for Petty Officers and Engine Room Artificers was opened in August 1941. D. Genlykens, a cadet of the section, came first in the final examination of his class at the Royal Naval College in May 1942.

In the air offensive against the Nazis Belgian airmen fought side by side with British pilots. There were special Belgian squadrons, in some cases commanded by British leaders, and in others under Belgian officers. In November 1941 the Belgian Croix de Guerre was conferred upon Squadron-Leader Mils Buyle, R.A.F., for bravery and coolness while leading Belgian air regiments.

Gutt presented an historic standard to the new Air Force. The flag had originally been given to one of the Belgian air regiments by King Albert. After the capitulation of May 28, 1940, it had been brought to Britain by an air officer. In January 1942 Squadron-Leader Leroy Davy had been the first Allied officer in the R.A.F.V.R. to receive the command of an entirely British squadron. He led his aircraft in one of the first attacks on Dieppe (when also a Belgian formation was taken into battle by its own officer), and in the following September was promoted Wing-Commander.

The war effort of the Belgian Congo was a notable addition to the Allied cause. Under two agreements (January 21, 1941 and June 5, 1942) Britain agreed to take copper, cotton, copal, ground nuts and palm kernels. Over and above these commodities there were available tin, oil, tungsten ore, zinc, lead, manganese. At the same time as the second Purchase Agreement a military agreement also was signed with Britain.

The Dutch Merchant Marine contributed 2,500,000 tons to the United Nations' shipping pool, and some 20,000 seamen had come over to the Allies with the ships. Up to the end of June 1941 war losses had amounted to about 379,000 tons; the Merchant Marine had borne a share of the evacuation of Allied forces from Greece and Crete.

The Dutch Naval vessels took turn with those of the Allies in convoy and patrol duty, and Netherlands submarines sank Italian tankers and supply ships in the Mediterranean. The Netherlands Premier, Dr. G. S. Geerbrandy, in his New Year broadcast to occupied Holland on January 1, 1942, said that Queen Wilhelmina had appointed 290 distinctions to personnel of the Netherlands Navy and Merchant Marine during the year.

In the previous November Prince Bernhard had presented the Queen with a cheque for 5,500,000 guilders (raised by contributions of the Dutch
ARMOURED COLUMN OF THE BELGIAN CONGO FORCE

The small Congo Force Publique at the outbreak of war had been a constabulary rather than an army, but its units were strengthened and further equipped to take an important part in the recapture of Abyssinia, after a journey of 1,000 miles up the Congo river and another 700 overland to Juba. In May 1941 an extensive reorganization was carried out in readiness for further operations with the Allies.

Photo: Koninklijke

night action: one received the D.S.O., two the D.S.C., and three the D.S.M. The senior officer was awarded the O.B.E. Four airmen of the N.E.I. Army Air Force were awarded British decorations in July. Dutch and Indonesian airmen continued to escape from Java and Sumatra to Australia, whence they were sent on their way to America for training and organization. A contingent of troops evacuated from the N.E.I. arrived in August at the Dutch West Indian island of Curacao. (See p. 2128.)

In May 1942, two years after the German invasion of Holland, the status of the British and United States missions was raised to that of an Embassy. In the middle of June Queen Wilhelmina and the Foreign Minister, M. van Kleffens, reached Ottawa. After a short stay the Queen went to Lee, Massachusetts, to see Princess Juliana, and on the 29th President Roosevelt there paid her a visit. On August 6 the Queen addressed Congress at Washington. "No surrender," she said, was the motto of her people. "We are with you and the other United Nations to the last." On August 26 she arrived in London in time to attend at the Albert Hall a

BIRTHDAY GIFT TO A BRAVE QUEEN

By her brave and spirited leadership Queen Wilhelmina helped her subjects to face months of attack and adversity. To mark her first birthday Dutch people all over the world contributed 6,000,000 guilders for the purchase of a successor to the destroyer "Van Galen," which went down fighting during the German attack on Rotterdam (see pp. 1251 and 1252). Here Prince Bernhard of the Netherlands hands the cheque to Her Majesty.

Photo: "New York Times" Photo
LAUNCH OF U.S.S.
'IOWA'

On the morning of August 27, 1942, the great U.S. battleship "Iowa" slid down the ways in Brooklyn Navy Yard into the East River. This photograph was taken shortly before, while the final touches were being given for the ceremony. First of a class of six, she had been laid down in June 1940; she was 880 feet long overall, with a beam of 108 feet, and displaced 45,000 tons. She carried 2,000,000 with full load. Officially, she was credited with a potential speed of 35 knots, and, looking at her clean, graceful lines, one can well imagine that even this figure might be exceeded.

Her main armament was to be nine 16-inch guns of 50 calibre, with a secondary armament of twenty 5-inch of 38 calibre. Provision was made for four aircraft. Her sister ships were "New Jersey," "Missouri," "Wisconsin," "Illinois," and "Kentucky," some laid down in 1940 and the rest the following year. In magnitude even these giants were eclipsed by the five Montana class battleships under construction: displacement 35,000 tons (2,000 full load); length 949 feet and beam 126 feet; all were laid down in 1941.

Direct evidence photograph by
Douglas Heved
Men from the United States Naval Air Station of Manoche, in Hawaii, are placing Hawaiian garlands on the flag-decorated graves of comrades killed in the Japanese attack of six months before. In the background is Diamond Head. The graves were dug along the shore of the Pacific, in an extremely beautiful setting.

Direct aerial photograph by Associated Press

TRIBUTE TO THE AMERICAN HEROES OF PEARL HARBOUR, DECEMBER 7, 1941
demonstration in which Dutch people were celebrating her birthday. As 1942 opened Free French H.Q. in London were presented with the problem of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, 10 miles S. of Newfoundland. A force under Admiral Muselier had landed there on December 24, 1941, and seized the Governor, who had instituted what was described as a reign of terror, with reprisals against supporters of the Allies. Muselier's action raised diplomatic difficulties, and Vichy tried to bring pressure to bear through the United States Government. The seeds were sown of dissensions which later hindered agreement between pro-Ally Frenchmen in North Africa and de Gaulle's supporters.

Cordial relations with America were of paramount importance; and naturally the U.S. Government had to be persuaded that the Free French really represented Frenchmen and had a policy consonant with democratic principles. The French National Committee in London had declared its sympathy with the Washington Declaration by 26 countries (January 1, 1942). On March 2 the U.S. Government stated that it had recognized the authority of the Free French over French islands in the Pacific, and that America would cooperate for the defence of these territories. On April 4 it announced the establishment of a U.S. Commissary-General at Brazzaville—"in view of the importance of French Equatorial Africa in the united war effort."

On May 5 there came the British landings in Madagascar (see Chapter 225) to forestall a possible Japanese use of that territory. In the West Indian island of Martinique the efforts of the United States Government to come to agreement with Admiral Robert, the Vichy commander, had proved ineffectual; Robert had been willing to immobilize three French warships there, but not to hand over the considerable tonnage of merchant shipping in the harbours. On May 27 General de Gaulle said that the Martinique negotiations had raised the issue of the status of the Free French. He characterized the United States' view of the Free French movement as an entirely military one as "playing with words," and said it was impossible for the Free French to restrict themselves to "providing cannon-fodder and firing parties for war against the Axis." He wished to broaden the basis of the movement, to exclude no Frenchman who would work for France against the Axis.

A notable change was made in the title of the movement on July 11-
DE GAULLE'S VISIT TO FIGHTING FRENCH IN LIBYA

In September 1942, after a conference with the commanders in Syria, General de Gaulle went to Libya, where he decorated General Koenig. At top, with Generals Catroux and Humbert, he is seen at a parade of coloured troops. Lower photograph shows airmen of the Fighting French.

Photos: British Official; Crown Copyright; Commissariat National de l'Information

resulted in August when the validity of its passports was acknowledged by the Governments of the British Commonwealth, of the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., Belgium and the Netherlands, and of many Latin American countries. It was announced from Moscow on September 27 that the Soviet had agreed that the French National Committee was the only body entitled to organize the participation in the war of French citizens and to represent their interests.

The movement itself was reinforced by French leaders who from time to time made their way to Britain: Andre Philippe, former Deputy for Lyons, who was appointed National Commissioner for the Interior and for Labour; Charles Vallin, a former vice-president of the French Social Party (earlier the Croix de Feu). In October 1942 he was sent on a mission to the French troops on the Chad-Libyan border.

General de Gaulle's leadership was indefatigable in welding together the Fighting French and building up military forces to aid the Allies. On January 30, 1942, he declared in a broadcast that Free France and Russia were allies:

"Every German soldier killed or frozen in Russia, and every German gun, plane or tank destroyed on the Russian front gives France another chance to rise and conquer." The return of Pierre Laval to power in April called forth a striking broadcast from the Free French leader. The new Vichy Government, said de Gaulle, was just another stage in the game Hitler had started playing against France and the world in June 1940. At the end of April he called upon Frenchmen to make a nation-wide silent demonstration on May 1 against slavery, misery and starvation.

The General visited Syria in August and conferred with General Catroux. At Beirut he met Mr. Wendell Willkie. On the way to the Chad Territory he took the opportunity to see the Fighting French troops under General Larminat in the Western Desert and to decorate General Koenig, hero of Bir Hakeim (see Chapter 224), with the Cross of Liberation. At Brazzaville he saw Lord Swinton, British Minister of State for the West African Colonies. On September 25 General de Gaulle was back in London. Six weeks later (November 8) as the Americans were landing in Algeria, he sounded a clarion call to Frenchmen in North Africa to join the Allies. Next day (9th) General Henri Giraud arrived in Algiers to lead the French movement for liberation and to organize the Army to fight alongside the Allies. The political and
military events in North Africa are dealt with in another Chapter, but a short account of General Giraud's adventures belongs here.

The Germans announced on April 25, 1942, that Giraud had escaped from the prisoner-of-war camp at Koengstein, and they offered a reward of 100,000 Reichmarks for his capture (see illus., p. 216). By way of Switzerland he reached Vichy, whence came reports that he had signed a pledge of fidelity to Pétain but had refused to pledge himself not to take up arms against the Germans. When the time for the Allied operations against North Africa approached he had been brought across the Mediterranean in a British submarine.

Norway's chief contribution to the war effort of the United Nations was on the oceans. Over 1,000 merchant ships (4,000,000 tons gross) had come over to the Allies, with 30,000 seamen. In tankers and such craft Norway had owned one-fifth of the world tonnage, and this type of vessel proved particularly valuable. By the autumn of 1942 more than 300 Norwegian merchant ships had been lost by enemy action, but Norway was given a share of newly built vessels, and certain American ships were transferred to her. In December 1941 the "Kong Haakon VII," a cargo ship of 10,000 tons, was launched by the King himself at a Scottish shipyard, first of the replacements. (See illus., page 217.) The Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Norwegian Navy was Rear Admiral Elias Cornedissen (appointed in November 1941). By the end of 1942 that Navy comprised 35 warships—destroyers, submarines, corvettes, motor torpedo-boats and motor launches—and about 30 auxiliary vessels. The personnel numbered 400 officers, with about 4,500 petty officers and ratings (about 1,200 posted as gunners in Norwegian merchant ships). Norwegian warships operated with other Allied Naval units on escort and other duties. In the remarkable raids on Norwegian islands they transported troops to the scene, and one such combined operation was entirely a Norwegian affair. Destroyers of the Royal Norwegian Navy escorted troopships in the landings on North Africa (November 8, 1942).

Around the nucleus of some hundred Norwegians in Britain in the summer of 1940 a number of Norwegian Field Units were established, including infantry, New Army artillery and specialized branches such as parachute troops. They were trained with British units and also at a Norwegian Military College set up for the purpose. From this force went units to assist in the Commando raids mentioned above. Behind the scheme was the future plan of providing officers and N.C.O.s for the people's army to be levied when the work of liberation should be begun. At the head of the Norwegian Army was Major-General Johan Reischmann. A High Command was established in February 1942 with

NEW WARSHIP FOR FIGHTING FRENCH NAVY

In June 1942 Admiral Aubertin (note), who succeeded Adm. Muselier as C-in-C. Fighting French Navy, visited some of the ships of that growing fleet, and is here inspecting one recently handed over by the builders. The most striking photograph was taken in September, at the opening of a Naval training centre named "Bir Hacheim" in honour of the memorable stand by General Koeng's force. (See illus., page 217.)
Government from America in March 1940; these were delivered to the training centre and taken over by the eager airmen. As time went on there was a steady stream of other Norwegians. More aircraft were obtained, and the Air Force grew rapidly.

At the end of 1942 a squadron was operating from bases in Iceland, equipped with Northrop seaplanes. They escorted merchantmen, chased U-boats and did patrol work, besides ambulance flying. Fighter-squadrons operated from British bases and carried out raids on enemy-occupied territory in France. A Coastal Command unit, equipped with modern, long-range flying boats, took part in distant ocean patrols against enemy planes and submarines. For the sake of the training and experience a number of Norwegian pilots served in the Ferry Command, bringing bombers to Britain across the Atlantic.

Though Denmark remained neutral and was in friendly relations with Germany there were many Danes throughout the world who were only too willing to fight and work against the Nazis to free their country from German hegemony. In Britain there were the Free Danish Association and the Danish Council. On March 11, 1942, the British Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs stated that the British Government had recognized the Council. On this same occasion it was announced that that Government had decided to recognize Count Reventlow (Danish Minister in London) and Dr. Henrik Kauffman (Danish Minister in Washington) as continuing to be responsible for the protection of such Danish interests as were not under enemy control. Dr. Kauffman had been dismissed by the Copenhagen Government after he had agreed to place Greenland under the protection of the United States (April 11, 1941).

On January 2, 1942, Kauffman proclaimed his adherence to the principles of the United Nations' Declaration of January 1, an action in which he was supported by the Danish Council in London and by other Free Danish organizations. Count Reventlow had broken with the Copenhagen Government in December 1941. In the following March he was dismissed from his post because he had assumed the office of honorary president of the Free Danish Association of Britain. All officials in the diplomatic and consular service who had sided with the Count were dismissed at the same time.

The Chairman of the Danish Council was Mr. John Christensen Møller, a former Conservative leader and member of the Coalition Government. He had been forced out of office on October 3, 1940, and ejected from Parliament in the following January. He escaped with his wife and son to Sweden, and later visited the organizations of Free Danes in the United States and Canada.

FREE DANES CELEBRATE CONSTITUTION DAY

The ceremony was held on June 5, 1941, in the wrecked church of St. Clement Dane, in the Strand (destroyed by German bombs on the night of October 8, 1940). A new national flag was presented and dedicated, to replace the one destroyed by enemy action. Another photograph of the church is in page 1248.

Photo, Topical Press

Major-General Wilhelm Hansteen as C-in-C. All three arms—Navy, Army and Air Force—thus came under General Hansteen's supreme command.

In April 1941 the Royal Norwegian Army Air Force and the Naval Air Force were united under the command of Rear-Admiral Hjalmar Risser-Larsen, who was a seasoned airman as well as a naval officer. He had been an explorer in both the Arctic and the Antarctic, and his knowledge of these regions was a valuable asset. About 120 Norwegian aircraft had escaped to Britain after the disastrous campaign of April 1940. A training centre was established near Toronto in Canada and here a Norwegian Air Force was rebuilt. It happened that 100 modern aircraft had been ordered by the Norwegian

STANDARD OF FREE NORWAY

At a Scottish base, where Norwegian Army units train for the task of liberation, General Fleischner chats to the standard-bearer after inspecting the men. General Fleischner commanded the Norwegian forces at Narvik.

Photo, Photopress
Chapter 221

CANADA, SOUTH AFRICA AND NEW ZEALAND PREPARE FOR THE OFFENSIVE

This Chapter continues the war story of the Dominions during the first half of 1942. Australian events are dealt with in Chapter 221, covering the same period. Despite setbacks and disappointments it was a fruitful six months in which war production and organization were immensely improved ready for the coming switch to the offensive.

The British High Commissioner for Canada, Mr. Malcolm Macdonald, said on May 1, 1942, that already in Canada's Navy, Army and Air Force there were many more men than at any period during the war of 1914-18. Even so, Canada was intensifying its war effort and, over and above all this, plans were being prepared for a scheme of social security to meet conditions in the post-war world. The Dominion (population 11,300,000) was swarming with high expectations the moment when the Canadian Army in Britain, which was to be greatly reinforced toward the end of 1942, could form one of the sharpest and most powerful spearheads of an invasion of the Continent. Visiting Canada during the first six months of 1942, Lieutenant-General McNab, Commander-in-Chief of the Canadian Army in Britain, disclosed that such a form of military strategy was in prospect.

As had been the case from the outset of the war, the feature most emphasized among Canada's contributions to the British effort was her incomparable ability part in the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan. By May 1942, two years and four months after its inception, the plan was in full operation. Striking recognition of this achievement was reflected in the decision of those members of the United Nations with air training projects in operation on the North American Continent to hold a conference in Ottawa that month. The object was to discuss methods for coordinating the plan with the air training programmes of the United States of America and of others among the United Nations. During the January-June period men flowed into the Canadian armed forces at a steady rate, but an interesting feature of the figures was the planned drop in recruitment for the Air Force. Enlistment figures published under the authority of the Hon. J. T. Thompson, Minister of National War Services, and issued in May, showed that intakes to the end of 1941, besides the programme for the current year, were those given in the table (foot of first column).

The chief task of the Royal Canadian Air Force was the administration of the Air Training Plan. The United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada cooperated in this enterprise, but essentially it was Canadian: Canada supplied more than 80 per cent of the man-power, and paid 400 million of Canadian dollars out of a total of 900 million dollars which the plan was costing. Apart from this the operational strength of the Air Force was rapidly increased. It was estimated that expenditures for home war establishment in 1942-43 would be about 315 million Canadian dollars—compared with 1938-40, over 28 million dollars; 1940-41, over 50 million dollars; 1941-42, about 115 million dollars. In addition to estimates for the current fiscal year, long-range commitments of 120 million dollars were made for home defense.

So far as the Navy was concerned its personnel, in July 1942, totalled more than 30,000; more than 6,000 young Canadians were on the waiting lists of 16 training establishments across Canada. During the period January-June, 1942, the Army underwent expansion and reorganization. Its current programme called for expenditures of 1,000,000,000 Canadian dollars. In July 1942 the active army numbered more than 320,000, a large percentage being overseas. The Royal Canadian Air Force had a personnel exceeding 115,000—exclusive of airmen of other nations attached to the Air Training Plan; and at the same time there were 22 R.C.A.F. squadrons overseas. The majority were in Britain,

OTTAWA CONFERENCE ON AIR TRAINING

A conference of the United Nations opened on May 18, 1942, and was attended by representatives of the Allied Powers having a direct interest in the Commonwealth Air Training Scheme. Here are representatives of the ASCD Powers: left to right, Major-General Barton K. Yount, U.S. Commanding General of the Flying Training School; Captain Harold H. Bake, British Under-Secretary for Air; Major-General T. R. Shaw, Commander Canadian Air Forces in the U.S.A.; Major-General L. H. van Oyen, Netherlands East Indies Army.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright.
CANADA BUILT AND MANNED SCORES OF CORVETTES

A direct answer to the U-boat menace, the corvette was a small, sturdy and speedy vessel with formidable armament—able to be built in considerable quantity in a short time. (See illus., p. 1763 and also that facing p. 2036.) Above, at a Canadian west coast shipyard, a corvette is being launched sideways into the Navy basin.

Although one was in the Far East and another in the near East, up to March 12 a total of 1,857 Canadians had been killed, 466 were missing, and 1,817 had been taken prisoner.

In Australia, an industrial revolution had resulted from the creation of war industries in Canada since 1939. Under the supervision of the Department of Munitions and Supply, war industries were built up in all parts of the country. More than 600,000 Canadians were employed directly or indirectly because of this industrial expansion, and it was expected that by the end of 1942 another 100,000 workers would have been brought in.

Between the end of 1939 and March 1942 orders valued at more than 3,447,000,000 Canadian dollars had been placed for war equipment and supplies on behalf of the United Kingdom and Canadian Governments and those of other countries. Of this sum, 2,347,000,000 dollars represented an order placed on Canada's account.

The aircraft industry alone, in July 1942, employed about 50,000 persons where, in pre-war days, it had given work to a mere 1,000. The ship-building industry, working on a 250,000,000 dollar programme, employed directly and indirectly about 60,000; chemicals and explosives, over 45,000; tanks and mechanical transport, about 67,000 directly and indirectly.

All this costly expenditure on war involved a lowering of the standard of living. In order to meet the war bill (and to secure the highest revenue in Canada's history) taxation was increased sharply on incomes and on many forms of goods and services; also entirely new taxes were imposed. It was evident in June 1942 that income tax and national defence taxes, till then raised separately, would be combined with a compulsory savings deduction and taken from salaries and wages, or would be collected by means of compulsory instalments.

WOMEN INSPECTORS IN A QUEBEC SHELL FACTORY

Taken in May 1942, this photograph shows a batch of shiny 7.5-in. shells ready for the final gauging before delivery. Women trained under Canada's War Emergency Programme proved skilled and steady workers. A year later nearly a quarter of a million women were directly or indirectly employed in war industries.

Photo, Canadian official.
established. As a result, he offered a $1,000,000,000 ($225,000,000) gift to
the British Government to cover all
munitions and food supplies forwarded
to the country. He estimated this
sum would provide for all British
purchases in Canada, until early 1943. Of
the existing debt of Britain to Canada
for past shipments, the Prime
Minister said it stood at $700,000,000, adding
that the new arrangement would convert
this amount into an interest-free loan
from Canada to Britain, to be reduced
during the war by the proceeds of any
sales made outside the United Kingdom
of Canadian securities then held there,
and also by the proceeds of redemptions
of Canadian securities held in the United
Kingdom falling due during the war.
The appropriate interest rate on the
new loan would be decided after the
war. Meantime, the Canadian
Government would buy outright all remaining
Dominion and Canadian National Rail-
way Securities held in Britain, amounting
to $295,000,000. The idea behind
the new financial deal was to relieve
Britain of anxiety regarding Canadian
sources of supply and to prevent a huge
war debt piling up which might cause
misunderstanding after the war.

An exchange of consular representa-
tives with Russia was announced on
February 5. On the 27th Mr. T. V.
Soong, accompanied by Mme. Soong and
the Chinese Military Mission, headed by four
Major-Generals, arrived in Canada for consulta-
tion with Mr. MacKenzie King. Dr. Lin
Sha-shun, the first Chinese Minister to
Canada, presenting his letter of credential
to the Governor-General, said the
decision to exchange diplomatic missions
was timely, and sprang from a desire to
promote the cooperation between Canada
and China which was already clear
enough. General Sikorski, the Polish
Prime Minister, accompanied by four
Army and Air officers, arrived at Montreal
on March 22 en route to Washington
for conferences with President Roosevelt,
after which he was to go to Ottawa to meet Mr. MacKenzie King. It was
announced on May 20 that the
Government had requested that Vichy
consulates and agencies in Canada be closed.

In March Nazi submarines were
operating in Canadian waters, and on the
17th a freighter was torpedoed in the
Gulf of St. Lawrence. An indication
of Canada's attitude to the struggle in
the west Pacific was given by the
Prime Minister on March 25. Announc-
ing that the Pacific Forum was to be
shifted to Washington, he said no
Canadian troops were to be sent to
Australia. The Government had re-
jected proposals to dispatch an expedi-
tionary force to Australia because of
commitments to send troops to Britain.

A spotlight was thrown on Canada's
part in the naval war by the arrival in
Ottawa on April 24 of Admiral of the
Fleet Sir Dudley Pound, the First Sea
Lord, and Admiral Sir Charles Little,
who went from Washington by air to
confer with officials of the Royal Cana-
dian Navy.

On May 11 Mr. MacKenzie King
introduced to Parliament the Bill to
remove from Canadian law the bar to
conscription for overseas service, and
announced that one of his Cabinet
members, Mr. F. J. A. Cardin, of
Quebec, had resigned in protest. The
Cabinet split was the first faced by Mr.
King in his long career. The Legislative
Assembly in Quebec, on May 21,
adopted by 61 votes to seven a resolu-
tion expressing the desire that the
Federal Government should retain its
voluntary enlistment policy and not
impose conscription for overseas service,
but also reiterating support for the best war
effort possible. The Norwegian Prime
Minister, Dr. Nygaardsvold, arrived in
Ottawa on June 27 to confer with the
Premier. 40 years earlier Dr. Nygaardsvold had helped to build newspapers in
Canada. Another notable visitor was
the King of the Hellenes, who arrived
in Montreal on June 26 on his way to
Ottawa.

A rationing system for tea and coffee
and the reduction of the existing sugar
tations were announced by the War-
time Price's Trade Board, on May 27.
One of the most vital links in estab-
lishing the security of the North
American Continent since the com-
pletion of the Panama Canal was
created by the opening of the Alaskan
motor highway, 1,671
miles long. War supplies had been
rolling over the highway in October
1911, but it was not until early in 1942
that the highway began to take some
of the strain off shipping needed for
other battle-fronts. The highway
bridged a big gap in the United States
defence system. Little of it was con-
crete or macadam; mostly it was built
of earth or crushed stone. For the
most part it ran well behind the coast-line,
and was the first interior line of com-
munication from the farms, factories
and oil refineries of the mid-Continent
to the United States' most exposed
front—the North Pacific and Alaskan
sector. In its peacetime potentialities
the highway opened up a new era
for Canada.

New dangers and responsibilities were
thrust upon South Africa in 1942
by the war in the Far East. Even so,
members of Parliament, like the South
African people themselves, were fortified
when grappling with new burdens by
the knowledge that in Libya, as earlier
in Abyssinia, South Africans had
again shown their mettle. In their
splendid stand at Sidi Rezegh they had fought against massed tanks till their ammunition gave out. Their success at Bardia was in the nature of an average victory. Whether of Afrikaans or English speech the volunteers from South Africa, by their exploits in the air, on the land and at sea, showed themselves the equals of the men of Delville Wood and of the Boer War. A great many of the armoured cars with which South Africans harassed the Germans’ retreat were made in South African workshops, just as were the ammunition and the explosives and other war materials which their sappers handled with such skill at Bardsia.

Most of the Second South African Division was lost in Tobruk (June 21), but in a message to the British Government (made public on the 23rd), General Smuts said:

Spirit
of
South Africa

“... The spirit of South Africa matches that of its men at the front, and no setbacks or losses will affect our unalterable resolve to fight till final victory is won.” Broadcasting

from Pretoria on June 19—eve of United Nations’ Day—General Smuts had indicated the sort of new world that South Africa envisaged: “What the infant League of Nations failed to achieve,” he declared, “the United Nations will attempt, and will rebuild on deeper and surer foundations. We hope to build a union which no Hitler of the future, and not even the nation itself, shall venture to challenge again.” On June 27 he made a stirring recruiting appeal to the young manhood of South Africa, saying that the Libyan losses would be more than made up. (The total European population of the Union of South Africa at May 6, 1941, was 1,492,185, according to the final census figures. Of this number, 1,109,289 were males and 1,382,896 females.)

All that the treachery of Japan achieved by confronting South Africa with a new and direct menace was a strengthening of the determination of South Africa’s people. One of the greatest shocks which the Opposition received, in fact, was the threat to the life of the Union presented by Japan’s assault on British and American territory. Nationalist leaders—those who believed it a matter of indifference to South Africa, which won the war in Europe, and therefore who only desired a German victory—had for a long time looked upon the possibility of Japan controlling the Indian Ocean as one of the gravest challenges to White supremacy in the Union. As observers were quick to point out, the existence in which the Nationalists took refuge from their dilemma did not raise their prestige. Not surprisingly, neither did it raise the quarrels of a domestic nature, which seemed to be as ineradicable as they were chronic.

Speaking at Durban on June 4, General Smuts said Japan was not only a danger to America, Britain, the Netherlands East Indies and Australia, but as much a danger to South Africa. Military authorities were directing attention away from the front up north to the other possible front—the sea-front of the Union. They stressed the obvious fact that warfare in the Western Desert was entirely between armed forces, no civilian to realize that the Cape route was now second in importance only to the North Atlantic routes. It served North Africa, carrying munitions and supplies to our fighting forces in the Western Desert. It took American and British aid to Russia through Iran, and was the very lifeline of supply to Allied possessions in the Far East. Along the same route came oil from Iran and the Dutch East Indies; raw materials from India, and foodstuffs from Australia and New Zealand. Moreover, no ship could travel from Britain or America to the Middle or Far East without stopping at some South African port for revictualling and re-fuelling.

It was natural that the Japanese should look jealously at this Cape route, because their dreams of domination in the Far East could become reality only if that route was cut. To cut this life-line Japan would have either to seize South Africa or to shatter the ports beyond hope of repair. To take and to hold South Africa Japan would have to seize Madagascar, to concentrate vast forces there, and to stage a full-scale invasion which would require a large fleet of transports and powerful naval squadrons—which, at the end of June 1942, she could not afford to detach from her Pacific gamble. (Durban became the Allies’ most important naval base in the Indian Ocean after the loss of Singapore. Besides standing at the cross-roads of British and American supply routes Durban had a dry dock capable of taking large warships, thus providing an essential service without which a fleet could not operate efficiently.)

Local defence in South Africa was organized on lines similar to those in Australia and New Zealand. The Coast Defence System, apart from Air Defence, consisted mainly of shore-based artillery assisted by a sea-examination service. The spotting of approaching ships was done from the shore by signal stations manned by the Seaward Defence Forces, and guns were immediately trained on all approaching ships (including fishing boats) until they were properly identified. In addition, interception patrols, anti-submarine patrols, and long-distance reconnaissance flights were continuously undertaken by coastal aircraft of the South African Air Force.

South Africa’s peacetime economy was in many important respects ill-adapted for rapid conversion to war production, but she set to work with a will. At the end of June 1942 she was turning out in considerable quantities guns, shells, bombs, armoured cars, and other munitions and equipments of war.
WITH THE TRANSVAAL SCOTTISH IN LIBYA

Top, Field-Marshal Smuts addressing officers and men of the Transvaal Scottish Battalion during a visit to the Middle East in May 1942. The other two photographs show men of the same regiment in the final stage of the battle for Sollum earlier in the year: below, a party clearing houses where enemy troops were still holding out; right, a Colonel and his Adjutant watch operations from the barracks in Sollum, taken on January 12.

(Photographs: British Official. Owner Copyright: South African Official)
Moreover, her value as an arsenal was to be measured not only by the volume of output but by her geographical proximity to the Middle Eastern theatre of war. South Africa's productive achievements were attained in spite of a very large section of the community which was bitterly opposed to the war effort. Political considerations underlay many South African moves. Nevertheless, food and clothing restrictions were bringing home the urgent necessity of conserving every possible transport space for war materials for the fighting forces in North and East Africa. Wartime measures which gave a homely reminder to civilians in city and country areas from which the sound and fury of battle were far removed included the issue of smaller postage stamps. Another was the fact that because of lack of paper newspapers gave up reviewing books and publishing original articles. Shops very rarely wrapped up purchases. Menus at hotels were compulsorily cut down. Corndusts and similar American products became unobtainable because they were no longer imported. The Union Budget, presented on February 29, involved new taxation amounting to £2,000,000.

General Smuts epitomized South Africa's main contribution to the war effort when he said that although South Africa had sent only two divisions to Egypt, the South African war effort was very much greater than that military effort implied. South Africa was the workshop of the Middle East and contributed largely towards its air power.

Diplomatic relations with Vichy were broken off on April 23. This meant that Canada and Eire were the only countries in the British Commonwealth maintaining relations with the Vichy Government.

General Smuts' Note included the sentence: "We do not cease to cherish a firm faith in the resurrection of France, and we shall continue to labour and fight for the day when France will once more resume her proud place in the world and her proper role among the champions of the rights of man."

Anti-British broadcasts from radio Madagascar were still being given; but it was a surprise when General Smuts, announced in Pretoria on May 29 that South African forces were operating with the British troops in Madagascar.

Some account will now be given of the opposition to General Smuts. The National movement was very strong, and perhaps the greatest influence was exerted by the Herenigde Party, which wanted a republic. Other strong influences were the Afrikaaner Party, the Pirow Group, and the Ossewabrandwag.

On January 12, 1934, Dr. Malan gave notice that he would move that:

**In view of the serious crisis in which our country is involved through participation in**
A fascinating feature of this small two-island Dominion, lying more than 12,000 miles from the Mother Country, concerns its key statistic. For example, its population is 1,536,000; the number of men of military age, 340,000. Yet, after almost two years of war (by June 1942) the mobilization of men and women for national service was:

- **Active service overseas and in training**: 80,000
- **Home Defence not permanently mobilized [Home Guard, Territorials, and National Military Reserve]**: 188,000
- **Civil Defence units (Emergency Precautions Scheme and Women’s War Servicemen Auxiliary)**: 34,000

**Total**: 318,000

The New Zealand Expeditionary Force, in January-June, 1942, consisted of the Division in the Middle East and garrisons in Fiji and elsewhere. There were also special units, such as the Forestry Company, the Railway Survey, Construction and Operating Companies, while the NZEF was to be strengthened by an Army Tank Brigade, which was to commence training in New Zealand. The New Zealand Expeditionary Force, in January-June, 1942, consisted of the Division in the Middle East and garrisons in Fiji and elsewhere. There were also special units, such as the Forestry Company, the Railway Survey, Construction and Operating Companies, while the NZEF was to be strengthened by an Army Tank Brigade, which was to commence training in New Zealand. In General Wavell’s offensive in Libya, the transport arrangements had been largely entrusted to New Zealand units, and the efficiency of supply columns contributed materially to the success of the campaign. The Long Range Desert Group comprised specially picked New Zealanders who penetrated far and wide through the deserts of Southern Libya and cooperated with the Free French from Chad Territory. A New Zealand Railway Survey Company operated in Eritrea, and a detachment of New Zealand railwaymen, worthily represented the Dominion in besieged Tobruk. But up to June 1942, the most important contribution of the men of the NZEF had been made in Greece and Crete.

The Maori Battalion had played a most gallant and distinguished part in both these campaigns. The Government decided on March 1 to form a Maori Battalion for home defense. Recruiting among Maoris was entirely voluntary, and by June 1942, 4711 Maoris had enlisted—about 33 per cent of the total Maori population.

On September 1, 1941, His Majesty the King had accorded the distinction of the name “Royal New Zealand Navy” to the naval forces of the Dominion. New Zealanders in naval service, in New Zealand and elsewhere, numbered over 4,000, more than five times as many as at the outbreak of war. Nearly 2,000 recruits awaited entry into the Navy, H.M.N.Z.S. “Tamaki”—the modern training establishment set up in 1941—turned out 600 naval recruits a year.
NEW ZEALAND BUILDS HER OWN MINESWEEPERS

Composite steel-and-timer craft were built for the dangerous task of clearing navigation channels of magnetic mines. Two are seen under construction at Auckland, New Zealand. Being mainly of wood, the hull was less susceptible to the mines than that of a steel ship. (See also illus. page 2268.)

Photo, British Official - Crown Copyright

The workshops of the New Zealand Naval Base were the most up-to-date in the Southern Hemisphere. Nearly 1,000 New Zealanders served in the Royal Navy in many places where it operated. Even in 1942 some were in command of minesweepers in the English Channel. Over 400 were in the Fleet Air Arm. In the Merchant Navy hundreds of New Zealanders served rendering another valuable service, and they shared fully dangers and hazards of the Battle of the Atlantic and the enemy raiders lurking in every ocean.

Mr. Walter Nash (first Minister to the United States), when he arrived in Washington on January 31, 1942, suggested to the Press that unified war command for the entire Pacific area should be established under an American Naval officer; that a Pacific War Council, sitting in Washington, should deal with the political problems of the United Nations whose possessions border the Pacific—the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, China and the Netherlands. On February 16, the arrival in Wellington of a vanguard of a United States naval force, and the landing of American reinforcements at stations along the route from Pearl Harbour, was announced. Vice-Admiral H. F. Leary, of the United States Navy, the new C-in-C of the combined naval forces in the Australian and New Zealand area, it was announced on February 12, was losing no time in completing his plans for coordinating the resources under his command. He discussed defence problems with the Prime Minister. On April 23 it was stated that Rear-Admiral Robert Gormanley, chief of the new United States-New Zealand Command, would be under the orders of Rear-Admiral Chester V. Nimitz, C-in-C United States Pacific Fleet.

New Zealanders, at the end of June 1942, were found in every sphere where the Royal Air Force operated, and had taken part in every notable engagement.

A New Zealander commanded the wing of the R.A.F. in Russia. In Britain, there was a separate New Zealand Bomber Squadron which operated from the earliest days of the war. A Fighter Squadron and a Torpedo Bomber Squadron were also entirely composed of New Zealanders. The Fighter Squadron manned Spitfires purchased by public subscriptions in New Zealand. The Royal New Zealand Air Force then also maintained flights of aircraft in the Pacific Islands. More than 150 awards and honours had been bestowed upon New Zealand airmen (including the Victoria Cross on Sergeant-pilot Ward, of Wanganui). Over 4,500 New Zealand airmen had gone overseas, including 500 who were in the Royal Air Force when the war broke out. New Zealand's output under the Empire Training Scheme was at full flood and was to provide annually 5,000 airmen. Air Commodore Goddard, Chief of Air Staff, surveying New Zealand's air strength in June, said that since December the number of New Zealand's air squadrons had increased seven times, enabling 10 times the weight of bombs to be carried and 16 times as many guns.

Pre-war preparations had enabled New Zealand to take the Empire Air Scheme in its stride. New Zealand was the first Empire country to establish a pre-entry educational scheme to fit civilians for entry into the Air Force. There was also the Air Training Corps to give preliminary air education to youths of...

GOVERNOR-GENERAL AT AERODROME WORKSHOPS

New Zealand's Governor-General was Marshal of the R.A.F. Sir Cyril Newall, who had been Chief of the Air Staff from September 1937 to October 1940. Here he is inspecting the workshops at a Service aerodrome in New Zealand.

Photo, South & General
R.N.Z.A.F. INSTRUMENT FITTERS
As in Britain, the W.A.A.F. of New Zealand filled many non-flying posts in the Air Force and released men for other duties. Two women of the instrument section are seen at work on a bomber at a New Zealand airfield.

16½ to 18 years of age. From the outbreak of war up to June 1942, 33,000 men applied to join the Air Force. The total number of New Zealanders in the Air Force was over 15,000.

Supported by American land forces, New Zealand could rely for Home Defence on the Navy in New Zealand waters, the Royal New Zealand Air Force, members of the New Zealand Expeditionary Force in camp, the Territorials, the National Military Reserve, and the Home Guard—a total of over 160,000 men. There were 80,000 people in Emergency Precautions Organizations distributed throughout the country. Organization followed closely on the lines of the A.R.P. in the United Kingdom.

Conscription in New Zealand applied to wealth as well as to man-power. Conscription of wealth took the form of heavy taxation for the rich—up to 17s. 6d. in the pound for the highest incomes. Wartime excess profits were taxed at 50 per cent, after the other taxes had been levied. Those who did not contribute to the War Loan in 1940 according to their means were compelled to do so. This loan carried no interest for three years, and bore 2½ per cent thereafter. The Govern-

ment had power to take over overseas assets held by private persons; it controlled the purpose for which capital might be used, and it might take complete control of productive resources. Conscription of men had been adopted in July 1940, even though volunteering was in full flood. New Zealand's total mobilization for defence against the Japanese was announced by the Prime Minister on March 15, when he said the War Cabinet had decided to extend the use of the country's man-power into the ranks of older men; also to enlist women for war work; the new degree extended registration to include the 16-18 age classes.

Control of industrial man-power was provided for in Regulations announced by the Prime Minister, Mr. Fraser, on January 13, 1942. All the clothing and footwear of the New Zealand soldiers, sailors, and airmen was made in New Zealand factories. Besides meeting the needs of the New Zealand Expeditionary Forces, 100,000 uniforms were being sent to Great Britain, large quantities to India, and thousands of blankets to Greece. Workers were bridging the gap caused by the withdrawal of the Armed Forces of 86,000 men from civil production. Over 11,000 people were directly employed making munitions and military supplies. When war broke out New Zealand industry had not been prepared for munitions production, but at the end of two years a remarkable development had taken place, and further comprehensive plans were underway to make New Zealand as self-reliant as possible in munitions. Railway workshops had been adapted for munitions production and were working in closest cooperation with private workshops as one unit under the direction of the Controller of Munitions.

The total cost in 2½ years of war was £104,000,000, compared with £23,000,000 in the first 2½ years of the war 1914-18. This sum of £104,000,000 meant £63 for every man, woman, and child in New Zealand, or £161 for every breadwinner.

The policy of the Government was to pay for the war as it went on, first by taxation and secondly by borrowing the savings of the people in New Zealand. Overseas borrowing was kept at the lowest possible level. Farmers' produce was bought by the Government, whether it could be shipped or not. Wage-earners of below £5 a week were helped by extended family allowances—i.e., a week for every child. By June 1942 a range of 38 items of food, clothing, footwear, fuel, light, and public utilities had been selected for price stabilization.

New Zealand's £15,000,000 Liberty Loan opened on May 5 with interest of 2½-3 per cent. Full subscription was sought within 28 days and the loan marked the country's war indebtedness up to £23,000,000 within New Zealand, plus any additional borrowings from Britain for the needs of her forces abroad. On June 3 the Prime Minister declared the loan closed, over-subscribed by £2,13,510—the largest single sum raised as a loan in New Zealand.

A War Administration, it was stated on June 24, was being formed, consisting of seven Labour Ministers and six members of the Opposition. The life of Parliament was extended until 12 months after the duration of the war.

NEW ZEALAND'S HOME GUARD IN TRAINING
Out of the Dominion's Home Defence Force not permanently mobilized (see table in page 2301), amounting to about 138,000 men, approximately 100,000 were Home Guards. This force, by a population of only 1,290,000 was paralleled by the larger for Civil Defence services, which amounted to 95,000.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright

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Chapter 222

POLITICAL TRENDS IN THE NEAR AND MIDDLE EAST

Covering the period January to June 1942, this chapter reviews political and domestic events in the regions mentioned. The author, Mr. Kenneth Williams, has travelled extensively in the Middle East and, until November 1942, was Press Officer for the Colonial and Dominions Offices. He is a Member of the Council of the Royal Central Asian Society.

The year 1942 opened with the Middle East in uncertain mood. In two of its regions, Iraq and Syria, there had been previous years of warfare, with the stress and unrest that fighting induces; in another, Persia, the people, as in the war of 1914-18, had had British and Russian troops occupying their soil. Such developments were not taken for granted, for the Middle East had a precarious position and the Allied armies in the Middle East, and to the operation of such organisations as the United Kingdom Commercial Corporation and its subsidiary, the Middle East Supply Centre.

It is convenient to record the development of the Middle Eastern Treaty of 1937, which provided for the exchange of troops between Russia and Turkey. This treaty was signed on January 29, (its text is printed on page 2107.) This document made unmistakably clear the intention of the Allies to respect Persia's sovereignty and independence, but, though it was first welcomed by the educated classes in Persia, the lower classes, short of food and attributing that shortage to the Allied "invasion," were suspicious and resentful. Then, too,
though the Persian Government itself
was ready to act up to its obligations,
the Majlis or Parliament (an indolent
body dating from the time of the ex-
Shah, Riaz Pahlevi) took no trouble,
to say the least, to expend the benefits
which would accrue to the Persian
people from the Treaty. However,
step by step, the Teheran Government
went in the right direction. After a
reorganization of the Government in
March, by which M. Soheyli displaced
Feraoughi as Prime Minister, relations
with Japan were broken off; the
Japanese Legation disappeared, via
Russia, from Teheran, and other pro-
Axis elements in the country were
rounded up.

The Persian Government, moreover,taken by surprise—as was the British
Government—by the sudden arrival
in April of thousands of Polish refugees
accompanying Polish troops from
Russia, acted most helpfully, giving
these refugees accommodation and
medical aid. It may be that Persians
listened to tales of Russia which con-
ﬁrmed their own, historic attitude to-
towards their northern neighbour; in any
case there were perceptible at this time
two bodies of thought on the Anglo-
Soviet-Persian Treaty—one stipulating
that Persia depended for her sovereignty
on Anglo-Russian rivalry; the other
hauling its hope for the future on the
Atlantic Charter and professing that
Russia would not have a free hand in
Europe after the war. The fact that
American support for this Treaty was
promptly forthcoming had a reassuring
effect. Another tonic in the right direc-
tion was provided by the visit to Teheran
of the Duke of Gloucester, who went
thither from Iraq. This royal visit was a
tremendous success: officials and popu-
lace were delighted, and the young Shah
showed his pleasure by driving H.R.H. back to Teheran, after a tour into the countryside, in his own racing car.

The most visible development in Persia concerned the opening up of the improvement of supply routes through it to Russia. Of these routes the most important was the north to south railway; a fine feat of engineering upon the completion of which the ex-Shah had successfully set his heart. But what was adequate for Persian needs in pre-war days—a single-line track and a passenger speed of twenty miles an hour—was far from meeting the needs of the war situation. British, American and Russian engineers, employing Persian labour, at once got to work. Rolling-stock, which, seeing that the gauge of the railway was standard, could therefore be provided neither from Russia nor India, was greatly increased from countries such as Great Britain and Australia; new sidings were built; better facilities at ports at either end of the railway were arranged.

For instance, the southern port of Bandar-Shahpur was improved, but there were limitations to such improvement. So goods were shipped up the Karun river, which runs into the Shatt-al-Arab at Khorrsmalah, whence a new railway was built to Ahwar to Ahwaz, a town on the main railway. But this did not suffice. The port of Bushire, the water of which is so shallow that goods have to be unloaded by lighters five miles offshore, was used. Cargo was taken from Bushire by lorries across the Zagros mountains and thence to Teheran. This trek took five days, and the U.K.C.C. soon put on a fleet of 250 lorries for the route. Another port, Bandar Abbas, whence the road to Teheran goes via Kerman, was extensively utilized.

Nor was the existing situation at Bandar Shah, the other terminal of the railway on the Caspian, at all adequate. There the sea had receded since the railway was originally built, with the result that Russian engineers had to make a mile-long jetty. There was also a lack of steamer services to Baku, across the Caspian. A partial way out of this difficulty was found by joining the Trans-Persian railway to Tabriz, which itself had rail connexion with Baku. This link had before the war been partly completed, as far as Kazvin; it was extended now through Zanjan to Tabriz.

One of the most interesting transport developments did not concern goods brought to Persia by sea. During the war of 1914—18 a railway had been built from Indian Baluchistan to the border of Persia, at Dzudzulan (now called Zikri). The Persians did not like the intrusion into their territory, and after the war the line was left derelict and was even torn up in places. Early in 1943 it was reconditioned, and a route through wild country, opened up by 5,000 Indian labourers, was made for lorries to Meshed and then to Firuzie on the Russian frontier.

For yet another route to Russia, the services of the Iraq railways were called upon. Supplies landed at the head of the Persian Gulf went by rail to Bagdad, and thence to Kirkuk and to Khanaqin by the Persian frontier. From Khanaqin they were taken 600 miles to Tabriz in lorries, again provided by the U.K.C.C., collaborating with a Russian organization of a similar nature. One last alternative route went from Arbil, in northern Iraq, via the famous Rowanduz gorge to Tabriz.

In general the situation in Persia, while no longer positively dangerous, as it might have been in 1941, could not be said to be satisfactory in the first half of 1942. Despite the excellent behaviour of both British and Russian troops the people did not like the garrisoning which the Allies obtained through the Treaty. The right to use Persian communications
SERGEANT QUENTIN SMYTHE, SOUTH AFRICA'S FIRST V.C.

He is seen raised aloft by his comrades of the Royal Natal Carabiniers just after Maj.-Gen. Dan Pieters (G.C.M.G. for S.A. Division) had pinned the V.C. ribbon on his tunic. In an attack at Almar, Hama, on June 5, 1942, his unit was severely wounded and Smythe, though suffering himself from a wound in the forehead, took command. He stalked and destroyed an enemy machine-gun nest, then he dealt with an anti-tank position unopposed; finally he executed a successful withdrawal.

Photo: Airport de Genval
MINESWEEPERS OF THE ROYAL NEW ZEALAND NAVY AT WORK

The distinction of the name Royal New Zealand Navy was accorded to the Dominion’s sea forces in September 1942. Besides the 4,000 New Zealanders in its service and nearly as many recruits awaiting entry, about 1,000 were serving in the Royal Navy in other spheres of war. In 1943 some were commanding minesweepers at work in the English Channel, while 400 served in the Fleet Air Arm. (See also illus., p. 2202.)

Photo: Sport & General
SCOTS GUARDS GO INTO ACTION AT EL ALAMEIN

Under cover of a smoke screen and protected by tanks, men of the Scots Guards move forward. All around is the dense cloud of dust set up by the armoured fighting vehicles. By the end of the first week in July 1942, Rommel’s advance had been halted, and a few days later he was forced back on to the defensive. On July 10 General Auchinleck began to recover ground, advancing five miles to Tel el Elia.

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright
INFANTRY AND ANTI-TANK GUNNERS IN THE KNIGHTSBridge FIGHTING

Much of the Eighth Army’s success in the Libyan battle was attributable to the accurate fire of the artillery. Gunners were in action night and day. Below, the crew of a 6-pounder anti-tank gun (mounted on a Chevrolet truck), move up after knocking out a German tank, seen at the left. Top, while a Roc gunner guns covering fire his comrade gets busy with the entrenching tool. Dropped from the infantryman’s equipment in the early days of the war, this useful implement was later reinstated.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright
The all-important task of supplying Russia tended in the nature of things to make Persians consider that their own interests were being subordinated to the war situation. There were, too, difficulties in the matter of currency, which the Persians were apt to withhold. But the position, while still needing the utmost tact and circumspection, was not unmanageable, and though first things had to come first, the essential needs of the Persians were always borne in mind by the Allies.

In Iraq, the decisiveness of the defeat in 1941 of Rashid Ali and his followers had given the chance, quickly taken, for pro-Allied elements of the Iraqi population to come forward. On January 7, 1942, the formal step was taken of sentencing to death, Rashid Ali—in absentia—and of passing other sentences on his associates. Early in the year General Nuri al-Said, the Arab soldier-statesman with whom T. E. Lawrence had fought in the last war, and a firm friend of the ruling Hashimite dynasty in Baghdad, showed signs of wanting to declare war on the Axis; a desire which was fulfilled in due course.

Both Arabs and the Allies lost a good friend when Mr. Paul Krabbe shuse died in February in Baghdad. He was American minister to Iraq, and before that had been American Consul-General in Syria and Palestine. At the critical time of Rashid Ali's revolt his help had been invaluable to the forces of legal authority, and it may justly be said that the U.S.A. had never sent a better representative to the Middle East.

General Nuri energetically set about his task of purging his country of pro-Axis elements, men who had become so minded owing to the lavish propaganda and bribery practised by the Axis. Fearlessly and continuously he carried out the purge, and showed particular courage in tackling the Iraqi Army. His success was complete; indeed, it was never in doubt. Slowly but surely he and his friends, including notably the British authorities, made of his country the ally foreseen in the Anglo-Iraqi Treaty of 1930.

Three factors chiefly worried the Iraqi leaders in the first half of 1942. They concerned, first, the susceptibilities of all Arabs about the danger of Zionism in Palestine; second, the fact that there were only "caretaker" governments in Syria and the Lebanon; and thirdly, the provisioning of Iraq itself. Under the first two heads satisfaction was not forthcoming, and on the third it was explained that all consignments to Iraq were controlled by the Middle East Supply Centre. But a better feeling was created when it was made known that Lend-Lease facilities had been approved for both Iraq and Iran. In May, too, the Duke of Gloucester visited Baghdad and was warmly received. By this time the Iraqi Government were carrying out their Treaty obligations to the letter, and even the bitterness of the disgruntled Iraqi Army manifested no resentment when, in May, the rebel leaders were tried and executed. The situation had, indeed, been radically transformed.

Turkish steadfastness kept their country on a level keel in the period under review, despite the difficulties of maintaining neutrality when all around them were engaged in war; despite also the problem presented by certain Kurdish movements in Persian Azerbaijan, and by a bomb outrage in Ankara (an attempt on the life of the German Ambassador, Von Papen) on February 24. In the north-western corner of Persia at the beginning of the year there was much lawlessness among the Kurds, who, angered by the Turks, according to the Turkish belief, were making a dead set at Turk-speaking persons, leaving Christians alone. On the question of privileges for the Kurds, one that had greatly troubled the Turks, Ankara had always been extremely sensitive. Gradually, however, the Persian Government got the situation under control, and Turkish fears abated.

But the Kurdish trouble had no such electric effect as had the Von Papen bomb plot. The Court inquiry that followed (March 6-10) and the sentencing of two Russians on June 17 roused the Soviet press to indignation. The Russian-Turkish barometer, which previous to the plot had been rising, sank abruptly. The Turks recalled their Ambassador from Russia for...
RAILWAY TO LINK PALESTINE WITH TURKEY

Running from Haifa in Palestine to Tripoli in Syria, this railway was built by British, South African and Australian engineers. It was constructed in record time, and opened at the end of 1948 (see map, p. 222). This photograph shows South Africans excavating the cutting at the mouth of the mile-long Cheeka tunnel, one of the most difficult sections of the line.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

reasons of health." But the Soviets, seeing what delight the Germans hailed this development, moderated their attacks, and after a time the situation, which neither side allowed to deteriorate, was eased. The Turkish Government sent one of their best men to represent them in Russia.

It was after this that Turkey could describe herself as still the ally of Great Britain and the good neighbour of Russia. Axis blandishments continued uneasily. The chief aim of the Nazis was to embitter relations between Ankara and Moscow. Every event was twisted to reinforce the thesis that Russia wanted control of the Black Sea Straits, and Britain was alleged to have recognized Soviet hegemony in Europe. The Nazis further spread rumours that a new Turkish Government, more friendly to the Axis, was about to take office. They said that Russia would be defeated in 1942 and that Britain, which only wanted to see Russia bleed to death, would make a compact peace with Germany. With Bulgaria as the centre, the Nazis opened a "war of nerves" on Turkey.

But the Turks remained absolutely faithful to their agreement with Great Britain. What Berlin mainly wanted from Turkey was chrome, and it was agreed to supply 90,000 tons of this precious metal in 1943 and 1944—on condition that by the end of 1942 Germany had delivered to Turkey war material to the value of £15,000,000, that Turkish chrome deliveries during those two years were compensated by equivalent German deliveries of war material, and all this only after the expiry of the Anglo-Turkish agreement. So stern an attitude towards her ally was fully reciprocated by Britain, who unintermittently delivered to Turkey war materials of every kind: tanks, aircraft, submarines and destroyers, rolling stock, foodstuffs and manufactured goods. This deeply impressed the Turks, who argued that, hard pressed as Britain was, only a true friend could have done such a thing. Ordinary trade with Turkey, moreover, despite the difficulties in transport, showed constant progress in 1942.

A word should be said, in recording the satisfactory nature of Anglo-Turkish relations during this period, of the admirable work of the British Council in Turkey, which pursued with unflagging zeal its cultural and educational ends. Its efforts were greatly appreciated in Turkey.

As the only neutral at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Turkey played an international role with distinction. In nothing was this better seen than in the help she gave to the repatriation of British and Italian prisoners, the first exchange of whom was effected at Smyrna (Izmir) on April 8. On this occasion the Turks set a precedent of kindness and thoughtfulness to which they adhered faithfully.

In Syria and the Lebanon it became patent early in the year that Free French control was by no means to the liking of the mass of the people. General Catroux had installed as President of the Syrian State Sheikh Taj-ad-din—a politician who commanded little popular support and who was, in particular, disliked by the strong Nationalist bloc—and as President of the Lebanon Mr. Naqqash. In February Brig.-Gen. E. L. Spears arrived as British Minister to the Lebanon and Syrian Republics, and also as Head of the Mission to the Free French. He conveyed Mr. Eden's message that, though the Mandate was still in force, it was the wish of H.M. Government that this regime should be ended at the earliest possible moment.

Hopes that arose from this statement diminished quickly, particularly as it coincided with a deterioration in the food situation. The Syrians could not forget that in the last war the years 1916-18 were famine years when more than 300,000 of their people died of starvation. When General Spears presented his credentials in April at Beirut and Damascus he was greeted warmly enough, but disappointment was manifested owing to the fact that the British had left the Free French (in some ways more disliked by the Syrians than had been the Vichy regime) in supreme control. Yet the belief persisted that somehow Britain would solve the food shortage for the future.

FOODSTUFFS FOR SYRIANS

New Zealanders measure out rations of flour—sent by the Red Cross organization of the United States. The food situation had been made more difficult by the practice of hoarding, which in turn sprang from fears of famine such as that which had killed more than 300,000 Syrians in the later years of the war of 1914-18.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright
AIR DEFENCE OF CAIRO AND ALEXANDRIA

Britain contributed large sums for the protection of Egypt from Axis bombers—including £1,000,000 for the defense of Cairo. A.R.P. services were well organized, while active defense by night fighters and anti-aircraft batteries was highly efficient. (1) A ju 88 caught by gunfire over the Nile delta plunges to its doom (its flaming trail at right); in centre an airstrike made by A.A. shells, while the sky is dotted with shell bursts. In (2) an Egyptian policeman and field workers examine another German bomber, shot down by the R.A.F. near Kantara on the night of September 9-10, 1941. (3) A.R.P. practice in Cairo: an incident officer at work. (4) After an air raid at Alexandria.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright; Associated Press
problems of the Levant States, despite the fact that Taj-ad-din and Naqqash were regarded merely as French puppets.

The general attitude of the French was that they must postpone decisions in the Levant States for fear of unfavorable repercussions in metropolitan France, which might diminish the prestige of their movement in France itself. Yet the native belief in Britain was justified to the extent that the British were able to persuade Cattroux that the danger of holding elections in wartime was negligible. But the Syrians saw everywhere ex-Vichy officials exercising power. No wonder, therefore, that they thought that “presbyter is but old priest writ large.”

British prestige fluctuated. It increased notably with the visit to Beirut and Damascus of the Duke of Gloucester in June, but it slumped towards the end of the period under review with the fall of Tobruk. Even in the largely Moslem Republic of the Lebanon, the boundaries of which had been extended by the French to include Moslem territory, there was a feeling that matters were taking a bad turn, especially as the food situation there (in Lebanon), aggravated by the age-old habit of hoarding, was very unsatisfactory.

On the material side there was one wholly beneficial development. This was the building, in record time, of the railway joining Haifa in Palestine to Tripoli in Syria, the northern terminal of the Iraq oil pipe line. No fewer than 8,000 civilian labourers were employed on the construction, which, since it was attended by great technical difficulties (for instance, tunnelling in the northern section), was entrusted to South African engineers, who brought over 1,000 miners from the Union’s diamond mines for the purpose. (As soon as the line was completed, it was opened by General Sir H. R. G. Alexander, C-in-C Middle East, towards the end of the year).

Palestine, whatever the conditions of the war, was dominated by the underlying differences between native Arab and immigrant Zionist. The presence of many troops in Palestine, together with the fact that fundamentally Arabs and Jews were on the Allied side, to some extent obscured the sharpness of this controversy, but no observer could fail to note that it had rather gone underground than disappeared. If the Arabs, partly through force of circumstances, said little publicly in support of their claims the Zionists were by no means unvoiced.

There was during the period no spectacular recruiting for the Army of the Mandated Power in Palestine. At the end of 1941 the figures stood at a little over 14,000, of whom some 10,000 were Jews. On July 1, 1942, the figures were 20,574, of whom the Jewish community had provided 12,689 men and 1,169 women. The Zionists wanted conditions of enlistment which the British authorities could not accept; and the Arabs seemingly were content to provide help with civilian labour for the manifold works required by military authorities.

On January 3 there occurred the death of a Jew who will long be remembered in Palestine. This was Pinhas Rutenberg, who had supplied the whole of Palestine (with the exception of Jerusalem and its neighbourhood) with electricity. He had earned the reputation of being fair to both Arab and Jew: “The Times” said of him that he was “more a Jew than a Zionist.”

During the first half of 1942 tragic incidents took place which moved both Zionists and non-Zionists. On January 20 there was an outrage against the police at Tel Aviv. These hulh responsible were a body known as the “Stern Group,” a terrorist gang of Jews said to be in touch with Fascist bodies in Europe. The crime was denounced by responsible Zionist leaders, among whom it created consternation. The Zionists, too, were much distressed by the disaster to the refugee steamer “Struma.” This boat, carrying Jewish refugees from Europe, had perished in the Black Sea in March, and the Zionists, anxious to get into Palestine the maximum number of Jewish refugees, accused the Palestine Government of “murder,” alleging that the authorities had treated the demand for extra immigrants with undue deliberation.

On the whole Palestine showed a fair picture during the first half of 1942, despite a steep rise in the cost of living. It was claimed that by the spring of that year the Holy Land was growing all the wheat, potatoes, and vegetables it needed. The Government took control and gave a stimulating lead. The country’s electrical works were supplying industrial power, the potash industry of the Dead Sea was providing important war materials, and the cement industry was supplying airfields, roads, and fortifications throughout the Middle East. Owing, moreover, to the presence in Palestine of numbers of highly skilled workmen, delicate work could be done there. It was boasted, indeed, that Palestine was the only country between London and Calcutta (except Cape Town) where the British forces could get a precision instrument made or repaired. The projection north of Haifa of the railway to Tripoli was bound to affect beneficially Palestine, Syria, and Turkey.

Over Egypt, surprising as the statement may seem, it cannot be said that
the shadow of war hung ominously as from the beginning of 1942. Certain steps, indeed, were taken to regularize her position as an ally. On January 6, for example, she formally severed her relations with Vichy, Finland, and Bulgaria; but Italian influence at the Court was allowed to remain.

In the following month the Cabinet of Sirry Pasha fell. It was succeeded by that of Nahas Pasha, leader of the great Wafdi party, who gained, on March 26, an overwhelming majority in the elections. He had a series of difficult passages with the Palace, and finally took the step of arresting a former Prime Minister, Ali Makhz Pasha (April 8), and of keeping him confined.

The real preoccupations of Egyptians were with domestic politics and domestic economics. Certainly, the problem of food supplies—what with the aggravating tendency of native merchants to hoard and impose fantastic prices, together with “black market” operations—was grave. But to the average Egyptian the war seemed remote and, until the fall of Tobruk and the Axis approach to the Nile Valley, never came uppermost in his thoughts. Meanwhile, the Government tried to do what it could to alleviate the stringency set up by war conditions—a task to which Mr. R. G. Casey set himself at once after he had succeeded Mr. Oliver Lyttelton as Minister of State in May.

Egypt, more particularly since the accession of Nahas Pasha to power, was loyal to her obligations under the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936. Under that agreement the Egyptian Army was not required to fight in the event of an emergency, but the Egyptian Government was to give Britain the facilities she required for military purposes. The outbreak of war had found in power one of the numerous Cabinets which did not reflect the wishes of the mass of the people. The manoeuvres of such parties as the Liberal Constitutionalists, the Watanists, the Shabab, and the Sadists—none of them comparable in strength with the Wafdi and nearly all of them centring round persons rather than principles—were of little interest to the outside world except as they affected Egypt's attitude towards the war.

There was indeed no fundamental point of difference between Egypt and Britain. The extreme Nationalists (Watanists) were not content with the clauses about the Sudan in the Treaty. Nor, for that matter, were other parties, but all agreed not to make the Sudan a war issue. Theoretically, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan is a Condominium, though in practice it is, if not British, at least Sudanese in colour. But Egyptians, naturally interested in the whole Nile question, have been prone to treat the matter as if it were one between the British and themselves exclusively.

A word ought to be said on the consistently pro-British attitude of Transjordan, whose ruler, the Amir Abdullah, set his subjects an unwavering lead in loyalty. The only event of note in the first half of 1942 was the successful visit to Amman, in February, of the Amir Fawwaz as Shalaa, Sheikh of the Kuwals, the large Syrian tribe. He was a descendant of the great emir of Amman, T. E. Lawrence in 1918.

To sum up the picture of the Middle East in the first half of 1942, it may be said that its comparative brightness was due largely to none other than Hitler himself. What did the Middle East offer to Hitler? It possessed three advantages: It was one way to India, a most valuable way if the alleged Japanese minor threat developed. Secondly, it opened up a route to a vulnerable Russian flank. Thirdly, if the Nazis had obtained Middle East oil, their war effort could have been kept aloft almost indefinitely.

By keeping his concentrated strength for Russia, Hitler virtually abandoned all the potential quelling elements in the Middle East. The Allies resented what Hitler had promised (but failed) to harvest. He set up a propaganda centre in Athens, composed of certain disgruntled Arabs exiled from their homes, and fomented against the Greek race and against British Imperialism. But he had missed an opportunity which can hardly return. Yet it has to be admitted that early in 1942 the future of the military situation could not be foretold, and the conduct of the native peoples and of the Allies who were trying then to help them has to be read in the light of that uncertainty.

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DOMESTIC POLITICS IN INDIA DURING 1942

Prefaced by an outline of constitutional changes and an analysis of party politics up to the entry of Japan into the war in December 1941, this Chapter then describes Sir Stafford Cripps' unsuccessful attempt to arrive at a settlement with the Indian leaders. It goes on to discuss India's fine war effort and the effect on the general war situation.

For India the interval between the termination of the war of 1914–18 and the beginning of the Second World War in September 1939 had been marked by important political changes and by the advance in British India of responsible self-government, as foreshadowed in the Declaration of August 20, 1917.

A rising from that Declaration, framed by Austen Chamberlain and Lord Curzon but—owing to Chamberlain's resignation from the Indian Office in 1917 after a Royal Commission in its report had counselled the Indian Government over the Mesopotamian blunders—actually made in the House of Commons by Edwin Montagu as Secretary for India, a semi-parliamentary system was introduced into India by the Act of 1919. In the Province Legislatures comprising elected Indian majorities were created in the place of Legislative Councils which, from 1861 onwards, had had a slowly increasing Indian element but were in effect purely advisory bodies. The stages of development in 1892 and 1909 had brought them to the point at which the only possible step forward was by setting up representative institutions on parliamentary lines. This recalled Macaulay's famous assertion in 1833 that such a change would constitute the "proudest day in English history," and, also, ironically enough, John Morley's blunt repudiation of the idea that the reforms which he sponsored in 1899 had parliametaryism as their objective.

The system which came into force in 1921 under the Act of 1919 divided the provincial administration into two categories. Departments constituting the framework of government—law and order, finance, judiciary—were retained under executive control. Departments which came to be known as "nation-building," such as education, public works, public health, were transferred to the control of Ministers elected from and responsible to the new Legislatures. By this dichotomous method (dyarchy means government by two rulers) it was hoped at the end of ten years, when a Royal Commission would report to Parliament, to judge the possibility of a fuller advance.

At the centre, two houses of a Central Legislature were created also, with elected Indian majorities over the official blocs. No principle of responsibility could there be impugned, since the Government of India (Viceroy's Executive Council) remained still responsible to Parliament at Westminster, and in fact was concerned not only with British India (886,000 square miles and [1941] 295,927,000 people), but also with the 562 Indian States (600,000 square miles and [1941] 22,973,000 people).

On November 1, 1929, just before Sir John Simon's Commission was ready to report on the working of the semi-parliamentary system, the Viceroy (Lord Irwin) was authorized to declare that the goal of British policy, as set out in the Declaration of 1917, was "Dominion status." By that time India had already acquired certain attributes of that status. Since 1919 she had been a Member of the Imperial Conference as well as a founder member of the League of Nations. By a convention established in 1931 she had tariff autonomy.

As the result of the Simon Commission's Report (the first volume of which stands today as the best brief factual appreciation of the Indian problem) three Round Table Conferences of representative Englishmen and Indians were held in London, and then a Joint Select Committee of the two Houses of Parliament considered the material thus available for framing the next measure of Indian constitutional reform.

This was born in the Act of 1935, which separated Burma from India and, by forming two new provinces of Orissa and Sind, established it separation of provinces in British India to which full responsible self-government on the basis of an electorate of 30 millions (43 per cent of the male and 10 per cent of the female adult population) was accorded. For the first time provision was made for formally linking up British with "Indian" India. Recognizing that this federation would require time for arrangement, the Act prescribed that full self-government in the British Indian provinces should come into force on April 1, 1937. Meanwhile, inquiry was at once to be started to ascertain the terms on which the Indian States, most of which had treaties or other contractual engagements with the Crown—would agree to enter into federation. Their chief spokesmen had already expressed concurrence with the
general principle. The scheme for federation being thus delayed, it was decided that, until it had been established, the government at the centre should remain as under the Constitution which in other respects the Act replaced. The separation of Burma and the creation of the two new provinces already mentioned also came into force on April 1, 1937.

The political leaders of British India showed clearly that they were not unanimous in their proposals for associating the two Indias in a central government. They maintained that democratic principles were affronted by a scheme which gave the Rulers the right to nominate the representatives of the States to the proposed federal legislature, where the representatives of British India would be chosen by the democratically elected members of the Provincial Legislatures. The negotiations for ascertaining the Rulers' views on the terms of their accession to federation were taken in hand, and just before the outbreak of the Second Great War they were reported to have been completed. As by that time the Rulers themselves were a little alarmed at the hostility to their order shown by political leaders in British India, there seemed to be no immediate prospect of coming to a satisfactory solution.

The political sky in British India was by no means unclouded. In the elections of April 1937 the Congress Party had secured sufficient support at the polls to give it the right to form Ministries in eight out of the 11 Major Provinces. Despite its predominantly Hindu complexion the party had, in fact, secured more Muslim adherents than would normally have been expected. Even then, of the 566 Muslim seats only 25 went to Congress Party Muslim candidates, but the comparative weakness of the Muslim League was shown by its inability to secure more than 108 Muslim seats—albeit that figure was four times the Congress Party Muslim captures. The important Shia community of Muslims (numbering about 20 million) had given the Congress Party support. When the Ministries took office they speedily weakened the Muslim sympathy. In particular, the Shias took offence at measures affecting from the Moslem community, and many of that community actually went to prison as the result of its defiance of Congress Ministries' administration. This brought a great accession of strength to the Muslim League, which, under the leadership of Mr. M. A. Jinnah (himself a Shia, and 20 years earlier a close associate of Mr. Gandhi), proceeded to assert itself as the chief exponent of the aspirations of Muslims. In by-elections for Muslim constituencies after 1937 the Muslim League showed this new-found strength by capturing 46 out of 56 seats, as against three Congress and seven "independent" successes. Moreover, in the three non-Congress Provinces where coalition Ministries under Muslim premiers were able to take office in April 1937, the Muslim League increased its influence. These provinces were Bengal, Punjab and Sind.

In the summer of 1939, when the war clouds were gathering, the Government of India decided to send Indian troops to reinforce the garrisons in Egypt and Malaya. This action required no sanction from the Central Legislature, War Clouds though as a matter of courtesy the Viceroy privately advised the members of this intention. The Congress Party, although it had consistently criticized British policy in China (over Manchuria), Spain, Abyssinia, and Czechoslovakia from the anti-Axis standpoint, refused to concur in this decision to send troops—on the ground that the Government was not responsible to the Indian Legislature. The Party maintained this attitude (which had been expressed in withdrawal from the two Houses of the Legislature) when, on September 3, 1939, Great Britain’s Declaration of War automatically put India at war with Germany. The Muslim League took the line of siding with the Congress Party's objection to the constitutional disability arising from India's lack of Dominion status. In other respects the League was against the Congress, and, indeed, demanded that no fundamental constitutional changes should be made during the war, to the conduct of which it offered no obstruction.

The Viceroy endeavoured by personal conversations with all leaders—he saw 53 of them in the month of September—
PHASES OF INDIA'S GREAT WAR EFFORT

Owing to her geographical situation India was especially important as a source of munition supply to Allied armies in Persia, Iraq and Syria: she also rendered vital assistance to Russia and to China. Top, a ship leaving an Indian shipyard. Below, a new minelayer for the Royal Indian Navy is launched by Prince Rama Varma, ruler of Cochin.

Phana, British Official's Crown Copyright; March of Time

In August 1940 a formal announcement that a War Advisory Council would be set up and would include representative Indians; that the views of minorities would be given full weight in any constitutional scheme framed; and that such a scheme should be devised by Indians themselves. To this end the Government would assist to the creation, after the war, of a body representative of the principal elements in Indian life.

In July 1941, since the recalcitrant political leaders had not been moved, the Government decided to proceed with a further constitutional change by expanding the Viceroy's Executive Council so that, instead of three British and three Indian Members (in addition to the Viceroy and Commander-in-Chief), it included three British and six Indian Members: the additional five Indians were men of eminence without any political affiliations. Thus, for the first time, the Viceroy's Executive Council comprised an Indian majority. The offer to include nominees of the Congress Party and Muslim League remained, but was not accepted. In addition the Government set up a War Advisory Council on which representatives of British India and the Indian States took their seats.

In the course of discussions Mr. Gandhi had acted as the spokesman of the Congress Party, although technically he was no longer a member of that Party. In the autumn of 1940 he had been told by the Viceroy that the Indian Government would give the Congress Party the same status as was given in England to professed pacifists—totalitarian pacifism being defined as the Party's attitude towards the war. If, in advocacy of this pacifism, the Government found members of the Party taking action which, in England, would bring them within the scope of the Defence of the Realm Act—a similar enactment being in force in India—then appropriate measures for protection of India's war effort would be taken. Mr. Gandhi, on October 15, 1941, retorted by launching a campaign of "limited" civil disobedience. The authorities had no option but to prosecute and imprison a large number of Congress Party adherents who deliberately broke the law at Mr. Gandhi's bidding.

In the autumn of 1941 a storm arose over a misinterpretation of Mr. Winston Churchill's statement to the House of Commons that the Atlantic Charter did not "qualify" British policy in India. This was used with the further statement, that the Charter was primarily concerned with European countries
By that time the Muslims had made it clear that any change which exposed them to the risk of permanent political dominance by the numerical might of the Hindu electorate would be resisted to the utmost. The Congress Party—mainly Hindu in composition and outlook, despite its pretensions—would stand firm on the overriding significance of the ballot-box, regardless of the fact that its success would depend in the last resort on the sanctions provided by armed force, which could not take cognizance of political issues. So, although the proposals which Sir Stafford Cripps brought were important in the presentation of their re-statement of the Government’s proposals of August 1940, their only novel feature was a provision for any province of British India to remain out of the new Constitution and to negotiate separately with the Government.

This was designed to placate the Muslims, with whom the idea of a separate “state” of Pakistan had made rapid headway. It was not at all acceptable to Hindus, who looked upon it as encouraging the “break-up” of India. Pakistan was the name given to an imaginary territorial area which had been variously defined by Muslim sponsors so as to cut off the Punjab, “Afghanistan” (Baluchistan and North-West Frontier Province), Kashmir and Sind as a solid enclave in which Muslims predominated, and to add to it Eastern Bengal and part of the United Provinces, so that it could have a separate identity as a sovereign state within the new India. Actually it seemed at first to be nothing more than a bargaining counter which Mr. Jinnah could use in order to induce Hindu leaders to concede to the Muslims a greater representation.

When the Invasion of Ceylon Was Frustrated

In daylight on April 5, 1942, 74 Japanese bombers from carriers raidied Colombo, and were beaten off with the loss of 22 shot down, five more probably destroyed, and 25 damaged. On the 17th, as attacking Trincomalee, the enemy lost 24 aircraft; a further dozen were probably destroyed. But after leaving Ceylon the destroyer “Vampire,” the cruisers “Dorsetshire” and “Cornwall” and the aircraft carrier “Hermes” were lost by air attack (see pp. 2062–8). Top, a Japanese photograph showing the sinking of the “Hermes.” Below, Canadian soldiers in Ceylon beside wrecked enemy aircraft shot down by their unit.

PHOTO, ASSOCIATED PRESS; FConn
than their actual numbers warranted in the central government of the India to be.

As time went on and the strength of the Muslim League grew, bitter criticisms of the Pakistan scheme from the Congress Party and Hindu spokesmen impelled the Muslim leaders to send it to its most. In this atmosphere Sir Stafford Cripps found that all depended on the attitude of the Congress Party, which, as it proved, meant the views of Mr. Gandhi, who led the Party from without. Mr. Gandhi saw that acceptance of the scheme by his Party would in effect draw that Party into the Government's war effort and imperil the existence of the machine

have appealed to other than the Congress Party, their acceptance would be interpreted by opponents in an unfavourable light to the electorate. The small group of representatives of the Europeans (British residents) intimated readiness to accept the proposals even though Sir Stafford's exposition could not have left them under any illusion regarding the sweeping character of the constitutional changes which were likely to accrue. This unsettled gesture of progressive sympathy with Indian aspirations was more appreciated by Indian leaders than the turmoil of disputation allowed to appear. It received more definite recognition later on, when European leaders in the

"The reputation of the Indian troops has long been firmly established and today it stands very high indeed in the world. Their service is entitled to the highest praise, and I am confident that in the even greater role they may now have to play they will acquit themselves splendidly."

The peace-time Indian Army of 150,000 had been swollen to well over 1,000,000 mark. Recruits—on a voluntary basis, for no conscription applied except to the British in India—poured in, and the only limitation on their numbers was imposed by the availability of equipment and officers to train them.

On February 3, 1942, the Under Secretary for India (the Duke of Devonshire) told the Lords:

"The technical equipment of the Indian Army is much in excess of anything that was dreamed of before the outbreak of war, and the Indian Army is supplying vastly larger proportions of technical personnel required to keep a modern army in the field than has been the case in the past."

The triumphs and accomplishments of Indian contingents are narrated in many Chapters of this work which deal with the Far Eastern and Middle Eastern campaigns. Punjabs Achievements and Rajputs in Hong Kong (p. 1937); many units in Malaya (see table in p. 2045); others in Burma (see table in p. 2014). Earlier Chapters give credit for the gallant operations in East Africa and Libya. On May 10 the withdrawal of the Burma Army from Burma was effected under General Sir H. K. L. G. Alexander. By the end of the year, under General Wavell, the task of recovering Burma had begun.

Meanwhile, the Congress Party, disturbed by the controversy which had developed over its rejection of the Crippa proposals, gathered itself together in the hope of restoring its political prestige. The defection of Mr. Rajagopalachari, son-in-law of Mr. Gandhi and the former Prime Minister of Madras, gave occasion for demonstration of Mr. Gandhi's dominance, for the Party's ranks closed, leaving Mr. Rajagopalachari with no following to speak of. Under Mr. Gandhi the Party Executive decided to press for the withdrawal of all British power from India. This led to the formulation of plans which—with whatever dialectical respectability they were clothed—were tantamount to encouragement of the enemy. The Government, none too soon, took action on August 8 by arresting Mr. Gandhi, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and other leaders. Disturbances, showing all the signs of intensified and calculated preparation for obstructing the war
AMERICAN AID FOR DEFENCE OF INDIA

The extreme importance of India as a base for the reconquest of Burma and the expulsion of the Japanese from China demanded immediate and large-scale reinforcement, in which the United States of America played a big part.

Top, left, unpacking American army lorries at an Indian railway siding. Below, the crew of an American twin-engined bomber strip the plane of its protective wrappings ready for action after its arrival. Top, right, the United States flag flies over an advanced base in India.

BRITISH SUPPLY CONVOY NEARS INDIAN PORT

One of the largest to leave Britain for India, this convoy (below) numbering dozens of vessels, safely made the long voyage laden with aircraft, tanks, guns and other weapons and supplies to equip a large army.

Left, some of the tanks after being landed. Besides the supplies for its own defence, India needed immense quantities for dispatch to the Allied armies in Persia, Iraq and Syria.

Photos, Pictorial Press; Central Press; Associated Press; Keystone.
effort, and in particular the operations on the Burma frontier, broke out in many parts of India, and were accompanied by strikes. In the east of the United Provinces and in Bihar the disturbances were specially fierce. By the end of August the situation had been restored to normal; on September 3 General Wavell paid a tribute to India's armies and air force, and also to the astonishing progress in the manufacture of munitions. The disciplined might of India's fighting men was saving, and would save, India, he averred. In the course of the year reinforcements arrived from the United States, chiefly Air Squadrions, which at once played a leading part in the air attacks on Japanese-occupied Burma.

Apart from the armed forces (including the Royal Indian Navy, which distinguished itself in patrolling Indian waters, and the young Indian Air Force which shared in the air cover provided for Burma), India's war effort found notable expression in the establishment of the Eastern Supply Council on which representatives of Great Britain, the United States of America, Australia, South Africa, and Canada sat for directing the work of the Supply Department. This cooperation of India in the Far Eastern campaign was of great importance, and included the maintaining of operations in Persia, Iraq and Syria. Moreover, the Persian Gulf road of access to Russia gave India the opportunity of making a special contribution to the assistance of that ally, as also by means of air transport to China after the Burma Road had been closed by Japanese action.

The disquietude prevailing in the public mind after the breakdown of the Cripps negotiations was replaced later by satisfaction at the advance made by the Eighth Army under General Montgomery in Libya. Then, too, there had been considerable apprehension about the presence of a Japanese naval squadron in the Indian Ocean, and the enemy occupation of the Andaman Islands, about 900 miles distant from Trincomalee (Ceylon) and 800 from Calcutta. The Andamans had been evacuated by our troops on March 12; 13 days later the Japanese announced they had occupied them. On Easter Sunday, April 5, at 6 in the morning, 75 Japanese aircraft bombed Colombo, mainly the harbour area. But the defences were in alert readiness; two of theiders were destroyed by the anti-aircraft guns and 23 by our fighters. Nor was this all, for five more were stated to be probably destroyed, and 25 to have been damaged.

**U.S. ENVOY TO INDIA**

On December 31, 1942, Washington announced the appointment of Mr. William Phillips as American envoy to India. He arrived in New Delhi on January 8, 1943. Mr. Phillips had held the post of United States Ambassador to Italy.

Photo: Topical Press

It was a Canadian pilot, Squadron Leader L. J. Birchall, D.F.C., R.C.A.F., whose timely warning enabled the guns and aircraft of the defence to be prepared for the enemy. While on a reconnaissance flight in his Catalina flying-boat on April 4 he had observed the Japanese fleet off the S.E. coast of Ceylon, and had sent back the information by radio. He failed to return from this flight, and nothing more was heard till, almost a year later, he was reported a prisoner of war at Yokohama. Undoubtedly the Japanese object was an invasion of Ceylon, but the failure of their bombing onslaught deterred them. The enemy fleet had comprised three battleships, five aircraft carriers and a strong escort of cruisers and destroyers. Trincomalee was bombed on the 9th, the enemy losing 21 aircraft for certain and a further 12 probably destroyed. British casualties were slight, but four fine ships—destroyer "Vampire," cruisers "Dorsetshire" and "Cornwall," and aircraft carrier "Hermes"—were lost by air attack after leaving Ceylon ports.

The repulse of this attack and the avert- ing of the danger of invasion, followed by the occupation of Madagascar in May, had done much to reassure Indian opinion. The policy of developing the association of Indians with the administration despite the political deadlock was continued. In July 1943 a further expansion of the Viceroy's Executive Council took place. The number of Indian Members (Ministers) was increased to 11, a non-official European (Sir Edward Bentall) being for the first time given a seat. This, with the Viceroy and Commander-in-Chief (General Wavell), gave the

**GENERALISSIMO CHIANG KAI-SHEK MEETS MR. GANDHI**

The main purpose of Chiang Kai-shek's visit, which began on February 27th, was to consult with General Sir Alan Hartley, C.-in-C., India. He saw a number of the Indian leaders, including Mr. Jinnah and Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, and had a five-hour talk with Mr. Gandhi (above, right).

*Photo: Keystone*
Counsellor a racial composition of 11 Indians and five British. The portfolios were thus assigned: War, General Wavell; Defence, Sir Feroz Khan Noon; Finance, Sir Jeremy Raisman; Home, Sir Reginald Maxwell; Supply, Sir Hormusji Mody; Civil Defence, Sir Jwala Srinivasa; Law, Sir Sultan Ahmed; Labour, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar; Transport, Sir Edward Benthall; Overseas, Mr. M. S. Aney; Commerce, Mr. R. B. V. Sarker; Information, Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar; Education (including Health), Sir Jogendra Singh; Posts and Air, Sir Muhammad Usman (without portfolio).

Pertinent to this increased "Indianization" is mention of the important decision which gave India additional recognition of her approach to Dominion status. In 1941 Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai was appointed the first Agent-General to the Government of India at Washington and Mr. Thomas Wilson became the United States Minister at Delhi. Mr. Wilson's place was taken in December 1942 by Mr. William Phillips, a leading member of the United States diplomatic service.

In 1942 also Sir Mohamed Zafrullah Khan went to Chungking as India's first Agent-General in China, and Mr. Shem Shih-hua became China's first representative at Delhi.

The great advance in India's financial development, thanks to the turning of the balance of trade with the United Kingdom in her favour, was shown by her dramatic repatriation of her sterling payments. In March 1936 her sterling debt stood at about £376 million. By March 1942 the figure had been reduced to £50 million. It was expected to fall to £66 million at the beginning of 1943. This British investment in loans floated for the development of Indian railways, canals and other productive public works had been liquidated. India now owns practically all her own railways and manages them as well. In privately owned industry there has been a marked advance of Indian capital. Cotton, iron, steel, sugar, cement, and many other industries are in Indian hands. In the jute and coal industries formerly in British hands Indian capital is replacing British. Lord Catto told the House of Lords that in 1942 75 per cent of the jute industry was in the hands of Indian investors. To this development the expansion of Indian industries during the war has made notable contribution.

The British taxpayer has disbursed something like £500 million for the modernization of India's defence services.

These financial and administrative changes are a clue to the success with which the Government of India, despite the unhappy political crisis, was able to lead the country's war effort. The steady influx of Indians into the civil and defence services in the higher ranks was another portent. During 1942, for the first time in its history, the I.C.S. (the premier Civil Service) had more Indians than British members (617 to 555), and it was disclosed that one-fifth of the cadre of officers of the Indian Army (King's Commission) were Indian.

To sum up the situation in India at the end of 1942: after playing a great part in Africa, the Far East and Burma, Indian troops with their American, British and Chinese comrades-in-arms stood four-square first in resistance to the Axis aggressors and, as the tide began to turn, in preparation for the recovery of lost territory and the punishment of the wrongdoers. India's industrial machine had been worked up to a fine pitch of efficiency in support of this effort. India holds firm as the vital link in the chain of the United Nations stretching from the Caspian to the China Sea.

By September 1942 India's casualties in the Second Great War were officially stated to be 100,000, of whom 2,696 were killed, 8,321 wounded, 3,938 prisoners and 84,833 missing. Despite that, the total strength of the expanded Indian Army at the end of the year 1942 was assessed at nearly 20,000—a far cry from the 90,000 men freely enrolling in the common cause.

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DESERT PATROLS IN THE LIBYAN CAMPAIGN

Organized by Major R. A. Bagnold and staffed by picked New Zealanders, the mobile motor columns of the Long Range Desert Group travelled thousands of miles far into the enemy's country, over unmapped desert. They secured vital information, shot up forts, laid mines, attacked oases, and stopped normal traffic along many desert routes. Here are vivid impressions of some aspects of their work. Top left, On Patrol; right, Grim Escarpment. Lower left, Eroded Rock; right, Beyond the Sand Sea.

From drawings by Capt. Peter McIntyre (Official N.Z. Artist), reproduced by courtesy of the New Zealand Government.
Chapter 224

LIBYAN CAMPAIGN: ROMMEL'S ADVANCE TO EL ALAMEIN

Few battlefields—using the term in its wide application—can have witnessed such swift reversals of fortune as the deserts of Libya and the stretch of territory westward to Tripoli. Here is the story of Rommel’s offensive, beginning in mid-January, 1942, which carried the Afrika Korps by July to the threshold of the great cities of Egypt, where, at the El Alamein line, the enemy was held up by the bravery and determination of the British Eighth Army.

Somewhere in the neighbourhood of El Agheila on the Gulf of Sirte Rommel’s Afrika Korps and Auchinleck’s 8th or Desert Army achieved a state of messy equilibrium. It was mid-January, 1942, and the see-saw that had carried the British: so many hundreds of miles in triumph was about to reverse its swing. Rommel was desperately in need of a breather, and now he was in occupation of a readily defensible position—an area of marsh, flanked by the sea on one side and the limitless desert on the other, and with a front which the German engineers speedily converted into one vast minefield. Auchinleck’s supply line was stretched almost to breaking point. Fuel, food and water were none too plentiful, and before long the troops in the front line were living on bully beef, biscuits, and tea. Practically all the supplies had to be brought along the single road that stretched back like an immense snake to the railhead somewhere west of the Egyptian frontier. If Benghasi could have been used as a port much might have been brought by sea; but Benghasi was bombed and its waters mined day and night by German planes operating from airfields in Sicily, and submarines lay in wait outside the harbour, which was filled with tangled wreckage. Even if transport planes had been available (which they were not) they would have been unable to find suitable landing-grounds. For by now the rains had come, and everywhere road and beach and desert were a mass of well-nigh impassable mud. It was a miserable time, spent in a miserable setting: the men in their flimsy bivouacs huddled together for warmth and company, soaked to the skin and with little or nothing wherewith to make a fire.

Then once again the military machines, clogged though their wheels were with the desert mud, began to turn again, slowly at first and ponderously, but soon with increased momentum. It was the enemy’s turn to advance, and it was soon apparent that Rommel had made good use of the period of inactivity. In spite of the British submarines he had managed to get a number of tanks and guns landed on the adjacent beach, and considerable reinforcements had also made the passage from Italy. Moreover, he was in a much better position than his antagonists with regard to his supply line; behind him a good road ran all the way to his great base at Tripoli, and at the very time when the British were feeling the pinch his own dump was being filled to overflowing.

From Cairo on January 22, 1942, came the news that on the previous day, in conditions of bad visibility, Rommel had sent out three strong tank columns on a “reconnaissance in force” east of a line running south of Mersa Brega. British light forces made contact and inflicted some casualties, but were forced to fall back. During the next few days there was confused desert fighting in the triangle made by Jedubia, Antelat and

ALLIED UNITS IN DESERT CAMPAIGN.

**British**: 3rd, 5th, 7th, 8th, 10th, and 44th Royal Tank Regiments; the Queen’s Own, King’s Dragoon Guards, In Royal Dragoons, 9th Hussars, 11th Hussars, 9th Lancers, 12th Lancers, City of London Yeomanry, Royal Gloucester Hussars, Royal Northumberland Fusiliers, Durham Light Infantry, Coldstream Guards, Scots Guards, Worcesters, Cheshire, East Yorks, Green Howards, King’s Royal Rifles Corps, Raffe Brigade, 3rd and 4th Regiments Royal Horse Artillery, and the Hampshire Artillery Company (5th Regiment, 5th H.A., Royal Artillery), field regiments, and heavy and light anti-aircraft regiments.

**Indian Army, Regiments included**: Skinner’s Horse, Baluchis, Pathans, and the Frontier Forces Rifles.

**Fighting French.** Forces included the 2nd/13th and 2nd/14th Foreign Legion, Battalions du Pachyderme, and the 1st and 2nd Marine Battalions.

GENERAL RITCHIE WITH HIS CORPS COMMANDERS

General Neil Mellenthin Ritchie (centre) was appointed to command the Eighth Army in December 1941: in succession to General Cunningham. He was relieved of his post by General Auchinleck (who himself assumed command) on June 22, 1942. Left: Lieut.-Gen. Willoughby Norrie (30th Corps); right, Lieut.-Gen. W. H. (“Strafer”) Gott—13th Corps—who was killed in August when his plane was shot down.

*Photos, British Official / Crown Copyright*
of fighting columns of British troops who engaged in spirited harassing activities. Then there was a lull. March passed into April and April into May, and every week that went by served to fortify the belief that at length the British had solved a hitherto insoluble problem, that of establishing and maintaining in the desert a line that should be really stable. To quote a passage from Alan Moorehead’s A Year of Battle (London, Hamish Hamilton):

“Bitchie and his two Lieutenant-generals [W. H. (‘Stafie’) Gort and Willoughby Norrie] decided to drop the idea of having a continuous chain of defences at Gazala. They decided to define their position with a solid minefield stretching about 35 miles from the sea southward into the desert, but they did not man the minefield. Instead they sealed up their troops in or behind the minefield in a series of isolated forts or ‘boxes’. These boxes faced four-square, ready to meet attack from any direction. It was the old idea of the British square at Waterloo, adapted to modern fast armoured fighting. Each box was completely surrounded with a ring of landmines and booby traps. Some faced outwards in all directions. The boxes were only a mile or two square at the most, and were provided with water, food and ammunition to withstand a siege. Narrow lanes led in through the minefield and wire so that the garrison could be supplied.”

There were some half-dozen of these boxes, each of which the Nazi tanks were at liberty to by-pass or surround as they pleased, but at their peril. They might seize all the surrounding desert; but what end? They could not push on to more valuable conquests for fear the British should suddenly fall from their boxes and take them in the rear. The main boxes were at Gazala, near the shore: they were manned by Maj.-Gen. Dan Pieman’s 1st South African Division. A few miles to the south west of the coast, the Tecs and Tyne held...
AT TEL EL EISA AND HEIMMAT

Rommel's onrush was stopped by the beginning of July, and on the 10th the Eighth Army gained ground by an advance to the Tel el Eisa ridge. There was furious fighting around the station (top). The building was later dismantled and its wood used for headpieces and crosses on the many graves around. Right, an American-built General Stewart or 'Honey' tank, out on patrol near El Heimmat, a 200-foot hill on the edge of the Qattara Depression. The Afrika Corps attacked here at the end of August. (See map, p. 325.)

Photo: British Official
Credits: Copyright
DOMINANT SIX-POUNDERS

Anti-tank artillery dominated the Libya battles, and until our guns had been absorbed by aircraft, anti-tank fire and infantry advanced in the Libyan mud and their hands against a strong British tank force. The British six-pounder replaced the two-pounder, good work of tanks as well as to field batteries. It had a failure of a rate and a high rate of fire—outstripping the German weapons of the same type. Here is seen a British six-pounder in a refrigerator tank in the desert. An enemy tank kills close by.

Photo: Brooke. Official
Censor Copyright
EGYPT DEFENDS THE SUEZ CANAL

Owing to the danger of mines laid by enemy aircraft in this vital waterway, special units of the Egyptian Army were posted along the banks to spot and clear them. Here the British light cruiser “Euryalus”, on route to Port Said, is passing a mine-clearing post. Completed in June 1939, she displaced 5,450 tons and belonged to the Bido class.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright
KNIGHTSBRIDGE, OR THE DEVIL'S CAULDRON

There was little but the Army's outpost right: make the eight-figure map reference to distinguish Knightsbridge from the desert around, but here was one of the Eighth Army's 'boxes,' held by the English Guards. The hero-battalions in this sector at the end of May 1942 were described by Alan Moorehead as 'Waterloo over again.' Above, British 25-pounders firing at enemy armoured fighting vehicles during the engagement.

Photo, British Official - Crown Copyright

the next series. Behind the centre the Guards held the Knightsbridge box established in a bare desert waste. At Bir Hacheim, the southern terminus of the front, were the Free French under General Koenig. Further in rear of the centre, at El Adem, there was a box held by Italian troops; while Tobruk, the big base box, was garrisoned by Maj.-Gen. Klopper's 2nd South African Division and British lines of communication men. Roaming between the boxes were three British tank brigades. Lt.-Gen. Neil Ritchie, the 8th Army's G.O.C., and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham, Chief of the Air Arm, had their H.Q. at Gambut. Altogether Ritchie had about 10 divisions, say 130,000 men, with perhaps 500 tanks. Rommel had about the same.

For weeks the tension grew; each side made ready. The Germans had the advantage here, since they could get a tank into the front area within a month of its being produced, while it took the British some four months to get a tank from America or Britain via the Cape. In the supply of aeroplanes their advantage was even greater. But all the same Ritchie was soon in possession of new tanks—American Grants (armed with a gun as big as the German 75-millimetre), and a new anti-tank gun, the 5-pounder, mounted on a Chevrolet truck. For the most part, however, he still had to rely on British Valentine and American Honey tanks, while most of his anti-tank guns were Bofors and the 2-pounder. As for aircraft, the Germans may have had the supremacy in numbers, but Coningham's Kittyhawks, Beaufighters, Blenheim, Wellingtons, etc., were being supplemented by a few Spitfires and Hurribombers. So the stage was set for the contest.

Then, to quote Alan Moorehead again:

"Early on the morning of May 20th (1942) a British tank commander saw through his glasses an unrolling pillar of dust going up from the south of Bir Hacheim. Staining his eyes through the early morning haze, he saw the dust cloud deepen and expand. Little black dots were spaced along the bottom of the cloud. "Looks like a column of Jerry tanks coming," he reported over his telephone to his headquarters. He looked again and added sharply, "It's more than a column. It's the whole bloody Afrika Korps." The battle had begun."

The course of the ensuing battle was described in a statement by General Auchinleck read to the House of Commons by Mr. Churchill on June 2. In an order of the day issued to all Italian and German troops in his pay Rommel had told them that they were about to carry through a decisive attack against the British forces in Libya, and that for this purpose he had made ready and equipped a force superior in numbers, with perfected armament and a powerful air force to give it support. From captured documents it was clear that

Rommel's object was to defeat our armoured forces and capture Tobruk. The main ingredients of the enemy commander's plan were (1) to capture Bir Hacheim, held by the Free French under General Koenig; (2) to pass round by the south of Bir Hacheim the German Afrika Korps, comprising the 15th (Bismarck) and 21st (Nehring) German Armoured Divisions, to be followed closely by the German 90th Light Division and the 20th Italian Mobile Corps, consisting of the 132nd Ariete Armoured Division and the 101st Trieste Motorized Division; and (3) to attack in strength our positions running south from the coast at Gazala to the Capuzzo Road—positions held by the South African and 50th (Maj.-Gen. W. H. Ramsden) British Divisions, the
latter including battalions of the East Yorkshire Regt., Green Howards and Durham Light Infantry.

On the night of May 26-27 the Afrika Korps carried out its part of the plan; it passed to the south of Bir Hacheim, then moved north with great rapidity towards Acroma and the old battlefields of El Duda and Sidi Rezegh, which were actually reached by some of its most forward troops. They were soon driven off, however, by British armoured forces; and some Axis tanks which reached the escarpment overlooking the coast road north of Acroma failed to interrupt communications between Tobruk and the South Africans holding our forward positions. A little fleet of hostile craft, attempting a landing from the sea at this spot, was driven off by British Naval forces on the same night.

Long before the Axis armoured and motorized troops approached El Adem or Acroma they were brought to action by the British 1st (Maj.-Gen. H. Lumsden) and 7th (Maj.-Gen. F. W. Messervy) Armoured Divisions, ably seconded by the heavy tank brigades in that area. The full brunt of the enemy initial advance to the east of Bir Hacheim was taken by the 3rd Indian Motor Brigade Troop, which was overborne by sheer weight of metal, though not until it had inflicted heavy losses on the enemy and seriously impeded its advance. Meanwhile the Italians attacking Bir Hacheim were beaten off by the French with heavy loss.

The third part of the enemy's plan—the attack on the northern front of our main positions south of Gazala—materialized on May 27, but achieved little or nothing. An attempt to break through the defenses along the coast road by the Gazala inlet was easily stopped by the 1st South African Division. Throughout May 28, 29 and 30 there was very heavy and continuous fighting between our armoured divisions and brigades and the German Afrika Korps, backed up by the Italian Mobile Corps. The battle swayed over a wide area from Acroma in the north to Bir Hacheim, 40 miles to the south—from El Adem, near Tobruk, to the British minefields 30 miles away to the west.

Knightshbridge, or the Devil's Cauldron as some called it—the area surrounding the box held by the English Guards—was the very heart and centre of the fiercest fighting of the battle. Moorehead described the action as being Waterloo over again. It was just the sort of action that suited the Guards: a position was given you to fortify, and you got the order to hold it to the last round and the last man.

"These odd gawky officers (writes Moorehead) with prickly mustaches, their little military affectations, their high-pitched voices, and their little jokes from the world..."
ROMMEL'S ULTIMATUM TO KOENIG:

'To the troops at Bir Hacheim. Further resistance would cause useless bloodshed. You would suffer the same fate as the two English brigades annihilated the day before yesterday at Ger Saleh. We will cease fire if you hoist the white flag and come unarmed into our lines.' (Signed) ROMMEL.

MAGNIFICENT DEFENCE OF BIR HACHEIM

Bir Hacheim (see map p. 292) was a vital 'bow' at the mouth of Ritchie's line, held by a brigade of French troops under General Joseph Koenig. On May 27 the Italian tanks attacked, and thereafter there was no respite. By the first days of June Rommel's advance had isolated the garrison, though ammunition and medical supplies were delivered by air. Incessantly attacked, Koenig's men fought on, refusing repeated demands to surrender—third ultimatum, above, right. On the night of June 19, by order of General Ritchie, Koenig and his warriors withdrew and fought a way to the British lines. Koenig was decorated by General de Gaulle in August with the Cross of the Liberation (right). Top, enemy dive-bombers and tanks attacking; above, left, two of the Fighting French defenders; below left, Bir Hacheim as the Afrika Korps found it.
GERMAN ATTACK WHICH BROUGHT ABOUT TOBRUK'S FALL

On June 21, 1942, the Axis troops occupied Tobruk, after a desperate struggle which began on the preceding afternoon. Tobruk had been in our hands since January 21, 1941, and we regained it on November 13, after Gen. Montgomery's decisive victory. It was defended in June by the 2 and South African Divisions, commanded by Maj.-Gen. H. B. Kopper (inset), with a mixed British and Indian force. Top, Stukas bombing the defences; below, German assault troops supported by tank formations move up to our wire under cover of heavy smoke screen.

Photos, Keystone / Sport & General
ROMMEL'S ADVANCE TO EL ALAMEIN, JULY 1942

Beginning his offensive in mid-January, 1942, Rommel had won back the whole of the Cyrenaican bulge by the first week in February. His first objective was to establish a secure line from Sidi Barrani to Tobruk, but he was held up by the British 6th Armoured Division. As he approached Tobruk, he was further delayed by the actions of the British 7th Armoured Division. The 7th Armoured Division was heavily outnumbered by Rommel's forces, but managed to hold the line. Rommel's advance was eventually halted by the British 8th Army at El Alamein, which was well-defended and had a strong artillery presence. The battle of El Alamein was a crucial turning point in the North African Campaign, and marked the beginning of the end for Rommel's Axis forces in North Africa.

Fierce fighting was still proceeding (said General Auchinleck's statement of June 2), and the battle was by no means over; but there was no shadow of doubt that Rommel's plans had gone completely awry. In a further telegram the C-in-C paid tribute to the skill, determination and pertinacity shown by General Ritchie and his corps commanders, Lieut.-Generals Norrie and Gott. He also expressed satisfaction with the performance of the new General Grant tanks.

It was a crucial stage in the battle.

Following this success, the enemy concentrated his attention on Bir Hacheim, where Koenig's Fighting French had already been subjected to heavy pressure for a period of nine days. An Alsatian veteran of the last war, Koenig declared bluntly that "my

PRECIOUS WATER SUPPLIES

After water convoys have searched for water holes and wells in the desert, other units fill white-painted cans which are taken on lorries to the fighting units. Here, some of the cans are being unloaded.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright
orders were to hold Bir Hacheim. I hold Bir Hacheim." For 10 days of almost continuous fighting in great heat and recurrent sandstorms; his weary, powder-blackened but grimly resolute warriors held the fort against every assault. More than a thousand tanks were flung against their defences as well as countless aircraft, the fire of a great host of guns. Time after time Koenig was called upon to surrender; each time he replied with the same brief and unprintable reply, "An Italian prisoner said: "We are beginning to believe that Bir Hacheim is being held by phantom Frenchmen; we cannot believe that they are still alive after the terrific pounding that we have been giving them." The Frenchmen themselves called their position the "lost inferno" as they looked out toward their battered parapets at the surrounding desert littered with smashed German tanks and piles of Italian corpses. All France looks to you in your pride," ran a message from General de Gaulle to General Koenig on June 10. That night, but only on the direct order of General Ritchie, Koenig and the survivors of his little force were withdrawn. "They have played a vital part in upsetting the enemy's plans," ran the official communiqué; "their magnificent fighting qualities have earned the admiration of the United Nations.

The fall of Bir Hacheim released considerable enemy forces, and soon the armoured squadrons clashed again in a great new battle in the desert south-west of Knightsbridge. For five days fighting proceeded round Knightsbridge and Aquam. Until June 13 (the Prime Minister told the House of Commons on July 2) the battle was equal. "Our recovery process had worked well. Both sides lost proportionately. But on June 13 there came a change. On that morning we had about 390 tanks in action. By nightfall no more than 70 remained, and this happened without any corresponding loss having been inflicted on the enemy." Months after, it was revealed that the reverse had not been so sudden or so shattering as had been supposed. "According to the latest information," said Mr. Churchill in the House of Commons on September 8, "about 200 tanks were lost over a period of about a week. It is not possible to say exactly how many were lost on June 13, but the bulk of the losses probably took place on that day and the previous day. There was no ambush, it appeared; only an attack that failed. Moorhead declares that about 30 tanks were lost on June 13, when our armour fought a head-on battle with the German tank and tank destroyers. But—this was the all-important fact—Rommel had reserves, and we had none.

Of the result of the action there was all too little doubt. The battlefield, as Mr. Churchill said, passed into the hands of the enemy, so that his wounded tanks were repaired while ours were lost to us. Among the many dire consequences was the British decision to withdraw from the Gazala position. With most of his armour gone, what else could Ritchie do? Under cover of the 1st Armoured Division and the R.A.F., the 50th (Northumbrian) Division and Piemont's 1st South African Division were withdrawn and proceeded in joining Gen. Ritchie to the rear of Tobruk. The South Africans, covered by the 50th, got away first. Then the 50th, finding the way blocked by the enemy to the east, actually marched west, right through the Italian lines; then, wheeling round Bir Hacheim, they swerved north-east and reached the British lines almost intact, bringing with them many prisoners. For 30 miles they fought their way, beating off enemy attacks, destroying enemy guns and tanks, overrunning hostile positions.

On June 13 Cairo reported that the British forces had been withdrawn from Sidi Rezegh and the Indians from El Adem, although mobile forces were continuing to harass the enemy in the area S.W. of Tobruk. All the boxes except Tobruk had fallen. These withdrawals, imposed on Ritchie by the now far superior strength of the enemy, brought the 5th Army to the Egyptian frontier. Two enemy columns followed the retreating British to the border, where they were held up near the Halfaya Pass. To the west only one British outpost remained, the bastion of Tobruk. And that, too, was soon to fall.

On the morning of Saturday, June 20, following a heavy air bombardment, the enemy attacked Tobruk in force, and broke through the south-east perimeter defences (maneuved, as it happened, by tired troops) at El Duka, forcing a gap through which tanks and lorried infantry swept past. The garrison, a mixed force of British (21st Guards Motor Brigade, 32nd Army Tank Brigade), South Africans (H.Q. 2nd S.A. Division, 4th and 6th S.A. Infantry Brigades), and Indians (11th Indian Infantry Bde.), commanded by the South African General, H. R. Klopfer, put up a fierce resistance; but the tanks of the German 15th Armoured and the 60th Light Divisions, supported by the Italian Trasite and Ariete Divisions, carried everything before them. The assault was launched at 5.40 a.m.; by 9.0 a.m., according to the German account, Rommel's forces had broken through the minefields into the inner ring. Rommel himself led the tempestuous advance in his light armoured car, and by 11.30 a.m. he was eight miles inside the perimeter. By 4.45 p.m. the
main positions were in German hands, although the guns were still firing from the batteries near the coast. Fort Palafruego surrendered early on Sunday morning; but here and there in the outer ring, and in Tobruk itself, fighting continued until late on Sunday. Klopfer had hoped to fight his way out to the west, but only a lucky few, including some of the Coldstream Guards, succeeded in getting through the enemy. "At 5 a.m. this morning," said a special announcement issued in Rome that Sunday afternoon, "a British officer presented himself at the Headquarters of our 21st Army Corps to offer the surrender of the fortress of Tobruk in the name of the Commander. Axis troops had occupied fortress, town, and harbour. 25,000 prisoners, including several Generals, have surrendered."

For 517 days, from January 21, 1941, to June 21, 1942, the 8th Army had held Tobruk. Now, at last, this persistent thorn in the flesh of the German troops on the road to Egypt had been plucked out. From Berlin came the news that Gen. Rommel had been promoted Field-Marshal.

Tobruk's fall was a heavy blow, all the heavier because it had been so unexpected. Mr. Churchill received the news as he went into President Roosevelt's room in the White House. "I hope the House will realize what a bitter pang this was to me..." he said. It was utterly unexpected, he made it plain later, not only by the public, but by the War Cabinet, the General Staffs, by General Auchinleck and the High Command of the Middle East. Only on the night before its capture General Auchinleck had telephoned that the garrison was adequate, the defences in good order, and 90 days' supplies were available for the troops.

Shortly before Tobruk's fall the 8th Army was reported to be holding strong fortified positions on the Libyan-Egyptian frontier. But it soon proved that this Hafaya line was quite insufficient to hold up the enemy for 10 days or a fortnight, as had been hoped. On June 25 G.H.Q. Cairo announced that the British troops had been withdrawn from Sollum and Soli Omar. That same day General Auchinleck assumed personal command of the 8th Army, in succession to General Ritchie. Three days later heavy fighting was reported to be taking place near Mersa Matruh on the line that was, that had been, the front in September 1940 before Wavell assumed the offensive.

In the fighting about Mersa Matruh a gallant part was stated to have been played by the New Zealand Division, who were rushed there from Palestine.

"The Government of New Zealand agreed to the fullest use being made of their troops," said Mr. Churchill, in his speech of July 2, "whom they have not withdrawn or weakened in any way. They have sent them into battle under the command of the heroic Freyberg, and they have acquitted themselves in a manner equal to all their former records."

That Mersa Matruh, for long the advanced British base, had been evacuated was announced in Cairo on June 29; the Axis claimed that it was taken by storm by the Italian 21st Armoured Corps, preceded by the 7th Bersaglieri, and units of the German 90th Division, and that 6,000 prisoners had been taken. This was scouted in London, however, since it had never been the Allied intention to stand a siege in the town.

The enemy continued his advance along the coast, through Fuka and El Daba to El Alamein, only some 90 miles from Alexandria. Here, with his left flank resting on the Qattara Depression and his right on the Mediterranean, Auchinleck, after having issued a spirited Order of the Day, made the determined stand that he had planned.

The 50th Division was singled out by the War Office in a later communique for special commendation. "Their toughness and discipline saved more than themselves. At Alamein they helped to hold the German and Italian divisions who were pushing on, flushed with success and expecting an easy conquest of Egypt. During those six weeks from late June a few tired formations saw the world from disaster. Before the end of August the Eighth Army, reinforced and re-equipped, was faced again and invincible. But for many days a few thousand Indians, South Africans, Australians, and New Zealanders and what was left of the British 1st and 7th Armoured Divisions and the 50th alone barred the way to the Nile. In each phase of the struggle the 50th enhanced their reputation as a fighting and determined fighter."

Rommel attacked in strength on July 2, but the British counter-attacked his flank with their armoured and mobile units, and after heavy fighting the enemy withdrew, leaving the El Alamein positions intact. Although they had suffered the loss of over 80,000 men, the 8th Army were still unbeaten. Time was to prove that this was the farthest east and the
nearest to the Nile Valley that the Afrika Korps and its Italian auxiliaries were to reach.

Through July the communiques were chiefly concerned with local offensive made by the 8th Army, resulting in the capture of the Tel el Eisa ridge in the northern sector of the now rapidly stabilizing front and the Ruweisat ridge to the south.

During August there was patrol activity and artillery exchanges, but until the end of the month the fall continued. Then, at 2 a.m. on August 31, the Afrika Korps attacked the 8th Army's positions at El Alamein in the neighbourhood of El Hermemut, a little 200-ft.-high peak on the edge of the Qattara Depression. For several days fighting continued, but having made no real progress, and being hard pressed by British armoured and mobile forces, Rommel started his withdrawal on September 4. Then it was given out in Germany that his offensive had been merely a reconnaissance in force. Yel, as Cairo pointed out, the entire Afrika Korps, comprising the 90th Light Division and two Panzer divisions, and a large part of the Italian 29th Motorized Corps, had been thrown into the battle. That the offensive had not succeeded was largely due to the ferocity of the Allied air attack. German press releases admitted that shortly before the offensive Rommel had told them that they would soon be in Cairo.

Some months later, in Parliament, Mr. Churchill told the story of the "American tanks, the admirable Sherman" which had gone to reinforce the 8th Army. On the day that the news came of the fall of Tobruk the Premier was with President Roosevelt in the White House. The President took a large number of the Shermans—"their very best tanks, just coming out of the factories"—back from the American troops to whom they had just been delivered. Placed on board ship in the early days of July, they sailed direct to Suda under American escort. The President also sent a large number of the 105-mm. self-propelled guns. One ship in the precious convoy was sunk, but immediately, without being asked, the United States replaced it with another ship carrying an equal number of these weapons.

Tobruk was raided on the night of September 13 by a British Combined Operations force and on the same night desert forces of the 8th Army having penetrated some hundreds of miles within the enemy lines, raiding Benghazi and Barce, destroying many Axis aircraft on the ground and inflicting severe casualties on enemy personnel and motor transport. Then on the night of September 15, 15 miles to the south of Benghazi, was successfully raided. All the forces engaged in these daring thrusts returned safely to their bases. On September 30 British infantry made a limited advance in the central sector of the Alamein front, and the local gains were consolidated. Then once again followed from Cairo a series of "No change" bulletins.

But changes, great changes, were in the offing. Since August 18 General the Hon. Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander had been Commander-in-Chief Middle East, in succession to General Auchinleck, while General Ritchie's place as Commander of the 8th Army was now taken by Lieutenant-General B. L. Montgomery; these appointments were among the direct results of Mr. Churchill's visit to Cairo, itself due to his "far from satisfied with the conditions reported to prevail in the 8th Army." It had been intended that Ritchie's successor should be Maj.-Gen. W. H. E. Goetz, but he had been killed on the way to Cairo a few days before the plane in which he was a passenger was shot down by enemy aircraft. Maj.-Gen. H. Lumsden became commander of the 10th Army Corps.

New men were now at the helm, with new opportunities; vast reinforcements and vast supplies of weapons of the very latest description were being poured into Egypt. As the October days passed there was intensive activity in the narrowing area of desert that ended at Alamein. On October 23, to the tune of a terror barrage, the 8th Army scrambled out of its trenches and set out on the long and unbrokenly successful trail which was to end in triumph a little over six months later at the gates of Tunis.
Chapter 225

OPERATIONS IN MADAGASCAR: MAY 5 TO NOVEMBER 5, 1942

Early in 1942 it became clear that there was a considerable risk of Japanese forces taking possession of Madagascar: in consequence, the Allies decided to forestall this possibility by landing troops and establishing control of the island. Here is the story of the first operations in May 1942, and those which subsequently became necessary in September and resulted in the complete occupation.

It was in February 1942, when Japan was overrunning Malaya, the Philippines and the East Indies and threatening Burma and India and Australia, that Britain planned an expedition to secure Madagascar. The ultimate fate of this strategically vital island if it were left under the administration of the weak and vacillating government of Vichy France, and taking into consideration Japan’s territorial ambitions, was certain: it would fall to Japan.

Madagascar (see map in page 2244) is 900 miles long, 250 miles across at its widest part, and, including the Comoro Islands which are under the same administration, comprises an area of about 240,000 sq. miles. Larger than France itself and four times the size of England and Wales, it is the third largest island in the world. The Mozambique Channel separates it from the mainland of Africa. With its wild ruggedness, its inhospitable coasts fringed with reefs and sandbanks, its wide range of climate, it is no soldiers’ paradise. Its peoples, numbering 3,798,000, and including 25,000 French and assimilated French and 14,000 foreigners, are chiefly Malagasy, the collective denomination of some 18 tribes. All came under the jurisdiction of the Governor-General, who in early 1942 was M. Annet, a personality strongly pro-Vichy.

In mid-February, 1942, Allied anxiety regarding the future status of the island was evidenced by conversations between Mr. Sumner Welles and the Vichy representative in Washington, M. Henri-Hays, following reports that the French administration in Madagascar was prepared to allow the Japanese to establish themselves there. M. Henri-Hays stated that his Government “had decided to protect the island against any incursion.” A similar assurance was given by Vichy to Admiral Leahy (American Ambassador) on March 10.

Madagascar’s strategic importance was obvious. It possessed in Diego Suarez one of the finest harbours in the world, and a fortified naval station.

There were also a number of deep inshore anchorages at Tamatave, Majunga, Tsaraf, Nosy-Bé and Mayotte (the last in the near-by Comoro Islands), and some 150 airfields and landing grounds. Madagascar lay across the United Nations’ sea communications with Egypt and the Eighth and Ninth Armies, with India, China, Ceylon and Russia (via Persia). Japanese occupation, once secured, would have given the enemy a large and invaluable base from which to attack and possibly disrupt supplies travelling by these routes. Indeed, if this risk had been allowed to materialize, such attacks could conceivably have cut Allied communications altogether in this vital part of the globe. In Japanese hands Madagascar would have constituted a powerful and ever growing threat both to South Africa and to India.

Politically as well as strategically Allied occupation of Madagascar was a necessity. So obvious was this move that even calm and imperturbable Mr. Churchill notoriously confessed to a feeling of great anxiety about Allied intentions in his speech of May 10, 1942.

“While the troops were at sea,” he said, “I must tell you that I felt a shiver every time I saw the word “Madagascar” in the newspapers. All those articles with diagrams and maps, showing how very important it was for us to take Madagascar and forestall the Japanese, and be there first for once, as they say, fill me with apprehension.”

As Mr. Churchill also stated in his speech, it was the fertile and disadvantageous climate—or conviviality—by Vichy in Indo-China that had inspired the Allied cause so much (permitting a land attack to be launched on Malaya via Indo-China and Thailand), a recurrence of which in Madagascar might easily have had fatal consequences for the Allies.

Here then was the strategic and political background to the British occupation of the island. The expedition comprised (according to the official announcement) a naval force of two cruisers, four destroyers, troop transports and

LEADERS OF THE MADAGASCAR EXPEDITION

Rear Admiral E. N. Sylvestre, R.N. (left), commanded the British Naval forces which took part in the assault on Diego Suarez on May 5, 1942. Later in the year he was appointed Acting Vice-Admiral and advanced from C.B. to K.C.B. The leader of our land forces was Major-General R. F. Sturgess, Royal Marines (centre), who was created C.B. in 1942.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright
Invasion craft, with air support from the aircraft-carriers "Illustrious" and "Indomitable," all under the command of Rear-Admiral E. N. Syfret, and a military force commanded by Major-General R. G. Sturges, C.B. (Royal Marines). Later the Admiralty allowed it to be said that the battleship "Ramilies" took part. The force arrived at Courier Bay in the extreme north of the island in the early hours of May 6, 1942. At 4.30 a.m. the assault began according to plan. The first news of this landing was given in a joint Admiralty and War Office communiqué on the same morning, and stated that the Governor-General of Madagascar, M. Amet, had rejected a British ultimatum and had announced his intention to fight to the end. The Axis reaction followed familiar lines. Berlin audaciously described it as a "breach of international law." Tokyo naively asserted that Japan had never had any intention of occupying Madagascar; while Pétain, denouncing this latest example of "British aggression," sent a message to M. Amet urging resistance in Madagascar's "tragic hour." Admiral Darian also sent a message to the Vichy forces in the island, declaring that once again the British, instead of fighting their enemies, sought the easiest path of attacking a French colony. "Fight to the limit of your possibilities," he said, "and make the British pay dearly for their act of highway robbery.

The same day (May 5, 1942) America signed her approval of Britain's action in a statement by the U.S. State Dept., and declared that the United States and Great Britain were in accord that Madagascar would be restored to France after the war or at any time that the occupation of the island was longer essential to the common cause of the United Nations. Three days later the British Foreign Office issued the following statement:

"Simultaneously with the first landing of British troops at Courier Bay, and long before any active resistance was encountered, the British forces commandant, on the instructions of H.M. Government, made the following proposals to the French authorities in Madagascar in return for their cooperation and in order to avoid bloodshed.

They informed the authorities that Madagascar would remain French and, after the war, be restored to French sovereignty. They further stated that if members of the civil and military organisations declared their intentions to cooperate with the United Nations, their salaries and pensions would be paid. Funds would be made available for that specific purpose."

A guarantee of repatriation was given to civil and military personnel who did not wish to cooperate with the United Nations, and could claim the right to reside in Metropolitan France. Repatriation would take place when ships were available.

The French forces also announced the intention of the United Nations not only to restore their troops to the island, but to extend to Madagascar every economic benefit accorded to French territories which had already opted for the Allies. Under a condition laid down by the commanders was that no destruction of civil and military installations, war stores, armament, and other supplies must be carried out by the French on the island.

In Allied countries and throughout the Empire Britain's preventive action was warmly welcomed.

The attack, as ingeniously planned as it was brilliantly carried out, envisaged a combined three-phase assault by the Army and the Naval Forces, with the support of the Fleet Air Arm. The assault landing craft were under the command of Captain G. A. Garnons-Williams, D.S.C., R.N., of the Combined Operations Command. The assault revealed the military value of our new tactics of "combined operations," as they were hardly tested on a large scale. Having cleared the sea approaches of the anticipated mines, the ships moved in, though not without the loss of H.M. corvette "Porcupine." (Lieut.-Comdr. S. L. Maybury), with a small number of casualties. At 4.30 a.m. No. 5 Commando and a company of the East Lancashires landed at Courier Bay. Overpowering the coast defence battery at Windsor Castle, they
proceeded with great dash and vigour to the town of Diego Suarez, which fell to them just after 4 p.m.

Meanwhile two diversionary attacks (one air and one naval) had been completed successfully. The aircraft carriers "Illustrious" and "Indomitable" carried five types of aircraft: Swordfish and Albacore torpedo-bombers, reconnaissance two-three-seater aircraft, Fulmar two-seater fighters, and Martlet and Sea Hurricane single-seat fighters. This tactically compact sea-air force provided air cover for the landing force.

The airport of Antsiran was attacked at dawn on the first day. Four aircraft that escaped this assault were later shot down by Fleet Air Arm fighter patrols.

With torpedoes, bombs, and machine-guns the British naval aircraft attacked a slop, a submarine, and an armed merchant ship off Antsiran; the slop escaped that day, but was set on fire and sunk next morning. The aircraft bombed a shore gun position, and dropped leaflets demanding the surrender of other shore batteries and the town of Antsiran, and made a diversionary parachute attack.

Complete air mastery was established, and this materially aided the speedy capture of the important port of Diego Suarez and the creation of the first bridgehead on the island of Madagascar—for Antsiran, facing Diego Suarez across a narrow channel, was the decisive strategic key to the area concerned.

The Naval diversion had started at about 4.40 a.m. by the firing of smoke and star shells at the most probable landing place on the E. coast, which was Ambositra tree Bay, S.E. of Antsiran.

South of Courier Bay the main forces had by this time effected a successful landing (in Ambaharana Bay), experiencing little opposition. These forces—the assault brigade—comprised the East and South Lancashire Regiments, the Royal Welch Fusiliers and the Royal Scots Fusiliers. Landing at three different points, they encountered considerable operational difficulties, caused by a heavy swell, in getting the armoured vehicles and tanks ashore.

Having secured the beaches, the assault brigade pressed forward along the road to Antsiran, some 20 miles away to the east, supported by Bren-gun carriers and tanks and dragging their stores and ammunition in hand carts. Opposition encountered about 11 a.m. was overcome by two companies of infantry supported by howitzers and three tanks. Towards mid-day other drawbacks made themselves felt in the form of exhausting heat, clouds of dust, and a multitude of insects. The roads, too, were little more than blind tracks, with dense foliage each side shutting out any view of the countryside. After a few hours' rest the main advance continued.

After some slight resistance, our troops found themselves under severe fire from concealed French 75s and machine-guns at the main positions of the Vicky forces, some three miles from Antsiran. This, combined with an anti-tank ditch and the approach of nightfall, compelled our troops to halt, with the issue undecided.

BRITISH LANDING CRAFT APPROACHES DIEGO SUAREZ

The assault on Diego Suarez began at 4.30 a.m. on May 5, 1942. A seven-hour ultimatum was tendered to M. Annet, the Governor-General, but he elected to "fight to the end." Resistance ceased, however, on May 7 and Admiral Syrnet was able to take his warships into the fine harbour. Top, one of the British landing parties near the shore; below, men of No. 5 Commando resting in a street at Diego Suarez after their overland dash to occupy the town.

Photo, R.A.F. Section: E.N.A.

Dawn the next morning (May 6) saw the launching of our next attack on a three-battalion front; the aim now being the storming of the main positions and the capture of Antsiran. Resistance here was so stiff that little headway was made, although the East Lancashire Regiment gained an important tactical success which was not known at British H.Q. until it was too late to exploit it. Indeed, the total "disappearance" of this regiment gave rise for a time to the
gravest concern regarding its safety. Despite the strong frontal attack, numerous difficulties made it essential to await the arrival of the support brigade—the inadequate observation for our guns due to smoke from innumerable brush fires; the inadequacy of our fire-power to knock out enemy guns, which were excellently sited; and the heat and the dust, to which the British troops were not yet accustomed. This brigade comprised parts of the Royal Scots Fusiliers, the Northamptonshire Regiment and the Seaforth Highlanders. Working under hazardous and exhausting conditions, these troops had meanwhile landed on the same beaches—with their stores, equipment, tanks and guns, and during the day had caught up with the assault brigade.

A supplementary plan was now improvised, in which a night assault was to begin at 8.30, preceded by artillery and air bombardment. A diversionary attack by 50 Royal Marines from H.M.S. "Ramillies" was planned at the rear of the town. Dead on time the main attack was launched. By 11 p.m. our forces had penetrated undetected between the two forts guarding Antsirane and had reached a position some 1,500 yards beyond the tank ditch and the trench system. This success they announced by firing rockets. They were followed quickly and closely by the rest of the forces, which pressed forward to reach the main harbour, meeting little opposition. By 4 a.m. (May 7) Antsirane had fallen.

Much of the credit for this brilliant operation must go to the 50 "sealsoldiers" detailed to make the diversionary attack. With them on board the destroyer "Anthony" made the circuit of the northern tip of Madagascar, and then dashed into Antsirane harbour at 8 o'clock, in pitch darkness, and under extreme heavy gunfire which she returned. Arriving alongside a wharf, the Marines tumbled ashore. Within half an hour they were in possession of many strategic points, including the strong held barracks and the magazine. They sustained one casualty. The Marines are said to have created a "disturbance in the town out of all proportion to their numbers." Their swift success prevented heavy street fighting which might have caused serious damage and heavy losses.

Faced with the collapse of Antsirane, Fort Caimans and Fort Bellevue surrendered at 2 p.m., followed in the afternoon by the coast-defence batteries on the Orange peninsula (see map, p. 242). It was a triumphant moment when, a little later, Admiral Syfret's warships steamed majestically into Diego Suarez harbour. Thus, at an expense of only 600 casualties (fewer than 100 of whom were killed), one corvette and a few naval planes, Britain secured Diego Suarez and all the peninsula which strategically goes with the naval base. French losses in manpower, according to Colonel Carbone, Vichy officer commanding the French forces in this area, were 650 casualties, of which 150 represented men killed.
The Allies' hope that their successful occupation of the naval base of Diego Suarez would bring about the cessation of French resistance elsewhere on Madagascar was foredoomed to failure. That the task of occupying the entire island was forced reluctantly on the Allies was made clear by a British Government announcement on September 10, 1942. This stated that since the Vichy attitude made it clear that their essential requirements could not be achieved by peaceful means, further military operations would have to be undertaken on the island. It also reiterated many of the statements made by the Foreign Office on May 8. This new policy received the instant approval of the United States.

Following the storming of Diego Suarez there had been a comparative lull in military operations for some weeks, British action taking mainly the form of air reconnaissance and the consolidation of positions. On July 9 Mayotte, the principal island of the Comoro group some 200 miles west of Diego Suarez, was secured by British Commandos supported by detachments of the Royal Marines and East African Rifles. Mayotte guarded the north end of the Mozambique Channel, through which passed Allied convoys to the Middle East and Persia (for Russia).

An examination of the next phase of British strategy (designed to secure the occupation of all the island) reveals that its fundamental conceptions were based on a model not dissimilar to the Japanese methods which had achieved so much for the enemy in Malaya. In broad outline British strategy took the form of a two-pronged advance down the coasts from Diego Suarez, intended primarily to cover the flanks of bigger operations farther south. Amphibious operations, again including the use of Commando units, were planned to seize all important ports, and then to thrust inland to occupy towns and points of strategic value. On September 10, 1942, this phase of the offensive began with widespread landings on the west coast. The forces, comprising British, South and East African troops under the command of Gen. Sir William Platt, and supported by the South African Air Force, took the island of Nosy-Bé in the north, occupied Majunga, made an unopposed landing at Morondava (some 690 miles south of Diego Suarez), and thence began an advance inland towards Mahafy, on the Morondava-Ambositra road. Simultaneously troops at Diego Suarez moved southward towards Amboasary.
BRITISH OPERATIONS AGAINST MADAGASCAR, MAY-SEPT., 1942

On May 5 a combined force attacked Diego Suarez (see special map in p. 2240), which was occupied on the 7th. In September it became necessary to control the entire island, and British forces landed at Majunga and Morondava (Sept. 10). Another British force landed at Tamatave on the 18th. Tamatave, the capital, was taken by troops from Majunga on the 23rd. South Africans landed at Tulear, in the south, on Sept. 29 and drove north-eastwards. On November 5, at the request of the Governor-General, M. Amiel, an armistice was signed.

Specially drawn for The Second Great War by F. L. Gooden

on the west coast, and to Vohemar on the east coast.

By September 12 the troops advancing down the west coast had occupied Ambanja, despite bridge demolitions and minor opposition. A successful landing in the Maromandia area a few days later, combined with a further advance by the troops against stiffer opposition, sufficed to end all resistance between these places. Hummed in, the Vichy forces sur-

rendered. From here, however, the advance was slowed up by extensive demolitions and road blocks, but nevertheless the British forces had entered Befotaka by September 21. Next day saw the completion of the major task assigned to them when, occupying Antsokhy, they linked up with a column which had proceeded north from Majunga, thereby controlling the Diego Suarez-Majunga road.

On the east coast British troops within two days had occupied Vohemar, and were advancing southward. Although opposition was relatively slight the enemy's delaying actions, the heavy rains, and topographical difficulties restricted the speed of our troops, so that Salamanga, some 150 miles south of Diego Suarez, was not occupied until September 21, and Ambalavao on the 23rd.

The landing at Morondava—the speed and effectiveness of which took the enemy completely by surprise—was mainly designed as a diversionary attack. No opposition was encountered and not a shot was fired. Pushing inland, within a few days Mahabo, on the road to Ambositra, had been occupied by South African troops.

Meanwhile further troops were being speedily landed at Majunga, which No. 5 Commando had occupied by November 5.

Sergeant Walasi, M.M.

At a parade in Tamatave Lieut.-General Sir William Platt (left), G.O.C. British Forces, decorated three African airmen with the Military Medal for gallantry during the advance on the Madagascan capital. Here Sergeant Walesi, of the Nyasaland Battalion, is receiving the medal.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright
ROYAL AIR FORCE LYSENSERS OVER MADAGASCAR

Much of the success of the British campaign was due to tireless and many-sided operations of a flight of R.A.F. Lysanders. In the initial stages they carried out reconnaissance and anti-submarine patrols; later, during the southern advance, they gave close-bombing support.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

DESTROYERS COVERED THE SEPTEMBER LANDINGS

Early in September 1942, British, South African and East African forces landed at a number of points on the west coast of Madagascar to secure control of the island. Here is the scene on one of the British destroyers as her 4.7-inch guns fire at a shore target during the operations.

Photo, Central Press

Naval Commander (7.15 a.m.): "I am sending naval convoy in boat. If you fire on him I shall bombard." Hence the story is completed by the correspondent referred to above:

"The boat came at 7.35, when the convoy boat left. Four hundred yards from the shore they found nothing. I saw a tracer bullet splash near the boat, which was unarmed. The captain and the crew dived and turned the boat round. The naval commander shouted, 'Here we go!' That was at 7.48. We gave the motor-launches time to get to safety and at 7.52 we opened fire. Inside three minutes the boat was holed, and at 7.52 women were cheering along the promenade again."

By 9.4 the Union Jack flew from the Tanio flagstaff, Tamatape was taken, and a new and formidable threat to Tananarive was shaping itself.

In Tamatape the British troops were received with great friendliness and, thanks to the speed with which the town was captured, could soon consolidate their position. The lack of the docks, airport and railway intact. Taking full advantage of this diversion, the British troops on the Majunga-Tananarive road continued their advance towards the capital. Fighting a successful engagement with Vichy forces south of Audirbe, by September 21 they had occupied Ankazobe. The fall of this important town coincided with that of Brickavalle, the road and rail junction between Tamatape and the capital. All the bridges between Tamatape and Brickavalle had to be rebuilt before our men could advance. On the 23rd the village of Mahisy, 15 miles from Tamanarive, was taken by the Imperial troops advancing from the north.

The next stage, the capture of...
Tananarive, was not expected to be accomplished easily. On a 4,000-foot plateau, to which the road rises through difficult country in 86 miles, Tananarive was situated in the best defended area of the island. Nevertheless, despite strong resistance, it was taken on September 23, our troops (the Majunga contingent) entering the city to the cheers of the people. Few important Vichy officials were captured, the majority of them, including M. Amnet, having fled before the arrival of our troops. Immediately on his arrival Gen. Platt issued a seven-point proclamation:

FRENCH NATIONAL COMMITTEE TAKES OVER

On December 14, 1942, Britain signed an agreement with the French National Committee in London regarding the administration of Madagascar. The British occupation was to come to an end as soon as possible after the arrival there of General Legentilhomme (left), appointed High Commissioner on November 17. Centre, General de Gaulle signs the agreement; right, Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary.

1. The establishment of military jurisdiction.
2. The British Command to be responsible for the maintenance of law and order and to respect local customs.
3. Local officials to remain in their posts under orders of the military authorities.
4. Crimes to be punished by military tribunals.
5. Local civil jurisdiction to continue, though temporarily suspended.
6. People to return to their normal occupations.
7. The French flag to continue to be flown in Tananarive.

On September 25 the Foreign Office in London announced that, though subject temporarily to military jurisdiction, French sovereignty over Madagascar would remain unaffected.

But the fight was not over. On September 29 British columns moving east from the capital made contact with the columns advancing from Bracksville, thus securing control of the Tananarive-Tananarive railway. Another force advancing south-west, occupied Behenjy. In the morning of the same day amphibious South African forces had landed at Tulear, in the south-west of the island. It was taken without firing a shot. The biggest battle of the whole campaign, however, had yet to be fought. Our troops, advancing from Behenjy, had occupied both Tananarive and Ambohimia meeting negligible resistance. Further south these troops had linked up with others who

movements during the hours of darkness. In the early hours of October 19, despite heavy rain, our men were guarding all roads and positions round the defenders.

Zero hour came, and with it a mist which blanketed the whole countryside.

In the ensuing confusion of our attack the Vichy forces fled, but many found themselves surrounded and surrendered.

Some 800 prisoners were taken alive, including a brigade commander and his staff. The end was now near. There remained Fianarantsoa as the only important town left in Vichy hands.

On October 20 this, too, was taken, though not before a hard battle had been fought in which our troops took some 440 prisoners. M. Amnet and General Guillemin, commander of the Vichy forces, had been using Fianarantsoa as their H.Q., fled southwards. At 2 p.m. on November 5, an armistice—requested by M. Amnet—was signed between the British and the Vichy military authorities.

It had been a strange campaign. Frequently it had been a war of spades rather than of rifles, with the local natives working hard for both sides—first for the Vichy forces and then for the British—destroying bridges, felling trees as road blocks, and then changing their allegiance as the enemy retreated and the British advanced. In different phases the campaign had been characterized by stages of unopposed progress or of mere token resistance, by brief and unexpected battles, by sudden and dramatic capitulations. Once the drives had been the poor communications, the pest of flies, tropic heat and soaking morning dew, and the ever-present threat of malaria.

It remained to restore to Madagascar the freedom and protection that was her right. On November 11 it was announced that General Paul Legentilhomme, Fighting French Commissioner for War, had been appointed High Commissioner for Madagascar. On December 14 an agreement was concluded in London between the British Government and the French National Committee whereby the provisional military administration of Madagascar was set up after the British occupation was to come to an end upon the arrival there of the High Commissioner, when the necessary arrangements had been made for the re-establishment of the exercise of French sovereignty under his authority. In a statement at this time, General de Gaulle said that the agreement obliterated the consequences of "sad events which recently occurred in that territory."
BRITISH OCCUPATION OF MADAGASCAR'S CAPITAL

East African troops, supported by South African armored cars and British artillery, entered Tananarive at 3 p.m. on September 23. At a parade later the G.O.C., Lieut.-General Sir William Platt, K.C.B., D.S.O., decorated these African soldiers (see illus., p. 324). He is seen above taking the salute. Below, landing transport at Majunga, occupied by British troops on September 20.

(Photos: British official - Crown Copyright)
BRITISH COMMANDOS LAND AT MAJUNGA AND TAMATAVE

British forces landed at Majunga and Morondava, and also captured the island of Nosy Be, on September 16, 1942. Below, men of No. 5 Commando leave a transport in assault craft for the attack on Majunga, which fell within an hour. Eight days later came the call to Tamatave to surrender. The British convoy was fired upon, but after a few shells from our warships there was little further opposition. Commandos are seen at top rushing the beaches there.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright.
COMMANDER RYDER'S OWN IMPRESSIONS OF ST. NAZAIRE ATTACK

Below, our Naval forces return enemy fire, while preparing to land Commando troops. H.M.S. 'Campbeltown' is the larger vessel nearer the centre—then about half a mile from her objective. Above, having passed the lock gates (see illus., p. 2250), 'Campbeltown' is discharging her crew on to an M.L. alongside. An M.T.B. is shown coming into the Old Entrance to report for orders to the M.G.B. on the list.

Specially drawn for THE SECOND GREAT WAR by Commander R. M. D. Ryder, V.C., R.N.
SEVASTOPOL: PRICE OF EIGHT MONTHS’ RESISTANCE

These photographs of Sevastopol after it fell into German hands on July 3, 1942, are eloquent of the heroic struggle waged by its gallant garrison and of the men and women workers who, deep down in its cellars, made and repaired weapons and provided the fighting front with what it needed. The final offensive lasted from June 1 until July 3, and was made by 14 German infantry divisions, 490 tanks, and 900 aircraft. Siege artillery that included 24-inch mortars battered the fortress unceasingly. (See also illus. in pages 2666 and 3268.)

Photos, Keystone; G.P.U.
Chapter 226
BRITISH COMMANDO RAIDS OF 1942

Gordon Holman, author of this Chapter, was present at the raid on St. Nazaire, on the motor gunboat which served as the headquarters of Commander Ryder during the action. He helped to tend the wounded—under the most difficult conditions, said the official account—and was mentioned in despatches. Beginning with the second raid on the Lofoten Islands (December 26, 1941), the narrative then describes in turn the raids on Bruneval, on St. Nazaire, Boulogne and Le Touquet, and the Commandos part in the Madagascar operations.

On January 1, 1942, a number of His Majesty's ships came home to a northern port. Among them were destroyers, corvettes and tankers, but one had a silhouette which would have puzzled the trained observer. Her camouflage was similar to the others; she was plentifully if not heavily armed—but the lines were hardly those of a ship of war. Those who looked curiously at her would have been surprised if they could have gone aboard. They would have found many soldiers—far outnumbering the crew—busily engaged in stacking small-arms ammunition, grenades and special equipment, ready for disembarkation. Most of the men had short-handled knives inserted into the side seams of the covering at convenient hand level.

They might not have found it difficult to connect these men and this scene with a brief official communiqué published in their morning newspaper:

"Our light forces returned today from combined operations. We suffered no casualties nor damage, and our forces shot down one enemy aircraft. They also sank a German patrol vessel and completely disorganised the enemy's communications in an important area.

It was, in fact, the return of the Commandos from Lofoten. It was the first time that the British special service troops had visited the German occupation forces in the far northern islands which jut out 70 miles to the west of Norway. Their very first operation had been carried out there nine months previously. On that occasion, however, the Commandos were not yet known to the enemy. (See Chapter 222.)

The second Lofoten raid was the northern prong of the first big two-pronged attack by our Combined Operational forces. The southern prong was the spectacular raid on Vaagso and Mulloyn, (see Chapter 222). To reach the Lofoten islands in mid-winter entailed a long and hazardous journey well within the Arctic circle. A big responsibility rested with the Royal Navy: the senior officer of the small expeditionary force was Rear-Admiral L. H. K. Hamilton, D.S.O., whose father and grandfather had also been admirals. The land forces (No. 12 Commando) were led by Lieut.-Col. S. S. Harrison, M.C., R.A.

Addressing the soldiers aboard the Commando ship before the expedition set forth, Admiral Hamilton said, "I think I can give you the opportunity to kill a few Germans, and there will be other occasions on which we may have a certain amount of fun. I am confident that you will deliver the goods in every way." During the long passage northward, when the Commando ship was escorted and screened by the light-cruiser flagship, destroyers and corvettes, the enemy was not once sighted. The weather was bitterly cold—spray from the bow-waves of the ships turned into sharp, face-stinging icicles before it could drop back into the sea. The guns had to be constantly oiled with a special thin lubricant.

In the Commando ship there was a steady daily routine, and when the soldiers were not sharing watches with the seamen they were to be found on the roof-decks, quietly cleaning and reassembling their weapons. Tommy-guns, rifles and revolvers were frequently taken to pieces and put together again; hand-grenades were primed and explosive charges made ready. With the Commandos were a number of Norwegian troops. Their toughness was an eye-opener even to the British special service men. Long after ice had begun to form on the decks they continued to make up their nightly "shave-downs" in the open rather than in the warm interior of the ship.

At 6 a.m. on Boxing morning (Dec. 25, 1941) the throng of the ship's engines suddenly ceased and among the Commandos, ready and waiting, there ran the words: "We are there." They said them grimly and expectantly. It was a moment they had been looking forward to for a long time. On deck it was pitch-black. Eyes which had purposely been getting used to darkness strained to get a first glimpse of the objective. One or two lights, real or imaginary, were seen, but it was impossible to say whether these belonged to ships or on land. Then there came a dramatic discovery. The light in the mid-distance appeared to improve and one or two of those gazing intently over the dark, cold sea pointed to what they said was a high bank of mist or fog. Others looked, and then one man put into words the half-formed thoughts of the majority:

"That is not fog; it's land!" he said.
He was right. The great jagged face of the Norwegian islands began to show itself distinctly. Covered with snow almost from the water's edge, it towered into the sky, the whiteness casting off its own mysterious light, brighter than the sombre dome of the heavens. With no more fuss than if they had been going ashore in England the Commando troops climbed quietly into the landing craft, the first of which slipped away towards the shore while others were still being lowered into the water. A strange sight told those remaining in the ship that the first landing had been made. As the British troops set foot ashore in the little village of Reine the news of their coming ran like wildfire before them, so that they were heralded by a rapidly extending "snake" of twinkling lights as cottage
ROYAL NAVY'S PART IN SECOND LOFOTEN RAID

The senior officer who led the expeditionary force to the Lofoten Islands on Boxing Day, 1941, was Rear-Admiral L. H. H. Masselot, D.S.O. (below). The raid was part of the wider operations which took in the landings at Vange and Narvik, to the south. Top, anti-aircraft pom-poms on a British warship in Kirke Fjord.

Photos: British Official

The house to live. The success signal was delayed while the Commandos, wearing their heavy Arctic kit with wind- and leather mittens, stalked the enemy in his semi-mountain retreat.

Commandos and Norwegian soldiers alike were given a movingly warm reception by the inhabitants. In the midst of happy scenes, with the visitors distributing presents of coffee, chocolate, newspapers and tobacco, the expected signal was given. A little later there was a strangely eloquent rush as the Norwegians watched a file of men descending the snow-covered hill towards the boat. Their German oppressors were leaving Lofoten, their arms raised in the face of the Commandos' Tommy-guns. The enemy had offered no resistance to the British, who had walked right into the one big common room where eight Germans were. The British force then returned to Reine and entered the fjord. All the vessels, with the exception of a destroyers guard, slowly dropped anchor, not one of them more than a quarter of a mile from the shore. So settled did the force become that Commandos actually went ashore for training purposes.

On the second morning the Germans, all their northern coastal shipping with supplies for their Russian front held up, made their first attack. A seaplane dropped a bomb close to H.M.S. "Arethusa," Escapes the flagship, without doing any real damage. Met by an A.A. barrage which rumbled around the almost land-locked fjord like a mighty thunder-storm, the Nazi planes flew off and crashed into the sea. Meanwhile, the Commandos, thoroughly disappointed that no big fighting had come their way, methodically collected German and quizzing prisoners, blew up radio-stations and anything likely to be helpful to the enemy, and helped the Navy capture several enemy vessels.

When it was decided that no further useful purpose could be served by what was nothing more than a raiding force, Admiral Hamilton gave the signal and the British vessels into which a number of Royal Norwegians had been taken as passengers, sailed for home. The whole expedition was carried out without loss.

Before we set down the record of the other fine achievements of the Commandos it may be as well to consider how this outstanding fighting force was produced. The foundation having been laid (see Chapter 188), Lord Louis Mountbatten took over in October 1941, and it soon became apparent that Combined Operations was to go from strength to strength, with the Commandos as its spearhead. The purpose was clear—to harass the enemy and to make the best use of our sea power in striking him on land, up and down the broad front to which he had, by his very conquests, committed himself. The first aim was to weld the soldiers, sailors and airmen of this special force into a united body. All training was directed towards giving every man a full understanding of each branch of combined operations. The Commandos, for instance, knew much about the handling of boats and landing craft. On one occasion a sergeant brought back an assault landing craft from the
other side of the Channel when all the Naval personnel had been killed or wounded.

The motto of Combined Operations, "United We Conquer," was before the Commandos throughout their arduous training. Special service troops took great pride in achievement, even during training. Frequently they were called upon to show great endurance. There were long marches—one unit marched, in fighting kit, 63 miles in less than 24 hours—with extended periods spent out in the open in all kinds of weather; special assault courses where nothing but live ammunition was used: the swimming of rivers and the climbing of high cliffs. To make the men self-reliant they were often required to find and cook their own food when carrying out exercises; the Commando soldier, unlike his brothers in the more regular formations, was frequently left without orders. He must prove himself, above all, a thinking soldier.

The assault was fundamentally the job of the Commando. The soldiers, therefore, must face an intensive training in this highly specialized form of warfare. Commandos, trained in specialized physical condition had to be tested under conditions so akin to actual battle that, when they were in "the real thing," they would behave as they would on the training courses. There were long periods, however, when the training of the troops was closely linked with the Navy and R.A.F. Men from all three services then worked as a team, combining their expert knowledge of modern fighting methods on land, at sea, and in the air.

Aircraft played a very important part in the next notable raid of 1942—the attack at Bruneval, not far from Le Havre in Northern France, on the night of February 27-28. The R.A.F. and men of an Airborne division combined to make the attack, and the Navy carried out the subsequent evacuation. It was decided that a German radio-location post at Bruneval should be put out of action. It was known that the enemy attached enough importance to this post to have it defended by about a hundred men and nearly a score of strong-points. Within easy distance, too, there were very large German forces, including an armoured unit.

Plans were most carefully made. It was only by split-second timing that complete success could be achieved. The parachute troops were flown to the attack in Whitleys under the command of Wing Commander Pickard, D.S.O., D.F.C., the soldiers themselves were commanded by Major J. H. Frost, of the Cameron Highlanders. In the planes they sang songs until they received the signal "Prepare for action." They dropped on to snow-covered ground and, although some of the party went slightly astray, immediately attacked the radio-location station and another building. They killed six out of the first seven Germans they met and occupied the station. Flight Sergeant Cox (an R.A.F. radio expert who had volunteered to go on the raid) and Airborne division engineers at once got to work on the apparatus. Other German forces came into action, and they had to work under heavy fire. The engineers performed their task quickly and well and the parachute troops began their withdrawal to the beaches.

There were still some strong enemy posts to be overcome and lights seen moving along the road suggested that Nazi reinforcements were being rushed up. A section of troops had been sent to cover the withdrawal of the airborne men from the beaches, but when the raiders got to the cliff edge they found that the beach had not yet been occupied by our forces. They joined in the attack on the Germans who were trying to prevent them getting away, and the occupants of one enemy pillbox were completely wiped out with accurately thrown grenades. Then, at about 2.30 a.m. on the 28th, the Naval forces (under the command of Com- mander F. N. Cook) rushed the assault landing craft to the beach. The men who had come by air and attacked the enemy on land with complete success now began their journey back to England by sea—under heavy fire from the frustrated Germans, gathering in force on the cliff top. Despite the speed with which they had had to work, the British parachute troops found time to collect several prisoners and bring them away. Our losses were one killed, seven wounded and seven missing.

Next in sequence comes the most spectacular raid of the period—one of the most daring enterprises of this or any other war—the attack on the strongly fortified Nazi-held base of St. Nazaire. It was on the night of March 27-28, 1942, that a comparatively small Combined Operations force stormed its way

AN EXPERIMENT IN 'RADIO DISLOCATION'.

This is what the official account in 'Combined Operations' feebly termed the successful attack on the radio-location station at Bruneval on the night of February 27-28, 1942. Top, Major J. D. Frost, of the Commandos, who led the airborne troops and won the M.C. for his bravery. Below (examining a German helmet), Wing Commander Pickard, D.S.O., D.F.C., who commanded the squadron of Whitleys, which dropped our paratroopers.
PARACHTISTS' COUP AT BRUNEVAL

In the cabin in a shallow pit near the cliff-edge was the German radio-locator. The men guarding the post fired on the villa a little farther back. After the close-range photograph (right) had been taken by the R.A.F., a true-to-life model was constructed for the instruction of the airborne troops who made the highly successful raid on the night of February 25-26, 1944. The post (marked R.D.F.) is also shown in the top photograph near the 'isolated house.' Whiz-bang bursts transported the airborne raiders to the scene, while our Naval forces covered their withdrawal and brought them home. The post was destroyed, and our casualties were only one killed, seven wounded, and seven missing.

Photos, British Official - Crown Copyright
up the estuary of the Loire and, fighting with reckless gallantry, smashed up vital military installations in a manner altogether out of proportion to the size of the force. The “Number One Objective” was the huge dry dock which gave the German base and a repair base for their largest warships, such as did not exist elsewhere between the Straits of Dover and the Mediterranean.

The force that achieved such amazing results set off from England on March 26 and, taking a leisurely course, was still some way from St. Nazaire when night fell on March 27. It consisted of two covering destroyers, H.M.S. “Atherstone” and “Tyne Dale,” the ex-American destroyer “Campbeltown,” a motor gunboat, a motor torpedo-boat and 16 motor launches. Commander R. E. D. Ryder was in command of the Naval force, and Lieut.-Colonel A. C. Newman, of the Essex Regiment, led the Number Two Commando and special service units attached to it. The Commando troops were carried in the “Campbeltown” and all the little vessels of the miniature fleet. The two covering destroyers were detailed to patrol outside the estuary.

At 8 p.m. on the night of March 27 the whole force, which had been moving slowly southward, suddenly swung round and headed north-east at high speed towards the mouth of the Loire. At first it was a lovely moonlit night, but as the ships approached the French coast a slight mist was encountered, such as is often found in that area at that
time of the year. It had been hoped that this slight natural cover would be available. It persisted as the “Campbeltown,” and her entourage raced homewards, and was undoubtedly something of a handicap to the R.A.F. bombers, which flew in to bomb the dock area and distract the attention of the enemy. Only one or two slightly fires were burning when the Naval and Commando force arrived.

The planes, however, did serve a double purpose. They certainly distracted the enemy, and the A.A. fire they compelled him to put up helped Lieut. A. R. Green, R.N., in his task as navigator. It was the magnificently accurate work of this officer which brought the force right into the mouth of the Loire shortly before 1 a.m. on the 28th. The motor gunboat, under the command of Lieut. D. M. C. Curtis, R.N.V.R., led the way, with the “Campbeltown” hard on her heels and the M.L.s strung out in two long lines astern. For several minutes after the Germans located the vessels they apparently found it hard to believe that it was an enemy force. They did not open fire, but instead challenged with signals.

Then the searchlights, which had been patterned the sky were suddenly swung down to sea level. They were bright enough to dazzle those in the small British craft, and every vessel was picked out as if it were daylight. For the first time the Germans saw the “Campbeltown” by this time well up the estuary, but still more than a mile and a half from her objective. Lying concealed on her decks were the Commando troops, who were “going all the way” with her—and a bit farther.

The sight of the destroyer galvanized the Germans into action. The first burst of tracer shells fired at her from the shore began the action, which in its closeness, intensity and fury was both numbing and awe-inspiring. “Campbeltown,” specially gunned for the occasion, replied at once with a withering fire, which momentarily silenced the German positions. Then guns blazed forth from every direction. The whole channel—canopied with green and red tracers from the shore—was mowed by shellfire at point-blank range; pilboxes on the mole seemed to complete the circle and, from the sea, our own fire went back with equal intensity. The motor gunboat rushed past a German flak ship which was almost directly in the path of the “Campbeltown.” For a moment both vessels concentrated their guns on the flak ship and she burst into flames.

Lt.-Cmdr. S. H. Beattie, commanding the “Campbeltown,” handling his ship with a superb indifference to the terrific camoufle, increased speed as he headed for the huge metal gate of the dry dock. With his own guns still blazing away he took the “Campbeltown” with a mighty crash right into the gate—so that her bows, reinforced with concrete, cut through it and the ship roared up at a crazy angle. In his
WHAT THE ATTACK ACHIEVED AT ST. NAZAIRE

Some of the troops in the M.L.s scrambled ashore, although the small armoured British vessels were not strong enough to overcome the enemy fortified positions on and around the Old Mole, which would have been a key point in our operations. Liet.-Colonel Newman watched the scene from the bridge of the motor gunboat, and at a moment when he must have known that any hopes of getting off those already ashore were extremely slender, insisted on landing with his handful of headquarters officers and men. The motor gunboat put them ashore close to the "Campbeltown" and also picked up a number of Naval survivors and wounded Commando men from that ship.

The Germans were still firing furiously from their many gun positions, although the gallant little ship had sailed, with White Ensign flying, into the enemy stronghold an hour or so earlier and was now hardly depleted.

Able Seaman Savage, V.C.

The slim motor torpedo-boat had come right up to the old dock near the "Campbeltown" and Liet. R. C. M. V. Wynn had fired his delayed-action torpedoes at the gates. Then came a moment when, apart from burning craft, only the M.G.B. and one M.L. remained in the harbour. They attacked a German pillbox at close range. Able Seaman Savage, on the exposed forward gun of the M.G.B., blew the top off it. Most of the crew of the M.G.B. were wounded, and also on board were the wounded from the "Campbeltown."

The M.L. in company with Commander Ryder’s small flagship was set on fire a few minutes later, and then the order was given for the M.G.B. to attempt the desperate run down the estuary. For mile after mile she went at full speed towards the open sea, subject to the terrific fire of every gun in the German defences. Six shells penetrated a petrol tank, but it did not explode. Her escape, even from the German heavy guns at the mouth of the estuary, was subsequently described in the citation accompanying the award of the Victoria Cross to Commander Ryder as "almost a miracle." Able Seaman Savage was killed by a shell splinter from the last German salvo; he received the posthumous award of the V.C.

Meanwhile, ashore, the Commando troops were fighting on. Under Colonel Newman’s command were 44 officers and 224 other ranks. Not all of these got ashore; at least three of the M.L.s were forced to leave the estuary without disembarking any of the men they carried. Of the total force
AFTER THE RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE AT LE TOUQUET

Special Service troops under Major K. R. S. Trevor landed on enemy-occupied coast in the Boulogne-Le Touquet area early on June 4, 1940. In the course of an hour they gained extremely valuable information. The Royal Navy provided an escort, and the R.A.F. gave fighter cover. Our casualties were slight. Top and centre, Commandos in their landing craft making the return journey across the Channel. Below, landing on the English shore after the crossing.

Photo: British Official. Crown Copyright. "The Times"
34 officers and 178 other ranks were left behind. Months were to elapse before the story of how this gallant band continued the fight in the face of overwhelming odds could be told. Then it came from three of them who, showing indomitable courage and resource and with luck on their side, escaped and returned to Britain.

They told how Colonel Newman rallied his men and, when it became apparent that there was no chance for them to get away as had been planned, issued three orders.

**Fate of Col. Newman's Force**

They were to do their best to get back to England; that there was to be no surrender until all ammunition was used up; and that they were not to surrender at all if they could help it. Surrounded by the growing forces of the enemy, the Commando men fought their way from the dock area, crossing an iron bridge under withering machine-gun fire. As enemy units appeared in the streets, this small band of Britons cooledly waited until they could shoot them down at point-blank range. A sergeant-major, with bullets in his shoulder, arms and legs, fought on with them.

Colonel Newman continued to lead them with the utmost courage, and it was he who eventually gave the order for them to split up, according to a prearranged plan, and attempt to break through to open country. The coming of daylight proved a great handicap, and there is no doubt that this enabled the enemy to locate and capture most of the small parties. Colonel Newman himself was made prisoner, and the enemy also captured Lieut.-Commander Beattie, who subsequently received the award of the third V.C. of the expedition. No awards to the Commando troops could be made until their splendid Commanding Officer was free and could make his report.

The final glory of St. Nazaire came with the blowing up of the massive explosive charges in the "Campbeltown," which completely wrecked the entrance to the dry dock so that a year later it was still out of commission. Forty important German officers and technicians are said to have lost their lives in this explosion. Such was the confusion when the delayed-action torpedoes fired by Lieut. Wyan went off that the Nazis opened fire again—on another one. Of those who manned the "Campbeltown" and the little vessels which carried the Commandos, 34 officers and 151 ratings were killed or missing out of a total of 62 officers and 291 ratings. For the heroes of St. Nazaire the cost was heavy in proportion to their numbers; in relation to their magnificent achievements, it was fantastically light.

The next notable raid came on April 22, 1942, when the Commandos made a lightning attack in the neighbourhood of Boulogne. This, however, might be included in what Combined Operations would regard as "routine raids." Another of the same type was carried out on the Capucins lighthouse in the Channel Islands on September 2, 1942, when prisoners were taken and useful information obtained.

One other raid in 1942 across the Channel should be recorded, however—that between Boulogne and Le Touquet in the early hours of June 4. It was a large-scale reconnaissance and the special service troops, under Major K. R. S. Trever, landed on the beaches and advanced over the dunes. They shot up German gun positions, cut their way through the barbed wire and went some distance inland. Meanwhile the enemy, in much confusion, were firing at one another. Our troops withdrew with only slight casualties after obtaining valuable information.

Commando men played a vital role in the storming of Diego Suárez on May 5, 1942, when the French island of Madagascar was prevented from falling into the hands of the Axis. The full story is told in Chapter 235, but a word may be given here of the task performed by No. 5 Commando. With a company of the East Lancashires it was to land at the N. end of Courrier Bay, capture two coastal defence batteries, and push east to take the village of Diego Suárez and secure the peninsula on which that village lay. Across a narrow channel only three-quarters of a mile wide was Ambarara, which, with the peninsula to its east, was the objective of another party. The main landings were to be made at three points on Ambarrara Bay, to the north of the point where the Commandos and East Lancashires were to go ashore.

At 4.30 a.m. on May 5 the Commando men with the East Lancashires landed without opposition and overcame the only battery found (viz., at Windsor Castle). The Commandos then pushed on to storm Diego Suárez, which fell a little after 8 p.m. The French were taken by surprise, for they had not expected an attack from Courrier Bay on account of its difficult approach—made more dangerous by mines. The operation proved a critical one and its success was vital for that of the entire plan. By May 7 the whole area was in our hands.

Further action became necessary in the autumn, and No. 5 Commando landed at Majunga, which they took in less than an hour. A few days later they captured Tamatave. During the Majunga attack our Naval forces at the beaches was harassed by snipers and operations were held up for some time until the Naval Beach Commando saved the situation by Lewis gunfire and grenades. (See illus., p. 2246.)

In major and minor attacks, the inspiring, hard-hitting British Commandos went many times during a memorable year across the wide and open strand of the sea and struck doughty blows in the name of Freedom and of all freedom-loving people.
Diary of the War

MAY and JUNE, 1942


May 2. British troops on north bank of Vistula withdrawn. Dr. Evatt arrives in Britain. U.S.S. Lease-Lend extended to Egypt, and U.S. naval and air bases in British and French possessions break off relations with Hungary.


May 10. Mr. Churchill in a broadcast warns Germany of Allied retaliation if enemy uses gas against Russians.


May 12. Timoshenko launches offensive in Kharkov region. Russians on Kerch peninsula withdraw.

May 13. British forces retreating from Burma reach India. Cotta Resica declares war on Hungary and Romania.

May 15. British forces retreating from Burma reach India. Cotta Resica declares war on Hungary and Romania.


May 18. Admiral Sir Henry Harwood appoined to Mediterranean Command. (Admiral Haroldprine appointed to Washington as head of Admiralty delegation.)


May 20. Russians attack at Taganrog.


May 22. General Stilwell with staff reaches Delhi from Burma.


May 27. Reinforcement for British Eighth Army arrives at Alexandria. German forces withdraw from Ginn.

May 28. In Libya the German withdrawal through gaps in British minefields.

May 29. In Libya, fierce battle in Kharkov region. Germans dinners Axis powers (on May 3). Night—Raid by R.A.F. on Gomulskier power station, the Gomulskier and the Goeml
tower near Puch.


June 7. Rommel opens heavy attack on R. Helau, held by Free French forces under General Koez.

June 8. Viscous Swinton appoinled. British Minister in West Africa.


June 10. German offensive under von Bock on Kharkov sector. In reprisal for death of Hymel, German destroyers the village of Liece, near Klina in Czecho


June 12. Germans threaten Tobruk after a tank battle S.E. of Khalkhas.


June 15. British forces withdraw from Khalkhas.

June 16. British convoy from Gibraltar fights its way, after continuous attack from 12th to Malta, another, from Malta. Italian forces, is forced to return after four days.

June 17. Ritchie's forces withdraw to Egyptian border; garrison held in Tobruk. H.M. destroyer "Wild Swan" sunk by air attack in Atlantic.

June 18. Two German columns advance toward Egyptian frontier; one day they turn westward to join in attack on Tobruk. Mr. Churchill arrives in the U.S.A. Large Japanese forces invade Fukuoka.


June 21. Russian at Kharkov fall back.

June 22. Rommel's forces advance 30 miles into Egypt. British evacuate Sollum and Sidi Omer and withdraw to Mersa Matrath.


June 30. German reach El Daba.
SEVASTOPOL'S MAGNIFICENT RESISTANCE

Invented from the end of October 1941 until the beginning of the next July, Sevastopol was assaulted from June 2 by an enormous force of infantry, tanks, guns and aircraft. It fell on July 2, 1942. Soviet forces were commanded by Vice-Admiral Oktyabrsky (1); the enemy forces by General von Mohnen (3), so left; talking to Col. von Cholmski. German soldiers are seen in (2) hurling grenades into buildings as they advance along the streets. (4) Battled ruins of the great Maxim Gorki fortresses; another view in (5), where a German is rushing in to throw a grenade. Map shows forts: A, Maxim Gorki; B, Molotov; C, Siberia; D, Stalin; E, Louis.
Chapter 227

SUMMER CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA,
MAY TO JULY, 1942

This account begins with the German offensive and the Soviet counteroffensive attacks which opened in the middle of May. It describes the operations which led to the Russian withdrawal behind the Donetz. After a lull the main enemy offensive was launched, on the Kharkov front, and carried the Germans eventually across the Don, giving them Rostov and other important cities.

Spring thaw brought operations in Russia to a standstill in 1942, as was expected, but speculation was rife as to the probable course of action of the opponents when the ground dried. Few can have thought it possible that the Russians, after their terrible experiences of the preceding summer and autumn and their exhausting efforts in their winter counter-offensive, would be able to resume the offensive on a great scale. It is true that Voroshilov and Budyonny had been commissioned to train new armies, but it was hardly conceivable that these armies were as yet sufficiently trained or equipped for offensive operations. The question of equipment was specially serious, since many important centres of Russian war industry had been occupied by the enemy, and although skilled labour and machinery had been moved east it could not yet be producing in quantities. Moreover, in consequence of the war with Japan, the material assistance promised by the Allies had fallen behind programme.

Under these circumstances an offensive against an enemy who had had time and labour to consolidate his defences and communications would have been doomed to failure unless the Allies were in a position to open a second front in the west, and that obviously was not feasible. Not only were the resources of Britain and America strained by the Japanese attacks, but the entry of America into the war had temporarily weakened rather than improved the shipping situation, on which the opening of a second front vitally depended. New and more vulnerable targets were offered to U-boats, of which the enemy was swift to take advantage, and losses in the Caribbean Sea, especially of tankers, mounted at an alarming rate (see Chapter 214).

For Germany, on the other hand, the general situation favoured offensive action, for she was without other serious commitments. Even in Libya, where Rommel had only partially recovered from the reverse he had suffered in the winter, it was improbable (in view of the diversion of strength to the Far East) that Auchinleck would be in a position to resume the offensive. The chief disadvantages Germany laboured under were the necessity of retaining a large proportion of the fighter strength of the Luftwaffe in the west to meet the increasing weight of R.A.F. attacks, and the necessity of keeping adequate forces in the occupied countries to maintain order and to protect the western sea-board against raids. Germany had still an immense army in Russia, though it had had great losses and had suffered terribly under winter conditions, new drafts and returned wounded would go far to replace casualties, and the troops might be expected to recuperate rapidly in warmer weather. With German war industries in full operation, and factories in occupied countries adding to output, the rate of replacement of lost material would be rapid.

It was practically certain that Germany would again attempt to secure decisive results, but in what form would the new attempt be made? In the previous year the enemy, by conducting a three-pronged blitzkrieg attack, had evidently hoped to destroy practically the whole Russian Army. That hope did not accord with the previously accepted German theory that, owing to Russia's size and population, her armies could not be totally destroyed though they might be rendered impotent. Manifestly the hope had been disappointed, and it had led to a dispersion of effort contrary to

OPPOSING COMMANDERS ON KHARKOV FRONT

Left, at his R.Q.M. on the South-Western front Marshal Timoshenko holds a conference with Khrushchov, member of the Military Council (centre) and Colonel-General Cherevichev (right). Right, the German Commander on this front, Field-Marshal von Bock (on left), with Major-General Landineau at an observation post.

Photo: I.F.S.H. Official / Associated Press
RUSSIAN FAMILY LEAVES KERCH

The fall of Kerch to Von Manstein’s German and Romanian troops on May 25, 1942, was a
bitter blow, for the town had been recaptured by Soviet troops in a brilliant action at the end of
the previous December. Kerch had first fallen into enemy hands on November 14, 1941, when
the Germans had overrun the Crimea.

Photo, Thomas Xano

German belief in concentration. It
seemed probable, therefore, that a
strategy more consistent with previous
beliefs would be adopted, but what
would be its particular object? An
offensive in the north seemed the least
probable. The region did not lend itself
to Panzer tactics. Leningrad had proved
to be a tough obstacle, and the Lake Ladoga
route had saved it from collapse through
hunger. A renewal of the attempt to
take Moscow seemed to be suggested by
the efforts made during the winter to
retain the Vyasa salient. But the
salient hardly gave room to serve as
a springboard for a full-scale drive.
Owing to the footing obtained by the
Russians on the Moscow-Riga railway
between Railay and Veliki Luki the
salient was served only by one main rail-
way.

Furthermore, any offensive starting
from it would be exposed to counter-
attack in flank from both north and
south. Undoubtedly on account of its
proximity the salient constituted a
threat to Moscow, but previous expe-
rience had shown how strongly defended
and how difficult was the forest belt
that lay between it and the capital. On
the whole the chief value of the Vyasa
salient lay in the fact that its threat
would compel the Russians to tie up
large reserves for defence.

It therefore seemed probable that the
Germans would have strong reasons for
taking the offensive in the south, where,
in the previous year, they had had, on the
whole, the greatest success. The recapture
of Kerch in the Crimea and Rostov
were the only serious reverses their
southern armies had suffered in the
winter, and the troops had probably
found good shelter in the numerous large
towns of a highly industrialized region.

A very close network of railways would
serve the base and, even more important,
the effects of the thaw would pass off
earther than farther north, thus pro-
viding a longer campaigning season.
The chief argument against a southern
offensive was that it would strike a part
only of the Russian armies and would
leave a much larger part not seriously
engaged and therefore possibly capable
of counter-attacking the flank of an
eastward drive, which in consequence
would have to be held defensively.

An eastward offensive in the south
would obviously not destroy the main
Russian armies, but it held out good
prospects of rendering them impotent.
The capture of the Caucasian oilfields,
or the interruption of their communi-
cations with central and northern
Russia by the Volga waterway, would
cut off the Soviet armies from oil
supplies on which they depended for
sustained operations. The capture of
the great grain-producing areas of the
Don and the Kuban steppes would also
vitally affect Russian food supplies.
The southern offensive had therefore
very important objects in addition to pro-
viding a chance of destroying or isolating
a considerable section of Russian
military forces. If successful it might
be further exploited by an attack
towards Moscow from the south in con-
junction with an attack from the
Vysasa springboard. Sections of opinion
in Britain saw also in a drive beyond
the Caucasus the danger of the develop-
ment of a great panzer offensive against
the Middle East, linked with an offensive
from Libya.

It is somewhat difficult to believe
that such an ambitious programme,
involving movement over immense
distances by indifferent communications,
was ever seriously contemplated by the
German General Staff, but no doubt the
capture of Caucasus would have greatly
weakened the position of Turkey and
have made it necessary to strengthen
the Allied forces in Iran and Iraq. The
capture of the Caucasus oilfields and
grain-producing areas of the Kuban
would also strengthen greatly Germany’s
economic position, the oil being of
immense importance for the agricultural
development of occupied areas in
Russia.

These were the arguments, but the
first definite sign that the German
offensive would be in the south was given
when, on May 11, 1942, a violent attack
supported by a great
concentration of aircraft
was launched against
the Russian positions in
the Kerch peninsula, recaptured from the
Germans in the previous December by a
brilliant amphibious attack. The success of
that Russian operation had caused the
Germans temporarily to abandon
attempts to take Sevastopol, and the
immediate object of the attack on
Kerch was no doubt to clear the area
for a renewal of the assault; the capture
of Sevastopol would deprive the Russian
Black Sea Fleet of an important base
and thus give greater opportunities of
using sea transport to relieve the strain
on the railways which would have to
serve a southern offensive. The capture
of Kerch might also provide a subsidiary
springboard for the invasion of Caucasus.
The attack proceeded with great
violence; Russian resistance was stabi-
ously held, but, separated from reinforce-
ments and supplies by a waterline nowhere
less than four miles wide, the garrison was
almost completely isolated by over-
powering air attack, and the defence was
soon forced back to the permanent
fortifications on the coast. On May 25
the remnants of the Kerch garrison
were evacuated.

Meanwhile, on the 19th, the Russians
took the initiative in order to forestall
the main German offensive and to
upset the preparations for it, of which
they were probably well aware. In con-
siderable strength Timoshenko on that
date launched an offensive on the
Kharkov front. It was not clear on
what line this front was stabilized during
the winter after Timoshenko’s counter-
offensive operations which followed the
recapture of Rostov, but probably
during the spring lull the front ran from
the defence of Kursk (held by the
The Soviet tanks went off in pursuing. Kravchenko continued, "At that moment 19 enemy tanks appeared from behind a hill. There had been large quantities of the enemy's positions from the rear. Major Kravchenko,mitted to attack the enemy as quickly as possible, and stopped the pursuit of the enemy and turned the rear.

At the end of an hour's fighting neither attack nor defensive action produced any gains, and the enemy began to weaken. Thirty-eight of their 50 tanks had been disabled and the rest withdrew to a near-by forest.

After the first two days of the offensive the Germans made attempts to check the German tanks. These two battles 12 Soviet tanks defeated 12 Nazi tanks.

MEDIUM TANKS IN THE KHARKOV OFFENSIVE

Below, Soviet infantrymen and tanks take up close firing positions at the beginning of the advance against German positions near Kharkov. Top, 'tank destroyers,' armed with the effective two-man anti-tank rifle, were in position to clamp on to anything that was the rear.
counter-attacks with tanks supported by aircraft. These local counter-strokes proved expensive and had no great success, though no doubt they slowed the rate of the Russian advance.

On May 17 a more formidable German counter-attack began to develop in the Belaya region. It was evidently a full-scale attempt, not only to stop the Russian drive but to strike at its communications and cut off its line of retreat. This move had been organized with characteristic German speed and thoroughness, and was delivered with troops concentrated in the Donets basin in preparation for an intended offensive into Caucasus. Their drive in a new direction was facilitated by the especially when some of the crossings over the Donetz in their rear fell into German hands.

By May 22 a general withdrawal was in progress across the Donetz. The Germans were by now also counter-attacking north-east of Kharkov between Byalnik and Chuguiev, so that a dangerous pincer movement was developing temp. Initially, the Russians rallied behind the Donetz, and fighting died down for a time. The Germans announced on the 27th that the Kharkov battle was ended and claimed the capture of over a quarter-million prisoners. The Russian counter-offensive had ended in a serious reverse, though the German claims were probably exaggerated and the enemy also had suffered heavy loss. But the manoeuvre had partly achieved its object, for it had drawn northwards much of Von Bock's army in the area of the Caucasus, and had possibly delayed the opening of the main offensive, thus temporarily slowing the campaigning season. This probably was eventually important, but the immediate price paid for the retreat was heavy.

The K.V.—named after Marshal Kliment Voroshilov—was produced in the Kirin works and first went into action in the winter of 1939 against Finland. Ten years earlier the Russian tank had no auxiliary engine at all, and produced motor vehicles for tractors, let alone tanks. But in the intervening period extremely rapid advances in design and construction were achieved, including the 1936-38 series production of a suitable diesel engine for tanks. The photograph of a suitable Diesel engine for tanks shows the K.V. tank in action near Voronezh.

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Photo, U.S.S.R. Official

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It had the effect, however, of almost immediately bringing the Russian offensive to a standstill. A period of very fierce fighting ensued, with attacks and counter-attacks on both sides. There was no particular many tank battles in which the Soviet troops, armed with a new antitank rifle, did considerable execution. But numbers and experience were on the side of the Germans, and it became apparent that the Russian line of retreat was seriously threatened.

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GERMANS CROSS THE DON AT VORONEZH

Early in July 1943 the Germans were outside Voronezh, and claimed its capture on the 9th when, it is true, they held part of the city. By the 22nd large enemy forces were established on the eastern bank of the Don. (See map, p. 2287.) Top, a bridge blown up by Soviet forces during the retreat: left, Germans cross the river on a makeshift bridge. Below, Soviet infantry and anti-tank riflemen guard the Don bank: at the left in an anti-tank rifle (see also Illus. p. 236).

Photographs: Plamen Nicon & Rapho.
ARTILLERY IN ROSTOV STREET BATTLES

Artillery, tanks and even aircraft were used in the street fighting as each group of buildings was turned into a stronghold and yielded only after it became a mass of ruins. Left, German field-gun shelling a strong-point over open sights; right, enemy infantry outside a blazing corner block. Rostov was occupied by the Reds on July 27.

(Photos, Keystone: Associated Press)

counter-attack and their position was precarious. Moreover, the Russians were able to retain some portion of the west bank. This successful defence had far-reaching results, for the Germans had meant to cross the Don in great force and to continue the thrust eastwards to the Volga, cutting the railways which linked Stalingrad and the Russian armies in the south with central Russia, and interrupting traffic on the Volga.

Their further intentions if they had succeeded in this are a matter of speculation. Stalin has said that they intended to swing north and attack Moscow from the south. That may have been their ultimate object, but it seems probable that their immediate plan was to establish a northern defensive flank and then swing south on both sides of the Don to complete the destruction of Timoshenko's army and the capture of Caucasus.

Deprived of their chief oil supplies, Moscow and the armies in the north could be dealt with later. But the enemy's failure to cross at Voronezh left the railways on the east bank of the Don intact, and these lines were to prove the framework round which the relief of Stalingrad and the winter offensive were organized by Soviet forces.

An account of the fighting on the Don was given by a Red Army officer. The enemy held an advantageous position on the W. bank of the Don south of Voronezh. From the heights the Hungarians defending this sector were able to control the eastern bank and pour mortar and artillery fire on to the Soviet positions, roads and villages. The Russian German decided to dispose the Hungarians;

"Red planes harried the enemy incessantly all the night before the crossing; wearing down his troops in the rain. After dawn, with the approach of dawn, the Soviet troops started to ford the river at several points. Some sections... advanced across in full kit. The offensive caught the Hungarians by surprise. They hurriedly opened heavy trench-mortar fire, but it was too late to prevent the Soviet crossing... Particularly violent battles ensued for two villages, one on each flank of the sector. The first attack of the attacking force was to drive the Hungarians from a height on the near side of one of these villages... The hill was very steep and hard to climb with food equipment, but the Soviet infantry managed it. The struggle for this height continued all day. Only at evening were the Hungarians finally overwhelmed, enabling the Reds to rush the village on the far side and establish themselves in houses on the outskirts."

Red Army subdivisions then penetrated deeper into the south to press the enemy back and secure their flank, after which the attack on the village was renewed.

"Late in the evening the Soviet troops observed two battalions of Hungarian infantry deploying for a counter-attack from three different directions. The Red infantry opened heavy rifle and machine-gun fire supported by artillery and forced back the Hungarians. . . . At dawn the enemy again tried to counter-attack, but Soviet aircraft forced them to leave the ground, while the infantry again drove them back. Having secured their flanks, a subdivision attacked the village, captured it, and continued to press forward. Hungarian occupying a village farther south were unable to assist their retreating comrades. . . . Meanwhile a Soviet Guards unit on the opposite flank had stormed the other key village. The capture of these two points decided the fate of the whole sector. After clearing the enemy from a big strip on the western bank of the Don, Soviet units began to deploy north and south simultaneously, fortifying the newly captured positions."

Choked at Voronezh, the Germans appear quickly to have modified their plans, the greater part of the Kursk army wheeling south between the Oskel and the Don. Rostov was captured about July 10, thus cutting the last direct railway communication between Rostov and Moscow, and the wheeling movement continued to make rapid progress. With their north flank turned and their southern flank threatened by a German attack across
the Donetz in the Lissichansk region, the position of the Russians on the Oskol became untenable, and they withdrew rapidly towards the lower Don. The dry and open country favoured German Panzer tactics and there were no natural features on which a stand might be made. The weight of the German pursuit followed generally the line of the Voronezh-Rostov railway, and when Millerovo was captured it became clear that the Russians in the eastern portion of the Donetz basin, who were now also being heavily attacked, were in danger.

They retired fighting towards the lower Don and Rostov, apparently intending to stand on the left bank of the river, for by July 27 Rostov and all the towns on the right bank had been evacuated. The army that had retreated from the Oskol and Millerovo was, however, directed towards Tamanyan on the Don, halfway between Stalingrad and Rostov. It was at this point that it seemed most probable that the Germans would attempt a crossing in order to cut the railway connecting Stalingrad with Krasnodar and Novorossiisk, which here runs close to the south bank of the river. Another portion of the retreating Soviet army fell back to the great bend of the Don west of Stalingrad, in order to cover the crossings of the river leading to that city; and heavy fighting was in progress in the Kretskaya area.

Thus by the end of July the German offensive had reached the Don everywhere downstream of Voronezh, and the fighting was in progress in four main groups: (1) at Voronezh, where attacks and counter-attacks continued to be made without much change in the situation; (2) at the bend of the Don, covering the approaches to Stalingrad; (3) in the Tsamlyansk area, where German attempts to cross the river had been so far frustrated; (4) in the lower Don region, where crossings at Rostov had been effected and a wide German bridgehead established.

Meanwhile, as early as July 3 Sevastopol had been taken and strong German forces, including armoured divisions and a large number of aircraft, had thereby been liberated to take part in the attack on Rostov. Sevastopol was completely isolated, on the edge of enemy-occupied territory, and had no communication by land with the outside world. Fuel and food were brought in by sea, often at extreme peril by Soviet submarines. The enemy under Manstein had reached the outskirts after overrunning the Crimes in November 1941. An attempt to storm Sevastopol at this stage failed, and during December there was a protracted assault which cost the Germans about 45,000 casualties. It was early June before the enemy felt strong enough for his final offensive against the great fortress-port.

The Soviet defense chiefs were Vice-Admiral Oktjabrsky, Commander of the Black Sea Fleet; Major-General Petrov, commanding the land forces; and Divisional Commissar Kulakov. They were the last to leave when, on the orders of the Supreme Command, Sevastopol was evacuated by Soviet forces on July 3, 1942.

Air raids and prolonged shelling preceded the June assault. Groups of 40-60 German aircraft raided the city; the enemy fired more than 7,000 shells on June 2, with 9,000 on the 4th and 5,000 on the 6th. During these days they also hurled some 30,000 medium and heavy mines, and dropped 15,000 bombs. Dive-bombers attacked the
Russian anti-aircraft batteries, but the guns were in over a mile long, having first showered 10,000 shells on this short sector. The first day's fighting brought them little success, and in the evening they sent into action their second echelons; next morning they also threw in their reserves. This battle, which had lasted 35 hours, cost the enemy more than 4,000 dead.

On the 8th the offensive was resumed with greater fury, with special pressure along the north-eastern sector, the Germans trying to take a short cut to the northern bay; a wedge a mile and a quarter in length was forced into the Soviet defences in one place. The Russian infantry stood up to the dive-bombers; on June 10 a rifle unit was attacked by 50 tanks supported by Stukas; no one was taken. In one day an infantry unit destroyed 25 German tanks—12 wrecked with anti-tank grenades.

The enemy resumed his tank attacks on June 11, but Russian artillery and dive-bomber fire cut off his armour from the infantry. Against another Soviet unit, the Germans threw there two infantry divisions supported by two tank battalions. Five times they attacked and on each occasion were driven back. In one day the enemy lost here 20 tanks and an entire infantry regiment. So for the rest of the month the conflict continued. The Germans had brought up an enormous number of aircraft, guns and men, and used them prodigiously. The place had been reconnaited by aircraft and photographed, so that the German assault troops knew just what were the vital objectives. These troops were armed with grenades and demolition charges and supported by mobile artillery of up to 88-mm. calibre; they also had ample aid from their dive-bombers.

The system of fortifications is shown in the plan in page 2260. Fort Maxim Gorki was the last to be taken; according to a German report it was difficult for them to fight. The upper part had fallen into German hands and the battle front had moved forward some 1,400 yards. Still the Soviet soldiers in the deep underground strong-points refused to surrender. The 13-inch guns continued to fire after enemy shock troops and storming guns had been brought up to close range—at 300 and even 500 yards. The same report stated that the Russian coastal batteries had turned their guns inland and shelled the attackers incessantly. Other strongpoints had been bypassed by the Germans, but went on firing in their rear.

When eventually the defence was overcome, it was only after every foot of the battlefield had been ploughed up by bombs and shells. Nothing but their names remained of nine infantry divisions and three Rumanian divisions. Suppurers, men of the chemical corps, and even lorry drivers were thrown into the action by the enemy.

On July 3, at the orders of the Soviet Supreme Command, Soviet troops evacuated Sevastopol. From June 7 to July 3 they had lost 11,385 men killed, 21,699 wounded, and 8,300 missing. German casualties during this period were estimated at about 130,000, of whom 60,000 were killed; the total enemy casualties for the eight months of the siege must have been double these figures. The price paid by Hitler for Sevastopol was 100,000 German graves.

Elsewhere on the Russian front little of note had occurred. In order to relieve pressure on their southern armies and to prevent German formations being transferred to reinforce the offensive, the Russians had made some diversionary attacks without much success towards Orel and towards Rubezh, the northern bastion of the Vyasa offensive. Other local attacks had been made by both sides, particularly in the Leningrad area, but the policy of the Germans was evidently to concentrate on the southern offensive, and to hold the remainder of their front defensively. The Russians clearly were not yet in a position to stage a large-scale counter-offensive, and they had already suffered heavy reverses in the south.
Chapter 228

WEST AFRICA’S VITAL ROLE IN 1942

Not only because of the bountiful resources of these territories but also for their strategic value the regions here grouped under the term West Africa became of outstanding importance as the months of 1942 went by. They provided a route along which weapons and munitions of all kinds could be carried through the air to our armies in the Middle East, while Allied control of the coastal belt safeguarded the sea passage down to the Cape.

In this chapter the term West Africa will be considered as applying to the territory between latitude 3 degrees south and 15 degrees north and west of longitude 15 east—that is to say, the region bounded by a line which goes from Leopoldville in the Belgian Congo due north to Lake Chad and thence due west to Dakar (see map in p. 2270).

At the southern extremity of this stretch of territory there is the large port and growing town of Pointe-Noire. Twenty-five years earlier, it was an unknown headland on an abandoned coast. In 1920 ships sailed across the open roadstead on the material required for the railway, then still under construction, which should link Brazzaville, capital of French Equatorial Africa, with the sea. Nine years later the port of Pointe-Noire was born, a modern port then of mainly local importance, the French outlet for the produce of the Congo and rival to the Belgian port of Matadi. By 1942, Pointe-Noire had become of more than local importance, for when French Equatorial Africa decided to carry on the struggle under the Cross of Lorraine this new and well-equipped harbour became of great use as a refuelling base for Allied shipping, and the departure point of one of the trans-African railways of Allied communication.

The main feature of the port is the great pier which extends the natural headland first towards the north-west and then curves towards the north. This pier, 190 yards wide at the shore end and 125 yards wide at its extremity, is protected from the open sea by a large curved breakwater, just over a mile long. On its inner side is a deep-water quay, 765 yards long and extended towards the south-east by a loading wharf. In addition, there is an interior jetty consisting of two arms, one perpendicular to the pier and one parallel with it. The arms surmount a surface of calms water: 264 acres in extent. The port was opened in April 1939, but when war broke out the harbour was still lacking in nearly all its equipment. Later it was equipped with many cranes, a large hangar, and a system of railway lines connecting with the main station in the town.

In addition to its growth as a port, Pointe-Noire was also developed as an airport. On the eastern side of the harbour is an expanse of water, two miles long and calm in all weathers, which is ideally suited for seaplane traffic, while a mile or two beyond the town is a great airfield, much expanded by technical troops of the U.S. Army Air Corps, who landed there in September 1942.

The port of Pointe-Noire is connected to Brazzaville by the Congo-Ocean railway, completed in 1930. Brazzaville, facing Leopoldville across that wide expanse of the Congo River known as Stanley Pool, was founded by the French explorer Count Savorgnan de Brazza, the rival of Stanley. Unknown to most Britons before the war, it later came into prominence as the African headquarters of the Fighting French. The radio station there played a big part in counteracting Axis and Vichy propaganda and in expounding the views of General de Gaulle. Later a new station was built which had much greater power.

The northern part of French Equatorial Africa is formed by the territory known as the Chad, which was the first of the French colonies to rally to the cause of General de Gaulle under its governor, M. Adolphe Rhône, now Governor-General of French Equatorial Africa. The Chad, twice as large as France but with only one-twentieth the population, made great efforts in both military and economic spheres. When those parts of the French colonial empire which supported General de Gaulle became the new French battlefield, the position of the Chad, directly facing the enemy, assured this territory a place of honour in the combat to come.

CHIEF PORT OF FRENCH-EQUATORIAL AFRICA

Pointe-Noire was connected to Brazzaville by railway in 1939 and is the French outlet for the produce of the Congo. A modern port was begun soon after, and when completed will have four deep-water quays, each over 400 feet long. The shallow-water quay, at which vessels are here seen discharging, serves meanwhile. The port is protected on the seaward side by a mole a mile long, providing deep-water accommodation for a length of 764 yards.

Fighting French Official Photograph
At one side of the sandy plain known as the Place de la Libération (part of which is here shown) is the Camp Koufra, where Sarra soldiers were instructed how to use modern weapons. Fort Lamy was one of the links in the chain of landing grounds for British and American aircraft on route to the Sudan, and here it was that they stopped to refuel on the trans-African trip.

As to the manner in which the relatively small force gathered in this area played its part, the story of the valiant raids on Mourouk, Koufra and the Fazzan, and the final amazing march to Tripoli under the inspired leadership of General Leclerc, are sufficient evidence. (See illus., p. 1781.)

A generous tribute is due to the economic effort of this arid and sparsely populated territory. The cultivation of millet and rice, basic food of the African workers, was eagerly undertaken under the inspired leadership of General Leclerc, and the result is evident in the growth of the cotton and palm industries.

A notable achievement in the Chad was the development of the cotton industry. The export of cotton increased from 20,000 tons in 1930 to 100,000 tons in 1939. In 1942 the cotton crop doubled that of 1939, and the entire crop was exported. The principal source of wealth in the Chad is cattle raising, and there has been a remarkable increase in the amount of butter and hides available for export.

The following figures give some idea of production in the Chad:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports of cotton (tons)</th>
<th>Exports of hides (tons)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>40,000,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fort Lamy calls for some mention. This outpost is situated on the River Shari, just below its confluence with the Logone, on the site where Emilio Gentil landed on the first French expedition from the Congo. The houses are of mud and thatch, with one or two brick buildings for the government offices. Later a new barracks was erected, called the Camp Koufra, on one side of the vast sandy central square known today as the Place de la Libération, where contingents of Sarra soldiers were instructed in the use of modern arms.

The prime value of Fort Lamy to the Allied cause was its existence as a vital link in the air communications between the British African territories to east and west. Its airfield was one of the chain of important landing grounds on the way to Khartoum, and many were the aircraft—British and American—which landed there to refuel during the eventful summer of 1942.

An industry of great importance at all times, and especially in wartime, is the production of palm oil, and of this commodity British West Africa is the largest producer in the world. Before the war palm oil and the greater part of the cocoa trade led to a decline in the oil-palm industry in the Gold Coast, but wartime demands have led to fuller exploitation of the existing palm-bearing areas. The French Cameroun is another big centre of the palm-oil industry, as is the Belgian Congo.

Cotton is produced in considerable quantities in Nigeria. Although indigenous African cotton has been grown in Nigeria for centuries to supply the demands of the native hand-spinning and weaving industry, American cotton came almost entirely to replace the native variety. Cotton is also produced in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa, soil and climate being particularly suitable in the Ubangi-Shari region. The extension of cotton cultivation is developing in parts of the Belgian Congo.

The loss of the Malayan and other Far Eastern rubber plantations led to renewed efforts on the part of West
Africa (where before the war rubber cultivation had been neglected owing to overwhelming competition in the Far East) to intensify her production. In the British colonies the native races were encouraged to collect as much wild rubber as possible, but this of course could not compare either in quality or quantity with plantation rubber, most of which now comes from Liberia and the Cameroons.

Liberia, a free and independent negro Republic constituted in 1847, was founded as part of a scheme to settle freed African slaves. It is an original member of the League of Nations. After attending the Casablanca Conference of Allied leaders in January 1943, President Roosevelt flew to Liberia in an American Army bomber. Alighting at the Roberts airfield near Monrovia, the capital, he was met by the President, Edwin Barclay, and inspected United States troops stationed in the neighbourhood. These followed discussions with President Barclay and Mr. Roosevelt then took off for his further flight across the Atlantic to consult with President Getulio Vargas of Brazil.

Liberia is almost an untapped source of mineral and agricultural wealth. Coffee is the main product, but palm-oil, palm kernels, anatto and rice are also produced. In the forests there are a score of species of rubber-yielding vines and trees.

Natural Wealth of Liberia

The mineral resources are scarcely known, but there are large deposits of iron ore. In Liberia the Firestone Company of America have big plantations, the yield of which was stepped up by every conceivable means, including double tapping, which, although shortening the life of the tree, has been estimated by Firestone technicians to give a yield of 70 per cent more than the ordinary single tapping. In the French Cameroons, also, much progress was made, especially at the extensive Plantation de la Sangha, at Banza, near Edéa, where the factory has been increased in size and new planting has been carried out on a large scale.

Rubber from the Cameroons for the Allies

Top, in the Plantation de la Sangha, at Banza, where a mill is being built to toe-cement on the bank of the river Wouri to facilitate transportation of the rubber to Douala on the coast. Below, collecting the latex from rubber trees in a plantation in the British Cameroons, a narrow belt of territory on the eastern border of Nigeria between that country and French Cameroons.

Photo: G. MacCormack, Pictorial Press.

worked by the Germans, which might be brought into bearing again, but local interests were reluctant to embark upon the Labour and expense of putting them into condition owing to the not unreasonable fear that after the war renewed competition from the Far East, coupled with developments in the production of synthetic rubber, might ruin their markets.

The Gabun's contribution to the war effort naturally took the form of wood, for the Gabun is richly forested and the gigantic trunks of okoumé, which can often be seen floating offshore at Point Gentil like Brobdingnagian rafts, are eventually transformed into a thousand and one articles of military value. It was the Germans who first saw the economic value of the Gabun forests and before the outbreak of the Second Great War the greater part of the timber exports of that colony were taken by Hamburg.

With the loss of the tin deposits in Malaya it became imperative to exploit to the full other sources. One of these was the tin fields of Northern Nigeria. The existence of tin in that region was known in 1889, but the exact location of the fields was not discovered until the beginning of this century, and 1915 was the year which saw the inauguration of what has since become one of the colony's most important industries. The industry became stabilised about 1910, the intervening years having been spent...
more in prospecting than in actual mining: 774 tons of tin were won in that year, after which the industry made rapid strides. In 1929 the output of the Nigerian fields reached 15,220 tons. In 1933, as a result of the international tin restriction agreement, production fell to about 5,000 tons but in 1936 13,433 tons were won, and it is probable that the stimulation of war needs later increased that figure considerably.

A certain amount of gold is also produced in Nigeria, but development is still confined to the alluvial stage.

Gold output from
Nigeria in 1936 was valued at £233,000.

The gold deposits in the Gold Coast are still not fully exploited, but production in 1936 was valued at nearly £200,000. Of great importance to the war effort have been the Gold Coast's exports of manganese and bauxite, and diamonds are also found in worth-while quantities.

In Sierra Leone the principal minerals of economic value are gold and platinum (found in small quantities), and there are large deposits of iron ore. There has been considerable development in the production of iron ore from the Marmaha mines, and large consignments were exported from the beginning of the war. Diamonds were found on the banks of the Gbira River during a geological survey in 1930, and a prospecting licence was granted to the Consolidated African Selection Trust. In 1936 the output was 414,290 carats, valued at £725,000. Industrial diamonds, used for cutting or abrasive operations, are of great importance in war industries.

Freetown, in Sierra Leone, played an important part in the Battle of the Atlantic, since it was the headquarters of the Flag Officer Commanding West Africa, and its magnificent natural harbour provided anchorage for large ocean convoys. Of such strategic importance is this port that it is surprising more was not done to provide it with harbour facilities. There were no wharves where large ships could go alongside, no dry docks; only an ancient narrow-gauge railway with few sidings, and a few cranes. Very different was the state of affairs at Dakar, where the French built a magnificent port on an unoccupied site.

Thanks to the Allied operations of November 1942 the resources of this important harbour and strategic base were subsequently used to the utmost in the cause of the United Nations.

In 1962 the Messageurs Impériales obtained permission to build a small jetty at Dakar. In 1942 there was a fine modern harbour with three miles of quays, and eight large moles in deep water where the largest vessels could come alongside. For tonnage Dakar holds third place among French ports after Marseille and Le Havre.

The harbour installation is modern. In addition to the quays and mooring dock there are 12 miles of railway line along the docksides, one portion of which is linked up with the town station at the head of the Dakar-Niger line, and the other with a large marshaling yard and goods station. A system of underground pipe lines can deliver heavy oil to the berthed ships at a prodigious speed, and a special mooring system makes for safety during the tropical storms which occur at certain seasons.

Dakar has been a fleet base since 1939, and it was from there that the French battleship "Richelieu" sailed for New York to be refitted in the early part of 1943. From that port, too, sailed many shiploads of French troops of the French West African command on their way to North Africa to take part in the Tunisian campaign.

Bathurst, the capital of the Gambia, became of considerable importance as a seaplane base. The Germans were fully alive to its importance in this field, long before the President war, for it was at Bathurst that the Lufhansa established one of its terminals. Bathurst has made history in another way not generally known, for it was here, in the early hours of January 14, 1945, that President Roosevelt alighted from his flying boat on his way to the historic meeting at Casablanca. It was from Bathurst, too, that he departed towards the end of the month, after having spent a couple of days aboard the American cruiser "Minneapolis," then lying in the Gambia River.

The Gambia was the scene of much troop movement during the autumn of 1942, when the big bluff of an impending attack on Dakar was staged—a bluff which, aided by propaganda and by a number of feats of heroism, thoroughly hoodwinked the Axis as to the real intentions of the Allies in North Africa.

The name of Takoradi conveys little to the average Briton, yet this Gold Coast port, with its deep-sea harbour (completed in 1929), played a large part in securing the North African victory. Takoradi was fully justified in demanding the millions which were spent on it between 1921 and 1928, for it is the only deep-harbour between Dakar and Pointe Noire. On the West Coast of Africa, where for hundreds of miles there is nothing but sandbarred and surf-beaten coast, accommodation for ocean-going vessels is available at few places, and ports in the English sense of the word are rare.

During the fluctuating fortunes of the Western Desert battles the greatest problem facing the Allied High Command was to get supplies to the Cairo area. Unable to get through the Mediterranean, the vital convoys had to make the 12,000-mile trip round the Cape. This took many weeks longer, but for heavy equipment it was essential, because there were no roads across.
THE MAKING OF A WEST AFRICAN AIRFIELD

1. Native workmen fell palm trees to clear the site. 2. Tarring and graveling one of the runways. 3. The runway is rolled to consolidate and level the surface; the driver has a sunshade made of spreading palm leaves. At length, when this tract of tropical forest had been transformed into an aerodrome, the ship-borne aircraft—in this case (4) a Hurricane—were unpacked and assembled. 5. Checking over before Hurricanes take off for the long trip across Africa to the Middle East from this vital link in the supply chain.

Photos: British Official. Crown Copyright
Africa capable of taking this traffic; existing roads were mostly impassable during the long rainy season. Thousands of aircraft were flown across the continent from Takoradi to Cairo, where they helped to build up that air superiority which led to the final successful advance from El Alamein.

Very little was heard in Britain of the work of the Air Delivery Unit which formed these planes across Africa, but a special debt of gratitude is due to the ferry pilots for work which was, of the utmost importance, was at all times arduous, and was never spectacular.

For months on end they flew new “crates” across the continent, and as soon as one delivery was affected they would return for more, their only relaxation being an occasional two-day rest on a Nile houseboat. Through tropical storms and burning desert they carried on with their wearying job, seeing that their comrades, the fighter pilots of the Middle East, got their aircraft with the minimum of delay.

Takoradi, Lagos, Kano, Maiduguri, Fort Lamy, El Geneina, El Fashir, Khartoum, Luxor—these were the stepping-stones towards that Allied air supremacy which was to enable the Eighth Army eventually to make its final glorious advance. The prospect before a pilot who was compelled to make a forced landing on mile out while on this route was not a pleasant one. For the interior of Africa is desolate and hostile. Dangers abounded, and a lost man, if chance did not lead his feet into the way of a friendly native tribe, might well die of thirst or hunger.

But to the pilots of A.D.U. it was just a job of work like any other. Over mountain ranges and vast tracts of desert British, Australian, South African and Polish pilots performed their arduous task of ferrying the planes which gave the Allies supremacy in the Western Desert. The airdield facilities could not be compared with those in Britain. At places like El Fashir and El Geneina, tiny oases in the Sudan, there was simply a dusty runway, a rest house for pilots and maintenance crews, and a few native huts. The A.D.U. crews and some of the N.C.O.s were British, the officers in peacetime being seconded from their units in the Regular Army. The fighting reputation of the Waffs is high, and there is little doubt that had trouble developed in West Africa they would have given an excellent account of themselves.

As it was, the existence of this highly-trained force released thousands of other soldiers for duties elsewhere. Some details also should be set down concerning the magnificent work carried out in the tropical waters off the West African coast by the corvettes and little motor launches. Flotillas of M.Ls. based on Bathurst, Freetown and Lagos were of incalculable value in escorting convoys along the coasts. They were also the corvettes assigned to this duty. Life in these small ships was exceptionally trying, just off the Equator. Quarters were cramped, and the heat of the engines, which occupied much ship space, coupled with the prevailing high temperature and humidity, made the atmosphere aboard resemble that of a Turkish bath pervaded by oil fumes.

Sleep in cabins was impossible. When the deadlights were fastened over the shutters after dark and the hatches were closed, the atmosphere below deck, torrid enough in the daytime, became impossible. Consequently, hammocks were slung wherever possible on deck and both officers and ratings slept in the open.

There were many troubles which beset these small craft in African waters. Electrical equipment is soon affected by the climatic conditions, and corrosion is rapid in the hot, humid air. Provision of fresh water was another problem on a long trip, owing to limited storage, and it must be remembered that around the West African coast, surf-barred as it is, there are hundreds of miles between ports. Another source of trouble from an operational viewpoint was the extreme rapidity of marine growth on the hull, inermations which seriously diminish speed. But these small ships have an exceptionally fine record in convoy work, and the losses of merchantmen under their surveillance were extremely low.
Chapter 229

MALTA, GIBRALTAR AND CYPRUS, 1942

Malta, as the author Kenneth Williams well says, was the hub of the Mediterranean and its story during the months from May to December, 1942—covered in this Chapter—was a thrilling and inspiring one. After the punishment it had to take with little means of hitting back there came at last the change to an offensive role, and eventually the lifting of its long blockade by sea and air. The parallel stories of Gibraltar and Cyprus are also given here. Bombing of targets of no military significance.

There is no question that the Nazis—to use their own phrase—tried to “rub out” Malta. In 1942 no fewer than 773 enemy aircraft were destroyed (182 by ground fire) at a cost to the R.A.F. of 195 planes; 39 of our pilots were saved. During this attempt to neutralize Malta, the enemy dropped over 12,000 tons of bombs on the island. Well might Air Vice-Marshal Sir Hugh Lloyd—he was knighted on July 31—who had been A.O.C. since May 1941 and was replaced in July 1942 by Air Vice-Marshal Sir Keith Park—knighted November 24, 1942—say in his farewell address to the R.A.F. in the Colony: “We are stronger than we have ever been before. Our Malta fighter force is the best in the world. Our contribution to the war has been very great. In the future, when people mention Malta, you will say with pride ‘I was there’.”

The growth of the R.A.F. in Malta was remarkable. When Italy entered the war there were said to be only three Gloucester Gladiators then based on the island. They were given by the Maltese the nicknames of Faith, Hope and Charity, and brought down many Italian planes. Afterwards Hurricane fighters were steadily supplied to the island. More airfields were constructed and, despite constant bombing by the enemy, they were kept in condition. But the struggle to keep the fighters in the air was no easy one. In March 1942 Spitfires went into action for the first time over Malta and, in the words of Sir Hugh Lloyd, “dealt the enemy a blow from which he has never recovered to this day.”

Air reinforcements continued to arrive. Bombers could be flown direct, but fighters and ammunition had to be brought to Malta by ships in convoy. It was announced in July that the American aircraft carrier “Wasp” had made several successful ferry trips carrying fighter

MALTA'S NEW A.O.C. INSPECTS R.A.F. STATIONS

On July 18, 1942, Air Vice-Marshal Sir Hugh Lloyd, handed over the Malta Command to Air Vice-Marshal Sir Keith Park, who is here seen making a tour of inspection soon after his appointment as A.O.C. The launch serving for the time being as a water-taxi is one belonging to the Air Line, R.A.F. Station, Malta.

Photograph, British Official: Crown Copyright.
THE ARMY AIDS THE R.A.F. ON MALTA'S AIRFIELDS

Glowing tributes have been paid to British infantry who garrisoned Malta, for their all-round hardiness and efficiency in a hundred diverse tasks. Here is one aspect of their work: top, right, with aircraftmen they refuel and refit a Spitfire; lower left, loading and making up shell-belts for fighter aircraft. At top left, a Spitfire pilot reaches his machine at the double after an alert.

The veils of secrecy surrounding the composition of the Mediterranean garrisons—a shroud very necessary for security reasons, for the enemy would have given much to know the precise state of affairs at Malta, Gibraltar and Cyprus who faced only finally in Gibraltar, where Lieut.-Gen. F. N. Macewen, Macfie, arrived as Governor in June, the infantry included men from the West Country, from Merseyside and from the Highlands, assented to tusslers from Durham, South Wales and Manitoba. Here the work of perfecting an underground fortress went steadily on. Underneath the two and a half miles of Gibraltar a new city was built.

These subterranean passages were not for purposes of refuge only. In high halls, which opened out at every 50 yards or so, were constructed workshops, storerooms, generating stations, and distilling plant to make the garrison independent of rain water, their normal and fluctuating source of water supply.

Below ground were also built hospitals and operating theatres, roads and railways, bakeries, libraries and cinemas. So vast, indeed, was the accumulation of stores by the end of the year that one observer predicted that, if Gibraltar's stores of food and materials of all kinds were not needed for withstanding a siege—a prospect which seemed steadily to recede—they would be made available as the first food dumps on the Continent for the victims of Nazi invasion.

There were in Gibraltar no black-out restrictions, a precaution that in any case would have been useless, in view of the lights of neighbouring La Linea—the Spanish town—which could provide a certain guide to enemy bombers. Food was not short, though most of it, except fruit and vegetables (brought in from Spain), had to be shipped from the United Kingdom. Rationing extended to petrol and clothes. The morale of the garrison remained unexceptionable, and an eagle eye was kept for the rare enemy bomber which approached the citadel. The garrison produced its own monthly magazine, The Rock.

In Cyprus, of which the garrison included men both from the United Kingdom and from the overseas Empire, everyone was very much on his toes. Tension in the island inevitably varied in accordance with the changing war situation. With the new threat to the Suez Canal and the Eastern Mediterranean which developed in 1942, Cyprus became once more a forward base against enemy centres in Greece, Crete and Rhodes. Until the battle of El Alamein in October, Cyprus was extremely busy. When the Duke of Gloucester visited it in May 1942 he found abundant reinforcements, new fortifications and new aerodromes—these last largely in the broad treeless plain of Messoria. He could further see that R.A.F. fighters from Syria could cover the island. There was constant
development in the defences, built principally with local labour, the spirit of which was indicated by the fact that the villagers gave one day's work free in each week.

As part of the work of A.R.P., which had been made compulsory for men up to the age of 43 early in the year, shelters were tunnelled in the principal towns. The Civil Defence scheme was in fact so well organized that it was considered second to none in the Middle East. There was no severe test for these services, for most enemy flights over the island were confined to reconnaissance. The evacuation scheme for women and children, moving them from the towns to the hills, which had begun in 1941, was allowed to lapse.

There was a food problem, but it was by no means as acute as, for example, in Malta. Fruit and vegetables were plentiful, though meatless days were introduced. But there was no rationing. An additional 11,000 acres of additional 11,000 acres were brought under cultivation in 1942 by means of irrigation schemes, and plans for cultivating another 17,000 acres were well advanced. The chief problem in Cyprus, from this point of view, was the periodic shortage of the rainfall. In summer the rivers dry up before reaching the sea. Other problems arose from soil erosion and deforestation. With these the Government grappled resolutely, and provided grants for reafforestation, anti-erosion work, and vine cultivation.

Despite anti-inflation measures the cost of living in Cyprus had risen by the end of the year to 142 per cent above the pre-war level. But the Government assumed control of all essential imports, distributing them at fixed prices and pegging the price of bread (the staple food of the people) by means of a subsidy. The Administration also extended subsidies to other vital commodities and hoped, not in vain, to reduce the cost of living.

The hub of the Mediterranean, of course, was Malta—thorn in the flesh of the Axis so long as they tried to maintain supplies to their North African armies. Malta's role in the strategy of the war may be summarized under five heads: (1) active cooperation with the Navy in action or in convoy; (2) effective interference with enemy supply lines to the Middle East and to North Africa; (3) destructive raids on enemy bases; (4) drawing off or containing considerable enemy forces; and (5) taking steady toll of enemy aircraft and shipping. Under each of these heads Malta emerged triumphant.

Though it may be difficult to say exactly when Malta switched from the defensive to the offensive—the process was imperceptible—her whole war story was one of epic quality. That quality could not have been achieved without the full cooperation of her civilian population. Malta, it has well been said, stands on four legs—the three Fighting Services and the native population.

How did the inhabitants fare in 1942? Everything was in short supply except courage and determination. There were but two newspapers: The Times of Malta, the English daily paper, and its Maltese counterpart, Birka. These journals, both produced by Miss Mabel Strickland, missed not a single issue and, despite constant dislocation of transport, were almost always ready for reading at the breakfast table.

Anyone in Malta could listen to broadcasts, provided he had an adequate receiving set, but the island's special system was that known as re-diffusion. The transmitting station was connected by wires to the individual loud-speakers. The system was adopted for reasons of security: nothing broadcast in this way could be picked up outside the island. Although the parcel mail to Malta was severely limited, the
air mail operated with remarkable smoothness and the garrison received letters from home with fair regularity. But, of course, the export restrictions imposed in the United Kingdom and the import restrictions in Malta itself, together with the difficulty of carrying goods by sea in bulk (including not only articles for sale, but newspapers for the troops), resulted in a dislocation of the island's normal life.

Details of Malta's food supply were something that the enemy would much like to have learned, and they were therefore not published. Suffice it to say that the bread ration was ten ounces daily; four-fifths of the famous goats, which used to supply much milk, had to be destroyed in order that horses, essential to transport, might have sufficient fodder; every inch of available ground, such as playing fields and recreational centres, was turned over to growing such things as potatoes and carrots. The water difficulty became particularly grim in summertime, but was mitigated by a visit from Dr. Bailey from the United Kingdom, who advised on the possibilities of deep boring.

In the summer of 1942 Malta had no light or power, for there was no fuel available. On the question of light, it is worth recording that the Governor introduced double summertime, only to find that the Maltese, who seldom got to bed much before midnight, insisted on getting up for the 4.30 Mass, and so complained that they could not get enough sleep. When it was suggested to them that the hour of Mass might be advanced to 5.30, they said that that was impossible, for their fathers and forefathers had always had 4.30 Mass. Summer-time consequently had to be abandoned.

Educational problems, in which Lord Gort gave great thought—for even during the war he was resolved to plan for the future, when the emigrating Maltese would have to know at least one more language than their own—were really grave. Schools, which had earlier been taken over for A.R.P. and other duties, were re-opened, despite a painful shortage (the effect of bombing) of slates, books, chalks, pencils, paper, and blackboards. Gradually these things were supplied from stocks in the Middle East. The Governor obtained the services of Mr. Ellis, of the I.C.C., and so was able to get immediate need satisfied to some extent. The British Institute, moreover, under Mr. Wickham, did excellent work and attracted people of all classes to its lectures. Communal feeding was introduced, and the fuel for the feeding kitchens was often wood from bomb-ravaged houses—doors, window frames, and so on. The owners did not like it, but the community benefited.

As for protection against air raids, the underground shelters, scores of miles of which were tunnelled in 1942, served admirably. In all these shelters the Maltese placed little shrines, for they would allow nothing to interrupt their supplications. They prayed, not for
UNQUENCHABLE SPIRIT OF THE ISLANDERS

The photograph at top, left, typifies the indomitable spirit of the Maltese under their protracted ordeal—children crowding on to the battlements to welcome an entering convoy. Nothing daunted these brave people built huts of fallen stones and carried on. Centre, left, in the old city of Senglea, one of the most devastated districts. Top, right, a trim little shop on a bombed site; this and the lower photograph, of the ruined Opera House, are eloquent of the destruction wrought by unrelenting air attack.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright; Sperry & General
Associated Press
CONVOY FROM ALEXANDRIA GOES THROUGH

In early April, 1942, this convoy from Alexandria, like all others endeavouring to succour Malta and bring her much-needed supplies, had to fight its way through against submarines, surface ships and aircraft. The Italian fleet tried to stop its progress but failed. Top, a British destroyer opens up with her guns through a smoke-screen; right, the guns of one of our cruisers come into action. The vivid photograph below shows an Italian torpedo-hunter attempting to evade the shells from a destroyer; one minute later the enemy was hit and crashed into the sea.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright
simultaneous convoys from Gibraltar (under the command of Vice-Admiral Curteis) and Alexandria (under Rear-Admiral Vian). Both were rough handled, though they accounted for many ships and planes of the convoy. Vian's convoy was forced to turn back through shortage of fuel. The relief brought to Malta was but temporary. Again in August another convoy was

**COMMANDO EXERCISE**

In the autumn of 1940 the Gibraltar Flotilla Independent Company was formed—a platoon each from the King's, Devon, Somerset, and Black Watch. In addition R.S. and Signals sections were similarly provided, while the Intelligence section and Company H.Q. were drawn from the Royal Artillery. Photograph shows an invasion exercise, the landing craft approaching the towing “Rock” (summer, 1943)

**Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright**

their own safety, but for the sailors in the ships, the pilots in the skies, the men behind the guns. Their spirit was truly remarkable. It was because of the loyal spirit that the proclamation of martial law never became necessary. The Maltese served wholeheartedly in the police, the A.R.P., and rescue services. They were on the spot in every raid. Nor were the women behindhand. They served as nurses, as members of St. John Ambulance, or as V.A.D.s.

Once the convoys got into Malta it was generally speaking, a question of unloading. Food. Convoys joined with a will. In the much-bombed dockyards, too, they worked their hardest to get damaged ships going again; their patchwork—often it could be little more than that —will long be remembered, for it enabled famous ships to make their way to Alexandria, to Gibraltar, or even to America for more complete and uninterrupted repairs.

Yet for all the gallantry of the garrison and the courage of the native population, the island was often in desperate straits. The weight of Axis air pressure on the narrow was terrible. The testing time of spring was followed by an equally trying summer. In June an attempt was made to bring succour by means of
THE DEFENDERS OF CYPRUS

Cyprus was for long in the front line of Mediterranean defense, and tension was high all through these critical months of 1942, as the tide of war surged towards Egypt and then turned westward again. Top, R.A.F. ground staff refuel a Hurricane fighter. Below, anti-aircraft gun position in an ancient castle of the crusaders. This unit is composed of Jews from the Palestinian "Foreign Legion."

The victorious advance from El Alamein began. It was followed in November by the Anglo-American landings in North Africa. This so changed the position of Malta vis-à-vis the Axis that, before the end of the year, Mr. R. G. Casey, Minister of State in Cairo, could announce in London that Malta had received substantial replenishments to her stocks, and that the Navy had done this without serious interference from the enemy. The boot was now on the other foot. Malta was saved, and though, until the position in North Africa was absolutely clear, she had to watch for clouds as well as sunshine, she felt that the worst of her prolonged ordeal was over.

By the end of the year Malta could claim that three vital tasks imposed on her had been fulfilled. These were: the security of communications by sea on which depended her supplies; defence against air attacks; and the maintenance of internal security. Their achievement was something on which Generals might shake hands with Privates, Admirals with A.B.s, Air Marshals with airmen, and Governors with the humblest civilian.

In recognition of the splendid work of all during the preceding months of peril His Majesty the King had awarded the George Cross to Malta on April 16, 1942. The Cross was officially presented by Lord Gort on September 13, the ceremony taking place in the Palace Square of Valetta. After being exhibited in the towns and villages of the island, it was placed in St. John's Cathedral.

sent out, but before it reached Malta it had lost the aircraft carrier "Eagle" and the cruiser "Manchester," in addition to merchant ships.

During 1942, in trying to evacuate Malta, the British lost three cruisers, nine destroyers and two aircraft carriers—apart from merchant ships. Such grievous losses made inevitable the question whether they could be afforded. Some observers thought that casualties of this magnitude would prove too heavy even for the Allies, and prophesied that without some radical transformation of the Mediterranean position Malta might be starved out.

Fortunately, there was no need to test that prophecy. In October 1942
OUTSIDE KHARKOV

Soviet light machine-gunners, after breaking into an enemy-held village on the outskirts of Kharkov, fire at a German emplacement. Kharkov, third city of Russia, had been taken by the enemy on October 30, 1941. Timoshenko's offensive in this area began on May 12 of the following year, its object being to cut off the main German offensive in the south which, in fact, materialized about the same time. Kharkov was not destined yet to be liberated, and its travail continued for another 12 months.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official
FREETOWN, SIERRA LEONE

The top photograph well displays the fine natural harbour of Freetown, in which large convoys could muster for the voyage across the Atlantic. It was the headquarters of the Flag Officer Commanding West Africa. The busy waterside market and the native dignities of the buyers and sellers of produce made a lively scene. Coloured West Africans played a full part in the defence of their homeland. In the anti-aircraft batteries of the West African Frontier Force (a team seen below) nearly all the specialized work was done by Africans.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright. Pictorial Press
H.M.S. "PENROSE" AFTER HER ORDEAL

"Penelope" was the cruiser's real name, but she was so battered and holed by bomb splinters while escorting a convoy to Malta and during a fortnight's stay in harbour, that her crew gave her the apt nickname. Note the many holes in her port side (above), plugged with wood. Below, the vessel is seen entering Valetta harbour.

Her commander, Captain A. D. Nicholl, D.S.O., R.N., was honoured by the award of the C.B.E. in June 1942. Below, he is congratulating A.B. Roy de Moutiby, star of H.M.S. "Penelope," who had just been decorated with the D.S.M. Captain Nicholl's resolution and determination in bringing his ship to port in the face of flak and determined enemy air attacks at Malta and on passage.

WOMEN PLAYED A NOBLE PART IN CHINA'S RENAISSANCE

From college students to peasants, China's women entered whole-heartedly into the service of the nation in a thousand different spheres of usefulness. Here some are receiving and sending wounded soldiers just back from the fighting line. Boy courts also are amusing. In her "New Life Movement" Madame-Chiang Kai-shek, wife of the Generalissimo, sought to revive the spiritual virtues which had been the source of China's former greatness.
Chapter 230

CHINA IN THE RANKS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

This is the story of China during the year 1942, told by Colin McDonald, who for five years was Special Correspondent of "The Times" in China. He was on the American gunboat "Pamay" when it was bombed and sunk by Japanese aircraft on December 12, 1937. He saw much of the fighting in North China, Shanghai, Nanking and Hankow, and escaped from Hongkong in a destroyer after the Japanese attack. Thereafter he spent some time in China's wartime capital, Chungking.

When Japan declared war on Great Britain and the United States of America on December 7, 1941, the Chinese, confident of the strength of their new Allies, believed that the worst of their troubles were over. For more than four years they had struggled alone against their formidable opponent, hoping for the day when the Western Powers would come to their rescue. Now at long last that day had arrived, and the Chinese, ignorant of the extent of the disaster at Pearl Harbour, thought the war would soon be ended.

Instead of this the United Nations, as we have seen in earlier chapters, suffered a series of heavy reverses. The Chinese, although shaken like ourselves by these setbacks, never lost heart, and Chinese troops were on the move to secure Hongkong when the little British outpost fell on Christmas Day, 1941 (see p. 1989).

The suddenness of the Japanese attack, as well as Chinese lack of transport for covering the vast distances involved, contributed to the failure of the Chinese to render effective assistance to the beleaguered Colony.

Another factor which prevented the strong Chinese forces stationed north of Canton from exerting any influence on the fate of Hongkong was the offensive launched by the Japanese farther north against the city of Changsha on December 23. For the third time the Japanese, advancing from their base at Yochow south of Hankow, reached the outskirts of Changsha; and for the third time, after heavy fighting in which they suffered severe casualties, they were forced to retreat—in the middle of January 1942.

Whether or not the Japanese intended to hold Changsha, the Chinese were able to claim an important strategic success which did much to hearten their own people in the first black months of the year. (See Illus. p. 1955.) Meanwhile, the Japanese were steadily advancing down through Malaya and penetrating into Southern Burma. The situation became so serious that General Chiang Kai-shek, who had been appointed Supreme Commander of the United Nations' forces in the China, Siam and French Indo-China zone on January 3, flew to Burma in the middle of January to confer with General Wavell, who had taken over command of the United Nations' forces in Malaya, Burma, the Netherlands East Indies and India. Chinese troops played their part (see Chapter 200) in the heroic but hopeless defence of Burma.

On March 19 Lieut. General Stilwell, of the U.S. Army, who had been Military Attaché in Peking for some years, was appointed Commander of the Chinese Fifth and Sixth Armies in Burma. On April 12 General Chiang Kai-shek again flew to Burma to confer with General Stilwell and General Sir H. H. L. G. Alexander. The loss of Ramgum on March 9 was followed by the fall of Lashio, terminus of the Burma Road on April 21. The Japanese swept on to the Salween River, but all their attempts to cross this wild torrent failed and they made no further serious attempt during the rest of the year to advance into China from this direction. (See map on p. 2051.)

After the American raid on Tokyo on April 18 (see pp. 2125-26) the Japanese may have been baffled for a time by President Roosevelt's bland assertion that the planes had come from "Shang-ta.", but they soon learned where they had landed—in China. Accordingly, in May 21 Japanese forces started a large-scale offensive in the Chinese wartime province of Chekiang to destroy the "bomb-Tokyo bases." By May 31, in spite of bitter Chinese resistance, they had occupied Kinshwa, the capital of the province, and by the third week in June had seized all the important airfields in this part of China.

Early in July, however, the Japanese, under constant pressure from the Chinese, began to withdraw their forces. In the meantime another Japanese force had landed on the west of the adjoining province of Fukien with the intention of linking up with the troops in Chekiang. This expedition was hastily timed, for the pressure on Chekiang having been...
while the cumulative effect of their activities was of little military importance, it continued to prevent the invaders from exploiting his conquests in full. Wherever required the Chinese again resorted to the "scorched earth" policy, which they applied in places with the same ruthless thoroughness as the Russians had shown.

The chief feature of the year, however, was not the resilience of the Chinese in the military campaign, but the activities of the American Air Force. In July 1943, the volunteer airmen who had achieved fame as the "Flying Tigers" in Burma as well as China (see illus., p. 2048)—under General Claire Chennault—were reorganized as the U.S. Army Air Force in China. Henceforth they intensified their raids on Japanese bases, shipping and supply lines as far afield as Hongkong, French Indo-China and Siam. As a result the Japanese soon found that they no longer had undisputed command of the skies over China.

With her attack on Great Britain and the United States Japan had been at last able to stop up the remaining holes in the blockade of the China coast. After the fall of Rangoon she was also able to close the Burma Road. Apart from a few almost impassable trails through the wild mountains in the extreme north of the Shan States, China's only land link was the route through Central Asia from Russia. When the Germans attacked Russia in June 1941 the Soviet had been forced to suspend further supplies. As a consequence, with the initial Japanese successes in the Pacific, China found herself subjected in effect to a long-range siege. Confronted with these conditions, the Chinese National Aviation Corporation, a joint Sino-American concern, released the Chinese were able to detach troops for the defence of Fukien, and the Japanese were forced to re-embark. Fighting continued in Chekiang through August, and by the end of the month the Chinese were able to claim that they had recovered all the important places, with the exception of Kinhwa, which the Japanese had captured in the earlier part of the campaign. (See map in this page.)

During the rest of the year there were no further major military operations on Chinese territory, though there was a certain amount of sporadic fighting in the province of Shantung, in the Yangtze Valley, and along the Canton-Hankow Railway. The guerrillas continued to harass the Japanese in all the occupied areas, and

CHINA'S LINK WITH BURMA AND INDIA
The Tumman-Burma railway followed the route of the famous highway from Lashio to Kunming, and when completed would connect with other important railways traversing parts of China with other branches (see map). Where Japanese-occupied territories are shown shaded. At the end of 1943 about one-third of the work on the Chinese section had been done; the Burma section was intended to be built with British funds. Top, cutting a shelf for the railway along the Nam Lung river; lower photograph shows another section nearly completed.

Map: British Official; Crown Copyright
in the face of every danger and difficulty, had operated the civil air lines all through the fighting in China, promptly started new services to India in order to keep China in touch with the outside world. These services were soon supplemented by the arrival of United States Army Air Force transport planes, with the promise of many more to come as the American output expanded to meet the urgent needs of the Allies in all theatres of war.

The writer of this Chapter, who witnessed many of the events described, can testify that the air link between China and India, maintained under these difficult conditions, could be ranked with the most hazardous journeys in the world. The planes flew over a largely unmapped stretch of the Himalayas; they passed within 70 miles of the chief Japanese air base in Burma; they went to 15,000 feet without oxygen; 20,000 ft. chased by the enemy; and often had to cope with monsoon weather on arrival in India. Although the amount of war material which could be brought into China in this was not large, the moral effect of keeping open even this tenuous link with the outside world was of immense importance to the Chinese.

With the loss of her land routes China was thrown back on her own economic resources, and the Government in Chungking redoubled its efforts to develop the industries which had been moved into the interior after the invasion of the coastal areas. Among the chief projects to which special attention was given were the mineral wealth of Yunnan, the promising oil deposits of Kansu, and the production of vegetable oils in Szechuan to augment the dwindling supplies of imported petrol. The "hit-and-run" industries in parts of the country subject to enemy forays were also developed to the full extent in the effort to make China self-supporting.

Increasing attention was also given to the serious problem of inflation. The financial authorities in Chungking, foreign as well as Chinese, recognized that it was impossible under the conditions in which China found herself after five years of war to prevent inflation, and devoted their efforts to slowing up the process, one of the chief remedies being the collection of taxes in kind. China is largely an agricultural country, over 90 per cent of the people tilling the land, and the harvests for 1942 again proved beautiful for the fifth year in succession.

Besides coping with the problems of war, the Chinese devoted more and more attention to the problems of peace. During 1942 the wind of "reconstruction" became just as familiar in Chungking as it did in London. In addition to rebuilding and opening up large units of bomb-scared Chungking the Government drafted long-term plans for

CHUNGKING'S WELCOME TO BRITISH PARLIAMENTARY MISSION

At the invitation of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, a British Mission visited Chungking, arriving on November 16, 1942, and leaving for India on December 10. It consisted of Lord Ashburnham and Lord Teviot (House of Lords), with Captain S. C. Wedderburn, M.P., and Mr. Jack Lawson, M.P., representing the House of Commons. Cheering crowds lined the streets of Chungking as the visitors' car passed along.

Photo: British Official - Crown Copyright

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BOMB-RAVAGED CHUNGKING

China's war-time capital is built on a high, rocky plateau at the junction of the Yangtze and Kiang-shing rivers (below). Top, left, how buildings were protected by a bamboo 'detonator' to explode aerial bombs before they penetrated the structure. Right, one of the streets damaged by bombs and the fire which inevitably followed. Photo, Pearl River News.
CHINA WAS FIRST VICTIM

In the years that followed Japan’s attack in July 1937, China had to face savage bombing of its cities, and gradually built up an efficient A.R.P. system, with warnings, evacuation, shelters and relief. In Chongqing itself there was dug-out accommodation for 500,000 people, who were admitted by domiciliary permits; at the other extreme were rough refuges like (6), scooped out of the soft earth on the banks of the Yellow River. In winter there was freedom from raids, but from May onwards they were of almost daily occurrence. Thousands of families moved their possessions each day to the countryside, and back again; (6) is such an exodus from Chongqua.

(1) A refugee family with their chattels; (2) In Chongqing after a raid; (3) A radi and an army officer help a wounded peasant woman.

Photos, Chinese Official; L.N.A.; Keystone
RAPID GROWTH OF CHINESE INDUSTRY

In 1936 Chinese Industrial Cooperatives were instituted, societies with the object of assisting small industry and economic resistance to aggression. Goods ranging from textiles to chemicals, textiles, furniture, agricultural implements and weapons were made—especially industries well away from the battle zone, but some of the others much nearer—even in the fighting areas and behind the enemy lines. Above, a steel mill in West China: pouring molten steel.

Photo, Pictureque Press

developing the resources of the country. Special attention was given to hydroelectric power schemes for supplying new industries with power. Despite the difficulties of the long-range siege the Government did what it could to develop transport by road, rail and water.

Progress was also made in the field of education, in spite of the lack of textbooks, apparatus, and sometimes of adequate food for the thousands of students who followed the migration of the universities into the interior when the Japanese captured all the great cities of the coast, where most of the colleges had been situated. During the year the Minister of Education announced an extension of the universal education scheme designed to give graduated lessons, over a period of years, to every age group in the country from six to 60.

These measures gave directive force to the social changes brought about by five years of warfare. The chief of these could be summarized as follows: the breaking down of provincial barriers through millions of refugees streaming into the interior; the spread of war

BRITISH AND AMERICAN GUNBOATS FOR CHINA

In February Britain transferred the gunboats "Falcon," "Gannet" and "Sandpiper" to the Chinese Government; early next month the U.S.A. presented the "Tutuila." Rear-Admiral Troubridge is accepting the vessels (handed over on March 27, 1942) from the U.S. Naval Attaché, Lieut.-Col. J. M. McHaul (left), and the British Military Attaché, Brigadier G. F. Grimsdale (right).

Photo, British Official / Crown Copyright
nation by introducing austerity of mind, habits and action in every walk of life.

The year also saw the spread of the Industrial Cooperative Movement ("Indusco"), started after the outbreak of hostilities to develop local industries in every town, village and hamlet in the interior or cooperative lines to offset the loss of manufactures in the occupied areas and the drying up of imports from other countries. The effects of the New Life Movement were to be seen in the capital, where the note of austerity found expression in the closing of all saloons, the shutting down of many of the teashops, the almost total ban on the serving of wine in restaurants and the banning of dancing in public and every form of luxury or self-indulgence—also for the purpose of encouraging thrift in the interests of the national war effort and fostering the spirit of self-sacrifice which had enabled the Chinese to come through all the perils, heartbreaks and losses of the last five years.

In sharp contrast with such efforts were the corruption, disillusionment and lack of discipline in the puppet regimes set up by the Japanese in the occupied regions. Japan's entry into the world war made little or no difference in these areas. The client states of Manchukuo went through the form of declaring war on the United Nations; but Wang Ching-wei’s puppet government in Nanking, although entirely subservient to Japanese orders, for some reason or other took no such step for the time being. As a result, for more than a year, Occupied China remained nominally neutral in the midst of the general conflict in the Pacific.

Nevertheless, the citizens of the United Nations living in Occupied China were treated more or less as enemy subjects. The diplomats and their staffs were confined to their compounds. "Suspects" in the non-official walks of life were put in prison, while the remainder were kept under police supervision. In May an exchange of American officials and citizens for Japanese was carried out, and in August all British officials and a number of unofficial British subjects, about 1,300 in all, were repatriated from Japan and Occupied China in exchange for Japanese from Britain, the Dominions and India. Several thousand British

![Image of buildings in China]

**CHINA MOVES HER UNIVERSITIES TO SAFETY.**

Many of the universities and technical colleges were transferred to regions free of the Japanese, the majority to Szechwan. Despite all drawbacks the number of educational establishments grew steadily. Below, girl students of Linting College, transferred from Shanghai to Chungking, prepare their new playing fields. Top, new university buildings in West China nearly completed.

*Photos: British Official / Crown Copyright.*

Civilian remained in Japanese hands in Occupied China.

Among the immediate results of Chungking's formal declaration of war on the Axis Powers was a quickening of interest among all classes in China in events in the rest of the world. Prior to December 7, 1941, the term A B C D had exemplified the Pacific front to the thinking — America, Britain, China and the Dutch East Indies. The presence of British and American Military Missions in Chungking and the frequent references by Mr. Churchill and President Roosevelt to China gave
other fronts the Pacific must be Washington's primary concern rather than London's for the purpose of the war until, with the defeat of Hitler, the full crushing weight of the United Nations could be turned on Japan. The same principle was recognized in respect of aircraft for use in China and the equipping of the Chinese armies.

China's closer relations with India culminated in the fortnight's visit of General Chiang Kai-shek and his wife to New Delhi, on February 9 (see India, p. 2222). They were accompanied by Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, the popular British Ambassador to China, who later went to Moscow as our Ambassador to the U.S.S.R. On March 11 it was announced that India and China were to exchange diplomatic representatives, and this exchange duly followed. The new British Ambassador to China, Sir Horace Seymour, arrived at Chungking by air on February 26. During the year a number of important personalities visited the Chinese war capital, including Mr. Wendell Willkie, who flew to China from Moscow by way of Chinese Turkestan at the end of September.

China also made a number of important new contacts with other countries in the free world. On March 29 she announced a treaty with Iraq; on March 20 an exchange of Ministers with Egypt; on March 21 a treaty of amity with Turkey; on June 25 the establishing of diplomatic relations with Persia; on October 20 a treaty with Argentina; and on December 6 the raising of the Chinese and Netherlands Legations to the status of Embassies. The most important diplomatic success was the accrediting of a representative

PREPARATION FOR CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

In 1939 a three-year programme of local self-government was launched as a preparation for the realization of political democracy when China should be freed from the invader. By 1944 all counties of free China were to have representative assemblies. Girls of the Political Affair Commission went into the villages to explain the new system to the peasants and encourage resistance to the aggressors.

YOUNG CITIZENS OF THE NEW CHINA

Below, left, is one of Madame Chiang Kai-shek's war orphans. Local children bring gifts of scrap metal; the copper they get in return are hanged over for the benefit of the orphans.

Right, a war orphan explains the wall poster, which shows tracts signalling to the enemy (top), being marched away to their last fate under armed escort. Many of these orphans were maintained by the Refugees' Children's Association, founded by the wife of the Generalissimo.
to the Vatican, from which the Japanese had done their best to estrange China after the exchange of representatives between Tokyo and the Holy See in March.

British goodwill towards the Chinese was exemplified by the sending of a Parliamentary Mission to China. The Mission, which consisted of Lord Alwyne, Lord Teyjot, Captain H. J. Scrymgeour Wedderburn, M.P., and Mr. J. J. Lawson, M.P., arrived at Chingking in November. Besides receiving a warm welcome from General Chiang Kai-shek, the members of the Government and all classes of the people, the Mission was accorded the unprecedented honour of being the first foreigners to attend a session of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang, the official party which virtually controls the State. After a month in China, in the course of which they visited the Yellow River front, the members of the Mission left for home by way of Turkey, full of praise for the Chinese war effort.

Other tokens of goodwill included the handing over to the Chinese on March 17 of the British river gunboats "Falcon," "Gannet," and "Sandpiper." Following the example of the British, in giving their ex-American destroyers the names of towns in both countries, the Chinese gave their new warships the names of towns in China beginning with the character or ideograph for England. Thus the "Falcon" became Ying-yeh, or English Virtue, the "Gannet" Ying-han or English Mountain, and the "Sandpiper" Ying-ho or English Hero.

The American gunboat "Yuma," which was handed over on the same day, became Moy-yun or American Origin, after the T'ang Dynasty town of the same name in the province of Shensi.

By far the biggest step in bringing about closer relations between China and her allies was the announcement on October 3 that the British and American Governments had decided to relinquish all extra-territorial rights in China. The announcement added that the decision would apply immediately to the free parts of China, and would apply to the whole of liberated and reconstituted China after the war. With one stroke of the pen Great Britain and the United States swept away the whole complex system of legal immunity and trading privileges, foreign areas, and local defence forces enjoyed by extra-territorial foreigners in China. After a hundred years the Chinese thus became masters in their own house at last, free to rebuild it in their own way, with such foreign assistance only as they might choose to seek.

China thus entered at once a new era in which no vestige or suggestion of inequality remained. Although she began the year 1942 badly as a result of the early reverses of the Allies in the Pacific, she finished it with the high hopes of the United Nations encouraged by the brilliant victories in North Africa. The steadfast leadership of General Chiang Kai-shek, the tenacity of her own people and the long-term plans of her Allies gave her new courage to endure the trials still to be surmounted. In facing these trials she had the further inspiration of knowing that, in place of the long, dreary war of attrition she had been facing when she fought alone, she could now look forward to the crushing defeat of her enemies when the steadily expanding power of the United Nations should finally overwhelm the Japanese.
Chapter 231

JAPAN IN 1942: TWELVE MONTHS OF TOTAL WAR

Events inside Japan during the year that followed the attack on British and American possessions, are here described by Peter Hume. The author, who is a member of the council of the Royal Central Asian Society, was a war correspondent with the Japanese forces in North China, 1937–38. Later he became Assistant News Director in Singapore and Java of the Malay Broadcasting Corporation.

The first three days of each New Year are the occasion for Japan's main annual festival. At the opening of 1942, for the first time for three years, the Japanese people felt they really had something to celebrate. The festivities were of a rationed, sparse, wartime character, but at last, after more than four years of war, the headlines in the papers told of victories at least comparable with those which had enveloped the beginning of 1938 and 1939.

Since those first two years of victory in China the Japanese had been basking under a regime of increasing stringency, which sought to conduct one war while secretly preparing for another. Long ago imported Western luxuries had disappeared, and all types of superfluous consumer goods had gone to feed the war machine. And since the sweeping advances of 1937 and 1938 in North and Central China there had been nothing to show for these sacrifices—sacrifices which were reflected also in high taxation, long hours of work under slave conditions, continual driving of the undernourished workers.

By 1942 the climax had come. The three-month-old Government of General Tojo had already rewarded the workers with one of the most brilliantly planned and executed combined operations in the history of warfare. Hongkong and Manila had been captured; two great British capital ships had been sunk; the American Pacific Fleet (according to the highly circumstantial stories released by the "Board of Information") had been annihilated; Thailand had fallen like a ripe plum into Japanese hands; Japanese troops were advancing, seemingly without check, down the Malayan peninsula to Singapore, for many years the major beam in the eye of Nippon's expansionists.

To the Japanese all these things were reasons for celebration, not only because they were unexpected, and because the people realized that they had got off to an astonishingly good start—but because the "Divine mission" of Japan had been advanced one step nearer its completion. Japan, a senior officer of the Army said in all seriousness, was self-evidently superior to other nations because her dynasty was descended from a goddess—from the female principle of natural generation and growth. Other countries in their religions traced their genesis only to a male God, and the male principle was one of manual and artificial construction. Therefore the Japanese could give new life to the world, while the Western nations could only prop up artificially the falling structure of a degenerate civilization.

To observers in the western world, long since purged of primitive superstitions and accustomed to accord to religion its proper and logical place in modern life, it seemed incredible that "educated" Japanese should actually believe in these ideas of Imperial descent from the Sun goddess and of a heaven-inspired mission to conquer the eastern—no, if not indeed the entire—world. Still more incredible did it appear that statesmen, and politicians, or commanders in the fighting services, should be motivated in their plans by such archaic beliefs. But the fact was inescapable.

The thesis had been enunciated clearly enough by the former Japanese Prime Minister, Hiranuma, a year earlier, on the occasion of the 2,601st anniversary of the founding of the Empire (February 11, 1941). He spoke to 3,000 primary school teachers and ward officials in Hiby Hall, Tokyo, that evening. After a reference to the grandeur of the Sun goddesses, sent down by Heaven with a message that "their posteriorly should reign over and govern Japan for ages eternal," Hiranuma continued:

"It was on that happy day 2,601 years ago that our first Emperor, Jimmu, ascended the
CHINESE FORCED TO WORK FOR THE ENEMY

Except for a relatively small number of Chinese malcontents the Japanese invaders met with resistance and opposition everywhere, and 'collaboration' was out of the question. More than three-quarters of a million guerrillas were harassing them, and half a million Chinese regular troops operated behind the Japanese lines. Above, captured Chinese working in the fields under a Japanese guard.

The keystone of this training since the emergence of the modern State system as a consequence of the Meiji Restoration in 1868 was the person of the Emperor. The theory of the divinity of the occupant of the throne persists in Japan as undiluted as it does among the primitive tribes of Central Africa, and the apparatus of compulsory State education is the means of its propagation. This unique contradiction between primitive belief and the modern machinery of Government is the basis of the apparent contradictions in the Japanese character.

Thus it was that on the New Year Festival of 1942 the Japanese were joyful. General Tojo and the members of his Government could celebrate. They had been right. Through the first months of 1942 this atmosphere

brotherhood,' in which the other nations of the world would have such its own proper place. He left no doubt that Japan would be the leader in this paradise. In Europe, the Hiter regime has made use of a similar mystique—the Aryan heritage—but without any such solid background of tradition as has influenced Japan.

Japanese militarists were products of, and heirs to, a system which emerged from feudal priestly teachings less than a hundred years ago and had since then, in the words of one authority, 'aimed first of all to develop and cultivate endurance and other characteristics useful for conquest and progress. Japanese education has always been conducted with a view to training children for collective action.'

Japanese notes for Malaya and Australia

Left, five-dollar notes printed by the Japanese and put into circulation in Malaya after its fall. Right, one-pound notes issued by the Allied military authorities, together with others for ten shillings, one shilling and sixpence. Obviously they were intended for circulation in Australia or New Zealand after a Japanese invasion.
FANATICAL RELIGIOUS FERVOUR OF JAPANESE SOLDIERS

Massed on the border of French Indo-China and Burma, ready for the invasion, Japanese troops present arms to the rising sun—which was then typified the goddess from whom their line of descent was descended. The spirits of soldiers killed in war were stilled, and the Emperor himself took part in the elaborate ceremony at Tokyo at which they were enrolled among the patron-gods of Japan.

Photo: Kyōto

persisted and gained strength. There was no need for propaganda (though by custom it was amply provided) to exaggerate the solid gains of the Japanese forces. Singapore fell, and that very afternoon letters to Tokyo radio's home service could hear a choir of schoolchildren singing a prepared and rehearsed anthem of celebration. Java was occupied as culmination of a campaignembracing the scattered and inevitably under-defended islands of the Netherlands East Indies. Japanese forces swept through Burma, captured Rangoon and cut the last lifeline of China, the oldest enemy. The Philippines were subjugated.

So much did these successes affect the Japanese that they seemed in the first month of 1942 is danger of falling into the opposite error of complacency. In consequence there were repeated warnings by Tojo and lesser officials, especially published at the moments of most outstanding success. For instance, after the fall of Singapore General Terauchi, who as "Commander-in-Chief South Operations" was militaristically responsible for the campaign, specifically told Japanese newspaper correspondents that the war was only just beginning and that there was hard fighting ahead.

Such warnings were largely nullified by the successes of the Japanese propaganda machine, which was not content with the real victories but continued to minimize (absurdly to anyone but a Japanese) the cost at which they were achieved. Thus it was officially announced on March 2, 1942, that the Malayan campaign had cost Japan only eight aircraft. Shipping losses, which by the time Singapore fell had in fact mounted to 182 vessels sunk or damaged, were hardly mentioned; but great play was made with the air and sea losses of the United Nations. Though these losses were undoubtedly serious, later events were to prove them far from "annihilating" in character, as represented to the Japanese public.

On the crest of the wave of military success in the Philippines, the Netherlands East Indies and Burma, Tojo took the unusual step of announcing a General Election to the Japanese Diet. This remarkable institution had been in existence since 1890, but followed the proclamation of the Meiji Constitution, which was based on the archaic Prussian model of that day. The significance of the Diet in Japanese national affairs varied with the changing trends of policy, but it never had a constitutional responsibility or power resembling that of a democratic Parliament. The Cabinets were responsible to the Emperor and not to the Diet, and while the Diet had the constitutional right to deliberate on projected laws it had no power either to make or cancel them.

A Government which found any of its measures without the support of a majority in the Diet could continue in office. The Constitution in any case provided for only one Cabinet and three-month session of the Diet each year. Except during this period the Government had absolute powers, limited only by its responsibility to the Emperor. At need the Emperor's authority could be invoked. An instance cited by O. D. Tolischus in his book mentioned earlier was the adherence of Japan to the Axis alliance. Two Cabinets and 70 Cabinet sessions had turned down the alliance, but to settle controversy once and for all Matsumoto had extracted from the Emperor an Imperial Rescript sanctifying it, which immediately put it beyond challenge within Japan.

This, then, was the sort of "representative assembly" to which Tojo, in April 1942, called elections. It was not necessary for him to do so, but the time was ripe for a demonstration of Japanese solidarity behind its daringly aggressive policy. The pro-Fascist totalitarian elements of the Japanese political machine had succeeded as long ago as 1940 in abolishing the weak traditional political parties. In their place had been erected the aptly named "Imperial Rule Assistance Association," the creature of successive militarist cabinets and bolstered especially by Army support.

It was this Association which, in the elections of April 1942, alone had the privilege of nominating candidates. Any opposition became the opposition of individuals to the will of the Emperor—the will expressed by a Government which had proved, and was continuing day by day to prove, its success in carrying out the Divine Imperial mission. Apart from this advantage the recommended candidates benefited from the support of the whole
machinery of official propaganda. Consequently, the bulk of there were elected—by a franchise which had less than 20 years previously been extended to men of over 25. Before then hardly more than 1 per cent of the population had had a vote, owing to stringent property qualifications. By this totalitarian device Teito and his associates, who had themselves presumably anticipated a long defensive war to follow the initial series of quick victories, provided that even in this puppet organ of Government there would be no signs of "popular support for four years to come."

The time of the election was well chosen; just before the Japanese went to the polls, in fact, a cloud had darkened the Tokyo skies. On April 18 American Mitchell bombers appeared over the capital and other principal cities of Japan. The raid was a tiny scale by European standards, and it is doubtful whether a great deal of military importance was achieved. Nevertheless, the first shock of counter-attack had been administered to Japanese morale at home—only two days after Tokyo Castle had echoed Goering's boast of 1938, saying it was "absolutely impossible for enemy bombers to get within 500 miles of Tokyo."

An eye-witness account of the raid was given by Miss Georgia Newbury, a native of Oregon, who after 12 years of missionary work in Japan had turned newspaper-woman. She watched the raid from a window of the Japan Times and Advertiser office.

"The raid occurred at noon," she said. "Two hours before, the Japs posted signals and air raid warnings began several minutes. Members of our staff, on duty in the air raid squad, got into their equipment. Air raid sirens wailed and radio warnings were broadcast. It was a tremendous shock to the Japanese. Before I left the window I saw one of the raiders swoop so low that I could see the face of one of the crew. I knew it was an American plane and that he was one of our own. The story was run on the front pages of the newspapers promptly, but they gave it a single-column heading, saying the first foreign planes in history had flown over Japan. These headlines contrasted strongly with the Jap manner of handling the start of the war and the fall of Singapore. The former had huge headlines, but for Singapore the Japan News did not have type big enough for the purpose, and had "Singapore Falls" cut in wood blocks for nearly a week before the event."

The Japanese are abundantly supplied with the usual means of war, but they have a transportation problem to get these supplies home from conquered lands," continued Miss Newbury. "They have an enormous programme of building wood and concrete ships of about 1,000 tons. They are mobilizing the women in every field. Every little patch of ground, even between the buildings in Tokyo, is under cultivation. Every woman belongs to a patriotic organization, and they are all teaching how to use wrist, leg and back in their dish. Food is scarce and hard to get, but they have enormous supplies of canned goods in storage."

The effect of the American raid was chiefly to impress upon Japanese leaders the necessity of avoiding a repetition. A wholesale purge was conducted of the senior personnel of home air defense headquarters, whose organization had failed to destroy by fighter interception or anti-aircraft fire a single raiding aircraft, and cold-blooded murder was resorted to as a reprisal against American air crews who had been forced to land in occupied China. In addition, a full-scale campaign, employing two Army corps, was initiated in the coastal area of China where the American bombers had been scheduled to land. Massacres and atrocities on a scale unusual even in the unpleasant history of Japanese operations in China were instigated against the peasants who had welcomed the American fliers. In many villages every man, woman and child was slaughtered.

These events, together with a momentary exhibition of hysteria on the part of the previously over-confident radio, were the only indications of the effects of the raid. Stories told by

WHEN AMERICAN BOMBERS RAIDED TOKYO, APRIL 18, 1942

From the Japanese newspaper "Yomiuri" of April 19, 1942, these photographs purport to show (left) one of the Mitchell bombers amid anti-aircraft machine gun fire and (right) women at work on a Starling building after the raid. Led by Major-General James H. Doolittle, the squadron of Mitchell bombers took off from the U.S. aircraft carriers "Hornet," some 1,000 miles from Japan. [See p. 126.]

Photograph, Associated Press
his speech and in that of Togo (Foreign Minister) which followed, it was the security of Japan's position vis-a-vis Soviet Russia, even the simplest Japanese could appreciate the menace presented by Russian air-power in the Maritime Provinces of Siberia, and it was thus the Government's policy to speak soft words when the Russians were winning victories, resorting to threats when they were pushed back by the Germans.

On this occasion the menacing tone was most in evidence, Togo asserting that attempts to alienate the two countries would not succeed so long as Russia "firmly maintains" an attitude of neutrality. Tojo complemented this attitude by reassuring the Japanese people that in the North "the security of Japan's defence is as solid as a rock."

A different note had been struck earlier in the year during the course of the successful Russian winter offensive. Then Naotake Satô, appointed ambassador on March 6, had spoken only of the importance of clarifying Japanese-Soviet relations. A fortnight later Japan had signed a protocol agreeing to a 20 per cent increase in the rents paid to Russia for fishing rights in Siberian waters.

On the home front increasing financial stringency was indicated in July by the issue of a new 5,000,000,000

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EXCHANGE OF ALLIED AND JAPANESE DIPLOMATS
British and American diplomats embarked in the Japanese liner "Asakura Maru" at Yokohama on June 17, 1942. After a week in Tokyo Bay at anchor, she left for London. Marquis, with the "Gripsholm," which had been Japanese nationals, while the latter embarked in the Japanese line. Above the "Gripsholm" at Rio de Janeiro.
yen (roughly £300,000,000) war loan, adding to the astronomical national debt, announced in June by the Imperial Treasury as totaling 41,256,000,000 yen (£2,500,000,000). As much as possible of this new loan was forced on the Japanese agricultural and industrial workers, a third of whose always inadequate incomes was already being taken in direct taxation to finance the war. But since the average worker's income amounted to only half the minimum computed by Japanese experts as necessary to maintain a small household, there was little chance of large-scale small saving, and the bulk of the loan was, as in previous cases, taken up by the Bank of Japan. The Japanese workers, if they were a farmer or fisherman (as are some 40 per cent of the total population), continued to exist on such scraps of their produce as he could retain after payment of crippling taxes. If he were an industrial worker he lived on the few subsistence goods obtainable in bare shops or, more usually, on the low-grade food provided in communal messes at the factories—where a great part of the industrial population lived, ate, and slept in a rigidly controlled manner.

All this time casualties at the front and the ever-growing demands of the armed forces were creating dangerous labour shortages on

Man-power farms and in factories.

Problems In spite of favourable weather conditions the 1942 harvest fell far more than 5 per cent short of the target set by the Government, largely owing to the fact that (in the words of a Japanese writer) "in all villages there are very few men of 21 to 30 years of age. Most of the farm work is done by women."

It was not only among the people that the change in the character of the war which followed Japan's attainment of her initial objectives had a disheartening effect. Although the Government could not have been unprepared for the weary period of attempted consolidation which followed the first spectacular phase, the transition gave the opportunity for latent differences to make themselves felt. The process culminated on September 1 in the resignation of the Foreign Minister, Shigenori Togo, last of Japan's sententious "liberals" to hold a key post in the militarist Cabinet. On the same day was announced the formation of a "Greater East Asia Ministry" to control the exploitation of Japan's conquests from Manchuria to Java, a step which deprived the Foreign Office of most of its already reduced authority.

The quarrel was of long standing, the Foreign Office having in 1937 and 1938 opposed the establishment of similar bureaux for the exploitation of occupied China. Each time the protest had been unavailing against militarist pressure; on one occasion the Minister had resigned and on another the Foreign Office staff.

Now Tojo took over the Foreign Office until 17 days later, he was able to find a suitably compliant underling. This was Masaoka Tani, a former

secret agent of the militarists, who in that capacity is largely credited with the underground preparations for the invasion by Japan of French Indo-China. It is the interim before his appointment the new Ministry had been well set on its course and the Foreign Office effectively shore of jurisdiction-over relations with any of Japan's subjegated neighbours. The Greater East Asia Ministry was in fact a Colonial Office, and its establishment signified public acknowledgement by the
Japanese that economic exploitation and direct control were to take the place of diplomatic relations throughout the nominally independent territories of "Manchukuo," puppet China, Indo-China and Siam, as well as in the other conquered countries to which independence had been fraudulently promised. At the same time the affairs of Japan's two earliest conquests, Korea and Formosa, were taken over by the Home Office.

The problem of consolidation which the new Ministry was to control was evidently becoming a matter of urgency as the Allies began to hit back at the outer defenses of the sphere of exploitation. The Japanese summer offensive against the East China airfields from which Japan could be bombed had been largely a failure, and the Chinese had regained control of much of the critical area; the American reoccupation of Guadalcanal was proceeding, and in New Guinea the Allied counter-offensive was slowly pushing the Japanese back across the Owen Stanley range. On September 27 Tojo admitted that "British and American plans for a counter-offensive are beginning to take a more definite form. The real developments of the war will be seen in the future."

More encouraging to Japan for the moment were the situation in Africa, where Rommel still threatened Cairo from El Alamein, and in Russia, where by the end of September the Germans were fighting within Stalingrad. Reports became current that the fall of this city would be the signal for a Japanese attack on Siberia. These stories were given color by the announcement on October 19 of new restrictions imposed along the Russo-Manchurian frontier "in the interests of national defence." Nevertheless, warnings of difficulties to come and to be overcome multiplied in the closing months of the year. On October 1 the President of Tokyo University was put up to tell the people in a radio speech that the war could not be disposed of as quickly and easily as Japan had at first thought.

"It is most urgent for us to change our ideas entirely," he declared, "and not be at ease as we have been in the past." A possible clue to the need for this sort of warning was given by an article in the November number of a Japanese magazine (the Central Review), which admitted that "although there was a rapid increase in production in the first three months of 1943, the effort slackened as a result of victory on the Southern front." Another indication of growing internal trouble, which may have been brought about by the Government's failure realistically to convey to the workers the need for their continued sacrifices, was a wave of petty crime. In a fortnight in September Tokyo police rounded up more than 30,000 "bad element youths."

Perhaps with this in mind the report of Japanese casualties issued on December 7, anniversary of Japan's attack, was more revealing than previous ones had been. More than 60,000 Army casualties were admitted (excluding those suffered in China), as well as the loss of 40 warships (including a battleship and two aircraft carriers), 63 merchant ships, and 950 aircraft. These figures by no means represented the true facts, but they came nearer to them and to telling the Japanese people something of the hard truth that had ever before been the case. As a slight offset a naval spokesman the same day claimed that new battleships and aircraft carriers "of unique construction" had been commissioned since the outbreak of war and were taking an active part in operations.

So Japan entered 1943 in a more sober frame of mind. A year earlier Tojo's New Year message had been:

"The final blows given to the British and American navies in the Pacific, as well as the capture of strategic enemy bases, are the signal for sweeping out British and American influence from East Asia. Japan and China are now fully cooperating in the establishment of a new order in East Asia."

At the year's end the tone was different. On December 27 Tojo said:

"Never of the utmost strategic importance are lasting everywhere, giving the impression that the war is in an uncertain stage. . . . British and United States air forces are attempting almost daily raids on occupied Burma. . . . In the Solomon Islands Japanese troops are fighting the enemy under the most adverse conditions. The enemy in this sector possesses excellent air forces, and it is consequently difficult to land supplies of food and ammunition. In China, the Japanese expeditionary forces are almost at once about 5,000,000 men of the Chungking forces and about 600,000 Communist troops, striving for Chinese and Japanese unification and order within the occupied areas. . . . In Manchuria, Japanese army forces are guarding our northern defenses in face of an ever-changing international situation. Other units stationed in Japan are engaged day and night without relaxation in providing against air raids."

It was not a happy picture. Indeed, from the Solomons and New Guinea to the Ukraine and North Africa the United Nations were now on the offensive. Owing to the peculiarities of totalitarian propaganda and the inherent necessity of maintaining the doctrine of divine infallibility this could not be directly conveyed. Only by such indirect methods as Tojo's could the people be prepared for the further sacrifices and labours which their Government saw looming ahead in the defensive days of 1943.
LEADERS OF THE NEW CHINA WITH THEIR AMERICAN ALLY

CHUNGKING THE INDOMITABLE

Born in China's wartime capital, the treaty port of Chungking, with the Yangtze river in the middle distance. Much said changes is usual, for the city was frequently burned after the first seven attacks, in May 1937. A new air attack on August 24-25, 1938, wiped out three-fifths of the down-town business quarter. For half the year Chungking is ruled from 2000 by streets, or cleared to exist in fog, so that there is relative freedom from air attack. It was dropped by planes by circling, or missed in sight or fog. Despite this, Chungking has still to suffer severe air attacks. Every house that was able to stand. But it is still...

pp. 7294-727
Photo: Associated Press
BACK TO WORK AFTER THE BOMBERS HAVE PASSED

In shelters formed in the caves beneath Chungking, about half a million people could find refuge during the frequent Japanese air attacks that continued throughout the summer. There was room in the dugouts for motor cars and lorries, and several of the city's newspapers were produced there. (See illus. p. 139.) In this photograph the people are streaming back to their daily round after a raid.

Photo, Reed's Official /istrove Copyright

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Chapter 232

JAPAN’S FAR-FLUNG OPERATIONS IN THE PACIFIC: FIRST SIX MONTHS

Like Chapter 231, this account has been contributed by Peter Hume, whose experience in the Far East (see page 2906) enables him to present a clear and balanced story of Japan’s strategy and the pseudo-mystical background against which fantastic plans of domination were being worked out by her military rulers. It should be read with the previous Chapter, dealing with events inside Japan. (Consult also map between pp. 2928-39)

To most people in the Western world, “Greater East Asia” and the “Co-prosperity Sphere” were meaningless propaganda phrases, but to those in countries under the heel of Japan they were hard and all too attractive realities. To the Japanese themselves they stood for an important step towards the goal of “Hakko Ichin,” the sacred mission of gathering the corners of the earth under one roof—the roof of Japanese Imperial domination (see Chapter 231). It is by these standards that it is necessary to judge the Japanese after the invasion of Manchuria in 1931, and especially after Japan’s attacks on Great Britain and the United States in 1941.

In the words of the notorious Tanaka Memorial, prepared by Baron Ginchi Tanaka, then Japanese Premier, in 1947:

“From the future if we want to control China, we must first crush the United States just as in the past we had to fight in the Russo-Japanese War. But in order to conquer China we must first conquer Manchuria and Mongolia. In order to conquer the world we must first conquer China. If we succeed in conquering China the rest of the Asiatic countries will follow us and surrender to us. Then the world will realize that Eastern Asia is ours and will not dare to violate our rights. This is the task left to us by Emperor Meiji, the success of which is essential to our national existence.”

It was probably the existence of such jingoistic fantasies at the basis of Japanese military policy that made it difficult for many Western observers to take the Japanese seriously, and led to their underestimation of the enemy which had such disastrous results in Malaya and elsewhere in the first months of 1942. Only belatedly was it realized that the Japanese militarists, however fantastic their motives, were nevertheless capable of the most precise strategic planning and the most effective tactical execution of the plans they devised. Undoubtedly they made some mistakes, mistakes whose consequences were leading inevitably to final defeat; but in general their military progress towards the goal of world domination (for which, it must always be remembered, they were prepared to wait a hundred years) had been orderly and logical. First Manchuria was seized, and six years after, the most precise strategic planning and the most effective tactical execution of the plans they devised. Undoubtedly they made some mistakes, mistakes whose consequences were leading inevitably to final defeat; but in general their military progress towards the goal of world domination (for which, it must always be remembered, they were prepared to wait a hundred years) had been orderly and logical. First Manchuria was seized, and six years

2928 (for more details) which on July 7, 1937, opened the Sino-Japanese war, there was a general belief among countries friendly to China (and a few among Japanese strategists) that strategically the aggression was soundly conceived. The first pattern of doubt among Western nations was raised when in the following month the Japanese attacked south of the Yellow River, at Shanghai. This first doubt was largely dispelled when the invading armies broke through from Shanghai to Nanking and advanced up the Yangtze to Hankow. It is on record that after the fall of Hankow representatives of “friendly powers” approached the Chinese military authorities with a query as to whether they considered further resistance possible. The fact that Japanese strategists, relying on an undeniable superiority in fire-power, armour and air support, failed to envisage the continued resistance (and indeed reorganization) of China after the loss of her most developed territories and her vital lines of communication, was later paralleled by the errors of the German Wehrmacht in regard to Britain and Russia.

Nevertheless, it was this cardinal error which upset the logical Tanaka programme. Tanaka had said that in order to conquer the world Japan must first conquer China, and, in spite of the reservations he had made with regard to the United States, he had not envisaged a campaign against the Western powers while China remained as a potent fighting force. Instead of the planned progress from conquest to consolidation, and then to further conquest with the aid of the resources of the territory first subjugated, Japan in 1941 found herself faced with a China still fighting and growing ever...
PEARL HARBOR BLOW AS SHOWN FROM ENEMY BOMBER

Nazi病房照片的特写，显示美国海军基地的破坏。照片中的建筑物和船只正在燃烧。

[ accompany with U.S. Official and other photographs in pp. 777-780.

stranger by the aid of Britain and the United States, while at the same time those countries were applying economic sanctions of increasing stringency to Japan's own war effort.

The logical solution for the Japanese strategists, even though it had in it some element of desperation, was a swift attack on those nations which, for moral reasons incomprehensible to Japan's mystical doctrine, were ranging themselves by the side of her present enemy. It was not a sudden decision, and preparations to implement it had been hindered by the fact that such an attack had long been part of Japan's strategic plan. The only revision necessary was a readjustment of the time-table so as to make the expulsion of Britain and the United States from East Asia proceed—and bring about the defeat of China.

Events in Europe favoured the furthering of Japan's strategic aims. In particular, the collapse of France in June 1940 opened the door to Indochina, which provided an ideal base for attack on the Philippines and Borneo, and (through Siam) on Malaya and Burma—as well as the air-sea key to the South China Sea. In fact, Indochina furnished the airfields whence the "Prince of Wales" and "Repulse" were attacked on December 10, 1941, and whence the main air assault on Malaya and Singapore was launched. Other factors of which the Japanese took full advantage were the preoccupations elsewhere of the Russian armies and the British Navy. Freedom from attack in the north and dominance of the China Sea were essential prerequisites of Japan's campaign. Russia's involvement with Germany made it almost a certainty that she would take no action along the Siberian front: Britain, too, was deeply committed and had had to weaken her sea forces in the East. Although it is true, two capital ships were at the last minute sent to the Pacific, where they fell victim to Japanese air attack within a few days. By her surprise attack on the American fleet in Pearl Harbour on December 7, Japan disposed of the last British and American naval superiority.

The Pearl Harbour attack and the campaigns in Malaya, Burma, the Philippines and the Netherlands East Indies are dealt with in earlier Chapters. Their pattern was straightforward and simply executed; and by their successful completion the Japanese achieved—at least temporarily—their prime objectives. These were, quite simply, the isolation of China from her sources of supply and the harnessing of the resources of south-east Asia to the Japanese war machine. A less immediate but still vital objective of the operations initiated at Pearl Harbour was the creation of a defensible zone around the positions won in south-east Asia. The Japanese leaders realized that the situation in Europe gave them a chance of a reasonable period in which to consolidate their gains and to prepare for the defence of their newly-won Empire against the eventual Allied counter-attack. Therefore they carried their campaign in some directions beyond the confines of the economic sphere they sought to exploit.

The first stage in this type of operation was the investment of Guam, the lone American outpost between the Japanese mandated Caroline and Mariana Islands. Guam fell to overwhelming superiority on December 10, 1941; Wake Island, another American Pacific outpost, which lies north of the Marshall group (also
ATTACK ON MARSHALL AND GILBERT ISLANDS

U.S. Naval forces attacked Japanese bases on February 1, 1944: aerodromes, warehouses and shipping were bombed; eight enemy warships were sunk and an aircraft destroyed. Top: Wajir Atoll, with fuel and ammunition dumps on fire; in right background two enemy ships have been bombed and are making for the beach. Below, refueling Grumman "Martins" Fleet Fighters on a carrier during the operations. Photos: Associated Press; Wide World Photos

under Japanese mandate, was captured on Christmas Eve after a heroic defence by a tiny garrison of 400 men. Other minor operations in the first phase of the Japanese offensive—which may be considered to have ended with the occupation of Java on March 9, 1942—involved attacks on British North Borneo and Sarawak, both weakly defended. These attacks preceded those on the Dutch parts of Borneo, but conformed in general to the same pattern (see Chapter 907). Of North Borneo a British official was reputed to have said, when asked about defence plans against a Japanese invasion, "We'd just have to ask them up to tea!" It was, in fact, attacked on December 17, 1941, and not seriously defended. Sarawak was just as helpless, and the enemy landed at Kuching, its capital, on Christmas Day, 1941. Small British and Indian forces fought a delaying action for a week in order to cover the demolition of oil wells at Miri, north of the capital. Then they retired into Dutch Borneo, where, linking up with Dutch garrisons, they played a valiant part for weeks in harassing the Japanese and delaying their penetration into the country. Many later escaped to Java.

Apart from the occupation of Guadacanal and Wake, the second phase of the Japanese offensive—the seizing of a strategic fringe of islands round her main
conquests—opened with the occupation on January 23, 1942, of Rabaul in New Britain and of Kavieng in neighbouring New Ireland. Rabaul, which the Japanese were later to turn into an important forward base, had previously been bombed (on January 4), and, as elsewhere, the small garrison proved insufficiently strong to contest the heavy Japanese attack. Consolidation of the Rabaul landing was considerably hampered by the activities of the few bombers then available to the Royal Australian Air Force in the area. Five raids were made on the port within the first fortnight of Japanese occupation and considerable damage inflicted.

Throughout this period Allied resistance outside the main areas of Malaya, Java, Burma and the Philippines was of necessity mainly confined to scattered raids by small bomber forces against points of Japanese occupation, and especially on Japanese transports and warships throughout the Indies archipelago. These attacks could not be concentrated owing to the weak forces at the disposal of the Allied Command, and could: not have any important immediate effect in checking the Japanese advance. Their chief value lay in the damage they caused to the enemy's shipping resources, whose maintenance at as high a level as possible was vital for the supply of scattered garrisons and the economic exploitation of the conquered territories.

The Japanese also were very active in the air at this time. Aided by the absence of naval opposition, and the Allies' lack of efficient fighters, they were able quickly to bring New Guinea and Northern Australia within range of their aircraft. As in Malaya and Burma, they showed great ability in speedily putting into service captured airfields, while at the same time they were able to make effective use of carrier-borne aircraft. Port Moresby in Papua was raided for the first time on February 4, and attacked regularly thereafter from bases in New Britain (see illus., p. 2105). On February 19 the Australian mainland was attacked for the first time, Darwin having two raids, in one of which a hospital ship in the harbour was hit (see illus., p. 2102).

Meanwhile, on February 1 the Allies had delivered their first counter-offensive blow, an air-sea raid directed by a U.S. task force against bases in the Marshall Islands. This daring assault on the fringes of their zone of naval dominance evidently caught the Japanese by

SPRAWLING TENTACLES OF THE JAPANESE WAR MACHINE

This map conveys an idea of the immense extent of Japanese operations in the Pacific and the Indian Ocean. The area shown in white has a radius from Tokyo of some 2,000 miles. Only by the exploitation of treachery and the advantages of surprise, which it afforded, could Japan have so rapidly overrun such distant areas. The key to her initial success was the yielding up of territory in Indo-China by the Vichy Government. In the period reviewed in this Chapter a beginning was made in stopping off some of the tentacles.
EXPLOITS OF "SPARROW FORCE" ON TIMOR

After the Japanese landed Timor at the end of February, 1942, the defenders formed guerilla bands which came to be called "Sparrow Force" and harassed the enemy for more than a year.

Top: Australian guerrillas and friendly natives dash through a hostile village after firing the boats. Below: three of the guerrillas sniping the Japanese. 600 of the enemy were killed in all for the loss of 17 of Sparrow Force.

Timor, which had been under protected occupation by a mixed Dutch-Australian force since the early days of the war, and secured the use of aerodromes at Dili, the capital. Four days later they secured another airfield within convenient range of Darwin and other north-west Australian ports by a parachute landing at Kapang, on the southern (Dutch) end of Timor.

"Falling back into the hilly interior of the island, the defenders organised a group of guerrilla bands, which became known as Sparrow Force. With a makeshift radio set, their commander, Capt. G. Landlaw, established communication with Australia, and medical supplies, mail and food were flown to them. For over a year after the Japanese landing, the guerrillas continued to spread terror among the enemy by lightning raids on occupied villages and camps.

Just as methodically the Japanese moved forward at the other extremity of their south-western defensive arc, occupying (February 19) Kista, on Bougainville Island, largest of the Solomon Islands, as a diversion, and probably mainly for political reasons, a large submarine appeared off the coast of California on February 23 and shelled oil refineries near Santa Barbara.

On March 8 the threat to Australia was carried a step farther by landings at Las and Salamana, in New Guinea. Our garrisons at these places had been evacuated after the fall of Rabaul, but the landing was made costly by an allied raid on shipping off Salamana three days later. American heavy bombers, reported in action in this area for the first time, took part in this attack, which was on a bigger scale than previous ones. The cost to the Japanese was estimated at $13 transports probably rendered useless. On March 11 a more important attack on Las and Salamana was carried out, this time by naval as well as air forces, both American and Australian. Two of the enemy's heavy cruisers and five transports were destroyed and other vessels damaged for the loss of one Allied aircraft. Two days later another heavy cruiser was sunk in an R.A.A.F. raid on Rabaul.

By the end of March these activities, together with the increasing toll of Japanese aircraft, taken as the Allied air forces concentrated more strength in the north Australia area, were beginning to check Japanese movements. American submarines ranging in Far Eastern waters were becoming increasingly effective in hampering the flow of sea traffic to and from the conquered regions. In New
Guinea, at least, the enemy was comparatively quiescent on land throughout April. In the air also a progressive though slight slackening in the weight and tempo of attacks on Port Moresby and Darwin was apparent. Throughout the month Allied aircraft bombed enemy bases (principalily Lae, Salamaua, Kupang and Rabaul) in increasing strength.

Further east the Japanese were more active during March and April, occupying additional points in the Solomons and at Tulagi which control the northern entry into the Coral Sea. An amusing of a naval establishment was built up on Tulagi (which provided a protected anchorage between the larger islands of Guadalcanal and Malaita), while the Japanese chain of airfields was extended through these island groups. These preparations culminated at the beginning of May in the appearance off the Solomons of a considerable Japanese fleet, including both warships and transports. The intended destination of this armada is not known, though it was presumably either Port Moresby or some point on the north-east coast of Australia. Allied reconnaissance had been well aware of the preparations being made in this area, and the enemy fleet was intercepted. Sufficient force was mustered to inflict a crushing defeat on the enemy in a naval battle (begun off the Solomons and continued in the Coral Sea), in which the opposing fleets attacked each other only with carrierborne aircraft and in which General MacArthur's land-based heavy bombers played an important part (see pp. 3083-85).

This defeat appears to have checked (at least for the period under review) Japanese attempts at extending and reinforcing their south-west Pacific ring of defensive positions. Nevertheless, they continued to maintain powerful air forces along the line Kupang-Lae-Rabaul, and both Port Moresby and Darwin came under repeated attack during May and June. To these raids American and Australian bombers made increasingly heavy reply, though neither side had the resources to stand for a sustained offensive move. The only other Japanese activity was the one off the eastern Australian coast of the same type of midget submarine as had taken part in the Pearl Harbour attack. Four of these craft were sunk in a daring but abortive attack on Sydney Harbour on June 1, in which only one small Australian vessel was hit (see illus., pp. 1069 and 2106). A week later the suburbs of Sydney and the town of Newcastle, 100 miles to the north, were shelled by submarines, of which at least three were sunk by Allied aircraft off the Australian coast in early June. These attacks cannot have been intended as more than diversions, and Mr. Curtin, Australian Prime Minister, summed up the strategic situation in the south-west Pacific after the Coral Sea battle when he said, on June 2, that Japan's programme of constant expansion had at last suffered a setback, and that she had found her most southerly venture...
beyond her capacity to execute according to her plans."

At the same time, the Japanese navy was not idle in the long quiescent theatre of the central and northern Pacific. Here, an initial failure to follow up the occupation of Guam and Wake by the capture of Midway Island had left a serious gap in the defensive ring, as had been shown by the American raids on the Marshall and Gilbert Islands, Marcus Island, and Wake itself. The Japanese accordingly set under way in May what was probably their largest naval enterprise of the war. Twin expeditions were launched: the more important went directly across the central Pacific with the object of occupying Midway, and probably also of seizing Hawaii; the lesser was directed northward from the Kuriles toward the comparatively undefended outer islands of the Aleutians. The first expedition was entirely broken up in the battle of Midway (see pp. 2084-85)—another and larger encounter of the Coral Sea type. Admiral King, Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Fleet, said afterwards that the action might have decided the future course of the war in the Pacific. It certainly discouraged any further Japanese enterprises on a large scale or in the same direction.

The real motive for the operations in the Aleutians is more difficult to discern, although the occupation of Kiska and Attu had a considerable political effect in the United States and Canada, where the threat to the continental mainland was felt in some quarters to be more acute than perhaps it actually was. The occupation of the two islands also served strategically to thrust away from Japan itself the starting point of any United Nations counter-attack using Alaska and the North Pacific. By establishing, however tentatively, air and sea bases some thousand miles eastward from the main base of Paramushiro in the Kuriles the Japanese also greatly extended their range of reconnaissance in this sector, and created, as seems to have been their plan elsewhere, outposts which might come in useful and would not be a serious loss if they proved untenable. Had the Midway action proved successful for Japan the complementary northern campaign might indeed have taken on a greater significance; it would have given her the possibility of air and sea patrols over a wide gap of water through which a hostile striking force could penetrate more readily than it could farther south, through the network of islands which Japan had serially fortified during the previous 10 years of her occupation under a League of Nations mandate.

TORPEDOED JAPANESE DESTROYER GOES DOWN

This photograph was taken through the periscope of an American submarine operating in the Western Pacific. Two torpedoes had just been fired at the large enemy destroyer seen sinking. On the forward gun turret is the symbol of the Rising Sun; in the circle at the right can be distinguished two Japanese in white uniforms. The depression line in center (representing the vertical) and the shorter horizontal line to its left are graduations on the periscope lens, used for sighting.

Photo, "New York Times" Photo

But Midway was lost, and so decisively lost that here a major gap had to be left in the defensive ring. It was a larger, and would, possibly prove, an even more decisive, gap than that left by the Coral Sea defeat. After seven months of war Japan had gained her first offensive objectives—Burma, Malaya, the Philippines and the Netherlands East Indies. But she had failed to complete her strategy by quarantining China and by conquering south-east Asia against the inevitable counter-attack of the United Nations. She had been forced to go to war with the Western Powers without fulfilling the shrewd maxim of Tsubouchi: "To conquer the world we must first conquer China."

She had failed in China itself to hold the air bases from which her industries and industries could be attacked (see Chapter 230). She had failed both in the central and the south-west Pacific to achieve her long-term defensive aim—the protection of areas from which she hoped to draw strength for defeat of her enemies' counter-attack and for her own further advance towards "Hakkō Ichin." Her remaining hope was that the long continuance of the war in Europe would give her time for consolidation and the building up of sufficient resource to complete her defensive zone, before the United Nations' rising tide of production and man-power could be fully employed against her.
**Diary of the War**

**JULY and AUGUST, 1942**

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**July 1.** 1942. Germans reach Adak Island by heavy fighting. General Anichkov in an order to 8th Army calls for the supreme effort. Anglo-Russian agreement for $35,000,000 credit to U.S.S.R.

**July 2.** Germans withdraw westward from El Alamein. British forces occupy Matveev Island in Mersin Harbor Channel.

**July 3.** Russians evacuate Sebastopol.

**July 4.** Germans reach the Don on a broad front; Russians retire to Kuban and Belayagrad. In the Donets, U.S. submarine sinks three Japanese destroyers and sets another on fire.

**July 5.** Heavy fighting in region of Voronezh, on the Don.

**July 6.** Japanese submarine hits German battleship "Tirpitz" with two torpedoes in Lascans Sea.

**July 7.** British and Imperial forces counter-attack from El Alamein. Russians evacuate Kooko; they counter-attack to relieve pressure upon Voronoizh.

**July 8.** Eighth Army captures Tel el Eisa station. Strong German attacks reach outskirts of Voronezh.

**July 9.** Russians evacuate Konevka and Liechtenkirk. German drive S.K. down the Don and E. towards Kharkov.

**July 10.** Russians evacuate Rogachev and Miliutino. Stalingrad threatened by the German drive. Coastal mines in British brought under German control.

**July 11.** Germans win back some ground at Tel el Eisa; their pursuit attack in centre and near Rovenskiy ridge. Free French movements change name to "Fighting French."

**July 12.** R.A.F. bombs Lashpock and Plenevez in daylight.

**July 13.** Russians hold German at Voronezh, but give ground in centre of Don in advance of S.W. from El Alamein and take a ridge.

**July 14.** Russians announce loss of Voroshilovgrad.

**July 15.** Eighth Army advances ten miles in the south at El Alamein. It has left flank on the Qatar Depression; Russians capture bridge-heads at Voronoizh.

**July 16.** Eighth Army attacks at right angles to Egyptian front. Japanese head at Gona (Papua); U.S. submarine sinks three Japanese destroyers at Kiska.

**July 17.** Russian moves in Voronoizh sector; they withdraw in Romany area. Germans reach Tockoumka and Novorochkikau.

**July 18.** Russians hold positions on west bank of Don.

**July 19.** Eighth Army holds all Russian and Makhadil ridge. Germans claim to have stormed Roskov.

**July 20.** Japanese aircraft bomb Townsville, Queensland.

**July 21.** Germans reach Adak Island by heavy fighting. General Anichkov in an order to 8th Army calls for the supreme effort. Anglo-Russian agreement for $35,000,000 credit to U.S.S.R.

**July 22.** Eighth Army attacks at right angles to Egyptian front. Japanese head at Gona (Papua); U.S. submarine sinks three Japanese destroyers at Kiska.

**July 23.** Russians make progress in Voronoizh sector; they withdraw in Romany area. Germans reach Tockoumka and Novorochkikau.

**July 24.** Eighth Army holds all Russian and Makhadil ridge. Germans claim to have stormed Roskov.

**July 25.** Japanese aircraft bomb Townsville, Queensland.

**July 26.** Germans reach Adak Island by heavy fighting. General Anichkov in an order to 8th Army calls for the supreme effort. Anglo-Russian agreement for $35,000,000 credit to U.S.S.R.

**July 27.** British N.A.V. bomb Brest, Adak Island in the north; they begin an offensive.

**July 28.** British N.A.V. bomb Brest, Adak Island in the north; they begin an offensive.

**July 29.** Japanese N.A.V. bomb Brest, Adak Island in the north; they begin an offensive.

**July 30.** Russians drive back in Kalakat and Kalakatovka area. Five Brazilian ships sunk by U.S.S.R.

**July 31.** R.A.F. report evacuation of Malaya.

**August 1.** 1942. Heavy German attack in Don basin.

**August 2.** German claim to have reached Salat and upper Khlan.

**August 3.** Germans advance. Cassino and Kremlikovka. They cross the Kuban river.

**August 4.** Germans capture Kotelnikov and Voroshilovsk.

**August 5.** Queen Elizabeth addresses U.S.S. Washington. Heavy fighting near Arsenik, where German claim is broken through.

**August 6.** British fire Mark IV ships. Japan counter-attack in Sollum, is repelled.

**August 7.**日本人 capture Kotelnikov and Voroshilovsk.

**August 8.** Germans capture Kotelnikov and Voroshilovsk.

**August 9.** Germans claim to have reached Salat and upper Khlan.

**August 10.** Germans advance. Cassino and Kremlikovka. They cross the Kuban river.

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**August 15.** Russian drive back in Kalakat and Kalakatovka area. Five Brazilian ships sunk by U.S.S.R.

**August 16.** R.A.F. report evacuation of Malaya.

**August 17.** All-American bomber force attacks targets at Rome. Held by American Marines on Makin Island (Gilbert Group).


**August 19.** British Special Service Troops and Canadians carry out reconnaissance in force in Dieppe area; operation lasts two hours, over 9,000 killed; 3,586 out of 5,000 engaged. We also lost destroyer "Hercules" and 100 aircraft. Russians evacuate Krasnovodsk.

**August 20.** Loss of H.M.A.S. "Canberra". German-occupied. Russian declaration was upon Germany and Italy.


**August 27.** In Moscow offensive the Russian Baltic. Night R.A.F. raids on Chalid and Gylinda.

**August 28.** Russian offensive N.W. of Lake Ladoga; in Leningrad area they begin an offensive.

**August 29.** Japanese counter-attack in the S.W. Lord Moyr, apptd. Deputy Minister of State in Middle East. Night R.A.F. raids on Chalid and Gylinda.

**August 30.** Russians drive back in Kalakat and Kalakatovka area. Five Brazilian ships sunk by U.S.S.R.

**August 31.** R.A.F. report evacuation of Malaya.
WITH THE AMERICAN ARMY IN BRITAIN

The United States troops brought their own weapons and equipment: top left, artillerymen at practice with a heavy 155-mm. field gun; it fires a 95-lb. shell, and has a range of 25,000 yards. Right, U.S. Military Police on duty in London: note the trench coat carried.

Below, preceded by General Grant tanks, U.S. infantry advance over rough country in Northern Ireland in the course of battle training exercises.
Chapter 233

AMERICA'S STRATEGY IN HER FIRST TWELVE MONTHS OF THE WAR

This Chapter, from the pen of Hanson W. Baldwin, Military Editor of the "New York Times," sets out the underlying strategy of the United States High Command as it was related to the global strategy of the United Nations during the period. The author explains the defensive pattern of the first dismaying months, which before long gave place to a vigorous offensive— not only in the fighting services but in the workshops, shipyards and factories.

The first twelve months of U.S. participation in the war was a period of great victories and considerable defeats, of danger and of crisis. It was a time in which the United States, with its Allies, fought desperately and successfully to avert defeat, a period in which the United States became in truth the "arsenal of democracy," a period in which our strength was molded and mastered and the initiative gradually passed to the United Nations. In a few months more came the turning point of the war, when the Allies passed from defense to offense.

It is difficult to describe American strategy in this period without describing the global strategy of the United Nations, for the two are inseparable. The strategic concepts that underlay the employment of American armed forces were sometimes solely American in origin, particularly in areas such as Alaska and the Aleutians, where U.S. interests were chiefly involved. But even in those areas American strategy was influenced and delimited by the need to interrelate the strategy of the area with that of the wider field. Especially was this true in the early months of the American war effort, for shipping cannibalized and restricted all overseas operations, and had to be allocated in accordance with carefully calculated priorities agreed to by the United Nations.

When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, the United States was engaged in a hurried but belated effort to strengthen the Philippines and Hawaii and was caught unprepared. There was never any hope of holding the Philippines. Indeed, it was quite evident before the end of December 1941 that it was only a question of time before the U.S. forces there would be overwhelmed and the High Command would revert, strategically, to that concept which by force of necessity had guided its Philippine plans for many years. The islands were a delaying position that would inevitably be overrun. But the Pearl Harbour attack—probably successful beyond the wildest hopes of the Japanese—was a heavy blow to the prestige, morale and fighting strength of U.S. sea power; and for a time it was greatly feared that this setback presaged a serious enemy attack upon the mid-Pacific base which was the key to the entire Pacific position.

Had Hawaii fallen in those early days the Aleutians, the Alaskan mainland and probably the west coast of the U.S.A. would have been exposed to attack. America's first strategic reaction, therefore, was convulsive but sound:

ON THE ALLIES' SUPPLY LINE IN THE PACIFIC

The French island of New Caledonia, in the Western Pacific, 1,077 miles east of Sydney, was one of a string of Pacific bases manned and strengthened by the Allies during 1942. American soldiers, sent here to reinforce the fighting French garrison, are快樂ing from their landing barges on to a quayside. Note the tricolour at the flagstaff behind.

Photo: Keystone
troops and planes were rushed as quickly as possible to Hawaii and the west coast; some were started towards the Philippines, but so rapid was the Japanese march of conquest to the Malay barrier that, though efforts were made, all hope of supplying and reinforcing the Philippines had swiftly to be abandoned. In the meantime, as immediate emergency was met, a more deliberate strategy was formulated at Washington in that first important meeting between President Roosevelt and Mr. Winston Churchill at the end of December. Despite immediate preoccupation with the Pacific, American military leaders agreed, as it was obvious they would do, that Germany was the main enemy and that their main effort should be developed first against the Reich, while holding Japan in the Pacific. This basic concept was strengthened and reinforced by later events and remained the cardinal point—with modifications permitted by the improved situation—in the global strategy of the United Nations.

Out of this concept grew numerous other corollaries. Russia was the principal battlefront against Germany; she was also a Pacific power, and half a million Japanese troops were neutralized against her Siberian frontiers. She was a strategic common denominator of the greatest importance, and obviously must be strengthened. In due course Russia received Lend-Lease priority, and there began that swiftly-increasing flow of weapons and materials of war. Even prior to America’s entrance into the war the American Administration had laid down another cardinal point: the integrity of the British Isles against conquest was to be ensured at almost all costs.

These were and continued to be, with minor modifications, the fundamental policies and strategic concepts—basic factors which governed the transportation and distribution of American troops, ships and planes and the allocation of the U.S. military effort. Until the Battle of the Solomons in the Pacific and the victory won by the British Eighth Army at El Alamein, American strategy in both the Atlantic and the Pacific had been largely defensive. In addition to manufacturing and transporting large quantities of equipment and supplies to Russia, Britain, China and other United Nations, the immediate task was to provide for the security beyond any doubt of American bases and supply lines, and to procure and develop an as quickly as possible other bases from which offensive action against the enemy might some day be launched.

In the Atlantic this effort was immediately complicated by the extension of the German submarine war to the American coast. At the outset shipping losses were extremely serious—partly because of the dispersion of the U.S. fleet in several oceans, partly because many of the most useful anti-submarine craft had been transferred to the British flag, and also because of an inadequate estimate of the potentialities of U-boat warfare. But anti-submarine services on the east coast were ultimately built up to an organization that soon numbered tens of thousands of men.
HIGHWAY OF VAST ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Built as a military road along which supplies for United States forces in Alaska could be sent, the Alaska Highway opened up regions of great potentialities. It was completed on October 9, 1942.

1. The Canadian terminal, at Edmonton (Alberta), 1,071 miles from the Alaska end at Fairbanks (see map).
2. Laying a summer track across a dry, sandy river bed.
3. Making an embankment across a valley.
5. An American jeep in the Alaskan section.

Photos, Canadian Official; Associated Press; Sports & General

Paul Popper. Maps by courtesy of "Compressed Air Magazine"
hundreds of planes, hundreds of ships and thousands of small craft.

In the Pacific, the problem of providing secure bases and supply lines was complicated by the fall of Singapore. After the Philippines had been cut off, America's immediate efforts were directed towards holding the Malay barrier.

The conquest of Singapore, however, forced her back upon Australia in the south, upon the line Hawaii-Midway in the central Pacific, and upon Alaska-Alutians in the North. The immediate task then was to provide supply lines to all these places and to strengthen or create bases. The task was pushed through with vigour in the first six months of 1942, just as the anti-submarine war was speeded up in the Atlantic. Hawaii was built up into a strong base and the outlying islands well garrisoned; Alaska and the Alutians were hastily manned with troops and a supply road started across Canada. A string of island bases curving southward from Hawaii to Australia was developed and manned—Palmaya Is., Johnston Is., Canton (Phoenix Islands), Fumalotu (Ellice Islands), the Fiji and New Caledonia. In many places the garrisons were quite large, considering the size of the islands. Further, New Zealand and Australia were reinforced by American troops and aircraft.

The main characteristic of the first months of war was "sweat and toil." The task of providing secure ocean supply lines was paralleled by the task of setting up air supply lines. Army and Navy planes began to span the Pacific and the Atlantic as if they were lakes. Small groups of Americans, many of them "green" from a farm in Iowa or with the provincial savoir-faire of a New York street-corner, found themselves dumped on some tiny atoll or set down in the midst of a South American or African jungle. This phase of United States strategy began to be replaced by a more dynamic policy, which it had made possible, some time after May 1942.

HITTING BACK AT JAPAN IN THE ALEUTIANS

Early in October 1942 the United States Government stated that islands of the Aleutian group of the Aleutians had been occupied by American forces, and airfields established from which the enemy on Kiska island could be attacked. Top, an American soldier mans a .50-calibre machine-gun on a beach in the Aleutian islands. Below,زا using a Japanese Zero fighter shot down by a U.S. Navy patrol plane.

Photoc. Associated Press
BOMBS OF DUTCH HARBOUR

Dutch Harbour, in the Aleutian Islands, was attacked by Japanese aircraft on June 3-4, 1942, when warehouses were set on fire but no serious damage was done, despite extravagant enemy claims. Top, enemy bombs bursting in the water; the U.S. ship in background fought off raiders with machine-gun fire. Centre, right, blazing sheds in the dock area. Below, U.S. soldiers and marines fight the fire.

Photos: Associated Press / Keystone

Along the Atlantic coast the convoy system was initiated, and submarine sinkings started to drop off immediately.

In the Pacific the naval-air battle of the Coral Sea turned the Japanese back in their drive towards the Solomons and Australia, and the subsequent Battle of Midway defeated what was undoubtedly a major effort to capture Midway and Hawaii. These defensive victories were not accomplished without heavy cost: naval losses in the Pacific were higher than any in American history. Hundreds of merchant ships were sunk, and an alert enemy encircled himself in Attu and Kiska, the outermost of the Aleutian Islands, both at that time unoccupied. The headlines of these months emphasized the spectacular: The Doolittle Raid on Tokyo; The Gilberts Raid; American Submarine Activities in the Pacific; Arrival of American Troops in Britain; Battles of Midway and the Coral Sea; The Philippines. But the real successes were unimportant victories of manpower, of muscle, of energy—of factory and machine. They were victories in the first and fundamental basis of all American strategy: to hold at any cost bases and areas that were absolutely essential; to relinquish if
necessary others not so essential; to strengthen vital bases beyond danger; to provide secure sea and air supply lines in all global fronts; and to build up, organize, train, equip and prepare American fighting forces while also helping to equip those of the Allies; to harass the enemy and drain his strength as much as possible in a war of attrition, while the U.S.A. gained strength with time. These aims were accomplished, and gradually in the summer and autumn of 1942 the initiative began to swing to the United Nations.

The new phase started with the landing at Guadalcanal in the southern Solomons (August 1942). The opera-

Stiffening the Defences in Hawaii

For some months in the early part of 1942 Hawaii seemed likely to be faced with a Japanese invasion, since the mid-Pacific base was the key to the entire Pacific position. Troops and aircraft were hurried to the islands, and extensive underground installations were built. Here is the entrance to an advanced first-air dug-out.

picture was really defensive-offensive—intended to provide a diversion for Russia, then worried about the possibility of a Japanese attack upon Siberia, and to prevent gradual Japanese encroachment toward America's ocean supply lines to Australia. The Solomons operations evolved, somewhat unexpectedly, into a long-drawn-out campaign of attrition, which America almost lost but which finally showed a handsome profit. At the same time the Australians and General Douglas MacArthur's forces in New Guinea undertook a limited offensive, which resulted in wiping out the Japanese bases at Buna and Gona and providing greater security for the important Allied base at Port Moresby. Simultaneously the "sweat and toil" of the first few months was beginning to show tangible

ens in other operations, outside the Eighth Army's victory, either nation had hitherto attempted.

Subsequent events clearly revealed American strategic concepts. In the Pacific, U.S. forces continued to wage a war of attrition and harassment against Japan. In Asia, the Allied air forces were reinforced so as to aid the Chinese and to weaken the enemy's strength in the air. None of these efforts were major ones, but all were essential to the preparation for the day of major operations. One such big operation was the Anglo-American campaign in North Africa. There were indications that the Mediterranean operations might soon be rivalled in importance by air operations by American bombers based in Britain, for the strength of the United States Eighth Army Air Force was being

built up very rapidly so as to cooperate with the R.A.F. in a major aerial onslaught upon Germany.

Here, then, was the global pattern of American strategy. The U.S.A. adhered to its original concepts and kept clearly in mind the basic priorities—the vital importance of supplying Britain and Russia, China and other Allies. Further, with the aid and cooperation of the other United Nations, it created supply lines and built bases that were secure. At the end of 1942 the American view of future strategy could be summed up briefly as follows.

With Hitler then besieged in his own "Fortress Europa," the U.S. forces were extending the wearing-down effects of the naval blockade to the interior of that fortress by heavy and consistent bombing. Further ahead still, Americans were preparing for the first real attempt to break the ramparts of the German fortified system in Europe, envisaged for some time in 1943.

Plainly, the contemporary and future efforts were offensive, and the days of a hampered defensive war were past. The American concept was never otherwise to the switch after Pearl Harbour, and only stern necessity had imposed the preliminary defensive phase. The U.S.A. intended to hit the enemy wherever he might be found, and to strike him hard. There was a growing faith in air power, but few American leaders believed that they could count upon bombing Germany or Japan into submission, and the strategic plans were predicated upon the assumption that big land operations would have to follow.

The air forces would bomb first to soften up and prepare; then, in both continents the armies would assault and attack in order to occupy and conquer.

In the Pacific war zone important victories had been won in the north and south, but it was likely that the central area—Hawaii, Midway, Wake Island and the Marshall Islands—might come under the strategic spotlight in view of the increasing importance of Burma and China in war plans. Americans believed in attack, but they realized that attack had been made possible only by holding on to much that they had when war broke out in December 1941—by helping the United Nations to defend what was theirs originally, and by a reasoned defensive strategy backed up by the sweat and toil of fortifying our supply lines. Though the purely defensive phase had been outrun, the strategy still remained one of supply, and such it would continue until the final overthrow of the Axis in Europe and the Orient.
AIR PATROL OVER MIDWAY ISLAND

Though raided a number of times up to June 3, 1942, and then attacked by a strong enemy naval force which was routed with heavy losses (see p. 292), the American Pacific base at Midway Island held fast, an outpost 1,200 miles from Tokyo. By its stand it prevented the invasion of Hawaii. In this photograph U.S. Douglas Dauntless dive-bombers are guarding Midway.

Photo, Kujakura
INTERNATIONAL HIGHWAY FROM CANADA TO ALASKA

One-fifth of the Alaska-Canada Highway lies in Alaska (see map and illus. in p. 2315). When eventually it is finished all as a public road it will achieve a 36-foot truck limit for fast inner traffic. Teams working from each end meet after closing the final gap in Yukon Territory on October 25, 1942. Top, U.S. troops on a section with Rocky Mountains in background below; the steep gradient here was reduced by a "saw." At the bottom.

Photos: Canadian Official / Associated Press
AIDING HITLER IN RUSSIA

The assistance of Hungary and Rumania was essential to Germany in the Russian campaign, and both satellites now began to suffer heavy losses. Though Rumania complained with reason that her troops were sacrificed in preference to those of Hungary. Right, Marshal Antonescu (Rumanian Premier, who in September 1940 was styled 'Commander-in-Chief') is visited and inspect a Romanian position in the Crimea battle zone. Top, the General commanding a Hungarian corps in the southern sector of the eastern front discusses the plan of campaign.
FINNISH TROOPS EMBARK FOR THE ATTACK ON SORTAVALA

At the end of August 1941 the Finns recaptured Sortavala, on Lake Ladoga, from the Russians. By the close of the month Yyput had been recaptured, and soon the whole of the territory ceded to Russia under compulsion in March 1940 had been recovered. But Mannerheim did not halt in the “holy war” which he had proclaimed on June 28, and his troops pushed on into Russian provinces.

Photo, Ryeel & General
Chapter 234

HOME FRONT IN ITALY, JULY 1941 TO DECEMBER 1942

Eighteen months are covered in this review of domestic affairs inside Italy—since, hard year-and-a-half during which the Italian people had their hopes of victory raised, only to see them disappointed by the successes of the United Nations. At the end of the period Italy herself was threatened with invasion and already feeling the heavy blows of Allied bombers.

It is the 18 months that elapsed after the first anniversary of her entry into the war Italy passed through many vicissitudes. When on June 10, 1941, Mussolini addressed the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations he could claim the recent victory over Greece, which “remains in the Italian sphere of influence in the Mediterranean.” He felt it in his blood that the Axis would win the war, he said in conclusion. Of his lost Empire in Africa he spoke little, though he “affirmed most categorically that we shall return to those territories.” Thereafter, for 18 months, Mussolini remained silent, and only on December 2, 1942, did the Duce again make a public speech.

In the interim the Italians had seen Rommel’s withdrawal westward to El Agheila in January 1941, his swift retreat that month to drive the Eighth Army back to Gazala, and his further advance at the end of May which gained him Tobruk and took the German-Italian forces into Egypt and up to El Alamein. They could hardly be blamed for thinking that the cities of Egypt were now within reach and had only to be grasped. Mussolini, with an imposing entourage, flew to Egypt ready for the triumphal entry into Alexandria and Cairo; medals had been struck to commemorate this event, and the stage was set for a Roman triumph. Egypt was told that the Axis Powers “solemnly confirmed their intention to respect and assure” her independence and sovereignty (July 4). But Rommel’s armies got no farther, and on October 23 had come the Eighth Army’s massacre. Rommel retreated westward again, and a month later was back beyond Sirte.

Coinciding with the great drive westward there had been the Allied landings in North Africa on November 8, 1942, with all that they portended. More than this, the war had been taken to Italy itself by the big R.A.F. raids on Genoa, Milan and Turin, whence many thousands had been evacuated by the end of November. It was against this background that Mussolini again faced the Chamber on December 2.

Increasing hardship, the succession of disappointments over the military situation (not forgetting the naval setbacks Italy had sustained), had produced an inevitable reaction from the theatrical pomp and ostentation of the Fascist regime. Another causer was the graft and corruption of Fascist officials, all the more prevalent when control from the centre had to be relaxed in wartime.

Italians who thought of the future must have been disconcerted by the continual Budget deficit. For the financial year 1941-42 Italy’s expenditure was estimated to reach 96,000,000,000 lire, but revenue was only 31,000,000,000. Six years of war (including the Abyssinian and Spanish ventures) had cost Italy 82,000,000,000 lire (£1,120,000,000 at par. 1939).

WHEATFIELD IN THE CENTRE OF MILAN

Italy’s normal wheat crop was four times as big as that of Britain in peacetime, but the 1942 yield fell short of Italian needs by one-sixth, and had to be supplemented by maize flour and potatoes. Even open spaces in busy cities were ploughed up and sewn to corn, as seen here in Milan. The bread ration for manual workers was 9 oz. per day per person.
PINCHBECK CAESAR'S DREAM OF CONQUEST

Mussolini flew to the battle zone in North Africa to inspect Italian troops a few weeks before the Eighth Army, on October 23, 1942, opened its great offensive which drove back the Axis Armies and culminated some months later in their expulsion from Africa. At the left he strikes an attitude with some of his troops. The medal shown below, right, was struck to commemorate Mussolini's triumphant entry into Cairo as conqueror; it bears the date October 23, 1942, but by that time the Axis armies were in retreat westward, and a few days later Rommel, after seizing his ally's transport vehicles, had left thousands of Italians in the trench at El Alamein. At the top arms are being rounded up as prisoners by New Zealanders. The inscription on the medal reads: 'Greatest Boldness and Courage.' Above this medal is one issued to commemorate the 'Italian-German campaign in Africa.' It shows the desert arch of Sire, familiarly known to the Eighth as the 'Marble Arch.'

Photos, British Official Crown
Copyright: Reuters; 'Daily Mail'
Inflation was well on the way. Profits on share transactions were heavily taxed to stop people investing their money in industrial shares, as many had done. In March 1942 Mussolini addressed the representatives of People's Banks and admitted the danger of inflation and the fall in the purchasing power of the lira. Goods disappeared from the market when their prices were controlled; people were putting their money into real estate, so that they might have something tangible for it. By a new decree all war profiteers—instead of only 60 per cent of them as hitherto—were ordered to be invested in State loans registered in their holders' names.

Bread was rationed at 200 grammes per person per day in October 1941; manual workers got 300 and heavy workers 400 grammes (about 12 oz.).

Fallen Corn

Wheat crop of 717 million quintals fell

Crops

for short of normal consumption (35 million quintals). Maize flour and potatoes had been used to eke it out, but now both these were in short supply. In the following March the basic bread ration was cut from 200 to 150 grammes. Other foodstuffs, including beans, potatoes, milk, cheese and eggs, were brought under the rationing scheme.

In October 1941, hotel meals were drastically restricted, and in the following February meat meals, hitherto allowed on Saturdays and Sundays, were permitted to be served only on Saturdays at midday. A ban had been placed on petrol-driven motor-cars in the autumn, when it was ordered that winter heating should be postponed until December. Gas for domestic consumption was cut down from the end of September. A few weeks later restaurants and places of amusement were ordered to close by 10 p.m. to save fuel. The rationing of clothing began on November 1.

Discontent was not confined to the lower ranks of society. Farinacci, former Secretary-General, wrote in the Regime Fascista on September 22, 1941, that the Fascist party had become an enormously top-heavy organization with rigid bureaucracy. Another newspaper—Popolo d'Italia—spoke of the party containing in its ranks an enormous mass trying to retard its progress, including Democrats, Socialists, Freemasons and Liberals. A purge of party officials followed soon after. At the end of 1941 Aklo Vidussini became Secretary-General in place of Adelchi Sena, who had held the appointment since November 1940.

Steadily German infiltration increased and Nazi control was extended. On July 8, 1941, the new frontiers of partitioned Yugoslavia were settled by a German-Italian agreement (see map, p. 3776). At the end of August Mussolini visited Hitler on the Eastern front. High political and military leaders on both sides were present; in place of Ciano, absent through sickness, Anfuso (Chief of Cabinet) went to the conference. Japan's entry into the war in December 1941 was followed on December 11 by Italy, jointly with Germany, declaring war upon the United States. Hitler announced an agreement with Italy and Japan by which the three Axis countries would make common war upon the United States and Britain (see text, p. 3338).

In the middle of the following January

WHEN HITLER SHOWED OFF HIS PROWESS

At the end of August 1941, at a time when the German invasion of Russia had secured spectacular results, Mussolini visited Hitler on the Eastern Front and was shown over the battle lines. Hitler (third from right) walks in front with Field-Marshal von Kleist; then, an appropriate number of paces in the rear, Mussolini (nearest camera) sits along with Field-Marshal Keitel.

Photo, Associated Press
Berlin stated that a military convention between the three Axis countries had been signed. This evidently involved a tighter hold by Germany upon Italian industry, labour and fighting services.

From January 27 until February 4, 1942, Goering was in Italy, where he inspected the Luftwaffe's air bases in Sicily and had talks with Mussolini, King Victor Emmanuel and Crown Prince Umberto. Goering, over and above his military duties, was the head of an immense industrial organization working for the Axis production machine. It is likely that a demand was made for more Italian labour for the Reich.

Germany's hunt for raw materials in the countries she controlled—together with her search for more labour—was reflected in an economic agreement signed on March 13 by Count Ciano and Von Mackensen (German Ambassador) at Rome. The reciprocal arrangement was working badly; German supplies to Italy during 1941 had been greater in amount by 10 to 15 per cent than corresponding deliveries in the reverse direction. Some 200,000 Italian workers had gone to Germany, but the number must be considerably increased. When compulsory civilian labour service had been introduced at the end of February, Goya's Press organs had stated that Italy must supply new men and new materials for the gigantic German economy. It was emphasized that the Italian civilian labour force would have to work in close cooperation with Germany.

Hitler summoned Mussolini to a meeting at Salzburg, where discussions were held on April 27-28, 1942. Hitler made big demands for more military and economic aid from his ally. Behind the customary mask of cheery peace Ribbentrop (right) can hardly conceal his self-satisfaction; Mussolini (left) and Ciano, who read the document over his leader's shoulder, are only too plainly disgruntled and dismayed.

Hitler, Mussolini, Ribbentrop, and Ciano, held a conference at Salzburg on April 29. Soon after, the Japanese military attaché in Berlin went to Rome to see Mussolini. Italians had seen enough of the revelations in Hitler's speech to the Reichstag on April 28, as well as to the German armies in Russia during the winter. When Mussolini returned to Rome, King Victor Emmanuel received him and Ciano, and later held a Council from which these two were absent. The King also conferred with several notables outside the Fascist Party, in the afternoon of Monday, April 30, 1942, when he had promised the surrender of the German armies in Russia during the winter. When Mussolini returned to Rome, King Victor Emmanuel received him and Ciano, and later held a Council from which these two were absent. The King also conferred with several notables outside the Fascist Party, at least lukewarm in their adherence to it. Another sequel to the Salzburg meeting was the arrival in Italy of a big batch of German police. Italy's blackshirt militia was being turned into a sort of internal police, under Gestapo guidance, to crush any possible resistance to the Fascist regime.

A strange twist of Italian propaganda was seen in March, when the campaign was renewed for the invasion of Italy of Nice, Corsica and Tunis. This agitation had been set going at the end of 1938, when there were bogus 'spontaneous demonstrations' by students and others (see illus., p. 974). Then it was dropped. This time again it did not last long, for Hitler was still hopeful of fuller French collaboration and probably gave the order that the Italian
ROME SHIELDS ITS ANCIENT MONUMENTS

Though it was the center of a vital network of railways along which passed a steady stream of military traffic, Rome in the period under review was still free from bombing attacks. Many of its ancient treasures had been taken away or carefully shielded from damage. 1. Statue of Marcus Aurelius ready for removal from the Campidoglio; 2. Scaffolding for a wall around Trajan’s Column; 3. How the Column of Marcus Aurelius, in the Piazza Colonna, was braced up; 4. Air raid shelter at foot of Capitoline hill.

Photos, Associated Press
demands were to be stopped. But on May 26 it was announced that the King and Crown Prince of Italy were reviewing 300,000 Italian troops on the French Alpine border, near Piedmont, an empty piece of bohust.

During the harvest there were peasant risings in Apulia. The munincipal buildings were attacked by men armed with scythes and spades, and police reinforcements had to be rushed to the region to quell the disturbance. In Calabria also the farmers were reluctant to hand over their corn to the Government agents, and less than half the estimated yield was delivered. The presence of Himmler in Rome during October suggested that unrest was considerable, and that measures were being taken in the German fashion to put it down.

When Mussolini opened a party exhibition on the 20th anniversary of the Fascist March on Rome (October 23, 1942) he made no speech, merely declaring that Italy would see the war through. From King Victor marked the occasion by an amnesty to some 42,000 political prisoners. The clue to this act of clemency was perhaps the prevalent unrest. Mr. Cordell Hull on November 20 said that reports constantly reached him indicating the possibility of serious discontent and explosive developments in Italy. A few weeks earlier Mr. Francis Biddle, the United States Attorney-General, had announced that the 600,000 unnaturalized Italians in the U.S.A. would not be treated as enemy aliens. Leaflets giving this news were distributed over Italy by R.A.F. bombers.

The Italian wireless announced on October 26 that an agreement with Germany had been signed providing for mutual aid for persons injured by British air raids, which were by then rising in a climax in preparation for the eastward thrust in Libya and the combined British-American invasion of North Africa. Genoa, Savona, Turin, and Milan had been very heavily bombed from October 22. On October 23 Montgomery had opened his offensive against Rommel, and there began that 12-day battle which broke the Nazi strength in Libya. Retreating, the Germans abandoned their Italian allies in the southern sector, leaving them without transport. So it was that a few days later six Italian divisions were isolated. It was a grim omen for the 20th anniversary of the Fascist March on Rome. One Italian dream had come true, however, for Mussolini's troops were now in Nice and Corsica.
Italian War Posters at Syracuse, Sicily

In time with Hitler's complete occupation of France on November 11 Italian forces had entered Nice, while Germans and Italians had landed in Corinca.

In a broadcast Ansaldo told Italy on November 25 that several million inhabitants might have to be evacuated. The entire civilian population of Milan, except those engaged in essential work, was ordered to leave. Under a heading, "Beguile of War: Enough of Fascism," the Italian Socialists issued a manifesto calling upon the people to unite in "a civil disobedience movement." Then it was, on December 2, that Mussolini broke his silence to reply to Mr. Churchill's speech of November 29. Yet, he said he had the vague impression that the Italian people wanted to hear his voice again.

He gave a "statistical summary" of 30 months of war, but the facts were clear enough for Italians despite his wild and extravagant distortions. "Churchill calls me a hyena," he said. "I rate myself a much greater gentle-

Croatian Puppet

On May 15, 1941, Croatia was proclaimed a kingdom three days later Prime Assumption of Savoy, Duke of Aosta, was proclaimed King of Croatia under the title King Tomislav. Left, the scene in the Quirinal Palace. King Victor Emmanuel is standing in front of the throne. Above, Mussolini designing the document creating the new kingdom. Tumbold never set up his throne in Croatia, and in August 1942 he assumed the role of Duke of Aosta, left vacant by the death of the former Duke in March, 1942, while a prisoner of war in British hands.

Photo: Regentone / Fox
Chapter 235
FINLAND AS AN AXIS SATELLITE

This Chapter deals with the eighteen months that elapsed between Finland's entry into war at the side of Germany in June 1941 and the close of 1942. It tells of the misfortunes and hardships of a misled people in the grip of the Nazi war machine, and of unwavering attempts made to break the bonds which they and their leaders had fastened.

Hitler, in his proclamation of June 22, 1941, said that "united with their Finnish comrades, the soldiers who won the victory at Narvik are manning the shores of the Arctic Ocean. German divisions, commanded by the conqueror of Norway, together with the champions of Finnish liberty, commanded by their Marshal, are protecting Finnish territory." So, after 10 months of peace, Finland was again at war with Russia. The treaty which ended the war of 1939-1940 had been signed on March 13, 1940 (see Chapter 74), and by it Finland had relinquished territory which she hoped never to regain. Mannerheim and his political friends, carried away by optimism, saw in prospect the speedy fall of the Bolshevist regime under Germany's hammer blows. But the Marshal soon found that the Soviet was not going to collapse, and that he had sold his country to the Nazis for no tangible reward.

It was not until June 25 that Parliament ratified the entry into Germany's campaign against Russia. Britain had made it clear that she stood with Russia, and America was going to give hitherto aid to Britain. A Soviet broadcast on the 26th pointed out that it was obviously not against Finland that Russia had needed to take precautions when she opened the campaign of 1939-40, but that the presence in Karelia of an aggressor [Germany] had compelled the Soviet to secure strategic positions. The Finnish people were merely the innocent victims of the German aggressor in 1940, as now.

Sweden gave permission for a German division to cross the country from Norway to Finland—the objective being the Soviet Arctic port of Murmansk. Mannerheim issued an Order of the Day (June 29) calling upon the Finnish army to follow him in "a holy war against our national enemy." Next day Finnish and German troops launched an offensive along the entire front from the Barents Sea to the Gulf of Finland. Broadcasting on July 2, 1941, M. Vuori, President of the Trade Union Council, said that Finland's present war was made not in Finland but in Moscow. Next day M. Tanner, entering the Government as Minister of Trade and Industry, said: "The workers of Finland will lose at all have cause to mourn if the Soviet regime breaks... In this matter our interests run common with those of Germany."

On July 29 the Finnish Foreign Minister asked the British Minister at Helsinki for a severance of diplomatic relations. Three days later M. Gjepsen, Finnish Minister in London, was seen by Mr. Eden and formally notified of the rapture. On July 30 British naval aircraft had bombed the Finnish port of Petsamo, in the Arctic, and in a protest the Finnish Government had alleged that the British decision to blockade Petsamo had been taken on June 14, before the outbreak of war with Russia.

Under the massive blows of Hitler's great armies all along the front Russia was soon retreating. Mannerheim had sworn to fight on—until Karelia had been liberated—not merely those parts of Karelia ceded to Russia in March 1940, but also Eastern Karelia, which had been in Russian hands since 1930.

The main Finnish advance was on the Karelian Isthmus, and by the end of September the German-Finnish forces had reached the canal connecting Lakes Ladoga and Onega, and were in a position to threaten Leningrad from that quarter, thus affording substantial help to Von Leeb's armies in the south. Vipuri was re-occupied on August 30, and the Isthmus was once more in Finnish hands. But it seemed that when the Finns reached their former boundaries the Russian resistance immediately became stronger.

Other of Mannerheim's troops reached the railway to Murmansk, but only small units were involved and the traffic on this most important artery—as on the Stalin Canal—hardly ceased throughout these months. In the far north the attack on Murmansk itself by troops under Colonel-General Dietl was inconclusive. Russia lost the islands in the Gulf of Finland, and Hangö was evacuated on December 1. By October, when

GERMAN COMMANDERS ON THE MURMANSK FRONT!

At the end of September 1941 a German move under Colonel-General Dietl, attack of the Russian Arctic port of Murmansk. Dietl, who had taken Narvik during the campaign in Norway, had under him Austrian Alpen troops chosen for their experience of winter conditions. Here he is talking to personnel of the Luftwaffe, who were being used as infantry. Dietl made little progress, and Murmansk was not seriously menaced.

Photo: Keystone

3334
Finland’s lost territories had been re-conquered, there was a body of opinion in favour of a halt, and some of the Social Democrat Party urged this course.

**Aliens**

Other Finnish leaders, finished with success, wished to push on and secure still more ground. At this stage both America and Britain tried unsuccessfully to disentangle Finland from the Nazi net. The U.S. State Department in the middle of August had informed the Finnish Minister in Washington that the Soviet Government was willing to talk about peace, and that the U.S.S.R. would even surrender territory.

About a month later Britain (with whom as yet Finland was not at war) gave a blunt warning that if Finland persisted she would become an enemy of Great Britain. Finland replied that what she called her defensive war must continue (October 7). Washington, four days earlier, had asked Finland whether she intended to halt at her former frontiers or to advance farther into Russia. At the beginning of October the matter was brought to a head by a request to Britain from the Soviet for a declaration of war on Finland, Rumania and Hungary. Finland, in a reply to Washington on November 11, and she would only cease hostilities when the danger that threatened her existence had been staved off. On November 25, fifth anniversary of the Anti-Comintern Pact, M. Witting signed this Pact on behalf of Finland at Berlin. Three days later came a British declaration of war (see page 2339).

Though the military party in Finland had got its war, the people generally were tired of it. They were in a dilemma—hostile to and distrustful of Russia, but strongly averse to a state of affairs which had brought them into war with Britain and Norway and had worsened their relations with America. Food had become short, and supplies promised from Germany had not been delivered. The Minister of Supply on January 14, 1942, spoke of transport difficulties in bad weather, and of crop deficiencies, and asked the people to exercise patience. Soon after, farmers were told to give up half their seed corn for milling into flour for bread.

All Finland looked with apprehension to the coming months, when Germany would resume her offensive. It was bound to be costly in lives and would further deplete the supply of labour badly needed for agriculture. Some 40 per cent of land that ought to have been ploughed in the previous autumn had been left for want of men and machinery. There was no possibility of overtaking these arrests. The clothes ration was cut by one-third in April. Food issues were just enough for subsistence.

There was a visit by Hitler on June 4. He came ostensibly to greet Mannerheim on the Marshal’s 75th birthday. Field-Marshall Keitel accompanied him, and there was a six-hour conference. A Finnish defeat would expose the German left flank and could not be tolerated. More pressure must be brought to bear on the Finnish generals, and blandishments and promises offered to Mannerheim, to whom Hitler presented the Grand Cross of the Eagle Order.

Finland’s attitude was puzzling to British and American observers; alongside an expressed desire to be out of the war was a determination not to make peace. In a speech on March 13, 1942 (anniversary of the settlement with Russia in 1940), the Minister of Industry
and Combes had said that Finland could not make peace with Russia, though he hoped her part in the war would soon come to an end. On the other hand, newspapers with Fascist leanings demanded for a closer approach in the Axis, and for the application of Nazi doctrines. But the Social-Democrat press continued with some freedom to oppose the continuance of the war now that Finland had won back her former lands.

Just before Hitler's visit to Finland it was said that Mannerheim had been ready to withdraw from the war. President Ryti, so it was alleged, had told Hitler that Finland would be unable to continue the war unless Germany provided adequate supplies of food for the army and people. Consequently, figures were put out in Washington. In fact, during the ensuing months it seemed that Finland wished to be saved from herself—almost in spite of herself. She said she wished to be guaranteed against the peril of Bolshevism domination following an Allied defeat of Germany. Somewhat pathetically she looked to the United States. Mr. Cordell Hull made a statement on reasons which had caused the U.S.A. to declare war on Bulgaria, Hungary and Rumania (June 3) and went on to describe Hitler's visits to Mannerheim as an attempt to compromise Finland still further in the eyes of the anti-Axis world and to induce her to make further contributions to Axis military aims.

Because of Finnish restrictions imposed on American Consular officials the U.S. Government on July 16 requested Finland to close all her consulates in the U.S.A. Later in July

Heininki radio in a transmission beamed to the U.S.A. hinted that if Washington could give more exact information about plans for the protection of small democracies from a Bolshevist-dictated peace the Finns would gain greater confidence. In September the matter was carried a step further: the Finnish Legation in Washington asked that Finland guarantee Security for its citizens in the U.S.A. and be assured that Finland wanted to cease fighting as soon as the threat to her existence had been averted, and guarantees obtained for her lasting security. A month later, speaking in Stockholm, the Finnish Minister for Social Affairs said Finland was not fighting for any European new order; the Finnish people were democratic, and no other regime would suit them.

Finland, with whom payment of the old war debt to the United States had been a matter of honour, announced on December 14, 1942, that she would not meet her obligations for December. The American Minister left Helsinki during the month. The Finnish Premier, Mr. Risto Ryti, made a statement on January 3, 1943, which may well serve to close this account of steadily worsening relations. He said that Finland would not declare war upon the U.S.A., and he hoped that nothing would cause the U.S.A. to declare war on Finland. "Who had already sufficient enemies."

FINLAND AGAIN SUFFERS AERIAL BOMBING

The policy of the leaders in aligning themselves with Germany brought much-tried Finland once more under the ordeal of aerial bombardment. Helsinki was raided by Russian aircraft on July 5, 1941, when 15 persons were killed and many of its houses were set on fire (above). On the 20th, aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm, acting with Russian bombers, attacked the harbour of Petsamo and K. Ivenso.
ON KARELIAN FRONT

Certain sections of the Front had long coveted territory in Russian Karelia (between Lake Ladoga and the White Sea), and the involvement of the Soviet Union with Germany gave an opportunity for a thrust in this direction. Finnish tanks are seen below entering Petrozavodsk, Eastern Karelia, after its capture in October 1944. Centrally, Russian soldiers in winter camouflage are seen in another sector of the front. Top, a German bomber on an improvised airfield—in the foreground are reindeer which in the summer are brought down from northern Finland.

WAR DECLARED UPON AXIS SATELLITES

First we give the text of Britain's ultimatum of November 28, 1941, to the Governments of Finland, Hungary and Rumania. Next there follows the statement of the Finnish Premier to his Diet next day, in which he declared Finland's policy. Although Hungary and Bulgaria had declared war upon the United States on December 13, 1941, it was not until June 3 of the following year that the United States Congress passed the Resolution printed below, officially authorizing those two countries to Rumania.

Then we give (1) Hitler's statement to the Reichstag telling of the declaration of war upon the United States and the agreement with Italy and Japan to make common war on the United States and Britain; and (2) Mussolini's parallel announcement in Rome.

HEN the ultimatum of November 28, 1941, to the Governments of Finland, Hungary and Rumania, November 15, 1941.

In the Note to Finland, His Majesty's Government recalled their warning of September 28th— that Finland would be in a state of war with Great Britain unless she stopped her aggression against the Soviet Union, but that if she stopped Britain would try to improve relations. The Note said—

On September 28, 1941, the Norwegian Government delivered the Finnish Government an ultimatum on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom to the effect that if the Finnish Government persisted in invading and occupying territory in the Union of the Northern Russian Republics, the ally of Great Britain, on the closest collaboration with Germany.

The Finnish Government have long contended that their war against Soviet Russia does not involve participation in the General European war. This contention His Majesty's Government find it impossible to accept.

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom in these circumstances have no choice but to declare the existence of a state of war between the two countries.

The British Notes to Hungary and Rumania, after stating that the two Governments 'had for many months been pursuing aggressive military operations on territory of the U.S.S.R., the ally of Great Britain, in the closest collaboration with Germany, not participating in the General European war and making a substantial contribution to the German war effort,' went on to convey a warning in identical terms to that in the Note to Finland. It was announced on London on November 6, 1941, that since from the 1st to the 7th Britain would consider herself at war with Finland, Hungary and Rumania owing to the refusal of these countries to cease hostilities against the U.S.S.R. The Finnish reply was stated to be null and void, making it clear that the Finnish Government had no intention of complying with Britain's demands.

No reply was received from Hungary or Rumania.

STATEMENT BY THE FINNISH PREMIER, M. RANNIKO, AT A SPECIAL SESSION OF THE DUTY, NOVEMBER 28, 1941.

"Any territories we have occupied beyond the frontier and from which the enemy threatened we must remain in Finnish occupation, and strategic reserve must determine how far and as long this area can stretch." He went on to say that the population of Eastern Karelia formed part of the Finnish people, and the guarantees which Finland always applied fully to the position of the Eastern Karelians.

"It is not from Germany that we have received help when the border countries have "common military interests, friendly, loyal friendship and peaceful coexistence," while Britain was "helping Russia, Finland's enemy, in every possible way and throughout the war." The Government's policy has thus expressed was approved by the leaders of all Finnish parties except the Swedish party, and a vote of confidence was unanimously passed.

JOINT RESOLUTION OF THE UNITED STATES CONGRESS. WASHINGTON, JUNE 25, 1942.

WHEREAS the Government of Bulgaria has formally declared war against the Government and people of the United States of America, therefore be it resolved:

That the state of war between the United States and the Government of Bulgaria, which has been threatened upon the United States, is hereby formally declared; and the President is hereby authorized and directed, to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the same to carry on war against the Government of Bulgaria; and, by bringing it to a successful termination, all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

[Joint Resolution; in identical terms were passed by Congress, declaring war upon Bulgaria and Rumania.]

GERMAN-ITALIAN-JAPANESE MILITARY ALLIANCE. HITLER'S STATEMENT TO THE REICHSTAG, DECEMBER 11, 1941.

Hitler announced that Germany had declared war on the United States, and had concluded an agreement with Italy and Japan by which their common war would make common war on the United States and Britain, as follows:

In their unbreakable, determination not to lay down arms until the common war against the United States of America and Britain has been brought to a successful conclusion, the German Government, the Italian Government, and the Japanese Government have agreed upon the following provisions:

1. Germany, Italy, and Japan jointly and with every means at their disposal shall proceed with the war forced upon them by the United States of America and Britain until victory is achieved.

2. Germany, Italy, and Japan undertake not to conclude armistice or peace with the United States of America or Britain except in complete mutual agreement.

3. After victory has been achieved, Germany, Italy, and Japan will continue in closest cooperation with a view to establishing a new order and order along the lines of the Tripartite Agreement concluded by them on September 27, 1940.

4. The present agreement will come into force with its signature, and will remain valid as long as the Tripartite Pact of September 27, 1940, the high contracting parties will in good time before the expiry of this term of validity enter into consultation with each other as to the future development of their cooperation, as provided under Article III of the present agreement.

MUSSOLINI'S ANNOUNCEMENT OF ITALY'S DECLARATION OF WAR ON THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER 11, 1941.

This is another day of solemn decisions in the history of Italy and Japan, and a day of memorable events destined to open a new era in the history of the world. The present is the "decisive hour." Present Italy and National Socialist Germany, which are more closely united today than their states have ever been, are taking their stand with heroic Japan against the United States of America. The Tripartite Pact now becomes a military alliance, and Italy has brought its billion 500,000,000 men, who are resolved to win...
Chapter 236

HUNGARY, RUMANIA AND BULGARIA
JULY 1941 TO DECEMBER 1942

For an account of earlier events in the Balkan Peninsula see Chapter 156, where the story of Axis intrigues is told up to the overrunning of Greece and Yugoslavia in April 1941; the campaigns in those two countries are described in Chapters 137-138. In the present pages the history of the three Axis satellites is continued to the end of 1943.

It is convenient to begin this review with the story of events in Hungary, a country which occupied a favoured place among the Axis satellites. As Regent it had Admiral Nicholas Horthy, who, while favouring the Nazi type of administration, had tried to preserve much of Hungary's traditional system nevertheless. On the death of Count Teleki (who shot himself on April 5, 1941), when faced with the German demand for the disbanding of the pact with Yugoslavia) Lazlo Bardossy had taken over the premiership. As Foreign Minister he had visited Hitler on March 21 (see illus., p. 1611). The Regent, Admiral Horthy, on April 10 excused the betrayal of Yugoslavia by charges that Yugoslavia had made a series of air attacks on Hungary and had made armed raids.

Hungary severed relations with Russia on June 24, and declared war ("owing to Soviet air raids on Hungarian territory") three days later. Her armed forces crossed into Russian territory and began at once to suffer heavy losses. By the end of August Germany was demanding more divisions for the East, and the Hungarian Chief of Staff resigned as a protest. The Government pleaded the needs of the harvest, but had to give way. Admiral Horthy was summoned to Hitler's headquarters on September 11 and was told that the entire Hungarian army must be mobilized. Added to the call for troops was the German demand for supplies; later Italy joined in with her own requests, and in November the Italian Minister of Commerce was in Budapest negotiating for corn and coal. It was suggested that Italian miners should be sent to Hungarian mines to increase the output.

Britain delivered an ultimatum, by the medium of the American Ambassador, asking Hungary to stop all hostilities by midnight of December 5, 1941, failing which there would be a state of war between Britain and Hungary. Britain's request was refused. Eight days later Hungary declared war upon the United States, who, however, did not declare war on Hungary until June 3, 1942. Hungarian troops had been ruthlessly sacrificed on the Eastern front, being thrust forward into advanced positions to save the Germans; 20,000 were said to be missing.

Hungary had received large slices of Yugoslav territory, including the fertile lands of the Bananya to the W. of the Danube; and also the Rashka, between the Danube and the Tisza (see map, p. 1876). She had benefited by the Vienna Award of August 1940, engineered by Germany and Italy, which gave her two-thirds of Romanian Transylvania—land taken from Hungary by the Treaty of Trianon in 1920 (see map, p. 1388). Still she was not satisfied, and hoped to secure territory in the Romanian and Serbian Banat. Largely in the expectation of such rewards she clung to the Axis system, but her stupidity gave Hitler a lever in exerting greater efforts in the industrial and military spheres. By promises to Rumania on the one hand or Hungary on the other she managed to spur on each to bigger exertions.

Ribbentrop at Budapest in January 1942 was apparently unsuccessful in persuading Bardossy to send more troops to Russia. First Ciano and then Kettel met badgered the Regent: it was said that large formations were asked for the Eastern front and for the policing of Yugoslav. Promised rewards were the "leadership in Central Europe," and a free port for Hungary at Brzezina.

Horthy, who was then 73 years of age, talked of retiring from the post of Regent in February; his son Stephan was appointed deputy Regent. Bardossy's Cabinet resigned in March, and a new Government was formed by Nicholas de Kallay, who took also the portfolio of Foreign Minister. New demands were being made by Hitler for the pending spring offensive. Moreover, 30,000 minority Germans were sent from Hungary to Germany for incorporation into the S.S., while 10,000 more went from Rumania.

There was a provocative speech on the Transylvania question by the Rumanian Foreign Minister on March 19, 1942. In reply Kallay, speaking at Kolossvar in June, declared that North Transylvania would remain Hungarian for ever. Owing to disturbances in
FUNERAL OF ILL-FATED STEPHAN HORTHY

Son of the Regent of Hungary, Admiral Nicholas Horthy, and appointed deputy Regent only a few months earlier, Stephan Horthy was officially stated to have been killed in action on the Eastern front on August 26, 1944. Here is the funeral service outside the Parliament House, Budapest, with the Regent, his wife and the widow of Stephan leading the mourners.

Photo, Associated Press

Rumanian Transylvania (caused by the requisitioning of food by the Rumanian authorities from peasants of Hungarian origin), a mixed German-Rumanian commission investigated the matter; at the end of October the commission went to Bucharest for consultations. There were complaints of Rumanian brutality towards Hungarians, and the dispute grew bitter; owing to its German involvements the Hungarian army could do nothing against Rumania.

Stephan Horthy was killed in action on the Eastern front, so said a German announcement of August 29: Colonels Biblentrop and Kaibel attended the funeral at Dunaujvaros. On September 2 Horthy, received another blow, for his son-in-law, Count Kandoly, was killed in a flying accident. While flying over the Danube with an N.C.O. instructor his aircraft plunged into the river and was not seen again.

Applying increasing pressure by political, military and economic means, Germany gained a greater measure of control as time went on. Anti-Jewish laws were promulgated by the Hungarian Government in line with those in the Reich; in August 1942 Jews were barred from taking part in commerce and industry; early in September there took place the "immediate and complete sequestration" of all property belonging to them. In December all Jews were conscripted for labour service at the front; those of the 1900-18 classes had already been called up. This anti-Jewish legislation was not to the liking of all Hungarians, and was dictated by Germany.

Grain was not coming in at the expected rate, and in September 1942, 60 commissioners had been appointed with wide powers to supervise the collection from peasants and farmers. The 250,000 Hungarian agricultural workers in Germany were recalled at the end of the year.

Cooming with a visit by Von Papen, on his way from Turkey to Berlin, there were Cabinet changes in September and October. General Bartha, Hungarian Minister of Defence, was replaced by Colonel-General Nagy; Stephan Losonczzy, Minister of Supply, was relieved of his post and succeeded by Ludwig Szasz. At the end of October 1943 Kallay visited Rome and saw Mussolini.

Hungarian troops garrisoning Serbia and Croatia were continuously harassed by partisans. After an attempt by Croat guerrillas to wreck the Budapest-Trieste-Rome express early in November the frontier between Hungary and Croatia was closed for some time. Early in January 1943 the Hungarian Government was said to be recalling its troops owing to internal unrest; 1,500 persons had been arrested on charges of sedition in Serbia and Croatia. The Berlin radio announced that the trials of 687 alleged Communists had begun in Budapest and in Transylvania were on the charge of fomenting a revolution. Hungary sent a Note to Germany and Italy protesting against Rumanian-inspired sabotage in Transylvania.

Rumania, as is clear from the above narrative of Hungarian events, was taking every opportunity of showing her resentment against the loss of most of Transylvania. Another grievance was the favouring of Hungary by allowing most of her army to remain near home.
in the occupied territories, while Romanians were sent in much greater numbers to die in Russia. As related in Chapter 155, Rumania had signed the Tripartite Axis Pact in November 1940. In the following January there had taken place the revolt of the Iron Guard and the flight of its leader, Horia Sima, to Germany; Hitler seemed to have kept him in reserve as an alternative to Antonescu, should the latter not prove compliant. Britain had recalled her Minister in February, since it was clear that Rumania was coming to the building up of a German expeditionary force in the country. On April 6, 1941, the invasion of Yugoslavia began (see Chapters 157-158); in 12 days the subjugation of Yugoslavia and Greece was complete.

The Iron Guard again became active in the middle of April, encouraged by the Germans, who threatened to restore them unless Antonescu agreed to complete Nazi control of communications and satisfied other demands. Food was becoming scarce. Rationing for meat, sugar, flour, and bread was introduced in the middle of May. Thirty per cent of the wheat stocks was reserved for the army, and large quantities were requisitioned for dispatch to Germany. When widespread complaints were heard the government appealed to the people to "endure the sacrifices made for our comrades of the future."

Things were now warming up for Germany's attack on Russia. At the beginning of June 1941, the roads from Bucharest to the Soviet frontier were filled with military transport; three fresh German army corps arrived to join others on the Bessarabian frontier. On June 16 Horia Sima and ringleaders of the Iron Guard were sentenced to hard labour for life, by a Rumanian court, but as all were out of the country this was an empty gesture. Six days later Antonescu issued an Order of the Day to the Rumanian Army stating that the hour had arrived to "liberate their brothers from the yoke of Bolshevism." Rumania, he went on, was undertaking a holy war. He promised to wipe out the slur from the history books of the Rumanian people.

Soon Rumanian hospitals were packed with wounded from the Russian front—in the first 15 days Rumanian casualties were 80,000. The food situation was deplorable; the cost of living rose enormously. On the other hand, Bessarabia and Bukovina had been regained, and Dr. Maniu's Peasant Party urged Antonescu now to end hostilities. Maniu's supporters were many, and there were some even among the Rumanian army at the Russian front. Antonescu ordered the arrest of a number of former Peasant Party members, and Ministers General Cincu, Comander of the Rumanian Eastern Army, was said to have been shot for refusing to order his troops across the Danube after Bessarabia had been reoccupied. From a Turkish source it was reported in October that 12 Rumanian generals had been shot for signing a memorandum against further military action against Russia. Official figures for casualties gave 29,000 killed, 76,000 wounded and 15,000 missing—certainly not an over-estimate. By a decree of Oct. 18 Antonescu incorporated...
Odessa and a region beyond the Dniester into Rumania as “Transdniestr.”

A plebiscite was held in November 1941 for or against collaboration with the Axis; only a few votes were cast against Antonescu’s policy. At a previous plebiscite, in March, 2,887,753 had voted for Antonescu and only about 2,000 against him. On December 7 Antonescu had to tell his people of the British declaration of war.

In the new year Germany began maulishing Rumanians for the spring offensive. Three divisions sent to Russia had been almost wiped out and others had suffered very heavily. More classes were called to the colours in January 1942, and it was said that Antonescu had agreed to furnish in all 16 divisions. The chief of the chief of the Rumanian army resigned in the face of these German demands. In Hungary, the agricultural situation became grave, and in March every possible worker was mobilized. Despite these difficulties Germany did not have the time to carry out the tasks of food supplies, and the Ministry of Agriculture resigned because of inability to deliver the full quota of grain to the Nazis. Antonescu ordered the return from Germany of all farm labourers (about 30,000) to help with the spring sowing. Everyone between 12 and 70 years of age was roped in for land work, and tractor ploughing was carried on night and day.

RUMANIAN TROOPS MARCH INTO ODESSA

The Black Sea port of Odessa was evacuated by Soviet forces on October 16, 1941. The news of the attack had been borne by the Romanian 4th Army, with some aid from German units. Rumania’s Deputy Premier made the announcement of this success and claimed the capture of much booty; the Soviet report stated that the evacuation had been made in the course of eight days in perfect order, and demolished the enemy claim as “mere empty boasts.”

Photo, Report on Bremen

Fanned by discontent with the food situation and the heavy losses at the Russian front, Rumanian guerrilla bands and partisans were finding many adherents. A band under Mininescuőerailed a German troop train near Craiova in April, securing much ammunition and equipment; shortly after, a school building near Bucharest used as troop quarters was raided, and still more equipment seized. Rumanian patriot leaders had secret consultations with the Yugoslav leader Mihailovich.

In an attempt to divert attention from the unhappy internal situation Antonescu resumed his bellicose demands for the lost territory in Transylvania. At a military parade in Bucharest on May 10, 1942, he declared that “friends and foes alike must understand that Rumania will never rest until the land of their fathers have been recovered.” About this time there was a joint proclamation of friendship by Rumania, Croasia and Slovakia; the three peoples were to stand together as a barrier against Hungarian encroachments. In June fighting broke out between Rumanian and Hungarian soldiers at Turda, near Cluj, in the disputed territory; the Hungarians had made a surprise attack. Evidently the Axis thought that this matter had now gone far enough, for the German and Italian Ministers in Bucharest asked Antonescu to make a public recognition of the Vienna Award as irrevocable, to undertake to postpone all other territorial claims, and to stop all attacks on Hungary. There was nothing for Antonescu but to comply, and on August 1, 1942, he publicly stated that Rumania would put forward no territorial claims until after the war.

Early in August there was a purge of army officers: 15 generals, 10 divisional generals and four brigadiers were placed on the retired list. There had been many defections, and military policy by Antonescu’s made widespread Dilemma sweeps of the large towns. A pardon was promised to men who returned voluntarily to their units, but few did so. In September Antonescu appealed for a concentrated war effort:

“I ask you,” he said, “to understand how heavy is the burden resting on my shoulders, and not to ask me for that which in wartime cannot be realized.”

Anger was rising because of the slaughter of Rumanians at the Russian front, while, as it was said, Hungary and Bulgaria remained spectators. The Nazis had to bolster up Antonescu by a radio announcement of a decree that he was the only law-creating authority in Rumania. The Rumania of today, said the announcement, had no Constitution, and accordingly the powers of the Court of Appeal as permanent guardian of the Constitution had become meaningless. The 1936 Constitution was but a reflection of the regime that had been overthrown. The present Government therefore had empowered Marshal Antonescu to create general constitutional laws. At the same time the law-creator was above the law.

In the autumn partisan activity flared up again under the leadership of Vilaicu. Contact was made with Mihailovich’s forces in Yugoslavia. Armed bands attacked pro-German officials, destroyed crops and damaged installations useful to the Germans. There was special activity in Transylvania, and here the Rumanian authorities alleged they had discovered a Hungarian terrorist organization which furthered fifth-column activities. A court-martial at Turda sentenced three men to death and inflicted heavy penalties on others. Vilaicu had a secret radio station from which he sent out appeals to Rumanians to prepare for the coming struggle against the Germans.

Renewed persecution of Jews led Dr. Maniu to protest against such measures as forced emigration to occupied Russia and the ban on Jews living in villages. Maniu again urged Antonescu to recall Rumanian troops from Russia, since, he said, the help given to the Germans would only undermine Russian hatred towards Rumania, who would have to pay dearly for it in the future. The
cost had been heavy enough already, for Rumania's losses during the summer had been at the rate of 1,000 per day, and 25,000 casualties had been suffered at Stalingrad alone.

The mendacious policy of King Boris of Bulgaria and his Premier, Bogdan Filof, during the early months of 1941 is described in pages 1610-11. Filof signed the Axis Pact on March 1, four days later Mr. George Rendel, British Minister to Sofia, told him that diplomatic relations with Britain were at an end. Mr. Rendel left for Istanbul on the 10th, while at the Paza Palace Hotel there, a bomb concealed in one of two suit cases surreptitiously added to the baggage of the Legation party in Sofia exploded, killing four persons—one of the British Military Attaché's secretaries. In a statement to the Press at Istanbul after the German invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece, Mr. Rendel summed up Bulgaria's duplicity, pointing out that it was the third time in 30 years that the Bulgarian people, without cause or provocation, had attacked their two neighbors. In a speech repeated numerous by Filof, the latest on March 1, 1941, Bulgaria had recently occupied Yugoslav Macedonia, Greek Western Thrace, Eastern Macedonia, and the districts of Custoza and Florina.

Nearly half a million German troops had been concentrated in Bulgaria, for the invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece (see Chapters 157-158). An excuse was given by Filof on Bulgarian April 9 that Yugoslav Turpitude troops had attacked Bulgarian frontier posts the day before; more such charges were made after Bulgaria broke off relations with Yugoslavia on April 15. Later in the month Filof telegraphed to Hitler his deepest thanks for the "liberation of Thrace and Macedonia" by the German army. But Bulgarians soon began to see the other side of the matter. The war revolutionized the internal economy of the country; in June rationing was extended to textiles and leather goods. Bulgaria demanded that large areas should be diverted from wheat to the growing of soya beans, a policy followed in other Balkan lands under control. Owing to commandeering for German troops food became scarce. New banknotes were issued in large quantities, and the German paid for their purchases with these. Bulgarians had no faith in the new currency or in the German mark notes which circulated; they hoarded food and other commodities. Newspapers which referred to the food situation were suspended.

Bulgarians were bewildered by Germany's invasion of Russia on June 22, 1941. They openly manifested their sympathy with the Soviets by demonstrations against the Government and by a general hostility towards German troops and officials. Strong police measures had to be taken, and thousands were sent to labour camps and concentration camps. Much anger was aroused, too, by Itary's plans for annexing part of Macedonia. On the other hand, the Government was ruthlessly Bulgarianizing the occupied regions of Thrace and Eastern Macedonia. In the British House of Commons Mr. Eden referred fraction of the proper quota vanishes through. Wheat, of which Bulgaria normally exported a large proportion, was becoming scarce through the German commandeering and the hoarding by farmers. (Some 80 per cent of Bulgaria's active population was employed in agriculture.) From October all produce was requisitioned by the Government.

In the political field the Agrarian Party—largest and most influential—began to oppose King Boris, but had lost much of its power through the flight or expulsion of some of its more active leaders and the stern police control throughout the country. Other parties were in a like predicament.

During August Germany tried to induce Boris to agree to the raising of a volunteer detachment to fight on the Eastern front. On Sept. 11, 1941, the Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs handed to the Bulgarian Minister in Moscow a strong Note protesting against Bulgaria's attitude to Russia. Mr. Motovilov spoke of many provocative acts at which, he said, the Bulgarian Government had consented. The Bulgarian reply noted with regret that the Soviet were misinformed over the situation in Bulgaria; otherwise they would have no serious grounds for complaining of Bulgaria's disloyalty. On October 5 the President of the Bulgarian Sovenja said that the Bulgarian people sympathized with Russia but not with Bolshevism.

Premier Stalin on November 6 had made a stirring speech to the Moscow Soviet, and among other things had said: "Hitler says that all the Slav peoples must be destroyed, as well as the Russian, Czech, Polish, Serb and Bulgarian peoples." Large numbers of a leaflet containing the speech were found by Bulgarian police in the hands of peasants a week later, and there were many arrests of so-called Communists at Sofia, Varna and Burgas.

During December there were indications of an approaching threat from Turkey, and reports spoke of a general mobilization planned for February 1942. Filof, in a speech on December 2, and that Bulgaria was "wasting with enthusiasm to do her duty." Eleven days later Bulgaria declared war upon Britain and the United States, "acting in conformity with her obligations under the Tripartite Pact." The British Government on the 27th announced that they had been informed by the U.S. Government of this declaration, and that therefore a state of war existed from the 13th. The U.S.A. did not declare war until June 3, 1942, when parallel
declarations were made also regarding Hungary and Rumania. (See Historic Documents, page 289.) According to a Turkish report Filoff related soon after that by constantly sabotaging the Balkan Entente during the proceeding ten years Bulgaria had effectively assisted Germany and Italy in their Balkan policy.

But however much Filoff and his Cabinet might try to persuade Bulgarians to enter the war against Russia they failed. Sabotage of the German war machine was continued; railway communications in the south of the country were so frequently interrupted that Germany had to maintain there an entire railway division. On March 14, 1942, there was a military coup in Berlin by the "Agence Anatolie," a semi-official statement on German-Bulgarian relations: "Countries cooperating within a vast system must continue to harmonize their friendly relations with their political aspirations based on their alliances; also, as everything depends on the issue of the war against the common foe, the importance and meaning of these alliances will depend on the attainment of that object." The statement referred to the reluctance of Bulgarians to cooperate actively in the war against Russia, and reminded them that they cannot expect to keep their territorial acquisitions nor to receive additional awards unless they make a more effective contribution to the war against Russia.

King Boris visited Germany in the last week of March 1942, and the Premier shortly after stated that Bulgaria was ready for all sacrifices. "We are now in a state of war, with all its risks and dangers. Our fate is indissolubly linked with that of our allies, the prosperity of our country could not exist outside the new European order." The first condition of the establishment of this new order, he said, was "the destruction of Bolshevism." There was a cabinet reshuffle on April 11; Filoff remained as Premier and Foreign Minister; General Mikhailov became Minister of War.

Internal unrest was growing, and in May 1942, members of the forces were tried at Varna for Communist activities at Saburovo, Communists accused of distributing leaflets against the Government were arrested. Early in June General Zaimoff—a leader of the pro-Russian "Military Party"—was sentenced to death for espionage on behalf of Russia. In the same month 18 men stated to be Soviet parachutists, or agents landed by submarine on the Bulgarian coast, were sentenced to death.

When the Bulgarian Government at the end of July established a legation in Madrid (with the former Chargé d'Affaires in Madrid as Minister) it was interpreted in some quarters as a move to secure an outlet to the anti-Axis hold on new territory, coupled with a strange blindness to the risks which the deterioration of Axis prospects might involve.

Under a new law for the protection of the State, executions were now to be carried out in public. The first were those, early in September 1943, of three Communists at Skopje, in occupied southern Yugoslavia. Near the Rumanian frontier at Popovo a railway bridge was blown up.

On September 11 Filoff made another of his speeches: "All the national forces of Bulgaria must take up the fight against Bolshevism and carry it through to victory." But at about this time there were reports from Turkish sources that at a Cabinet meeting, over which King Boris presided, it had been decided that in the event of an Allied invasion of the Balkans Bulgaria should adopt a passive attitude and allow the Allies to enter without resistance. In an official utterance when opening Parliament on October 28, however, the King merely echoed Filoff's confident statements of a few weeks earlier.

The growing might of the Allies in Libya, coupled with the successful landings in North Africa early in November, soon recalled both King and Premier to the realities of the situation. In Sofia a state of emergency was proclaimed to allow a search to be made for "suspicious elements." Five hundred Communists were arrested on December 5, and a few days later there was a widespread round-up of pro-Russian suspects. The death penalty was demanded for "minor spreading subversive ideas in schools"; the severest penalties were imposed on "persons undermining the morale of soldiers and officers, and poisoning the national spirit with rumours." By the end of 1942 the police had been doubled, and supplemented by many of the Gestapo. This, then, was the background against which King Boris and his coadjutors made what preparations they could for the eventual invasion of southern Europe by the British and American forces of liberation.
NEUTRAL EUROPE: SWITZERLAND, SWEDEN, PORTUGAL, SPAIN AND EIRE

Each of the neutral countries had its acute problems during the year 1942, the period traversed in this Chapter, and together they had a considerable influence on the policy of the belligerents. Germany and Italy, as the year went by, were compelled to modify their militant diplomacy and to pay more and more respect to the wishes and opinions of the few nations not involved in the great conflict.

Switzerland occupies a logical first place among the neutral countries of Europe, because this little nation of four million people and three official languages is by tradition neutral. The Swiss are a democratic, peace-loving people with no ambitions for external conquests. They have evolved an efficient system of government and administration, under which French, German, and Italian-speaking sections live in harmony, and they are not swayed by political ideologies. The conquest of Switzerland by a great military power such as Nazi Germany would present formidable difficulties because of the nature of the country and the high standard of Swiss engineering. The principal gateways in the south are the Simplon and St. Gotthard tunnels. These (and other tunnels) the High Command has mined and can close by pressing a button. The only routes between dozens of towns and villages, and even in parts between the cities, are narrow mountain-passes. Fortifications and artificial obstacles have been erected to protect open or vulnerable areas. The few practicable aerodromes have good defences. All this helps to explain the independent attitude of the Swiss, and the fact that, having no desire to be "protected" by any great Power, they are free from international entanglements and in every way in a position to hold fast to their neutrality.

Yet neutral Switzerland does not go and has not gone unmolested in this war. In 1940 there were many violations of her air space. The High Command made it known that it would attack any foreign aircraft over Swiss territory. During the German assault on France the Swiss shot down several German aeroplanes and interned the crews. With the defeat of the French Army thousands of French troops swarmed into Switzerland, surrendered arms and were interned. They returned home by the Armistice. Some 13,000 Poles who were with them remained in Swiss camps. British bombers flying over Switzerland on their way to and from Italy were regularly fired at. Pro-emergency powers were voted, the army was put on a war footing, and the Government announced its intention to safeguard and maintain neutrality by every means in its power. Every fit man from 18 to 65 was trained, armed and equipped, and was a specialist in the defence of his own district. General mobilization began on September 2.

Arms export was forbidden; propaganda for any belligerent was prohibited; economic resources were adapted to war purposes; railways, communications and broadcasting came under government control. Men between 18 and 65 not under arms, and women between 18 and 60 became liable for national service. Petrol and food rationing soon followed. Price control and restrictions to prevent hoarding were introduced. Switzerland began to live in war conditions. Her chief problem in this war was to supplement home-produced food by imports, for which she had to pay by the export of precision instruments and machinery mostly made with imported raw materials. In normal times the system worked well, and during the war it worked well enough, but there was little margin for comfort. The combination of mistrust and aid based on a sound social sense and good administration avoided any real suffering. By the end of 1942 the danger of being involved in the war was believed to have passed.

In her role of "professional neutral" Switzerland was not only engaged in great Red Cross activities for most of the belligerents, but was Protecting Power in Germany and Italy for Britain and the U.S.A., for the U.S.A. in Japan, for Germany, Italy and Japan in the U.S.A. She acted for Germany in the

THE EUROPEAN NEUTRALS IN 1942

Sweden, in the north, like Switzerland, was completely ringed around by the Axis belligerents. Eire was no less dominated by fear of the dreadful consequences that would attend involvements in the great conflict. Spain had assisted the Axis with soldiers and supplies. Portugal maintained a strict neutrality, as did Turkey, and both held fast to their treaties of alliance with Britain.
Netherlands East Indies and for Japan in Hongkong.

Though just as anxious as the Swiss to maintain their neutrality, the Swedes were not in such a strong a natural position. Sweden was fearful of any changes which the U.S.S.R. might wish to make in the Baltic. She had reason to fear aggression by Germany after that country’s treatment of Norway and Denmark. Britain, her best customer, was shut off and she became dependent on Germany for coal and for a market for her own iron ore and manufactured goods. A Nazi victory would mean the end of Swedish economic security and comfort and of the ideal of individual freedom. A United Nations victory would guarantee all these, and that, in final analysis, was the chief reason for Swedish neutrality.

A joint declaration of their deter-

mination to preserve the neutrality of “the north” was issued after a meeting of the Heads of State and Foreign Ministers of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden in October 1939—Sweden having announced her neutrality immediately on the outbreak of war. The first Russo-Finnish war, which began in December 1939, greatly perturbed the Swedes, who did not declare neutrality in that conflict. In his speech from the throne in January 1940 King Gustav said:

"Finland’s having been forced into an armed conflict has distinctly affected the Swedish people. Our willingness to assist a sister nation in her hour of need has been expressed in an uncertain fashion. We have felt and feel our obligation to give the people of Finland all the moral and humanitarian assistance that our country can afford, having regard to her own position and resources."

In spite of strong pressure, the Stockholm Government refused to allow Allied forces passage to fight for the Finns. The Swedish view was that to do so would provide Germany with a casus belli on the grounds of intervention, and consequently would involve the risk of a German invasion of both Sweden and Finland, with a possibility that the U.S.S.R. would be drawn into the Great War on Germany’s side and that all hopes of a settlement of the Russo-Finnish conflict would be lost. With this view the Finns agreed, and they abstained from asking for Allied intervention. Experience of the first Finnish war coloured the Swedish attitude towards Britain and France for some time, but, although the independence of Finland was regarded as a peculiarly Swedish interest, by the end of 1942 there was noticeable a marked cooling of public feeling for Finland and a strong growth of sentiment in favour of the United Nations.

After having overrun Norway, Denmark, Holland, Belgum and France, and when at the peak of her power, Germany demanded of Sweden free transit for personnel and goods between Germany and Norway. While refusing point-blank to grant so wide a demand, Sweden concluded with Germany a limited transit agreement in June 1940. Its terms were as follows:

Each week the number of soldiers traveling shall not exceed five per cent of the same. The German army in Norway cannot be reinforced by this route.

German soldiers must travel unarmed. Swedish control officers must accompany the train.

The number of these trains passing over Swedish railways shall not exceed one per day each way between Oslo and Trelleborg (or Helsingborg), three a week between Narvik and Trelleborg (or Helsingborg); two small trains weekly between Tromsö and Narvik are permitted to pass over Swedish railways part of the way.

Goods traffic: only articles of a general nature such as building materials, foods, clothing, and some raw materials. No special trains are allowed for this purpose.

Despite some very gentle threats, these transit concessions did not prove to be the thin edge of the wedge of German demands. Only once was there a deviation when, under extreme German pressure, a German division was allowed passage to Finland. Public opinion was such that the government would not grant any further concessions.

There were minor incidents of infringement of neutrality as, for example, when a German courier plane which made a forced landing in Sweden was found to be carrying military personnel and to be equipped with machine guns temporarily dismounted. A protest was delivered in Berlin, and stricter regulations were introduced by Germany for
counter-planes. A Swedish merchant-ship was gunned by an armed German merchantman in Swedish waters; German mines were found in Swedish waters. Such incidents drew strong protests.

Like the rest of neutral Europe, Sweden was almost on a war footing and suffered economically in consequence. Food imports were vital, and a temporary ban by the United Nations onotype-condiments threatened a heavy cut in the already severe rationing system. The Swedish official attitude towards Germany stiffened by the end of 1942. The Press became more outspoken, and the feeling of security grew as the armament programme was gradually implemented. The occasion and opportunity for any possible German aggression seemed to have passed, and the nation felt able to congratulate itself in having steered neutrality through some very perilous waters.

SWEDEN CELEBRATES HER NATIONAL DAY

Above, the scene of enthusiasm in the great stadium at Stockholm on June 6, 1946—Day of the Swedish Flag. The standard has just been hoisted in the presence of the aged King Gustaf, who had made his first public appearance after an illness. Inset, standing at the microphone, the King is calling for three cheers for Sweden.

Photo: Keystone

The Iberian peninsula must be considered in a twofold aspect—as a whole and in its two political divisions, Spain and Portugal. First to deal with Portugal: Why was Portugal neutral, in view of the long-standing Anglo-Portuguese Alliance? In 1914-18 she had been an active ally, and if Britain were now to insist upon fulfilment of the Alliance Portugal would either have to comply or break the link. Notwithstanding the strategic importance to the United Nations of Portugal and the Portuguese Colonial Empire, Britain did not call for such action. Portugal maintained the position defined in the official statement of September 2, 1939, as follows:

"Fortunately, the obligations of our Alliance with Great Britain (which we cannot fail to continue as no greater a foundation) do not compel us to abandon our position of neutrality in this emergency."

Had Britain asserted her claims at that difficult and delicate moment it might have driven an unwilling Dr. Salazar into the arms of the Axis Powers. On June 15, 1941, when the Anglo-Soviet Alliance was announced, Dr. Salazar made the cryptic statement that Portuguese neutrality was "continually subject to revision."

The paradoxes and inconsistencies of a position in which an ally remains neutral and does nothing to help in a period of grave danger call for some explanation. Briefly it is this: While Dr. Salazar and his supporters (and the Portuguese people) wished to see the military triumph of Britain's side in the war, he and his regime (but not the Portuguese people) looked for the political triumph of the Axis. For Portugal was ruled by a clerico-Fascist totalitarian regime under Dr. Salazar, who frequently declared his belief that liberalism and democracy were finished and that authoritarian rule was the system of the future. A military victory for the Axis would guarantee Salazar's regime; he would then see Europe ruled as he thought it ought to be. But such an Axis victory would not guarantee the great Portuguese Colonial Empire and might even mean the end of it. On the other hand, Dr. Salazar knew that a victory for Britain would leave his Colonial Empire intact and safe. Faced with this dilemma, he chose the path of neutrality. The regime was neutral, but the entire Portuguese people was pro-British.

Minor incidents disturbed Portuguese neutrality from time to time, but there
was a warner affair in which Britain was involved. Sovereignty over the little island of Timor in the Pacific had long been shared by Dutch and Portuguese. On November 4, 1941—a month before the attack on Pearl Harbour—Britain wished to learn the position of Timor, whether Portugal would accept British assistance for its defence against Japanese aggression and, if so, whether a plan for joint defence ought not to be studied. While the Portuguese were unwilling to envisage a Japanese attack (they agreed to the principle of British assistance—that was the essence of the Alliance—and were also ready to consider joint plans). The Japanese attack on the U.S.A. in the Pacific was as sudden and unexpectable (with their submarines, encircling Timor) that Britain took time by the forelock and in the same month of December 1941 landed a force of Australian troops to collaborate with the Dutch and Portuguese in the defence of the island. The Portuguese Governor protested against this landing, which he could not prevent; acting on instructions from Lisbon, he filed a protest with the Government of Australia.

In Portugal this action by Britain on behalf of her ally and in the interests of Australian defence was officially denounced as "aggression against our Colonial Empire." Dr. Salazar spoke of the "so-called troops of protection", the officially controlled press and radio expressed the utmost indignation. A wordy turmoil was finally stilled by the dispatch of a Portuguese force from Lourenço Marques to relieve the Australians. An official Portuguese announcement expressed confidence that the solution of the Timor problem "would give perfect satisfaction to Portugal's sovereign rights." Before the Portuguese reached Timor, however, Japanese forces had landed there, on February 20, 1942.

**SPAIN AND PORTUGAL FORM AN IBERIAN BLOC**

General Jordana, Spanish Foreign Minister, arrived in Lisbon on December 15, 1942, for discussions with Dr. D' Oliveira Salazar, Premier of Portugal (right), about joint action to protect the Iberian Peninsula against any aggressor. "Portugal and Spain have defined the path of their future." (Photo, Associated Press)

Guerrilla fighting between the invaders and composite bands of Australians, Dutch and loyal natives—known as "Spaero Force"—continued for many months (see illus., page 2313).

Spanish neutrality was of a special brand—it stood in a class by itself. The regime of General Franco was more violently Fascist and totalitarian than that of Dr. Salazar and, furthermore, enjoyed the doubtful honor of having been set up with the help of military and air forces provided by Hitler and Mussolini. Falangism (as the Nazi-Fascism of Spain was called) owed its achievement of power to the Axis; it was not a mass-movement like National Socialist or Italian Fascism, and its power was won and maintained by force. In both Portugal and Spain internal power rested on the twin pillars of Church and Army. While Portugal's external support was Great Britain, that of Spain was Nazi Germany. A military defeat of the Axis would remove Franco's external bulwark, with the risk of a severe threat to his regime by the much oppressed and discontented mass of the Spanish people.

Nationalist Spain declared neutrality on September 4, 1939, but later took Mussolini's mantle of "non-belligerency" when Mussolini declared war on France on June 10, 1940. Neither General Franco nor the leaders of his regime and of Falangism attempted to conceal their wish for an Axis victory. They strained Spanish neutrality to the utmost to render help to the Axis, and even sent a "Blue Division" of volunteers to join in the war against Russia (see illus., p. 2032). In December 1942 this division was declared to be part of the Spanish regular army; a declaration running counter to international law and, in fact, tantamount to a declaration of war against the U.S.S.R. On October 23, 1940, Spain's...
And that, meanwhile, she was much more useful to the Axis as a "neutral belligerent." General Franco began military preparations on an elaborate scale. He increased the national budget by 50 per cent (and by more later), the excess being spent on armaments. A "Crusade against Bolshevism" was proclaimed, a "Falangist Empire" to include Gibraltar and parts of North Africa was announced as a goal. Franco openly expressed a wish for an Axis victory. Aggression was in the air, and took the form of the seizure by Franco forces of the International Zone of Tangier on June 14, 1940, in defiance of international agreements with Britain, France and other nations. Britain protested, and agreed to a modus vivendi until the end of the war. Needless to say, all this caused heartburnings among the United Nations, but Spain's vital strategic position demanded that she be kept "as neutral as possible."

The Anglo-American landing in North Africa on November 7, 1942, and the highly successful African campaign of the United Nations caused a fundamental change in Spain. In December 1942 Franco concluded with Salazar an Iberian Pact for the defense of the Peninsula against any aggressor. The moment for an Axis "march through Spain" seemed to have passed. and with it the visions of a "Falangist Empire." General Franco's star was on the wane, and now it seemed that all his efforts must be concentrated on one fundamental problem: the preservation of his regime after the defeat of Germany. The following year was to see his anxieties heightened.

When the many problems attendant on the reconstitution of post-war Europe came to be dealt with, difficulties may arise over the continuance of forms of government which do not fully represent the wishes of the people. From the beginning, Spanish and Portuguese neutrality were based on the interests of regimes and not peoples. The latter, sympathizing with the

**HITLER AND FRANCO**

Before going to his meeting with General Franco (right) at a small town on the border of France and Spain on October 25, 1940, Hitler [left] had seen Mussolini at the Brenner—October 4—and he had the Duce again on the 28th, at Florence. Meanwhile, on the morrow of the conversations with Franco, Hitler had discussed with Petain the ways and means of collaboration.

**FALANGISTS GO TO RUSSIA**

Above (July 1941), the first batch of Spanish Falangist volunteers reached the Spanish-French border en route to the Eastern front. (The banner read: "The German Army Greets Spanish Volunteers.") In the late summer of 1943, when the tide of war had turned decisively against the Axis, General Franco agreed to recall his ill-fated Blue Division. Left, a demonstration in Madrid by the Falangist Legion, formed to fight against Russia.
democracies, had had little or nothing to say in the attitudes of their Governments.

The neutrality of Eire aroused much ill-informed and often erroneous comment in Britain and the U.S.A. The subject bristled with difficulties, and its possibilities for dissension and quarrels were not ignored by Nazi propaganda. Eire's neutrality rested on a solid basis. On April 25, 1938, the Governments of Britain and Eire signed an agreement by which Article 1 and its Annex of the Anglo-Irish Treaty of 1921 (which by implication made the Irish Free State a co-belligerent of a Britain at war) ceased to have effect, and at the same time gave Eire full and final sovereignty over, and possession of, Lough Swilly, Broughshane, and Queenstown (see map, page 1145), hitherto reserved to the British Admiralty for naval bases. This and other British legislation put beyond doubt Eire's legal right to choose between belligerency and neutrality.

In September 1939 the Eire Government chose neutrality. Both the people and their representatives showed an almost unanimous approval for this course. The general feeling was that to enter a modern mechanized war that was none of Eire's making—and with almost bare hands—would be to invite a suicidal risk. Further, to assert and maintain neutrality would be one more affirmation of Ireland's sovereign rights—already declared in the Eire Constitution of 1937—which is conceived to embrace the whole of Ireland. It was because of the terms of this Constitution that Mr. de Valera felt bound to record a protest against the landing of U.S. troops in Northern Ireland in 1942, for the Constitution treats that territory as an integral part of Ireland, though conceived to be temporarily severed from the rest by an artificial and externally imposed and partition unrelated to the wishes of the majority of the Irish people and subject to reconsideration.

Once neutrality was declared upon the Eire Government showed itself determined to observe and maintain it in the spirit and in the letter—a neutrality that was accepted by all the belligerents. It was so strictly observed that no references to the war were permitted by press, radio or any other medium that might be used for propaganda by either side. Only official communications and the bald statements of the various commands were allowed. This attitude was not indicative of any lack of sympathy towards the struggle of the United Nations against Hitlerism, certainly as much detested in Ireland as in Britain. It was merely an instinctive shrinking from a terrible war which the Irish people felt that their enfeebled country was in no position to sustain. In proof of their sympathy the Irish came to Britain in thousands to help Britain's war effort, and those residing in Britain or elsewhere in the British Commonwealth joined in the war effort on the same basis as English, Welsh, Scots, or Dominions folk. An American survey gave 150,000 as the figure of Eire enlistments in British fighting forces—5 per cent of Eire's population—with at least as many more Eire citizens (men and women) enrolled in the general war effort. After December 1941 many more thousands joined in that effort.

Eire paid for her neutrality with much discomfort and considerable hardship. She suffered from a double blockade. Her shipping functioned under the Navigort system, and sailed without the protection of the British Navy. Eire ships were sunk by U-boats. Death came from the air. German planes dropped bombs on isolated spots, in towns and villages and even on Dublin. (In the early hours of May 31, 1941, many houses were demolished in Dublin, and 34 persons killed. The next night a bomb was dropped in County Wicklow.)

The German Government expressed regrets for such mistakes by its airmen. Eire suffered shortages of tea, bread and coal. There were black-outs, rationing, limited hours for the use of gas, scarcely any petrol. Trains run on poor fuel at snail's pace, with greatly restricted services. Indeed, apart from Spain, which had not recovered from its disastrous civil war, there was no neutral country which suffered more than Eire in the Second Great War.

EIRE WARNS U-BOATS OF HER NEUTRALITY

Above, a merchant ship of Eire with flag and nationality markings on her side. Such a step was very necessary, for: on June 5, 1939, the Irish steamer "City of Brayton" had been bombed and sunk by a German aircraft off Vigo.

Photo: British Official—Crown Copyright

AFTER BOMBING OF DUBLIN, MAY 30, 1941

On the night of May 30-31 German aircraft dropped bombs which wrecked many homes and killed 31 persons. The windows of the President's official residence were broken.

Photo: Thomas H. Nye

Photo: Thomas H. Nye

Chapter 238

RECORD AND REVIEW OF MAIN EVENTS
JANUARY TO JUNE, 1942

A survey of the year 1940 is given in Chapter 154, and of the year 1941 in Chapter 203. The present review covers the first six months of 1942: the theatre of war had widened immensely, and its record demands more space than was previously allotted. Dates collated with the Chronology published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs.

The opening of 1942 found Britain and the Empire somewhat subdued by the disasters of the previous weeks in the Far East. Japan's first swift victories at Hongkong, Singapore, and Pearl Harbor had brought a awakening to the slumbering Pacific, yes to be faced. Allied naval preparedness in the Far Eastern waters had been; the vulnerability of British and American outposts there was all too obvious. The Air Force and merchant vessels were in the hands of the Japanese and land forces were advancing into Malaya and Singapore.

Japanese forces in Malaya continued to advance into the central part of the peninsula. At the same time, Japanese forces in the south of the peninsula were threatening the British bases there. The British government was forced to withdraw its forces from Malaya and Singapore. The fall of Malaya and Singapore was a major setback for the Allies in the Pacific War.

Re Gunn Action in Burma

In the middle of January 1942, Japanese forces advanced into Tenasserim from Siam and took Toowee (see map in p. 206). Consequently, with their drive down the Irrawaddy River, the Japanese were able to take control of the waterways and the port of Rangoon. This was a significant strategic advantage for the Japanese, as it allowed them to supply their troops in theBurma theater of operations.

The fall of Rangoon was a major setback for the Allies in the Pacific War. The Japanese forces were able to control the key port and waterways, which allowed them to supply their troops in the region. The fall of Rangoon also marked the beginning of the end for the British and their allies in the region.

Drive Down Malay Peninsula

In the central region, the Japanese thrust through Pahang was met with a rapid response by the British and their allies. Heavy fighting at Kuala Lumpur and Kota Tinggi was reported, and the British were forced to retreat. This was a significant turn of events, as it marked the beginning of the end for the British and their allies in the region.

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Attack on the Dutch Islands

On October 10, the Netherlands Government of Dutch East Indies declared war on Japan. This was a significant turn of events, as it marked the beginning of the end for the British and their allies in the region.

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Battle of Bali Strait

DOORMAN planned a double attack on the invasion fleet and their escort. His own force—two Dutch cruisers and one Dutch destroyer with two American destroyers—was along the S. coast of Java, and on the 18th at 9 p.m. came in contact with enemy warships off Bali, at the S. entrance to Lombok Strait. In the course of a ten-minute battle with a superior Japanese force, which included 8-inch gun-cruisers, the fleet was forced back into Lombok Strait, where its flank damage was inflicted on enemy warships and transports.

The second part of the attack was delivered after dawn. Two American destroyers from Surabaya, on the S. coast of Java—the Dutch cruiser "Tromm," and four American destroyers—which passed through Bali Strait and came in to the S. entrance to Lombok Strait, as planned. The "Tromm" was damaged by an enemy 8-inch gun-cruiser, and after a running fight had to be taken out of the battle, followed by one American destroyer which had been forced back by the two chief Americans, their way blocked by the Japanese, turned and steamed away southward. By these brilliant surprise attacks Doorman had harried the enemy from using Bali for the invasion of Java by land forces; the Japanese fleet off Bali had also been damaged by Dutch aircraft and American Flying Fortresses, and the enemy had lost all some 20 ships, including four heavy cruisers, and two destroyers.

The task of Government on Java was as batavia, in the W. of the island; the chief point of resistance was at Bandoeng (Bandung). On March 1, the enemy landed at Bentam, Indramayu and Kramat. With Java's long and vulnerable coastline it would be impossible to prevent invasion, even if the enemy were not actually available to the defense. The burden fell mainly on the Allied Naval squadrons. There were two Japanese naval threats to be countered—first from the Macassar Strait-directed northward, and the other from the South China Sea. Doorman's Naval force refitted at Surabaya and then made a sweep along the S. coast of Madura Island to cut off the Japanese invasion forces; two Dutch—one American, one British and one Australian cruiser; two Dutch, one British and four American destroyers. At 4 p.m. on Feb. 27, 1942, Doorman's squadron came up with the Japanese fleet (45 Transports, six cruisers and 13 destroyers) off the island of Basambo, 60 miles S. of Surabaya. At 11 miles range one of the enemy cruisers fired at Doorman's "Exeter," hit her in the boiler room a little later, dropped out and was escorted back to Surabaya by a Dutch destroyer. Another Dutch destroyer and the British destroyers "Exeter" and "Glamis" were engaged in a heavy battle which followed and lasted until sunset. Doorman's striking force was now reduced to four cruisers, since his destroyers had fired all their torpedoes and were too far to sea to join in. The Dutch commander made a

Struggle in the Philippines

Of New Year's Day, 1942, the evacuation of Manila and the concentration of General Douglas MacArthur's American and Filipino troops in the Bataan peninsula was completed. Japanese troops occupied the Philippines capital the next day. The fortress of Manila fell on the 3rd, and on the 5th, the Japanese Army advanced. Reinforced, he struck on the 19th and again on the 20th, when the struggle continued for three days and ended with the penetration of the defenders' center. Japanese transports continued to land troops daily in the Gulf of Lingayen and Subic Bay; with the aid of these reinforcements the enemy opened another assault on the 23rd; next day a salient half an square mile deep was captured. Colonel Hargrave's forces (in Jan. 29 MacArthur withdrew his forces; second line map in p. 5260, further south down the peninsula.

New tactics were tried by the enemy on January 7. From Feb. 1, Japanese troops landed at four points on the western side of Bataan, but the defending beach forces and motocycles mounted tank landings and repulsed the Japanese. General MacArthur's supply at Cagayan on Corregidor of the night of Jan. 21 was similarly beaten off. After a full artillery engagement was renewed on Feb. 9, by which time Allied Air Force had opened another line to communicate and a seaplane in Manila. There was an enemy attack in the center, beaten back by MacArthur's men. Larger-calibre Japanese guns shelled the peninsula from the southern shore of Manila Bay. Dive-bombing attacks were unceasing; there were no continuous fortified lines on Bataan and all the defenders had for protection were "trenches," in which one or several men took refuge on weapons like machine-guns. Defending water grew scarce as the drafts dried up under the hot sun, while the presence of many thousands of refugees on the peninsula made the food problem grave. On Feb. 23, the U.S. forces took up the supreme command of the United Nations' forces in the S.W. Pacific, with his base in Australia. He handed over to Major-General Jonathan M. Wainwright, who had traveled by motor torpedo-boat to Wainwright, whose base was flown by air to Australia on the 18th. Corregidor was attacked by mass formations of bombers from March 24 onwards and on the 17th (New Air Force) came what was to prove the final and decisive assault against Bataan. On the night of April 3 the American right front was driven back, and there were landings in the main unsuccessful along the eastern side of the peninsula. The offensive went until the night of the 7th, with the enemy steadily gaining ground. In the early hours hopelessly outnumbered, Wainwright then ordered a general withdrawal. A report on April 8 stated that his fleet had been covered in later. On the 8th, Wainwright continued the retreat from Corregidor, which held out for another seven days. On April 9, the 25th Air Force, was shelled by heavy guns from Manila Bay and, later, by others which the enemy possessed on Batan. The decisive land attack opened at midnight of May 4. After fighting a day's battle for the channel and the defenses, then all new ceased until MacArthur's HQ. in Australia announced on May 6 that all resistance had been overcome. Wainwright had chosen to stay with his troops. Thus Luzon, largest of the philosophic Islands, had been overcome. Mindanao—next most important—had been invaded on January 14, 1943, and fighting went on through General Sharp's forces and the enemy until the capture of Corregidor overflung the surrender of the other island forces. In the S.W. Pacific, the Allied forces obtained a chain of bases extending south and southwest from her own islands to the Indian Ocean and the waters around Australia. The threat to all continent had been dissolved by Japan, and the Philippines and the British Empire and the Australians (New Ireland) towards the end of January 1945. Port Moresby (Papua) was bombarded from Feb. 3 onwards.

Monsanto to India and Australia

On Feb. 10 Japanese forces landed in Portuguese Timor and secured an airfield at Dili; by a parachute attack on Kupang the same day, two days later Japan gained another airfield within miles of the Australian mainland. Kreta, on the Solomon Islands (Solomon), was occupied May 9. Japanese forces landed in New Guinea (New Guinea) on March 8 emphasized the menace to Australia. Japanese warships entered the Bay of Bengal early in April; the Andaman Islands and Ceylon threatened. Japanese forces on March 12. In what seems to be the prelim to a planned invasion of Ceylon, Japanese aircraft bombed Ceylon on April and attacked Trincomalee on the 6th; and on April 7, the Andaman Islands were attacked. The devastating damage to Ceylon's railroad, oil plants and air bases had been written on April 8 by the pilot of a Catalina reconnaissance; he radioed the information which enabled the defense to prepare fir
the raiders (see p. 2222). Such heavy losses deterred the enemy from further attempts, but on the 18th the Japs returned and seized the town of Broome. The Japs took control of the town of Broome and reached the outskirts of Darwin, but were driven back by Australian forces.

In Australia there was a split in the Australian government. Some wanted to negotiate with the Japs, while others wanted to fight. The Australian government, however, decided to fight. General MacArthur, the commander-in-chief of the Australian forces, decided to fight. He ordered his forces to retreat to the southeast coast of Australia.

The New Zealand Part in the Offensive

New Zealand was involved in a new U.S. Naval Command organization in April 1942. Its chief was Rear Admiral R. E. Hase. On Feb. 10 American Naval vessels reached the island base on a line covering southern Asia. They were reinforced by additional troops and aircraft and were able to destroy British and imperial forces in New Zealand and Australia. U.S. Naval reinforcements also went to their Dominion, and New Zealand was under a scattering of Jap forces. England in the north, the Alamos in the south, and the Alamos were reinforced. While the Alaska-Canada Highway was begun as so to furnish a supply route to Siberia.

The successful action in the Coral Sea has been mentioned. Another defeat was inflicted upon the Japanese navy at the beginning of June. A large Jap squadron, composed of Jap merchantmen and Jap ships, attacked Midway Island. The American forces were surprised and fell back. The Jap ships did not attack. In the meantime, the Americans had reinforced the Alamos with additional troops and aircraft and were able to destroy British and imperial forces in New Zealand and Australia. U.S. Naval reinforcements also went to their Dominion, and New Zealand was under a scattering of Jap forces. England in the north, the Alamos in the south, and the Alamos were reinforced. While the Alaska-Canada Highway was begun as so to furnish a supply route to Siberia.

Hazard of the Northern Supply Routes to Russia

British and American aid to Russia was mainly in the form of supplies, convoyed through the Pacific Ocean to Murmansk. From there, they were carried by rail to Leningrad. Continuous air and sea attacks were made on the convoys and their escorting warships, in which seven were sunk and another inured. convoy losses.

Convoys were supplied by the U.S. Navy. Japanese submarines attacked the convoys and sank two. convoy losses.

American Strategy After Pearl Harbour

America's organization for war was prepared. The Pacific was divided into three main areas: the U.S. West Coast, the U.S. East Coast, and the U.S. Central Pacific. The U.S. West Coast was defended by the U.S. Navy, the U.S. Army, and the U.S. Air Force. The U.S. East Coast was defended by the U.S. Navy and the U.S. Army. The U.S. Central Pacific was defended by the U.S. Navy and the U.S. Army. The U.S. Central Pacific was also defended by the U.S. Air Force.
the war in the Far East imposed other calls upon Britain's resources.

For example, reinforcements were needed to fight in the Western Desert, and the British 8th Army, commanded by General Auchinleck, was moving towards the Suez Canal. On June 21, the 8th Army made a successful crossing of the Western Desert, and this led to the capture of Tobruk on June 22. The 8th Army then moved northwards towards the Suez Canal, and on July 2, it captured El Alamein.

The war on the Western Desert continued until the end of the year, with the 8th Army eventually reaching the Suez Canal on December 21. The war in the Western Desert was a major victory for the Allies, and it led to the eventual defeat of Germany in the Second World War.
AXIS DRIVE TOWARDS VOLGA AND CAUCASUS

This map shows the front in December 1941 (broken line), and the position after the Russian winter offensive (continuous line). For the sake of clarity, and to give a more complete picture of the German offensive which opened in its fullness in June 1942, the great belt of territory won by the Axis armies up to mid-October 1942 (stretching from Orel to the foothills of the Caucasus) is also shown (dotted line). insets: Leningrad area, Vorwatz region; and the great assault against Stalingrad.

By courtesy of "Free Europe"
U-boat war in the west, so as to prevent as far as possible any diversion of Allied Naval strength eastward. The break-out of the German warships from Brest on the night of Feb. 22, which had been so anxiously expected to strengthen the attack on British convoys, but could just as well have been designed to help Japan by tying down large British forces, was also captured and destroyed. The Japanese cruiser "Kumano," the heavy cruiser "Prince Kogyo" steamed out of Brest after dark with a strong escort and protected further by 14 large warships that was reinforced, the Japanese cruisers broke through the convoy and sank two destroyers and a submarine. The eastern convoy, although it met with constant air attack, lost only one of the supply ships reaching Malta. By this time General Aichi was making a fighting retreat in Libya, and the Fall of Tobruk came on June 21. The Royal Navy hugging the eastern shore, the British withdrew along the coast.

Landings in Madagascar

British Naval forces under Rear-Admiral E. S. Syrett, with troops commanded by Major-General H. G. Sturges (Royal Marines), seized the northern regions of Madagascar, steeping the German outposts on July 27 west Cotonou. Others than the risk of Japan taking possession of this important island, which commanded the Mozambique Channel and lay across our vital oil communications with Egypt and the East, it had been decided to land troops and establish control. The troops from H.M.S. "Ramillies," lying off Cotonou Bay, were transported by train to the shore of the island by the French authorities, and landed on June 6, when they took the position in the rear. The main assault force landed in Ambonararay Bay and fought their way across Diego Suarez. At a cost of 300 British casualties, the attack on the German outposts was carried on, and the British warships were able to enter Diego Suarez Bay. In the subsequent operations under Gen. Sir W. Platt became necessary, he was joined by the Governor-General of Madagascar, M. Amou, to collaborate. But the action already taken sufficed to prevent the danger of hostile submarines attacking Allied shipping from bases in Madagascar—and the even greater peril of Japanese occupation.

U-boats Switch to Western Atlantic

With the entry of the U.S.A. into the war, the shipping front at once widened to include the whole of the N. American sea-board and open up an immense new area of operations for U-boats. In the middle of January 1943 a Panamanian ship was torpedoed 80 miles off Long Island; two American tankers and two merchant ships were sunk off the west coast of the U.S.A. By the middle of February 25 ships had been lost in these waters. An offensive was opened against the U.S.A. approaching the West Indies; an enemy submarine shelled Aruba, off the entrance to the Gulf of Venezuela, where are the world's largest oil refineries. Seven tankers in the vicinity were attacked and three of them sunk. Many U-boat attacks were made in the Caribbean, 4,400 miles from the enemy base at Brest. Feb. 23, 114 ships had been attacked in the Western Atlantic—proving, as the First Lord of the Admiralty said, more than a month later, a grievous drain on the shipping tonnage of the United Nations. Throughout March the sinkings went on and then the submarines were caught up in a U.S. army. As the United States authorities were obliged to introduce the convoy system along the eastern seaboard. At the beginning of February Britain took over the 60,000 tons of Axis shipping sheltered there. The large number of available merchant ships was attacked off the Atlantic base. (British declared war upon Germany and Italy on Aug. 23.) Ships from Uruguay, Argentina, Venezuela, Chile and Mexico were attacked. On June 23 it was announced that losses in the Western Atlantic since Dec. 7 had totaled 209—130 off the U.S. east coast, 30 in the Caribbean, 30 off the South Atlantic, 30 off Canada, and 17 off S. America. The great efforts of American shipbuilders to reduce the balance have been deflected to an earlier problem, while British concentration on warships the U.S.A. built up an enormous tonnage of cargo vessels. Small airships were used off the American coast to spot and attack (with depth charges) enemy submarines.

At the other side of the Atlantic, aircraft of Coastal Command played the major part in the air raid protection of British and Allied merchantmen, and in the offensive against axis and U.S. raiders on shipping centers. In the war of 1943 the U.S.A. had 8,000,000 miles, escorted 4,200 merchant ships, and attacked 657 U-boats. Moreover, Bomber Command continued the series of successful offensive, for the British Secretary for Air stated, in March 1942, that 50 per cent of all total effort during the year just slipped had been concentrated on the air raid by the British Navy. An example of such operations was the daylight attack by 12 Lancaster bombers on the M.A.N. motor diesel engine works at Augsburg, April 15. Ten per cent of the production losses of Bomber Command were insured in mine-laying, a routine task of primary importance, which cost the Axis 183 ships in six months.

Thousand-Bomber Raids

During the year, the Royal Air Forces gained the initiative in the air battles over Western Europe. Heavy bombers and fighter fighters, coupled with the development of modern tactics, made the practice of aerial warfare. Under heavy and repeated blows the enemy had to abandon the use of French outposts, which had been used as bases, as a base, for long range operations, and the Axis was forced to resort to the use of its remaining bases in the Middle East and the Far East. The number of operations by the Royal Air Force was considerably increased, as a result of the air raid on Dieppe, which showed that the German air defense was not strong enough to prevent large-scale air raids. The raids were successful in destroying the factories and installations of the enemy, and in neutralizing the effect of the reciprocal attacks on the Axis. In April four successive raids were made on Rostock (270 tons of bombs in all.), and then the experiment of the 1,000-bomber raid was attempted. 1,047 bombers were sent to Cologne, May 6. A total of 3,000 tons was dropped, and 1,500 tons in 55 minutes. Essen (June 1) and Brunswick (June 25) were raided in the same manner. Tactical difficulties, however, allowed such large formations to be disinterred in the second instance, and the experiment it remained. During daylight raids by heavy bombers were another innovation. They flew low for many miles across enemy country, and then rose over the target to the minimum height from which it was safe for the aircraft to drop its heavy bombs. Factories working for the enemy in occupied France were also attacked: the Remem, motor factory at Châtillon, near Paris on March 3-4; the Matford works at Poissy on April 1-3; the Gnome-Rhone, Godin and Thomson-Houston establishments at Commercy.

Fighter Arm Becomes an Offensive Weapon

A part of Britain's long-term policy of destroying Germany's communications, aircraft of Fighter Command attacked locomotive and hanger, or blind, to target and protection of sections of the Home Counties, and the Low Countries. In pairs or in small formations, Spitfires, Hurricanes and Black- flies harried enemy trains on the roads and trains and by air. The efforts of American shipbuilders to reduce the balance have been deflected to an earlier problem, while British concentration on war
in which special training had perfected our fighter squadrons.

In the air, the United Kingdom had developed its tactics so that enemy raiders were almost driven from the skies, and no large raids were reported. This was due to the work of the Ultra intelligence, which provided early warning of the enemy's intentions. The Ultra network was operated by the British Government and was instrumental in the success of the Battle of Britain.

The Air War Against Britain

T the end of the month, the situation had improved appreciably. The number of raids had decreased, and the damage inflicted was less severe. The German air force was still a significant threat, but the British had managed to reduce its effectiveness.

On the Home Front

During the months of comparative freedom from air attack, Portland, the site of the Home Guard's training, was, along with the rest of the country, busy preparing for war. The Home Guard, a volunteer defense force, was organized on a national scale, with local units forming the backbone of the defense. The Home Guard played a crucial role in maintaining public order and security during the war.

The Winter Offensive

The winter offensive was a major operation carried out by the Germans in 1942. It aimed to disrupt the British war effort and to gain control of the Channel ports. The offensive was met with fierce resistance from the British forces, and although the Germans managed to occupy much of the coast, they were unable to capture key ports.

The Battle of Britain

The Battle of Britain is often considered the first major battle of the Second World War. It took place from July 10 to November 11, 1940, between the Royal Air Force and the Luftwaffe. The Battle was the first major air battle in history, and it marked the beginning of the war in Europe.

The Soviet Union's Role in the War

The Soviet Union played a significant role in the war, especially in the Battle of Stalingrad, which lasted from August 23, 1942, to February 2, 1943. The battle was a turning point in the war, and the Soviet Union emerged as a major military power.

The Home Front

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Chapter 239

HOME FRONT IN BRITAIN AS VICTORY COMES WITHIN SIGHT

The second half of 1942 saw a complete reversal of the tide of war in Egypt and Libya, and witnessed the surge of the Allied armies westward to victory in Africa. Mr. Churchill flew to Moscow to confer with Premier Stalin, and in the Russian capital were laid the plans which later bore fruit in the great achievements of Soviet troops at Stalingrad.

After the hammer-and-tong debate in the House of Commons at the beginning of July, which ended with the Government being accorded a majority of 451 on a motion of "no-confidence," there was a comparative lull in the criticism of Mr. Churchill, his Ministerial team, and their methods of conducting the war. Some at least of the more gloomy prophecies were blunted when within a week or two Rommel's onslaught on the British lines at El Alamein was beaten off, and it seemed likely that after all Egypt would not be lost. The increasing air offensive against Germany, and the diminution in the German aerial attacks on Britain, added to the public's mood of regained confidence.

But if the news from the Near East was somewhat better, if the British people could rejoice in knowing that at long last we were hitting back effectively at the enemy's cities, there was deep and widespread concern over the apparently irresistible progress of the German arms in Russia. During those summer weeks Hitler got very near to Moscow, and it was not to be wondered at that there were many in Britain who refused to believe that in supplying munitions, tanks and planes to Russia we were doing all that could be done to assist a very valiant and now dangerously hard-pressed ally. So up and down the country the demand was voiced ever more clamantly for the opening of a Second Front in the West—for a great military stroke which should make it imperative for Hitler to withdraw a large number of divisions from Russia to meet an attack on the "European fortress" from the rear.

No doubt it was to inform himself of the Soviet Union's actual position, of its requirements and how they might be satisfied—and also perhaps to explain to Stalin just why a Second Front, for which, by now, the Russian publicists were loudly calling, could not be established—that Mr. Churchill decided to visit Moscow as soon as Parliament had risen for the summer recess. Flying first to Egypt, where he met Field-Marshal Smuts, the Prime Minister proceeded by way of Palestine, Iraq and Persia to Moscow, where he arrived on August 19, 1942. From that date until August 15 he had daily consultations with Mr. Stalin, Mr. Molotov and their colleagues, and among others who took part in the conference were Mr. Averell Harriman, special representative of President Roosevelt, and General Sir Archibald Wavell, C-in-C India.

At the conclusion of the meeting an announcement, issued in London and Moscow on August 17, stated that a number of decisions were reached covering the field of the war against Hitleric Germany and her associates in Europe, and that the discussions, carried on in an atmosphere of cordiality and complete sincerity, provided an opportunity of reaffirming the existence of close friendship and understanding between the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States, in entire accordance with the Allied relationship existing between them.

This was Mr. Churchill's first meeting with Mr. Stalin, and in the House of Commons on September 8 the Premier, when recounting the story of his Moscow visit, described the Russian...
BRITAIN AFTER THREE YEARS AT WAR

GREAT BRITAIN'S MAN POWER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MEN AND WOMEN REGISTERED FOR NATIONAL SERVICE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,020,000</td>
<td>2,710,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOME</td>
<td>9,100,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>INDUSTRY</td>
<td>6,500,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>INDUSTRY</td>
<td>1,280,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>INDUSTRY</td>
<td>1,056,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNEMPLOYMENT IN BRITAIN</td>
<td>120,536</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEPT. 1,939</td>
<td>195,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEPTEMBER, 1940</td>
<td>105,963</td>
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<tr>
<td>OCTOBER, 1940</td>
<td>105,963</td>
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<tr>
<td>NOVEMBER, 1940</td>
<td>105,963</td>
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<tr>
<td>DECEMBER, 1940</td>
<td>105,963</td>
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BRITONS PAY HEAVILY FOR THE WAR

| GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE MILLION |
|--------------------------------|-------|
| 1940                          | 105    |
| 1941                          | 107    |
| 1942                          | 110    |
| 1943                          | 113    |

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>TAXES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
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<tr>
<td>1940</td>
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<td>1941</td>
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<td>1942</td>
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<th>SURPLUS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
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<td>1941</td>
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<tr>
<td>1942</td>
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| WAR BOND PURCHASES TOTAL |
|--------------------------|-------|
| 1938-41                   | 437    |
| 1942                      | 468    |
| 1943                      | 319    |

INCREASE IN BRITISH WAR PRODUCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AIRCRAFT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEPT. 1,939</td>
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<tr>
<th>SHIPBUILDING</th>
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<tr>
<td>JULY, 1940</td>
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<td>AUGUST, 1940</td>
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<td>OCTOBER, 1940</td>
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<th>AMMUNITION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>OCTOBER, 1940</td>
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<td>NOVEMBER, 1940</td>
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RESTRICTION OF CIVILIAN SUPPLIES

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLOTHING</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1939</td>
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<tbody>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1939</td>
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<td>1940</td>
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<td>1941</td>
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RATIONING IN BRITAIN TODAY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOOD</th>
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<tr>
<th>BOMBS ON GREAT BRITAIN</th>
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<tr>
<td>KILLED WOUNDED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939</td>
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<td>1940</td>
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<td>1941</td>
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<tr>
<th>WAR DAMAGE THROUGH ENEMY BOMBINGS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BETWEEN SEPT., 1939, AND MAR. 45</td>
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<tr>
<td>ONE OUT OF FIVE HOUSES WERE DAMAGED OR DESTROYED</td>
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</tbody>
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EXPLAINING BRITAIN'S THREE-YEAR WAR EFFORT TO AMERICA

This pictorial chart was issued for distribution in the United States to show at a glance some of Britain's sacrifices and achievements. The official exchange rate at the time was 410d. per U.S. dollar, but if the rate is taken at 1s., it will enable a rough enough approximation to be made to the American figures shown. Thus the figure for taxes per head increased from £3 14s. 3d. in 1939-40 to £7 17s. 6d. in 1943-44. The growth of war production is indicated by percentages of earlier outputs, since actual figures cannot be disclosed.

Diagram issued by the British Ministry of Information.
"A WORLD FOUNDED ON COMMON JUSTICE AND FAIR PLAY"

This was the kind of post-war world, said Field-Marshal Smuts, which the Allies intended to build, not one founded on political skullduggery. Standing beneath a statue of the great Queen Elizabeth, he is seen addressing Members of both Houses of Parliament on October 27, 1944. Behind the Field-Marshal sits Mr. Lloyd George, Chairman of the meeting; on the right are Mr. Winston Churchill and Lord Simon.

Photo, Keystone.
LONDON SCARRED BUT DAINLESS

The ordeal of London in the air raids of 1940 and 1941 inspired many artists. Left, St. Paul's, seen across the wreckage of Pakermoor House. Below, the railway bridge over Ludgate Hill with the burnt-out shell of St. Bride's tower on the right. Above, a bombed-out lamplight.

Painting by Ethel Gabain; ground drawings by Vincent R. Daniel
leader as a man of "inexhaustible courage and will-power, a man direct and even blunt in speech... of a deep, cool wisdom and complete absence of illusions of any kind. I believe I made him feel that we were good and faithful comrades in this war.

On his way back from Moscow the Premier stayed another week in the Middle East, conferring in Cairo with Generals Auchinleck and Alexander and other military chiefs. He also stopped at Teheran both going and returning, and had interviews with the Shah of Persia; and he met the King and Prime Minister of Egypt. He arrived back in London on August 24, making the journey in the same Liberat... bombers in which he had flown to Russia.

While in Egypt Mr. Churchill took the opportunity of seeing for himself the state of the Eighth (or Desert) Army, which, he said, was not entirely satisfactory. As a result he effected a change in the command; on August 18 it was announced that General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexander had been appointed to succeed General Sir C. Auchinleck as C-in-C Middle East, and that Lt.-Gen. B. L. Montgomery had succeeded General Ritchie in the command of the Eighth Army. At the same time Persia and Iraq were detached from the Middle East Command and made into a new and separate command around the 10th Army, based on Basra and Baghdad.

In his review of the war situation in the House of Commons on September 8 Mr. Churchill declared his satisfaction with the new combination of General Alexander, "fresh from his brilliant uphill campaign in Burma," and General Montgomery, "one of our most accomplished soldiers." As for the displaced General Auchinleck, he was "an officer of the greatest distinction and of a character of singular elevation," and though "he is at present, at his own

NATION'S FOOD DRIVE SPEEDED UP

With food supplies amounting to 217,000,000 a year, and extending to Canada, the Government urged farmers to put all available land under crop cultivation. The appeal met with a whole-hearted response, and ploughing by day and night became a feature of the countryside in the autumn of 1942. Below, a ploughing crew on the fields of the nation, and congratulates a smiling Land Army girl on the olives crop.

Photos, Topical and E.N.A.
soldier addressed the Llodes and Commons in joint session. Much of his speech was devoted to a eulogy of Britain, the "enemy of his youth."

"But for this country," he said, "the stand it made from 1880 onward, its innumerable exertions since and up to now, its skill and sweat, its blood and tears. This world of ours must have been lost for a thousand years, and another dark age might have settled down on the spirit of man."

Then, after a masterly analysis of Hitler's aims and devilish achievements, the Field-Marshal declared that:

"At bottom this war is a new crusade, a new fight to the death for man's rights and liberties, and for the personal ideals of man's ethical and spiritual life. To the Nazi fanatics we oppose this crusading spirit, which will not desert the sword till victory and all the works have been purged from this fair world. And in that spirit the United Nations will march forward to victory and to the world which will follow that victory."

On the occasion of the opening of a new session of Parliament, on November 11, 1942, a few days after the successful landings in North Africa, Mr. Churchill gave a further review of the war. He replied in spirited fashion to the clamour for a Second Front, stressing the complete understanding between Britain and Russia that had been consolidated by his August visit, and reviewing the very material assistance that had already been afforded to the Soviet Union. Then followed an account of the preparations for Montgomery's great stroke at Alamein in October.

"Egypt is now clear of the enemy," he went on; "we see advancing into Cyrenaica."

The speed of advance of our pursuing troops exceeds anything yet seen in the deserts and deserts of the Libyan battlefield. Taken by itself, the Battle of Egypt is an historic British victory, and in order to celebrate it directions are being given to sing the bells throughout the land: next Sunday morning, and I should think that many who will listen to their bells will have thankful hearts."

Next, the Prime Minister made a brief reference to the North African operations so recently launched. "These remarkable transactions," he might well remark, "have already been highly beneficial to our interest and to our cause."

But "we are entitled to rejoice only on the condition that we do not relax;" and in conclusion he quoted Walt Whitman's lines:

Now understand we well.
It is provided in the essence of things That, from any fruition of success, no matter what,
Shall come forth something to make a greater struggle necessary.

While our British soldiers continued to hold Rommel in Egypt, barring the way to that magnificent prize, their "mates" at home performed prodiges of production. Probably not only the Americans, to whom he primarily addressed himself, were surprised at the figures and facts given in a broadcast by Mr. Lyttleton, Minister of Production, on August 27. Although Britain's population was only a third of America's, said Mr. Lyttleton, her work and production were at least equal to those of America. Indeed, head, for head, Britain had produced in the first quarter of 1942 nearly 2½ times the volume of army munitions and about twice the weight of combat aircraft, and, in spite of the increased growth of American output, Britain was still ahead in the second quarter. And this notwithstanding difficulties not experienced in America—constant air attacks necessitating the dispersal of industries, the black-out, and bomb damage. Fifty-five out of every hundred occupied men and women—the equivalent of 40 million in the States—were directly working for the Government, in the forces or in factories, elsewhere; and nearly all the rest were doing work which was essential to the war effort.

A few weeks later Mr. Herbert Morrison embarked on a series of speeches in which he endeavoured to do justice to the present achievement as well as to sketch the outlines of a new and better world of tomorrow: "We need not apologize to anyone for our three years' part in the war," he told his constituents at Hucknall on October 30; and two days later, at Cardiff, he drew a striking picture of Britain at war, "for the enlightenment of our friends and ourselves."

NEW CABINET POST
Political problems in French North Africa made it necessary for the British Government to keep close personal touch with the swiftly changing situation. On December 31, 1942, Mr. Harold Macmillan, Colonial Under-Secretary, became Resident Minister at Allied Headquarters, North-West Africa.

Photo, Sport & General

productive effort at home, he said, in its combination of intense energy with the highest order of technical skill was one of the greatest achievements in history. This small country with its 45 million people had achieved a war output which stood in the front rank of productive achievements on either side.

Its output per head was greater than that of any country in the world, enemy or ally. We welcomed with enthusiasm the tremendous output of America's shipbuilding industry, but it was still true that Britain's shipbuilding workers had an output twice as great a head as those of any other country. And Britain had not yet reached the peak. True, she was near the limit of her resources of man-power, but improvements in the organization and allocation of these resources were leading to the setting up of fresh records. Thus in September they had produced sixty thousand units of aircraft for every five tons in August.

How tremendous had been Britain's achievement was revealed by Mr. Bevin on July 30: of the 53 million people between 14 and 65, 23,500,000 were in full-time national work. In addition, there was a host of voluntary workers, leaving fewer than 3 millions, which included children, the sick, and the aged. In June the total of women registered was brought up to nearly 8 millions. In August Mr. Morrison announced that women between 20 and 45 were to be made liable for compulsory fireguard
LONDON SCENE, 1942

By the second half of 1942 Britain had got down to a rigid war economy, since the need for gearing the whole country to the war effort had at last been realized. The urgent appeals to save fuel, petrol and rubber led to drastic restrictions on travel facilities. London bus services were cut to a minimum after the peak periods.

1) Buses parked on the Embankment awaiting the evening rush, and
2) a notice: 'Suspends the Green Line coaches for the duration.'
3) One of the huge coal dumps established in London parks during the winter to meet possible distribution difficulties.
4) Another familiar sign was the 'Blessings of the German Near Moscow.'
5) a Communist Party poster.

Photos: Sport & General / Pictorial News; Topham / New York Times / Photos.
duty in areas where compulsion for men was already in force—yet another indication of the increasing part played by women in the nation’s war effort.

On October 22 a Royal Proclamation extended the liability for call-up (for the Services) to men who had reached the age of 18 by the previous day, although the minimum age for overseas service was kept at 19. In December 1942 the registration age for men was reduced to 17 years and 8 months, so as to facilitate the call-up of men as soon as they should reach the age of 18.

But, all the same, there were some blots on the industrial scene. Figures released in the next year showed that during 1942 more working days were lost through industrial disputes than in any of the four preceding years; altogether 1,530,000 working days were lost to the national war effort, involving

349,000 workers directly and a further 107,000 indirectly. By far the most of these disputes were over wage questions, though, quite a number had relation to the employment of particular classes or occupations.

Then there was the chronic insufficiency of coal production. “We shall produce the coal the nation needs,” promised Mr. Will Lawther, in his presidential speech at the Mineworkers’ Federation in July, “to do less would be playing Hitler’s game.” Yet in August the Federation, after hearing a Government statement on the very unsatisfactory coal situation, sent an appeal to each mine to make a supreme effort to increase production immediately, since in the event of a falling-off in the output of ships, planes, tanks, etc., because of want of coal, the industry might well be charged with “criminal neglect” in the country’s hour of peril.

A system of bonus payments for miners was introduced during the autumn, and the public were exhorted at the same time to exercise the utmost care in the use of coal.

"The Battle of Coal is on!" proclaimed advertisements in every newspaper, and householders were conjured to study little diagrams from which their "Fuel Targets" might be deduced. Every individual was entitled to use with a good conscience a personal allowance of 15 "Fuel Units," whether of coal, gas, electricity or paraffin, and in addition an allowance dependent on the situation of his premises—i

the North, Midlands, or South. Criticism of the scheme was loud and long, and in particular the Fuel Ministry was charged with ignorance of the fact that in England the isotherms tended to range from west to east, not north to south. On the whole, however, the scheme was welcomed as an effort to improve a steadily worsening situation.

But Major Lloyd-Lawther, Minister of Fuel and Power, told the House of Commons in October that during the preceding five months British coal production was running at the rate of 200 million tons annually, as compared with 230 million tons in the year ending with Dunkirk and 237 millions in 1939. What with the falling production and the greatly increased consumption, there was a gap of some 11 million tons; and the Minister’s critics considered him far too optimistic in thinking that this might be filled by a joint effort of miners and public.

Abstention, it was generally believed, was rife in the coalfields, though the reasons for it were often better than supposed.

The miners, for their part, alleged that the real trouble was their lack of numbers; so many of the younger and most vigorous men had been drafted to the Forces that it was impossible for an ageing body of workers to maintain their
production. Some 3,000 miners had been temporarily returned to the pits from the Forces, said the Minister on September 8; and a little later men under 20 at registration were given the right to "opt" for mining. Whatever the reason for the fall-off, the situation grew worse instead of better; and on October 31 some 3,000 representatives of the mining industry—including one from each of the 1,300 pits in the country—were called to London to hear a special appeal by the Prime Minister, supported by Major Lloyd George and Field-Marshal Smuts. The Premier, it was revealed months later, when his speech was published, was exceedingly frank, and his revelations and appeal must have had a powerful effect.

AMERICA SUPPLIES "INVASION" ENGINES
From America locomotive works powerful "utility" engines were sent to supplement those built by British railways, their ultimate destination being the Continent. Designed for use on both British and Continental systems, they were sturdy engines, and a material help in transporting Britain's enormous wartime traffic.

BUILDERS' FLYING SQUAD FOR WAR CONTRACTS
In order to speed up construction of new factories or hostels for war workers, a Ministry of Works Flying Squad went first in the vanguard to clear the ground, make roads, and put up temporary buildings to house the contractors' men, who could then start from scratch. Above are dormitory huts erected by the squad: they themselves were accommodated in Ministry of Works vans (seen in the foreground).

In spite of the terrible upheaval caused by the industrial mobilisation, in spite of the black-out, rationing and the rest, the nation's health continued to be excellent. Indeed, said Mr. Ernest Brown, the Minister of Health, it was in many ways better after 1,000 days of war than in peacetime. There were only two black spots: the steady diminution in tuberculosis had been interrupted by wartime conditions—the black-out, over-crowding and cessation of house-building—and venereal disease, though it had increased less than during the last war, was growing fast.

So serious was the latter trouble that on November 11, 1942, a new Defence Regulation (33B) was announced, empowering Medical Officers of Health to require the attendance of all persons believed to be suffering from V.D. and who were refusing to attend voluntarily. Henceforth such persons were required to attend the clinic, etc., until cured; failure to do so involving penalties up to three months' imprisonment or £100 fine, or both. The regulation was hotly assailed in Parliament and outside, but in view of the seriousness of the menace to the nation's health, it was sustained.

Some impressive figures concerning the financial side of the war were given by the Chancellor of the Exchequer when moving a Vote of Credit for another £1,000,000,000 in the House of Commons on September 9. This made a total of £11,000,000,000 since the beginning of the war. In recent weeks, said Sir Kingsley Wood, the national expenditure had averaged £13,250,000 a day—£10,250,000 on the fighting and supply services and £2,000,000 on other miscellaneous war services. It was a striking fact that there had been no tiring or humiliation in the great sacrifices the people were making to meet as much as possible of this huge expenditure by taxation; in 1940-41 we had financed by taxation 35 per cent of the total Budget; that year (1943) they would finance 45 per cent in that way, and 40 per cent of the national income would go in taxation.

Another financial detail, disclosed this time by Lord Woolton, Minister of Food, on July 14, was that the cost of the food subsidies had been running at the rate of £127,000,000 a year, after allowing £10,000,000 for profits on certain non-subsidized commodities.
The principal foodstuffs subsidized and the amount in million £ were: flour, bread, oatmeal, and animal feeding stuffs, 40; meat, 25; potatoes, 20; sugar, 13; milk, 2; national milk scheme, etc., 18; eggs, 11; tea, 3; milk products, bacon and ham, carrots, and other small items, 7. On July 1 the cost of living figure was 100 per cent—60 per cent for food alone—above the 1914 level; at the end of the year 1914 the figures were 99 and 64 respectively above the 1914 level.

Some changes on the "food front" may be noted. New, and simplified ration books came into use at the end of July; it was found that the total "points" had been reduced from 24 to 20 per rationing period, and syrup and treacle, hitherto in the preserve ration, were now included in the points scheme. The cheese ration was temporarily doubled to half-a-pound per head ("heavy" workers, one pound). At the same time, the chocolate and sweets ration, available on personal ration books, was fixed at the outset at 2 oz. per week per head; in August it was increased to 4 oz. The tea ration for "under-lives" was abolished on July 27. All schools, and not the State-schools only, were brought within the school milk scheme on August 1. From August 23 biscuits were "put on points." The range of "fancy cakes" was restricted, éclairs prohibited, and the amount of sugar and fats released for cake-making severely reduced.

Among other domestic changes were the official relaxation, with a view to conserving rubber, of the enjoinder to carry gas masks by day; the introduction of "utility" furniture (to be made available on January 1, 1943), pottery, cooking utensils, suitcases, umbrellas, cutlery and household textiles—announced by Mr. Dalton, President of the Board of Trade, on July 3; the decision not to evacuate any more London schoolchildren after November; the withdrawal as from October 3 of all cheap day and pleasure excursion railway tickets, and from September 30 the withdrawal of the London Passenger Transport Board's Green Line coaches; the rationalization of milk deliveries and the increasing concentration of industries. The proposal to centre the hat-making industry in the North evoked a storm of opposition from Luton, to which the Clothing Control had to bow.

The principal changes during the period under review, perhaps the most noteworthy was the departure from the War Cabinet of Sir Stafford Cripps and his appointment as Minister of Aircraft Production. The same announcement from Downing Street, on November 22, stated that Viscount Cranborne took Sir Stafford's place as Lord Privy Seal and was succeeded at the Colonial Office by Colonel Stanley. Colonel J. J. Llewellyn became Minister Resident in Washington for Supply. Sir Stafford Cripps' place as Leader of the House of Commons was taken by Mr. Anthony Eden, who remained Foreign Secretary. At the end of the year further appointments were announced: Sir William Dowitt, K.C., Minister without Portfolio; Mr. W. S. Morrison, Minister-Designate for Town and Country Planning; Captain H. P. C. Cruikshank, Postmaster-
General; Mr. Harold Macmillan, Minister Resident at Allied H.Q. in N.W. Africa; and Lord Cherwell, P.R.S., Paymaster-General.

For the purpose of record it may be stated that at the end of 1942 Britain's War Cabinet was composed of Winston Churchill, Prime Minister, First Lord of the Treasury; and Minister of Defence: Clement R. Attlee, Secretary of State for the Dominions and Deputy Prime Minister; Viscount Curzon, Lord Privy Seal; Sir John Anderson, Lord President of the Council; Anthony Eden, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs and Leader of the House of Commons; Oliver Lyttelton, Minister of Production; Ernest Bevin, Minister of Labour and Minister of National Service; Herbert Morrison, Secretary of State for Home Affairs; Minister for Home Security and Minister in Charge of Air Raid Precautions; and Richard G. Casey, Minister of State (Middle East).

Not the least important of the events of the closing year was the publication by H.M. Stationery Office of the 100,000-word Report by Sir William Beveridge on Social Insurance and Allied Services, Generally recognized as the greatest scheme of its kind since the launching of Mr. Lloyd George's National Health Insurance scheme 30 years earlier, it received a remarkably good press and became the topic of almost every conversation.

In its terms of reference, the inter-departmental committees of which Sir William Beveridge was appointed chairman, was required by Mr. Arthur Greenwood, then (June 1941) Minister without Portfolio in charge of reconstruction, to take, with special reference to the inter-relationship of the existing national schemes of social insurance and related services, including workmen's compensation, and to make recommendations.

A number of Civil Service experts constituted the working party, and by arrangement the Report was prepared and signed by him as a personal contribution to the solution of some of the most pressing and important of modern problems. It took the form of a survey of the present position of national insurance, accompanied by a Plan for Social Security—in Sir William's own words, "a scheme of social insurance against illness that will produce a reduction of living costs, an addition to the national income, and the provision of an adequate social security for all who are, or likely to be, in need of it." The Report embodied six fundamental principles: (1) That the scheme was designed to provide an adequate and comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it; (2) That the scheme was to provide a comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it; (3) That the scheme was to provide a comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it; (4) That the scheme was to provide a comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it; (5) That the scheme was to provide a comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it; (6) That the scheme was to provide a comprehensive social security to cover all who are in need of it.

A month later (November 29), the final report of the Beveridge Committee was published. It is, in effect, a plan for a new Social Security Act, which would include a comprehensive national insurance scheme, a national welfare service, and a national family allowance scheme. The scheme would provide for the following benefits: (1) Women's pensions; (2) Children's allowances; (3) Maternity benefits; (4) Unemployment benefits; (5) Old Age pensions; (6) Industrial injuries benefits; (7) Disablement benefits; (8) Industrial sickness benefits; (9) Invalidity benefits; (10) Hospitalization benefits; (11) Poor relief; (12) Funeral grants.

The plan was based on three "Assumptions," viz.: 
(a) That the present social insurance scheme could be extended and improved upon; 
(b) That the present social insurance scheme could be extended and improved upon; 
(c) That the present social insurance scheme could be extended and improved upon.

A single woman would receive 25s. per week in similar circumstances, and a widow 35s. a week for 13 weeks. Other benefits would include children's allowances; matron's allowances; and funeral grants.

The physical needs, discontent, ignorance, injustice, and idleness; these, said Sir W. Beveridge, were the giant evils that his plan for Social Security was designed to attack; and the plan was "submitted by me who believes that in this supreme crisis the British people will not be found wanting in loyalty, in courage, and national unity of material and spiritual power to play their part in achieving all social security and the victory of justice among nations upon which security depends."

Two other contributions towards the planning of a new and better Britain were the report of the Committee on Land Utilization in Rural Areas, presided over by Lord Justice Scott (Scott Report, August 15); and the final report of the Cumbria Committee on Compensation and Betterment, published a month later (See Historic Documents, pp. 2370-71.)

Although German air raids continued, 1943 showed a steady reduction in the number of casualties and the damage done. In July, Birmingham, Norwich, and a number of other places were attacked, and the casualties amounted to nearly 1,300. By October Hull had had over 70 raids and nearly 800 "alerts." On October 31, Canterbury was subjected to daylight raids in its heaviest raid since the Battle of Britain. For the year as a whole the casualties were 3,221 killed and 4,149 so seriously injured as to be detained in hospital.

On November 10, Mr. Brown, Minister of Health, stated that just over 2,760,000 houses in England and Wales had been damaged by bombs since the outbreak of war—more than one in five of all the houses in the country. But a great number of these had been only slightly damaged, and 7,500,000 had been repaired by the local authorities and were again in occupation. Of the balance of 250,000 fewer than 10,000 had been torn down and not repaired, while nearly all the remaining 100,000 had reserved first-aid repairs but were not yet occupied. Moreover, against this loss of 150,000 or so, some 150,000 new houses which were in course of construction at the outbreak of war had now been completed and brought into use. So the net loss was only about 15,000 houses.

On Christmas Day, 1943, the King broadcast a message to the Empire, one couched in a tone of firm confidence about the future, justified by the fact that the British Army of the United Nations. Tack perhaps harder than those already accomplished lay ahead, but "we face these with confidence; for today we stand together, no longer alone, no longer ill-equipped, but just as resolute as in the darkest hours to do our duty whatever comes." On the sea, on land and in the air, went on the King, and in civil life at home, a pattern of effort and mutual service was being traced; and he quoted the story told by Abraham Lincoln of a boy who was carrying an even smaller child up a hill. Asked whether the heavy burden was not too much for him, the boy answered: "It's not a burden: it's my brother!" "So concluded his Majesty let us welcome the future in a spirit of brotherhood, and thus make a world in which, please God, all may dwell together in justice and in peace."
BARLOW, SCOTT, UTHWATT: PLANS FOR POST-WAR BRITAIN

Most vital and important of all the reconstruction problems that would face Britain after the War was that of the proper use and development of the country’s land, the restoration of its industries and the foundation of the national life. Three Government-appointed inquiries were made into the question, each dealing with a particular aspect, and their Reports, known in common speech as Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt from the names of the respective Chairmen, are summarized here.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDUSTRIAL POPULATION (Cmd. 6126; published January 31, 1940).

In the terms of reference the Commission, appointed in July 1937 and presided over by Sir Montague Barlow, was required (a) to inquire into the causes of unemployment and the present geographical distribution of the industrial population of Great Britain and the probable direction of any change in that distribution in the future; (b) to consider what social, economic or strategical disadvantages arise from the concentration of industry in any part of the country; and (c) to report what remedial measures, if any, should be taken in the national interest.

First it reviewed the background. The seven chief industrial areas (i.e., London, Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Glasgow, Leeds, and the Home Counties) contain about two-thirds of the total population of Great Britain; in 1937, the proportion was 69 to 31 per cent of the occupied population. The number of insured persons living in the seven chief industrial areas in 1937 was 2,032,000 in the period 1923-27, while in the same period the other principal industrial areas (with the exception of the West Midlands) had just 550,000 insured persons. The industrial areas have a large proportion of the population living under the breadline and in some cases below it, while in the other areas more than half the population is living above the breadline.

The Commission concluded that the most important causes of unemployment were the overcrowding of industry, the concentration of industry, and the geographical distribution of the industrial population. They agreed that the solution of these problems was not the solution of all the unemployment problems, but that the solution of these problems was essential to the solution of the unemployment problem.

National action is necessary. A Central Authority, national in scope and character, is required, whose activities should be distinct from and extend beyond those within the powers of any existing Government department. The objectives of national action should be: (a) complete and further development of congested, urban areas; (b) decongestion or dispersal, both of industry and industrial population, from such areas; (c) encouragement of a reasonable balance of industrial development throughout the various divisions or regions of Great Britain, coupled with appropriate diversification of industry in each division or region throughout the country. The continuing drift of the industrial population to London and the Home Counties constitutes a social, economic and strategical problem which demands immediate attention. The Central Authority should be established now and should be empowered to take all necessary steps to control the migration of people and industry from the congested areas.

The report of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population was published in 1940. It recommended that a Central Authority be established to deal with the problem of industrial distribution. The Commission concluded that the solution of the unemployment problem was not the solution of all the unemployment problems, but that the solution of the industrial distribution problems was essential to the solution of the unemployment problem.

REPORT OF LORD JUSTICE SCOTT'S COMMITTEE

In 1922, the Committee, whose Chairman was Lord Justice Scott, was appointed to inquire into the conditions which should govern building and other constructional development in country areas, and to consider the maintenance of agriculture, and in particular the factors affecting the position of farmers, having regard to economic development, part-time and seasonal employment, the country life, and the preservation of amenities. They concluded that, if Government action was taken, the desirability and industrial population, from such areas; (c) encouragement of a reasonable balance of industrial development throughout the various divisions or regions of Great Britain, coupled with appropriate diversification of industry in each division or region throughout the country. The continuing drift of the industrial population to London and the Home Counties constitutes a social, economic and strategical problem which demands immediate attention. The Central Authority should be established now and should be empowered to take all necessary steps to control the migration of people and industry from the congested areas.

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REPORT OF MR.

EXPERT COMMITTEE ON COMPENSATION AND BETTERMENT; FINAL REPORT (Cmd. 6386, published September 10, 1942),

A PPPOINTED IN January 1941 by Lord Keith, in response to a recommendation by the Beveridge Committee, to make an objective assessment of the extent and effect of the subject of the payment of compensation and recovery of betterment in respect of public control of the use of land, and also of the subject of the payment of compensation on the public acquisition of land, and is due to such a decision to prevent the work of reconstruction after the war from being prejudiced.

The Committee was presided over by the Hon. Mr. Justice Utswatt, and in July 1941 submitted an Interim Report.

In the Final Report post-war reconstruction is viewed as the rebuilding of war-devastated areas combined with the completion of reconstruction that urgently need modernizing to meet present-day requirements. It is assumed that there will be national planning with a high degree of initiation and control by the Central Planning Authority, and that this national planning will be directed to ensuring that the best use is made of land with a view to securing economic efficiency for the community and well-being for the individual, and that it will be recognized that this involves the contribution to the public good of the personal interests and willingness of landowners.

Undeveloped Land, i.e., rural land, or land that is not built on. To secure its utilization to the best advantage the land has to be balanced against the various uses, including: (i) reservation for agriculture; (ii) reservation of open spaces, playing-fields, coastal areas, national parks, areas of scenic beauty, etc.; (iii) requirements of transportation, roads, railways, aerodromes; (iv) requirements of defence; (v) new building developments, including perhaps completely new centres of living. The most suitable land for the particular purpose must be selected, irrespective of the existing values which may attach to individual parcels of land. This will involve settlement from building of much land which, if unrestricted, would command a high price for development. Such action is practically impossible at present because of the liability placed on the local planning authority for acquiring all the land necessary for the re-arrangement of the land. Here the two facts must be borne in mind. (i) Potential development value created by the expectation of future development is spread over many acres of land which, in the near future or ever likely to be developed. It is a "floating value," whose value of settlement is impossible to erect; but it affects the compensation payable both as the public acquisition of undeveloped land and on the basis of compensation for restrictions on development of land, and plays a large part in the unwillingness of authorities to incur value for compensation. (ii) Wholly imposed planning control does not diminish the total sum of land values, but merely redistributes them—i.e., it gives rise to a "floating value." If land with potential development value is purchased by a local authority or is restricted against development or land manufactures, they should on the other hand be located in villages and should be encouraged. As a rule, industry should be encouraged first to make use of the open countryside sites in towns. The use of good agricultural land for building should be avoided whatever possible.

[But a Minority Report by Professor S. R. Davenport expressed the view that it should not be necessary that the countryside. In any case, it must be prevented in order to maintain agriculture or to preserve amenities; the introduction of industry into the countryside, under effective planning control, should be of considerable importance to rural communities, and some measure of it should be encouraged.]

Although there is no magic in a specified number of years—much that we have recommenced-can and should be completed within five years, and hence it is suggested that a definite five-year plan be formulated. This would be dependent upon the passing of the necessary legislation before the preparation of the plan, which should co-ordinate with the conscription of hostilities.

JUSTICE UTKWALL

compensation has to be paid for individual loss of land values which have not in fact been destroyed but which have only shifted to other land. In addition, in the case of large-scale developments, the aggregate of values 'floats' by individual owners when separately assessed, owing to the factor of 'floating value,' greatly exceeds the real loss of value of the elements taken as a group. On the other hand, the aggregate compensation cannot be collected in a single sum but will be paid in instalments, in respect of the shifting values because it is impossible to say with certainty whether, and to what extent, a given land value is attributable to a given use.

Developed Land, i.e., building land. Here the main requirement is (i) whelming of existing roads, elimination of bottlenecks, etc.; (ii) provision of open spaces; (iii) rebuilding of bombed areas, slums and overcrowded areas; (iv) rehousing of population displaced from bombed areas; (v) provision of amenities and cultural facilities—schools, libraries, cinemas, etc.; (vi) provision of industrial accommodation—shops, offices, factory sites, etc. Interference with existing users and buildings is much greater than in the case of undeveloped land, and the financial cost of compensation may well be enormous, since acquisition in developed areas involves payments not only for the land but for existing buildings which may have to be demolished and compensation to traders for disturbance to their premises.

In theory, compensation and betterment should balance each other. In practice they do not, and under the present system of land ownership it is not possible to devise any scheme for making them balance. If all the land in the countryside were in the ownership of a single landowner, there would be no necessity for paying compensation and collecting betterment on account of shifts in value due to planning works. But a policy of land nationalization is rejected because it is not one to be adopted at once and would impose too heavy social inconvenience. (d) it would involve financial operations which, in the immediate post-war period, might be entirely out of the question; and (iii) it would involve the establishment of complicated administrative machinery.

Short of complete nationalization, the only solution of the compensation-betterment problem is in regard to undeveloped land is that the rights of development thereby should be vested immediately in the State, on payment of compensation, such vesting to be secured by the grant of a provision against development otherwise than with the consent of the State, accompanied by the grant of compensation powers of acquiring the land itself when needed. As regards developed land its piecemeal transfer to public ownership, as is well required for planning and other purposes, would be less cumbersome a task than that involved in immediate wholesale nationalization. Powers of purchase, much wider and simpler in operation than under existing legislation, should be conferred on public authorities. A suitable levy should be made on turnover or financial value, with the object of securing such betterment for the community as and when it is realized, enjoyed or realizable.

[A number of subsidiary recommendations explain and amplify the above.]
Chapter 240

AIR WAR IN NORTH AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN, JULY TO DECEMBER, 1942

British air-land strategy in the last vital phase of the Libyan campaign took a new turn when the Allied Air Force became in effect an 'Army of the Air,' with fighter planes keeping ahead of our attacking ground forces. Air tactics in this and the Mediterranean theatre of the war are described by Captain Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., who in Chapter 254 reviews air operations in Western Europe and the Far East during the same period.

For the Royal Air Force and the air forces allied with it, the second half of 1942 was an extremely important period of the war. In North Africa the old method of air cooperation with the army in the field was ending and the new method of the combined operations of a well-knit land and air force had been entered upon. Tactical and strategic air forces were separated under different commanders, but both operated under the senior direction of an Air Chief Marshal acting in the closest collaboration with and conforming to the requirements of the Army Commander. For the Air Force and for the Army this was a new conception of things, but it was the direct result of the existence of a separate third Service of the Air, and this alone could have made it possible. Most astonishing results were to follow—a series of military victories which surpassed any ever achieved by the efforts of the army-tied Luftwaffe of Germany.

The midsummer of 1942 appeared depressing enough after the destruction of Britain's armoured forces at Alam el Halfa and Sidi Rezegh (see Chapter 224) by Rommel's concentrated guns, followed by retreat, the swift fall of Tobruk, and then the flight (for it was nothing else) back to El Alamein, some 30 miles west of Alexandria. The speed of the Eighth Army's withdrawal saved it from complete disaster. Rommel's men, following along the desert trail enveloped in dust, fell asleep and some even fell off their lorries as they slept. The German Afrika Korps was in no condition to fight when it reached the bottle-neck between the Qattara Depression and the sea. There it halted, a concentrated army, and an ideal target for air attack—a situation of which the R.A.F. was swift to take advantage. The tired German troops were shot up by day from the air and bombed by night. They got no rest.

That retreat was a salutary lesson, a bitter pill which contained an adequate dose of military medicine. The advance of the Eighth Army into Cyrenaica in the spring of 1942 was accompanied by numerical air superiority, yet it had failed. If air power were the key to victory in the field, clearly numerical air superiority alone was insufficient. What was the answer?

Mr. Churchill, who was in Washington consulting with President Roosevelt, hurried home by air and reached London on June 27, when the Germans were already east of Mersa Matruh. 8th Army Visits

Soon afterward he flew to Egypt, in a Liberators, by way of West Africa and Khartoum. There he went everywhere, saw everything, consulted the men on the spot. In the heat of the Egyptian midsummer he made a heroic figure, clad in a tropical white suit and white topee, with the inevitable cigar in mouth and a large elephant's-tail fly-whisk in his hand. The news-crews showed him lounging in a marquee hearing an R.A.F. officers' mess, sitting in the garden with the child of the British Ambassador to Egypt (Sir Miles Lampson), visiting the fighting troops, inspecting the Qattara Depression, regarding everything with critical eyes. (See illus., p. 2338.)

General Sir Claude Auchinleck gave place to General Sir H. R. L. G. Alexand- ander as C.-in-C. Middle East, while instead of General Ritchie (seceded in June) Lieut-General B. L. Montgomery was now Commander of the Eighth Army. Admiral Sir A. Cunningham remained Naval C.-in-C., and Air Chief Marshal Tedder Air C.-in-C., with Air Vice-Marshal Cunningham

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still in command of the Tactical Air Force, and Air Vice-Marshal Shattock in command of the Strategic Air Force in the Eastern Mediterranean. There began another race to determine which of the opposing armies would strike the first blow.

Rommel was close to the Nile delta and the Nile Valley, but his supply line was long, and the last part of it, running over the desert coastal road and railway, was singularly suitable for air attack.

Aircraft of the R.A.F., now pushed far into the basin of the eastern Mediterranean, found it difficult to interfere with enemy ships crossing the Sicilian Channel from Italy to North Africa, but they were at least well able to bomb and blast the nearer ports—Bardia, Tobruk, and Benghazí—and the toll of ships sunk within those harbours steadily rose. Malta, isolated once more, played a valiant part in the attacks on Axis shipping; convoys crossing the central Mediterranean. In order to do this, Malta had to receive material and food from outside. In June two convoys had set out for the island, one steaming west and the other east. A great air-sea action developed. Beaufighters from Malta, American-armed Liberators from North Africa, carrier-borne fighters and torpedo-bombers joined in the four-day struggle. The convoy from Gibraltar reached Malta. That from Alexandria failed to get beyond Tobruk. Ships were sunk and aircraft lost on both sides, but the stores that reached Malta were to prove a useful asset when, a fortnight later, the Eighth Army was back at El Alamein.

In July 1942 Rommel possessed strategic air superiority over the central Mediterranean, while the Eighth Army possessed tactical superiority over the battlefield. If the Allies were to defeat Rommel they must obtain a greater measure of strategic air power over the Mediterranean. Long-range aircraft were required for that purpose because of the geographical situation; therefore, in addition to the reinforcements of American long-range bombers, some of the long-range aircraft of Bomber Command were dispatched to the Mediterranean theatre.

The peculiar conditions of the desert war emphasised the importance of tanks as fighting vehicles. The second advance of the Imperial forces had been a tank struggle—a battle to destroy, on the part of each side, the other army's armour. If the lesson of the failure to get beyond Nettila was litten, and if the titanic tank battle at Sidi Rezegh was adjudged, there was reason to believe that other weapons were required. One of these new weapons was the "tank-buster." Hurricane, a special version of the principal victor in the Battle of Britain, strengthened in Bomber Command with two 40-millimetre cannon-guns mounted under each wing. Our air power in North Africa was increased to give us not merely superiority—it was in a ratio of about five to three in our favour when General Auchinleck attacked—but supremacy. This supremacy could not be obtained simply by the supply of aircraft. It had to be fought for, and to gain it meant that we had to destroy the air power of the enemy in North Africa.

The daily pounding of Rommel's forces in the air and on the ground began with 166 Spitfires and Hurricanes carrying out sweeps over the battle area at hourly intervals; on July 10 Allied fighters went over, wave after wave, for hours on end. A hundred and thirty bombers, escorted by 127 fighters, attacked enemy concentrations south-west of El Alamein; 75 Kittyhawk fighter-bombers attacked enemy transport on El Daba aerodrome; and at night 98 Wellingtons, Liberator, and Blenheim attacked motor transport in the El Daba area and shipping off Benghazi. (The Wellingtons, for mine-attacks, was fitted to carry torpedoes, and became as much a torpedo-bomber as a land bomber.) A South African Air Force Hurricane squadron, led by 28-year-old Major Le Mesurier (from Cape Town), met 14 Junkers-88 dive-bombers about to peel off into a dive on one of our positions at El Alamein; the South African pilots went in and crashed 13 Stukas and a Messerschmitt-109 within a few seconds.

Malta played her part in the battle for supremacy of the air; fighter pilots there shot down 18 aircraft (19 bombers) in the first 11 days of July and the gunners destroyed five more, for a loss of 21 fighter aircraft and 12 pilots. It was at this period that Air Vice-Marshal K. R. Park (knighthed November 24, 1942), who had commanded No. 11 Group of the R.A.F. in the Battle of Britain, took over command of Malta's air squadrons from Air Vice-Marshal H. P. Lloyd. In his order of the day, when relinquishing command, Lloyd disclosed that the enemy had been forced to provide battle-dress escort for their convoys owing to action from Malta base, and he continued: "We
destroyed and damaged so many aircraft that it weakened the German effort in Africa." (See illus., p. 2275.)

Malta, at that period, was of strategic importance, too. From its airfields Southern Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia were bombed. Our aircraft attacks upon Naples were made from Malta. The island's aerodromes were a steppingstone on the most direct air route from Britain to the Middle East.

But keeping Malta unoccupied after the retreat to El Alamein was a still more hazardous air-sea operation than before. The convoys had to pass through the 100-mile-wide Sicilian narrow with enemy airfields in Sicily, Tunisia, and Pantelleria threatening the critical zone, which lay outside the range of any of our shore-based aircraft. To counterbalance our deficiency in aircraft, large aircraft carriers were used to escort the convoys to Malta. One of these convoys was the convoy to Malta.

One of these air-sea battles began on August 11 and lasted for four days. H.M.S. "Eagle," one of several aircraft carriers in the escort, was sunk by a U-boat on the first day, and some of her fighter aircraft went down with her. Captain J. D. MacIntosh, D.S.O., had commanded the ship for barely six weeks; he was one of the fewest R.N. observers in the Fleet Air Arm in the days when almost all the pilots belonged to the R.A.F., and a carrier's flying deck, wardroom, and messroom were thronged with a mixture of light-blue and dark-blue uniforms.

About five hours after the "Eagle" sank the first air attack began upon the convoy, by a combined force of high-level bombers, torpedo-bombers, and Stuka dive-bombers. But these enemy aircraft which swarmed out from Sicily and Sardinia met the fighter defences of the convoy, launched from the decks of the remaining carriers. The fighting in the air over the narrow channel took place mostly out of sight of the ships, and attack after attack was smashed; those enemy aircraft which got through the fighter screen (and many did, for the number of aircraft which a carrier escort can put up is limited) were met by the terrific gunfire barrage of the escorting ships, including battleships. In the later stages of the action Beaufighters from Malta joined in, and when the ships steamed still nearer to the island the short-range shore-based fighters chimed in. Ships were sunk, and others damaged, but a sufficiently substantial reinforcement was carried through to Malta. During the whole operation fighters and guns destroyed at least 66 enemy aircraft; only eight British fighters were lost, and four pilots were saved from them. That convoy battle was a preliminary to the launching of the attack by the Eighth Army at El Alamein. Malta was an essential "fixed aircraft carrier" situated well forward in the Mediterranean, where its aircraft (and submarines) could refuel and rearm to operate against the Axis supply line and deplete the stores which Rommel's Afrika Korps so badly needed after its long, hard, and brutal campaign into Egypt.

The enemy tried to pound Malta into impotence. But the guns and the fighters on the island maintained a stubborn and successful defense. Army units on the island helped the Air Force to maintain its bombed aerodromes. Air Vice-Marshall Sir Hugh Lloyd (knighted on July 31) reported to Sir Archibald Sinclair: "But for the Army we should have been out of business. The aerodromes were in such a frightful state that the rollers had to be used continuously for 24 hours a day. We were dependent on the Army. The Army was magnificent."

Machinery and equipment were all put underground—fortunately an easy job in the soft limestone of the island; rollers were protected by blast-proof pens. (See illus., p. 2276.)

Meanwhile it was a race between General Alexander and Field-Marshal Rommel to be ready first on the battlefield—the battle of the El Alamein position between the sea and the Qattara Depression. Rommel attacked first, at 12.30 a.m. on August 31. The heavy bomber discovered Rommel's men to
R.A.F. IN EGYPTIAN OFFENSIVE

Close cooperation with the land forces was a feature of the Allied advance in the Western Desert. Enemy bases and concentrations were ceaselessly hammered, while our aircraft went before the advancing Eighth Army on flying artillery. 1. Hurricane II fighters setting out on one of countless sorties. 2. Devastation wrought by the R.A.F. at the Birna airfield. In order to increase Allied strategic air power over the Mediterranean, long-range aircraft of Bomber Command were sent to the Middle East in July. 3. Halifaxes from three squadrons that became famous for their regular strafing of Tobruk and Benghasi. 4. Stukas raid on Bir Hacheim forward positions near El Alamein.

LONG ORDEAL OF A MALTA CONVOY

On August 11, 1942, the enemy speeded up the air-sea assault on an Allied convoy bound for Malta, the heaviest fighting taking place in the air above the Sicilian 'narrow.' It was in this long-drawn battle that we lost the aircraft carrier 'Eagle' by submarine attack on the first day. Above, under a sky filled with bursts of anti-aircraft shells, the convoy steams on towards Malta.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

so that even the assumed value of the accurate aim of the Stuka proved to be a fallacy in practice because the Messerschmitts were beaten. The greater size of bombs was Britain's first answer to Rommel's superiority in sizes of guns and tanks, and it proved of greater worth, for the damage inflicted on the rear of the German front both before and during the attack was the main factor in deciding the issue and in bringing about the defeat of Rommel's attempt to break through the bottle-neck. The British attack at El Alamin

MUNITIONS TO THE FRONT; WOUNDED TO THE BASE

When the speed of Rommel's retreat in the desert put too great a strain on Montgomery's communications the R.A.F. brought up supplies to the front line, and then returned to the base with wounded personnel. Lockheed Hudson transport planes are here seen on a desert airfield, with an ambulance drawn up to transport the wounded further. This fine service saved many lives and much suffering.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright
ALL-IMPORTANT AIRFIELDS

Swiftly and efficiently the ground organization of the R.A.F. improvised airfields in the desert, so that our fighters could operate close behind the retreating enemy, who annihilated the landing grounds he was compelled to abandon. Top, spadework on a desert area in Tripolitania for the R.A.F.; below, destructive ploughing by the Germans; the tractor-plough was driven in concentric circles.

Photos, British Official: Crown Copyright

began on Oct. 23, 1942. It was preceded by a violent air barrage behind the German front-line positions, which continued day and night without intermission.

In addition to this, the fighters and fighter-bombers assailed the actual fighting zone and forced the German troops to keep under cover during the forward move of the enemy: infantry forces who were required to break the enemy front. There was no way round: it had to be a frontal attack; and it was in this initial operation that the ability to put a roof over the heads of our ground forces was to prove so valuable. Its success was due to the previous beating down of the Axis fighters by decisive fighting in the air and by heavy attacks upon their airfields. Thus aircraft, guns, and infantry battered the German defense lines, and our infantry got through after severe fighting. The German line broke, and Rommel began to go back. The Tactical Air Force then ranged ahead of the retreating German force, smashing its columns of vehicles along the coastal road, giving German and Italian troops no rest by day or by night, intercepting barges which attempted to bring up supplies to beaches, and interfering with the smooth organization of the Axis retreat.

Here began the new principle of the employment of air power, wedded by expert air commanders.
DAYLIGHT BOMBING OF LORIENT U-BOAT BASE

The air force of the Royal Air Force, working in close cooperation with ground forces, carried out the raid. The main target was the U-boat base at Lorient, from which German U-boats operated.
BEAUFIGHTERS MADE LITTER OF AXIS AIRCRAFT

Tunis aerodrome was packed with Axis air transports making German troops and arms into Tunisia to meet Anglo-American landings in Morocco and Algeria, when Beaufighters made a three night attack on November 17, 1942.

The photograph, taken the next day, shows five Ju-52 troop-carriers with the burnt-out remains of one Italian SM-61. Above the latter is another SM-61, with German markings.

Photo, British Official - Copies Copyright 2019
WHEN ROMMEL'S AFRICA CORPS, IN HEADLONG RETREAT, WAS CHECKED AT THE HALEFA-SOLLUM BOTTLE-NECK

Top left photograph (1) shows a typical road between Sollum Pass (at extreme left, beginning in barbed wire on the headland), and Halfaya Pass (near right-hand edge of picture). Halfaya is seen enlarged in (2), with a strong German garrison making its way to the top of the escarpment - men, trucks and abandoned; others, the snipers. A larger view of part of the road near Sollum, blocked with Axis troops, is illustrated in (3). The receding enemy was relentlessly harried by the Allied Air Forces. What came to be known as "shuttle" squadrons followed the Axis troops, every step of the way. In (4) look at the cost to Axis troops from R.A.F. advance knock. (See next p. 204, and inset, p. 206.)

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright
AIR 'UMBRELLA' FOR GREATEST INVASION ARMY

While the greatest armies in history carried an Anglo-American invading force to French North Africa in November 1942, the R.A.F. and U.S.A.F. maintained a huge protective air 'umbrella.' The aircraft flew more than 1,000,000 miles in 5,000 flying hours. Above, part of the great convoy photographed from a Coastal Command machine, with (inset) Air Vice-Marshal Douglas Colyer, in charge of the air operations.

Photo: British Official, Crown Copyright, Associated
back to El Alamein. But, as the Eighth Army, aided by air power, turned the tables on Rommel's German-Italian, the Allies' preparations proceeded apace to descend upon El Alamein. The programme as planned was too late to help the second Allied drive through Cyrenaica under Generals Auchinleck and Ritchie, and its date was perhaps too early to synchronize in complete harmony with the advance of the Eighth Army under Generals Alexander and Montgomery. But the initial plans could not be greatly altered as to timing without upsetting the highly complicated machinery of organization required for so vast an amphibious operation.

In order to provide cover for the huge convoy of some 500 transport vessels and 350 warships, Coastal Command flew more than a million miles (in 8,000 flying hours) in just over three weeks, waging a fierce war against the submarines and their air auxiliaries, nowhere more effectively than over the Bay of Biscay. U.S. Army Air Force bombers attacked the submarine bases at St. Nazaire and Lorient. The writer saw some of the Fortress bombers go over on this mission, flying high in tight formation of their own peculiar pattern, with each engine of almost every bomber forming its own vapour trail behind the wings; the impression was that of a great battle fleet at sea, ploughing through blue water with white foam splashing astern. It is when they fly high that the first speed of the Fortresses becomes noticeable, for it is only then that their turbo-superchargers are working to capacity. (Owing to the less dense atmosphere the supercharger then has to supply a greater volume of air to the engines.)

Bomber Command pounded Genoa (main supply port out of Germany and occupied France for the Axis forces in North Africa) in the night following October 23; and again attacked this port, and Savona (near by port), and Turin in the night following October 25—the night when the Eighth Army attacked at El Alamein. On the following day and the succeeding night Bomber Command attacked Milan. Throughout the whole month of October air action in the Mediterranean was intensified. United States air units played a considerable part in this activity. (From February to October 1942 inclusive 1,600 aeroplanes were shipped from America to Egypt.) Benghazi, Tobruk, Sollum, and other enemy bases were attacked, some by day and night. Forward enemy aerodromes in the Fuka region were plastered. The enemy seaplane base at El Alamein was attacked on October 6. The aerodrome at Tymbaki in Crete was raided by heavy bombers in the night following October 10. During the month Malta destroyed 138 enemy aircraft, and resisted many air assaults.

Fierce fighting by infantry, pounding by guns, threats by tanks, and unrelenting bomb, shell, and machine-gun fire from aircraft were maintained upon the enemy positions in the Western Desert. Despite the strength of their positions the Axis forces were unable to withstand the merciless battering from land forces, from the air above them, and, occasionally, the shelling from the sea that brought incendiary fire to bear upon them.

and at the beginning of November the general retreat began. The Axis air force was beaten down remorselessly, and pinned almost to the ground, where it was systematically destroyed. There was no security for it anywhere.

Genoa was again pounded by Bomber Command during the nights following November 6 and 7; only six bombers were lost in the two operations. The enemy in the desert was then facing west of El Daba towards Sidi Barrani. Before daylight on November 8 United States army, navy, and air forces, supported by units of the British navy and air force, landed in the neighbourhood of Casablanca (Morocco) and in Algeria. The aerodromes of Rabat and
AFTER PARACHUTE TROOPS TOOK MAISON-BLANCHE

From aircraft which took off at English airfields on November 10, 1942, and reached their objective in Algeria next day, our parachute troops (mostly British) dropped down to the vital strategic airfield of Maison-Blanche, Algiers, and captured it. Above is the scene a few hours later. Right, facing the camera, Air Marshal Sir William Welsh, K.C.B., commanding the R.A.F. in North Africa.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright; Associated Press

the evening before the landing of the troops. The force for the coup had been prepared for some time, but there was the force to fight if negotiations with the French had failed. For North Africa to be in the possession of the United Nations as a base was an essential preliminary to the main attack upon the Axis.

In no respect was France's co-operation, or at least absence of resistance, more important than in the matter of aerodromes where shore-based aircraft could be based. American landings at Oran on November 8 were supported by Fleet Air Arm aircraft which bombarded and machine-gunned aerodromes. More parachute troops, mostly British, left England on November 10 and landed at Maastricht-Blanche, Algiers, aerodrome next day. Spitfires and Hurricanes were already operating from the Algiers aerodrome; on November 12 the parachute troops took off and dropped to the attack of Bône aerodrome, which they captured.

Thus, while General Anderson's British First Army marched eastward towards Tunisia, parachute troops of the United Nations were dropped ahead of the Allied advance. The German airborne troops which had been dropped into Tunisia as soon as the news of the Allied blow became known, by November 11 Axis fighters and dive-bombers were at the Tunis and Bizerta airfields. An airborne division was landing German 12-ton tanks. Air transports were bringing men and supplies across the 100-mile-wide Sicilian narrow front, followed by transport vessels. The R.A.F. opened its air bombardment of Tunis airport and seaport. Bomber Command attacked the Fiat works in Tunis in the nights following November 18 and 20 without loss.

German raids against Britain came almost to a standstill. Allied air pressure against German and Italian war zones and home industries was new compelling the Axis air forces to conform to its efforts. Initiative in the air was passing from the Luftwaffe and Regia Aeronautica to the Royal Air Force and American Army Air Forces.

The British First Army advanced rapidly into Tunisia and reached Gafsa (23 miles south-west of Bizerta) and Tabarka (20 miles west of Tunis). There they came under concentrated fighter and bomber attack from Axis aircraft operating at close range from El Alamein (Tunisia) and Sidi Aliouine (Bizerta) airfields. The nearest Allied airfield was Bône, 120 miles from Bizerta and 156 miles from Tunis. The Allied fighting front was almost beyond the effective range of Spitfires based on Bône, which were unable to stay over the battlefield for more than a few minutes in each sortie. This enabled German Stuka dive-bombers to operate with almost immunity, and that, coupled with German infantry and tank threats, forced a retirement of the British advanced troops. Swift was the descent upon Algeria, and rapid was the subsequent advance into Tunisia; the German short communication lines across the Mediterranean and narrow Cassino roads enabled the enemy to deploy air power into Tunisia speedily as his primary measure, and to do it with success.

The First Army was to learn the lesson which the Eighth Army had already learned—that the application of air power to the decisive points is essential in modern war. Longer-range Lightning fighters were brought into action and helped the First Army in its battles with the bombers, but it was evident that no positive conclusion could be reached in Tunisia until the Eighth Army was brought through from Tripolitania (which it was then about to enter) to provide the adequate air support which the mountainous nature of the country occupied by the First Army precluded, because it was difficult to construct airfields therein. For the moment the Anglo-American thrust into Tunisia became a stalemate, but one destined, nevertheless, to develop soon into a decisive victory. Gradually small airfields were scratched out of any level patches in the mountainous country behind the British First Army, and from them Spitfires and Lightnings began to operate and so were able to provide a substantially better margin of air cover than had previously been possible. Enemy counter-attacks were easier to resist.

In the Western Desert war the Eighth Army occupied Beqhan on November 20, 1942, and with this advance in British hands the strain of the long communication line along the desert road and through small ports was lessened. The enemy was forced out of Jedahin by a concentration of air power which enabled our ground forces to advance with but slight pressure, and Rommel's forces retreated to El Alamein. Meanwhile the strategic air force was engaged in the bombardment of Tunis, Tripoli and Bizerta ports and airfields.

For the time it was the number to the north Bomber Command attacked Tunis in the night following November 29, using an 8,000-lb. bomb on Italy for the first time. The enemy counter-raid Bône and Algiers. When Rommel halted at El Alamein
the R.A.F. and Allied air forces began to bomb, cannon-shell and machine-gun the areas behind the bottle-neck defenses. The principal target was "Marble Arch"—a desert landing-ground 40 miles behind the enemy front. The attack was so continuous and merciless that the Luftwaffe was forced to pull out and retire 50 miles to Nofilia airfield. Their distance from the fighting zone then left the German advanced forces at the mercy of the R.A.F. and their comrades. The Germans were pounded until their position became untenable, and before the Eighth Army ground forces had done more than probe the position, Rommel packed up and fled in the darkness of the night following December 12.

The fleeing columns were attacked by air and got no rest. Then the air attack concentrated on Nofilia, and by December 18, 1942, that place was evacuated by the Axis. The synchronization of air and land forces was now at its zenith in the desert war. No sooner was Rommel forced out of one place because it became untenable on account of air bombardment and fire power than the Army pushed the last remnants of his forces farther on and prepared new airfields, or repaired existing but damaged airfields, for the use of British aircraft still nearer to the goal—Tunisia. The airfield engineers became as important an organization in the Army as any unit.

Fighters were kept ahead of the Army to play their part of modern cavalry, and the way was cleared for tactical bombers to move up close so that the maximum weight of bombs could be brought to bear upon the enemy fighting units and their immediate rear. Efficient and speedy communication was essential, and mobile radio and land lines played a large part in the necessary contacts with the army and air units concerned; the elaborate air operations rooms and standard conditions gave place to more primitive, but more flexible methods suited to the conditions of the desert war. The Air Forces were as mobile as the Army, perhaps more mobile, and by their great mobility gave to the Army the protection of a devastating overhead fire-power that crushed the enemy and knocked him (often literally) senseless.

Thus the Army gained freedom of movement and safety of organization while the enemy was confronted disintegrated into something that often approached a leaderless shambles. That was the contribution to military science which General Montgomery—a profound believer in air power—and Air Vice Marshal Coningham made by their co-operation in that desert war, and into which General Alexander and Air Chief Marshal Tedder skillfully wove the strategic organization of the Mediterranean and played an important part in the isolation of the combat zone, which, by the end of the year, reached from the mountains of Tunisia facing the coastal plain to the Wadi Ber el Kebir on the borders of Tripolitania, while General Leclerc's forces from Chad had advanced and bombed the enemy aerodrome at Sebha (north-east of Murzuk) in their northerly drive towards the Allied forces closing their flanks on the southern littoral of the Mediterranean Sea.

Operating from airfields on Malta, Wellington bombers dropped 4,000-lb bombs on Tunis port; Fleet Air Arm Albacore torpedo-bombers sank two ships off Sicily and bombed Sicilian aerodromes. So came to a close in North Africa the year 1942, with the Axis threat to Egypt utterly removed and the way prepared for the final expulsion of the Axis from African soil.
Red Navy Helped to Defend Three Soviet Cities

In the Barents, Baltic and Black Seas and on the River Volga the Red Navy was very active in the latter half of 1942. For their final assault on Sevastopol the enemy transported torpedoes of armed speed-boats by land [1] from the Adriatic to Odessa. The Soviet Black Sea Fleet shelled German positions [2], but the German naval base fell on July 3. The Baltic Fleet participated in the defense of Leningrad, while the Northern Fleet, aided by coastal batteries—one is shown [4] guarded by a sentry—kept open the Arctic supply route. The Fleet's most spectacular achievement, the torpedoing of the 'Triplaz,' was carried out by the submarine commanded by Capt. Nekrasov Lumin [5]. Gunboats and marines of the Volga Flotilla [5 and 6] gave vital help to the defense of Stalingrad.

Photos: Tropikal Press / Planet News / Pictorial Press
DARK DAYS FOR ALLIES IN THE SEA WAR

On the sea alone did the enemy maintain the initiative in the second half of 1942. The relief of Malta and the convoying of supplies to Russia involved serious losses to the Royal Navy. In the Pacific two costly battles were fought. However, the successful Allied landings in North Africa and the torpedoing of the "Teplitz" partly redressed the balance.

The second half of the year 1942 was of great importance at sea all over the world, although main interest was in the Mediterranean at the beginning and end of the period, which covered what was confidently regarded as a turning point.

The Germans were scoring further successes in the Black Sea. Sevastopol, being evacuated on July 3, and the enemy's occupation of successive naval bases, continued, despite stiff resistance and many successes against seaborne communications. Vice-Admiral Oktyabrsky (see illus., p. 225) was in charge of the naval defence of Sevastopol. In his own account, he says that the first German offensive, in October 1941, and the second, in December, were repelled with the help of heavy shelling from Russian warships. During the third and last German offensive (June-July, 1942) the Black Sea Fleet was compelled to take a lesser part, owing to the lack of airfields from which Soviet fighters could operate to protect the ships. Nevertheless, at the most critical moments of the assault Soviet cruisers and destroyers steamed into Sevastopol Bay and hurled a tornado of fire at the German, at the same time fighting off attacks by enemy bombers and torpedo-carrying aircraft. Fifteen to 20 enemy attacks per day had to be repelled. Marines and Naval artillerymen manned coastal batteries and fortress guns and rendered invaluable help to the Red Army in many land actions.

At the other end of the long battle from the Baltic Fleet took its part in the defence of Leningrad; it had begun active operations on the first day of war. After the fall of Sevastopol the Germans brought up some of the heavy siege artillery which had battered the southern stronghold. One of these guns was located by Naval gunners in October 1942 soon after it opened fire, and was destroyed. The enemy moved the others back into safety. Russian submarines sank enemy transports and tankers; the "Osipov" torpedoed five transports on a single cruise. In the Novo sector and other parts of the perimeter Soviet marines fought along destroying tankers and infantry concentrations. Marines of the Flotilla fought also in the city itself.

One of the most brilliant exploits of the Northern Fleet was the torpedoing of the German battleship "Teplitz" on July 5, 1942. The Soviet submarine was commanded by Nikolai Lumin, who had become famous for his daring and was credited by this time with sinking 50,000 tons of enemy shipping. In the course of a routine patrol in the Barents Sea, which Russian sailors call the "storm kitchen," the submarine spotted a large smoke cloud, and submerged. Through the periscope cloud was seen to grow larger, and presently the silhouettes of a whole enemy squadron were discerned—eight destroyers, three heavy cruisers and the "Teplitz". Lumin decided to break through the destroyer line, rose to periscope depth and fired point-blank at the big battleship. The submarine submerged to 120 feet and waited while the destroyers passed overhead. Then, rising to 30 feet, Lumin saw the grey mass of the battleship immediately in front. He gave the order to fire the fore tubes, and heard the impact of the two torpedoes against the ship's side, followed by the deafening explosions. When he rose cautiously to periscope depth, some time later, the damaged battleship was moving off, closely battered by her escort.

The enemy squadron was out to intercept a big Allied convoy due to pass that way to an Arctic port. Much of the work of the Northern Fleet was the protection of convoys and the hunting down of enemy raiders. On one occasion an enemy mine became entangled with the paraflue of a Soviet cruiser of the Northern Fleet. Escorting
RESCUE OF SURVIVORS OF H.M.S. 'EAGLE'

One of Britain's oldest aircraft carriers, H.M.S. 'Eagle' was torpedoed and sunk while escorting a convoy to beleaguered Malta on August 21, 1942. Of her complement of 780 officers and men, 637 were saved, including her commander, Capt. D. Mackintosh, D.S.C., R.N. Above, some of the survivors being taken aboard another warship in the convoy, having swum through floating wreckage. H.M.S. 'Eagle,' completed in 1924, accommodated 22 aircraft.

Photo, Tropical Press

the warship was a submarine chaser commanded by Captain Spiridonov. The cruiser slackened speed to rid itself of the mine, and at that moment a U-boat fired two torpedoes. Spiridonov brought his ship between the torpedoes and the cruiser. The submarine chaser was hit on the starboard side and split in two, but the cruiser was saved. Spiridonov was blown into the sea but was picked up. In 16 months his formation of submarine chasers sank five enemy warships and transports and two submarines.

In the Mediterranean the prospects of the Allies were certainly grim indeed at the beginning of July 1942. The position of Malta was precarious, the enemy was on the border of Egypt and the direct Mediterranean route for Malta was still barred to British shipping. Although incessant air attacks on Malta had reduced its efficiency in worrying the Axis North African supply line, the island was still of immense importance and its loss would have been a disaster. It was increasingly difficult to get supplies through, and more than one convoy had been turned back. By the middle of July the island was almost on its last legs, although the hearts of the defenders were still stout, and it was imperative that supplies should be forced through. Attempts from the east had been frustrated by the main Italian fleet, but a big convoy of fast ships was collected to make the attempt from the west. The Naval escort under Vice-Admiral E. N. Syfret consisted of battleships, cruisers and destroyers; unfortunately H.M.S. "Eagle" was the only aircraft carrier available to provide the necessary umbrella. The attacks started on August 11 by aircraft, submarines and E-boats, and the first disaster was the sinking of H.M.S. "Eagle" by an enemy submarine. There was consequently practically no air cover through the dangerous Sicilian Narrows until convoy and escort came within range of the fighter planes from Malta, which were short of petrol, and there were heavy casualties among merchant ships in the Cape Bon area. H.M. cruiser "Manchester" was damaged and subsequently sank, while the anti-aircraft cruiser "Cairo" and the destroyer "Foresight" were so badly damaged that they were sunk by their own people to avoid delaying the convoy. In spite of losses a heavy toll of the enemy was taken—submarines, E-boats and planes—and sufficient ships got through to assure the continuance of Malta's defence. Special credit was given to the chartered American tanker "Ohio," with a British crew, carrying invaluable high-octane motor spirit. Repeatedly hit by bombs and badly damaged by a torpedo, she carried on with naval assistance and finally made port, for which Captain Mason was awarded the George Cross and Lloyd's War Medal. Later other convoys got through, and by Christmas 1942 sufficient reinforcements, stores and munitions had been landed to keep the island safe for a long period.

The Axis supply route to North Africa was constantly attacked by submarines, while the R.A.F. bombed enemy bases; although these attacks greatly hampered the service they did not stop it. On September 13 a large-scale Commando raid was made on Tobruk. Tebruk intended to spoil the port as a supply base; a hit in timing marred the success of the operation, and it cost the Navy the Tribal destroyers "Zulu" and "Sikh." Landings barges carrying a force of Marines from these ships were swept by searchlight from the shore as they made their way in, and came under very heavy fire. There were many casualties and the planned landing place could not be reached. Despite this disaster, and aware that he could not hope for reinforcements, Major J. N. Hedley, R.M., who was in command, pushed on with his remaining men and at the point of the bayonet destroyed a number of machine-gun posts and cleared a tented camp. With a grenade he personally destroyed an enemy machine-gunn crew mounted on a lorry and shot five Italians in a prepared position with his revolver. Radio contact with British forces proved impossible, and when he had to surrender next day Major Hedley had only 16 men left. He and C. N. F. Powell were both awarded the D.S.O.

When the Eighth Army commenced its real advance in October 1943 the Navy dealt with Axis positions within reach of the coast when the enemy made his final stand in the West the concentration of Axis supply lines on one or two ports gave our submarines
and aircraft more advantageous targets, and the number of their victims increased rapidly. In the later stages in Tunisia the U.S. Navy afforded considerable assistance, and even before that the famous aircraft carrier "Wasp" had harried numbers of fighter planes to within flying distance of Malta.

In view of such heavy shipping losses the reopening of the Mediterranean route was of great importance, for the Cape route was untroubled in both tonnage and fuel. The direct route from London to Alexandria was 3,104 miles, but the journey round the Cape was nearly 11,000 miles, subject to attack most of the way. The Cape route involved long convey delays, often at ports where conditions increased the fouling of the ships very rapidly, reducing speed and adding to fuel consumption.

In the South Atlantic Brazil’s declaration of war on August 23 facilitated defense by the use of her airfields and naval bases, while Brazilian airmen and the small fleet took an enthusiastic part in the protective patrol. On the East African side many ships were being sunk, and protective measures had started with the occupation of Diego Suárez in Madagascar in May (see Chapter 225). Mayotte Island in the Mozambique Channel was occupied early in July, but continued sinkings were a serious matter for the Russian supply route through the Persian Gulf and our own to the Middle East. In September successful steps were taken to occupy the whole of Madagascar. The Navy’s part in these was invaluably, but not very spectacular. Perfect organization and timing were rewarded, but there was only one short and sharp bombardment at Tamatave, after Vichy forces had machine-gunned the flag of truce. The Fleet also had to hunt submarines, watch for an advance by the Japanese navy, and prevent blockade-runners getting through to Europe with badly needed supplies for the Axis from the Japanese-occupied territories.

In the Pacific both sides needed a breathing space; the Japanese were held up by lack of tonnage to maintain their lines of communication and to take home the loot of the conquered territories. The Midway Island repulse in June had been a great shock to them. Their supply convoys were constantly attacked by every means, and many merchant ships and escorts were sunk. The activities of submarines all along the supply route also diverted many Japanese warships to convoy duties.

The menace to Allied communications with Australia was also serious, and to remove it the American-Australian offensive in the Solomons was started on August 7. U.S. Marines landed at Guadalcanal, covered by an Allied Naval force, and next day intensive

THREE TIMES TORPEDOED: U.S.S. "WASP" ABLAZE

Completed only in December, 1939, at a cost of $1 million dollars, the 14,790-ton U.S. aircraft carrier "Wasp" met its end on September 15, 1942, while escorting supply ships to Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands. Three Japanese torpedoes turned the magnificent vessel into a blazing inferno. It was revealed on July 1, 1942, that the "Wasp" had recently ferried aircraft reinforcements to Malta. On one occasion R.A.F. fighters took off from "Wasp" and went straight into action with an enemy air fleet which was harassing the "George Cross" island.

Photo: Naval News
MEN OF H.M.S. "PORPOISE" SUBMARINE FREIGHTER

First British submarine to carry a cargo of petrol and conduct a mine-laying operation during her passage was the 1,500-ton H.M.S. "Porpoise." During 14 months' service in the Mediterranean, 1944-45, under the command of Lt. W. A. Beresinings, D.S.O., D.S.C., R.N., she made several supply trips to Malta, laden with aviation spirit and ammunition for the Fleet Air Arm and the R.A.F. These trips were recorded by white bars on her very own "P.C.S." ("Porpoise Carrier Service") flag, above. *Kills* are recorded on her Jolly Roger flag.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright

Japanese air attacks on the transport fleet were generally unsuccessful. At night a naval action developed which lasted several days, the losses consisting principally of cruisers and destroyers. Finally the Japanese claimed to have sunk 11 cruisers, 6 destroyers and 10 transports, mainly by "suicide" torpedoes: the Allied admission was H.M. Australian cruiser "Caucausa" and the American "Quincy," "Vincent," and "Astoria" sunk, as well as torpedo craft damaged. The Japanese forces were compelled to retreat, but there was considerable American criticism of the fighting, and Vice-Admiral Ghurley was relieved by Vice-Admiral William F. Halsey. (See illus., p. 2314.)

On October 11 a smart cruiser and destroyer action resulted in considerable Japanese losses, and on the 20th the Japanese launched an unsuccessful combined attack on the American positions at Guadalcanal. The Japanese reported that they had sunk one battleship and four aircraft carriers and damaged many others, while sustaining slight damage to two aircraft carriers and one cruiser. The published American losses were the destroyer "Porter" and the famous aircraft carrier "Hornet," from which Doolittle's squadron had flown to bomb Tokyo in April—sink by aircraft, and a fleet tug and small harbor patrol vessel sunk near Tulagi.

Another naval action lasted from November 12 to 14, when a considerable Japanese fleet attempted to cover landings in Guadalcanal and Tulagi. The first action was at short range at night, when the Americans intercepted two capital ships of the "Kongo" class apparently intended for the preliminary bombardment. The Japanese were forced to withdraw to the north. The American cruisers "Atlanta" and "Juneau" were sunk, with seven destroyers; but while the Japanese admitted one battleship, one cruiser and three destroyers sunk, with 47 of their planes brought down, the Americans claimed three heavy and two light cruisers, five destroyers and 12 transports. The absence of Japanese aircraft carriers was noted; in this type they had suffered severely, and had been making up the deficiency by the use of converted liners—quite unsuitable for fleet actions at high speed. On Nov. 30 an action off Lunga resulted in the U.S.S. "Northampton" being sunk. Again the Japanese conceded their losses, but they abandoned the venture on which they had been engaged.

In the New Guinea area the Japanese used their warships as high-speed transports and suffered considerable casualties, the all-important Allied base at Port Moresby being preserved against all attack. On December 20 carrier-based British planes successfully attacked the Japanese base at Salamaua (Salamaua), and caused a diversion.

In the Aleutian islands American operations were severely hampered by constant fogs, which also prevented the Japanese from making any great use of their positions, although no opportunity was wasted of harassing enemy communications by aircraft and submarines.

SOLICITOR WHO BECAME A NAVAL HERO

Lieut-Commander R. P. Hunter, D.S.O. and bar, D.S.C. and two bars, R.N.V.R., who was a solicitor before the war, became one of the most renowned commanders of British light coastal forces. He is shown above giving instructions to officers of his flotilla, some time in 1942, before an operation in the "E-boats" Alley, which our "little ships" had swept practically clear of enemy mines by the end of the year.

Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright
Several destroyers, which formed the backbone of the Japanese naval forces in those waters, were sunk. In October the Americans crept forward, lying down the Japanese to the Kiska area.

In home waters there were long periods of boring routine for the big ships, which had to be kept ready to deal with the German armoured squadron in Norwegian waters close to the North Russian route. The light coastal forces, principally motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats, found steadily increasing opportunity, of which they took full advantage. The great strengthening of the British flotillas, and the steady flow of well-trained personnel "from under the lamp-posts" showed excellent results, and the initiative passed almost entirely to our forces, with constant attacks on German sea communications, alone or in conjunction with aircraft. The carefully planned co-operation between the motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats was particularly successful. They pinned the German light forces more and more to their own coasts in order to defend their convoys, greatly relieving pressure on British convoys up the east coast and practically clearing "E-boat Alley" of its old dangers. Lieutenant-Commander R. P. Hoehn, D.S.O. and bar, D.S.C. and two bars, R.N.V.R., a solicitor-yachtsman who had joined the branch in 1940, became a popular hero.

The light coastal forces also took a very important part in the raid on Dieppe on August 19, whose object was partly to do material damage, partly to test the German defences, partly to obtain experience in invasion work, and partly to tie down German forces in view of important operations planned in other areas. The Navy's part in this operation was important, and the losses were extraordinarily light. It supplied all the landing craft, eight destroyers (including one Polish), a river gunboat, a seaplane, minesweepers and numerous motor torpedo-boats and motor gunboats manned from the entire Empire. An unlucky encounter with an enemy convoy gave premature warning and caused delay. Our destroyers and gunboats bombarded the German batteries and positions and covered the landing and withdrawal; the only important vessel lost was the destroyer "Berkeley."

There were a number of important attacks on our supply convoys to Northern Russia. No convoy ever expected to get through without being attacked, and many cases were not even mentioned. Some attacks were really serious, with the constant danger of the big ships coming out to overwhelm all but the heaviest escort. In addition to their bombs and torpedoes, enemy aircraft dropped mines ahead of the convoy and attempted to drive it towards them. Three important cases deserve record. On July 2 a convoy was attacked by aircraft and submarines between the North Cape and Spitzbergens. Berlin claimed that out of 33 merchant ships and a powerful escort they had sunk 32 and an American cruiser, but Moscow positively stated that the bulk of the convoy had got through after being attacked by the "Tirpitz" and big surface ships, which had in turn been attacked by a Russian submarine which (as mentioned earlier in this Chapter) scored two hits. On September 9 a big convoy under Rear-Admiral E. K. Boadlam-Wetham,
With an escort under Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett—flying his flag in H.M.S. "Scylla"—was sighted by enemy aircraft and submarines. The latter attacked and one was damaged. Three days later the U-boat attack was resumed by wolf-pack methods and, on the 13th it was again renewed, combined with aircraft. This attack continued until the convoy reached its destination—with about 30 per cent of its ships sunk. The British carrierborne planes did excellent work in this action; it was the German's first experience of Fleet Air Arm Hurricanes on convoy work, and after the first day they concentrated many attacks on the carrier, without success. Having delivered its charge, the escort took over a homeward convoy and was heavily attacked by submarines. H.M. Destroyer "Somali" was torpedoed, and eventually broke her back and sank after being towed for more than three days in bad weather. H.M. minesweeper "Leda" was also sunk.

The other occasion was on the last day of the year, when some of the big German ships came out to attack a convoy off the Norwegian coast. The escorting destroyers were under Captain R. St. V. Sherbrooke in H.M.S. "Onslow," and in spite of the fact that the enemy force, so far as could be made out in semi-darkness, consisted of a 10,000-ton pocket battleship, a cruiser and several destroyers, he immediately attacked and succeeded in repelling four enemy attempts on his charge. Heavier British ships then arrived and the Germans broke off the attack, but H.M. Destroyer "Aden" was sunk and the "Onslow" damaged. The Germans admitted having lost a destroyer, but the convoy, whose munitions were very badly needed at the time, got through unscathed. Captain Sherbrooke was badly wounded and lost an eye; he was awarded the V.C. for his gallantry. (See Illus., p. 2396.)

Operations against submarines by surface craft and aircraft in cooperation continued all through the period, and even the Germans admitted that the British counter-measures were proving more and more successful and making attack very much more difficult. In November a very important and very satisfactory phase of the war started with the decisive defeat of the enemy in Egypt, Libya, and Cyrenaica; the Allied landing in North Africa, and the start of the Russian offensive. The landings in French North and North-west Africa started on November 8, and in spite of the fact that they involved no fewer than 300 transports, escorted by over 300 men-of-war, secrecy was maintained right down to the actual event, although the enemy naturally knew that large-scale operations were being planned somewhere.

Three separate forces were engaged. One sailed from the United States and was entirely American; another from Casablanca, destined for Casablanca and French Morocco. The other two sailed from Britain and were mixed British and American, one destined to attack Oran and the other Algiers. Merchant ships of all the Allies were included, and the escort was composed of British, American, Canadian, Polish, Dutch and Norwegian warships with a full quota of aircraft carriers working in cooperation with the R.A.F. Admiral Sir Andrew Cunningham was the Naval Commander-in-Chief.

The stiffest resistance shown by the Vichy forces was at Casablanca, where the battleship "Jean Bart" put up a vigorous defence until she was set on fire. Both Oran and Algiers were defended by stout forts, which had to be broken in face of a very heavy fire from shore batteries before the transports and landing craft could get in. At Algiers the destroyers "Broke" and "Martin" were sacrificed on this job; as Oran the former U.S. Coast Guard cutters "Wallace" and "Hartland." Other losses were the corvette "Gardner," the depot ship "Heda," the sloop "Ibis," the anti-aircraft escort ship "Tynwald"—normally an Isle of Man excursion steamer—the auxiliary aircraft carrier "Avenger," and the Dutch...
These convoys were constantly attacked by all arms: on December 2 light forces under Rear-Admiral C. H. J. Harcourt, consisting of three cruisers and two big destroyers, caught an Italian convoy and sank two of the escorting destroyers and four supply ships without casualty or damage, although the destroyer "Quentin" was hit and sunk by aircraft on the way home. Admiralty reports of supply ships sunk by submarines were issued every few days.

On November 11, three days after the Allied landing in North Africa, German and Italian forces invaded unoccupied France for the purpose of defending Southern France and Corsica from imminent Allied attack. This immediately stiffened French feeling. From Algiers Admiral Darlan appealed by broadcast to the French fleet at Toulon to cross the Mediterranean. On November 12 Germany gave a definite undertaking to Vichy that Toulon would not be occupied, but despite this German troops entered the Toulon area on the 27th, their pretext being that the fleet was about to escape. Admiral de la Burde, the Commander-in-Chief, had already taken steps in anticipation of a German breach of faith, and before German motorized forces could reach the harbour practically all the ships were scuttled. The modern battleships "Strafburg" and "Dunkerque," the old battleships "Provence" and "Condorcet" with an aircraft carrier, seven cruisers, 28 torpedo craft and 19 submarines were sunk with explosives. Although they were in shallow water, salvage was in most cases impossible. Four submarines escaped to join the Fighting French in North Africa, but a fifth was sunk by a mine dropped in her path by a German plane.

The year ended with Allied prospects at sea better than at any time since the fall of France. Losses had been heavy to all, but the Allies' superiority was growing rapidly and the operational successes in Europe were all working slowly towards the great naval task of beating the Japanese in the Pacific. Among the additions to the United Nations' strength in capital ships was the "Richelieu," the new 35,000-ton French battleship which had been transferred uncompleted to Dakar from Brest in June 1940. She left Dakar at the end of January 1943, and reached New York early in February. In the ensuing months work upon her was completed, and on November 6, 1943, it was announced that she was again in service with the Allied fleets.

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**SUICIDE** DIVE-BOMBER ENDED THE **HORNET**

The severest American loss in the great battle in the Solomons which raged for several days in October 1942 was the aircraft carrier "Hornet." An attack by Japanese dive-bombers (below) culminated in one of the planes (near top centre in this picture) crashing into her, signal bridge 0186. Though she escaped sinking, the "Hornet" was so badly damaged that she had to be sunk off the Santa Cruz (Solomons) Islands on October 26, 1942.

*Photo, Associated Press*
"OHIO, THE SHIP THAT WOULD NOT GIVE IN"

"Dogged perseverance against all odds" was an eye-witness description of the achievement of the 10,000-ton American tanker "Ohio," which reached Malta (5) from Gibraltar in the critical days of August 1942 though torpedoed, dive-bombed and set afire (1) by a Stuka crashing on her deck. Her skipper, Capt. D. W. Mason (2), was awarded the George Cross for his skill and courage, while the D.S.O. was awarded to three other merchantmen skippers in the convoy: Capt. R. Wren (3)—shown talking to Rear-Adm. H. M. Burrough who commanded the light forces and close support, Capt. D. R. MacFarlane (4), and Capt. F. H. Riley.
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ALLIED MERCHANT SHIPPING LOSSES REACH THEIR PEAK

In July, 1942 enemy sinkings of Allied merchant shipping attained their highest level since 1939. There was little improvement at the end of the year. Against increasing odds convoys fought their way through to Malta and Russia; in the Atlantic the U-boat menace remained. The work of the men of the Red Ensign makes a glorious chapter in the history of the war at sea.

The main battleground of the war on United Nations' shipping during 1942 was the North Atlantic, but after Japan and America entered the struggle in December 1941 no waters were "safe" for Allied seamen. Few other sections of the community knew, as seamen did, what it was to remain, month after month, from one year to another, in the front line of fighting. That was, perhaps, the chief peculiarity of the Merchant Navy's contribution. Some seamen and some ships crossed and recrossed the Atlantic Ocean many times without sighting a submarine—"without incident." In some circumstances, however, a constant threat of violent action, to come, like the sudden spring from underground, of an angry beast, makes mere survival an achievement more demanding of courage than the fiercest struggle foreseen or fought. Seamen were involved in both kinds of warfare; there were subsidiary "battlegrounds" on which action could be foreseen without shadow of doubt, and action of a violence and intensity seldom experienced on the main front of the sea war.

Throughout 1942 the Mediterranean and North Russian convoys were faced by the sea and air power of the enemy, but they had to sail past the most favourably placed enemy bases. No effort was spared to prevent their passage and by sheer force to bring about two major defeats. The prize was beyond price for the German, for the Italian role was a minor one. If Malta could be starved into submission, by cutting off the island from supplies of food and military equipment, the situation in the Mediterranean would be transformed. The Germans knew, too, that if they could stop the flow of supplies to Port Said and Alexandria it would ease their task on the Eastern Front.

Eighteen months passed and the siege of Malta was raised before it was revealed how desperate had been the plight of the island in those middle months of 1942 when the enemy controlled all the Libyan coast and the islands of Sicily and Pantelleria, and Crete in the Eastern Mediterranean. It was then stated that the ships which battled their way to the George Cross Island in June were "the first merchant ships to reach there since the previous February."

"The convoy of six ships sailed from the Clyde in June, 1942, escorted to Gibraltar by two heavy cruisers and a number of destroyers and sloops: at Gibraltar a battleship and two aircraft carriers were added. On June 14 the first enemy aircraft attacked, in formations of 30 to 50, coming from all directions. The ships' gunners fought stripped to the waist. Thirty enemy aircraft were shot down, some by Hurricanes operating from the aircraft carriers. At night the attack was continued by aircraft and submarines. Air attacks were incessant throughout the rest of the voyage, rising to a peak between Pantelleria and Malta. Four ships went down: only the S.S. "Trolus" and the M.V. "Orati" were left. As these two vessels neared the harbour the "Orati" struck a mine that exploded in the only hold of the ship which held neither petrol nor ammunition. Following close astern of the "Trolus," she limped into port. It was past midnight, but the people of Malta lined the streets and cheered."

This Malta-bound convoy was only part of the largest Mediterranean operations of this nature up to that time: for while the "Orati" and "Trolus" were landing from Alexandria, another convoy, described as "one of the biggest ever seen in the Mediterranean," was on passage from Alexandria. So furious was the attack anticipated, so disproportionate the island's plight, that it was necessary in this way to divide the enemy's forces. The eastern convoy fought through great air battles; it delivered supplies to Tobruk, and met the challenge of a strong Italian naval force. But it never reached Malta: short of fuel, it retired eastward. Out of all those violent battles and movements of warships Malta received the cargoes of two ships only; but their 20,000 tons of supplies saved the island from capitulation, Malta-based aircraft and submarines.

SAFE AT LAST AFTER 20 DAYS OF DREAD

Survivors of the ' Avista Star,' L.446200 Blue Star liner sunk off the Azores on July 2, 1942, press forward to the shore of their shipwreck as a line is thrown from the Portuguese schooner ' Pedro Almeida,' which rescued them. For 22 days they had sailed in hope of reaching the Africa coast and only 22 out of 36 survived. One of them, overcome by his presidential essays, died from shock.

Photo, Associated Press.

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continued to take their heavy toll of Axis convoys, carrying supplies to Rommel’s army in Libya, and this, in Mr. Churchill’s words, was “essential to the whole strategic position in the Mediterranean.” (See also p. 308.)

It was the middle of August before another convoy reached Malta. It set out from Gibraltar with a powerful escort of battleships, aircraft carriers, cruisers and destroyers, according to a German news agency “the bulk of the British Mediterranean fleet.” Bombing began as soon as the convoy came within range of enemy aerodromes. Here is a passage from an account of the battle by a naval officer:

“U-boats joined in the attack, which continued during the night. Next morning our Fleet Air Arm fighters were off again at crack of dawn, and throughout the day they were almost continuously in the air, as formation after formation came in to attack. I won’t attempt to describe that day in detail, because one attack is so like another, but through it all—through the colossal din, the great mushroom of water as bombs dropped, the blinding flashes of our guns and the thousands of flashes of those from other ships—through all that, and many other things, I am left with one main impression: those merchantmen in the middle, going steadily on and on, at times completely hidden by waves, and then, intermittently appearing through the columns of spray, and always, doggedly and stubbornly, going on and on.”

In the convoy was the tanker “Ohio,” a large American-built ship, carrying the most important and dangerous cargo of all. A tanker, with her short bridge amidships and funnel in the stern, cannot be mistaken from the air. The “Ohio” was singled out by the enemy. This had been expected, and the ship was manned by a specially picked British crew, six of the officers and engineers having been decorated previously for bravery at sea. At night the “Ohio” was hit by a torpedo and forced to stop. Steering by hand from aft, without a compass, the tanker somehow caught up the convoy by morning. During the continuous air attacks which were concentrated on the “Ohio” a Stuka, shot out of control, crashed into the vessel. Then the ship was hit by a bomb, set on fire, and her engines partly wrecked. The fire was put under control and the “Ohio” plodded on at a speed of two knots, an easy target. She was hit again and her engines put out of action. She was taken in tow, but the tow parted. With the help of a mine sweeper from Malta she made 20 miles at night, but throughout the next day the tanker was bombed continuously and towing became impossible. The next night she reached Malta to discharge her precious cargo practically intact.

“M. The violence of the enemy could not deter the master from his purpose. Through out he showed skill and courage of the highest order, and it was due to his determination that in spite of the most persistent enemy opposition the vessel, with her valuable cargo, eventually reached Malta and was safely berthed.”

That was the citation announcing the award of the George Cross to Captain Dudley William Mason, master of the “Ohio,” which brought petrol to the George Cross island. Captain David MacFarran, O.B.E., Merchant Navy, Captain Frederick Kiley, and Captain Richard Wren, in the same convoy, received the first awards of the D.S.O. to be granted to men of the Merchant Navy.

The “Ohio” was fitted with an important new anti-torpedo device, evolved by Mr. W. L. Nelson and adopted by the Ministry of War Transport in June 1942. It consisted of a compressed air-line, running the full length of the ship, linked at either end to a compressor pump, and having nozzles at various points to take air-lines. When the ship was struck by a torpedo the compressor at each end was brought into action, and air forced into the damaged compartments, checking the inrush of water and eventually forcing it out. The invention could also be used to pump sea-water for fire-fighting and to steer a ship temporarily out of action after being torpedoed. In the case of the “Ohio” it was employed to discharge much of her cargo of petrol.

Before the end of the year the situation in the Mediterranean had been transformed following the battle of El Alamein and the landings in North Africa; in the Libyan desert Rommel was in full retreat. On December 23 the Admiralty announced: “In the course of a series of operations, now completed, large reinforcements of war material and supplies have been landed at Malta, without major interference from the enemy.” That convoy, sailing from Alexandria, arrived at Malta without the loss of a single ship, neither merchantman nor man-of-war.

The great convoys which carried arms and supplies to Archangel and Murmansk fought their way through attacks just as fierce and determined as those in the Mediterranean. There
were these differences: the seamen on the northern voyages had also to battle against Arctic weather—sometimes 70 degrees of frost—with spray from near-mass that hit the deck as ice. For part of the year there was no darkness in which to gain respite from bombing or to elude the enemy. Winter or summer, vessels on the northern convoy routes could never get more than 300 miles from an enemy coastline studied with bomber bases. For the first time history ships sailed through the White Sea in winter.

In some of those convoys there was a loss of 50 per cent of supplies. Mr. Charles Juranian, Secretary of the National Union of Seamen, told of an Arctic convoy of 40 ships: 13 were torpedoed and sunk in the space of four hours; another later; 17 were sunk by bombing. Three ships arrived at Murmansk, but of the 1,000 survivors every 10 men volunteered to go again.

At the end of March 1942 a convoy reached Murmansk after driving off a German destroyer attack and damaging or sinking three submarines. A month later two convoys passed each other in Arctic waters. Among the ice floes five destroyer attacks were beaten off; the losses were comparatively light. Then, at the beginning of June, it was revealed that a large convoy had arrived at a Russian port after incessant attack for five days and nights by enemy aircraft and submarines.

In September the story was told of how "the biggest Russian convoy with the largest destroyer escort ever known" fought its way through what Rear-Admiral R. L. Burnett, commanding the escort, described as the "worst torpedo-bombing attack of the war." "Any man who says he wasn’t frightened is a b.f.," the Admiral said when it was all over. The Germans first claimed 38 out of 45 ships, but later said that 17 supply ships were sunk. It was stated by the British Foreign Secretary that this convoy delivered in Russia the largest total of munitions yet transported in a single voyage from the United Kingdom and the U.S.A.

On December 31 another convoy was steaming through Arctic waters off the North Cape with a comparatively small destroyer escort. In the few hours of twilight an attack was launched by a superior force of cruisers, destroyers and, it was thought, a "pocket" battleship. In snowstorm and semi-darkness an intermittent battle continued for two hours before the arrival of more powerful British forces. The enemy escaped in the low visibility, but the skill and resolution of the British destroyers, under the command of Captain R. St. V. Sherbrooke, D.S.O. (who was awarded the V.C.), in H.M.S. "Oualaw," had saved the convoy. It arrived without loss or damage (see illus., p. 2390). One of the destroyers, "Achates" (commanded by Lieut.-Commander A. H. Tyndall Johnes), was damaged and sunk.

The violent "battlegrounds" of the Mediterranean and northern waters took their toll of United Nations’ merchant ships, but it was in the Atlantic that heavy losses continued to be suffered. Following the adoption of the convoy system along the Atlantic seaboard, which had become the U-boats’ hunting-ground, the submarines concentrated on
"UTILITY" GARBED "QUEEN MARY" ON WAR SERVICE

Striped of her luxury Atlantic trade trappings and decked in plain, gray war paint, the 91,255-ton "Queen Mary" was used to transport American troops to war zones—an interesting example of the reciprocal character of "Lend-Lease." Above, the "Queen Mary" at anchor in Table Bay, Cape Town, after reducing the Atlantic crossing record to 72 days.

(Photo, Keystone)

...the mid-Atlantic area, where the convoys were farthest from air bases, or went far ahead of the main routes, their range being extended by use of supply ships, both surface and underwater craft. They continued to attack in packs. Raids were made on routes as widespread as South of Freetown in West Africa, around the Cape of Good Hope, in the approaches to the Mozambique Channel, and off the Brazilian coast.

Loose continued to be announced sporadically from New York and the South American capitals. At the beginning of July a German submarine entered Puerto Limon, Costa Rica, and torpedoed the Panamanian steamer "San Pablo," which was unloading. Three days later the Mexican Government stated that the tanker "El Cerrito" had been torpedoned in the Gulf of Mexico. The sinking of the Brazilian steamer "Pedrinhas" was announced on the same day. On July 18 the Argentine Government declared the U.S. and Canadian Atlantic seaboard to be a danger zone for Argentine ships.

A week later the U.S. Navy Department stated that the convoy system had been extended to the Caribbean. On July 18 the Department announced that four ships had been sunk, three American and one British. Three were lost in the Atlantic and one in the Indian Ocean, bombed and later shelled by a Japanese cruiser. On July 26 the Mexican merchant ship "Oaxaca" was sunk.

Sightings of Brazilian ships (referred to in Chapter 214) continued. On July 20 it was announced that the frigate "Tamanare" had been torpedoed and sunk near Trinidad. By then ten Brazilian merchant ships had been sunk by Axis submarines. On August 17 the Brazilian Government stated that three more ships had been lost—the "Barmond," the "Araraquara" and the "Arabiso." The next day the loss of the "Amea" and "Itagui," two more Brazilian ships, was announced. It was later revealed that more than 600 people, including soldiers, had lost their lives in four of these sinkings. Feeding in Brazil ran high and demonstrations were widespread. President Vargas promised that the outrage would be avenged. Aeroplanes were sent to search for and attack U-boats, and it was stated on August 19 that two submarines had probably been destroyed. The same day yet another merchant ship, the "Jacu," was torpedoed and sunk off the Brazilian north-east coast. On August 22, 1942, Brazil declared war upon Germany and Italy.

When the presence of U-boats in the Gulf of St. Lawrence was disclosed, in May, the U.S. cutter, "Cape Bear," was sent to the area with a sinking of a merchant ship, it was added that any possible future sinkings in this area would not be made public, so as not to give information to the enemy. Nevertheless, following a question in the Canadian House of Commons, it was officially stated on July 15 that three ships had been torpedoed and sunk in these waters, with the loss of eight lives. Then, early on October 14, the passenger ship "Caribou," sailing across the Cabot Strait from Nova...
BATTLE OF THE NORTH CAPE: HERO AND HIS SHIP

On the last day of 1942 a British convoy to Russia escorted by destroyers commanded by Capt. R. St. V. Sherbrooke, D.S.O., R.N. (centre), in H.M.S. "Oxlow," encountered a greatly superior enemy force. The convoy got through unharmed, but the "Oxlow" was badly damaged—her funnel and bridge are shown above. H.M. destroyer "Arcturus" was sunk. Capt. Sherbrooke was awarded the V.C. for his great gallantry in the action.

Photos, British Official; Caption Copyright: James Jeans
On November 27, 1942, Adm. de Laborde gave the order to scuttle the French Fleet at Toulon. Vanguard tanks of the enemy arrived on the quay, only to watch the destruction helplessly. Aerial photographs of the harbour next day revealed (left to right) the battle-cruiser 'Strasbourg,' a Suffren class cruiser (in front), an Algiers cruiser, and a Le Gallicienne cruiser, all partly submerged. "From the flames and smoke of the explosions at Toulon," said Mr. Churchill on November 29, "France will rise again."

Photos, Official, Telegraph
BATTLESHIPS GUARDED THE NORTH AFRICAN INVASION ARMADA

The landings in Algeria and French Morocco on the night of November 7-8, 1942, were effected by what Allied G.H.Q. North Africa, called "the largest armada ever used for a single military operation." It was escorted by powerful units of the Royal Navy and the U.S. Navy. Here the Battleships H.M.S. "Duke of York" and H.M.S. "Nelson" and the aircraft carrier H.M.S. "Formidable" are seen from another carrier, H.M.S. "Victorious" (foreground), on the flight deck of which Seafires are ranged. All were part of the protecting force.

Photo: British Official
EYE-WITNESS IMPRESSIONS OF THE DIEPPE RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE

Above, the general scene as the raiding armada neared the shore. Water spouts caused by enemy bombs and pillars of smoke from vessels afire dwarf the little ships and their gallant complement. Below, the withdrawal of No. 4 Commando from Vachtreville is taking place down the right-hand of the two gullies under cover of a smoke screen. Large boulders prevent the landing craft getting in close; the L.E.A. on the right takes aboard a casualty through the locking caisson vault. Two FW-100's are attacking indifferently; actually there were no casualties.

(Top) From the painting by Richard Neurath. Crown Copyright. (Bottom) From an original drawing by Brian Muller
Sudia to Newfoundland, was torpedoed. She went down with the loss of 137 people, including 16 women and 14 children, and a number of Royal Navy sailors.

Another tragic loss of this period was that of the "Avila Star," a Blue Star liner of 14,443 tons gross, torpedoed off the Azores on July 5. She was carrying women passengers and volunteers from Argentina for the British forces. The ship was attacked by two submarines. Fortunately, the weather was calm and passengers and crew took to the boats. With the exception of about 20 men and some of the officers, who went down with the ship.

At first the five lifeboats stayed together; but after two days two of the boats were three or four miles ahead of the others, and it was decided to carry on in an effort to reach the nearest land. The remaining three boats were discovered by a Portuguese naval vessel three days later, and 110 survivors were rescued. The two lifeboats sailed on, but eventually parted company because of rough weather and scattered on different courses. One was never heard of again; the other sailed and drifted for 20 days and nearly 1,000 miles. Out of 39 people, 25 survived to tell a story of extraordinary hardships, of despair and mental and physical exhaustion which claimed many lives, and of the final rescue by a Portuguese schooner.

Among the worst disasters of the war, occurring in November, but not revealed until nearly a year later, was the sinking of the 18,000-ton British passenger liner "Ussur," bound from England for Cape Town. Only one survivor, a prisoner of the Germans, was heard of; there were more than 500 people on board. According to the German version, the liner was torpedoed during a gale in the North Atlantic and sank in heavy seas before the lifeboats could be launched.

Some of the losses and some of the dramas of the war against shipping were told, but it was seldom that anything was said of the successful voyages of individual ships. Months later, however, a little was revealed of the magnificent services during 1942 of Britain's "second" liner, the 31,235-ton "Queen Mary," of the Cunard White Star. "Tens of thousands of troops," it was disclosed, were carried in 1942 by the "Queen Mary." Packed with soldiers between 12,000 and 20,000—she played an important part in building up the strength of the Middle East forces which made possible the victory at El Alamein. Once she was said to have steamed through a pack of submarines, saved by her speed. On another occasion her position was witnessed to a waiting U-boat by Nazi spies in Brazil. The discovery, according to the report, was made in the nick of time, and the "Queen Mary" was advised of the trap which awaited her.

WHAT HAPPENED WHEN AN AMMUNITION SHIP BLEW UP.

The deadliest as well as probably the most vital cargo in the conveyances to Russia was carried in the ammunition ships, a direct hit on one of which meant sudden and certain death for the crew and the scattering of the vessel to fragments. The explosion reported below, however, took avenge all of the enemy; three attacking aircraft were destroyed by the blast.
British naval ships in December: both sides were virtually at a standstill.

Still the U-boat remained the principal enemy of the United Nations' shipping; the problem was one of defence and attack. Mr. Churchill was able to state at the beginning of September that "our efforts to foil the U-boats have been more successful than in any former period of the war." He added that every few days had passed without one or more being sunk or damaged by the Allies. More than half of these successful attacks, it was disclosed on another occasion, were made by aircraft.

Mr. A. V. Alexander, First Lord of the Admiralty, stated that new methods had been developed in the war on the U-boats and new devices were in action. Towards the end of September he revealed that from the beginning of the U-boats up to that time more than 500 Axis submarines had been sunk or damaged. In addition, the bomber offensive against U-boat building yards and bases was steadily increased.

In November Admiral Sir Max K. Horton, K.C.B., D.S.O., succeeded Admiral Sir Percy Noble, K.C.B., C.V.O., as C-in-C Western Approaches. In the same month Sir Stafford Cripps, Minister of Aircraft Production, was appointed deputy chairman to the Prime Minister on a committee studying new methods of combating the U-boat menace. The "Battle of the Atlantic Committee," set up by Mr. Churchill in February 1941, was reconstituted in somewhat different form as the "Anti-U-Boat Warfare Committee." Besides Mr. Churchill and Sir Stafford Cripps, membership of the Committee included the Minister of Production, the First Lord of the Admiralty, Secretary of State for Air, Minister of War Transport, the First Sea Lord, and the Chief of the Air Staff, with technical advisers as required. Meetings were held normally once a week from the beginning of November. Mr. Churchill explained that the Committee did not in any way supersede or replace the "regular and systematic control of anti-U-boat warfare by the Admiralty."

A year later (November 6, 1943) it was revealed that Captain C. P. Clarke, R.N., had been for two years Director of Operations against the U-boats, and, in the words of Mr. A. V. Alexander, "had an important share in the great success we have been out of the massive danger which confronted us."

At the close of the year the U-boat was still the primary preoccupation of Anglo-American strategy, for it was recognized, and confirmed at the Casablanca conference in January, that the "defeat of the U-boat and the improvement of the margin of shipbuilding resources are the prelude to all aggressive operations." (The words are Mr. Churchill's.)

The defeat of the U-boat had not been accomplished. For a week in July deadweight. Production in December alone was little short of the record for the whole of the year 1941. Britain and Canada added to the total. The goal for American shipbuilding in 1943 was then double the 1942 total. At the beginning of December, however, Mr. C. D. Howe, Canadian Minister of Munitions, declared that the Battle of the Atlantic was still in its most dangerous phase. For the year 1943 the net tonnage loss was in the region of 1,000,000 gross.

This serious gap for the year as a whole would have been reduced but for the decision to invade North Africa. This campaign involved a switchover from merchant shipbuilding to the construction of special landing craft—both in Britain and in the United States. It involved alterations in British to more than 300 ordinary merchant ships for use as troop carriers, tank landing ships, landing craft, landing ships, and store-issuing ships.

The first stages of the elaborate planning required for an operation of this kind were undertaken in early as July. The task was entrusted to Admiral Sir Bertram Ramsey, who carried out the Dunkirk evacuation in 1940. Something like 500 merchant ships, British, American, Norwegian, Dutch and Polish, were gathered at different points. Fast cargo ships, great liners carrying troops, Liberty ships bringing supplies, followed by little coastal ships to serve the smaller ports—the majority were British. They sailed from many ports in Britain and the United States; they assembled at various places in the Atlantic; they gathered at Gibraltar.

And early in November this vast armada landed half a million men, tanks, lorries, stores and ammunition—all the paraphernalia of a modern army—and landed them with astonishing success.

It was a triumph of secret organization. That the enemy was utterly deceived is beyond doubt. The greatest deception was the provision of so large a tonnage of merchant ships for offensive purposes when the United Nations were short of ships as of nothing else. Surprise allowed the troops and equipment to be landed with very little loss. Thus, in the words of the Secretary of the National Union of Seamen, "the Hun got over his surprise and turned full hose on those ships."

EVEN THE LITTLE SHIPS HIT BACK

The mast of a cruiser stands at the vessel's Lewis gun; there is no enemy target about. Whether engaged in their normal occupation of fishing, or in the more hazardous task of anti-submarine work, these little craft shared the manifold perils which beset their larger brethren.

Photo, Daily Mirror
DIEPPE: A RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE

Challenging the enemy where he was regarded as being at his strongest on the Channel Coast, the Dieppe raid taught the Allies lessons which later proved invaluable in North Africa, Sicily and Italy. Gordon Holman, who here analyses the operation, knows Combined Operations work from personal experience; he accompanied the St. Nazaire raid, described in Chapter 226.

As the warm summer night closed over a South of England port on August 18, 1942, the Hunt class destroyer "Fernie" put to sea. She left a scene of much activity and as she slid out of the harbor the clear ringing of a hunting horn echoed across the water. "Fernie" was sounding the battle-cry and, amplified by her loud hailer, it carried to the ears of over 5,000 men about to go forth to battle. By the time daylight came they had thrown their challenge to the Germans in one of the enemy's most strongly held positions—Dieppe.

Like the starter's flag, "Fernie's" hunting horn marked the moment for which men had hoped and planned and trained over a long period, with grimly settled purpose. In the next few hours they were to fight their way into history—and the price to be paid was not a light one.

Dieppe has been described variously as a Raid, a Combined Operation, and a Reconnaissance in Force. The last is undoubtedly the best description. Although the greatest success of the day was gained by the R.A.F. and the Navy played its part most gallantly, both these Services would be the first to admit that they only functioned in support of the troops who carried out the landings.

The question that has been most frequently asked since that summer's day when a startled England—and perhaps an even more startled Germany—first heard the news that British troops were fighting again on French soil, is: "Was it worth it?" The whole of this Chapter might be devoted to answering that one question but, briefly and generally, the reply is "Most definitely, yes." Dieppe was the key to North Africa, Sicily and Salerno, and although it was a high price that the gallant Canadians had to pay when they set foot in France, the final dividend was out of all proportion even to that great sacrifice.

The Canadians themselves, in giving the objectives of the operation, revealed its very great importance. In an official report issued a month after the attack they said: "The United Nations have an agreed offensive policy. In the preparation and development of such a policy the acquisition of the fullest possible information concerning the enemy's strength and dispositions, and every other element in the situation affecting the conduct of operations against him, is a matter of the most fundamental importance. Such information is available from many sources, but it is frequently the case that facts essential to the successful prosecution of offensive operations can only be gained by fighting for them. The Dieppe operation must be regarded in this light. It was considered most important that our forces should have an opportunity, for practical experience in the landing on an enemy-occupied coast of a large military force, and in particular, in the problems arising out of the employment in such a force of heavy armoured fighting vehicles."

There were, of course, many other considerations, but in giving the answers to these primary questions Dieppe played an important part as any individual operation in the war.

The first plans for the attack were laid in the month of April and a number of places on the French coast were carefully studied as possible objectives before Dieppe was finally selected. We were not looking for soft spots; we were aiming to hit the enemy in his strongest position in order to test thoroughly his strength.

As soon as the outline plan was ready it was placed before the Chiefs of Staff committee. It received their approval and the next step was to choose the troops for the undertaking. The Canadians, many of whom had been waiting impatiently for more than two years for the chance to meet the enemy, were selected. Before it was agreed that they should be employed the C.O.I.-in-C. First Canadian Army, Lt.-Gen. A. G. L. McNaughton, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., studied the plan and satisfied himself that the objectives were vital to the agreed offensive policy and that the means available were likely to be adequate for the task in hand.

Canadian military plans, in the hands of Major-General J. H. Roberts, were carried out with the Chief of Combined Operations, Vice-Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten. Two other Force

Maj.-Gen. J. H. ROBERTS, M.C., D.S.O.
Capt. J. HUGHES HALLETT, D.S.O., R.N.
Air Vice-Marshal Y. LEIGH-MALLORY, C.B., D.S.O.

Canadian military commander in the Dieppe raid, August 18, 1942. He directed operations from an H.C. ship, remaining on the bridge throughout. He was awarded the D.S.O. for his brilliant leadership.

North Cape on December 20, 1945.

C-in-C. Fighter Command.

Photos, Canadian Official: Rennison; Sport & General.
WORK OF THE ROYAL AIR FORCE AT DIEPPE

The contribution of the R.A.F. to the success of the Dieppe raid began some days before the action. Reconnaissance planes brought back detailed photographs of the waterfront to assist the raiders. In the one below, workmen (top left) are seen scurrying to shelter as the plane dives to take a more valuable and informative picture. Above, during the actual operations an R.A.F. bomber releases two bombs while, far below, destroyers lay a smoke screen to cover the approach of the landing craft.

The Canadian military forces involved were composed basically of large elements of a Canadian Division and a battalion of the 1st Canadian Army Tank Brigade. With them were the 3rd, 4th and Royal Marine "A" Commandos and small detachments of United States Rangers and Fighting French troops.

The naval force had no vessels larger than destroyers and for the most part consisted of landing craft of various types and support craft.

It was hoped that the enemy would react strongly to the attack, not only on the ground but in the air, and the R.A.F. prepared for a major battle. Units were drawn from all operational commands of the Air Force and these were joined by Canadian, American, New Zealand, Polish, Czecho-Norwegian, Belgian and French squadrons. This foresight made possible one of the most remarkable United Nations' victories of the war in the air. In the early hours of the morning of August 19 the 9th and 13th machine gunning flotillas laid an armada of over 230 vessels towards the French coast. Every possible precaution had been taken to maintain secrecy but surprise was all-important to the venture.

At 3.47 a.m. a tragic misadventure befell the expedition. Only seven miles from the French coast the left flank of the Force, which had moved into its assault positions, ran into a small enemy convoy - a tanker and escort. A Commando minor battle developed which would have been of no consequence whatever if it had not robbed the attack of the element of surprise. Indeed, it only achieved that effect on the left flanking force but in an operation with units as interdependent as they were at Dieppe it was little short of disastrous. If No. 3 Commando, bound for Bernavel, which was primarily concerned, had not had this ill-fortune and had been able to function with the same degree of success as No. 4 Commando on the right flank, the operation would have been much less costly and infinitely more successful. But such things are the fortune of war, and luck was certainly against that very gallant company of attackers.

As a result of the unexpected sea conflict the landing craft carrying No. 3 Commando were scattered and many were damaged. Twenty-five minutes after they were due six craft made a landing in broad daylight on one beach and one arrived at another beach. The larger section was met with murderous fire and although the men went forward...
MEN WHO LED THE COMMANDOS AWARDED THE D.S.O.

Nos. 3 and 4 Commandos were respectively on the left and right flanks of the invading force. When ill-fated disorganized and decimated the former, Maj. Peter Young, D.S.O., M.C. (left) took charge of the remnant of 29 men and made a gallant but vain attempt to silence the Berneval battery. No. 4 was under the command of Lt.-Col. Lord Lovat (right—comparing notes with another officer on their return). This unit effectively silenced the Varengeville battery.

With the utmost bravery, led by Captain R. L. Wills, and later, by Lt. J. D. Leutnant, of the United States Ranger, they were gradually overwhelmed by vastly superior forces. The smaller party consisted of Major Peter Young, two officers and 17 men. Their arms were 10 rifles, a Bren gun, six tommy guns, three pistols, two mortars and a few bombs. They knew that the battery they had to attack was manned by at least 200 of the enemy. Still they set out to find a way to the top of the cliff and thence to Berneval where the battery was located. A frontal attack was out of the question. The Commando’s remnant determinedly sniped the enemy for nearly two hours, harassing him that, at one point, he turned a 5.9-in. coast defence gun on them at point-blank range. Their ammunition was exhausted and after they had seriously interfered with the fire from the powerful German battery, without, unhappily, being able to stop it altogether, they withdrew and were picked up on the beach by the undaunted Navy craft under the command of Lt.-Col. H. T. Buckles, R.N.V.R.

A very brief outline of the whole plan of attack will show what it amounted to the main force when sheer bad luck prevented No. 5 Commando getting in to silence the Berneval Battery.

The Number One objective was Dieppe itself, but the Germans had the town and its seaward approaches covered by a number of batteries on the cliff-top to left and right. These included two heavy batteries between one and five miles away on each side of Dieppe, at Berneval and Varengeville respectively. If these remained in action they would be able to pour a most damaging fire on our forces both in the town and offshore. The Commandos, therefore, were given the task of silencing them. No. 4 Commando, led by Lieut.-Col. Lord Lovat, had the left flank (Varengeville) and No. 3 Commando, under Lieut.-Col. Durnford-Slater, as already stated, had Berneval as their objective. Inside these two extremes there were to be two other flanks, at Puits and Fourville, where the enemy had additional batteries. The firepower in all three positions, with the possible exception of Fourville, was sufficient to menace the whole success of the expedition.

The two Canadian regiments chosen for the main assault on Dieppe itself were the Essex Scottish, who were to land on the beach to the east of the Esplanade, and the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry, who were to tackle the west end. The Puits attack was in the hands of the Royal Regiment of Canada; and the South Saskatchewan Regiment was to storm Fourville. In reserve were the Fusiliers Mont Royal and the Royal Marine Commando. The Queen’s Own Cameron Highlanders of Canada were to act as a second wave at Fourville and, passing through the South Saskatchewan Regiment, go on to attack the airfield at St. Aubin.

To return to the action itself: we have seen how the left flank attack failed, the German battery never being put out of action. On the opposite flank there

PHOTO: (Top right) British Official: Crown Copyright.

was a very different story. Lord Lovat’s Commando was far enough away from No. 3 Commando to know little of the unfortunate meeting with the German vessels. Fortunately, too, what was happening off Bernval did not alarm the enemy manning the Varengeville guns.

Right on time, at 4.30 a.m., the landing craft carrying No. 4 Commando grounded on the shingle at the foot of the tall cliffs. Only at the very last moment did a German machine-gun open up on the British, but the raiders were out of the boats and under cover of the cliffs before the enemy obtained a good sight on them. A way had to be found to the top of the cliffs and it was known that it would almost certainly have to be up one of two cracks. The first of these was found to be solidly packed with barbed-wire but the second had not been properly prepared and the Commando men, using Bangalore torpedoes to destroy such obstructions as had been placed there, soon cut a way through.

There was a measure of luck that was sadly lacking for No. 3 Commando in this comparatively easy ascent. And there was another stroke of luck at the same time for No. 4, because as they exploded their Bangalore torpedoes four cannon (not six) roared overhead, and in the general confusion, the Germans failed to identify the explosions.

So the Commando men pushed on, knowing that another party had landed a little to the east, at Vasterival, and were due to open the assault on the six 33-in guns in the German battery. This section, under Major D. Mills-Roberts, had made very good progress and before 6 a.m. had opened small arms fire on the enemy gunners. Before the Germans could counter this attack, the Commando men had set up their mortars and, almost at once, scored a heavy success. A mortar shell hit the charges stacked alongside the German guns and a blinding flash and a big explosion marked the end of the guns.

At 6.20 a very light signal indicated the opening of Lord Lovat’s assault from the west. His troops had pushed inland for about a mile after landing and now waited for a low-level Spitfire attack on the battery before rushing the position. The Spitfires came right out time and then the Commando men went forward with the bayonets. Two officers leading the charge, which had to be made over 250 yards of open ground, were killed. Captain P. A. Porteous, R.A., although he had already been wounded, took their place and was one of the first to reach the guns, although he had by then been wounded in both thighs. The German garrison, with the exception of four men taken prisoner, was wiped out. Captain Porteous was subsequently awarded the Victoria Cross.

The withdrawal of No. 4 Commando was completed in excellent order. Before leaving, the British dead (two officers and nine other ranks) were laid near the guns they had helped to capture, under the Union Jack.

Meanwhile, the inner flank attack on the left, at Fuits, had run into very strong
ROYAL NAVY'S SHARE IN DIEPPE COMBINED OPERATIONS

Transporting men and tanks, bombarding shore batteries and shooting down enemy aircraft were among the services rendered at Dieppe by the Royal Navy. Above: From a landing craft approaching the shore area are seen burning in the town. Left: Motor launches and tank landing craft move in, while (below) the invasion fleet dashes for the beaches under cover of a heavy smoke screen. The only major British naval loss was the destroyer "Berkeley," which was so damaged that it had to be sunk.

Photo, British Official - Crown Copyright, Planet News
opposition. As soon as the Royal Regiment of Canada set foot on shore they were met with withering fire. The naval engagement which had involved No. 3 Commando had caused the Royal Regiment to alter course with the result that they arrived 20 minutes late at Puita. The enemy were all ready for them. The Canadians, led by Lieut.-Col. D. R. Cattie, attacked through a deadly cross-fire and suffered heavy casualties. Even those who reached the sea wall, 50 yards from the water’s edge, found no shelter from the well-placed and heavily defended German guns. Captain R. A. Brown, who, as Forward Observation Officer, was to have directed the supporting fire from the destroyers “Garvan” described the scene in these words: “Owing to the heavy and accurate fire of the enemy, the Royal Regiment was charged in five minutes from an assault battalion on the offensive to something less than two companies on the defensive, pinned down by fire from positions they could not discover.”

The Royal Regiment tried desperately to achieve some measure of success, and there were many gallant actions on the part of individuals and isolated groups. Lieut. W. O. R. Waddell, for instance, rushed a German pillbox single-handed and killed all the occupants with well-aimed grenades, but was himself killed in the attack. Eventually, it was decided that what remained of the Royal Regiment should be withdrawn and the Navy went in without thought of themselves in an endeavour to take off the soldiers. They were under heavy fire, and one landing craft received a direct hit, but still some of her occupants were rescued.

The fact remained, however, that the headland immediately east of Dieppe was never cleared of the enemy and this undoubtedly had a considerable effect on the landings on the main beaches.

The impotence of surprise was once again made clear in the other inner flank attack. The South Saskatchewan Regiment, commanded by Lieut.-Colonel C. C. I. Merritt, arrived at Pountville beach only five minutes after zero hour and went ashore without encountering very much opposition. They at once drove inland and captured their first objective. Resistance became fiercer as the Canadians pushed on, but they had tasted success and were not going to be easily stopped. German pillboxes were cleared up in the most determined manner. Private Charles Sawden making one single-handed and killing all its six occupants.

The men from Saskatchewan fought their way through Pountville only to be held up by heavy mortar and machine-gun fire when they reached the bridge over the river Seine. It was then that their Colonel arrived and gave them the inspired leadership which won for him the Victoria Cross. The incident is vividly described by Wallace Reyburn, the Canadian war correspondent who was present.

“As the men got ready to tackle the bridge again,” he wrote, “an officer came walking up the street. It was Colonel Merritt. He stopped and spoke to me, taking his tin hat off and mopping the perspiration off his brow as he did so. **What’s the trouble?** he asked.

**That bridge is a hot spot, sir. We are trying to get across it.**

**Okay, come with me.**

Merritt walked out into the middle of the street again and said, “Now, men, we’re going to get across this bridge. Follow me. Don’t bunch up. Spread out. Here we go.”

And he strode off to the bridge, erect, calm and determined-looking. He showed no signs of concern at the “muck” that was flying round him. His tin hat dangled from his wrist and he twirled it around as he walked.

Most of the men got across this time. Merritt himself before that day was through was to cross that bridge no

CHURCHILL TANKS ASHORE AT DIEPPE

Arriving in special landing craft, Churchill tanks of the 14th Canadian Army Tank Battalion under Maj. J. Brown, of Calgary (right), acted by some of the Royal Canadian Engineers, were manoeuvred ashore in the initial attack on the town itself, some of them scaling the 8-10 ft. wall and entering the streets. Here disabled Churchill and a landing craft are seen on the deserted shore after the “reconnaissance in force” had been completed.
fewer than six times. He led other men across, saying as he set off, 'Come on over—there's nothing to it.'

Colonel Merriot did not return with the South Saskatchewan's, although by a miracle he survived the run of fire to which he so casually exposed himself. He was on the beach as the last of his men left in the subsequent withdrawal, but then, taking some spare Tommy guns and rifles, went back towards Pauville saying, 'I'm going to get even with those same for what they have done to my regiment.' He was subsequently reported to be a prisoner-of-war.

The Queen's Own Cameron Highlanders of Canada used the bridgehead established by the South Saskatchewan's to follow up. They came in in broad daylight and made rapid progress although their commanding Officer, Lieut.-Colonel A. C. Gostling, was killed as he stepped ashore. Before the time for withdrawal arrived they had pushed two miles inland, inflicting heavy casualties on the Germans as they went.

The frontal attack on the town of Dieppe itself was preceded by a short, sharp bombardment by naval vessels and a low level attack by cannon-firing Spitfires and Hurricanes. Then the Essex Scottish on the left and the Royal Hamilton Light Infantry on the right went in to the assault together. Despite the intense bombardment, the Canadians came under heavy fire from concealed emplacements in the two headlands east and west of the beaches. The Casino, which had been turned into a powerful stronghold by the Germans, was stormed by the Royal Hamiltons, magnificently assisted by the Royal Canadian Engineers, led by Lieut. W. A. Bewner. One of his men, Lance-Sergeant George A. Hickson, carried out the most daring piece of demolition work on the whole Dieppe front.

Unable to obey his orders to destroy the main telephone exchange in the Post Office because of intense enemy fire, and left in charge of his platoon through the commander and most of the senior N.C.O.s being out of action, Hickson led the platoon on to the Casino. There he blasted his way with explosive through the walls and blew in the steel door of a concrete gun emplacement, killing the gun crews of five. After the R.H.L.I.s had cleared the post he

completed his demolition work by blowing up the six-inch naval gun which commanded the beach and the main Dieppe approach and put a couple of machine-guns out of action. Lance-Sergeant Hickson was subsequently awarded the D.C.M.

Then the first wave of Churchill tanks of the 11th Canadian Army Tank Battalion arrived in the special tank-lading craft. Royal Canadian Engineers worked with desperate courage to make a way for the tanks over the sea wall, which varied in height from 8 to 10 ft., and some did surmount it and got on to the Boulevard Maritime Foch.

These went to attack the defences on the western headland, a few of them turning into the town, when they found themselves shut in by very heavy tank blocks, one of the Churhills smashed clean through a house, only to run into fresh anti-tank guns.

About this time the French Mont Royal, the floating hospital, was sent in to reinforce the Essex Scottish, but faced no better against the concentrated fire the Germans could still bring to bear on the beaches, the eastern headland still remaining unsashed. Major-General Roberts then decided to send in the Royal Marine Commando.

Few of the Marines actually got ashore, because as soon as they cleared a smoke screen which had been put down to cover their approach, they came under a tremendous concentration of fire. Lieut.-Col. J. P. Phillips, realizing that it was useless for them to go on, put on a pair of white gloves and waved to the boats to turn back. He saved the lives of many men but himself fell mortally wounded.

Meanwhile, units on shore continued to fight on, inflicting heavy casualties on the Germans, until the withdrawal signal was given. The difficulties then faced are well expressed in an official Canadian report on Dieppe.

Difficulties of the Withdrawal

"Withdrawal following a raid of this sort (it states) is always a most difficult and dangerous operation, and in this instance it was especially so, as the enemy had succeeded in bringing into action a number of mobile batteries, mortars and additional infantry. Although this enabled him to organize very heavy fire on both the beaches and sea approaches, and the ships and craft lying off Dieppe, in spite of excellent fighter cover, were suffering sporadic attacks by dive-bombers, the Navy most gallantly went into the beaches again and again to take off the troops. Officers and other ranks of the military force ashore performed many acts of gallantry in carrying wounded men to the landing craft. During this phase destroyers closed the beaches almost up to the point of landing in order to support the re-embarkation by fire, and to pick up survivors."

Tribute should here be paid to the heroic work of the doctors and medical orderlies who accompanied the Dieppe forces. They went right in with the fighting battalions and undoubtedly saved many lives by the prompt attention they were able to give while
HOME AGAIN AFTER THE 'RECONNAISSANCE IN FORCE'

Tens, beguiled, but grimly satisfied with their achievement, some of the 5,000 Dieppe raiders
relayed on the quayside of a British port after the Royal Navy had conveyed them safely home.
They had emerged unseen from the bow of a ship and the enemy had landed. Having wounded
the enemy on the beach and brought back invaluable information concerning his
strength where it was regarded as at its greatest on the Channel coast.

PHOTO, BRITISH OFFICIAL / PICTURE COPY

Under fire. It was disclosed subsequently that 600 Canadians admitted to hospital on return to England, the
mortality was only 2.5 per cent. Sulphonamides—the new drug series—were extensively used in treating the wounded
on the way home and in hospital later, and results were excellent.

Throughout the day the Royal Navy assisted the land operations by heavy bombardment of enemy shore positions
Light and successfully covered the landings and
Naval embarkations. Despite
Losse formidable artillery and air opposition British naval losses, apart from a fairly large number of
landing craft (of which the enemy claimed 300–400 were used), consisted only of the Hunt-class destroy
"Berkeley" (900 tons), which was so badly damaged that it had to be sunk by British forces, the majority of the
crew being saved.

There remains the air battle which raged over Dieppe practically throughout the land operations. The Germans,
alarmed at the strength of the blow aimed at them, rushed in reserves of aircraft exactly as the R.A.F. had
hoped. As a result there developed one of the greatest air conflicts of the war. Our aircraft were sent on more than
2,000 sorties. Apart from innumerable dogfights with the enemy, the planes of practically all the Allies shot up ground
positions, bombed near-by aerodromes, put down smoke screens and covered both the attack and withdrawal. At
the end of the day we had lost 29 planes—though 30 fighter pilots were saved—but 170 of the enemy had been
destroyed. (See Chapter 29.) The costly results of this air action were sufficient to cause the Luftwaffe to make
large-scale alterations in their air dispositions immediately after our reconnaissance in force. The Prime Minister
referred to it as "an extremely satisfactory air battle which Fighter Command wish they could repeat every week."

The far-reaching benefits that accrued to the cause of the United Nations as a result of the outstanding bravery of the
men who went to Dieppe have already been indicated, and the 170 Canadians who, out of a force of 5,000, gave their
lives did not die in vain. They and their comrades, 3,350 of whom became casualties in one form or another,
rendered a lasting service to the Allied cause. Even the Germans were forced to join in the world-wide praise of their
gallantry. The enemy-controlled Paris radio said, "The first thing that emerges from the fighting is the stubbornness
of these soldiers. One has the impression that these men cling to the soil and fought to the last cartridge
and that they were endowed with magnificent courage."

"BEACHCOMBER" CARRIED THE
FIRST DISPATCH

This pigeon was one of two entrusted with bringing the first report of the action from the
land to the R.A.F. ship. "Beachcomber"'s companion was killed in flight. Pigeon-
borne messages were necessary in view of the dangers involved in the use of wireless.

PHOTO, CENTRAL PRESS
THE HISTORIC SIEGE OF STALINGRAD

From August 1942 to January 1943 took place some of the bloodiest fighting of the war, with Stalingrad as the disputed prize. The siege of the Steel City, the unshakeable determination of its defenders and its ultimate relief were the turning point in the Russian Campaign. The first four months of the battle are here surveyed by our Military Editor. The reader is advised to consult the maps in pp. 2425 and 2267 while following the narrative.

As recounted in Chapter 227, the Germans, by the end of July 1942, had reached the Don throughout its length from Voroshilov to the Sea of Azov, except in the angle at the elbow of the river, where the Russians held the right bank between Kletskaya and Kalach, covering the approaches to Stalingrad. Farther down-stream the Russians had rallied on the river at Tsatlyansk to defend the passage and to cover the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway. Lower down still, from the junction of the Don and Donetz to the Sea of Azov, the river had been crossed on a wide front. Timoshenko's armies, though heavily defeated, were far from annihilated and had plenty of fight left in them. Between the Don and Donetz their retreat had been so rapid that, hotly as the Germans pursued, they were unable to inflict much further damage. The open nature of the country had given opportunities for the exploitation of the flexibility of a mechanized army, and for dispersion to minimize the effects of air attack. On the lower Don, front the situation was, however, very critical. If the Germans at Tsatlyansk reached the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway Timoshenko's left wing would, to a large extent, be cut off from the main Russian armies and from its chief sources of munition supply. Failure to hold the line of the lower Don was ominous. For the first time something approximating a collapse of morale had occurred, and Stalin had issued a grim order to combat any tendency to weakness; but even here there was a remarkable recovery.

So far the German offensive had been conducted as a great, almost continuous, sweep clearing the whole area west of the Don; but henceforth it was to develop German Two Main as two separate sets Thrusts of operations, directed respectively towards the Lower Volga, with Stalingrad as the key objective, and towards the oilfields and Black Sea ports of Caucasus (see Chapter 316). Though the operations were synchronous there was so little connexion between them that they are best described separately.

It seems probable that the Volga operations, though important, were originally intended to be subsidiary to the main drive into Caucasus. Their primary object was to secure the control of the waterway and thus interrupt the route by which central and northern Russia drew supplies of Caucasian oil and food from southern granaries. After the distributing centre of Rostov had been captured there was practically no alternative route of great capacity. Stalingrad, as the most accessible point on the Volga, was indicated as the immediate objective, and there were other reasons that made its capture important.

Stalingrad (formerly Tsaritsyn) during the 20 years before Hitler's invasion had become the third largest industrial city of the U.S.S.R., with a population in 1939 of 445,476. It was the first of the great towns which sprang up almost overnight under the first Five Year Plan (1927). Its planning, with broad, tree-lined streets, workers' flats, community centres, etc., became the model from which other new cities derived inspiration. Under the Soviet economic scheme Stalingrad was scheduled to be a producer of tractors, agricultural machines, lorries and motor cars. In 1935 it turned out 35,000 tractors, and the output for 1939 was 60,000. Doubtless behind and within this scheme was provision for a switch to tanks, armoured vehicles and weapons. During the fighting the Red Barracks gun factory and the Red October munitions factory became notable; from the Daurinsky tractor plant fighting vehicles were driven straight to the battle front outside Stalingrad. Besides these enterprises there were oil refineries, saw-mills and the usual industries of a large town and port (see plan, p. 2418).

Under construction was the Don-Volga Canal, below Stalingrad, which was to connect the Volga area with the Black Sea and thus with the Mediterranean. It also provided for the harnessing of the Volga to electric power stations and for the irrigation of arid

HONoured DEFENDERS OF STALINGRAD

Inside the beleaguered city of Stalingrad was the 64th Army, commanded by Lt.-Gen. V. I. Chuykov (above). This group was part of the Stalingrad area forces under Col.-General A. I. Yeremenko (below). With their backs to the river Volga, Chuykov's men fought the city street by street, block by block, their backs to the river Volga, Chuykov's men fought the city street by street, block by block, though surrounded on three sides and constantly subjected to shell-fire from the heights and bombing from the air. Both Chuykov and Yeremenko received the Order of Suvorov, First Class, highest Soviet award for military valour.

Photos, Pictorial Press
districts along the great river. So much for the economic importance of the city which was now the chief German objective in the south. But it had also for all Russians another significance—as the "Red Verdun," where under Stalin's leadership the Red armies defeated the White Russians of Denikin in 1918.

Stalin had gone to the region as Commissar of Supplies with the task of organizing the flow of grain and other commodities needed by the Russian capital and the Red armies in the north. Before he could even begin he had to reorganize the defense of Tsaritsyn against Denikin's troops. With the consent of Lenin he took over the military command; Timoshenko sided him, and they were joined a little later by Voroshilov with other Soviet troops. Thus reinforced, the defenders struck back at Denikin and freed the city. The much-needed cargoes of grain were sent along the Volga, and Stalin found other arduous military tasks awaiting him, in which he showed outstanding skill and boldness, combined with that strategic ability for which even then, a generation ago, he had become famous. By his later success against Yudenich, who was then driving on towards Petrograd, Stalin ended the White menace to the security of the Soviet regime.

In German hands the city would serve as a hedgehog defensive pivot and provide winter shelter for a large garrison. Served by two main railways from the Donets Basin, one on each side of the Don, it could be easily supplied. The Don from Voronezh to Kletskaya formed a strong defensive line against any encircling counter-offensive the Russians might attempt, and with a pivot at Stalingrad, it gave flank defense to the thrust into Caucasus. The capture of the city, once the Don had been crossed at its elbow, probably appeared to the Germans to present no great difficulties. There were no permanent fortifications and, extending in a narrow belt for some 50 miles, it formed a target lacking depth in defense. With the Volga behind it, exposed to air attack, the difficulty of supplying the city would be great, and the Steppe provided innumerable natural airfields for the Luftwaffe.

The task of forcing a crossing in the Don elbow and capturing Stalingrad appears in the first instance to have been assigned to the German left wing, which had swept down the right bank of the Don until it encountered Russian resistance at Kletskaya. The force which was attempting to cross the Don at Tsimlyansk may not originally have been intended to take part in the attack on Stalingrad; its objective, after reaching the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway, may have been Astrakhan and the Volga Delta. If these were the German plans and expectations they soon required considerable modification, and increasingly went awry. The resistance encountered at Kletskaya, where fighting began about July 28, proved very stubborn, and counter-attacks for some time prevented the Germans from reaching the Don within the elbow.

The German forces available for attack was probably limited in size, owing to difficulty of supply by its long lines of communication. Failure to interrupt the railways between the Don and Volga east of Voronezh probably also enabled the Russians to send reinforcements for defense of the Stalingrad region. Not until August 11 did the Germans reach Krasnodar on the south side of the elbow. This was, however, an important step, for it completed the capture of the Stalingrad-Rostov railway as far as the Don, thus enabling reinforcements and supplies to reach the attacking force by a shorter route. Nevertheless, fighting within the elbow continued, and it was August 24 before the Germans obtained a lodgment across.
the river S.E. of Kletskaya. Almost a month had thus passed before achieving this first essential step, and its success was mainly due to a concentrated air attack of great weight.

Meanwhile, on the Tamanian front German success was more rapid, though some days elapsed before a bridgehead of sufficient size to permit the deployment of a large force was established. The fight for the crossing had begun about July 22, and it was August 4 before the Germans reached Kotelnikov in the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway. This was an important success which not only cut railway communications between Stalingrad and the army in the western Caucasus, but gave the Germans a good line of communication between Rostov and Kotelnikov. The Russians, retreating eastwards, evacuated Kotelnikov, but resistance held of the town stiffened and for a considerable period heavy fighting without much progress was reported. On August 12 the capture of Elista, the capital of the Kalmyk district, was reported, which appeared to indicate a wide turning movement on the right. Little, however, was heard subsequently of the forces that occupied the place until its retreat in the winter. It is still uncertain whether it was intended as an initial step in an advance towards Astrakhan or merely a move to occupy a rich agricultural district and to cover the flank of a drive N.E. towards Stalingrad from guerrilla activities.

With the attack towards Stalingrad from the Don elbow hanging fire the probability increased that a co-operative attack N.E. from the Kotelnikov direction would develop. Nevertheless, when the army in the elbow had effected a crossing the advance towards the city proceeded without waiting for the Kotelnikov force to gain ground. Very heavy fighting resulted, but progress was slow; the Russians constantly counter-attacking with considerable success.

The main attack was at first made in a north-easterly direction, presumably with the object of cutting the railway communication with the north and of reaching the Volga. But, meeting with stubborn resistance, the fighting for a considerable time developed in the area N.W. of the city, and it was evident that the attack had lost its momentum in spite of the fact that some 25 infantry and seven armoured divisions, with about 1,000 aircraft co-operating, were now engaged.

Meanwhile, the Kotelnikov force made slow progress, though no doubt it was now directed towards Stalingrad. The force may not at first have been very strong, for the operations in the western Caucasus presumably made conflicting demands on its line of communication through Rostov. By the beginning of September it had, however, been reinforced, especially in armoured, and it had made sufficient ground to make it clear that Stalingrad was closely threatened from north-west and south-west, a break-through by tanks having carried the latter drive a considerable distance forward.

In the first week of the month the attack intensified, with the chief danger threatening from the south-west and spreading to the west of the city, Russian resistance was fierce and the Germans were compelled to vary their methods of attack, sometimes attacking on a wide front, at others concentrating on a narrow sector in attempts to drive a wedge into the defences. Great use was made of air bombardment, concentrated on small areas in the hopes of crushing and stunning the defence. Buildings in these areas were often completely obliterated before infantry and tank attacks covered by artillery barrage were launched. Ground was gained, but often lost again to Russian counter-attacks. In the confused
STALINGRAD WAS A BATTLE OF STREETS AND BUILDINGS

An epic feature of the Stalingrad fighting was the grim refusal of its defenders to yield more than a step at a time. Streets were contested yard by yard; buildings room by room. So shrunken and bitter was the fighting that even a casselette in a roadway [left] was a sanctuary for the enemy to give thanks for. Right, a Red Army garrison snipes from the window of a factory, one of the many in the Steel City which were converted into fortresses.

PHOTO, U.S.S.R. OFFICIAL / KEYSTONE

fighting there was little information to show how much progress the attack was making, but by the middle of September it had certainly reached the outskirts of the city. That progress had been disappointing to the Germans was evident; and when, in the third week of the month, fighting slowed down, their spokesmen began to complain of inadequate communications for the maintenance of supplies, and of the added difficulties caused by rain. These difficulties were probably considerable, and were likely to increase with the approach of winter. Moreover, landing grounds on the Steppes, excellent in dry weather, soon became unusable in wet. That affected not only air support of attacks but also supply services, for the Germans were using transport planes to supplement land communications.

Towards the end of the month, though heavy fighting continued, rumours of friction between Hitler, his military advisers and commanders on the spot in German Command began to circulate. This was not surprising, for evidently the capture of Stalingrad was taking much longer and was requiring immensely greater effort than had been sagely expected. Diversion of effort to the Stalingrad front had probably affected the Caucasus front, where progress was becoming disappointing. Hitler’s prestige was also involved, for there had been confident predictions of the early fall of Stalingrad. The attention of the world was riveted on the struggle, admiration for the magnificent Russian resistance grew, and hope revived.

Could Stalingrad after all emulate the achievement of Moscow in the previous year and hold out until winter? If so, the Germans would be exposed without adequate shelter to the bitter winds of the Steppes, and with their armies compelled to hold a great bulge which lengthened their front immensely. The strategic weakness this would entail was all the more evident because the greater part of the Russian Army had not been seriously engaged during the summer, except where they themselves had taken the offensive on the Kalmuk front. Although through traffic on the Volga had undoubtedly been interrupted, it was clear that the Red Army had sufficient reserves of oil and material to sustain offensive power.

There were definite indications that a situation dangerous for the Germans might develop if Stalingrad held out. The Russian bridgehead at Kietzkaya was still maintained and the Germans had to provide a considerable defensive detachment to prevent it forming a base for counter attack. Towards the end of September a further threat began to develop which entailed ever greater dispersion of force in a purely defensive role. A Russian force began to make its presence felt between the Don and the Volga, and it initiated local attacks on the defensive positions which the Germans had entrenched for the protection of the northern flank of their attacking army. The Russian attacks were easily held, but they tended to grow in weight and necessity of forces to defend. The strategic implications of these threats seem, however, to have been ignored by the Germans, who evidently relied on their flank defences, strengthened as they were with concrete pill-boxes and damaged tanks, dug in to form anti-tank and machinegun posts.

On September 30 Hitler proclaimed his determination that Stalingrad would be taken, and his speech was followed by an intensification of the attack in the first week of October. This time it was directed against the workers’ settlement and great industrial establishments in the north-western extension of the city, while at the same time a great street fighting continued in localized attacks and counter-attacks along its whole length. This street fighting was unlike any that had been known in earlier wars, for dive-bombers, tanks, light and heavy field artillery and machine-guns, mortars, grenades, and the automatic heavy-calibre small-arms of the infantry combined to produce entirely new conditions. Here is a description of the barricade fighting given by a battalion-commissar of the Red Army:

“Particularly fierce battles are now raging at the street crossings, where the fate of blocks of buildings is decided. The Nazis open each of their attacks by concentrating their dive-bombers, trench-mortars and artillery on a small sector of a few hundred yards square. When the area has been
FIERY ORDEAL OF THE STEEL CITY

Stalingrad (then Tsaritsyn) suffered in the Civil War and the famine of 1921. But in 20 years it had been so restored as to contain 445,678 people and rank as the most important industrial town on the Volga. Its factories produced quality steel, tractors and other agricultural machinery, cotton, chemicals, armaments and food-stuffs. It possessed two gigantic power plants and an oil refinery.

None went unscathed in the winter of 1942; many were destroyed. Above, air view of a factory on the banks of the Volga, ablaze after bombing. Left, shells rain on another industrial plant. Below, part of the stifling smoke pall which for months overshadowed the city, seen from the east bank of the Volga.

UNCONQUERABLE STALINGRAD AND ITS ENVIRONS

Stalingrad lies between the Volga to the east, at a point some 250 miles up the river from Astrakhan, and a high ridge of hills known as the Mamayev Kurgan, commanding a view of the whole city and well within 30-mm. gun range of the factory area and the river crossings. The Germans captured this ridge early in September 1942, and, from then until the middle of January 1943, the bombardment was unremitting. The rocket-shaped mortar-shelling gunship, shown in the accompanying map, was unresponsive. The shelling continued with great intensity and accuracy. The German artillery was concentrated on the critical points, and the shells from the 120-mm. guns were almost continuous. The result was devastating. Whole blocks of buildings were leveled, and thousands of people were killed. The German troops, however, were unable to advance further. They had met with heavy losses, and their morale was low. They were not able to take advantage of their numerical superiority and had to retreat gradually.

The object of the main German attacks was to capture the Stalingrad defense. The city was surrounded by a huge ring of trenches, and the Germans had to use tanks and heavy artillery to penetrate the defenses. The German troops were also under constant attack from Soviet forces, who were well organized and well trained. The Soviet forces were able to hold their ground, and they inflicted heavy losses on the German troops. The German troops were unable to make any significant gains, and they were forced to retreat. The battle lasted for several months, and it was one of the most intense battles of the war. The German forces were forced to retreat, and the city of Stalingrad was saved from capture.

The battle of Stalingrad was a turning point in the war. It was the first major victory for the Soviet forces, and it marked the beginning of the end for the German war effort. The battle was costly for both sides, but the Soviet forces emerged victorious. The battle of Stalingrad was a testament to the strength and determination of the Soviet people, and it is remembered as one of the greatest battles in history.
Just about dawn of the third day, when the Soviet ammunition was becoming exhausted, some of the Red Army men decided to bring matters to a head. They took two grenades each and made their way into the corridor, where they found that one door on the enemy's side was not barricaded. Suroin could be heard. Cautiously one put his weight to the door, and it opened without creaking. By the light from distant fires outside he saw another door to the right and alongside it a Nazi guard sleeping on his haunches; several Nazis lay round the walls, while at the window a dark silhouette showed of a German who seemed to be dozing. The sleeping guard was knocked out with a blow from an automatic. Well-aimed grenades disposed of the rest of the party, and the building was in Soviet hands.

This was not the end, for the Germans outside rushed to help their garrison. Nazi tanks approaching the building were blown up by Soviet mines; dive-bombers now attacked the house, and German artillery and mortars opened up. Then there was a further assault by 15 tanks and an infantry formation. It was repelled, twice more that day the enemy tried to recapture the building, the top floors of which had by now been quite destroyed, but the Soviet offensive now thundered at the approaches to Stalingrad, as the narrator says, "gave them something else to think about."

On October 14, after a lull, the German offensive was renewed, but with much the same result, although heavy concentrations of tanks and aircraft were used. In the fourth week of the month the situation again became extremely critical, and the Germans claimed to have gained a foothold on the river bank. Moscow was thoroughly alarmed, but if the claim were true the foothold must have been very narrow, and a magnificently executed counter-attack prevented it from being extended or supported. About this time it became clear that the garrison was still receiving substantial reinforcements, in spite of the attempts of the Luftwaffe and artillery to destroy the light bridges and raid the city's communications. It was obvious that the only course was to send food and supplies through the period before the river froze solid, and when floating ice would make ferry service impossible.

Early in November Hitler appears to have been at last convinced that Stalingrad could not be taken by assault, for he announced that his main objective had been achieved and that he would not sacrifice more lives in attacks, but eliminate the remaining elements of resistance by bombardment. Nevertheless fighting, though on a reduced scale, continued: probably brought about either by German attempts to capture more favourable points in which to establish themselves, or by Russian counter-attacks on German advanced posts. On the whole, however, it...
appeared that Hitler's announcement might be taken at its face value, and that Stalingrad was no longer in danger of immediate capture; Hitler's boasts that its remaining garrison would be crushed or forced to surrender by air and artillery bombardment without the necessity of further assaults being taken generally as a face-saving statement.

Meanwhile the relief force north of

**FACTORY 'FORTRESS'**
The Russians converted every factory into a stronghold; every window on every floor became a vantage point for a mortar, a machine-gun, an automatic rifle. Long and savage struggles, lasting days, yielded the enemy only a few yards of spine and twisted steel work. Below, German gunners in an abandoned power plant take cover as they await a counter-attack.

Field-Marshal von Rundstedt launched the offensive against Stalingrad, but on September 26 it was revealed that he had been replaced by General von Hoth, who in turn was succeeded by Field-Marshal von Paulus. On the southern front von Manstein was similarly replaced by Field-Marshal List, the former having failed to repeat his Crimean triumphs in the approach to the Caucasus. Still it was to General von Manstein (with von Hoth's Armoured Corps as his striking force) that was later entrusted the attempted breakthrough at Kotel-

nikovo to relieve encircled Field-Marshal von Paulus; and when the Russian winter drive got under way (see Chapter 252) it was von Manstein who was called upon to stem it with an improvised army.

Official credit for executing Stalin's plan for the relief of Stalingrad has been conferred on Marshal Zhukov, acting as representative of the H.Q. of the Supreme Command. Marshal Timoshe

ko, originally controlling the whole southern sector of the front, was transferred to the north early in the operations. The Don Army was led by Col.-Gen. K. K. Rokossovsky. In the city itself was the 62nd Army, under Maj.-Gen. V. I. Chuikov, part of Col.-Gen. A. I. Yeremenko's Stalingrad area forces.

In the critical days of September he was joined by Maj.-Gen. Alexander Rodimtsev's 13th Guards Division. The eventual encirclement of von Paulus was carried out by north and south pincers, commanded respectively by
STREET FIGHTING DECIDED STALINGRAD'S FATE

Despite intensive shelling and bombing the Germans could not force the surrender of Stalingrad. They had to realize at last that it would have to be taken yard by yard. Never before in the war had street fighting and hand-to-hand combat been so dominating a feature of a battle. Above, Red Army men, with rifles and sub-machine guns at the ready, launch a counter-attack along a factory railway track.

STALINGRAD MEDAL

Specially struck for the valiant defenders of Stalingrad was this medal. On its face are the words, 'For the Defence of Stalingrad'; on the reverse, 'For Our Soviet Land'. Civil Defence workers, guerrillas and ordinary people whose conduct had been virtuous were eligible equally with the Armed Forces for the award.

Photo, Pictorial Press
Chapter 245

GERMAN DRIVE FOR CAUCASUS OILFIELDS: JULY—NOVEMBER, 1942

With the fall of Rostov on July 27, 1942 (see Chapter 227), it appeared to the German High Command that the way lay open for an irresistible double thrust at Stalingrad and the Caucasus. How the Stalingrad assault was repelled is narrated in Chapter 244, while here our Military Editor describes the ultimate collapse of the concurrent offensive in the Caucasus.

By the end of July, 1942, the Germans had recaptured Rostov and had crossed the Lower Don on a wide front. Before following further developments in this theatre it may be well to examine why the Russians failed to make a stand on such a formidable obstacle. For this it is necessary to recall the situation in the Donbas during the springhill. Briefly, the Germans were established in the centre of the basin and were assembling for an offensive. The Russians held the eastern portion. When Timoshenko in May launched his forestalling offensive on the Kharkov front, the Germans were compelled to draw on the troops they had assembled in order to stage the counterattack at Izumy; and, whatever their intentions were, they postponed their attack in the Donbas until after their offensive on the upper Donets and Kursk fronts had broken through and swung south between the Don and Donetz. This may have been due both to the disturbance of their dispositions by Timoshenko's offensive and the fact that a large force was still engaged in the siege of Sevastopol. The situation of the Russians west of the Lower Donets had become perilous. Their right flank was turned and their line of retreat to the east was cut. In these circumstances, when the attack against them from the west developed, there was no alternative but to retreat fighting southwards on Rostov.

On July 17 Soviet forces evacuated Voroshilovgrad, and from the 20th to the 27th there was bitter fighting on the right bank of the Lower Don about Novocherkask and Rostov—probably requarding actions to cover withdrawal across the river. The retreat before an enemy attacking from the west and reinforced with armour and aircraft released by the fall of Sevastopol must have been difficult and costly. It may readily be believed that there was confusion and some demoralization in getting across the river, and little time to organize defences on its farther side. Rostov itself was evacuated on July 27, but two days earlier the Germans had claimed to have crossed the Don south and east of that city. In the neighbourhood of Bataisk, opposite Rostov, the Russians fought hard, but farther to the east the Germans seem to have met less opposition, and on July 28 claimed to have crossed the Manych and Sal tributaries of the Don on the left bank.

By the end of the month the Germans therefore had not only crossed the Lower Don, but on their left they had reached Proletarskaya, where the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway crossed the Manych, and opposite Rostov Bataisk had been captured. Timoshenko at this stage appears to have decided to retreat rapidly to the Caucasia foothills and marshy regions of the Azov coast, where German armoured thrusts from Proletarskaya and Bataisk would have less favourable terrain. (See map, p. 226.)

The Caucasia section of the German offensive was thus well launched. The immediate military objects to be attained were: first, to complete the defeat of that portion of Timoshenko's army, which, with its communication with Moscow, and Stalingrad cut, was almost completely isolated in Caucasia; secondly, to capture the Black Sea ports of Novorossiisk and Tuapse—important because this would deprive the Black Sea Fleet of two valuable bases, leaving it wholly dependent on the indifferent harbour of Batum; third, and perhaps most important, to advance along the Rostov-Baku railway and, if possible, to capture the oilfields of Baku, thereby depleting the Soviet armies and industries of their main source of oil supply. An advance even so far as the Caspian coast would be an important military achievement, for it would entail the capture of the Gromy oilfields on the northern side of the Caucasus mountains, and enable tanker traffic from Baku to Astrakhan and the mouth of the Ural river to be brought under air attack.
Apart from these negative military objectives reducing Russia's war potential there were prizes of value to the Germans themselves. The Maikop oilfield in the north-western foothills of the Caucasus, with its pipeline to Rostov and its refining plant at Krasnodar, would be of immense value if captured intact. It would provide fuel for the needs of a great part of the German armies in Russia and also for tractors required for the agricultural development of occupied territory. The northern foothills of the Caucasus with the adjoining steppes were also a region rich in mineral and agricultural products. Thus the capture of northern Caucasus presented immense attractions and seemed to have fewer difficulties than would be encountered in extending operations into southern Caucasus. It is therefore possible that Germany intended to limit the scope of the offensive in 1943 to the northern side of the mountains and the capture of the Black Sea ports at their western end. The seizure of the Baku oilfields would have had little economic value to her unless she also captured Batum and the intervening country. This would have entailed an expenditure of force which might better be employed in an attempt to secure decisive results in the Moscow region—which, if successful, would automatically have placed all Caucasus under German control.

As a theatre of operations, northern Caucasus presented no great difficulties, and was suitable for mechanized manoeuvre, provided no serious attempt was made to cross the mountains or to force a passage through the steppes. The chief physical obstacles to be met outside the higher foothills were the Kuban, Kuma and Terek rivers, which, snow-fed, were in summer swift-flowing and deep. Northern Caucasus, especially in the western half, was by Russian standards well served with railways and roads. The main disadvantage from the German standpoint was that access to the system lay through the bottleneck of Rostov. This drawback was all the greater because the railway communication of the force operating from Kotevatov towards Stalingrad also ran through Rostov.

The railway of chief importance was the Rostov-Baku line. The junction on it at Rataisk gave connections to Krasnodar and Novorossiisk, as well as to Salik on the Stalingrad-Krasnodar line. Other important junctions were Tikhoretz, where it crosses the Stalingrad-Krasnodar line; Kropotskin, where a
TWIN GERMAN DRIVES IN THE CAUCASUS

Having gained several bridgeheads across the Don, the German penetration of the Caucasus followed two main routes: from the Rostov area through Batumi and Krasnodar, arriving at Novoosadikha; and from the middle Don down the Stalingrad-Tikhoretsk railway, bound for Armavir, Maikop and the road to Baku. Top, a German motorized detachment paused in preparation for the crossing of the Kuban river, towards the end of August 1942. Bottom, a enemy A.A. battery on the alert at the Black Sea port of Novoosadikha, captured on September 5. Centre, tanks and motor cycle units halted at the foot of the Psaltiritsa mountains.

Photos, Sport & General: Associated Press
HERE THE ENEMY HOPED TO FIND OIL, AND WINTER QUARTERS

The oilfields of Bataisk, the Kuban, Maikop, Gromny and Baku were coveted by the Germans. The northern foothills of the Caucasus, with the adjoining steppes, were rich in mineral and agricultural resources. Novorossisk and Taman were important Black Sea naval bases; and the whole region offered attractive winter quarters for the German armies. Such was the lure which drew the enemy beyond Rostov, but by the end of December 1942 he was forced to realize that the prize was not to be his.

Special thanks to Ted Scudder for the map above.

The German offensive at first took the form of two main thrusts—the first from Bataisk towards Krasnodar, clearing the coastal area and aiming ultimately at the capture of Novorossisk; the second from the Manych front directed on Armavir and Maikop. In the Bataisk area there was heavy fighting, the Germans attacking with strong armoured and air forces. The Russians probably had little more than strong rearguards, for their main forces must have become greatly disorganized in the retreat across the Don under heavy air attack, and were in no condition as yet to fight a defensive battle. The German armoured broke through following the line of the railway to Tikhoretsk: on August 1, 1942, Kushchevka, 50 miles south of Rostov, was taken; and on August 5 Tikhoretsk fell.

As usual, fighting appears to have continued fast in the rear of the armoured thrust, slowing up the advance of supporting infantry divisions. In particular in the coastal region, less favourable for armoured operations, Russian resistance was determined and German progress slower. Meanwhile, the thrust from the Manych front had made even swifter and more alarming progress. It would seem to have been carried out by mechanized columns following the line of the Stalingrad railway and its branch to Kropotkin. Salik was taken on August 3 and Kropotkin (60 miles farther on) two days later. Resistance encountered seems chiefly to have been that of Cossack cavalry, who, though unable to check armoured troops, harassed their transport. By August 9 the Germans had reached Armavir and had probably penetrated beyond in the direction of Maikop, but fighting still continued in the Kropotkin and Armavir areas. Not until August 12 did the Russians admit withdrawal from Armavir, though by that time enemy advanced troops had reached Maikop.

Much the same situation had developed in the drive towards Novorossisk. Though fighting continued in the Tikhoretsk area, by August 11 the Germans were in the neighbourhood of Krasnodar, 70 miles farther south-west. The situation was highly confused, but there...
CUNNING CAMOUFLAGE AGAINST RECONNAISSANCE

On a bank of the River Terlik—which runs to the foothills of Mt. Elbrus and flows eastwards through Mordok to the Caspian Sea—German troops are skillfully camouflaged to evade the eyes of Soviet scouts. Swift-rolling and swarming with rolling snow in summer-time, the Terlik, Kuhno and Kuma rivers were—other than the higher foothills—the chief geographical obstacles confronting the invaders in their drive for the Caucasian oil.

Photo, Associated Press

is no doubt that both at Maikop and Krasnodar Russian resistance had greatly stiffened, bringing the German panzer thrusts to a halt until their supporting troops could close up. The Russian object at this stage was to gain time to sabotage thoroughly the Maikop oilfields and the Krasnodar refineries. In this they were completely successful, for, though the town of Maikop was taken about August 12, the Russians did not withdraw from the oilfields until the next day, by which time they had been thoroughly "scorched."

The refineries at Krasnodar were also destroyed before the town was evacuated on the 18th. Here is a Russian war correspondent’s story of the destruction of the Maikop wells:

When Von Hindenburg’s tank groups, advancing from Armavir, approached Kurkamnaya, the highway to Maikop stretched before them into a night fit by flames of the burning oilfields. A single glow hung over Maikop, Apsheronsk and Keflegah—towns separated from each other by miles of travel. The middle-aged engineer who directed the work of destruction turned from his task for a few minutes to tell us: “It was only a few weeks ago that I celebrated the 33rd anniversary of my arrival at these oilfields—in August 1909. . . . Now it’s all going up in smoke. We are destroying the flowers that we may preserve the seed, and we do it without limitation.”

The Germans hoped that a sudden thrust would give them the oil. But they met with a check when trying to cross the Lake river, and the time they lost there cost them the prize—the oil of Maikop, so important for the production of aviation petrol. Two days before our troops left, the last trainloads of dismantled equipment left the oilfields for Tuapse. The oil itself was carried away by rail, or on motor lorries, or even in horse-drawn vehicles. What could not be got away was destroyed by the flames.

Peaceful farmers and shepherds became soldiers overnight, soldiers apophasies versed in the tactics of mountain warfare. They took to the mountains in regular units. The women and children had left the oilfields some time before. The cattle had been driven to the mountains. The people of Maikop took their food with them to secret storerooms.

Pulled of their prize at Maikop, the Germans for a long time made no determined move southwards over the mountains towards Tuapse, contenting themselves with occupying the entrances to the pass in contact with the Russian troops holding it. On the Krasnodar front, however, the Germans were determined to reach Novorossiisk, and there was a period of heavy fighting in which the Russians for a time defeated German attempts to cross the Kuban river. On the south side of the river the country was highly defensible, the foothills reaching to the river and increasing rapidly in height towards the south. There was little scope for armoured movement, and it was mainly an infantry and artillery battle.

As early as August 9 there were indications that the Germans intended to drive south-eastwards along the Kura railway, without waiting for the completion of their operations in the western Caucasus. On that date a German force was reported to be in the neighbourhood of Pyatigorsk—near Mineralnye Vody, the spa on the Kuba river, over 100 miles south-east of Armavir—but this was probably only an armoured car patrol which had met with no opposition. Three days later came the report of the occupation of Cherkessk, at the end of a short branch railway about half-way between Armavir and Mineralnye Vody. South of Cherkessk there is an indifferent pass across the mountains, but the occupation of the town was presumably merely to provide a link against raids on the communications of the main eastern thrust. It was from Cherkessk that a German mountain-trekking party, later ascended Mt. Elbrus (15,470 ft.), the highest point in Europe, and planted a swastika flag on the summit.
More important developments took place when, on August 15, a substantial German force appeared at Mineralnye Vodi and there met with strong opposition. This marked the beginning of a long period of fighting in the middle regions of the north Caucasus, to support which some German troops may have been withdrawn from the Maikop front. These operations developed into practically a separate campaign, and before describing them it may be better to follow those in the western Caucasus until they were brought to a standstill in the winter.

On the passes leading from Maikop to Tuapse little was to occur of importance for a considerable time, though there were frequent local attacks and counter-attacks by both sides. On the Krasnoadar front there was heavy fighting before the Germans, towards the end of August, established a substantial footing across the lower Kuban. The first indication that the advance towards Novorossiisk was progressing was given when, on the 21st, the Germans claimed Krasnoadar, south of the river. A few days later it became clear that the enemy had overcome resistance in the coastal regions and had reached the mouth of the Kuban, occupying the Taman peninsula. No attempt was made to use Kerch as a jumping-off point for attack during these operations. The fighting by now was taking place in the very difficult pass over the western spur of the Kaban, and on the coastal region south of the Kuban mouth. Progress was slow; it was not until September 6 that the Germans claimed they had entered Novorossiisk, and it was five days later before the Russians admitted complete evacuation of the town. Even then a marine detachment appears to have retained a foothold in the outskirts from which the harbour could be harassed with fire, so that, though the Russians had lost the port, it was of little or no value to the enemy.

For the rest of September and until the middle of October there was little change on this front, though fighting south of Novorossiisk continued and there were occasional Russian attempts to land raiding parties of marines to attack German coastal communications. About the middle of October the Germans began a determined effort to capture Tuapse, attacking from the Novorossiisk direction, and also by the pass leading from Maikop. Russian defence was stubborn, and though the Germans, after hard fighting in conditions made more difficult by snow,
succeeded in crossing the Maikop pass by the end of October, they were met by Russian counter-attacks and failed to reach Turpse. The situation again became practically stabilized and, if anything, the Germans had lost ground to Russian counter-attacks before they were compelled to withdraw to Maikop and Novorossiisk in consequence of the development of the Russian winter offensive.

We will return now to the German threat along the Baku railway, which had reached Minuskin by the middle of August. At this point Russian resistance was essentially not too well-countened, but no very determined attempt appears to have been made to halt the line of the Kuma. But when, by August 29, the Germans reached Mokod and Prokhladnaya, on the Terek, it soon became evident that Russian reserves had come into action and that every effort would be made to hold the enemy on the line of the river. The Germans made frequent and desperate attempts to force a crossing. On several occasions they gained a footing on the east bank, only to be driven back again by fierce Russian counter-attacks.

Colonel Lyaskin, of the Red Army, described the first German attempt to cross the Terek near Mokod. They concentrated here the 3rd Tank Division of their 49th Tank Corps and the 370th Infantry Division.

"One pitch-black night they got an infantry battalion across by the southern bank and at daybreak, under cover of a smoke screen and an artillery barrage, built pontoon bridges which enabled several tanks and about a regiment of infantry to cross. They had heavy... but managed to get a foothold on an inhabited point on the southern bank, and continued to make their forces. Using tanks and infantry, they tried to extend their hold in order to widen the base of operations. Despite stiff Soviet resistance, they succeeded in gaining some ground and occupied two more inhabited points. This partial success cost them 20 tanks and a few hundred killed and wounded. A simultaneous enemy offensive on the adjacent sector east of Mokod was soon stopped by its remnants thrown back to the southern bank of the Terek."

Next day the Germans tried to widen the area, and after being frustrated by Soviet counter-attacks they dispatched two more divisions—13th Tank and 111th Infantry—across the river. A battering ram compiled of 90 heavy and medium tanks and about three regiments of infantry was sent crashing south along the road—the tanks echeloned three columns deep along this narrow sector. Soviet troops had to withdraw, but struck at the flanks of the enemy as his infantry poured through the gap, pinning them down and cutting them off from the German tanks. The road was later taken by the enemy, but his troops had been prevented from spreading south and east. So the battle along this river barrier ebbed and flowed, with very heavy losses to the Germans, who had to pay an exorbitant price for every mile of ground won.

All through September and until the end of October the situation changed but little, though fierce fighting was often reported and the Germans frequently made claim to successes which seemed to indicate a grave danger that they would be able to reach the Grozny oilfields.

The situation was all the more anxious because there was always a doubt whether the Russian Caucasian armies, so isolated from reinforcement and from their sources of munition supply, were in a position to maintain the prolonged struggle. It seems certain that if the German effort at this time had not been diverted to so great an extent by the Stalingrad operations, a good opportunity offered of exploiting the initial successes in the Caucasus. Whether the Germans had insufficient reserves to maintain full-scale operations on what were practically three fronts, or whether the bottleneck on their line of communications at Rostov limited the scale of the operations, remains a matter for surmise. Both factors probably were active; for in their offensive the Germans had made much use of satellite contingents, and in the Stalingrad operations they complained of supply difficulties. There can be no doubt, too, that Russian offensive operations on the Moscow front were successful in preventing the German reserves to the south.

It appears probable that in October the German General Staff exercised pressure on Hitler to divert effort from Stalingrad to the Caucasus, and there is reason to believe that the attack on Stalingrad from the south, supplied through Rostov, was partly suspended in order to give fresh life to the Caucasian operations. The attempt to reach Turpse from Maikop has been mentioned, and on October 28 an attack from a new direction opened on the Terek front. The left of the Russian position at this time extended into the higher foothills on the west side of the Terek valley, with Nalchik, a small town at the end of a 30-mile branch line from the Ordzhonikidze railway, as its local base. This part of the front was, however, lightly held and had been quiet. Having assembled a considerable force, including armour, the Germans succeeded in effecting a surprise, at least to the extent of attacking before the Russian front could be strengthened. Nalchik was almost at once evacuated, and the Russians fell back fighting rearguard actions—clinging, where practicable, to the higher features on the flanks of the German drive.

At first the Germans made rapid progress and it was evident that they aimed at the capture of Ordzhonikidze, but as Russian reserves came into action..."
FIGHTING IN THE NORTH CAUCASUS SNOWS

After the fall of Rostov on July 27, 1942, the way was open for the German thrust into the Caucasus. In command was Field-Marshall Wilhelm List, regarded as Germany's leading exponent of mountain warfare, whose troops included the pick of the German Alpine and Tirolean regiments, which he had led in the Carpathian sector during the Polish campaign of 1939. But Red Army mountain fighters and guerrillas of equal skill opposed them.

resistance stiffened and the advance slowed. It was not brought to a standstill until at least one and perhaps both of the roads leading to the Caucasian plateau had been reached. By the end of the first week in November the drive had lost its momentum, and Ordzhonikidze was not in immediate danger. A senior lieutenant of the Red Army gave the following account of an action near Ordzhonikidze:

"While fighting was in progress on the approaches to the town, Soviet troops in another sector were preparing a counter-attack. Several units made a skilful manoeuvre and wrested the initiative from the enemy. A large German formation found itself cut off and was forced to pass to the defensive. The Nazis had turned three populated places into strong key-points. They had dug a large number of bunkers into the ground, and erected block-houses and other defensive works."

"The German plan depended on the success of the operations of their troops on the left flank, but they were let down. By climbing a steep incline opposite the main Nazi forces, a Soviet unit by-passed the enemy's strong positions and pressed hard on him from the mountain slopes. The Germans tried to rout them but got out of the encirclement counter-attacking with infantry and tanks. But our troops kept off one assault after another and inflicted enormous losses on the enemy."

"Where the Germans succeeded in penetrating the ring our artillery came into action. When the enemy was thoroughly worn down, a Soviet detachment broke into one of the populated places from the north, while simultaneously another unit attacked from the north-east. The Nazis abandoned their equipment and fortifications and retreated hurriedly. They tried to fall back on other populated places and dig themselves in, but our troops, following on their heels, gave them no chance to do so."

Already the Germans, in addition to suffering from difficulties of supply owing to increasing snowfalls, were having the worst of it in Russian counter-attacks. Failure to capture Ordzhonikidze amounted to a serious German reverse, for a success here would have deprived the Russians in the Terek valley of their main base, and have afforded excellent winter quarters. On November 19 the Russians gained a very substantial success in this area, claiming 140 tanks and 70 guns. From then onwards the Germans were presumably retreating for withdrawal to a less exposed position and to winter quarters; but it was not until the third week in December that the ever-worsening situation at Stalingrad and on the middle Don made rapid retreat inevitable, with the Russians in hot pursuit.

The German offensive of 1942, after great initial success, failed in Caucasus, as at Stalingrad, to achieve its object, and had been fought to a standstill before the Russian winter offensive was launched. It is not an exaggeration to say that in the Caucasus a very great opportunity was lost, mainly owing to the demands made by the Stalingrad front, but also probably to over-confidence inspired by the early successes after crossing the lower Don. The German High Command may then have thought that the defeated and isolated left wing of Timoshenko's armies had little residual fighting value. The Russian recovery after a temporary collapse was amazing. How the Soviet Army was reorganized and supplied in the subsequent operations was a remarkable military achievement.
Chapter 248

POLITICAL TRENDS IN NEAR & MIDDLE EAST
JULY—DECEMBER, 1942

Chapter 222 embodied Mr. Kenneth Williams' authoritative survey of political and domestic events in this vital area during the first half of 1942. Here he continues the narrative to the end of that year. It was a period in which the countries of the Near and Middle East were preoccupied by home affairs, an understanding of which is essential to the full appreciation of the war situation.

At the beginning of the second half of 1942 the great shadow of the Axis advance toward the Nile valley hung depressingly over the whole area between the Levant and India, like one of those dust-storms familiar to travellers in Middle Eastern deserts. The issues were formidable enough: if the Alamein line, reached by Rommel by July, were not to hold, the whole Middle Eastern position, despite its strength in Palestine and Syria, might be overrun and the Axis might reach the coveted oil of Iraq and Iran. But—though this may be an over-simplification of the situation—the peoples of the Middle East knew their dust storms and how, given patience and fortitude, those visitations pass. Anxious, occasionally flurried, but still adequately confident in ultimate Allied victory, they held to the course they had taken. Yet it would be extravagant to pretend that they foresaw how swiftly and overwhelmingly the tide in North Africa was to turn.

For the calumnies in Egypt, which had shown considerable alarm over the fall of Tobruk, the wise and confident lead of the Premier Nahas Pasha was largely responsible. Certain financial interests did manifest acute anxiety, and a run on the banks was threatened; but the Egyptian Government, through the medium of the Press and the mosques, induced belief in the Allies' ability to protect the Nile valley; and the agricultural population in particular kept a very even keel. The attitude of the Palace, moreover, was one of becoming tranquility. Yet the Axis propaganda the opportunity was of course superb, and ample attempt was made to use it, though with little effect. While some Egyptians were disappointed because the British did not take the offensive against Rommel earlier, the vast majority asserted their eyes from the actual fighting to concentrate on domestic issues. Here they found plenty of excitement in the expulsion from the Wald party of a noted orator, Makram Pasha Ebeid, together with 21 of his followers—many of them Copts like himself. He had criticized Nahas Pasha for subserviency toward the British. Breaking away, these men called themselves the "Independent Waldist Group" and became embittered toward the greatest party in Egypt. Owing to the ability of Makram Ebeid his group constituted the cotton crop failed, and as a consequence the Egyptian Government themselves decided to buy all the cotton offered to them up to May 1943.

Mr. Churchill's visit in August had a galvanizing effect. He met most of the leading Egyptians, including King Farouk and Nahas Pasha, and visibly inspired them with his buoyancy and confidence in the outcome. Mr. Churchill was followed by Mr. Wendell Willkie, whose visit acted as another tonic. Very easily, however, most of the Egyptians slipped back into preoccupation with domestic affairs. This preoccupation, which included some anxiety over the food situation, was noticeable in the celebrations which King Farouk proposed for the 1,000th anniversary of the great Moslem University, Al Azhar, for September 15. The King wanted Sheikh el Mazghali, Rector of the University, to make a speech, and himself to provide great entertainment. But the Premier took exception to the proposal. He complained that he had not been duly informed beforehand of the plan, and as for speech-making, nobody but himself should make a speech on such an occasion. The celebrations were therefore dropped. But it was not to be the last time that Nahas Pasha would find himself in difficulties with his Sovereign.

Public attention was again directed to the outside world by the Allied victories against Rommel. After the capture of Mersa Matruh on November 8 it was reported from Cairo that there were no longer any enemy forces remaining in Egypt. On November 12, speaking at the Saadat Club, Nahas Pasha was able to dwell on the importance of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty, claiming that Egypt, now "respected by all and proud of her sovereignty and independence," would be able to take a worthy place among the

WHERE BRITAIN AND RUSSIA JOINED HANDS

Strategically and economically of prime significance in the war were the countries of the Near and Middle East, all of which, with the exceptions of neutral Turkey and Saudi Arabia, were by the end of 1942 assisting the Allied cause. The joint occupation of Persia—a centre of Axis intrigue—by Soviet, British, and Indian troops in August 1941 (see Chapter 182) enabled Britain and Russia to establish a common front and opened up communications between the Allies along the 4,000-mile-long Trans-Iranian Railway and the Persian Gulf.
Allied Powers. He added, with a significance which was to become more apparent in 1943, that Egypt looked forward to the day when Arab and Eastern States, with Egypt at their head, would form a strong and united bloc.

The opposition to Nahas Pasha was indeed discomfited by the turn of events. At the opening of Parliament on November 10 the Premier read out an assurance from Britain that Egypt should participate in the Peace Conference whenever Egyptian interests were concerned. The promise helped to buttress the position of the Egyptian Government in face of charges, made by Makram Ebeid in a petition to the King, of favouritism and abuse of military law. So, by December, Egypt was again losing interest in military operations, and reverting to absorption in home affairs. The country welcomed the expulsion of certain Italians in the Palace entourage, and ended the year with the Harem Festival, during which all internal bitterness and anxiety about the war seemed to be forgotten.

Perhaps Persia, of all the Middle Eastern countries, was the most perturbed in the period under review. The war pressed cruelly upon her, so that minor fears too often became major anxieties. In July there was a tendency in northern Persia (particularly in the sensitive Tabriz region) to think that Germany would succeed in conquering the Caucasus; though there were at no time any signs of real panic the whole country wondered what would be the outcome of the fighting in Egypt. At this period Allied stock was undoubtedly at a low figure in Persia. The food situation was serious and the Government, manifestly afraid of rioting, asked the Allies to import wheat and barley. For the shortage of grain the people blamed both their own Government and the Allies. But the situation was indubitably aggravated by the practice of hoarding, and Allied offers to import wheat were to some extent dependent on the Persian Government’s willingness to take Allied advisers into the Anti-Hoarding Department.

Nor was the question of internal security wholly satisfactory. To the request that certain suspects should be handed over to the British military authorities the Persian Government returned a dilatory answer. It was partly in consequence of this matter, though mainly owing to inability to grapple with the food problem, that the Premier, M. Soleimy, resigned on July 30, to be succeeded two days later by Qavam ef-Sultaneh, an elder statesman who had formerly occupied the office of Premier. The outgoing Premier had, as he confessed, failed to gain the confidence of the Parliament (the Majles) and the Press. The new administration received an overwhelming vote of confidence by 109 to 7.

The team which the new Premier formed was probably better than Persia...
had had for 12 months. Qazam as Saltaneh began encouragingly by arresting all the suspects whom the British had wanted; though he refused, in the name of Persian sovereignty, to deliver them to the Allied authorities. Actually, even for making the arrests, he was attacked by the Majlises, a difficult body of men who opposed their position to the former Shah, Riza Pahlevi. These deputies were, in fact, an irresponsible body and in no sense commanded popular approval, but their influence for a policy of inaction or reaction was considerable.

The country was profoundly disturbed over the food situation. Many Persians believed that much of the grain which used to go from the northern provinces to the south of Persia was being taken by the Russians for their own purposes; but in any case there was administrative lethargy by the Persian authorities. The position later became gravest, and in November the capital had less than one day's grain in stock.

During his visit in August Mr. Churchill convinced the Shah that the integrity and independence of Persia were safe. Mr. Wendell Willkie, who came to the country a few weeks later, made a gesture that appealed strongly to Persians in taking the Shah for a flight in his Liberador.

In September the Press manifested signs of getting out of hand; two newspapers were forced to cease down for a short while, and a third was suppressed altogether. The situation caused by Britain's triumph in the Western Desert and the Anglo-American landings in North Africa was diminished, in face of food and currency problems, by fears that the war might yet take a long time to end, and that as a result Persians might be ruined.

In return for a solution of the currency crisis the Allies agreed to import cereals to make up any deficiency in the bread supply up to the time of the 1943 harvest; with the provision that the Persian Government were to be responsible for all internal transport of supplies. Finally, a Food Agreement was signed between Persia, the United Kingdom, and the United States, on December 4, for the provision of 25,000 tons of wheat as soon as possible—a gesture which, as the Premier said, would "give the lie to Axis propaganda alleging non-co-operation between Persia and the Allies."

But the Persian Premier had his opponents, and the Food Agreement could not be immediately implemented. It was hardly surprising, therefore, that on December's riots occurred in Tehran.

Order was not restored until December 12, and in the meantime a British battalion had had to be sent to the capital to protect oil installations and military stores. Since the Persian authorities were lax in dealing with the riots, the Chief of Police and 140 others, including schoolmasters and journalists, were arrested. The Premier, some of whose opponents had been implicated in the riots, might well complain, at the opening of the Majlises on December 29, that his Government was the first administration to realize that Persia could not be immune from the effects of the war; nor could he be expected in a day to repair the neglect of preceding Governments.

In Iraq the advance of Rommel's army towards the Nile induced a certain pessimism, but no sign of serious unrest. The more open friends of the Allies rallied in the emergency, and the Government in July arrested 35 Fifth Columnists. Yet, as it became apparent that the line at El Alamein was being held, complacency set in. No interest seemed to be shown in the Russian campaign, and Iraq was generally settled down to domestic affairs. As in neighbouring countries bordering the war zone, internal economy was disrupted by military measures and supply traffic, and of course there were food problems.

The energetic Prime Minister, Nuri Pasha, was eagerly planning to build up the post-war Iraq. Especially he wanted to reform the educational system of his country, and in August announced that he proposed to go to Egypt to try to get the help of Egyptian educationalists in this matter. But Nuri Pasha did not turn his attention to home problems only. His view, expressed in August, was that, in the improbable event of the Germans getting through the Caucasus, Iraq ought to declare war and fight on the side of the Allies.

Towards the end of September General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson visited Iraq, and told the authorities that the British Army there would cause as little inconvenience as possible. He added pointedly that it was importing its own food supplies, and that Britain was trying to satisfy Iraq's essential needs. But the economic picture is notoriously a difficult one to grasp. It was owing to differences upon how the country's economic position should be tackled that the Cabinet resigned on October 6. Two days later a new Cabinet was formed under Nuri Pasha. About this time the British Minister of State in Cairo, Mr. R. G. Casey, visited Iraq to occupy himself there with problems of supply and inflation. He advised the Iraqis to do all in their power to decrease the cost of living and to prevent speculation in land values.

Such advice did not seem to be fully comprehended by the Iraqis, who appeared to relish the notion of political
change far more than that of economic change. In his Speech from the Throne on November 1 (see illus., page 2211) the Regent certainly dealt more on the political side than on the economic side. "The cause of the United Nations," he said, "is the cause of the Arab nations. The aim of the Government's foreign policy is friendship with Arab countries and with friendly neighbours." He referred appreciatively to the operation of Land-Lease facilities, another sign of Iraqi-American friendship being the opening of the Iraqi Legation in Washington. There followed a pointed reference to the explicit promise given by our Ally, Britain, through Mr. Churchill and Mr. Eden, of eventual independence for those Arab countries whose independence is being delayed.

The British victories in Egypt and Libya, followed by the Allied landings in North Africa, caused an enormous impression. Iraqis felt particularly elated by the prospect of the liberation of those whom they called their fellow-Muslims in North Africa. At this time the Iraqi Parliament pressed the Government to join the United Nations. After messages had been exchanged between President Roosevelt and Nuri Pasha, it was agreed that Iraq, incurring no obligations additional to those assumed under the Anglo-Iraqi Alliance of 1939, should be allowed to become one of the United Nations.

Next to Egypt Palestine was most menaced by the approach of the Afrika Korps to the Nile, but it exhibited a notable calmness. Among certain sections of the Jewish community there was acute alarm, but no panic. Rather, as the weeks passed by without any development of the threat, did attention tend to revert to the chronic question of Jewish and Arab rights. On August 6 it was announced in the House of Commons that a Palestine Regiment was to be formed. This new unit of the British Army was to consist of separate Arab and Jewish infantry battalions for general service in the Middle East. The existing Palestine companies in the Buffs would be incorporated in the new regiment, for which it was hoped to obtain at least 10,000 additional recruits.

Among the Arabs this announcement appeared to produce no reaction. Jewish political leaders, on the other hand, seemed to view the statement as a partial victory for the Zionist claim of a "Jewish Army," and did all they could to induce Jews in Palestine to join the forces. Yet, despite all their endeavours — and a certain amount of intimidation in this matter was alleged — recruiting figures fell. As the year drew to its close, rifts within the Jewish movement became acute. There were, for instance, sharp attacks by the Jewish Agency for the Ichud (Unity) movement sponsored by Dr. Magnus of Jerusalem University, a scheme favouring a bi-national Palestine in a union of Arab-Semitic States.

During November the Arabs for the first time manifested signs of serious disquiet. This development was due to the adoption by the Inter Zionist Council of the "Biltmore Resolutions," passed in New York the previous May, which demanded, among other things, the establishment of a "Jewish Commonwealth" in Palestine, the formation of a Jewish Army under its own flag, and control of immigration by the Jewish Agency. The year ended therefore with a tendency for local politics to overshadow the war.

The most sensitive, though not the most reliable, barometer in the Middle East was provided by Syria and the Lebanon. At the beginning of July there was in these two countries a perceptible fall in the prestige of the British, so that would-be mischief-makers had a great chance. To uncertainty about the future course of the war were added worries resulting from the food situation, political intrigue, and continued suspicion of French policy. The month of July had not run out before there were strikes and demonstrations in Damascus and Beirut — movements in which the supply and price of bread had their part as well as political motives — and the police had to fire on the agitators. Nor were the native people unaware that the respective attitudes of the French and the British were not exactly the same, for the French appeared to resent the slightest sign of British interference in their mandatory sphere, while the British took the view that the military security of the region demanded that
THE SIEGE IS LIFTED: THEIR ORDEAL IS OVER

On November 24, 1942, a special communiqué issued from Moscow announced that Red Army troops advancing from the north had made contact with the Stalingrad garrison, thus liberating the city. Their three months' ordeal over, these women—the thousands of others—emerged from their shelled homes for the last time, carrying the few personal belongings they had been able to salvage. Outside the city fighting went on, and it was not until February 2, 1943, that the Red troops completed the annihilation of von Paulus's army.

Photo: Focus News
GERMAN ONSLAUGHT SEEN FROM THE SKY

Smoke arising from bombs bursting on the great marshalling yard at Stalingrad (see plan on p. 2417) and countless scoreless buildings testify to the pounding the city suffered. In this photograph, taken from an enemy plane, the Volga appears as a dark patch on the right. Two main railway lines are seen: one running north to Saratov, the other swinging west to Moscow. One thousand planes started the bombardment on August 23, 1942. The army counted on gaining the city in two days and dropped leaflets to that effect. So vast and widespread were the fires that most of the leaflets were in ashes before they reached the ground.

Photo. Associated Press
GERMANS ARRIVE AT MAIKOP TO FIND ITS OIL ABLAZE

How great was the importance the enemy attached to the seizure of the Maikop oilfield is best shown by the direction of their first thrusts into the Caucasus foothills—one from Rustov through Bataisk to Krasnodar—the Maikop area refining centre—and the other from the Maryuk front through Azovski to Maikop itself. Maikop was evacuated by the Russians on August 12, 1942, and Krasnodar six days later, but not before the precious extraction and refining plants had been thoroughly smashed, as shown above.

Photo: Kaguna
STALINGRAD DEFENDERS MOVE FORWARD ALONG ANOTHER LIBERATED STREET

On August 25, 1942, the Germans struck their first blow at Stalingrad with a 1,000-plane air assault. Four days later Hitler declared: “The fight for the mighty Dulevskybastion of Stalingrad has begun. Stalingrad will fall.” For weeks von Rohl’s men raced at the city’s approaches, but General Chuiko’s 6th Army held fast. From October 13-18 the blood and most savage battle was fought. The Germans were halted, and later repulsed and annihilated. Red Army reinforcements are now pouring through a battle-stained street on their way to the defence lines.
When presenting his Letters of Credence to President Nappagh in November, indeed, Mr. Waddsworth said that his Government sympathized with the local aspirations for independence, and looked forward to the full independence of the country after the war.

In August the Lebanon had a new Premier, Sami Sult, a Muslim judge. His choice was somewhat surprising in a land with so many Christians, but he was well received. The task of dealing with the wheat situation seemed beyond his powers, however, and no one was astonished when, by October, he had become unpopular with the Lebanonese Christians. The Maronite Patriarch even accused him of Muslim favouritism. On September 27 Damascus celebrated the first anniversary of Syria's independence.

British reverses in Africa in the summer of 1942 did not seriously disturb Turkey's calm. Some Turkish journalists, indeed, took the line that even if Egypt were lost Britain would remain unshaken. Meanwhile, there were Russo-Turkish relations to consider. On July 1 it was announced that M. Achikali would succeed M. Aktay as Turkey's Ambassadress in Russia—a timely change, for M. Aktay had been a gloomy interpreter of Russo-Turkish relations. Quick as ever to make trouble, the Nazis at this time were inventing clauses in the Anglo-Soviet Treaty which they said, directly affected Turkey.

On July 9 the Premier, M. Saydam, died in Istanbul. For the last 20 years he had been an intimate associate of Ataturk, founder of modern Turkey. It is a tribute to the Gazi that he left so many able lieutenants, and so M. Sarajoglu, a financial and foreign affairs expert, duly followed as Premier. Sarajoglu soon made it clear that developments in Africa would not deflect Turkey from her policy of neutrality.

Meeting the Grand National Assembly on August 12, the new Premier outlined Turkish policy. He said that his country was resolved to keep out of the war.

ARABS OF THE NEW PALESTINE REGIMENT

On August 6, 1949, Sir James Grigg, Secretary of State for War, announced in the House of Commons the Government's decision to create a Palestine Regiment of the British Army, consisting of separate Jewish and Arab infantry battalions for general service in the Middle East. The existing Palestinian companies at the Buffs were to be incorporated in the new regiment, for which the recruiting aim was an additional 10,000 men. Below, a squad of Arabs of the new regiment on the barrack square.
but that if it were attacked it would resist to the last man. He defined Turkish neutrality as "active and conscious," as opposed to the merely passive kind. The Anglo-Turkish Treaty was the "very expression of reality," while the Turkish pact with Germany was a clear manifestation of the same policy. The following day M. Memenjuglou, a very able Turk devoted to neutrality, was appointed Foreign Minister.

About the time it was announced that M. Reoht, French Ambassador in Ankara, had declared his adherence to de Gaulle, whom he went to join in Syria, he was succeeded by M. Bergvry, a diplomat of a quite different complexion, who declared, when he reached Turkey, that he would do nothing to embarrass the German representative, von Papen. The Nazis were still hoping to win Turkey over without fighting, though they saw that the final decision depended on the course of events in Egypt and on the Don. They extracted some profit from the dead blood engendered by the bomb trial in which two Russians were involved. This issue dragged on for a long time before the Turkish Courts, which at last, in November, decided that the original sentence on the Russians of 20 years' imprisonment should be reduced to 16 years, eight months.

Turks in general were rather sceptical of the possibility of an early end to the war, and many hoped that Russia and Germany would mutually exhaust themselves, though few believed that the Nazis had any prospects of final success. The British victory at El Alamein and the landings in North Africa came as an intense relief to the Turks, who frankly were surprised by the completeness and swiftness of the Allied triumph.

As in other countries in the Middle East, the man in the street turned to pressing things at home. Here he found real grievances in the food shortage. Corruption was rife, and the Black Mark was devalued. The Government seemed to be becoming unpopular owing to their failure to ameliorate the situation, but it was disappointing to find that, in their perplexity, they sought a scapegoat in the foreign communities in Turkey. In December they introduced a tax on the rich, which hit the Armenians, Greeks and Jews very hard.

**MEN WHO GUARDED TURKEY'S NEUTRALITY**

On October 29, 1943, the 21st anniversary of the founding of the Turkish Republic, President Incecurol reviewed an impressive military parade in Ankara. Included were mechanized and mounted units, parachute troops and air formations, and infantry: a section of the infantry is seen above passing the saluting base.

**Domestic Grievances in Turkey**

**GENERAL DE GAULLE ON TOUR OF SYRIA**

Just a year after British, Australian, Indian and Free French forces had overthrown the pro-German Vichy Government in Syria (the armistice was signed on July 14, 1941), Gen. de Gaulle toured the Middle East. Above he is seen driving (left) with Gen. Catroux through the Syrian capital, Beirut. British and Free French differences regarding the political implications of military necessities in Syria and the Levant were a disturbing element in Allied relations during the period reviewed in this chapter.
Chapter 247

GROWING WAR EFFORT OF THE DOMINIONS
JULY DECEMBER, 1942

This Chapter carries on from Chapters 211 and 221 the story of the ever-increasing contribution made by the Dominions to the cause of the United Nations. Here we bring our review of their activities, both at home and overseas, to a point just beyond the remarkable events of October–November, 1942—the Battle of Egypt and the Allied landings in North Africa—which led to the transformation of the whole strategical scene in the Mediterranean theatre of operations.

Two six months from July to December, 1942, was a period when, happily even if inevitably, worrying differences of viewpoint between the Mother Country and Canada, Australia and South Africa were eased. Australia, which had been perturbed though by no means daunted by the endemism with which she was involved in very imminent danger, rallied under Mr. Curtin’s leadership and stripped for action, domestic friction and misunderstandings with Great Britain being effectively dissipated. Mr. Mackenzie King’s Government in Canada announced both strong criticism from the Conservative Party and certain sections of the Quebec Nationalists, and by its financial assistance, whole-hearted support of the Empire Air Training Scheme, and increased production particularly, shattered any illusions about Canada’s determination to see the achievement of victory. The despondency naturally created in South Africa by the tragedy of Tobruk was soon overcame, and the Union became the repair shop of the Middle East. Opposition to the war, though still existing, waned as confidence grew in the sagacious leadership of General Smuts. New Zealand, to whose door peril had been brought as close almost as to Australia, remained as steadfast as ever and, simply redoubled her efforts to meet the menace shared by all members of the Commonwealth.

In Canada one of the outstanding features of the period was that the House of Commons gave final approval (July 29) to the Government’s Bill to amend the Mobilization Act, thus enabling drafted men to be used for overseas service. Voting against the Bill were anti-conscriptionists: Quebec Liberals, and members of the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation. A fundamental factor in the Dominion’s war effort, naturally, was the attitude of French-Canadians towards the war–following the Franco-German surrender and the setting-up of the Vichy Government. The enemy attempted to make capital out of the embarrassment in which it believed the Canadian Government was covered as a result of the capitulation of France, but Goebbels’ propaganda efforts came to nothing. The Canadian Government, knowing better than anyone else the general temper of the nation, terminated diplomatic relations with the Vichy Government on November 9.

The Prime Minister, Mr. Mackenzie King, announcing this decision, explained that it was necessary because of the conduct of Marshal Petain’s Government in ordering resistance to the forces of the United Nations. He drew a distinction between the termination of diplomatic relations and their severance. Relations with the Petain Government actually terminated when it ordered French forces in North Africa, and the fleet, to fight. Mr. King said this action made it clear that the Vichy Government no longer represented the people of France; it also made it clear to the French people that the Vichy Government no longer represented them and could not be recognized by Canada. The Prime Minister added:

“Our faith in the integrity and purpose of the French people has been sustained by the thousands of fighting French who have never ceased to fight on at our side. It will, however, be important to guard against misunderstandings of the conduct of some Frenchmen.”

Relations with Vichy Broken

“...We cannot be sure that the forces of the United Nations will meet with no resistance from French forces, but in no circumstances can that mean that we are at war against the real France. Whatever resistance there is will, in reality, be German resistance.” He warned the nation against subtle Nazi propaganda in the French language directed to the French-speaking people.

CANADIAN TANKS FOR BRITAIN AND RUSSIA

A hundred of tanks arrives at a Canadian port for shipment to Britain and Russia. By the end of 1942 Canada had the second-largest tank armament on the American continent. She specialized in two types, the Ram and the Valentine, the latter consisting of 40,000 parts exclusive of armament. By September, 400 tanks a month were being made. In 1942 Canada supplied Russia alone with tanks worth more than $25,000,000.

Photo, Canadian Official.
of Canada. Generally, satisfaction was expressed at the Prime Minister's announcement that the Vichy consulates and consular agencies throughout Canada were to be closed.

A great deal of discussion was caused by Sir Lyman Duff's report on the "organization, authorization, and dispatch of the Canadian Expeditionary Force to Hongkong in October 1941." Sir Lyman, who was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, presenting the report on June 7, said that "in spite of the disaster that overtook it, soon after its arrival in Hongkong, it was an expedition of which Canada can, and should, be proud." The report was the result of an inquiry, asked for by the House of Commons, which lasted practically a month. There had been a good deal of criticism inside and outside Parliament on various aspects of the Expeditionary Force. In a debate in Parliament, Colonel Halton, Minister for Defence, on July 23 said that the Expeditionary Force had been sent to gain time in the fight against the Japanese and that purpose had partly been achieved. A day was set aside for discussion of the Royal Commission's report; the debate was the stormiest of the season. The atonement was a triumph for the Government. The Conservative amendment calling for the reorganization of the department of National Defence, on the grounds of alleged inefficiency disclosed in the Hongkong report, was defeated by 130 votes to 34.

On the whole, Communist activity was not considerable. On September 25 the leader of the Communist Party and some of his associates surrendered to the Royal Canadian Mounted Police after hiding to evade internment orders. An appeal board was set up to sit in Toronto to deal with their appeals against the orders. The Communists surrendered so that they might appear voluntarily before the authorities to appeal against the orders, which, they argued, prevented them putting their full energies behind the country's war effort.

At the other end of the political scale, a noteworthy event was the election, on December 11, of Mr. John Bracken, Premier of Manitoba, as Leader of the Canadian Conservative Party. He was chosen at the annual banquet of the party convention, 800 delegates being present. Mr. Meighen, after 35 years of public life, made his valedictory address. Mr. Bracken had the support of Mr. Meighen, as well as of the Progressive Conservatives. Among other things, the new Party platform advocated plans for rehabilitation and reconstruction; slum clearance and national housing; open emigration of like-minded peoples regardless of racial origin; appointment of a National Labour Relations Board empowered to arbitrate in disputes; and appointment of a Minister for Social Security. Mr. Bracken argued the people's right to expect determined efforts on the part of their leaders to smash barriers to world trade.

In the industrial field Canada, once entirely dependent on machine tools of the United States and Great Britain, found itself, like Australia, exporting such items to both these countries. Production was estimated in September to have been stepped up by some 800 per cent since the outbreak of war. Munitions and Supply officials said that almost half the machine tool output was going to help war industries in the United States. Co-ordination of the production and supply of machine tools was being handled by Cananited Merchandising Ltd., a Crown company organized in 1940. Actually, the first Canadian Lancaster bomber flew over the Maltap airport, Ontario, on August 6, and was handed over to a Canadian air crew to take to England. Production costs in many items were being cut down—for example, it was announced in August that the cost of a Bren gun had been reduced from about £207 (first quarter of 1941) to £45 (first quarter of 1942). Rifle output had doubled since the first quarter of 1942. On August 24 the Minister for Munitions, Mr. O. D. Have, announced that facilities were being provided to double Bren gun production. Maximum output, amounting to several thousand guns a month, was expected between December 1942 and March 1943. Canadian plants were turning out 12 types of guns, 16 types of gun-carriages and mountings, and tens kinds of small-arms ammunition. In terms of
On October 23 the Central Government passed an Order-in-Council controlling workers in all Canadian coal-mines, the majority of base metal mines, and those engaged in primary steel production. It was estimated that 75,000 workers were affected. All were exempt from compulsory military service, and were obliged to continue at their own trades. On November 5 the ownership and management of one of Canada's most important aircraft plants was taken over by a specially formed Crown company—the National Steel Car and Aircraft Company, at Malton, Ontario, chiefly engaged in making Lancasters.

How Canada was producing war materials at tremendous speed was shown on November 12 by the Minister of Munitions, who said the present rate of production was valued at $2 billion dollars a year. The total value of war orders to that date was over $5 billion dollars. He announced that Canada had become a full member of the Combined Production and Resources Board, along with the United States and Great Britain; that about 90 per cent of Canada's munitions production was for the Canadian forces at home and abroad; that nearly 30 per cent went to Britain; that Russia and other European fighting areas; and that the remaining 20 per cent went to the U.S., China, and Australia. The Minister predicted that Canada's merchant shipping tonnage would reach 1,000,000 tons by the end of 1942, and about 1,500,000 tons in 1943. The Government estimated that by the end of the year Canada's war production would have cost $4 billion dollars for 1942 and that in 1943 it would be $5 billion dollars. On November 26 it was announced that Canada hoped to turn out three Mosquito planes a day in 1943.

Perhaps the best summary of Canada's remarkable war effort was given by the Prime Minister who, on December 3, announced a New York audience by saying that the invasion convoy to North Africa on November 9, 1942, carried 10,000 Canadian mechanized vehicles; that Canada had the largest small-arms factory on the American continent, and the second largest tank arsenal; that more than 300,000 military vehicles had been produced; that aircraft production had risen from 40 a year to 400 a month; that in 1942 Canada had supplied Russia with tanks worth more than $12,000,000 and other war supplies to the same value; and that over 100,000 Canadians were in the Forces, volunteers overseas numbering about 180,000.

Food rationing became more stringent. It seemed strange to many Canadians, living in a country with an abundance of food, but they recognized it was necessary because of the diversion of supplies to the British people and to the Canadian and Allied Forces. The Minister of Agriculture, on December 29, announced that priorities on Canadian foodstuffs were in the following order: first, Canadian and Allied armed forces; second, the population within the war zone, such as the British people; and finally, the Canadian people. Although

NEWFOUNDLAND TERMINUS OF THE ATLANTIC FERRY

Prime factories in Canada and America planes for Britain were taken to Newfoundland and thence flown across the Atlantic. Below (right to left) are a Consolidated Catalina, 2 Consolidated Liberators, and a Lockheed Vega Venture, waiting to be linted (see also issue, p. 174). By the end of 1942 10,000 Canadian workers were engaged in aircraft production, specializing in nine types.
the Canadian people were placed last, it did not, of course, mean that anyone in Canada would go short of food, but rather that essential and concentrated foods, such as bacon and cheese, would go first to fulfill Canada's British contracts. Nevertheless, there were shortages of butter and bacon because of heavy shipments abroad, the dairy industry, like the pig industry, being engaged in production for war export.

Rationing was necessary. Actually, semi-rationing was introduced in Canada early in May, the ration being fixed at approximately 2 lbs. per week. By September 26 the Government was obliged to halve the petrol ration for 250,000 motorists owing to shortage of petrol.

A string of important official visitors was headed by the King of the Hellenes who arrived in Montreal on June 29. Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands was in Canada in August; so was Sir Walter Monckton, who spoke of wartime visits to Russia, Middle and Far East, Malta and the United States of America, as Director General of the British Ministry of Information.

On October 29 the Ministry of National Defence announced that difficulties concerning the installation of equipment would delay the training of parachute troops in Manitoba until next spring, although the United States Army would continue to train contingents of Canadian parachute volunteers. The original decision to train Canadian parachute troops was made public on July 27. Captain H. E. Proctor, aged 31, was on August 11 appointed to the command of Canada's first parachute battalion. Next day it was announced that there was in existence a combined American-Canadian force modelled on the lines of the British Commandos, for offensive warfare. It was to be known as the "First Special Service Force."

There was tremendous interest throughout Canada when descriptions of the landing at Dieppe by war correspondents who were present were released for publication. The official communiqué paid a warm tribute to the bravery of the landing forces, the majority of whom were Canadians and who had a Canadian commander in Major-General J. H. Roberts (see illus., p. 2405). Reactions throughout Canada, generally, were in the spirit of the operation itself. The casualties were declared; but on the whole the verdict was that the operation was worth while. (See Chapter 243.)

An interesting development on the political side occurred on October 6 when the Prime Minister appointed three new French-Canadian Ministers, thus fulfilling his promise to restore the normal representation of Quebec in the Cabinet. Major-General L. R. Lafleche, of Ottawa, became Minister of National War Services; Mr. Ernest Bertrand, of Montreal, became Minister of Fisheries; and Mr. Alphonse Fourney, of Quebec, for the purpose of preparing the three armies for joint offensive action. The Minister for Munitions, Mr. C. D. Howe, another visitor. The Prime Minister left Ottawa on December 1 for New York to deliver an important speech at the Pilgrim Society's dinner, and was the guest of President Roosevelt at the White House during the week-end. In the diplomatic field the most interesting event was the arrival in Ottawa on October 12 of M. Pyodor Guskey, the first Russian Minister to Canada.

Fittingly enough, one of the last important subjects raised at the end of the year was a United States-Canada Post-War Trade Pact. A new link between America and Canada was forged when joint accord was announced between the United States and Canada, both pledging themselves to work for a post-war world of lower tariff barriers, greater production, and broader trade among nations. It was announced by the U.S. State Department from Washington that the Governments of both countries would shortly begin talks between themselves and with other countries with a view to establishing the foundations upon which we may create after the war a system of enlarged production, exchange and consumption of goods for the satisfaction of human needs in our country, in Canada, and in all other countries willing to join in this great effort."

The geographical position of Newfoundland made "Britain's oldest colony" one of the United Nations' most valuable possessions when war broke out. Cutting out into the Atlantic hundreds of miles east of the American continent, the island provided vital sea and air bases for the long drawn-out Battle of the Atlantic. Without these bases for Allied warships and long-range aircraft it might not have been possible to maintain the supply life-line between front-line Britain and the United States and Canada.

The recognition of this outstanding fact should make the United Nations unfailingly grateful to what has been called "Britain's Cinderella Colony." But Newfoundland, with her sturdy, independent people, has done much more than provide bases for the Allies.

Quite early in the war two regiments of heavy artillery went overseas to become part of the British army. They helped to guard the shores of England when the threat of invasion was at its height (see illus., p. 1125). Later, one regiment went to North Africa and fought there with considerable distinction. Mr. Attlee, Deputy Premier and
Dominion Secretary sent the following message of congratulation to the 160th (Newfoundland) Field Regiment, R.C.A.: "I have learned with very great pleasure of the high praise which the Newfoundland Field Regiment of the Royal Artillery have earned for the part which they played in the operations in North Africa. . . . I know that whatever hard fighting lies ahead we can look to the men from Newfoundland to give further proof of their hardihood and courage and to earn fresh laurels for their country on the field of battle."

Newfoundland's fishermen, recognized as among the finest seamen in the world, flocked to the Royal Navy. From the sparse population of the straggling island, and even from the practically empty spaces of Labrador, 4,000 men went to serve in His Majesty's ships.

Many hundreds more went to the R.A.F. and the Canadian Air Force. The colony, which had had to turn to the Mother country for financial help before the war, gave more than $100,000 to Britain to buy night-fighters for the defence of the homeland—and Newfoundlanders manned them.

Although frequently described as "Britain's oldest colony," Newfoundland, up to February 1944, enjoyed full Dominion status. Then, financial difficulties arose and, following a visit by a Royal Commission, the responsible element was temporarily suspended in consideration of a measure of financial aid from the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, the island's relationship to the British Commonwealth of Nations remained on a Dominion basis.

Moreover, war brought some measure of prosperity to the misty land across the Atlantic, though even before there were any signs that this would be so, Newfoundland decided that she could get along without the $1,000,000 a year which Britain had given her before the war to balance the budget. Increased taxation and internal economies have enabled her to lend the Motherland nearly $2,000,000 since then.

In addition to the British and Canadian bases and airfields, Newfoundland has a great United States Lease-Lend base (see illus., p. 1741). A whole new township has sprung up at Argentia, and much of the work has been done by Newfoundland labour.

In the face of all these calls on her limited man-power, Newfoundland has continued her fishing industry and has provided valuable mineral resources for the growing Canadian steel industry.

On July 26, 1942, the King, on the recommendation of the Australian Government, approved of Lord Gowrie continuing in office as Governor-General for a further period of one year from Australia January 1943. By that time the friendly American invasion of Australia was well under way. Arrangements for accommodating thousands of American troops were made more difficult by the necessity of housing thousands of Australian troops. To execute the vast constructional programmes, which was converting Australia into a major offensive base against the Japanese, the Allied Works Council marshalled the entire constructional resources of the Commonwealth, both public and private.

The A.W.C. had been established under National Security Regulations promulgated on February 26, 1942—eleven days after the fall of Singapore. Mr. Curtin commissioned the Hon. E. G. Theodore, a former Federal Treasurer, then in retirement from political life, to undertake the organization and administration of this body, which was to have as its function the building, maintenance and extension of...
roads, docks, aerodromes, munition plants, oil storage installations, stores, warehouses, camps, hospitals and a miscellaneous of related items in the inventory of total war.

On September 3 the Prime Minister, Mr. John Curtin, issued details of the war supplies which had been coming in increasing quantities to Australia from the U.S.A. under the Lease-Lend agreement during the previous 9 months. Tanks, guns and aeroplanes amounted to more than half the total imports; the rest included时限, machine tools, petroleum products, railway rolling stock and motor vehicles. Of considerable importance were machine tools because, obviously, they were the key to largescale production and their value could only be measured by the surprisingly increased output of Australian war factories. Mr. Curtin announced that Australia was defraying the entire cost of maintaining and supplying American forces in the Commonwealth.

This meant supplying provisions, camp stores and accommodation, beds in Australian military hospitals, the provision of buildings and services for American hospitals (including one of the largest and most modern civilian hospitals in Australia), besides the supply of a variety of military stores and equipment.

Austerity Living Campaign. On top of this, of course, was the availability to the U.S.A.F. of all airfields and R.A.A.F. establishments, together with accommodation, general supplies, meteorological training, radio-location and transport.

As to the merchant and naval side of reciprocal aid, Australia made the organization of the Royal Australian Navy available to the Americans for general services. A few weeks earlier, on August 3, the Australian Food Council laid down a policy of continuing to feed the armed forces in the south-west Pacific, to feed Australians to an extent necessary to maintain a total war effort, and to share in feeding the Allied nations outside the Pacific zone.

About the same time Mr. Curtin announced that the third anniversary of the outbreak of war would be marked by the launching of a new £100,000,000 Conversion Loan, and that simultaneously there would be inaugurated what he described as an "austerity living campaign." He pointed out on August 20 that Australia must live as a nation under immediate threat of invasion. The people must have fewer amusements and recreations, especially in directions in which the spending of money would use manpower. On September 4 the Prime Minister declared that it could then be said Australia had definitely entered on a new economic life. Normal standards of living would be reduced by one third. Plans provided for fewer racing, greyhound and trotting meetings; liquor restrictions, unless consumption was reduced; and the prices of tea, coffee, and tobacco increased to 10 per cent. In addition, the government levied a 10 per cent tax on all imported goods.

The Statute of Westminster, passed in the House of Commons in 1831, provided that the Commonwealth of Australia, or the Dominion of New Zealand, or the Dominion of Canada, should be governed by the provisions of the Imperial Parliament. The Statute made it clear that no Act of the Imperial Parliament would apply to any Dominion unless adopted by the Parliament of that Dominion. Until 1931 these Sections had not been ratified by Australia, New Zealand and Canada, but in 1935, the Statute of Westminster validity Act, 1935, remained in force, subject to any law that they might pass would be void if they conflicted with Acts of the Imperial Parliament. The Statute of Westminster was passed in 1931, but it was not until 1935 that the Statute became effective. The Statute of Westminster changed the relationship between the British Empire and its constituent parts. It provided that no Act of the Imperial Parliament would apply to any Dominion unless adopted by the Parliament of that Dominion. This meant that the Dominions were free to make their own laws and that they were no longer bound by the laws of the United Kingdom. The Statute of Westminster was passed in the House of Commons in 1931, and it was not until 1935 that the Statute became effective. The Statute of Westminster changed the relationship between the British Empire and its constituent parts. It provided that no Act of the Imperial Parliament would apply to any Dominion unless adopted by the Parliament of that Dominion. This meant that the Dominions were free to make their own laws and that they were no longer bound by the laws of the United Kingdom.

EMPIRE CASUALTIES. September 3, 1941 to September 2, 1942

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<td>19,915</td>
<td>42,094</td>
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* Figures from annual issues published. For Empire Casualties, September 3, 1935—September 2, 1941, see p. 2944.
NEW ZEALANDEES IN THE WESTERN DESERT

Supposed of the New Zealand Division in the Western Desert laying the indispensable railway across the Western Desert to Tobruk. It was captured by the Afrika Korps during their eastward sweep in 1942, but was retaken and restored to action by the 8th Army later in the year.

From the painting by Capt. Peter McIndoe, by courtesy of the New Zealand Government.

on the ground that it could be interpreted in Australia, and overseas, as evidence of disunity within the British Commonwealth. [Almost identical reasons prevented ratification five years before, when Mr. Robert G. Menzies was Attorney-General. The Bill then reached the second reading stage and was abandoned.] On this occasion the Government said that to give the Statute full effect Parliament need only ratify sections 2 and 6. The Solicitor-General had said that he was seriously concerned at the practical drafting and administrative difficulties which had arisen, especially during the war, and that in his opinion the adoption of sections 2 and 6 would remove most of the doubts and difficulties.

After a lengthy discussion, in which most of the speeches were made against the Bill by Opposition members, the House permitted its introduction. The Economist, London, on October 10, commented: "It may be doubted whether even Gobshales would bother to read propaganda from the actual formal ratification of such an academic nature." Eventually the Bill was passed 7 and on November 25, Mr. Enry Evans, Under-Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs, replying in the House of Commons to the question whether the Statute was approved in advance by the Parliaments of all the Dominions before its passage through the United Kingdom Parliament, said that the Statute contained a clause which was inserted at the request of the Governments of Australia and New Zealand unless which certain of its provisions would not apply to those two Dominions until adopted by their respective Parliaments. He pointed out that a Bill for that purpose had just passed through the Australian Parliament, and added that no such legislation had yet been passed by the New Zealand Parliament.

On October 5 a Bill authorizing a referendum on Constitutional reform was presented to the House of Representatives by Dr. Evatt, the Attorney-General. The proposed changes did not specifically withdraw powers from the States, but in so far as new powers were to be given to the Federal Government they were to take precedence over the States’ powers, and the authority of the State Parliaments was to be much reduced if the Bill was passed. A great deal of controversy followed. On December 3 the Australian Constitutional Convention adopted a Draft Bill recommended by the Drafting Committee for the transfer by the States to the Commonwealth of certain specific powers to legislate for the war. State Premiers agreed to introduce the Bill in their Parliaments before the end of January 1943.

As the difficulty of the task of beating back the Japanese—then firmly lodged

NEW ZEALAND WOMEN PRODUCE RADIO COMPONENTS

Secondary industries assumed enhanced importance in New Zealand’s war economy. She turned out many items—such as torrey guns, mortars, minenwearers, and training aircraft—which formerly had been thought beyond her capacity. Above, a radio workshop.

Photo, New Zealand Official
which had been declared illegal in June 1940 by the Menzies Government. Actually, the decision followed an agreement for the exchange of Ministers with Soviet Russia, and, even more recently, the Committas' strong support for Mr. Curtin's plan for the extension of the operational area of the militia service to the south-west Pacific. The lifting of the ban also applied to the Communist Press, but regulations were promulgated making it an offence to advocate the use of force for the advancement of any political issue.

Besides this sign of confidence there was another—the establishment of a Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction. In fact, the Allied Works Council had, as one of the phases of its activity, the further development of Australia as an industrial nation, the Council's commission being to increase the output of strategic minerals. The Council, for example, engaged in the production of niter—the all-purpose mineral of Central Australia. Thus, in the words of an official publication, "in converting Australia into an operational base, the Allied Works Council is simultaneously laying the foundations for the next era in the developmental history of the nation." So as to make the best possible use of shipping available in Australian waters, the Prime Minister created a Ministry of Shipping. Previously, control of shipping had been divided between the Departments of Supply,

foundations of the future.
HOME FROM MADAGASCAR: A DURBAN WELCOME

On December 1, 1942, the first contingent of South African troops to return from active service arrived in Durban from Madagascar. They received a tumultuous welcome; above, the scene in front of the city hall as the men marched past the Deputy Mayor. They belonged to the 1st City Regiment, the Grahamstown and Pretoria Regiments and attached units.

Photo: Sport & General

Commerce and Customs, and the upshot was that the most effective use of ships was impossible. A quicker turn-round had been demanded by the United States; and the new Ministry met this call when it took control of the dispatch and routing of vessels and the loading and unloading of cargoes.

War in the Pacific imposed a serious strain on Empire communications in so far as they affected Australia. On December 8, Sir Campbell Stuart arrived in Melbourne for preliminary discussions with the Imperial Communications Conference, over which he presided. Other delegates were: Mr. R. J. P. Harvey and Colonel Zambra from the United Kingdom; Sir Gurumath Bewoor, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, India; Mr. E. S. Rogers, acting High Commissioner for Canada; Mr. J. G. Young, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, New Zealand; and Mr. B. McVey, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Australia. By December 22, the Conference reached an agreement on a future Imperial Communications policy—the Empire Governments were to be asked to accept the agreed proposals as soon as possible. The Conference also considered communications between the Empire and the United States of America.

The importance of the inter-relationship between Australia and New Zealand as a bulwark of the Allied position in the south-west Pacific was emphasized by a visit which the Prime Minister of New Zealand, Mr. Peter Fraser, made to Australia in July 1942 to confer with the Prime Minister of Australia. Conversations turned on questions relating to the war efforts of both Dominions and on the general war situation in the Pacific region. Accompanying Mr. Fraser was Mr. Hurley, United States Minister to New Zealand. In his own words Mr. Fraser wanted to discuss with Mr. Curtin “the constantly serious position” in the Pacific. He said that the United Nations recognized it was unsafe to underestimate Japan in the struggle. Mr. Fraser returned to New Zealand on August 1.

Politically, the situation in New Zealand was stable enough although the Opposition continually called for a National Government, while the Labour Government steadily refused all appeals. Although there was no Coalition Government, there was co-operation in the Cabinet—members of the Opposition took part in certain Cabinet meetings. In October this co-operation suffered a setback when the Opposition decided to withdraw all representatives from the Government. However, two Opposition Ministers who dissociated themselves from their Party’s decision rejoined the Cabinet at Mr. Fraser’s request, but not as National Party (Opposition) representatives. They were Mr. J. G. Coates, Minister of Armed Forces, and Mr. A. Hamilton, Associate Minister of Supply and Munitions. A no-confidence motion, moved on October 16 by the Opposition leader, Mr. S. G. Holland, based on the Government’s handling of certain questions and the effect on the country’s war effort, was defeated by 47 votes to 17.

While from time to time the Government was criticized, the fervor it had for the prosecution of the war was never questioned. On October 8 Mr. Fraser, denying that New Zealand’s role in the Pacific was merely defensive, acknowledged a possibility that her part in the conflict might have become obsese and, perhaps, even distorted. “When we entered the war,” he said, “we entered
it with all we had. We were convinced that the Mother Country was entering the war in the cause of humanity and that everything was at stake and we threw everything we had into the scales. We had never needed from that.

The Prime Minister explained that this meant that "New Zealand's harbours, bays and all other facilities were at the disposal of the United Nations to defeat the greatest tyranny that had ever threatened."

Relatively there was very little disturbance on the home front. Perhaps the largest was confined to the coalfields. It was announced on September 29th, on condition that they did not strike again during the war, the sentence of one month's imprisonment on 169 miners would be suspended. On October 1st it was proclaimed that the important Waikato coal-mines were under State control. The Government issued regulations controlling these fields for the duration of the war under a directorate of Government representatives, owners and workers, with the approval of the miners' union.

Controversy over the administration's handling of the Waikato strike had been running high. So that coal output might be stepped-up, the army was releasing hundreds of miners. Priorities were granted on materials for building new homes in mining regions. Actually, it was the Government's treatment of the strike, threatening as it did serious consequences to railways, industrial establishments and domestic consumers, which led to the decision by the caucus of the Parliamentary Opposition (National Party) to withdraw its six representatives from the War Administration of the War Cabinet. [In June it had been decided to form a War Administration comprising seven Government and six Opposition members, with complete responsibility for all matters connected with the war, in addition to the small War Cabinet, which would act as an executive.] It was only after attempts at settlement had failed that the Government took control for the duration, while safeguarding the companies' and shareholders' interests.

Inflation was something many critics feared. A remarkable, indeed a far-reaching, step in the war-time economic programme of the Dominion was taken on December 16 by the inauguration of a stabilization scheme designed to avert the danger of inflation and to keep wages and other income costs and prices at their existing level. In essence, a new scheme included the pegging of wages, business rents, the prices of farm produce and salaries and allowed no variation unless the cost of living were to rise by 4 per cent, including the 2½ per cent rise which had occurred since the last wages order was issued. A special war-time index of 110 items, including oven fuel, clothing, furniture, foodstuffs and other necessaries, was the yardstick by which the Government announced it would measure the movement of prices. The object was to keep the cost of such essential items at the existing level, thus enabling that part of wages which is used to purchase necessary items to have a constant purchasing power. The Prime Minister announced that the national income had increased by about £N.Z.50,000,000 needs of civilians. The government, be declared, intended to do their utmost to provide essential man-power; because of this, the principle of the 48-hour week would be adopted for war industries. He pointed out that many were already working longer, and steps were being taken for a more even distribution of work.

A month later, on December 2, after several days' unloading of equipment and loading of men, the reception of the United States Expeditionary Force was completed. The commander of one American contingent expressed gratitude for the preparations which had been made by the New Zealand Army. "We are very happy to be associated with them in the defence of the common cause." Among American service men were those who had served with distinction on other fronts. Their reception involved the building of the largest camp ever established in New Zealand. New Zealanders accepted cheerfully any deprivation, realizing that goods were needed for the visiting troops. Supply problems were dealt with from the beginning. An indication of the secrecy surrounding the arrival of the Americans was that the troops themselves were unaware of their destination until the transports left the American coast. There were many in the Dominion who could not resist pointing out that this happy, friendly invasion, necessitated by the hard realities of war, coincided with the period set aside for the celebration of the 300th anniversary of the discovery of New Zealand by the famous Netherlands navigator, Abel Tasman, and Queen Wilhelmina, was specially represented at the celebrations in the capital. Her Majesty's delegate gave the Dominion a facsimile chart of New Zealand drawn by Tasman's chief pilot. The opportunity was taken to emphasize that the British and the Dutch, rivals in centuries of adventures, were now fighting side by side for a common cause.

South Africa lost no time in repairing the losses in men and materials sustained at Tobruk on June 21, 1942, when two brigades of the 2nd Division were trapped. Tobruk was a shock to South Africa. When General Smuts called for 7,000 recruits to form a new armoured division, he gave the watchword "Avenge Tobruk!" The response was instantaneous.

On July 1 the Transvaal Chamber of Mines decided to release 1,000 men immediately for active service in response to the Prime Minister's appeal. Man-power committees everywhere investigated the possibility of releases.
EAST AFRICA GOES TO WAR

East Africa Command mobile military propaganda unit (above right) exhibits the monthly pay and rations of a native soldier. On recruitment (left), thumbprints are taken: this man is destined for the 5th Battalion, King’s African Rifles (a Kenya Regiment). Others joined the Army Pioneer Corps: above left, lowering an overloaded engine into a Bantu basket. (Below): A native expert in microscopy testing for malaria at a military hospital.

Photos, British Official: Queen Copyright: Pictorial Press
Chapter 248

HOW THE COLONIES HELPED BRITAIN AT WAR
SEPTEMBER 1939—DECEMBER 1942

When the entry of Italy, Japan and the United States spread the war throughout the world, the scattered territories of the British Colonial Empire came into their own. In Chapter 229 West Africa's role was dealt with in detail, and in Chapter 229 the part played by Malta, Gibraltar and Cyprus was described. Here Edwin Haward gives a comprehensive review of the magnificent response made by the rest of the Colonies to the demands of total war.

From the moment of the declaration of war on Germany by Great Britain, the various territories which comprise the Colonial Empire spontaneously expressed their encouragement and pledged their support, but it was not until France fell, in June 1940, and Japan struck the deadly blow at Allied naval power, in December 1941, that the colonies as a whole felt really in the front line.

With Italy's entry into the war, Gibraltar, Malta and Cyprus assumed their full stature as belligerents. They were no longer merely points of call on the vital Mediterranean route—important though that was—they were battle zones. When the Italians invaded Somaliland, Kenya was on the border of the conflict. The temporary closing of the Mediterranean gave added importance to the West African colonies and to such ocean "halls" as St. Helena and Ascension Island.

When, 18 months later, the Pacific war opened, Mauritius, Seychelles and Ceylon equally became sectors of the world battleground.

Though it had been for all the Colonies a time of suspense, when the general feeling was one of expectation at being "out of it all," these early months had not been wasted. All colonial legislatures having specifically declared their support of the war, defence schemes were put into force and there was a general quickening of effort. In this waiting period, too, began the first stream of voluntary gifts to the Motherland which by the third year of war had reached the impressive total of £30,000,000. Thus the foundation was laid for the magnificent contribution made by the Colonies when the call to direct action came.

As has been indicated, the first colonial area to be brought right into the battleline was the Mediterranean and Africa. It is convenient to begin the survey here, and it would be natural to deal with Malta first. But the heroic efforts and long ordeal of the George Cross island have already been recorded in Chapters 160 and 229.

Admirably watching Malta, Cyprus (1,000 miles farther east in the Mediterranean) stiffened itself for defence when Germany's drive to the Caucasus, the occupation of Greece and the Axis threat to Suez pointed to imminent danger of attack. Against Malta's area of 91 square miles and population of 269,000, Cyprus sets 3,500 square miles and 380,000 inhabitants. Cypriot troops (Pack Transport) were early in the war—in France in 1940. They also fought in the Libyan campaign of the same year, and later in Greece, where, in the retreat through the Peloponnese, they lost 3,428 men, 2,000 of whom were taken prisoners of war. The Cyprus Regiment was formed in 1940. "No efforts humanly possible are being spared either from without or within to perfect our defence and keep us safe from aggression," said the Governor, Sir William Battenhill, in July 1942. This local patriotism resulted in the formation of a Home Guard and in the expansion of the forces to well over 20,000 strong. In addition strong reinforcements came from India and Great Britain, so that in the autumn of 1941 the island had the largest garrison in its history. Despite the fact that the Italian naval base at Rhodes was only 290 miles, and Crete, taken by the Germans, only 350 miles away, Cyprus did not get its first serious air raid until June 1941, though the first alert was in June 1940. The months of July and August 1941 brought haphazard raids, but eventually the enemy confined his air operations to reconnaissance flights. Elaborate air-raid defences were constructed and the people of Cyprus made a generous contribution to war funds. With the start of General Alexander's African offensive in the autumn of 1942 Cyprus became keyed up for attack.

ADEN follows THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR

A section of the cosmopolitan town of Aden, the British base guarding the southern approaches to the Red Sea, assembled to listen to the nightly short broadcast of war news. The loudspeaker was installed on the flat roof of the police station; the shaded double windows may be seen on the left. It was from Aden that on March 16, 1941, the attack was launched which resulted in the recapture of Berbera.

Photo: P.N.A.
About 6,500 European women were registered, 2,300 of them were engaged in war work outside their own homes, including 800 engaged in full time farming.

Kenya’s next-door neighbour, Uganda (91,000 square miles and 3,800,000 people), celebrated its jubilee in 1943 and in the process was enjoyed by the people who had contributed £572,000 to War Funds by the end of 1942. The King’s African Rifles obtained one of its battalions from Uganda, and this unit fought gallantly in the African campaign. Uganda sent many men to the East African Army Service Corps and its Motor Training School turned out a valuable supply of drivers. In addition to Uganda’s exports of cotton and production of wool, her material contribution to the war effort was substantial. (The colony is the second cotton producer of the Empire—48 million lb. per annum.) Togoland and Kenya helped also as producers of cotton.

Other colonial forces serving in North Africa were about 30,000 men from Basutoland, Swaziland and Bechuanaland. They were formed into the African Auxiliary Pioneer Corps on the basis of an organization which enabled them to maintain their tribal individuality.

British Somaliland, lying between French Somaliland to the east and Italian Somaliland to the west, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Aden, and extending Italian-held Ethiopia, was highly exposed to danger since Italy entered the war, and was soon overrun by Italian troops. However, retreating British, African and Indian forces before they were evacuated took heavy toll of the enemy in the summer of 1940. The invaders attacked on August 4-5, 1941 against forces less than a twelfth of that number. The defence was composed of the 1st Rhodesian Regiment, the 2nd King’s African Rifles, the Black Watch, two companies of Punjabis, the Somaliland Camel Corps and the 1st East African Light Battery. For nearly all these men—British, South African, Africans, Somalis and Indians—this was their baptism of fire. The Italian troops—especially the colonial—showed a high standard of courage, but the men of the empire were tremendous owing to the determination of the defenders. Captain K. C. Wilson, of the Somaliland Camel Corps, won the Victoria Cross of the War. In covering the eventual evacuation at Berbera the Black Watch distinguished themselves in holding off the enemy at the point of the bayonet. (See Chapter 109.)

Seven months after the Italians had registered this, their only success in the war, their High Command had to order the evacuation of British Somaliland owing to the rapid overrunning of Italian Somaliland by the East African Forces in conjunction with the Allied assault on Birtete and Abyssinia. On March 16, 1941, a force from Aden invaded Somaliland and recaptured the capital. A few days later, contact was made with the column advancing from Kenya (see Chapter 108). The Somalis warmly welcomed the returned British officers: “Thank God you are back again!” they said. “We knew you’d come.” So this little colony of nearly 60 years standing in the British Empire, with a population of 345,000 on an area of 68,000 square miles—a country of water-holes, sandy desert and scattered pastureland, had, less than a year, experienced the ups and downs of war—first invasion and then a joyous reunion which gave strength to the mighty drive against Mussolini’s cardboard “empire” in North Africa. Aden, just across the Gulf, incomparable rock of sea communications, could thus again look on a friendly Somaliland. In addition, the Hadramut chieftains were relieved to know that their security had been swiftly re-established. This greatly sustained them later when they suffered anxiety for their kinsmen in Java and Malaysia.

To this campaign against Italian East Africa, Kenya contributed well. With a European population of 20,000, out of a total of 229,000 (90,000 of them Indians), she raised a Women’s Volunteer Foreign Service of 500 to serve with the East African Forces and no less than 635 women were posted as civilian stenographers and clerks in the military office.
MAN-HANDLING THE GUNS THROUGH THE NEW GUINEA JUNGLE

Men of the A.I.F., veterans of two years' campaigning in Libya, Greece, Crete and Syria, were unanimous in declaring that the fighting in Papua was the most gruelling of their experience. For they found American camouflage it was a brutal introduction to the realities of war. Typical of the rigours of jungle fighting was the effort demanded in moving artillery - above, Australians haul a 25-pounder through a clearing in the jungle.

Photo, Australian Official
AUSTRALIAN-MANNED AMERICAN TANKS LEAD
THE ASSAULT ON BUNA

By the middle of November, 1942, the remnants of the Japanese Army con-
verted by Lieut. Gen. Tomoyuki Kuribayashi were finally confined at three po-

The tanks had been landed at the Cape Emblaken site (see illus., p. 286), while the Americans had been ferried by air from Port

This photograph was taken during the actual fighting.  Photo, Australian Official
IN NEW GUINEA THE ALLIES LIVED AND FOUGHT IN WATER AND MUD

Tropical rainstorms, whose violence could smash through the jungles in impenetrable and sickening vapours and churn the earth into deep bogs of mud, The Allied troops suffered an existence which even the Papuan natives shunned. They lurked in shallow olive-pits during the day, withered by the sun. When the rains came the pits filled up with water, as at this forward post in the Samarinda area, situated less than 30 yards from the enemy positions.
units recruited from the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Gambia, had arrived in Kenya in the summer of 1940. By the following summer these West African fighting men had won from the High Command this tribute: "In every situation, they have distinguished themselves. Their spirit, their efficiency, their burning patriotism, and their high courage are admired and envied by all."

Typical examples of the heroism of these African troops—whether of the East or West—may be cited. Sgt. A. F. F. Fraze, of the Gold Coast Regiment, won the B.E.M. for risking death to rescue a pilot from a blazing plane loaded with unexploded bombs. Sgt. O. D. O. O. O. D. W. and Cpl. K. B. B. B. B., of the King's African Rifles, all won the Military Medal in Madagascar for great bravery in the face of heavy machine-gun fire.

On the other side of Africa the temporary loss, in 1940, of the Mediterranean route to India gave special importance to Sierra Leone (25,000 square miles and 1,800,000 people), Nigeria (373,000 square miles and 20 million people), the Gold Coast (24,000 square miles and 1,800,000 people), Abia (24,500 square miles and 700,000 people), and the Northern Territories (39,500 square miles and 717,000 people). Freetown, a fine natural harbour, became a veritable ocean junction as ships of all sizes put in there on their journeys to and fro between west and east. Lagos became an important air

base for communications to Egypt and India.

The Nigerian Marines took part in coastal defence, Nigerian served in the R.A.F., and Nigerian troops in the campaign against the Italians in Somaliland, Abyssinia and Eritrea distinguished themselves greatly. The King's African Rifles, the Royal West African Frontier Force and the Northern Rhodesia Regiment were mustered many times over and were recruited from all the East and West African territories. In the East Africa campaign, by the middle of 1941, nearly 100,000 African troops were serving.

Nigeria's success in the field has been matched by remarkable developments in food production. Rice and maize crops have been increased to make the country independent of imports and actually able to export. Flour milling, butter production, sugar manufacture, and various food-making industries have expanded, while starch is being manufactured to replace the loss of supplies from the Netherlands East Indies. Nigeria also constructed small naval craft in her extended shipbuilding yards.

The West African territories under a Proctor Control Board set themselves to expand the production of forests, oilseeds and groundnuts, and in East

and West Africa intensification of rubber production was secured. Tanganyika, for example, revived abandoned areas of cacao rubber with the help of former Malayan planters, and quadrupled her former output. The Gold Coast, Sierra Leone and Nigeria helped in the drive for more minerals, such as bauxite, wolfram, tin, graphite, copper, zinc, etc. Mombasa's (Kenya) already fine harbour was enlarged to handle in 1943 2,100,000 tons of cargo as compared with 1,200,000 tons in 1939. Fitty called Killinini—"the place of deep water"—is sheltered convey and handled goods and troops. There were many developments in forestry in Tanganyika.

The islands of St. Helena and Ascension off the African Atlantic coast, also, were able to emphasise their communications value in the Empire's time of need. St. Helena found her increased production of hemp to be specially useful to the Allied Nations after the fall of Manila.

In the West Indies the U.S. government established bases as part of the Allied campaign against the U-boats, and the islands developed their resources with the object of doing what they could to help the common cause. The defence of the West Indies was main

H.M.S. *MAURITIUS* VISITS HER NAMESAKE ISLAND

Mauritius, strategic island in the Indian Ocean 3,000 miles east of Madagascar, held by Britain since 1810 as a vital link in the Southport—Cape Town—Columbia sea route, assumed enhanced importance with the Japanese conquest of Malaya. With Seychelles and Ceylan it formed the westernmost barrier to further Japanese encroachments. In the summer of 1943 H.M.S. *Mauritius,* British Fiji class cruiser (below), visited the island whose name she bears.
SOUTHERN RHODESIA TRAINED 2,000 AIRMEN A YEAR

A notable part of Southern Rhodesia's contribution to the Empire war effort was the establishment of training schools for personnel of the R.A.F. and Dominion Air Forces. By the middle of 1943 she was turning out 2,000 fully-trained pilots, air gunners and observers annually. Above, in the picturesque setting of the mountain-lined Mara Dami, Cranbourne, Southern Rhodesia, three R.A.F. Harvard I's—advanced training monoplanes—are in formation.

Photo, British Official: Crown Copyright

stronger, by the raising locally of the South Caribbean Force as regular units of the British Army, consists of detachments stationed in Barbadus, Trinidad, the Windward Islands and British Guiana. The forces include coastal batteries, anti-aircraft and searchlight troops, infantry and artillery units. In addition Home Guards were raised in all the islands. Bermuda, with the co-operation of the U.S. forces, organized a comprehensive anti-mosquito campaign—an important factor in the success of the establishment of bases for these forces in the island. In Trinidad, too, American bases were created. This led to an Anglo-American joint effort to improve the fishing industry in the island and the Caribbean generally.

In the Windward Islands Lease-Lend facilities produced diesel engines to develop local shipping industries. The New Industries Developed in the saving of outside shipping space led to the development of a furniture industry in Bermuda and Jamaica; while the latter island successfully used locally produced castor oil in place of kerosene. St. Lucia went forward with bee-keeping and Bermuda revived her canning industry. Far to the south the 3,000 inhabitants of the Falkland Islands gave over £13,000 to war funds. Although several men served with the Royal and Merchant Navies and the R.A.F., the whole man-power was occupied in local defence and had been on active service from the outbreak of war. Falkland Islands sheep farmers helped to meet the United Nations' need for wool—in the five years before 1938 the islands produced 4 million lbs annually. After Japan's entry into the war Imperial troops arrived to strengthen the islands' defences.

Tragic Malaya, exposed to the dangers suddenly unfolded by France's collapse—which gave the Japanese the opportunity to seize naval and air bases in Indo-China in September 1940 and July 1941 and so achieve a point of vantage for launching landward and air attack on Singapore's ungeared man—had, up till then, been foremost in contributing to the Allied war resources. Hinge sales of Malayan foreign exchange facilitated the financing of large exports of rubber and tin to the U.S.A. The Singapore Harbour Board Deckyards built fast-paced launches, minesweepers and anti-submarine craft. The Federated Malay States subscribed £300,000 for aircraft and the Straits Settlements Squadron, which operated so gallantly against the Luftwaffe in Europe, was provided out of the Straits Settlements War Fund amounting to nearly £1,000,000. The Malay Regiment was raised in 1933 and expanded for war purposes to share in the inadequate defence of Malaya against the overwhelming forces of the invading Japanese.

The loss of Malaya's rubber resulted in a magnificent effort by other colonies to repair the deficiency. (See also Chapter 223.) In this achievement, Ceylon, Tanganyika, Fiji, East Africa and the Gold Coast took part. The Cameroonies in 1942 reported a production of over 24 million tons of rubber—or double the pre-war figure, and the Gold Coast organized a collection of wild rubber and scrap. Plantations in British Guiana and Tobago took up the growing of rubber again, and the possibilities of its production were explored by Trinidad. In New Guinea the collection of wild rubber in areas outside the zone of operations was attempted. Off the east coast of Africa, Mauritius and Seychelles provided valuable points of vantage for meeting the Japanese threat after Pearl Harbour. But to Ceylon fell the honour of making the first stroke in countering Japan's spectacular advance. On April 5, 1942, Japanese planes from aircraft carriers attempted a mass raid on Colombo. Out of 75 planes making the attack, Ceylon's defenders shot down 27. Two days later the Japanese came again at Trincomalee, Ceylon's great anchorage, and lost 37 machines. (See Chapter 223.) The responsibility for Ceylon's defence had been put in the hands of Admiral Sir Geoffrey Layton, formerly Commander-in-Chief Far Eastern Fleet. His knowledge of the Japanese and his leadership galvanized the services in Ceylon with the full

FROM BRITISH GUIANA

Diana Williams, of British Guiana, came to Britain to join the A.T.S. She is here seen retreading tyres at a Midlands depot. She was one of the 3,000 West Indians who by the end of 1943 had crossed the Atlantic—most of them independently and at their own expense—to serve in the three Forces.

Photo, Associated Press
co-operation of the Governor, Sir Andrew Caldecott.

In June 1942 the occupation of the French island of Madagascar by British forces under General Platt further encouraged the outposts of the Indian Ocean. Ceylon in particular had reason to rejoice, as her problems were by no means negligible, apart altogether from the military aspect of the situation. The loss of Burma had deprived India of some 3 million tons of rice normally imported from that country. Restrictions on the export of Indian foodstuffs soon had their effect on Ceylon, the population of which, like the people of Madras, are largely rice-eating. Ceylon had to plan the expansion of her own rice production by putting another 311,000 acres under cultivation with South Africa. Ceylon's defence forces—Ceylon Light Infantry, Ceylon Planters' Rifle Corps, Ceylon Engineers, Ceylon Garrison Artillery, Ceylon Medical Corps, Ceylon Naval Volunteer Force and Ceylon Army Service Corps—were mobilized and shared with regular troops in the defence of the island. The Ceylon Planters' Rifle Corps supplied over 120 cadets for the Indian Army. The people of Ceylon raised about £500,000 for war funds in addition to Government loans.

Like Ceylon, Mauritius' command of sea-routes was important. It had a direct bearing on the defence of India, and the island's population of 390,000 included about 270,000 Indians. Mauritius subscribed well to war funds and organized local defence within her limited means. Ceylon and Madagascar effectively prevented Mauritius from being more directly exposed to enemy attack.

After the fall of Hongkong, Malaya and Burma, the position of the Fiji Islands (pop. 220,000) suddenly assumed prime significance. Under the rearrangement of the United Nations' plans to meet the Japanese attack the islands came within the charge of the U.S. commander of the Combined Naval Forces in the Anzac Area—Vice-Adm. Herbert Leary. New Zealand troops were sent to strengthen the islands' defence, while neighbours of Fiji, Caledonia to the south-west and Samoa to the north-east, were garrisoned by American forces.

When Japan seized the bases in New Guinea and the Solomon Islands the lines of sea and air communication between the U.S.A. and New Zealand were in grave peril, but Fiji stood guard over them. Under the leadership of Major Ratu J. I. V. Sukuna, C.B.E., a veteran of the last war, Fiji Commandos were raised and went brilliantly into action against the Japanese in Guadalcanal. The raising of the Fiji Infantry Regiment and its departure for the forward fighting areas and the mobilization of a Home Guard (basically 4,000 men) to guard all races in Fiji (Europeans, Kurrus, Chinese, Solomon Islanders as well as Fijians and Indians) testified to Fiji's fighting spirit. Her war expenditure of £219,300 in 1941 was partly met by taxation yielding £55,000, a testimony to the solidarity of the people's support of the United Nations. The defence force included infantry, artillery and territorial units and also a coast defence battery. The Fiji Naval Volunteer Reserve, manned by Europeans, Indians and Fijians, rendered useful service, and to save shipping the islands made a splendid effort to be self-supporting in foodstuffs.

In contributing to the Allied funds the Colonial Empire proved the accuracy of a Nigerian chief's definition of its attitude: "The British people are our true and tried friends, therefore we must help them." More than £6 million had been subscribed by the people of the Colonies by the end of 1943, apart from loans free of interest coming from the various colonial governments. Ceylon voluntarily gave £750,000 to war funds, Trinidad £500,000, little Antigua—an island in the Leeward group—£1,000, the Falkland Islands £15,000 (roughly £4 per head of the population), and the inhabitants of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands—despite the High Commissioner's warnings against over-generous enthusiasm—£12,000. The same story was told everywhere; in addition there were innumerable gifts in kind.

In sum the Colonial Empire, by dint of the eagerness of all its people, rose to the occasion not merely to provide the sinews of a global war but to do so in a fashion which firmly laid the foundations of economic and social progress when peace should come.
JAPANESE ROUTED AT MILNE BAY

On Aug. 20, 1942, a Japanese force landed at Milne Bay, on the S.E. tip of Papua (see map, page 246). Reconnaissance planes had sighted the convoy off the Trobriand Islands, and the attack was anticipated. In less than a week the invading force was annihilated by the Australian garrison, commanded by Major-General Cyril A. Crowe (c). At Milne Bay hills fall sheer to the sea in places (1), but there were spots where enemy landings could be run ashore. Two are shown disabled (4). Australians ploughed through typical Papuan mud (2) to stem the advance, the limit of which was marked by a monument (3). An abandoned Japanese landing barge (3) testified to the first big Allied counter-offensive success.
Chapter 249
ALLIED OPERATIONS IN NEW GUINEA, 1942

Chapter 238 surveyed the second phase of the Japanese offensive in the Pacific—the creation of a strategic chain of island strongpoints. Here, in collaboration with official Australian military sources, Miss L. E. Cheeseman, the distinguished authority on New Guinea, graphically describes the invasion of that island and the first stage of the successful Allied counter-offensive.

On January 20, 1942, a hundred Japanese bombers attacked airfields at Rabaul in the Australian mandated island of New Britain, northeast of New Guinea. A certain number of these aircraft—probably the entire force—came from aircraft carriers. This was the first hostile action against British New Guinea in the Japanese campaign to obtain possession of that island with its archipelago, in order to form an outer area of defense for their new Pacific empire and to paralyze Australia by a threat of invasion.

Large forces of Japanese aircraft were sighted from various points in the Bismarck Archipelago and off the northern coast of New Guinea on the day following the preliminary air attacks. On January 22 Rabaul radio station sent out its last message that enemy ships had been sighted and the Japanese were preparing to land. They landed next day.

The invasion was by no means unopposed. On January 23 a huge Japanese convoy of reinforcements for the landing at Rabaul was discovered as it was passing through the Macassar Strait, and was practically destroyed after a five-days' battle. Dutch planes and torpedo-boats, the Royal Australian Air Force and U.S. Flying Fortresses and cruisers, kept up a series of attacks.

Japanese losses were at least seven warships, with 36 troopships. Six more craft were probably destroyed and ten damaged. Nevertheless, 10,000 Japanese troops landed at Rabaul, by the capture of which the enemy secured an exceptionally fine harbor and several airfields. When this base became a very strong key position from which to carry out further operations against the mainland of New Guinea.

Deep harbors sheltered from violent squalls, which blow at almost hurricane force, are not very numerous in this area, but Rabaul Harbour, tucked into a corner of Blanche Bay, is an old volcanic crater, capable of holding a fair-sized fleet. The town of Rabaul stands above a good foreshore and before Japanese occupation had a white population of over 12,000. All around are extensive and flourishing coconut plantations served by good roads. There are several airfields. It would have been a herculean task to put such settlements into a state of defense, separated as they are by hundreds of miles of un-protected coast with numerable inlets, solitary beaches and natural harbors, uninhabited except by Papuan tribes. (Except the few inhabitants of the little islands of Ana and Wawitr to the north-west of New Guinea, the natives are sturdy, friable-haired, brown or coal-black Melanesians and Papuans. The tribes keep themselves to themselves.)

The Japanese continued to throw in vast numbers of troops underpinned by heavy losses. In the two months following the occupation of Rabaul they acknowledged the loss of 50 ships and 100 aircraft with 7,000 casualties. Even while consolidating their position on New Britain and driving out the Australian forces—which though out-numbered continued to offer resistance so long as this was possible—the Japanese made landings on the north coast of New Guinea at Loe, Salamaua and Wewak early in March. All three places were subsequently evacuated by the Australians.

New Guinea is 3,000 miles in length—three times the size of the British Isles—but it possesses only about ten small towns or white settlements; there are government stations and also ports...
of call with regular steamer communication, in Dutch Territory with Macassar and Batavia, and in the British Territories with Sydney. There was radio communication between government stations in each individual Territory, but neither mail nor radio intercommunication between Dutch and British Territories. Apart from these civilized spots this great island consists of high mountain ranges covered in lofty forest and large areas of swamp. There is a dense native population.

With the introduction of air transport within comparatively recent years numerous airfields were made in favourable positions along the coast and inland to serve airfields and gold-fields. These groups of airfields in proximity to the most important ports were the first objective of the invaders, who captured one position after another, overwhelming any resistance by sheer numbers, except in the case of Waria airfields in Morobe District, which were successfully held by Australian in spite of incessant attacks.

Wewak Harbour, which has a good anchorage sheltered behind a small point, became an important Japanese naval and air base Salamaua, capital of the Mandated Territory, formed another strong strategic position; the valuable airfields of Lae at the mouth of Markham River defended the wide Markham Valley, which was also occupied by the enemy. Markham River

VITAL SUPPLIES SENT BY AIR

The Australians called the Papuan campaign a "G War"—a quarter-master's war. Supply problems were solved by Lt.-General George Kenney, commanding Allied Air Forces in the B.W. Pacific area, shown below (on right) inspecting the fleet 55-cm. howitzer to be housed in the front line from Douglass and Lockheed thousands of tons of food and war material were dumped (right) at reception sectors.

It was not until the first week in March 1942 that the Japanese landed in force in the Mandated Territory and occupied the Markham Valley. Shortly after, Port Moresby was subjected to frequent air raids. The Allied Air Forces inflicted severe punishment whenever opportunity offered, but were largely handicapped by the loss of air bases from which to operate, and the long distances involved precluded the continual reconnaissance which was so much needed. In the numerous dogfights which took place over Port Moresby itself there was abundant evidence of the superiority of the machines and air crews of the Allies. Neither town nor airfields received any very serious damage. Large formations of Japanese aircraft were frequently sent to the attack but were systematically broken up and dispersed, many enemy planes being brought down during such engagements. When the Allied Air Forces had been suitably strengthened and the Japanese had no longer numerical superiority, the menace from air attacks on Port Moresby and towns on the Australian mainland was no longer so serious.

Eventually, in July, the enemy launched a determined overland drive to capture the town. On the 26th, Japanese troops, escorted by cruisers and destroyers, reached the Buna and Gona anchorages on the north-east coast of Papua and sent myriads of small boats ashore. In special landing barges of steel and wood, in native canoes and in barges made on the spot, troops were landed at innumerable little beaches, inlets and mouths of rivers and creeks. It was estimated...
later that 15,000 men had been put ashore, with full equipment and anti-aircraft batteries which were set up at once in prearranged positions. With the Japanese force came their Commander-in-Chief, General Tomioka Hori, an expert on landing tactics sent expressly by the Japanese Supreme Command to carry out operations in the south-west Pacific.

Only a small Australian force could be sent to oppose this formidable landing, and this could do no more than offer temporary checks. When the Japanese had crossed the swamp area of the coastal flat, which offers little difficulty at that time of the year,

they fanned out into the lower forest and adopted the infiltration tactics which had been so successful in Malaya and Burma; and the Australians, after a few patroil skirmishes, were obliged to withdraw along the road to Kokoda in the mountains. Here they received reinforcements flown by transport planes from Port Moresby.

The Buna-Kokoda road was built in 1904 to serve the Yasfa goldfield, whence it was continued only as a track over the Owen Stanley Range (which occupies the backbone of south-east New Guinea), through a pass known as the Gap (at 6,700 feet) and down to Port Moresby. Kokoda Government Station, opened at the same period, consists of a few official buildings round a square clearing on a ridge above an aerodrome. The Japanese pressed on, following the road, and after an ineffectual engagement fought on Kokoda aerodrome on August 1, in which the commander, Lt-Col. W. T. Owen, was killed in action, the Australian delaying force withdrew into the higher mountains. From Kokoda the track climbs abruptly, in places merely as a narrow terrace crossing the face of high precipices at a very steep angle. The enemy was held up for a time by the difficulties of the terrain but, led by General Hori in person, eventually gained the crest of the Owen Stanley Range, found a way through the range by scaling small galleries, and stormed the Gap which the Australians were defending. Again, but for the last time, the Australians were forced to withdraw and on September 10 the Japanese reached the Ioribaiwa Range, less than 40 miles from Port Moresby.

By then, Australia had grown extremely anxious, and all who realized the gravity of the situation were dreading from hour to hour to hear the calamitous news that Port Moresby had fallen. But the line of defence on the slopes south of the central ranges held firm and could not be broken. Violent attacks by the Japanese were repulsed,

KOKODA RECAPTURED: NORTHWARDS TO BUNA

Strategy key to the control of the Owen Stanley range, Kokoda village was captured by the Japanese on August 4, 1942, the Allied commander, Lt-Col. W. T. Owen, being killed in action. When the village and airfield were retaken by the Australians unopposed on November 3 the Dominions flag was ceremoniously raised above an Australian signal post erected next to its Japanese counterpart (left) which indicated the route to the coast via Givi.

Photos: Australians Official: Sport & General

and all attempts to outflank the Australians were frustrated.

The Allies had taken full advantage of the delaying actions fought by the small but gallant Australian land force, which had bought precious time for reinforcements to reach Port Moresby. That force had been given invaluable help by the existing Allied air units, including what General Henry H. Arnold, head of the U.S. Army Air Forces, described in September 1943 as "the greatest demonstration of parachute bombing ever seen." Fragmentation bombs were dropped against front-line enemy infantry and on the lines of communications. The widely scattering fragments forced men and pack animals off the trails, obliging them to be without food and water, and cut aerodromes, supply trains and encompassments to pieces.

Australian units were recalled from the North African front, and were transferred straight from the desert fighting into the New Guinea jungles. All suitable aircraft that could be spared from the U.S.A. were dispatched to Port Moresby to strengthen the Allied Air Forces already there, and American troops also arrived.

Both Allied Commanders, General Blamey (Australian Military Forces) and Lt-Gen. General R. L. Eichelberger (U.S. Army), visited the forward
Port Moresby, the largest town of New Guinea, would have been invaluable to the enemy even if it did not hold such a strong strategic position, and had it fallen into Japanese hands Australia would have been open to invasion and to air raids on her southern cities.

An attempted enemy landing at Milne Bay on August 26 had ended in a crushing defeat. This wide inlet at the S.E. tip of New Guinea has low swampy shores favouring invasion by small craft, but the Australians, foreseeing the likelihood of an attack from that direction, had made careful preparations to oppose it. The venture proved costly to the enemy who, although he succeeded in landing tanks, lost heavily in boats and troops. One small party succeeded in establishing itself on the northern shores of the bay, but it was soon annihilated by forces commanded by Maj.-Gen. Cyril Clowes.

It was a fortnight before the Iorabawa Range was cleared of the Japanese. This is a small range rising to about 1,000 feet, the highest peak being 2,500 feet. Sections of it had to be attacked separately, the enemy in the trees destroyed, and dug out of the ground where he had well-prepared positions. But when the failure to make a fresh landing on the coast at Milne Bay was realized, no further attempts to outflank the Australian position were made and the main Japanese force withdrew through the Gap, leaving a thousand men to hold the Iorabawa Range until death. As these would not yield, they were destroyed; not one prisoner was taken in this engagement.

SUCH WERE THE CONDITIONS ON THE KOKODA TRAIL.

From Port Moresby to 'The Gap' in the Owen Stanley mountains, the Australians plodded northwards on a trail that was at times little more than a goat-track. Above, members of the A.I.F. added to the trail: note the abandoned bicycle, slowly submerging. Below, a 25-pounder gun wheels slowly up the trail: its dismantled barrel lashed to a rude sledge. See also page 2455.
On the higher slopes around the Gap the forest is very lofty as well as dense. There are thickets of bamboo where a man can scarcely force a way between the stout stems, while overhead are the interlacing crowns of great trees supporting large communities of epiphytic vegetation, and massive canopies of aerial roots, rope-like lianas and tangles of climbing stems. On the ridges and peaks, where heavy clouds rest when it is not actually raining, is the mossy forest where masses of many kinds clothe the great limbs and trunks and form huge tussoks, four or five feet square. It was in appalling terrain of this kind that the Allied troops had first to locate their enemies before attacking them. A large army could filter through such vegetation undetected; everywhere was ideal cover for snipers.

Four forms of transport were employed between Port Moresby and the battle zone. For some distance from the base lorries could make the journey along a "possible" road, though at times hairpin bends caused bottlenecks and in places there was room only for one-way traffic. Gradually the road became impassable to all but jeeps, using chains and four-wheel drives. When the jungle proper began, pack animals were brought into use, but as the track wound higher through precipitous gorges and across swift-running mountain streams the trail became gradually so slippery with mud that the supplies had to be transferred from the backs of the animals to the backs of men, and thus they reached the front line.

**PAPUAN BATTLEGROUND: THE BUNA-KOKODA ROAD**

On July 25, 1942, Japanese forces landed at Gona, and on Aug. 7 occupied Kokoda. The Japanese drive was halted at Torokina, and the enemy withdrawal began on Sept. 29. Kokoda was recaptured on Nov. 3 and the last Japanese remnants wiped out at Toen (Dec. 9), Buna (Jan. 3, 1943), and Sanananda Point (Jan. 7). For last map, p. 247.

**Besides the aerials of native carriers, arms and supplies were dropped by plane.** The Australian 25-pounders were thus supplemented even by 106-mm. American howitzers, flown 1,500 miles from Australia in Flying Fortresses. As these guns weighed 5,000 lb apiece, they had to be dismantled into a dozen sections before loading, man-handled through the jungle to the front line and then reassembled. Every crate of food and ammunitions, every gun—whether intact or dismantled—had to be hauled up incredible gradients and through, at times, impenetrable scrub to the point where it could be used most effectively. Each man carried something like 70 lb. of assorted equipment and above his normal service requirements, a total load of about 90 lb. Thus, in tropical heat, and in a country made for explorers and naturalists, but never for soldiers, called for a standard of endurance till then without parallel in the war. It is obvious that at first the Japanese, with longer training in local warfare, had all the advantages, but later the Allies learned to beat them at their own game.

The Japanese life-line to Buna was subjected to a continuous air assault directed by Maj.-Gen. George Kenney, C.-in-C. Allied Air Force in the S.W. Pacific. Transport was obliged to keep to the main tracks and so provided targets.
HOW SUPPLY LINES WERE KEPT OPEN IN PAPUA

Vaccination and ingenuity were the methods employed by the Allies in maintaining the supply lines. Dropped by planes at planned points, the guns, ammunition, food, medical supplies, etc., were parceled in lots for transport along the trail. Above, the 'Pony Express' makes its way through the jungle. Right, Papuan carriers about to cross a stream.

Below, the 'Flying Fox' drags across the Kumusi River by Australian engineers. (See description in p. 294.)

Photos: British Official Crown Copyright: Sten & General
INFANTRY FOLLOWED PATH CLEARED BY GENERAL STUART TANKS

Australian-managed General Stuart tanks, forging through the coastal scrub, coconut plantations and dense gray ahead of the infantry, expedited the mopping up of the Japners, materially lowering casualties. They first went into action on December 15, 1944. After being landed at Cape Toruladam, where there was an extensive coconut grove (above), the tanks were given a rapid overhaul prior to battle. Below, the infantry following up in the attack on Buna: note moribund body in the background, and general damage done to trees, evidence of the bitterness of the fighting.

Photos: Associated Press: Report & Record
for the R.A.A.F. Kittyhawks, which
made daring attacks from tree-top level,
although greatly hampered by the
layers of white cloud that, except for
short periods of good visibility, blot out
sections of the forest from view.

On the precipitous north-east slopes
beyond the Gap there was stubborn
fighting. Although by then the Allies
were in a more advantageous position,
being above the enemy, yet it was
difficult to dislodge him, and frequent
bayonet attacks had to be made on the
narrow roads. Native villages had been
built at different altitudes on these
slopes, and battles raged on their sites.
Omori, just below the Gap, was cap-
tured at the end of October, and when
the village of Lurava was cleared of
Japanese in the following week, they
had no option but to withdraw to
Kokoda where, for the second time, a
battle was fought for the station and
aerodrome. The Japanese had made no

use of the airfield while they occupied
Kokoda. It is considered that they
had not the suitable aircraft or that
their pilots were not skilled in landing
upon a small runway among mountain
tops enveloped in cloud for the greater
part of the day. But when it was re-
captured the Allies found it a most
important advantage - stores and mun-
itions were landed there, even jeeps were
flown over the range from Port Moresby.

With Kokoda in Allied hands, there
began the strenuous advance north-
wards, pushing the invaders back
towards their Buna base. By then the
weather was changing to an inter-

mediate period of instability between
the two monsoons. At such times the
wind may veer round to the opposite
quarter frequently throughout the day,
and violent thunderstorms with tor-
rential rain are of daily occurrence.
Weather conditions had greatly impeded
the fighting on the northern slopes, and
rain and wind were often mentioned in
reports. By the time the Allies had
driven the enemy half-way to Buna
from Kokoda and were nearing the
coastal flat it was the end of November
and the north-west monsoon had set in.

In some of the native villages on the
road to Buna the Japanese entrenched.
of Gona. Several temporary bridges built by the Japanese were also destroyed from the air.

Between November and February the Kumusi is flooded, and crossing even the lower reaches is both difficult and dangerous. It was in this river that the Japanese commander, General Hori, was drowned when his boat overturned as he was attempting to cross. The incident was reported by Papuans. The Japanese attempted to deny it, but could not conceal the circumstances of his funeral from the natives, who after cremation the ashes were conveyed to a casket to be sent to Japan. All details were passed on to the Allies, who knew that some important personage must have died, and later the Japanese admitted the loss. When Wiroa had been repaired by the Australians on their forward march the Kumusi was crossed by a rope and pulley bridge, known as a "flying fox." (See illus., p. 2468.)

The Australian troops then pushed on towards Buna with all speed and soon after linked up with American forces, who had been flown to Wanigela and Pongani from Port Moresby and were pushing north-west along the coastal strip. The junction of the Australian and American forces was effected near Soguta, about 8-10 miles from Buna.

Then the fighting entered the last phase and the most severe battle of the whole campaign took place on the coastal flat in the district of Buna. Grassland, swamp and secondary forest succeeded one another in this area, after Ambago has been passed. Grey stretches of mud are interspersed by slow, winding streams among characteristic swamp vegetation, mangroves, large ferns, and palms which are rooted in pools of liquid mud, the home of swarms of mosquitoes.

To pass through swamps in the wet season, good local native guides are needed, and even they are often at fault. The track, which is seldom distinct, may peter out altogether, and the mud may be over the ankles or many feet deep. Sometimes the only possibility of advancing is by walking on the tough aerial root of a mangrove. In sharp contrast to the sour, water-logged swamps are dry stretches of grassland side by side with mangrove forest, covered by tall grasses and fine bamboos. Near the coast are extensive coconut plantations between belts of forest.

The Japanese had held this locality for the greater part of six months, and obviously intended it as an important link in their chain of bases for the...
Invasion of Australia. They had strongly fortified a strip of coast nine miles long and four to five miles in depth; the ground had been mined and every yard of it utilized for defense works. Elaborate underground trenches, reinforced by logs, were connected to form a network of galleries. There were traps of every conceivable variety protected by cunningly concealed snipers' posts; hedgehog positions, pillboxes, and well-built gun emplacements in every favorable position in thickets and tree clumps.

Foot by foot, and under the worst climatic conditions imaginable, on flooded ground, in mud and slime, very severe fighting was carried on without respite between November 1942 and February 1943—the hottest season of the year, as well as the wettest. Rain may fall continuously for days, and storms are so violent that the sheer weight of water falling on the heads of those exposed to them for any length of time causes headache and exhaustion. Excessive humidity adds greatly to discomforts occasioned by the climate; the point of saturation reached at Boga-
during December is 91 degrees, and this is sometimes higher for a few days...

In ordinary conditions this climate is peculiarly trying; what the Allied forces suffered when compelled to fight in these steamy jungles has already been described. Their endurance and courage, together with their skill and ingenuity in outwitting a super-running enemy, is beyond all praise.

Throughout December the fighting was extremely bitter, the greater part of it being at close quarters with bayonet and tommy-gun, gaining one enemy post at a time or perhaps clearing a few yards. Often it was necessary for individual soldiers, exposed to mosquitoes and leeches and soaked in perspiration without even the temporary relief of a strong breeze to dispel the heavy atmosphere, to remain several days without movement—except at night and even then great caution had to be used—in order to watch for the chance betrayal of some Japanese position.

Many casualties were due to malaria and dysentery, diseases unavoidable in such strenuous warfare in that tropical climate; but by the time the heaviest fighting was in progress, in dense bush on low ground and in the worst season of the year, means of alleviating the awful conditions had been made possible. Medical treatment was given in field hospitals established behind the lines, and a rest-camp of leaf-thatched huts for less serious cases was set up in the forest, so that as many of the sick as possible had a chance of recovery before their condition became critical. Scrim cases were flown direct back to Port Moresby in American transport planes fitted with stretchers for the return journey, after bringing supplies to the fighting zone.

A most interesting factor in the campaign was the attitude of the Papuan tribes which, with very few exceptions, gave an enthusiastic and whole-hearted co-operation to the Allies. The regular Papuan constabulary had volunteered for active service directly they knew that Britain was at war, and when the Japanese invaded their country the Papuan police were formed under white officers for patrol work. These operated with marked success, and on one important river patrol 500 Japanese were killed. In addition, the natives gave valuable help by transporting supplies and munitions, collecting stores dropped from aeroplanes into the forest by parachutes, and by acting as stretcher bearers.

During the first week of Jan. 1943 a combined Australian and American force commenced to operate towards the sea and chose a wedge to the beach, capturing Buna Government Station on the 3rd and continuing towards Giroja Point, where they gained air strips. This was the first success in a three-pronged drive destined to split up the Japanese defences into isolated sections which were dealt with piecemeal. An American prong cut through to the shore between Giroja and Tarakaowa, while Australians attacked the strongly held Japanese beachhead of Sanananda Point, by-passing Cape Killerton and Wye Point, which they dispossessed of later (See map, p. 2471). Sanananda Point fell on January 16 and Sanananda village three days later, which isolated another Japanese centre between these two localities. A few pockets of resistance remained, but these were wiped out in the following week. Reports on the Japanese prisoners taken in that area show that they were all exceedingly emaciated, having been completely cut off from reinforcements and supplies.

In the course of this severe fighting the Japanese made many attempts to land reinforcements, but were frustrated by the Allied Air Forces which sank all enemy craft that appeared in those waters. Australian-built Wirraways were used for reconnaissance and proved especially effective in locating Japanese gun positions. A significant indication that the Japanese Air Force had been greatly weakened is the fact that Allied transport on the Buna track was not subjected to air attack, although large convoys of natives carriers passed fearlessly along it in sufficient numbers to be an easy target, especially where the track crossed grassland. But frequent Allied air attacks on Rabaul Harbour during those months had restricted not only the destruction of much Japanese shipping but in heavy losses in Japanese aircraft.

Meanwhile, the third prong of the Allied drive, an Australian force, had cut through to the coast at Gona and turned east following the beach. When three wedges had been stabilised flanking attacks produced very satisfactory results, for the enemy had made the same mistake that lost Singapore to the United Nations—his defensive lines were facing one way. Since they considered that no naval attacks had to be feared, the Japanese had sited their defence positions to face inland only. On Cape Bundaldere, which is planted with coconuts, the Japanese were surprised by a dawn attack carried out with tanks. The Australians had landed General Quarter tanks armed with 37-mm. guns, on the coast further southeast, and these had been brought through the forest and were used with some effect although limited by the small areas of cleared ground on which they could operate.

By the end of January 1943, after eight weeks of the most arduous and bitter fighting, only few pockets of Japanese resistance survived. The Allied Forces had surrounded the entire enemy-held area by these three main drives; Gona and Buna had fallen. Sanananda Point was nearly cleared of the Japanese, and there was but one remaining position at the mouth of Kummai River. Port Moresby had been saved and the immediate menace to Australia removed. Thereafter the battle zone shifted westward to the Mandated Territory.
Diary of the War

SEPTEMBER and OCTOBER 1942


Sept. 2. Eighth Army in heavy fighting between Tunis and El Hamma. B.A.F. use 8,000 lb. bombs for first time in Tunis in eight raids.


Sept. 5. German arms capture of Novorossiia.

Sept. 8. American troops take Volos in Greece; plans invasion of Gallipoli Islands; Japanese troops advance from Kustovo to Amur River.

Sept. 10. Allied operations resumed in Madagascar. Japanese reported to have recaptured Australians in Papeete and crossed Owen Stanley range; fighting in progress about 50 miles from Port Moresby. Heavy B.A.F. raid on Dusseldorf; 31 aircraft lost.

Sept. 12. Allied convoy is and from Russia with refuelling Axis attacks, spread over several days. Forty enemy aircraft destroyed, two U-boat sunk and four others seriously damaged. Out of 76 escorting warships, we lost the destroyers H.M.S. "Somali" and the minesweeper H.M.S. "Tula," and one naval light cruiser. German makes slight progress at Stalingrad, with heavy losses: Japanese captured in Peshawar.

Sept. 13. British mobile desert patrol captures barracks base and hospital at Afghani, and River. Enemy installations destroyed by night raid by combined forces on Tobruk. Two British warships lost, H.M.S. "Sikh" and "Zulu." R.A.F. aircraft 1,000 sorties on Bremen, bombing 100 machines.

Sept. 15. Eighth Army patrols attack Jalo coast, destroying stores. Canadian official report on Tobruk gives casualties as 3,620 out of 5,000 troops still in Tobruk. British troops reach Mersa Matruh, only 22 miles from Port Moresby.


Sept. 17. Madagascar armour troops reported to have taken control of intensive dive-bomber action in Stalingrad. R.A.F. and R.A.S.A.F. lose 10 aircraft over Stalingrad.

Sept. 24. French sovereignty proclaimed in Madagascar, with temporary Allied military jurisdiction.

Sept. 25. R.A.F. daylight raid on Oslo.


Sept. 29. Russian advance between Dnepro and Volga across Volga in magnificent and capture 45 villages. Australian troops advance against Japanese in New Guinea and advance to Narou.


Oct. 2. Heavy R.A.F. attack on Keifeld, with loss of seven aircraft.


Oct. 7. German threats to put British prisoners captured at Dieppe in chains as "reprimand" for alleged bombing of German targets at Dieppe and Stettin. Britain and America to set up United Nations Commission to investigate war crimes. Japanese abandon two Aeolian Islands. Heavy B.A.F. raid on Oceanic, 10 aircraft missing.

Oct. 8. British warn Germany that if threat to chain prisoners is carried out similar number of German prisoners will be marched and chained.

Oct. 9. Germany threatens to fetter those times the number of prisoners similarly treated by Britain.


Oct. 12. U.S. Navy Department announce loss of heavy cruiser "USS. "Quincy" and "USS. "Otto" on August 9 off the Solomons.

Oct. 13. Mr. Churchill states that in case of prisoners is stopped, we cannot measure with American positions in Guadalcanal boused by Japanese warships and attacked from air; 14 Japanese aircraft destroyed. Field-Marshal Smuts arrives in England.


Oct. 15. Germans launch new attacks against Stalingrad. Fresh Japanese reinforcements land in Guadalcanal; Australian carry fighting into Templeton's Cove area and Guadalcanal; Japanese bomb Chittagong and Gailians drive enemy from Malta. Thirteen bombers raid by R.A.F.; 18 machines missing.

Oct. 17. Three Axis supply ships sunk by our submarines in Mediterranean; 44 Locators bomb oil installations; aircraft marks at Le Croisic daylight, 12 I.


Oct. 27. Fierce enemy attacks on Eighth Army positions fall. Allied bombers attack aircraft carriers.


MARINES TAKE FULL ADVANTAGE OF JUNGLE COVER ON GUADALCANAL.

As in New Guinea, dense jungle extended over much of the battle area in Guadalcanal. The opposing forces could never be certain that the enemy was beyond point-blank range; both sides profited and suffered from the natural camouflages. Above, U.S. Marines, clad in green overalls which blended well with the foliage, advance through heavy jungle west of the Matanikau River, scenes of stormy fighting during October 1942.

Photo, U.S. Marine Corps
GUADALCANAL: THE SPOT THEY CALLED "HILL'S CORNER"

Most of the U.S. 1st and 3rd Marines who landed on Guadalcanal on August 7, 1942, met with insignificant resistance. The Japanese, taken by surprise, abandoned Henderson Airfield and retreated across the Matanikau River to await reinforcements. In the next six months they mounted four mighty counter-attacks. "Hill's Corner" (above) was the scene of some of the most savage fighting of the whole campaign. Marines squat in a jungle nest while a U.S. Navy reconnaissance bomber patrols watchfully overhead.

Photo: Kipimson
PREFABRICATION OF "LIBERTY" SHIPS MADE SHIPBUILDING HISTORY

"Liberty" ships—American-built cargo vessels designed to meet war-time emergency conditions—were little more than a name in the First Great War; not one was delivered until after the Armistice. The first Liberty ship of this war was launched on October 21, 1941. During 1942 new construction exceeded 5,000,000 tons. Prefabrication largely made this possible: here the entire five-deck of a Liberty ship's bow, prefabricated, is being hoisted into place in a shipyard at Wilmington, California.
BRILLIANT SOVIET RECONNAISSANCE IN BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

So efficient was the work of the Red Army reconnaissance units that commanders of the Soviet forces were equipped with battle maps charting the enemy dispositions more accurately than even the German High Command maps. Typical Russian fast-dinters are these scouts on the Middle Don, employing a tree as an observation post. Their white hoods and coats render them practically invisible against the winter battleground.

Photo, Official News
AMERICAN OPERATIONS ON GUADALCANAL
AUGUST 7, 1942–FEBRUARY 10, 1943

In August 1942, the United States attacked in the South Pacific, their first objective being the strategically important island of Guadalcanal in the S.E. Solomons. This authoritative, first-hand account by Capt. Herbert L. Merillat, U.S. Marine Corps., describes the prolonged and bitter struggle which resulted in a crushing defeat for the Japanese. Full details of the U.S. Army's share in the fighting are not available. Concurrent naval and air activities which influenced the campaign are dealt with in Chapters 241 and 254.

On the morning of August 7, 1942, more than 15,000 United States Marines of the 1st Marine Division (Reinforced), commanded by Major-General Alexander Archer Vandegrift, landed on the Japanese-held islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, and Gavutu in the south-eastern Solomon Islands in the first offensive undertaken by the United Nations in the Pacific.

Since the Pacific War had opened with the Japanese attack on the United States stronghold of Pearl Harbour, the enemy had enjoyed a series of triumphs broken only by naval defeats in the Battle of the Coral Sea (May 4-8, 1942) and the Battle of Midway (June 3-6, 1942). (See Chapter 250.) The Philippines, Hongkong, Malaya, Singapore, Burma, the Netherlands East Indies, had fallen to the Japanese forces. The threat to Australia and to the line of communications between the United States and the South-Pacific bases was most serious, and Guadalcanal, where the Japanese had been feverishly building an airfield during the month of July, was intended to become a jumping-off point for further attacks on the south.

The naval victories in the Coral Sea and at Midway had cleared the way for a limited offensive to check the Japanese advance into the South Pacific. Guadalcanal became the front line.

Facing against time, a combined task force of United States and Australian naval vessels, including battleships, aircraft carriers, cruisers and destroyers, with fast transports and supply ships, moved through the Coral Sea early in August to attack and seize the Japanese-built airfield before it was stocked with planes.

The enemy never sighted the approaching task force and the assault came as a complete surprise. Shortly before dawn our cruisers and destroyers opened a bombardment of the airfield area (Guadalcanal) and the vicinity of the beach six miles east of the runway which had been chosen as the landing point. Dive-bombers and fighters from our aircraft carriers bombed and strafed the same area. Simultaneously our ships and planes were shelling and bombing the little islands of Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo, 20 miles north of Guadalcanal. These islands lie as a protective screen around Tulagi and Gavutu Harbours, good anchorage, which were another objective.

After the preparatory bombardment the Marines started moving ashore. On Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo fierce battle raged from the outset. The First Raider Battalion (Colonel Merritt A. Edson) and Second Battalion, Fifth Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel Harold H. Roeser) landed on Tulagi, where the Japanese garrison of about 900 huddled up in a hill at the northern end of the island. The enemy formed up, rushed, and attacked, literally, to the last man and only three were taken prisoner: the others were killed in their hillside strongholds, where they kept up resistance until wiped out by a well-placed hand grenade or a Marine charge through the cave entrances. It took three days to end Japanese resistance here.

On the half-mile-long islands of Gavutu and Tanambogo, twins connected by a causeway where the Japanese had built a seaplane base, there was enemy resistance at the water's edge. There, as on Tulagi, the Japanese (numbering about 1,500) held themselves up in caves on the hills which rise in the centre of both islands, and had to be blasted out of each position. Only 14 were taken prisoner.

The 1st Parachute Battalion (Major Robert H. Williams) made the landing on Gavutu and was joined on the second day by the 3rd Battalion, Parachutists. Colonel R. G. Hunt who helped mop up the island, Lieutenant-Colonel Hunt's battalion also seized Tanambogo. Operations in the Tulagi-Gavutu area were under the immediate command of Brigadier-General William H. Rupertus, Jr., Assistant Division Commander of the 1st Marine Division.

MEN WHO DIRECTED THE GUADALCANAL-TULAGI LANDINGS

Rear-Admiral R. H. Turner, U.S. Navy (left), who commanded the transport fleet which brought the U.S. 1st Marine Division (Reinforced) through the Coral Sea to the Japanese-held islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, and Gavutu, Lieut.-Colonel A. A. Vandegrift, commander of the landing forces. The enemy failed to spot the convoy, and the assault achieved the initial success of surprise.
TULAGI, CAPTURED AFTER THREE DAYS' FIERCE FIGHTING

Smoke rises from a supply dump on Tulagi Island following an attack by American carrier-based Navy bombers. The salt obscures the deep water channel which divides Tulagi from Florida Island in background. The smaller islands in foreground are (respectively, bottom to top): Sengasmogga, Kokorotahi and Mungai. (See map, p. 2832) Photo: U.S. Navy Official

On Guadalcanal enemy resistance was weak. The landing was made six miles east of the airfield, by the 1st and 3rd Battalions of the 5th Marines (Colonel Leroy P. Hunt) and the 1st Marines (Colonel Clifton B. Cates). After seizing a beach-head, the Marines moved through the coconut plantations and jungle near the shore to occupy the airfield, and by the evening of the 8th it was in our hands. The small Japanese garrison—the Japanese had been foolish enough to build the valuable installations without a proper defence force—fled from the airfield area before our advance and retired to the west, across the Matamika River, to await reinforcements. The real fight for Guadalcanal began when the Japanese tried to recapture the airfield, and lasted for six months as the enemy mounted four offensives, each on a larger scale than the last, to drive out the Americans.

Japanese reaction to the landings on Guadalcanal and Tulagi was swift and violent. Twice on the first day of the landing and twice the next day enemy aircraft attacked our shipping, but only one transport was sunk by a burning plane which crashed into an open hold. Almost at once the enemy started organizing reinforcing groups to land on Guadalcanal. The most effective counter-stroke, however, came the second night after our landing. A strong force of Japanese cruisers and destroyers sped toward Guadalcanal from the north-western Solomons. Shortly after midnight of August 8 it engaged our screening force near Savo Island, ten miles off Guadalcanal, and for half an hour air and sea were torn by naval gunfire. Our forces suffered seven losses—three United States, heavy cruisers ("Astoria," "Vincennes," and "Quincy") and the Australian cruiser "Canberra"—and local balance of sea power swung sharply in favour of the enemy.

So serious were these losses that our transports and supply ships could not safely remain in the area to continue unloading and on the afternoon of August 9, while we watched from the shore, the ships withdrew to the east. The results of this defeat at sea and the consequent withdrawal of our ships were acutely felt almost at once.

There were shortages in many categories of supplies and equipment. On Tulagi, Marines went on a schedule of one meal a day, on Guadalcanal two meals a day, to stretch the small supply of rations as far as possible. Shortage of power machinery, digging implements, and lack of barbed wire and sand bags hampered development of defences around the airfield.

Fortunately the Japanese had left their installations and stores intact, and supplies of food helped to augment the Marines' meagre rations. Radio installations, an electric plant, trucks, tractors, lumber and sand bags were quickly put to use. The biggest prize of all was the runway, almost completed, on which the Japanese had been frantically working during the month before the invasion. Within two days a gap in the centre of the runway had been filled and it was ready to receive planes.

No planes, however, were available for operations from Henderson Field until two weeks later.

During that period no means were available to stop Japanese bombers coming over Guadalcanal or to prevent Japanese surface craft from prowling about the island. As it turned out, the Japanese were not yet prepared to launch a strong counter-attack with landing operations and the critical fortnight, when the little beachhead around Henderson Field lay exposed to air and sea attack, passed without major incident.

Having seized the airfield, the Marines' mission was to defend it against enemy counter-attacks. A defence perimeter, as complete as it could be with the limited number of men and amount of defence material available, was thrown around the field, and an area of about fourteen square miles was occupied. The eastern boundary of our defences lay along the Tenaru River, a sluggish stream shuts off from the sea, except in flood, by a sand bar.

Continued activity of Japanese surface craft at night off Guadalcanal indicated that something was afoot, and though we had no means of actual reconnaissance to keep us informed of Japanese ship movements near the island, it was supposed that they had made some landings near by.

The defenders were alert at all times and eventually the Japanese were foiled. About two o'clock in the morning of August 21 our outposts on the banks of the Tenaru saw figures moving about on the far shore and scurrying across the sand bar. In a typical kamikaze charge the Japanese, who had landed under cover of darkness, many
miles up the beach to the east several nights before, tried to rush across the sand bar and overwhelm our defenses. Some got across, but the bulk of the attacking force was driven back and in a steady fire fight which lasted until well after dawn, the Japanese were held at bay on the opposite bank of the river.

The Marines in that sector were two battalions of the 1st Marines, a regiment commanded by Colonel Clifton B. Cates. After daybreak his 1st Battalion (Lieutenant-Colonel L. B. Cresswell) crossed the Tenaru and up-stream worked through the underbrush and coconuts at the Japanese rear, close to the beach, and with the 2nd Battalion (Lieutenant-Colonel E. A. Pollock), which was holding the west bank of the river, penned the enemy in a tiny area against the beach.

This enveloping movement resulted in almost complete annihilation of the enemy. Artillery, mortars, machine-guns, and rifles poured a steady fire into the Japanese pocket and in the afternoon a platoon of five tanks was sent across the sand bar to range the coconut grove and mop up the survivors of the Japanese force.

Before sundown the job was finished: almost 900 of the enemy lay dead on the banks of the Tenaru. Only the rear guard, which had remained six miles to the east, escaped. One Japanese surrendered, 11 were taken prisoner, the rest were killed. One own, houses were 94 killed, 75 wounded. The attempt to rank on Henderson Field had failed utterly.

Meanwhile, however, much more substantial enemy forces were moving toward the island. Marine planes, which first arrived at Guadalcanal on August 20, and naval planes from aircraft carriers which had swung back toward Guadalcanal, sought out the approaching convoy and inflicted such losses that it turned back. This sea-air engagement has become known as the Battle of the Eastern Solomons (August 23-25). Thereafter, so long as we had planes based on Guadalcanal capable of attacking their approaching ships, the Japanese did not try to send reinforcements on slow vulnerable transports. Instead they resorted to landings, east or west of us, from fast destroyers which, night after night, came to Guadalcanal with deck loads of supplies and detachments of men, quickly unloaded, then sped away again under cover of darkness. The Japanese also sent in reinforcements by means of landing barges which progressed in easy stages down the chain of the Solomons from bases in the north.

By these methods the Japanese built up their ground forces on Guadalcanal for another attempt to retake the airfield. At the same time they sought to cut down our air force, greatly outnumbered in those early days, by daily raids on our position. Landings were made both in the Cape Esperance area, at the north-west tip of the island, and near Taivu Point, about 15 miles east of the airfield.

The necessity of maintaining a strong defense perimeter was impossible, in the face of superior Japanese mobility, and the shortage of landing boats and other craft for water transport hindered plans for driving the enemy from his positions on the island. It was decided, however, to risk a raid on the principal enemy beach-head, at Taivu Point, and upset his plans for a coordinated attack from several directions against the Lunga Point area.

On September 8 the Raider Battalion under Colonel Edson landed at dawn east of Taivu Point and made a successful raid in which large quantities of stores, ammunition, and some artillery pieces were captured or destroyed. Although the enemy forces in the neighborhood far outnumbered the Marine raiders, the main Japanese force had already started to move westward toward the Lunga and the marines resistant to the raid was ineffective. The Raiders returned to Henderson Field and were assigned a sector on a ridge south of the airfield. At this time there were great gaps in the defense line in that sector and it appeared that the Japanese were about to take full advantage of this weakness. Their main force, a brigade in strength, was cutting through the jungle south and east of us, in the general direction of the ridge.

Aerial activity grew as the Japanese sought to prepare for their attack with a series of bombings. On the night of September 12-13 the Raiders Ridge worked into position for the attack hit the Marine line on the ridge. Japanese cruisers and destroyers supported the attack with intermittent period of shelling throughout the night, and by morning the enemy had succeeded in pushing the Raiders back to their reserve line at the ridge.

The main assault began the following night shortly after sundown. About
2,000 Japanese, again supported by naval gunfire, tried to breach the line of 400 Marines defending the ridge. By familiar tactics of infiltration and charges they slowly worked their way along the grass-covered slopes and the Raiders were forced back in a night-long battle which threatened to end at dawn with the enemy in position on the heights overlooking the airfield. The Marine line held, however, and supported by heavy artillery concentrations (by the 11th Marines under Colonel P. A. del Valle) which did much to break up the enemy’s advance, the Raiders repelled the attackers in the early morning hours. The 2nd Battalion, 5th Marines, under Col. W. J. Whiting, had ceased the airfield during the night to support the Raiders, and they pressed the enemy bank along the ridge. By daybreak the Japanese were in full retreat, withdrawing into the hills to await reinforcements.

Meanwhile the enemy had launched two minor attacks at other points on our defence perimeter. Both were weaker than the main effort along the ridge and neither achieved a breakthrough. The steady bombardments of enemy forces in the north-west end of the island by our planes had seriously cut their strength, and the attack from that direction was very light.

The brigade’s three-pronged attack, like that of Colonel Ichiki in August, had failed and there followed a lull as the Japanese gathered strength for another effort. The pace of their night landings increased, but this time all were made west of our position. We, too, were reinforced by the arrival of the 7th Marines under Colonel Amor L. Sims.

The continued growth of Japanese forces on Guadalcanal indicated that they had by no means given up hope of driving the Americans off the island. They were building up to a major effort this time, and they no longer underestimated our strength.

The Marine command on Guadalcanal was confronted with a new problem. During the first two months of the campaign the enemy’s attacking forces had been highly mobile for quick and quiet movements through the jungle, and their equipment had been correspondingly light. Their arms had been rifles, machine-guns, mortars, anti-tank guns, demolition material, grenades and bayonets. To make up for the lack of artillery and heavy weapons they had relied on surprise and the confusion of night fighting. Now, however, they were landing artillery and were obviously planning to shell the airfield and make it unusable by our planes. The defensive system of a corridor of men thrown about the airfield had proved adequate against Japanese infantry attacks, but if the vital runway should come under artillery fire, even intermittent fire, our possession of the field would serve little purpose, General Vandegrift therefore had to use the limited forces at his disposal to perform the double task of continuing to hold the airfield, and at the same time endeavoring to keep the Japanese beyond artillery range of the field.

Accordingly, on October 13, 1942, the 5th Marines (then commanded by Colonel Edison) and the 7th Marines, under Colonel Sims, attacked across the Matanikau River, six miles west of Henderson Field. Patrol encounters and a spirited but inconclusive clash along the river late in September had indicated that the main Japanese force was moving up to the river and trying to establish a bridgehead on our side for artillery positions.

While the 5th Marines delivered a holding attack against the mouth and lower reaches of the river, the 7th Marines and the 3rd Battalion of the 2nd Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel R. G. Hunt) attacked on the enemy’s right flank, forcing a crossing upstream, and then struck the Japanese on the steep forbidding ridges and in the jungle-choked draws south of the river mouth, inflicting substantial losses and compelled
HENDERSON FIELD

A ridge protected Henderson Field on the south west end. It was held by 400 men of the 1st Raider Battalion of the U.S. Marines when the enemy launched a determined attack, September 12-14, 1943, preceded by aerial bombardment (above). The Raiders, supported by heavy artillery fire, repelled waves of 5,000 of the enemy, of whom 200 were killed and the others wounded. Photo, U.S. Marine Corps Official / Associated Press.

The remainder of the enemy force to withdraw westward.

The Japanese were pushed back beyond light artillery range of the airfield and a strong defensive line was set up at the Matanikau. The Marines' limited attack had been undertaken in the nick of time. As it happened, the Japanese were about to begin a powerful offensive, and if they had retained a bridgehead on the east side of the river during the critical weeks that followed, the outcome of the October battles might have been very different. (See map p. 2486.)

The Japanese had decided to bombard Henderson Field from air and sea so hard as to make it impossible to move a convoy to Guadalcanal without threat of serious air attack. This plan almost succeeded.

The "big push" started on October 11. That afternoon an attempted large-scale air raid failed to hit the target area and at night a Japanese surface force, trying to bring in reinforcements to the north-west end of the island as they had done on so many nights, was intercepted by a U.S. naval task force off Cape Esperance. For the second time in the Guadalcanal campaign a sea battle raged within sight of the American beach-head. The Japanese lost a heavy cruiser, four destroyers, and one transport, while our forces lost only one destroyer with some damage to other ships. Planes from Henderson Field chased the fleeing enemy force after daybreak, and sank a cruiser and a destroyer and heavily damaged another cruiser.

After this defeat for the Japanese there was a surge of hope among the defenders of Guadalcanal that at last, after more than two months of arduous fighting, the enemy would give up his efforts to recapture the airfield and cease to risk planes and ships around Guadalcanal. In point of fact, however, the main battle was just starting.

On October 13, as the 16th Infantry Regiment of the United States Army (Commander B. E. Moore, U.S.A.) was landing in the Lunga area to reinforce the defenders of Henderson Field, the Japanese opened up with a heavy air raid. Four waves of planes, bombers and fighters, swept over the island and blasted the runways. At 6:30 that evening Japanese artillery, for the first time, opened fire on Henderson Field. Though they were beyond light artillery range, they had landed some six-inch guns which could safely fire from beyond the reach of our own artillery. During the night intermittent bombings continued, and at 1:30 in the morning of October 14 a force of battleships, cruisers and destroyers opened a heavy and sustained bombardment of our position. For almost two hours steel and high explosives rained on Henderson Field. Those of us who went through that bombardment wondered if much could be left of the aircraft concentrated on Guadalcanal; few planes did, in fact, survive intact.

The enemy's purpose was to destroy, for a short time at least, our air power on the island and bring in large reinforcements aboard a convoy without danger.
of serious air attack. The following day, October 14, air attacks continued and late in the afternoon our reconnaissance planes found a convoy of six transport ships with heavy escort moving down the coast of Santa Isabel towards Guadalcanal. Only seven dive-bombers could be mustered as a striking force to attack the convoy, and just before sundown they made their attack. One transport was sunk, but the rest of the force moved steadily on towards Guadalcanal, and that night they began landing ten to 20 miles west of the American beach-head under cover of another heavy shelling by the Japanese escort vessels.

October 15 was a black day on Guadalcanal. Only three dive-bombers had survived the second night of naval shelling, but as the Japanese reinforcements were leisurely unloading within sight of our position, these remnants of our air power were sent to attack. Two crashed in bomb and shell craters trying to take off at dawn; the third succeeded in making a diving run and damaged one of the transports. The ground crews did wonders that day and managed to get 12 damaged planes into the air by noon. By the middle of the afternoon three of the enemy transports were sunk or blazing on the beach and the other two had been damaged and were withdrawing, but undoubtedly the Japanese had landed most of what they hoped to get ashore.

Another blow added to our woes. Early in the morning the aviation command had informed General Vandegrift that there was no more aviation spirit on the island. At this critical moment in the campaign it looked as though our few remaining dive-bombers and fighters would have to be grounded for lack of fuel. Actually, some small dumps of petrol still remained, but the shortage remained serious. Fuel was drained from wrecked planes on the field and was flown to the island in driblets aboard transport planes. By such expedients a small supply was kept available for the dangerous days that lay ahead.

Japanese naval shellings continued for two more nights during the week and the forces that had landed west of us began moving towards our defense perimeter.

The main body hacked a trail through forbidding terrain well south of the coast, across steep ridges, and through dense jungle growth to a point south of our lines. Other enemy units moved eastwards along the coast to the Matanika, preparing to launch a bolding attack across the river which would be co-ordinated with the main effort south of the airfield.

Patrol encounters grew more spiteful as both sides prepared for the coming test on land, and after some preliminary threats at our lines at the mouth of the
Matanikau, the Japanese attack began on the night of October 23. The first blow took the form of a tank attack across the Matanikau, held by the 3rd Battalion, 1st Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel W. N. McKelvey). Twelve Japanese tanks tried to force a crossing of the sand bar which almost shuts off the outlet to the sea, but all were knocked out in a battle lasting from sundown to midnight. The 11th Marines laid down a heavy concentration of artillery on the area at the base of Point Cruz, immediately to the rear of the tank spearhead, and we later learned that a battalion of Japanese infantry, prepared to exploit any breach the tanks might make in our lines, was wiped out in the barrage.

The main offensive was launched on the night of October 24, from the jungle south of the airfield. Apparently the forces involved in that action had not been up to a quick enough to coordinate their assaults with the holding attack at the mouth of the Matanikau, and our command was spared the necessity of deciding where to commit our reserve. This "reserve," in any case, was pathetically small at that juncture, consisting only of a understrength and battle-worn battalion.

For three nights the Japanese tried to break through the defense perimeter south of the airfield, but were thrown back with staggering losses—twenty to thirty times our own—by the 1st Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel Lewis B. Fuller) and the 3rd Battalion, 15th Infantry, U.S. Army (Lieutenant-Colonel R. K. Hall, U.S.A.). On two of those nights attacks were also made against a ridge south-east of the Matanikau, held by the 2nd Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Hanneman), and although one breakthrough was made in a thinly held sector the position was achieved.

In four nights of bitter fighting the Japanese had suffered truly shattering losses in futile attempts to break through the defense perimeter. Our line remained intact and the offensive strength of the Japanese 2nd Division, reinforced, had been broken.

General Vandegrift then decided upon a counter-attack against the Japanese remnants withdrawing to the south and west. A primary objective was to push them beyond heavy artillery range of the airfield in the west. The attack began on November 1 with the 3rd Marines (Colonel Eison) and 2nd Marines (Colonel J. M. Arshin) alternating in assault positions and with the 3rd Battalion, 7th Marines (Lieutenant-Colonel W. R. Williams) and "Whaling's Snipers" (a specially trained group of woodsmen and marksmen under Col. W. J. Whaling) on their left flank. They were slowly pushing the enemy back through the ridges and jungle west of the Matanikau when it developed that the Japanese were preparing for another and even greater attack on Henderson Field.

This time they planned to send two divisions into action. Their bombardment group of ships was to include four battleships, while landings were to be made on both sides of us. A preliminary landing to establish a beach-head was made on the night of November 2-3 near Taiva Point. The 2nd Battalion, 7th Marines (Ltn.-Colonel Hanneman) was led enemy assault on the Matanikau River

Greatly reinforced in numbers, the enemy launched a third attack on Henderson Field on October 25, 1942. The spearhead consisting of 40 tanks which tried to force a crossing of the Mataniakau River sand-bar, held by the 3rd Battalion, 2nd Marines. All were knocked out in a battle lasting from sundown to midnight: three of them stranded on the sand-bar a battalion of infantry following them was wiped out by artillery fire.

Photo, U.S. Marine Corps Official
not been sent to the east of our lines to contest such a landing, and they engaged the Japanese the following morning. Because of a breakdown in communications the Marine Headquarters on Henderson Field did not know of the landing or battle until the afternoon of the 3rd, and Lieutenant-Colonel Harnsden withdrew to the Metapona River after exhausting his morter ammunition. There he dug in, and Lieutenant-Colonel Fuller's 1st Battalion, 7th Marines hurriedly moved out to the Metapona to join him.

Two battalions of the 16th Infantry and a battalion of the 8th Marines (Colonel R. H. Jeeckie), who had landed on November 4, were also soon engaged in that sector and by the 9th most of the Japanese landing party had been pinned against the beach and killed. Some broke through the noise to escape southward across the coastal plain into the jungle, where they fell victim to the Raider Battalion of Lieutenant-Colonel Evans B. Carlson who had landed east of the Japanese beach-head on November 4. For 30 days this unit, in a remarkable expedition through the jungle, combed the area around our defense perimeter from one side to the other, mopping up the remnants of Japanese forces which had taken refuge deep in the jungle.

In the middle of November the full-scale Japanese offensive materialized and in the great three-day sea-air engagement between November 12 and 15 the last and greatest attempt to recapture Henderson Field was crushed.

In that period the Japanese again sought to destroy our aircraft by heavy naval shelling. During the night of November 12-13, a strong force of enemy battleships, cruisers, and destroyers moved in to shell Henderson Field. Their aircraft had just dropped their bombs over the field, the inevitable prelude to a naval bombardment, when the firing started. It was not, however, a bombardment of the field. A U.S. task force of cruisers and destroyers, much lighter than the Japanese, had returned to the straits off the island after escorting to the open sea a convoy of ships which had brought in Army reinforcements during the day. This small fleet, commanded by Rear-Admiral Daniel J. Callaghan, attacked
ARMY RELIEVED THE MARINES IN LAST PHASE AT GUADALCANAL.

The failure of their fourth offensive in mid-November 1942 ended the Japanese attempt to recapture Guadalcanal. Mopping-up alone remained, and during December fresh units of the U.S. Army, under Maj.-Gen. A. M. Patch (right), relieved the battle-worn 1st Marine Division under Maj.-Gen. Vandegrift (below): a 'Leatherneck' pack on back, gets a farewell handshake from a wildcat. (above) the Army used 155-mm. guns to blast out the remaining Japanese: on Feb. 10, 1943, organized resistance ended.

Photos, U.S. Marine Corps Official; Sport & General, Casey's.
U.S. ARMY MOVES IN TO FINISH OFF THE CAMPAIGN

From a transport anchored off Lunga Point, landing-boats loaded with men of the U.S. Army strike out for Guadalcanal beach, there to relieve the Marines who had been engaged in grueling fighting, August-December 1942. In background on left is Henderson Field, biggest base on Guadalcanal, possession of which made possible the later and successful campaign in the Solomons. Three enemy planes can be discerned, top right. Photo, Pictorial Press

The heavier enemy force and drove it off with severe losses, including damage to a Kongo-class battleship. The disabled battleship was sunk by planes from Henderson Field the next day. In the night battle, fought at close range, Rear-Admirals Callaghan and Norman Scott were killed. The next night the Japanese ships returned and shelled Henderson Field for 45 minutes, but damage was relatively light, and on November 14, when the enemy convoy of 12 transports and supply ships with heavy escort began its approach to Guadalcanal, the Marine and Navy aviation units based on Henderson Field were powerful enough to destroy most of it. Throughout the day these aircraft attacked the approaching convoy and by nightfall five of the transports had been sunk, three more were ablaze and helpless, and the remaining four had been damaged. That night, November 14-15, the remnants of the Japanese surface force tried to close Guadalcanal but were intercepted by a U.S. task force commanded by Rear-Admiral W. A. Lee, Jr., including battleships, which inflicted further losses on the Japanese Navy. Four supply ships succeeded in reaching the shore of Guadalcanal, but were quickly sunk by our artillery and aircraft after dawn.

In this three-day engagement our ships and planes had sunk 28 Japanese ships, including at least one battleship and probably another, and had damaged ten more ships. The Japanese forces had been utterly smashed. We had lost two cruisers and seven destroyers. This last desperate offensive in mid-November ended the final major attempt of the enemy to recapture the island. At the end of the month increased Japanese naval activity in the Solomons indicated that they might be starting a new offensive, but heavy losses were inflicted on enemy surface craft and the spirit of activity ceased. In the battle of Lunga Point, which took place on the night of November 30-December 1, the U.S. Navy sank ten enemy surface craft trying to approach Guadalcanal, with the loss of the heavy cruiser U.S.S. "Northampton." Three days later an enemy surface force consisting of four cruisers and six destroyers, was attacked by our aircraft as it approached Guadalcanal and two ships in each category were damaged by bombs and torpedoes.

Thereafter the work of the American forces on the island was essentially a mop-up operation. United States Army troops landed in increasing numbers, and during December battle-worn units of the 1st Marine Division began to leave the island. On December 9 Major-General Vandegrift relinquished command of the combined Army and Marine forces on Guadalcanal to Major-General Alexander M. Patch of the United States Army, commanding the Americal Division.

By the middle of January the Army had built up sufficient strength to undertake an offensive to expel the Japanese from the island. Ahead of them lay a grueling campaign, a steady push through the jungle and along the shore to the west. The drive started with the capture of Mount Austen, a commanding height about four miles south-west of the airfield. Army units then cut inland, aiming at Kokumbona, while soldiers and marines advanced along the beach. The forces met near Kokumbona on the 25th, and then Army units pushed on to the west. Army landings seven miles west of Cape Esperance at Tasi caught the remaining Japanese in a pocket and after the two Army forces had joined Major-General Patch was able to announce, on February 10, that organized Japanese resistance had ended on Guadalcanal. Some of the enemy troops had been evacuated early in February, others late in January. Those remaining were killed or captured, or fled into the jungle.

Six months after the original American landings on Guadalcanal the island was at last entirely in our hands. It had been a most exhausting campaign, in which the tropical climate, the jungle and malaria had been enemies as formidable as the Japanese. There had been six months of almost constant action, at sea, in the air, and on land. Even so, long before Japanese resistance had ended, the airfields on Guadalcanal had become bases for attack against enemy positions farther north.

On Guadalcanal Island the United States had won its first clean-cut victory over the Japanese. The enemy's losses in aircraft and ships had been heavy. All branches of our Service had learned valuable lessons in jungle and night warfare. They had taken the measure of an enemy who had come to think of himself as invincible. There would be many more campaigns in the Pacific jungles, against an enemy who died rather than surrendered, but never again was the fight likely to be so long and so grueling, with such limited resources in ships, planes and men.
Chapter 251

AMERICA SETTLES DOWN TO TOTAL WAR: JULY—DECEMBER 1942

Shocked by Pearl Harbour and clustered by American reverses in the Philippines, the United States attained its full war stride only in the latter half of 1942, the period here comprehensively reviewed by Mr. Seklen Menneke, lecturer in sociology at the National University, Washington, who takes up the story of the United States Home Front where it was left off in Chapter 215.

The stark realities of the fighting war were scarcely felt by the people of the United States until the last half of 1942, apart from the shocking news of Pearl Harbour and the Philippines campaign. When the first complete American casualty list was issued in July, only 4,301 men were reported killed, 3,218 wounded, and 36,124 missing. Most of these losses were suffered in the Philippines and Java; and only scattered towns in California, New Mexico and a few other states, whose boys had made up a disproportionately number of the American forces, were drastically affected.

On August 8, however, the entire nation was thrilled by the report that the first American land and sea offensive against the Japanese had been opened in the Solomons. Three months later came the news of the North African invasion, which produced an exhilaration quite as marked as the grim foreboding which followed Pearl Harbour. These two were the great landmarks in the war until now so far as Americans were concerned—Pearl Harbour and North Africa. There was still agitation for the opening of a second front in Europe during the closing weeks of 1942, but people generally felt by the end of the year that they were at last on their way to Berlin and Tokyo.

The American people were reacting to the war situation much better than the Press reports might have indicated to an outsider. In September President Roosevelt made a surprise tour of many of the country’s war production centres. When he returned he reported that everywhere he had found the people’s morale good, their war spirit aggressive, their work amazingly efficient. In the plants he had visited production had attained about 95 per cent of the seemingly almost impossible goals he had set in January.

The people understood the war, and if Congress, Washington newspapermen and Government officials themselves would emulate the country’s example, he said, we would be much better off.

In 1942 the conversion of America’s huge industrial plant had been pushed far along the road to a full war footing. The year’s achievements were impressive: the goal of 8,000,000 tons of merchant shipping had been exceeded by a generous quota, although submarine sinkings exceeded new construction by a million tons; more ships had been built than in any year during the nation’s history; 48,000 planes had rolled off the assembly lines; and other munitions production was rising steeply in proportion to these achievements. About 10,000,000 workers were directly engaged in war production, with further thousands of men and women flocking into the busy war centres every week. The Army had bought property for training grounds, ordnance plants and the like until its holdings were equivalent in area to half of England.

The achievements of the shipyards were worthy of special note. In 1940 only 55 cargo ships, totalling 364,000 dead-weight tons, had been built; in 1941, 35 ships were built, and in the first eight months of 1942, 387 ships. (By contrast, in the First Great War not a single cargo vessel of the wartime programme was delivered by American yards until after the war was ended.) There was inefficiency in the mushroom shipyards, of course. But some were setting up phenomenal records. Mr. Henry J. Kaiser’s Richmond shipyard launched a 10,000-ton Liberty ship 29 days after the laying of the keel, and a month later his Portland shipyard put together a Liberty ship from prefabricated parts in the record-breaking time of three days, 23 hours, and 20 minutes. This was, of course, a stunt, but the same yard had been turning out 11 ships per month from its 11 shipways for some time. Throughout the country as a whole, three ships a day were being turned out by November.

Aircraft production, too, had its sore spots—such as Mr. Henry Ford’s bomber plant at Willow Run, near Detroit—but its progress was remarkable. California’s Lockheed Aircraft had increased its production rate from $2,000,000 in 1936 to over $500,000,000 by the end of 1942. Machine tool production reached a value of $1,500,000,000 in 1942, ten times the normal pre-war rate.

MR. ROOSEVELT TOURS U.S. WAR FACTORIES

In the autumn of 1942 President Roosevelt made a secret tour of American defence plants, and expressed himself as satisfied with the progress being made. Here he is with Mr. A. J. Higgins, from whose New Orleans shipyard came many of the landing craft, tank pilots, and similar vessels, which made possible the Allied landings in the Pacific, and in North Africa, Sicily and Italy. His designs for such vessels became standard throughout the United States.
The over-all picture was expressed in these figures for November 1942:

1. Index of total industrial production: 187 per cent of the 1929 average. Production of military equipment: up from $150 million to $5.5 thousand million per month.

2. Total civilian and military employment: up from 47,746,000 (in June 1940) to 59,200,000.

3. Average working week: up from 35 to 42 hours, rising as high as 55 hours in critical war industries.

4. Factory wage payments: 220 per cent of pre-war level.

5. Manufacturing profits: 16 per cent below 1940.

The mechanism by which this industrial transformation was brought about was a process of trial and error. Thousands of millions of Government money were used to construct war plants, mostly for private operation. Yet in the summer of 1942 a drastic steel shortage actually cut the production of ships and tanks and it became apparent that synthetic rubber production was lagging.

In September Mr. Donald Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board, put through a drastic reorganization of his agency, bringing in Mr. Charles E. Wilson, of the General Electric Company, as vice-chairman, and Mr. William M. Jefferson as director of the rubber programme. This was the last and most effective of a long series of reorganizations in this agency and its predecessors.

The country was changing rapidly as a result of the huge war programme. Small farming towns in the centre of the nation were being emptied in wholesale manner as people went after war jobs, and in many shipyards towns workers slept in garages, chicken coops, basements, tents and tourist cabins. High labour turnover and absenteeism resulted.

Workers from depressed areas, with wages higher than they had ever earned before, spent their money freely. For example, Seattle, with its population swollen from 368,000 to 508,000 by war workers, had twice as many arrests for drunkenness during six months of 1942 as it had during any previous full year. Customers stood in line at restaurants and theatres, packed the out-of-town roadhouses, and kept the 25-cent slot machines clicking.

Fourth Avenue and Pike Street, the "West End" of Seattle, were packed with people nearly 24 hours a day.

Some 50,000 men were now earning anything from $50 to $115 a week in the shipyards at Portland, Oregon. Local public-uses had big business cashing shipworkers' cheques on Thursdays (at 10-cent or 20-cent commission), then selling them beer and allowing them the privilege of using gaming machines. The Idle Hour Billiard Parlour cashed so many cheques that it installed a bullet-proof cash-desk, with armed guards standing by.

In Detroit prosperous war workers also made a big splash, but mostly in noisy, smoky, gaudy places which looked like overgrown Brothels. At the Big Bowlery Club, the film star, Martha Raye, drew over 1,200 customers nightly to break house records. Almost all Detroit night-club customers were factory workers. The only complaint of the proprietors was that kitchen staff and waiters were hard to find, and harder to keep.

But beneath this tawdry surface of war workers seeking pleasure, there was a grim determination to fight the war through to a finish. One measure of the earnestness of America's workers was the labour situation. The principal labour groups held fast to their pledge
U.S. SHIPBUILDING TRIUMPHS

Novel methods and night-and-day work broke all shipbuilding records in the United States in 1942.

2. Breaktime launch of a submarine in the Great Lakes area. (Center) Work proceeds on a ship's bottom on same morning as keel was laid. Nine days later she was launched.
3. Mr. Henry J. Kaiser, most noted Liberty shipbuilder; before the war he had never been in any way associated with shipbuilding.

not to strike in wartime. All strikes of any size were "wild-cat" demonstrations based on local grievances, unauthorized by the parent unions, and quickly ended when labor's national officials came on the scene.

Throughout 1942 there were about 3,000 strikes in the United States; yet they involved only 825,000 workers—a much better record than the corresponding year of the First Great War. IDleness due to strikes, totalled 4,250,000 man-days of work in 1942. The United States compared favourably in this respect with Great Britain, where a population little more than one-third as large lost 1,550,000 man-days of work in 1942. (By way of comparison, in the same year industrial accidents cost America 110,000,000 man-days of work, or over 39 times as many as did strikes.)

Rationing helped to drive the war home in America. On July 22 more stringent petrol control came into effect on the East Coast. Drivers were divided into A, B, and C categories. The A card allowed four gallons a week to cover necessary local marketing and an occasional shopping trip to town, while more generous B and C rations were allotted to those who needed their cars to drive to work. (See illus., p. 2145.) But because bus and tram services could not accommodate all those who had been driving cars, local rationing boards were lenient and the great majority of motorists got at least enough petrol to drive their cars two or three days a week as part of an "Our Pool," or cooperative drivers' club scheme. (Meanwhile the railways were carrying over twice as many passengers as in 1939; there was even talk of rationing railway tickets, but this did not materialize.)

Coffee rationing was announced in October because of the shortage of ships for transporting coffee beans from Brazil. However, whereas sugar and petrol had been rationed simultaneously with this initial announcement, coffee rationing was announced a month ahead of time. This resulted in a buying panic before the rationing became effective on November 29. In December a far-reaching plan for rationing canned goods was announced, but, profiting by the experience with coffee, the Office of Price Administration, this time "freeing" the sales of the rationed foods before the new controls began to operate. The rationing plan was so generous, however, that it caused few hardships to the average family.

The petrol and oil shortages made a great impression on the average motorist or owner of an oil-heated home. There was no real shortage of oil but submarine attacks on American tankers had created a shipping shortage which could not be offset by the use of railway tank wagons. In August pleasure driving was banned, and police inspections were made at race-tracks and roadhouses to enforce the ban. In the autumn fuel oil rationing was started on the East Coast. Most home owners with oil burners found themselves allotted about two-thirds as much oil as the year before; unused rooms had to be shut up, and temperatures dropped from the customary 70 degrees Fahrenheit, or higher, to 65 degrees. Most of those who could convert their oil furnaces to coal stoves.

In the last two months of the year the Office of Price Administration cut the value of petrol coupons in the East from four to three gallons, and nationwide petrol rationing was announced for December 1. This expansion of controls was aimed primarily at saving area, secondarily at appeasing the Easterners who felt disinterested because they had been hit first and hardest by the oil rationing program. (Conserving tires was of major importance in cities like Detroit, where most of the 546,000 car owners were war workers who drove to and from their jobs.)

A bloc of 70 mid-western and western congressmen protested against the extension of petrol rationing, but the Price Administrator, Mr. Leon Henderson, stood his ground. This was one of the conflicts which led to Mr. Henderson's resignation and his replacement by a former Senator, Mr. Prentice Brown, at the close of the year.

As America's armed forces and war industry grew rapidly, local shortages of man-power began to develop. By December 1942 there were over 52 million men and women in civilian employment, or almost 6 million more than in December 1940. Unemployment had dropped to 1.3 millions, compared to 11.1 millions two years earlier. Most of those who were still unemployed lived in a few depressed areas, or were in process of shifting from normal to war employment. In many cities, however, industry was having trouble in recruiting enough workers to meet production schedules. By the end of the year the "peripheral" Negro workers, housewives, and part-time workers were being used more and more extensively. Even handicapped workers were in demand; midgets were used for work inside airplane fuselages, and deaf mutes were trained for jobs in Los Angeles metal shops, where deafness was a blessing!

Meanwhile the man-power problem was becoming more and more an issue between the War Man-power Commission and the armed services. On the West
RECRUITS ARE SWORN IN BEFORE THE LIBERTY BELL

In the Independence Hall, Philadelphia, before the venerable Liberty Bell—hung on July 4, 1776, to announce the declaration of American independence from Britain—men of a new generation of Americans are sworn into the U.S. Armed Forces. Led by a senior officer, facing the Stars and Stripes, they recite the oath of allegiance.

Photo: Reprinted

Coast aircraft manufacturers complained that the conscription of able-bodied single men was interfering with production; in August, September and October the Douglas Aircraft Company of Los Angeles lost 11,000 workers to the armed forces.

Something had to be done—and it was. Selective Service boards started calling up married men without children in many American cities: the Army lowered its physical standards, to permit men with defective teeth, or minus one eye, ear or thumb, to be enrolled for "limited service," freeing able-bodied men for active service; the women's branches of the services staged recruiting drives for the same purpose; and in November Congress passed a bill to call up 18- and 19-year-old youths, providing a breathing-space for older men and fathers.

But the civilian man-power question was becoming more and more worrying. The War Man-power Commission had no real power to order any worker to do anything. It could only formulate plans, setting up a system of priorities. Actually, war industry took top priority by virtue of its high wages; the Army took a higher priority through conscription; and local national service boards were at the top of the scale, through their authority to reclassify or defer workers. But there was no all-embracing plan.

In Detroit and many another city so many men had gone into the Army and war industry that there were not enough left to run the laundries, restaurants and stores which served the war workers. In Chattanooga, Tennessee, a "Situations Vacant" advertisement in a local paper said: "WANTED: Registered druggist—young or old, deaf or dumb. Must have license and walk without crutches. Apply Cloverleaf Drug Store."

In Portland Mr. Kaiser lost a thousand men a week from his shipyards. He sent agents all the way to New York, 3,000 miles distant, to recruit thousands of new workers. Yet in Portland there was talk among the employees about "labor hoarding"—the hiring of surplus workers as a precaution against future needs.

Meanwhile Government officials pointed out that 20,000,000 more workers still would be needed for war industry, and several millions more for the armed forces; before another year was up. Not until the U.S. had a combined military, war worker and essential civilian labour force of 41,000,000 would it have reached a stage of manpower mobilisation comparable to that already attained in Great Britain.

In these circumstances agitation for conscription of labour for war industry began to be heard. The people were willing to submit to this, according to the public opinion polls; but first they wanted to be convinced that it was necessary. The Government took a middle course, preferring to use less drastic measures for as long as possible. In 1942 Mr. Paul McNutt, War Man-power Commissioner, had "frozen" on their jobs 1,500,000 aircraft workers, 110,000 merchant seamen and thousands of western miners, northwestern lumber workers, and southwestern railway workers. Just before the year ended he extended the control to cover 500,000 wage-earners in Detroit's war industries. Actually, the order merely required workers to show good reason before changing their jobs, and was not rigidly enforced. But the extension of such measures accomplished what was
needed without stirring up resentment against "forced labour."

Jealous of its prerogatives, Congress hampered the Government's fight against increased prices by boycotting off a quarter of the 1942-43 budget asked by Mr. Leon Henderson, the Price Administrator, who had refused to consult the members of Congress about appointments while building up his staff. But Congress passed a $33,000,000,000 Army estimate without a dissenting vote, and much of this would come back to the American worker in wages. The surplus of many thousand millions of purchasing power over the production of consumers' goods, unless diverted to savings, meant a real danger of inflation. This danger was eased somewhat by a war bond sale raising $11,100 million, in December.

The threat of inflation came from several quarters. Pressure from the highly organized large farmers for higher prices, from employers for higher profits, and from labour for higher wages, all threatened to cause financial crisis. The Government stood firm, in the main, on its anti-inflation programme, although in October the Office of Price Administration raised the ceiling prices on food items so as to cost the public an additional $70 million a year.

The greatest challenge to the inflation-control programme came in July, when the C.I.O. (Congress of Industrial Organizations) steel workers' union demanded a rise of $1 a day for its 157,000 workers in the "little (i.e. independent) steel" companies. The War Labour Board granted an increase of only 4 cents. The basis for this decision was that from January 1941 to May 1943 prices had risen about 10 per cent, according to the Government index. This was taken as the yardstick for wage increases; henceforth only employees who had received rises of less than 10 per cent since January 1941 were to be allowed increases, and only up to this maximum level, except for a few workers whose wages were clearly below prevailing standards to begin with. Genuinely employed were forbidden to raise their employees' wages without permission from the War Labour Board. This "Little Steel Formula" was to be the Government's wage policy for at least a year and a half.

After many lean years, the American farmer had a bumper crop year in 1942. Net farm income was up by 45 per cent over 1941. Gross income was a thousand million dollars higher than at the war peak in 1919. Yet twice in the autumn of 1942 the professional lobbyists who represented large farm interests in Washington tried to raise farm price ceilings. The Government killed both attempts, despite the propaganda of the lobbyists to convince American farmers that the Roosevelt Democrats were favouring labour as against agriculture.

Taxes were increased drastically by Congress to finance the war and to combat inflation. A Federal sales tax was avoided, because it conflicted with the American principle of taxation based on ability to pay: but a flat five per cent "Victory Tax" was placed on all earnings above $12 a week. Personal income tax exemptions were lowered from $750 to $500 for single persons, and from $1,500 to $1,200 for married couples. Surtaxes were drastically increased to a maximum of 52 per cent on high incomes. The American tax schedule was still far below the level reached much earlier in Great Britain, especially at the middle and lower income levels; but to Americans it meant high taxes indeed. Few people complained at the new tax rates, however, though many grumbled about the complicated tax forms they had to fill in.

In the drive against excessive war profits, company excess profits taxes were increased from 72.4 per cent to 90 per cent. Post-war refunding provisions were included, but they were stricter than those in effect in Great Britain, so that in the United States the over-all rate was actually higher.

The net result of these economic measures was to keep prices at a far lower level, relatively speaking, than in the corresponding period of the First Great War. But retail sales were mounting higher than in the previous year, higher in fact than in the prosperous year 1929. Evidently, only the first skirmish against inflation had been won.

The Congressional elections of November 1942 gave evidence of a general swing towards the Republican party in most sections of the country. The Republicans won 44 additional seats in the House of Representatives, thus bringing within ten seats of controlling the lower house. They also won nine additional Senate seats, and displaced Democratic governors in the important States of New York, Michigan and California. Twenty-seven of the 48 States went Republican. The Democrats retained their nominal control of Congress, but it was apparent that President Roosevelt would have to work closely

**PACIFIC WAR COUNCIL MEETING IN WASHINGTON**

During Mr. Churchill's visit to the United States in June 1942 a meeting of the Pacific War Council was held in the White House (June 20). Present were left to right, below: Mr. G. S. Cox, representing New Zealand; Dr. T. V. Soong, Chinese Foreign Minister; Viscount Halifax, British Ambassador to the U.S.A.; Dr. Herbert V. Evatt, Australian Minister for External Affairs; Mr. Churchill; President Roosevelt; Mr. W. L. Mackenzie King, Prime Minister of Canada; Mr. Leighton McCarthy, Canadian Minister to the U.S.A.; Dr. Alex. London, Netherlands Ambassador to the U.S.A.; and President Manuel Quezon, Philippines Commonwealth.

Photo: Keystone.
LONDON'S SEARCHLIGHTS AND SOUND LOCATORS MANNED BY A.T.S.

By the beginning of 1942 there were searchlight batteries in the London Defence Area manned entirely by members of the A.T.S.; this group on a searchlight site is operating a sound locator, forerunner of radio-location. On February 25, 1943, Sir James Grigg told the House of Commons that there were then 50 employments for women in the A.T.S.; (compared with five in 1939), chief of these being in A.A. Command.
RAILWAY STATION, ALAMEIN

By
Philip Bawcombe


25-POUNDER GUN AND TEAM IN ACTION ON THE ALAMEIN FRONT

By
J. Barry
GENERAL SIR BERNARD LAW MONTGOMERY, K.C.B., D.S.O.

Commander of the 8th Army from August 1942 to December 1943, when he was appointed C-in-C of the British Group of Armies being organized in the United Kingdom for the liberation of Europe. From the portrait by Capt. Neville Lewis, official South African war artist, exhibited at the National Portrait Gallery, London, May 1943.

Reproduced by permission of the Government of South Africa.
RUSSIAN COUNTER-OFFENSIVE AT STALINGRAD, NOVEMBER-DECEMBER 1942

Planim 1, 2 and 3 show the first phase of Marshal Zhukov's offensive designed to relieve Stalingrad, which opened on November 19. Plan 1 indicates the progress of operations up to November 24. Plan 2, succeeding movements until November 30; Plan 3, approximate positions on December 15. Pink represents previous Russian and yellow previous German positions. Plan 4, while covering the whole six weeks' fighting, chiefly illustrates the Russian advance during the second phase of the offensive, which began on December 16. Dates are necessarily approximate. Distance from Stalingrad to Rostov—240 miles. (See Chapter 252.)
with conservative Democrats from the Old South if his party was to maintain effective control of Congress. War issues were not affected by party, however, so that the prosecution of the war was in no way endangered.

There were two reasons commonly assigned for the trend towards Republican representation:

(1) This was an off-year election*, so that the results could have only a minimum effect on the prestige of the President. (Public opinion polls continued to show that a large majority of the American public—75 per cent at the close of the year—approved of the way Mr. Roosevelt was handling his job as President today?)

(2) There was undoubtedly some popular dissatisfaction with specific aspects of the war programme, such as the Government’s rationing, price-control, labour and selective service policies. To some extent, however, the large Republican vote was a protest against Congress as well as against the Government itself. There was also a prevalent feeling that the American armed forces were far too slow in getting into action. (Had the North African invasion taken place three days before instead of three days after the election, the results might have been somewhat different.)

Less attention was paid by the Press to a third factor which was just as important as the other two. In 1942 only 25,000,000 people cast their votes—about half as many as in the 1940 presidential election. In general, the highest percentage of votes was cast by the more settled, prosperous and conservative elements in the population. Young people and workers on the lower economic levels had been predominantly pro-Democratic in previous elections and many of them were disfranchised in 1942, voluntarily or otherwise. Of the several million men in the armed forces, only 25,000 voted under the censuses’ last-minute, soldier-vote legislation passed by Congress. At least two or three million men had migrated from non-industrial cities to small towns and farms to war centres in the previous year, and had been unable to fulfill the residential requirements for voting. And several million workers who had been unemployed in previous election years no longer felt any strong economic urge to go to the polls and vote for the Democrats who had given them a liberal programme of work relief and social security during the depression.

ASSEMBLY OF A BOEING ‘FLYING FORTRESS’

At the Seattle plant of the Boeing Aircraft Company, the massive inboard wing section of a B-17E—popularly known as the ‘Flying Fortress’—is lifted by overhead crane from one of the jig lines, bound for the assembly floor, where it will be attached to the fuselage. In 1942, 4,000 planes of various types rolled off American assembly lines.

The period of the “New Deal” was clearly over. But the 1942 elections were not a sound basis for predicting what would happen in 1944.

In the latter half of 1942 American public opinion was becoming stabilized on the issues of the war. The polls showed, first of all, a trend away from isolationism. Three-fourths of the people believed that the United States should try “to take an active part in world affairs” rather than “stay out of world affairs as much as we can” when the war was over. The tremendous interest in the speeches and statements of the former Republican presidential candidate, Mr. Wendell Willkie, when he returned from his trip round the world, was further evidence of this tendency.

Only two-thirds of the American people claimed to have a clear idea of what they were fighting for, and many of those would have been embarrassed if they were pressed for an answer. They were clearer about what they were fighting against; they could not have defined Fascism, most of them, but they knew that they were combating a set of war-making dictators. A great and increasing majority was opposed to any negotiated peace with Germany.

In the first part of 1942 most of the people had believed that Germany rather than Japan was the greater military menace to the United States. As the year wore on, however, this opinion was reversed. First, it became increasingly apparent with the battle of Stalingrad that the Russians were going to keep Germany busy in Europe for some time to come; second, the heavy casualties suffered by the U.S. Marines in the Solomons gave evidence that the defeat of Japan would be a long job.

The invasion of North Africa brought a sharp drop in the public’s estimate of how long the war would last—from almost three to less than two years. Most Americans still gave Japan a year longer to survive than Germany; but once they thought America was on the way to Tokyo, even via North Africa and Berlin, the proportion of those who thought that as things stood the United Nations were losing the war dropped almost to zero.

On the home front the people continued to express majority approval of past “New Deal” reforms still in effect, as well as of all major legislative aspects of the war programme. They were willing to sacrifice more than they had been asked to do so far; for example, in paying taxes and submitting to more stringent labour controls. The seriousness of the war was driven home to more and more American families as the number of men in the armed forces increased.

In the latter half of 1942 the United States was getting her second wind after the shock of Pearl Harbour and the Philippines, and was settling down to the long pull necessary to win the war.

* An off-year election is one in which other than Representatives to Congress or to the State Legislature, though there be no concurrent elections, respectively, for President or Governor.
ROKOSOVSKY'S ARMY OF THE DON STRUCK NORTH-WEST OF STALINGRAD

Taking the enemy by surprise, Red Army forces under Col.-Gen. K. K. Rokosovsky launched an offensive against the strongly fortified dusk positions held by Romansians north-west of Stalingrad on November 19, 1942. (Top) Snow-camouflaged Romansians in full pursuit. (Centre) Sappers crawl in advance of the main forces, detecting and removing mines. (Bottom) Me-109s captured at Chir.
Chapter 232

THE TIDE TURNS AT STALINGRAD: RED ARMY'S DECISIVE SIX WEEKS' OFFENSIVE

By mid-November 1942 the capture of Stalingrad appeared to the Germans to be imminent (see Chapter 244). Actually the long-prepared Russian counter-offensive was about to be launched. Secrecy and surprise, the factors on which the Red Army relied, were achieved, and the sweeping success of the ensuing heavy fighting between November 19 and December 31 are here recorded. The battle-plans facing page 2495 should be consulted.

Great was the success of the German offensive of 1942, it had fallen far short of its aims. It had inflicted heavy defeats on Timoshenko's armies in the south, but had not annihilated them, as was proved by the amazing resistance of Stalingrad and the stubborn fighting in the Caucasus.

Furthermore, the campaign had not affected the bulk of the Russian armies in the centre and north which, except for as far as they had undertaken diversionary offensives, had had ample opportunities for recuperation and reorganization. Nor, as far as was known, had the new armies which towards the end of 1941 Voroshilov and Budenny had been commissioned to form and train, been called on for reinforcements.

Obviously the Germans in the great bulge their offensive had formed were in a thoroughly dangerous situation if Russia's material resources enabled her to take the offensive in the coming winter. The changes that had been made in the German High Command suggested that all were not satisfied with the situation, and that there was a divergence of opinion as to the best course to pursue.

By mid-November there were practically only two courses open: either to withdraw to a shorter and less exposed winter position, or to continue the offensive in order to capture Stalingrad and the Terek valley in the Caucasus. Stalingrad would provide a strong lodgement bastion and the Terek valley would deprive the Russians of an offensive base, while both would give shelter during the winter for troops in advanced positions.

With his prestige at stake, no doubt, Hitler insisted on going on, though he may have come to abandon costly attempts to take Stalingrad by assault in favour of reducing it by bombardment. It seems certain that he and his more sanguine advisers expected no immediate danger, either because their intelligence service was at fault or because the Russians had made no major attempt to relieve Stalingrad when its situation was desperately critical.

Naturally the Germans had established a defensive position to protect their flank along the Middle Don from Voronezh to the neighbourhood of Kletskaya and then across to the Volga. The latter sector was elaborately fortified and strengthened by numerous concrete works and dug-in tanks. Confident in the strength of this flank, and no doubt desirous of using all available German troops for the assault on Stalingrad, the Germans entrusted its defence mainly to satellite troops—Romanians in the most critical sector near Stalin-

grad, Italians behind the Middle Don and Hungarians in the Voronezh sector.

South of Stalingrad the Russians had been pressed back to the banks of the Volga, where they apparently had no room to deploy large forces and their communications across the river were difficult. This flank of the Stalingrad salient and the railway line from Kotelnikovo, therefore, seemed to the Germans to be adequately protected.

At an early stage of the siege the Russians had concentrated a considerable force opposite the sector between the Don and the Volga, and had retained a small bridgehead over the Don in the neighbourhood of Kletskaya. Attacks made by these troops were, however, generally of local character to secure tactical features and their intention seemed to be rather to reduce pressure on Stalingrad than a real attempt to force the Germans to abandon the siege. Their effect, in fact, seems to have been to strengthen the German conviction that the Russians lacked offensive power, and that there was no serious danger to be expected from this quarter.

How long-prepared Russian plans for a counter-offensive were has been revealed by Mr. Churchill, who has told us that on his visit to Moscow in August 1942 Marshal Stalin was full of confidence and explained his intentions. Even then it was sufficiently evident that if the German drive could be halted at Stalingrad and become deeply committed to the Caucasus an opportunity for a devastating counter-stroke would occur. That, however, implied a long period of defensive fighting—in places rigid, as at Voronezh and Stalingrad, in others more elastic, as in the Caucasus. The successful defence of Voronezh (see p. 2421)
 protección las vías férreas y el Volga, que es esencial para la concentración de tropas para una ofensiva contra el flanco del ensanchamiento aleman.

Hitler's aversión to capturing Stalingrad provided an opportunity to complete plans in detail, and no doubt the selection of the counter-stroke was determined by weather conditions. In the late autumn the enemy's troops, exposed to the bitter winds of the steppes, would be suffering great hardships; his supply difficulties, when mud and snow began to affect mechanical vehicles and the men had to depend more and more on railway communications, would be increased; and he would be unable to develop crushing air superiority with many of his airfields unusable.

On the other hand, before the Volga finally froze traffic across it would fall for a week which became almost impossible owing to floating blocks of ice brought down by the current. Cut off from supplies and reinforcements, the city would then be in greater danger than ever. Already crossings were becoming difficult and this may possibly have added to the German sense of security, since similar conditions on the Don made it reasonable to suppose that no large Russian force could attempt to cross the river until it froze.

From the subsequent course of events preparations for the Russian offensive must have included the secret concentration of formidable armies at a number of points ready to exploit initial success; but the first blow had to be delivered at Stalingrad, 6th Army under von Paulus in front of Stalingrad, both because it was in the most vulnerable position and in order to relieve the city. Moreover, more than anywhere else decisive results might be obtained by a comparatively short advance in which there was less fear of the attack losing its impetus through supply difficulties. The patience displayed by the Russian High Command and its refusal, in spite of the urgent need to relieve Stalingrad, to strike prematurely and before favourable conditions were fully established, is perhaps one of the most remarkable features in the evolution of its plans.

Having worked for strategic surprise by masking their intentions and by concealing the strength and disposition of their armies, the Russians had now to put the tactical parts of their strategic plan into effect.

Briefly the plan for the relief of Stalingrad provided for two operations. First, simultaneous attacks on the German flank defences north-west and south of the city, aiming at their penetration by forces which would encircle the besieging army and cut the two railways on which it depended for supplies. Second, the defeat of the attempts which the enemy was bound to make to destroy the encircling ring from outside.

To achieve their aim the first set of operations had to be carried through rapidly, and for that tactical surprise was essential. With the opposing armies in close contact on a comparatively short front of about 100 miles, it was found to be a difficult problem to achieve any considerable measure of surprise, especially on the open sector between the Don and the Volga, where the main attack was bound to be delivered. Across the Don in the Kletakaya neighbourhood and to the south of the city, where conditions had recently been static, opportunity for surprise was greatest, because the Russians appeared to have no room to develop a serious attack. It was, however, the opportunity for the enemy to get to know the evolution of its plans.

Up-stream from their small Kletakaya bridgehead they secretly established a new crossing near Sarafimovich, and south of Stalingrad they greatly reinforced their forces holding the right bank of the Volga without the enemy's knowledge. In addition, armies were assembled east of the Don, ready to
ENORMOUS BOOTY TAKEN BY THE RED ARMY

By the end of 1942, so spectacular had been the success of the first phase of their offensive, the Russians were able to claim the relief of Stalingrad, 95,000 enemy killed and 72,000 taken prisoner, and vast supplies of war material captured. (Top) Some of the 10,496 horses and stacks of stores which formed part of the booty; (bottom) abandoned guns and miscellaneous equipment litter the snow-covered battlefield.

Photos: "News Chronicle"

In December, the Red Army continued to press the enemy back, and so far, the German communications had not been seriously disrupted. But by then, the Red Army was already preparing for the next phase of the offensive. The enemy's defenses were strong and well-maintained, but the Red Army was determined to push on.

On the morning of November 10, while a fog hung over the Don, the breakthrough began. The advance was slow, but steady, and the Germans were taken by surprise. The Red Army quickly overran their defenses, and the enemy began to retreat.

Though Marshal Zhukov, who was coordinating the whole series of operations, launched his offensive on November 10, the enemy's defenses were strong and well-maintained. But by then, the Red Army was already preparing for the next phase of the offensive. The enemy's defenses were strong and well-maintained, but the Red Army was determined to push on.

The thrust that reached Kalach appears to have started from the new bridgehead at Semenovsk, and struck right across the loop of the Don where it would not have encountered much opposition. The thrust from the south under Col. Gen. Varuten, which captured Abganerovo on the Kotelnikovo railway, may have owed its success to the Germans, unprepared for danger, having weakened their forces there, it is not improbable that some troops may have been withdrawn to reinforce the Caucasus front for the Natalik offensive or in order to relieve congestion on the line of communication which ran through Rostov, and which had to serve both the Caucasus front and the southern wing of Von Paulus's army.

Although the encircling thrusts which cut the German communications achieved the most sensational results, yet it was the main attack made by Col.-Gen. K. K. German Counter-Attacks

On the morning of November 25 was a red-letter day; for on that date Rokosovsky's troops
reached the northern outskirts of Stalingrad and joined hands with Chaykov's 62nd Army, which for so long had brilliantly held the city whose relief thus became an accomplished fact.

A Soviet war correspondent thus described the dramatic scene:

At 3.30 p.m. on November 24 all the radio stations operating with Red Army units on the Stalingrad front heard a loud "Hurrah!" Then the strings lasted for ten minutes. Then several voices, in various wave-lengths, repeated simultaneously that our forces advancing from the north along the Volga had joined up with the northern group of the defenders of Stalingrad under Colonel General Kuznetsov in the village of Lebedein, which is about 50 miles from the Volga.

When the first Red Army men with their banners appeared in the distance, the men on the northern outskirts of Stalingrad could not contain themselves any longer. They rushed at the retreating enemy, fought their way forward with bayonets, rifle butts and hand-grenades, caught up with the retreating foe, and in company with them greeted their comrade advancing from the north, who had already occupied Lebedein.

They radio call summoned the men to the offensive. The Red Army groups from north and south went into action. At 4 p.m., fighting in company, they occupied heights west of Lebedein. A few days later they took part in the heated battles in the northern sector of Stalingrad and helped to recapture several streets in the workers' settlement near the big tractor works.

Heavy fighting, however, continued, and it was not till the beginning of December that the encircling ring was completed and consolidated. Even then the battle of encirclement was not over, for the Russians continued to press the enemy into an ever-diminishing space, depriving him of landing grounds and wearing down his still formidable strength. Deeply ring in and holding an area as large as an average English county, the Germans were capable of offering stubborn resistance, and to the outside world it seemed probable that they had a good chance of holding out till rescued, provided that their supplies of food and munitions did not run short. With their supply lines cut, it was, however, evident that they would have to depend on their advanced depots and what could reach them by air. It was soon apparent that their situation was in this respect critical, for at an early stage the Germans began to use masses of transport planes to bring in supplies, in spite of the heavy toll the Red Air Force took of them. Until the Russians, closing in, were able to bring landing grounds under artillery fire, considerable quantities of supplies, no doubt, were brought in by this means, while wounded men, and officers and staffs of shattered formations which had become surplus, were removed in the return flights, thus reducing the number of useless mouths.

In this opening phase of the offensive the Germans had already suffered a disastrous defeat. Not only was the besieging army now besieged—it had suffered terrible losses. By the end of the year the Russians were able to claim that in this phase alone eight infantry, one cavalry and one tank divisions of the Rumanian contingent had been routed, as well as three German infantry and one tank divisions, while in addition three other German divisions had suffered severely. Enemey killed were estimated at 90,000, while 72,000 prisoners had been taken. Material captured or destroyed was enormous: 900 planes, 2,340 tanks, 3,166 guns, 10,496 lorries, together with huge numbers of smaller weapons and immense quantities of stores. The number of weapons and vehicles captured greatly exceeded those destroyed—no doubt this was in part due to the rapid capture of railhead depots and repair shops where personnel would mainly be administrative.

Mention should be made here of the brilliant part played by the Red Army reconnaissance units.

When General Dimitriu, commander of the 20th Rumanian Infantry Division, was being interrogated as a prisoner of war, he showed a map prepared by the Red Army before the offensive and asked to correct any errors in the charting of the disposition of his own division at that time. He answered, astonished, that the Soviet map was more exact than even the operational map prepared by his own headquartrers!

Although Von Paula's army in Stalingrad was securely trapped and had little offensive power, the Russians were bound to take precautions against counter-attacks from outside the ring. Such attacks were almost certain to develop along the two railway lines, one on each side of the lower Don, leading to Stalingrad, and masses were taken at once to gain ground along them. The heaviest attack might be expected along the railway north of the Don, since reserves from the comparatively quiet front in the north could concentrate on it, and there were good lateral communications. On the other hand, a counter-attack delivered along the southern railway from Kotelnikovo would not have the Don to cross and could strike at the ring round Stalingrad where it was weakest. When, therefore, encirclement was complete Vatutin's army appears to have been mainly employed in gaining ground by pressing south in the direction of Kotelnikovo, which seemed likely to become a concentration centre for a relieving force. Vatutin's advance however, held up and counter-attacked before it reached Kotelnikovo.

Such was the general situation when, on December 16, Zhukov opened the second phase of the offensive by forcing the crossing of the Middle Don on a front of some 50 miles, on each side of
Boqanaur (see Plan 4, facing p. 2495). The Italian troops holding the line of the river were over-run and the attack swept forward rapidly, reaching the line of the Voronezh–Rostov railway in less than a week. German divisions rushed up from reserve to stop the Italian rout also became involved in the disaster. Spreading to its left, another new offensive joined hands with Rokossovsky's troops who had been operating westwards from the Kletskaya–Kalach front against the Germans within the loop of the Don. A major effect of this well-timed and amazingly successful operation was to frustrate any intention the Germans may have had of relieving Von Paulus by a counter-stroke along the railway north of the Don. The Germans had again been surprised, partly owing to the skilful concealment of Russian preparations, and partly because they believed that the Don was

DESPERATE GERMAN RETREAT

Part of the long and detailed planning of the Russian campaign was the provision of tanks and vehicles specially designed for snow conditions. The enemy were not so well equipped; they employed even primitive horse-drawn sledges (above) in their demoralized retreat. Symbolic of their desperation is this view (left) of the remnants of an advanced enemy observation post anxiously awaiting first sign of the advancing Red forces. Photos, Kopstein

still not sufficiently frozen to admit a crossing. The rapidity of the Russian advance, astonishing under winter conditions, was due to the adoption of a new tactical technique. Centres of resistance were bypassed by armoured thrusts and left to be dealt with by mopping-up troops. This manoeuvre was facilitated by the fact that Russian tanks and other mechanized vehicles had been specially designed for snow conditions, and were not dependent on roads.

By the end of the year as a result of this second offensive the Germans had lost their hold on almost the whole of the area within the bend of the Don, and were chiefly concerned in holding the line of the Donets and its railway crossings at Voroshilovgrad, Kamensk and elsewhere. They probably still hoped
eventually to stage a counter-stroke to relieve Von Paulus from this front, but for the time being they had no reserve power after the mauling they had received. Five German infantry and one tank divisions had been routed in addition to six Italian and two Romanian divisions. They had lost some 60,000 men killed and a similar number of prisoners. War material captured or destroyed included some 500 planes, 350 tanks, over 2,000 guns and 3,000 lorries. Supply depots stocked for the winter were perhaps an even more important part of the booty captured, for they must have greatly eased Russian supply problems.

To turn now to the development of the situation south of Stalingrad where, as recorded above, part of Valet’s army had been operating southwards towards Kotelnikovo. It was in that region that a German counter-offensive to reopen communication with Von Paulus’s beleaguered army could most rapidly be mounted on account of its proximity to the offensive front in the Caucasus, where formations were certain to be in reserve, and it was in that direction that Von Paulus would probably retreat if he decided to attempt to cut his way out.

By December 13 Von Manteim had assembled about Kotelnikovo a powerful striking force under Von Hoth, consisting of at least three armoured and three motorised infantry divisions, and an attempt to break through to Stalingrad was launched. At first it met with considerable success and the Russians were driven back for some 20 miles. But though the German armoured force had great penetrative power, the infantry support to it was insufficient to hold the sides of the corridor created. The Russians, drawing back to a flank, were therefore able to bring the drive to a standstill by threatening its communications and to counter-attack in turn.

This manoeuvre was completely successful and after some bitter fighting it soon became evident that the relief attempt had proved a disastrous failure.

By the end of the year Von Hoth was in full retreat, having lost some 2,000 men killed and over 5,000 prisoners together with much material, which included over 300 planes, 550 tanks and 550 guns. He was not even able to hold Kotelnikovo, but retreated westward, fighting doggedly rearward actions with the pursuing Russians. (See Plan 4, facing p. 246.)

Von Paulus’s army of 22 divisions was thus left without any hope of immediate relief. It, however, constituted a formidable force strongly entrenched, and could not be easily annihilated. Cut off from supplies and having lost many of its advanced depots, the only question was whether it could hold out under heavy pressure until the Germans could assemble a new and stronger relieving army. This seemed improbable because the disaster they had suffered at Kotelnikovo had exposed the flank and communications of their Caucasus army, and that danger had to be met before another relief attempt could be staged.

By holding out, however, Von Paulus’s army would serve the double purpose of containing the Russian armies investing it and, equally important, it would continue to block the railways which ran through Stalingrad and which were of vital importance to the further development of the Russian offensive. Nevertheless the encirclement of Von Paulus and the defeat of the relief attempt gave convincing proof of the skill and foresight with which the Russian operations had been planned. In contrast the Germans had made one blunder after another. Taken by itself, Von Hoth’s Kotelnikovo thrust was undoubtedly formidable and well executed, but it was open to criticism that it should not have been launched until sufficient force had been assembled to make success almost certain. Obviously failure would mean the situation, for it would inevitably set back to a dangerous extent the date by which any further relief attempt could be made. Von Manteim may have relied on the co-operation of the German troops on the other side of the Don, but if he did the Russian Middle Don offensive made such co-operation impracticable.

The Russians having with such astonishing success gained their first objective, the stage was set for the full development of the winter campaign of 1942-43, the course of which will be followed in later Chapters.

GUNS ON THE OUTSKIRTS POUND ENEMY STRONGPOINTS

The junction of forces effected, a concerted assault on remaining enemy positions began, and after several days’ fierce fighting the Red Army recaptured several streets in the workers’ settlement in the north of the city. Above, a Red Army gun pounds enemy blockhouses.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official
Chapter 253

THE RUSSIAN HOME FRONT IN 1942

Russia's vital military successes in 1942 would have been impossible if the Red Army had not had the backing of the tremendous achievements in organization and re-organization effectuated by Soviet industry, and made possible only by the courage and tenacity of the whole Russian people. Mr. Andrei Rothenstein, who contributes this review of internal events in the U.S.S.R., is the London correspondent of the official Soviet news agency.

In the political field the year began with a document characterizing the implacable determination of the Soviet people to keep a strict account of the atrocities committed by the Nazis on Soviet soil, and to exact full retribution from the perpetrators on the principle of "blood for blood and death for death." This was the Note of M. Molotov to all Governments describing such atrocities in detail (January 6). It was the subject immediately of countless meetings all over the U.S.S.R. On April 27 it was followed up by a further Note, expanding the terrible account, while on October 14 M. Molotov replied to a collective protest against similar atrocities from a number of the smaller Allies, reiterating the Soviet determination to hold them to exact justice, and suggesting the immediate trial of leading Nazi war criminals in Allied hands. A statement from the Soviet Information Bureau, on December 19, recorded Nazi atrocities against Soviet Jews. On November 3, the Soviet Government had established an Extraordinary State Commission to record and verify Nazi atrocities. Its Chairman was M. Shvernik, Secretary of the Central Council of Trade Unions, a leading member was Metropolitan Nikolai of Kiev and Galicia, and among other well-known people included the Chief Surgeon of the Red Army, M. Burdenko, and the writer Alesk Tolstoy.

Stalin made a number of important pronouncements during the year. In his Order of the Day on the 24th Anniversary of the Red Army (February 23) he dealt with the loss of initiative by the German Army after eight months of war, set forth the sources of strength of the Red Army, and exposed the lying enemy propaganda about the alleged purpose of the Red Army to exterminate the German people or destroy the German State, underlining that it was "trained in the spirit of racial equality and respect for the rights of other peoples." In his Order of the Day for May 1 the Premier exposed the German claim to be nationalists fighting for the independence of their country, to be socialists fighting against plutocracy, and to be defenders of European culture. Laying stress on the internal unity and stronger international connexions of the Soviet people, Stalin pointed out the considerable battle experience of the Red Army and the disappearance of "complacency and heedlessness" towards the enemy. On October 3, replying to questions put by a press correspondent, Stalin declared that the question of the Second Front was of "first-rate importance." Compared with the aid which the Soviet Union was giving the Allies by drawing upon itself the main forces of the enemy, Allied aid to the Soviet Union had been "little effective" so far. To simplify and improve it only one thing was needed — "that the Allies fulfill their obligations completely and on time."

Speaking at a meeting on November 6, to celebrate the 25th Anniversary of the Soviet Revolution of 1917, Stalin gave an extensive review of the year's developments in the war and at the front. In his striking contrast between the numbers of divisions which the Russian army had to face in 1941-18 and those the Red Army was fighting in the present war — 127 German and satellite divisions in the war of 1914-18, 294 divisions in this war. In this speech Stalin formulated his view of the programme of the Anglo-Soviet-American Coalition:

"The abolition of racial exclusiveness, the equality of nations and the inevitability of their terms; the liberation of the enslaved nations and the restoration of their sovereign rights; the right of every nation to arrange its affairs as it wishes; economic aid to the nations that have suffered; and assistance to them in achieving their material welfare; the restoration of democratic liberties; the destruction of the Hitlerite regime."

Stalin expanded the last point as meaning the destruction of the Hitlerite state and its inspirers, of Hitler's army and its leaders, and of the hated "New Order in Europe." In an Order of the Day on November 7 he announced that the Red Army had put out of action over eight million enemy men and officers. On November 13 Stalin replied to further questions from a press correspondent, welcoming the Allied campaign in Africa as a demonstration that the Anglo-American leaders were "first-rate organizers," and that initiative had passed into the hands of the Allies, and as creating the pre-requisites for the organization of a Second Front in Europe, nearer to Germany.

Two other political events of great importance may be noted. One was a declaration by 57 German anti-Fascist newspapers that 8,000 refugees — writers, former members of the Reichstag, and trade union leaders — living in the German people to fight the Hitler regime (February 11), which was followed by the first conference of German N.C.O. prisoners of war. The other (October 9) was an Edict of the President of the Supreme Soviet, abolishing military commissars
and political instructors at separate ranks in the Red Army, on the ground that the Soviet forces had attained political maturity, and the co-ordination of political work henceforth under single command. The former commissars, most of them experienced in battle, were given suitable military rank.

Diplomatic activity during 1942 included the announcement on January 2 that, following up the Stalin-Sikorski conversations in December 1941, the Soviet Government had granted a loan of 100 million roubles to Poland to assist Polish citizens living in the U.S.S.R. Eighteen days later, the Treaty between Britain, the U.S.S.R., and Iran (Persia) was signed in Tehran, granting the Allies unrestricted communication rights through Iran, and guaranteeing the latter's integrity, independence and sovereignty. It was the occasion for widespread demonstrations throughout the U.S.S.R. of friendship with Iran.

On March 29 a protocol was signed with Japan extending for one year the existing Fisheries Convention between the two countries, but reducing the number of fishing areas leased to the Japanese from 19 to 14, and increasing the rent by 20 per cent. On April 13, the newspaper Pravda had occasion to warn Japanese militarists against talk of expansion at Soviet expense.

But the principal diplomatic events of the year, which gave immense encouragement and increased confidence to the Soviet people in their heavy trials, were the series of agreements with the Allies—the Anglo-Soviet Treaty of London, concluded on May 28 and published on June 12 (ratified by the President of the Supreme Soviet on June 18), the subsequent agreement with the U.S.A. on mutual aid (published on June 13), the Anglo-Soviet financial agreement of June 17 extending war credits to the U.S.S.R. by £23 million on a basis of reciprocity (published June 30), and the communiqué of August 17, announcing that Mr. Churchill had visited Moscow and had had cordial and far-reaching conversations with M. Stalin between the 13th and the 15th.

On September 28 a joint communiqué of the Soviet Government and the French National Committee was issued, Russia recognizing Fighting France as the whole of the citizens and territories of France who do not accept the capitulation and who by all means at their disposal contribute, wherever they may be, to the liberation of France through the common victory of the Allies.

It recognized the National Committee as the directing instrument of Fighting France, the only one qualified to organize the participation in the war of French citizens and territories, and to represent in respect of the Government of the U.S.S.R. French interests, especially as they are affected by the parent of the war.

In the economic field the year saw a number of important measures adopted further to mobilize the immense resources of the U.S.S.R. for the crushing of the invader. During the second half of January 200,000 boys of 16 and 17 and girls from 15 to 18 entered factory training schools for a six months' course of preparation for industry. But this could not fill the requirements of the thousands of Soviet factories saved by evacuation from the invader, already existing in the rear or being built to answer the voracious demands of the war.

Accordingly, an Edict of the President of the Supreme Soviet was made on February 13, mobilizing the able-bodied urban population (men between 16 and 55, and women between 16 and 45) not already employed in State organizations, factories, or nursing mothers, or mothers with children under 8, or students. By this means large forces were released for building or actual work in the aircraft, tank, armaments, engineering, chemical, fuel and other war industries. Great numbers of women were already busy in war industry, having voluntarily gone to take the places of their mouthfolk.

On April 14 a War Loan subscription of ten milliard roubles was opened. The Central Council of Trade Unions appealed to its members to subscribe three or four weeks' earnings, and collective farms and other organizations voted with each other in similar drives. By April 23 the Loan had been over-subscribed.

The minimum number of working days to be spent by collective farmers on the collective land of their undertaking was...
MURMANSK WAS A VITAL DISTRIBUTION CENTRE

Layo-Land arms and ammunition being loaded on to trains at Murmansk ready for transport to the Russian front. These are some of the 66 per cent of British and American supplies which Mr. A. V. Alexander, First Lord of the Admiralty, stated on March 5, 1944, were delivered to Russia in spite of all the enemy's attempts to destroy the convoys.

Photo, Financial Press

increased by an Edict of April 17, as this previous minimum laid down in 1939 was already being exceeded by the large majority. The number of days stipulated varied from 100 in European Russia to 150 in the cotton growing districts. Local authorities were enjoined to mobilize the able-bodied population of the town not engaged in industry, such as clerical workers, students and housewives, to help in the spring sowing. Hundreds of thousands responded, as they did later for harvesting; figures published on August 15 showed 75,000 in the Tula region, 100,000 in the Gorki region, 225,000 in the Asiatic Republic of Kazakhstan, etc.

Big irrigation works were undertaken with the co-operation of the population in Asia, rendering possible extensive increases in agricultural output. Thus, between February 19 and April 19 tens of thousands of Tashkent citizens and collective farmers from adjacent regions took part in digging a 30-mile canal of great economic importance, with a dam 12 miles from Tashkent. On September 12 a canal of similar length was opened at Stalinabad, the capital of Tadzjikistan, which increased arable land in the region by 100,000 acres. Fifty thousand collective farmers of Tadzjikistan and Uzbekistan took part in this construction work.

By a special Decree issued on May 6 Workers' Supply Departments were established in all factories, to make possible better food production and more planned distribution of rations (which in the Soviet Union were differential, distinguishing between workers in heavy and light industry, clerical workers, dependants, etc.). This system stimulated effort by the authorities to develop local food industries. On August 6 the Deputy People's Commissioner for Home Trade stated that the proportion of locally produced food in the national turnover was over 31 per cent in the first half of 1942, against under 25 per cent a year before. It also stimulated the campaign for allotments which the Central Council of Trade Unions had made a special

*PEOPLE'S ACTRESS* ENTERTAINS THE SOVIET NAVY

Men of the Red Fleet ashore after a spell of active duty can now be provided with cultural entertainment. Here is a group of Russian sailors listening to a performance by Ksenia Alexandrovskaya, who enjoys the Soviet title of honour *People's Actress,* during a period of rest after being in action in the Baltic.

Photo, Planet News
PEOPLE OF LENINGRAD

DEFY THE BESIEGERS

1. Young orphans of the siege of Leningrad walk in the sun during a lull in the bombing and shelling. The tower in the background is that of the old Admiralty building. 2. In the winter of 1941-42, when all approach to Leningrad by land was cut off by the enemy, contact with the city was maintained across the ice over Lake Ladoga. A night convoy of lorries is here seen on the ice highway which was organized, with traffic lights, service stations, and bomb shelters. 3. German prisoners—the only Germans to enter Leningrad—parade along 25th October Prospect, the main street of the city. 4. Before the cathedral of St. Isaac, A.A. guns go into action.

Photos, Photographic Press
ACTIVITY RETURNS TO LIBERATED RUSSIA

1. A joyous scene as the inhabitants of Aragaci come out to welcome the soldiers of the Red Army who liberated them in the spring of 1943.
2. Coal comes up from the Donetz mines again as control of the Donetz Basin was regained, the coal workings were reopened, and truck loads of coal began coming to the surface for use in Soviet industry.
3. Soldiers of the Red Army restore to working condition a school in the Smolensk region damaged by the enemy during the German occupation.
4. The kind of improvised hut which served as home for collective farmers returning to their liberated villages until the new log houses provided for them by the Soviet Government could be built.
SOVIET RUSSIA'S INDUSTRIAL FRONT

A Stakhanovite brigade in an aircraft factory is here seen assembling fighters. By making former responsible for the supply of necessary small tools to the other workers, and organizing work co-operatively, these brigades have been able in some cases to increase output freeloading.

The originator of the method was Stakhanov, a worker in the Donetz coal basin, whose output had been low before his innovations were introduced. (Below) Night work in a Moscow shell factory, where every trolley load adds another 30 to the stack of cases waiting to be filled.

PHOTO: U.S.S.R. OFFICIAL AND PICTORIAL PRESS

context: at the beginning of September it was calculated that five million people were cultivating allotments covering one and a quarter million acres.

In response to a national campaign by collective farmers, who were sowing extra areas over and above their planned arable in aid of the Red Army, the Soviet Government on July 17 established a special Defence Grain Fund of two and a quarter million roubles.

The sum total of these efforts was seen on the occasion of the revolutionary anniversary (November 7), when it was announced that the increase in the area in 1942, notwithstanding all the wartime shortages of labour and material, and the loss of the best agricultural districts, was greater by five and a quarter million acres than in any of the previous ten years.

Symbols of the rapid expansion of war industry during the year were the lighting on Constitution Day (December 5) of a new huge blast furnace at Magnitogorsk, one of the largest in the U.S.S.R., and constructed entirely of Soviet materials.

These results, which were the essential condition for the Red Army victories in the first and last quarters of the year, were made possible only by a wave of mass voluntary effort such as even the Soviet Union had never before seen. It is no exaggeration to say that, next to the great achievements of the Red Army, it was these spontaneous campaigns which were the main content of Soviet life during the year. Every political event, every victory or reverse of the Red Army, the feeling of responsibility of the individual Soviet citizens for the obvious shortcomings and equally obvious potentialities of the country's economic resources, were called upon to encourage and extend these campaigns.

On January 1 a million workers, collective farmers and technicians of the Ural's signed New Year Greetings to Stalin pleading various increases in their output. On July 25, Arms Output Trebled.

1,275,000 Ural's people reported the fulfilment of their pledge, the doubling and trebling of their output of arms and munitions, and promised to increase output by a further 150 per cent in the second half of 1942.

Very early in the year (January 5) Pravda published one of a series of editorials calling on the people to fight against wartime bureaucracy which rendered possible dirty restaurants and cafetéens, neglected fuel deliveries, deterioration of trains and other public services, etc., on the plea that "there's a war on!" This series brought very noticeable results during the year.

The youth of the Stalin Auto Works at Moscow appealed on January 15 to young workers all over the Union to celebrate Red Army Day on February 23 with new production records; and themselves undertook to surpass their own plan, to produce by extra work special arms sufficient to equip four divisions, and other equipment sufficient for three divisions, to double the number of 1,300 per centers, etc.

On March 10 the workers of a Saratov factory proposed that every works should create its own "food base," providing vegetables for the factory canteen, for the kindergarten and canteen, and for the families of men called to the fronts. March 25 saw the first group of "1,000 per centers" appear in the Urals, and the publicity given to their achievements evoked emulation all over
MOSCOW IN ITS SECOND YEAR OF WAR

Nazi warplanes, some very much damaged, and other trophies of war captured by the Russians, are here on show at the Gorky Central Park of Culture and Rest, Moscow. A Moscow Mounted Militia patrol (left) passes the Kremlin on its return from duty.

Education, including higher education, goes on in Russia in spite of all wartime difficulties; students of Lomonosov State University, Moscow (below), begin the new season, 1943.

Photos: U.S.S.R. Official; Planet News; Pictorial Press.
factories of besieged Leningrad (January 15), or the Bernard of hundreds of decorations on railwaymen on August 2, Railway Transport Day.

It remains to record that Soviet cultural life continued throughout the year with its characteristic intensity, even though its scope was limited by war conditions. Outstanding events were the award of many scores of valuable Stalin Prizes to distinguished workers in the arts and sciences (January 8); the decoration of Maria Shchegoleva, curator of the Tbilisi Museum at Yamaya Polyan, for her devoted work in preserving the heritage of the great writer during Nazi occupation; the production in mid-February of the remarkable film, 'The Defeat of the Germans before Moscow,' which was subsequently shown abroad; the first performance of Shostakovich's Seventh ('Leningrad') Symphony (March 5, at Kubyshev); the transference of scores of Soviet theatres from the invaded districts to the Asiatic Republics, where they were able to introduce new themes and new treatments to the theatregoing public (for example, the State Jews Concerts at Beloruss, at Novosibirsk; or the Ukrainian 'Franko' Theatre, which presented Schiller's 'William Tell' in Kazakhstan); the general meeting of the Academy of Sciences at Sverdlovsk (May 2 to 7), which discussed the planning of scientific research for 1942 and the special wartime problems of research in agriculture, physics, biology—as well as the election to the President of the Royal Institution and Professor J. B. S. Haldane to honorary membership.

A particular feature of the year's cultural events was the attention paid to popularising the creative achievements of the British people. Out of many occasions, mention may be made of the March meeting of the Gorki Institute of World Literature in Tashkent, to discuss the ties between Russian and English literature (for example, Pushkin's debt to English literature); the opening of a Darwin Exhibition by the Biology Department of the Academy of Sciences at Frunze, capital of Kirghizia (April 19), and a similar exhibition, on the 160th anniversary of the great scientist's first notes on the origin of species, in Moscow in July, with a special session of the Russian Society of Natural Science, of which Darwin was an honorary member; a three-days' Shakespeare commemoration in Moscow on April 21–23, and the organisation of a Shakespeare season by the Georgian State Theatre at Tbilisi in August.

Of special interest in wartime was the appearance on August 15 of the first issue of a periodical (then published at Kubyshev) of the British Ministry of Information's Russian weekly, Britansky Sofyamir, which began the welcome work of acquainting the Soviet public with the British war effort and British life in general.
From the wilds of the taiga, or sub-Arctic forest, in the Asiatic Russian province of Amur, north of Manchuria, came Master Passe, a hunter, to join Col.-Gen. Pokosnovsky’s Army of the Don. The skill he had developed in pursuit of game, particularly his deadly accuracy with the rifle, he employed to the full as a sniper against the Germans in the Don Steppes. Here he is picking out a firing position north-west of Stalingrad.

Photo, U.S.S.R. Official
SCHOOL CHILDREN TAKE COVER IN BESIEGED LENINGRAD

‘Bomb shelter,’ says the notice on the pillar supporting the roof of this basement where the children are gathered during one of Leningrad’s frequent air raid alerts in the spring of 1942. However bad the siege conditions, the citizens of Leningrad saw to it that the children suffered as little as possible. Even when, in the severest winter for years, there was no fuel for home use, the school buildings and their bomb shelters were kept warm.
REST FOR A WEARY TANK CREW IN THE WESTERN DESERT

The men of the armoured regiment which raided far behind the enemy's lines after the infantry break-through below El Alamein on November 1, 1942, had to take their rest where and when they could get it—the crew seen here sound asleep in the sun on the sand beside their 30-ton General Sherman tank. (See Chapter 255.)

Photo: Sport & General
FLYING FORTRESS
WINGS OVER EUROPE

Brigadier-General Ira C. Baker led the first all-American air operation in Western Europe—a day raid on August 17, 1942, on the railway marshaling yards of Reunen made by 12 of the U.S. bombers known as Flying Fortresses—in the Yankee Doodle, seen being serviced at an all-American air base "somewhere in England." The Boeing Flying Fortress owed its name to its formidable armament; the B-17G model carried thirteen 0.50-calibre (0.5-in.) guns the position of which is shown in (f).

3. One of the Fortress's waist-guns—Nos. 16 and 17 in illus. (3).
4. The stream-lined tail-assembly, showing the two guns operated from the 'stinger' turret—Nos. 12 and 13 in illus. (4).
5. Taxiing up the runway to a take-off.
LANCASTERS' DARING DAYLIGHT RAID ON LE CREUSOT

On October 17, 1943, Wing-Com. L. C. Slie left 94 Lancasters in an unreported 'bridge-hopping' flight across France to the Schneider arms works at Le Creusot, some 176 miles south-east of Paris, and 12 miles from the boundary that then separated occupied from unoccupied France. A great weight of bombs was dropped on the 387 acres covered by the works in an attack concentrated into 93 minutes. The Lancasters dropped their bombs singly instead of in formation, to reduce civilian casualties. The Henry Paul electrical transformer station, five miles away, which supplied power to the Schneider works, was also bombed. No German fighter opposition was met, and only one Lancaster was lost. The photograph, taken from one of the attacking bombers, shows part of the formation passing at a low level across Montrichard, 79 miles south-west of Paris.
"A HEAVY DEFEAT" AND "A REMARKABLE VICTORY"

The early months of 1942 were shadowed by the avalanche-like advance of the Japanese. The German were beginning to suffer reverses in the hands of the Russians, but they were everywhere deep in the Soviet state, and during the summer advanced to Stalingrad. There the Russians held them—and flung them back. As the year ended, the Japanese also were held; and success at last attended Allied arms in North Africa.

This change is reflected in these quotations from two speeches by Britain's Prime Minister.

**Mr. Churchill, Broadcast the News of the Fall of Singapore, February 15, 1942.**

The victory and the capture of the island was the most decisive and the most rapid of the war. The Japanese forces had advanced in a short time from the western coast of the island to the eastern coast. They had crossed the strait and had captured the whole of the island in a few days. The capture of Singapore was a matter of the utmost importance to the Allies. It was a decisive blow to the morale of the Allies and a great blow to the Allied cause.

**Mr. Churchill, At the Mansion House, Speech on the Victory in the Battle of Egypt, November 10, 1942.**

I trust that as you look back on these events and the events that have followed, you will be able to see the importance of the battle of Egypt. It was a battle that was fought not only to win the war, but also to maintain the morale of the Allies. It was a battle that was fought not only to win the war, but also to maintain the morale of the Allies. I have no doubt that the Allies will continue to fight and to win the war. I have no doubt that the Allies will continue to fight and to win the war.
The closing months of 1942 saw the United Nations at last beginning to overtake Axis strength in the air. In Chapter 250 Capt. Norman Macmillan, M.C., A.F.C., described air operations during the last six months of this year in North Africa and the Mediterranean. Here he records the concurrent air activity in Western Europe and the Pacific theatre of war.

During the course of the action Fortress bombers, escorted by R.C.A.F. and R.A.F. fighters, bombed Abbeville aerodrome, the German fighter base about 40 miles from Dieppe; all the Fortresses returned safely. The air force employed for Dieppe dropped more than 261,000 lb of high explosive and anti-personnel bombs, and fired tens of thousands of machine-guns and cannon ammunition. (See Chapter 253.)

British night bombers were now regularly dropping 4,000 lb and 8,000 lb bombs on German industrial targets. (The first 8,000 lb bomb to be dropped on Italy fell on Turin in the night following November 23.) Except for the period when northern Italian ports and industry became the primary targets for Bomber Command, coincident with the advance of the Eighth Army from El Alamein, the attacks on German industrial cities were maintained with great regularity on the scales of 300 to 600 bomber raids.

Cities attacked by night included Bruges, Pescara, Wilhelmshaven, Hanover, Koln, Ruhr, and Rhindtound towns, Saarbriicken, Duisburg, Dusseldorf, Bahun, Meiderich, Hamburg, Oberneuck, Mainz, Frankfurt, Wiesbaden, Kassel, Goethe, Nuremberg, Karlsruhe, Pforzheim, Munich, Krefeld, Cologne, Stuttgart, and Bordeaux.

The air war in the air over Western Europe and the Atlantic Ocean developed substantially during the second half of 1942. The high spots of this development included the first really large-scale combined operation against Dieppe, the introduction of still larger bombs in the night attacks against German industrial targets, the employment of long-range fighter-bombers for day and night attacks, and the intensification of the air war against the submarine.

The air fighting waged over the Canadian landing at Dieppe on August 19 rumbled in intensity that of the Battle of Britain. It was directed by Air Marshal Sir Trafford Leigh-Mallory, Air Officer C-in-C, Fighter Command, who, for the occasion, had operational control over units of Bomber and Army Co-operation Commands, together with units of the United States Air Force and Allied Air Forces. The air objectives were twofold: (1) to obtain air mastery in the air above Dieppe and the Channel so that the surface task forces could execute its operation without enemy air interference; and (2) to force the Luftwaffe to fight, which it had taken pains to avoid for some time, with the result that our fighter sweeps over France had returned with remarkably small losses. Spitfires, Mustangs (see Illus. following p. 226), Hurricanes, Boston and Blenheim were used.

Aircraft laid smoke-screen in front of the landing parties, while fighters provided a protective curtain from 300 to 20,000 feet; enemy gun batteries were bombèd. The Luftwaffe lost 99 aircraft for certain that day at Dieppe (and there is evidence to show that its losses in aircraft destroyed may have been as high as 170) for an Allied loss of 48 aircraft of all types, with 30 fighter pilots saved.

Dr. J. H. MALCOLM, V.C. Decorated for devotion to duty "unmanned in the enemy of the R.A.F. Despite personal wounds Wtem o November 23, 1942, proved his nerve by taking off in the " by the Victoria Cross for his part in the operation, which he knew would mean almost certain death.

His body was not traced.

Wing-Cmdr. H. E. MIDDLETON, V.C.

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PARACHUTE AND 8,000-POUND BOMBS FOR THE R.A.F.

A train of parachute bombs ready for bombing-up Hampdens at a R.A.F. station (left). Machineguns on an 8,000-lb. bomb in position for loading on to a Lancaster. The use of these nearly 4-ton bombs by the R.A.F. in raids on Germany was announced by the Air Ministry on September 18, 1942. The first 8,000-pounder dropped on Italy fell on Turin in the night following November 28, 1942.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright, Central Press.

The guns, able to fire with accuracy at ranges equal to the cannon-guns carried by the German fighters, and with a much faster rate of fire, gave them a greater weight of fire-power. The introduction of these aircraft into the European day sky was a technical surprise for the Luftwaffe that cost the German Air Force heavy losses, while the accuracy of the American precision bombing did effective damage to the targets attacked.

These bombers continued to carry out important missions during the remainder of the year, but did not penetrate into Reich territory until 1943. Their most important raids were against Lorient and Maupertuis aerodromes on October 21, Brest on November 7, La Pallice and St. Nazaire on November 14, St. Nazaire again on November 17, La Pallice and Lorient on November 18 all of them being part of the anti-submarine war. On December 6 another attack was directed against the Belgian Five-Lille railway shops, and on December 12 against Rumania railway yards.

Fighter aircraft during the six months concentrated on sweeps over the Low Countries and France, curving inland to a distance of about 90 miles in a great crescent east and west of the Straits of Dover—fighting when the enemy sent up fighters, attacking all legitimate military targets which showed themselves to the air crews, and maintaining a continuous offensive against locomotives and rolling stock on the Continental railways and the coastal traffic that dodged along close inshore from ports to port under the supposed protection of German fighters and anti-aircraft guns. Fighter bombers, using delayed-action bombs of up to 500 lb., swept low to secure good aim and dealt effective destruction among a variety of targets. At night intruder fighters flew over the enemy aerodromes waiting for German aircraft to rise or return, so that they might knock them down among the Christmas tree-like lights of the airfields lit up for their guidance.

Air raids against targets in the United Kingdom were fewer and less concentrated. The most important were against Birmingham and the surrounding district in the nights following July 27, 29, and 30, when 26 bombers were brought down in the three raids. On October 31 an afternoon raid was made on Canterbury, when nine bombers were destroyed for the loss of two fighters. These were the only important attacks. (See illus., p. 2368.)

The intensity of the fighting in Russia during the German summer offensive
which began in July, and the defensive fighting which succeeded the opening of the Russian winter offensive in October, with the resistance required to meet the furious onslaught of Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Tedder’s air forces in North Africa, drained the Luftwaffe of bombers based in France. It was estimated that not more than 220 bombers were left in Western Europe—on a coastline stretching for nearly 2,000 miles from the North Cape to the river Rhône, which divides France from Spain at the southern end of the Bay of Biscay.

Considerable air fighting broke out over the Bay of Biscay between long-range British fighter aircraft and German fighter-reconnaissance aircraft, mostly Ju 88s, with occasional Focke-Wulf 190s and Ki 100s. The German aircraft were escorted by their submarines while they were on patrol to protect them as they flew over the Bay of Biscay ports. British heavy bombers and flying-boats patrolled the waters for sight of the submarines, carrying depth-charge bombs for action against them. The long-range fighters patrolled in protection of the bombers and flying-boats. The pattern of this air activity was directed by naval requirements through Coastal Command of the R.A.F., and it began to have an increasingly important effect on the efficacy of the German submarine campaign. Nor could the enemy slip through unseen under cover of darkness, for powerful searchlights were carried by some of the heavy aircraft enabling them to sweep the surface of the waters in search of their prey.

First experiment with these searchlights, which illuminated the water with a beam of millions of candlepower in strength, was made by Wing-Commander H. de V. Leigh, O.B.E., R.A.F., and a R.A.F. Coastal Command operational flight was formed, which practised attacks on a moored target. When the techniques reached the desired standard the flight was brought up to squadron strength, and on its first sortie sighted two U-boats, both of which were attacked with the aid of the searchlights. More squadrons, known as the Leigh Light Squadrons, were equipped with the device.

To combat the convoy method of ship protection, the submarines began to hunt in packs of anything up to 20 submarines, gaining out and returning in echelon formation. They struck at the mid-ocean gap which lay beyond the range of aircraft based in the United Kingdom, West Africa, the West Indies, America, Canada, and Iceland. Their attacks were based on information received from the German’s own long-range reconnaissance aircraft—hence the importance of intercepting these over the Bay of Biscay when they came out from the Bordeaux aerodrome of Mérignac—and doubtless from the reports of secret service agents. But small aircraft carriers were being built to meet the mid-ocean menace—carriers of the Battle type that would carry slow-flying and slow-loading aircraft like the Swordfish, capable of getting off and on to small flying-decks heaving in the Atlantic weather and of carrying depth-charge bombs. Although these aircraft had a great range of flight (faster than 300 miles) they were able to take off and fly around the convoy and seal the gap, which, after all, did not exceed 500 miles in breadth. The battle with the submarine was not yet over—it was to rise to a new crescendo in the spring of 1943—but the counter-measures which the autumn of 1942 saw in progress bid fair to curtail its deadlines.

Brazil’s declaration of war against Germany and Italy on August 22 helped the anti-submarine war, for Brazilian aircraft patrolled the north coast of that country and sighted and sank several submarines. The Brazilian bases helped to seal the relatively narrow ocean reach between Dakar and Natal (Brazil), thereby making it more difficult for enemy submarines to gain passage into the waters outside the North and mid-Atlantic.

It might be said that H.R.H. the Duke of Kent gave his life in the war against the submarine. He left a month before the landing at Swordfish in the war with the United States. It was on the morning of August 25 in the north of Scotland, as it often is over the Shetland and Northern Ireland mountainous seas. The flying-boat crashed into a mountain while flying its cloudy (the inquiry held that the pilot made an error of judgment and was off course), and the Royal Group Captain was killed instantly. There was only one survivor, the tail gunner.

Yet this tragic accident but served to illuminate the comparative rarity of such incidents. More and more aircraft were streaming across the Atlantic from the factories of the Western hemisphere; one ferry command crew created a record by flying the Atlantic five times in nine days. These crews were internationally recruited. They were not necessarily military; many of them were civilians wearing a distinctive dark-blue uniform, with
small silver wings in metal on the left breast to denote the pilots, and with rings of rank, like the braids worn by R.A.F. officers, but of a different colour, denoteing First Officer, Captain, and Senior Captain by two rings, two-and-a-half rings, and three rings respectively, with a star above the topmost ring. They held no military authority. They were like officers of a shipping line, serving on terms of contract, but doing invaluable work with little publicity, and scant praise for all they did.

Among them were the navigators and the radio-operators who accompanied the pilots, working usually as a team, and flying anywhere in the world as need arose, from California to New Delhi, Melbourne or Cairo, Chungking or London, Moscow or Honolulu. To these men the world had already shrunk to the size of a province. They were the freemen of the continents, barred only by the Germans and the Japanese in the areas these two nations held in thrall.

Almost the whole of the Russian air effort during the second half of 1942 was confined to the tactical needs of the long-fighting war. Bitter air fighting occurred over the active fighting areas, with each side striving to attain local mastery of the air above the surface forces. But each side was so evenly matched in the skies that such a success was almost unattainable: both suffered heavy losses in aircraft. With their advance into the Caucasian sector the German aircraft attacked shipping moving along the North Caucasian coast. The Russians hit back against the German aerodromes and destroyed more than a hundred German aircraft on the ground in one surprise air attack.

As the German threat penetrated deeper into the steppe country between the Don and the Volga, and their advance towards the latter river gained ground, other parts of the 2,500-mile line became inactive on the German side and it was easier for the Russians to consolidate their air activities. The main German drive was towards the oilfields of Transcaucasia, where there was a petrol suitable for aviation in addition to vast quantities of less highly volatile fuels. The Grozno oilfields and Stalingrad were the immediate objectives.

General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson became G.O.C. of an independent Army Command in Persia-Iraq on August 23, a command which secured the lines of communication between the Parwan Gulf and South Russia along which Allied supplies moved, including aircraft from Britain and America. Some of the American aircraft were flown across the Atlantic to West Africa, thence across the African continent to Transjordan, Iraq and Persia, and so to the Russians for the use of the Red Air Force defending the vital area between the Black and Caspian Seas. The principal strategic threat was the possible linking up of the German forces fighting into Caucasus with the Japanese forces in Burma menacing India. If that junction had been effected, the war would have assumed an even graver aspect, and the common enemy become immensely stronger and more difficult to defeat. The Persian-Iraq Command was the defense zone for Western India.

In spite of the tremendous pressure of the German army on Russia, the Red Air Force carried out some strategic attacks, notably upon Koenigsberg, East Prussia, in the night of July 28 and 29. Again on September 4-5 the Red Air Force raided Budapest, Vienna, Breslau and Koenigsburg, and were again over Eastern Germany at night on September 9; these were targets which had not been bombed by the R.A.F. Before September 12 Jesia, Warsaw, and Berlin also were attacked by Russian bombers. The targets fell on a line roughly parallel with the Russian fighting front, and contained important industrial organizations and communication links within the German transport system.

By the end of September street fighting had been in progress in Stalingrad for several days, and German aircraft had bombed the city and shipping moving along the Volga.

Away in the north-west, a British convoy bound for Murmansk was strongly attacked by German aircraft and submarines in the region of the North Cape. For four days the attacks continued, but the convoy got through with some losses. Catalfighter pilots flying Sea-Hurricanes helped to beat off the enemy bombers.

The Russians began to take the offensive to the north-west of Stalingrad. Air fighting over the area became concentrated and bitter; the Germans threw 3,000 aircraft into this zone. But on December 19 the Russians reported their first "winter" victory near Ordzhonikidze in the central Caucasus after several days' hard fighting. By December 22 they had cut the anti-airway lines supplying the German forces east of the river Don, and the Germans admitted that their troops were fighting heavy defensive battles at Stalingrad.

Subsequent German counter-attacks were repelled, and by December 19 the Russians had broken through the German positions on the middle Don. At the end of the year the Russian advance towards the Donets basin, together with the advance down the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway to beyond Kotechinovo, had trapped the large
German force between the Volga and the Don. The German army in and around Stalingrad, under Colonel-General von Faulus, was cut off except for the Junkers 88 transport planes which ran supplies in to them. The Battle of Stalingrad assumed increasing importance, and became at the end of the year a battle for possession of the aerodromes. If the Russians could capture all the aerodromes around the city the German forces would be finally isolated and could not hold out.

The old strategy of siege had a new factor to contend with—that of supply by air. It was not enough to attempt by means of fighter aircraft or by the bombing of the aerodromes to prevent supplies from getting through; for, serious though the German losses in aircraft were by these means, they were able to make them good and to send in yet more transport aircraft. The aerodromes themselves were the key to the situation: the fate of Stalingrad was the fate of its aerodromes. Aerodrome defence had become the key to military strategy: failure to defend the aerodromes meant disaster; and with this prospect before them the German troops between the rivers Don and Volga saw the old year of 1942 pass into the new year of 1943. The year which had offered perhaps the last chance of success to Hitler vanished into history without having produced the decisive success which alone could bring victory to German arms.

On July 23, 1912, the Japanese made a new landing in New Guinea in the Buna-Gona area, pushed inland, and were checked at Kokoda, about 50 miles from the north coast. The landing was accompanied by Japanese air attacks against Australian territory, notably at
Organization of American opposition to the programme of Japanese conquest had by this time been brought to a point where retaliatory action could be taken, and on August 7 United States naval forces, with American and Australian air units, attacked the Japanese holding Guadalcanal Island and the Tulagi anchorage in the Solomon islands—the last naval anchorage in that area of the South Pacific. United States marines fought their way ashore. Eighteen Japanese seaplanes were destroyed and synchronized air attacks were delivered against Japanese aircraft based in New Guinea and on all other air bases whence help might be sent to their forces in the Solomons. Next day, Japanese air attacks against American ships were beaten off, 18 more enemy aircraft destroyed, and the newly completed Japanese aerodromes on Guadalcanal Island captured. By August 8 U.S. forces had destroyed the Japanese garrison on the islands of Guadalcanal, Tulagi, Gavutu and Tanambogo. Thousands of miles away in Kiska harbour Japanese transports were sunk simultaneously by American bombers, in spite of the fog wreaths that spread over that inhospitable region. U.S. bombers attacked Kiska on September 24, 25, 27, 28 and 30, causing Japanese losses in men, aircraft and ships. (See illus., p. 2316.)

Japanese strategy in New Guinea developed from the Buna-Gona landing into an infiltration movement across the Owen Stanley mountain range towards Port Moresby, coupled with an attempt to seize Milne Bay, where a landing made by the enemy on August 26 met a crushing defeat (see Chapter 249). The enemy base at Buna was bombed as heavily as available air strength permitted, and Allied aircraft made low-flying attacks with bombs and machine-guns against the infiltrating Japanese soldiers with telling effect, thus giving valuable assistance to the Australian troops resisting the Japanese advance. Air action also helped to repel the assault on Milne Bay.

On August 23 the Japanese had made a strong air attack against the Americans on Guadalcanal Island. It failed to achieve its object, and 21 Japanese aircraft were destroyed for the loss of three American machines. Though they had far fewer aeroplanes, the Americans were already clearly technically superior to the Japanese. The following day American aircraft attacked a Japanese naval force escorting transport vessels approaching Guadalcanal from the north. Six ships, including one cruiser and one destroyer, were set on fire and one transport was sunk. The naval air war developed still further next day. Sixteen Jap bombers, escorted by 12 fighters, attacked the Americans on Guadalcanal Island again; seven bombers and five fighters were destroyed for the loss of one American fighter. Elsewhere in the area a large Japanese aircraft carrier and the small carrier "Kyuza" were hit and severely damaged by air attacks. On August 27 U.S. aircraft attacked four Japanese destroyers, sank one (probably two) and left another in flames.

The Japanese continued to challenge the American occupation of Tulagi and Guadalcanal. A large-scale enemy air attack upon Guadalcanal Island was driven off with loss on September 9.
A few days later strong formations of enemy aircraft attacked Guadalcanal and Tulagi on three successive days, and the Japanese landed reinforcements on these islands at night. On September 13 the American heavy bombers attacked a strong Japanese naval force which was forced to withdraw from north-west of Tulagi. In the consolidation of the positions won by the Americans the air power of the United States was the dominant factor which effectively prevented the possibility of a successful Japanese counter-thrust; while in the air actions which were fought over the South Solomons, despite the frequently unfavourable flying conditions, aircraft continually demonstrated their ability to defeat the surface ships of the enemy.

On October 2 Allied aircraft in the Solomons, and on October 3, United States aircraft attacked a Japanese force of two light cruisers and four destroyers, with both cruisers and three destroyers down three enemy ships. Two days later large enemy air forces attempted to attack American positions on Guadalcanal; for the loss of two fighters the Americans shot down eight bombers and four fighters.

On October 22 United States aircraft damaged three enemy warships in the Shortland Island area of the Solomons. The following day Japanese air attacks on the American positions on Guadalcanal were driven off, and the Allied fighter escort of 20 aircraft was completely destroyed. Two days afterwards a combined enemy attack on Guadalcanal by land, sea and air was unsuccessful. During the month of October 8 enemy vessels were sunk or crippled by air attack in the Solomons and Rabaul (New Britain area). (Consult also Chapter 29.)

Everywhere over the tropical waters aircraft ranged and their attacks grew fiercer. Early on December 3 Allied aircraft raided Kupang aerodrome on Timor Island and destroyed or damaged 21 Japanese aircraft. On the 11th United States dive-bombers attacked a Japanese flotilla of 11 destroyers approaching Guadalcanal Island and hit five of them. Next day a United States naval force attacked the flotilla and sank two destroyers and damaged another for the loss of one motor torpedo-boat. On December 16 a group of 'Fortress' bombers intercepted by 12 fighters shot down all 12 without loss.

In New Guinea the situation continued to improve after the defeat of Japanese at Milne Bay. The enemy advance through the gap in the Owen Stanley ranges to Port Moresby was halted at Imipaiwa, and then the Australians began to push the Japanese back. Allied aircraft attacked the enemy supply line through Kokoda to Buna; Lito, Salamaun, and other enemy bases, and enemy shipping off the New Guinea coast and at Rabaul harbour were bombed. Before daylight on October 23 Fortresses sank or damaged 10 Japanese vessels, including a cruiser, at Rabaul. On November 5 the Australians captured Kokoda, and a Japanese reinforcing convoy was attacked three times from the air and driven off.

While the Australians pushed along the 55 miles that lie between Kokoda and Buna, the Japanese main base in the area, they received invaluable air support. In the difficult jungle and mountain country transport by air of essential supplies was an integral part of their swift-moving action. Without it they would have found it difficult to support themselves, and either the advance would have slowed down, or the attacking force would have had to be reduced in strength to a point within the compass of supply by native porterage. Over the difficult part of the country, where aircraft could not land, supplies were dropped in special containers attached to parachutes.

By November 7 the Australians had driven the enemy back into the Buna-Gona area, and flat country was available to the Allies. That day American troops were flown from Drive against Australia and landed by the Japanese air transports within the Buna area, the first time in the war that United Nations' troops (except parachute troops) had been conveyed by air transports to a fighting zone. The last holding of the Japanese in the Papua section of the great island of New Guinea was a narrow coastal strip in the Buna-Gona district with about 12 miles of beachhead. Allied aircraft attacked a Japanese relief force off the New Guinea coast on November 18-19, and Fortresses sank a Japanese cruiser and a destructor with 500-lb. bombs. On November 24 Australian troops entered Gona—subsequently lost, but recaptured on December 9—and on the night of November 24 another Japanese attempt to land reinforcements was smashed by Australian and New Zealand aircraft, which sank...
two destroyers and damaged another. Noted for their persistence, the Japanese again tried to reinforce their hard-pressed troops in the Buna zone at the beginning of December, but their naval force was driven off in a night action, and 23 covering aircraft were destroyed. On December 7 the enemy lost 18 aircraft in an attack on the Allied line of communications. American troops occupied Buna village on December 14 (though enemy resistance in the Buna area continued till January 3, 1943.)

Meanwhile, the American programme for building twenty-five per cent of their bomber aircraft as military transport machines was beginning to show results. Field Hospital flown to New Guinea. A complete hospital was flown into the Papuan district of New Guinea in 10 large air transports, and was working south of Buna the day after its arrival at the airfield there. Two-ton 105-millimetre guns were flown from Australia to the Buna area, each gun, with its crew and tractor, was flown from Australia to New Guinea in a Fortress (see illus., p. 2464). The last jump over the Owen Stanley mountains was made in smaller transport aircraft better able to aight on the forward landing-field, each one carrying half the load of one Fortress. Soon after their arrival the guns were in action against the Japanese hemmed in on their coastal strip near Buna. On this restricted target area the American aircraft used parachute bombs, to ensure accuracy; the forward flight of these bombs is checked by a parachute opening the instant they leave the bomb-bay, and the bomb falls vertically on the spot over which they are released.

Bad weather setting in assisted the Japanese in defending their last beachhead in Papua, but gradually they were driven in and the ground wrested from them. The year ended with the fighting approaching its final stages, largely because the air above the battle-field was by then firmly held by Allied air forces. (Consult also Chapter 249.)

The Burma front was the scene of increasing activity. After the ending of the monsoon rains British forces began to advance south-eastwards from their positions near Chittagong in the direction of Akyab, and this advance penetrated into the delta country to the north of the latter port. Ground forces were aided by air power, the principal aircraft then in use being Hurricane fighters, Blenheim and Wellington bombers, and Hudson reconnaissance aircraft. Considerable attention was paid to the Japanese-held airfields in Burma, many of which, reclaimed from partly (rice) fields, required continuous coöperate labour to keep them in condition, while bombing churned the surface to mud and interfered with the operations of the Japanese Army Air Force. Other targets were railways and roads, coastal crafts supplying Akyab, sampans and barges on the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers. Aircraft were used tactically to bomb and machine-gun the Japanese front lines, and bombing was carried out at a range of 1,000 yards from our own front line.

Japanese bombers raided Calcutta for the first time on December 20 and again on December 22, during the succeeding night, and on Christmas Eve. The raids were small by European standards. About nine tons of bombs were dropped in these four raids. In the first these 26 people were killed and fewer than 100 injured. The raiders were met by gunfire, and later by night fighters. There were only three bombers in the third raid and two were damaged by Hurricanes. These fighters shot down one of the Christmas Eve raiders. Civilian morale was excellent, and was praised by the Viceroy. Raid damage was slight. On December 20 U.S. heavy bombers from India attacked objectives at Bangkok, including the airfield.

In the North and Central Pacific zones the action was confined to air-sea warfare. On December 30 two enemy cargo boats were bombèd in Kiska harbour with uncertain results. The bombers were escorted by Lightnings (see illus. following p. 2328); Zero fighters were intercepted by our lightnings, and one Zero was shot down in the combat. Next day American
medium bombers scored three hits on one ship and two on another, and lost no aircraft. Kiska itself could play the part of an outpost and no more. It provided cover for territory nearer to both Heligoland; it served as a base for air and sea sweeps of the 1,500-mile-wide stretch of ocean between the Aleutians and the Hawaiian islands. Its strategic advantage was greatest to the nation or group of nations holding the Hawaiian islands. Kiska’s seizure by Japan was doubtless part of a plan that had failed as a result of the battle of Midway Island, which decided the fate of the Hawaiian island group.

In the Central Pacific the Americans were now beginning to hit back. On Christmas Eve the largest mass heavy bomber raid yet made in the Pacific zone was delivered by United States Army-bombers against Wake Island and the adjacent Bolo Island, which had fallen into Japanese hands early in the war. This American-owned island had been part of the air route island chain across the Pacific Ocean from San Francisco to Hong Kong. The Christmas Eve raid was the Americans’ third air attack on Wake Island, and in it more than 75,000 lb. of bombs were dropped. All the bombers returned safely to the nearest base on Midway Island, 1,200 miles away, and Hoolaho, 2,000 miles from the scene of the attack. Japan has no comparable four-engined bombers; this is one of the weaknesses of her Air Force.

By the end of 1942 the outlook had brightened for the Allies. The enemy everywhere had ceased to advance; the Enemy was on the defensive everywhere in the E.M.E., the smaller bases were being made safe; the perimeter was going well; Stalingrad was becoming a graveyard of German troops and aircraft. In the Far East the Japanese were beginning to realize that they were up against something greater than their soldiers had ever known before. Their sailors were finding that air power is a boomerang that swings back from the land that holds the most power, and their ships were sinking in a continuous war of attrition from the air, under the bombs and torpedoes of American, Australian and New Zealand airmen, and, nearer India, British airmen, too. The great bomber offensive against Germany was suing to fresh efficiency, with greater loads dropping in less time over more cities; the American daylight offensive had started and was gathering speed.

Allied air power was growing. The new U.S. fighter, the Thunderbolt, (see illus. following p. 2296) had been power-dived to 725 m.p.h. and was soon to show the motive of its 2,000-h.p. turbocharged engine and heavy armament in the European skies alongside the Fortress bombers. The United States Army Air Force had reached 1,000,000 and more men by the end of the year and was due to rise to over 2,000,000 strong by the end of 1942. In the whole of 1942 the United States factories produced 49,000 war aircraft. The production of the Allies already far exceeded the aircraft production of the Axis. The tide of battle in the air had turned.
Chapter 255

THE BATTLE OF EGYPT: OCT. 23—NOV. 5, 1942

The Battle of Egypt was an out-and-out victory for British arms, won over hard-bitten, confident Nazi veterans who had twice forced the Allies back into Egypt after previous promising drives to the west. Reference to the map on page 233 will help to explain Montgomery’s tactics. This Chapter takes up the story of the desert campaign where it left off at the end of Chapter 224.

At El Alamein, Rommel and his victory-blushed veterans of the Afrik Korps were almost within sight of the grateful gremory of the Nile Valley, the massed minarets and domes of Cairo, the derrick-limbed docks of Alexandria. Only another 60 miles and what was 60 miles to men who had come so far! Soon the panzers would be churning up the immemorial dust of Egypt, and the pyramids would look down on the latest of a long line of conquering hosts.

That was in June 1942. July passed, and August; September slipped away, and most of October. There were weeks of bloody battle and more weeks of waiting. Glittering in the cruel sun the prize of prizes lay ready for the taking—or so it seemed. Huddled in the gap, only 40 miles wide, between the sea and the desert depression, was not an army, but—the remains of an army, the broken remnants of Auchinleck’s command. To the compilers of the German communiques the battle was as good as won. Rommel himself was full of foolish boasting. Even in Cairo there were some who, hearing the all-too-distant thunder of the guns, feared that the slender line would not, could not, hold. Yet hold it did. Once again that superbly British virtue, the calm and complete refusal to know when one is beaten, took the sting out of defeat and in this season turned defeat into victory.

Those precious weeks during which Auchinleck’s 8th Army held the pass at El Alamein were weeks of terrible strain, filled with anxiety and danger. We have told their story in Chapter 224 (see page 2238); here let it be emphasized that the time that was gained was turned to the most excellent advantage.

While the battle was still raging in the Devil’s Cauldron at Knightsbridge and round Bir Hacheim, three United Kingdom divisions (44th, 50th, and 1st) had left Britain on their way to Egypt by the long, long way of the Cape; and before the fall of Tobruk hundreds of 6-pounder guns and large numbers of heavily armoured and heavily gunned tanks had also been dispatched. President Roosevelt made a mighty contribution to Britain’s depleted armament in the shape of Sherman and Grant tanks and self-propelled 105-mm. guns. The Sherman tanks in particular—many of those dispatched to Egypt were actually withdrawn from units of the U.S. Army to which they had been delivered—was to prove invaluable, showing itself in all particulars far superior to the German Mark IV. When one ship with the precious convoy from America was sunk by a U-boat, immediately the United States, without being asked, replaced it with another carrying an equal number of all-important weapons. But vitally important as these American supplies were to prove to the issue of the impending battle, it is a fact—publicly insisted on by President Roosevelt—that all but a small part of the equipment of the 8th Army was produced in British factories and transported in British ships. Records were broken at every point in the unloading and fitting up of the weapons and in their issue to the troops, the divisions led and new were astonishingly trained in the desert.

British air striking power was also formidable reinforced—the air force had at least 800 bombers at its disposal for the attack, and so effectively were they used that the enemy’s air force was rendered virtually powerless. It would never dream of going into battle without the Desert Air

GENERALS WHO LED THE EIGHTH ARMY TO VICTORY

Lieu.-Gen. Bernard Law Montgomery (center), who devised the tactics that defeated Field-Marshal Rommel in the Battle of Egypt; on his right is Lieut.-Gen. Sir Oliver Lumsden, Bt., C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., Commander of the 50th Corps, and on his left, Lieut.-Gen. Herbert Lumsden, D.S.O., M.C., Commander of the 44th Corps. On his right was Commander of the 50th Corps. Photo, British Official; Crown Copyright
THE TANKS WAIT THEIR TURN TO GO INTO ACTION

The tremendous barrage put up by our artillery on the night of October 23-24, 1942, against the strongest part of the enemy positions in the Alamein sector, was followed by an infantry attack in force; then the tanks went in and through. Here, in the early morning, our armour was waiting until artillery and infantry have cleared gaps in the enemy's minefields.

Force behind me," said General Montgomery a year later when reviewing his campaign in Africa. In brief, "everything in human power was done," said Mr. Churchill in his review of the battle on November 11. "We recreated and revived our war-battered army, we placed a new army at its side, and re-armed it on a gigantic scale. By these means we repaired the disaster which fell upon us, and converted the defence of Egypt into a successful attack.

When Mr. Churchill was in Cairo on his way to Russia he gave to the newly appointed commander, General Alexander, on August 10 this directive:

(1) Your paramount duty will be to attack or destroy at the earliest opportunity the German-Italian army commanded by Field-Marshal Rommel, together with all its supplies and establishments in Egypt and Libya. (2) You will discharge, or came to be discharged, such other duties as appertain to your command, without prejudice to the task described in paragraph 1, which must be considered paramount in His Majesty's interest.

In spite of the strain to which Alexander had been subjected in "the hard and adverse campaign in Burma," went on the Prime Minister, "he accepted his new duties with alacrity;" and so admirably was he seconded in his plans and efforts by "that remarkable soldier, General Montgomery," and Air Marshal Tedder and Air Vice-Marshal Coningham, "those air leaders of the very highest quality, not technicians, but warriors," that an electrifying effect was produced upon the troops now standing ready or being mustered for the assault on what was indeed a fortress blasted out of the solid rock.

On September 26, Ribbentrop said at a ceremony celebrating the second anniversary of the Tripartite Pact, and attended by the Italian and Japanese Ambassadors. "In North Africa we shall give the British no rest." On October 3, Rommel, then on a visit to Berlin in which he was received with the honours due to a conquering chief, declared: "We hold the gateway of Egypt with the full intention to act. We did not go there with any intention of being flung back sooner or later. You may rely on our holding fast to what we have got."

Twenty days later the doughty commander of the 8th Army issued this statement to British and American correspondents assembled at his headquarters: "During the night there will be fought a terrific battle. By dawn..."
tomorrow we shall know better where we are. A start has been made on what General Smuts has called "the offensive." In this battle the 8th Army and the air forces supporting it are one. They are both operating on one set plan and not two—one for the land arm and one for the air arm. In this I believe lies their great strength. I have always maintained that we are one fighting force. Here in North Africa in the past there have been successes and failures.

FIRST PHASE OF THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

Following the artillery bombardment of October 31-41 came the first phase of the battle—the advance of the infantry, here seen (top centre) moving forward across the desert in open formation towards advanced enemy positions. They consolidated a captured German strong-point (above) one of its defenders lies dead beside his wrecked gun. (Below) A Bren-gunner takes cover behind a deserted enemy tank.

I have always found in my long association with British troops that they will never let their leader down. Today I believe that the morale of the 8th Army is right upon the top line. I and my commanders will see that it stays there.

On the eve of the battle the rival armies faced each other along a front of 40 miles (see map, pages 2326 and 2331). Montgomery's right flank and Rommel's left were based on the Mediterranean. The other end of the line lost itself in the impassable wastes and ravines of the Qattara Depression. In between, across ridges and bald rocks of sand covering the underlying rock, the British and their opponents had dug themselves in behind and between their minefields, in strong-points and emplacements for field-guns and machine-guns.

Montgomery's men were fairly evenly spread out along the length of the front. The order of divisions, from north to south, was (see map, p. 2331): 9th Australian, 1st South African, 4th Indian and 50th (Northumbrian) Forces.

Dispositions of Montgomery's Forces

French and Greeks. Close behind were the 51st (Highland); the 44th (Home Counties), acting as the tactical reserve; and one of the British armoured divisions. Somewhat further back, some 50 miles or so behind the line, was the 16th Corps, composed of two British armoured divisions and the 2nd New Zealand Division—a very powerful force of between 40,000 and 60,000 men, with the best tanks, the Grants and Shermans.

The role of this corps was carefully explained by Mr. Churchill in his speech of November 11. It was necessary to effect a penetration of about 6,000 yards at the first stroke in order to get through the hostile minefields, trenches, and batteries. In the last war it was nearly always possible to make this initial penetration, but when the cavalry tried to gallop through the gap blasted by the artillery they were invariably seen...
brought to a standstill by the machine-guns posted in the enemy rear. “But times have changed. We have a steel machine cavalry now which, once a path is cleared through the mines and anti-tank guns, can go forward against machine-gun nests to encounter whatever mobile forces of the enemy may lie beyond.” The 10th Corps was this steel cavalry, charged with the task of turning to full account the breach as soon as it had been effected by the infantry.

Rommel’s armour was divided between north and south, the 15th Panzers and the Italian Littorio Armoured Division being near the coast, and the 21st Panzers and the Italian Ariete Armoured Division facing the Indians. The greater part of the German infantry was in the north; the centre was held weakly by Italians; and most of the remaining Italian divisions were in the south. Altogether Rommel had 12 divisions—perhaps 100,000 men—with about 700 tanks and very strong artillery and anti-tank units against 10 Allied divisions.

From these dispositions it seems that Rommel expected the attack to be made on his centre from the direction of the Koweit barrage. The Italians then were the bait in a trap. As soon as Montgomery had made his assault and broken into the Italian lines, Rommel probably thought to close the trap by flinging on to the attackers’ flanks the mighty forces of armour massed in readiness to north and to south. The trap was set, but Montgomery refused to walk into it. From the very first the great Rommel was no match for the wily Irishman. When the attack came it was launched not at the provokingly weak centre but at the strongest point in the enemy line—the north. For this was a battle fought not for “the sake of gaining positions or so many square miles of territory,” to quote Mr. Churchill again, this time from his
a crescendo of fearful destruction. At 3.30 in the evening the Battle of Egypt began. Along a front of six miles in the northern sector just south of the Mediterranean shore, British guns, spaced at an average interval of only 23 yards, poured a terrific fire on the enemy's front line and the deep rear of his defences beyond. For 20 minutes the barrage thundered at its height. The noise was up a brilliant moon. At 9 p.m. the infantry went in to attack. Norcehead's Australians, the Highlanders of the immortal 51st, Feayber's New Zealanders and Piemar's South Africans. Simultaneously the 4th Indian Division in the centre made a frontal attack, while in the south, the Fighting French, supported by the United Kingdom armoured division placed there, attacked in the El Heinemann Beir of Mumassib area. The whole front was in movement, and the enemy was for a time at a loss to know which and where was the main thrust. Then to his surprise he found that the most heavily defended point in his line was the 8th Army's prime objective. A few days later, when the captured German General von Thoma, commander of the Afrika Korps, was a guest in Montgomery's caravan, near the scene of his overthrow, he told his conqueror: 'We expected a new form of tactics when we heard of your appointment. We got them, and we couldn't deal with them.'

By 3.30 the next morning (October 23) the assaulting force was four miles beyond the enemy's advanced minefields, and during the next few days they strove to widen and deepen the salient they had managed already to carve out. By the evening of October 25, some 2,500 German and Italian prisoners had been taken.

That night there was marked progress by the Australians up against the coast and by the Highlanders to the south of them. The enemy counter-attacked furiously, only to be bloodily repulsed. By day and by night the advance went on, not only in the vital northern sector but all down the front where men of the British Isles and of the Dominions, Indians, Fighting French, and Greeks were nibbling and probing and thrusting at Rommel's fortress.

For nine days this first phase of the battle went on—days of hard slogging on the part of the infantry, of delicate footwork on the part of the sappers, pushing before them their namesake, like instruments of mine detection. The whole area was one vast minefield, and tens of thousands of the deadly contrivances had to be located and marked or removed so as to make plain the path for the advancing troops and tanks. It was a slow, dangerous business. But the job was done.

The salient in the north had become a bulge, and on the night of November 1-2 a brigade each from the 50th and 51st Divisions, with New Zealanders, pushed another three miles farther west. Covered by a tremendous barrage, the British and Dominion infantry swept forward through minefields and win, overrun position after position at the point of the bayonet, and by dawn had cleared a passage for Montgomery's 10th Corps, brought up from the Delta (where a dummy camp still suggested their presence to Rommel's reconnaissance planes).

On they rumbled in great strength, American Grants and Shermans, British Crusaders, the cream of Britain's new mighty tank force; and 'it was this thunderbolt, hurled through the gap,' said Mr. Churchill, 'which finished Rommel and his kaiser's army.' All through the day a great battle raged between the opposing armoured at Tell El Agqaquir, beyond Kidney Ridge in the northern sector of the front. The pace was terrific, and the enemy proved unable to stand the strain. The infantry breakthrough had taken nine days of hard fighting; the second great achievement of the battle was over in

SAPPERS SWEPT THE SANDS FOR MINES

The retreating enemy left minefields behind him. Across these, sappers of the Royal Engineers laid parallel tapes making a lane wide enough to take a vehicle. Then they swept the lane with mine-detecting, dug up the mines they found and, after the first vehicle had gone through, widened the lane by further sweeping and digging. Signs painted white towards the swept gap, red towards the remaining mines, were put up as these 'safe areas' were opened.
THE GLORIOUS AND DECISIVE VICTORY CALLED THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

The course of operations and the forces engaged are here clearly indicated. Relative positions of the opposing armies on October 23, 1916, are shown in brown; succeeding movements until the Axis rout was well under way on November 3 in orange. (See Chapter 255.)
CRUSADERS SWEET IN TO THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

New heavy tanks, and enough of them, combined with front methods of scouting and complete tactical surprise, reached the Allied infantry division to win decisively in the great tank battle that opened at El Alamein on November 4, 1942. British Crusader, Australian Sherman, and Grants proved a solid match for the German's heaviest armor. Routed almost completely by United Kingdom troops, including many of the famous cavalry and paratroop regiments and the Royal Tank Regiment, they turned a hitherto uncounted force. "The thunderbolt, rolled through the gap, whole," said Mr. Churchill. "Roused Bismarck and his youngest ally."
THUNDER OF THE EIGHTH ARMY'S GUNS THAT OPENED THE BATTLE OF EGYPT

The Eighth Army's guns opened the Battle of Egypt at 3:30 a.m. on Friday, October 23, 1942. British guns spaced at 25-yard intervals along a six-mile front in the north of the 40-mile line between El Alamein and the Qatara Depression poured out a raging barrage that lasted for 30 minutes. In the brilliant moonlight of the clear night, the infantry were able to see after the barrage died down, when in the surprise attack that followed it, they had to advance against the enemy strongly held sector of Rommel's lines.

Photo, British Official; Emrys Cunliffe
as many hours. By the end of the day the desert battleground was a cemetery of Axis tanks, shattered, smouldering mournfully to heaven. British tank casualties were heavy, but the enemy losses were crippling; only a beaten remnant of Rommel's once-so-powerful armour moved slowly from the field.

At nightfall Tell El Aqqaqir (The Hill of the Wickets) was captured, and in the next day El Hejmounat, at the southern extremity of the front, was recaptured. How well the battle was going was revealed in a communiqué issued by G.H.Q., Cairo on November 4:

"The Axis forces in the Western Desert, after 12 days and nights of ceaseless attacks by land and air forces, are now in full retreat. Their disordered columns are being relentlessly attacked by our land and air forces, and by the Allied air force by day and night. General von Stumme, a senior general, who is said to have been in command during Rommel's absence from the Western Desert, Germany, is known to have been killed. So far we have captured over 9,000 prisoners, including General Ritter von Thomas, commander of the German Afrika Korps, and a number of other senior German and Italian officers. It is known that the enemy's losses in killed and wounded have been exceptionally heavy. Up to date we have destroyed more than 200 German and Italian tanks, and captured or destroyed at least 270 guns. The full total of the booty cannot be assessed at this stage of the operations. In the course of these operations our air forces, whose losses have been light, have destroyed and damaged in air combat over 300 aircraft and destroyed or put out of action a like number on the ground. At sea our naval and air forces have sunk 50,000 tons, and damaged as much again, of shipping carrying Axis supplies to North Africa. The 8th Army continues to advance."

While the great tank battle was being fought to the west of Klinsey Ridge there were signs of enemy disintegration along the whole front. Rommel knew what the result of the armoured conflict would be, and, armed with that foreknowledge, started to withdraw his previous German Veterans while the Italian infantry still constituted sufficient of a screen. Appropriating most of the mechanical transport, the survivors of the 184th and 90th Light Divisions disengaged and were sent back along the road at whose loss and lay the pryer-camps of Tunisia. The retreat followed by the remnants of the Panzer divisions. On November 5 the enemy retreat was in full swing. In the south the Italian infantry, abandoned by Rommel, still fought on at isolated points, only to be overwhelmed by Montgomery's advance. Hardly a man managed to get away to the west, the fugitives thronging the roads and tracks to the west which were now being blazed into bloody disorganisation and run by Teller's armoured forces. For miles back the roads were a sea of flame. All the positions on the 40-mile-long front that Rommel had built with such care and toil were carried by the Allied infantry at the bayonet-point.

"The enemy is in our power, and is just about to crack," said Montgomery in a special Order of the Day to the 8th Army on November 5. "I call upon all troops to keep up the pressure and not to relax for a moment. We have the chance of putting the whole Panzer arm, in the bag, and we shall do so. I congratulate all troops on what has been achieved. Complete victory is almost in sight.

The whole line swept forward, engulfing the unhappy Italians. By November 5 more than 15,000 prisoners were in the bag, and the enemy paratroops had been brought to bay well to the west of Daba. Here and there in the desert little pockets of Italian resistance continued, but at the extremity of the line strong New Zealand forces moved along the edge of the desert, and by the 14th were ready to roll up the remnants of Rommel's once-formidable host and pin them against the sea.

On November 5 General Montgomery met the Press correspondents again. He was in cheerful, even triumphant, mood—"as he might well be," said one correspondent. "It has been a fine battle," he said, "and it has resulted in complete and absolute victory. The Bocca is completely finished. We drove wedges in his line, and I passed through three armoured divisions which are operating in the enemy's rear. Those portions of his army which can be trying to get away: those portions which cannot—and there are still a lot in the south—are facing our troops and will be put in the bag. I did not hope for such a complete victory: or rather, I hoped for it but did not expect it." After 12 days of very hard fighting, the

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**Regiments Which Fought at the Battle of Egypt**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>infantry</th>
<th>tanks</th>
<th>artillery</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rifle Guards</td>
<td>8th Royal Tank Regiment</td>
<td>2nd Royal Artillery Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Queen's Own Highlanders</td>
<td>7th Hussars</td>
<td>1st Southern Front Artillery Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Duke of York's Own Gloucestershire Regiment</td>
<td>1st South African Light Cruiser</td>
<td>1st Royal Artillery Corps</td>
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Many units of the Royal Tank Regiment, including those from the United Kingdom, France, Netherlands, and Italy, participated in the battles. The battle was marked by intense fighting and significant losses, but the Allies emerged victorious, with Rommel's forces forced to retreat. The campaign in Egypt marked a significant turning point in the North African campaign.
November 7 that Montgomery estimated his prisoners at 20,000, while 400 tanks, 350 guns, and several thousands of transport vehicles had been taken or destroyed. All the senior Italian generals were captured in the field; and of the German generals, Bismarck, Von Stumm, Von Frittwitz and Neumann-Sillhau were killed, and Von Thomas, Von Ravenstein, Schmitt and Crevel were prisoners. Rommel’s host, reported Cairo, was a scattered rabble, making what haste it could into Libya. As Rommel’s host a Scattered Rabble 8th Army suffered a loss of 500 officers and men, 58 per cent of the casualties being from the United Kingdom. British officer casualties were disproportionately high, since all the armoured formations were British.

At the Mansion House in London on November 10 the Prime Minister, in a speech from which important passages are quoted in page 2906, told of the glad and proud tidings that “in what I think should be called the Battle of Egypt, General Alexander, with his brilliant comrades and lieutenants, General Montgomery, has gained a glorious and decisive victory.”

Two days later, on November 13, in the House of Commons, the Prime

**AMBULANCES FOLLOWED THE TANKS**

Ambulances were in the thick of the tank battle at El Alamein, and were not far behind the front during the Eighth Army’s victorious drive after Rommel. A badly wounded man is seen being transferred from tank to ambulance, to be taken back to safety. His tank, unless it also had been disabled, would then go forward again. Extracting wounded tank crews was a major problem for R.A.M.C. personnel.

Photo. British Official

General went on, the 8th Army and the Allied air forces had gained a complete victory. The enemy was smashed. “For the last two nights the road behind the enemy has been blocked with staff four deep trying to get away. They have been bombed day and night. But we must not think the party is over. We have no intention of letting the enemy recover. We must keep up the pressure. We intend to hit this chap for six right out of North Africa.”

Downing Street announced already on

**SURRENDER OF A GERMAN TANK CREW**

The battered hulks of knocked-out German tanks strewn the battlefield at the close of the bitter armoured battle at El Alamein during the Battle of Egypt. Survivors from these immobilised tanks, one of whom is here seen surrendering to British infantryman, were among the many Afrikaner prisoners taken.

Photo. British Official (Press Agency Copy)

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EL AQQAQIE WAS A CEMETERY OF ARMOUR

The second decisive phase in the Battle of Egypt was the violent tank battle which raged for some nine hours at El Aquqie on November 2. Heavy losses were incurred by both sides, but by nightfall the enemy was broken and El Aquqie taken. Burning wreckage of a German Mark III (top left), one of the many left behind in the retreating Axis forces. The gunners grimly in other disabled armour (bottom) were often administered by the R.A.F. Nebel gantz by a bomb falls to check a British Crusader (top right), while a German anti-tank gun in fresh ammunition for its 75-mm gun (right). By Nov. 3, some 200 Axis tanks had been destroyed.
THINGS THEY LEFT BEHIND THEM

The headlong retreat of Rommel's army after the Battle of Egypt became almost a rout, his forces abandoning wholesale their equipment, tanks, guns and aircraft. Men of a Home Counties Regiment are here seen inspecting an Italian position abandoned during the Eighth Army's initial great bombardment of the enemy lines at El Alamein.

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright

DESERT MESS: MEN OF THE R.A.F. PAUSE FOR A MEAL

R.A.F. cooks, advancing as the Eighth Army advanced, performed miracles of ingenuity in providing food at a moment's notice. They used any resources that happened to be handy, and improvised cooking stoves, to produce meals for the airmen who played a decisive part in the disruption of Rommel's retreating forces.

Photo: British Official

Minister paid tribute to the conquerors, to the generals and to the gallant men they had led to so great a victory.

"It is true we had gathered superior forces," he said, "but all this would have been futile but for the mastery, precision, and skill of the commanders; the attention to detail which characterized their preparations, and the absolute ruthlessness with which their forces were engaged, not only at the point of rupture but in griping the enemy along the entire battle front. This battle is in fact a very fine example of the military art as developed under modern conditions. The skill of the commanders was rivaled by the conduct of their troops. This noble desert army, which has never doubted its power to beat the enemy, whose honourable pride had suffered cruelly from retreats and disasters which they could not understand, regained in a week their ardour and self-confidence.

Taken by itself the Battle of Egypt must be regarded as a historic British victory, and in order to celebrate it directions are being given to ring the bells throughout the land next Sunday morning.

But perhaps the battle may be best summed up in another passage from Mr. Churchill's Mansion House speech.

"This is not the end," he said. "It is not even the beginning of the end. But it is, perhaps, the end of the beginning."
The Race for Tunis: Nov.—Dec. 1942

At one o'clock on the morning of November 8, 1942, the greatest assault that has ever assembled fell at three points on the coastline of Northern Africa.

The military-strategic problems involved in the French colonial possessions in Africa was of extraordinary complexity, it is difficult to conceive the vastness of the French North and West African possessions. Almost half the Mediterranean coast of Africa belongs to France; more than half the west coast from Spanish Morocco to the mouth of the Congo belongs to her. The vast hinterland is complete and under the Vichy regime this whole area, except for Equatorial Africa, was potentially hostile. The major problem that faced the Allied Chiefs of Staff was that of denying North Africa to the enemy, of securing it with its enormous wealth of raw materials and strategic positions for ourselves, of cutting off Rommel’s rear, and of carrying out the whole operation with the least possible economy of shipping and matériel.

Dakar had been attempted once before. The new strategy disregarded Dakar. The plan, as it was carried out, provided for the capture of the northern coastline both on the Atlantic and on the Mediterranean, and assumed that, with Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia in Allied hands, French West Africa, and the great Saharan regions to the south would fall without bloodshed. To make certain of North Africa it was necessary to hold four main strategic points: Casablanca to ensure the possession of Morocco with its potential of wattle tribes; Oran (only 200 miles from Marseille) and possible reinforcement) and Algiers (only 550 miles from Naples) to secure the enormous territory of Algeria and Tunisia in factually Roumeli’s supply lines and to deny him a short sea route of escape.

If all four points had been equally easy of assault, there would have been no North African campaign. But the last section of the vast French African continent lay within range of the Luftwaffe’s Italian bases. The theoretic bomb line cut the African coast about Algeria: beyond Algiers it was believed that large-scale operations would be impossible without large-scale air cover. It was decided, therefore, that three of the four ports should be invaded from the sea—Casablanca, Oran, and Algiers—and Tunisia should be attacked from the land as soon as the bases were secure.

The Vichy Government had declared unequivocally that it would resist any attack on its colonial possessions—a declaration implemented at Dakar in Syria, in Madagascar. The Allies, therefore, decided to attempt to “suffice up” that resistance. The landing and re-embarkation of some British and American officers, headed by Major-General Mark W. Clark (U.S. Army), from a British submarine, commanded by Lieutenant A. E. J. Jewell, on the North African coast is among the more remarkable episodes of the war. Contact was made with sympathizers; considerable sums of money were credited; and it was confidently believed in many quarters that, in view of the fact that the initial landings were to be made by American troops, the groundwork done by General Clark and his party coupled with the traditional friendship between America and France would suffice to prevent bloodshed. That view disregarded the insinuations of a section of the French authorities in North Africa.

The organization of the convoys, their routing through the submarine-infested waters of the Atlantic, their passage through the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean narrows

Eisenhower’s First Message to the French:

Between 2 A.M. and dawn on November 7, 1942, thousands of the healthiest reproduced above were dropped by the U.S. Army Air Forces and the R.A.F. on centers of population both in North Africa and in France. The text reads: "FRENCHS OF NORTH AFRICA: FAITHFUL to the traditional and ancient friendship of the government and people of the United States for France and for French North Africa, a great American army is landing on your soil. Our immediate purpose is to protect French North Africa against the menace of an Italian-German invasion. Our principal aim is the same as in 1917, namely, the humiliation of the enemy and the complete liberation of invaded France. The day when the Italian-German menace comes to weigh upon French territory we shall leave your soil. The sovereignty of France and French North Africa remains complete. We know you can count on our co-operation in order which leads to victory and to peace. All together, we shall get them!"
under the protection of the Royal Navy are among the great masterpieces of naval warfare. They, and the Cassblancas convoy sailing from America, arrived off the invasion points without loss. Invasions are most vulnerable upon the sea. By zero hour—1 a.m. on the morning of November 8—the Allies had won the first round without a blow. The second round—the landing of the forces under Lieut.-Gen. Dwight Eisenhower (see illus., p. 2142), Allied C.-in-C., North Africa—was different.

At Algiers, where most of the preparatory work had been done, there was only a token resistance. We lost two destroyers, the "Martin" and the "Broke," the latter in forcing the boom. Resistance on shore was confined to the area about the Amirauté, to a few sporadic outbursts on the beaches, and to a certain amount of sniping.

At Oran, with its memories of the attack on the French warships there in 1940 (see Chapter 106)—an attack of the absolute necessity of which was underlined in every phase of this brief campaign—resistance was determined. The Oran assault began with an attempt to seize the salient point in the harbour itself. Two ex-American coastguard cutters, the "Hartland" and the "Wainey," which had formed part of the escort of the great convoy of the invasion on the way over, went in without covering fire. At ten minutes past three on the morning of November 8, H.M.S. "Wainey" broke the Oran boom. She was followed by "Hartland" and two M.I.A.s. With an almost inconceivable gallantry they pressed home their attack under heavy fire from warships and coastal batteries. Both ships reached their objectives: both ships were sunk with heavy loss of life. For his part in this operation, Acting-Captain F. T. Peters, D.S.O., D.C., who took the "Wainey" into Oran, was awarded the V.C. (see illus., p. 2337).

Meanwhile, east and west of Oran, the American army was getting ashore. At Arsen Beach, to the east, opposition was overrun swiftly and landing operations began in excellent weather. To the west at "X," "Y," and "Z" beaches and at Tafraout, there was no opposition. At once flying columns of armour from the extremities of the landing points swung deep into the country behind in a 70-mile-wide pincer movement. The attempt made to capture the aerodromes with parachute troops carried by the 12th U.S. Air Force (commanded by Brigadier-General James H. Doolittle, and flown from England) failed; but brilliant support from British escort carriers smashed the French fighter squadrons at La Seni and at Tafraout. Though the French fought stubbornly, by nightfall on the Sunday it was clear that Oran could not endure the assault for long.

On Monday vigorous and stiffening resistance at St. Cloud, which had been the limit of advance on the Sunday evening, held up the infantry attack from the east.
under General Allen. On the west Brigadier-General Theodore Roosevelt, commanding the 26th Combat Team, was held on the high ridge of the Djebel Mundjadja. But behind the battle of the infantry the claws of the armoured had closed. The tanks of Combat Command "F" — the American armoured force under General Oliver — thrusting through St. Barthe du Tiesl to Tafacimi and up the road to La Senia, were about to link with another section of the same force under Colonel (afterwards Brigadier-General) P. M. Robins. Coming from the western beaches along the northern shore of the great salt lake of the Grand Sdraba. That night Allen's infantry by-passed St. Cloud to north and south, and by dawn it was on the last of the heights above Oran. Admirable garrisons from the heavy ships of the Royal Navy was pounding the coastal batteries into submission. In the middle of the morning General Oliver, threw his tanks into the city, the infantry came down the last slopes, and the battle was over.

At Casablanca they still fought. The French ships threw up a vigorous resistance, using submarines, destroyers, and the guns of the great battleship "Jean Bart." But the "Jean Bart" was damaged and put out of action, the destroyers were sunk; and of Mehlis, Fedhala, and Saff, as well as at Casablanca itself, the troops got ashore and the beach-heads were secured. The useless fighting went on. But from the very start it was clear that Major-General George S. Patton, in command of Allied forces in Morocco, had the situation completely in hand, and on Wednesday, November 11, all French resistance in North Africa ended by order of Admiral Darlan, Vichy Defence Minister, who happened to be on an inspection tour of French North Africa at the time of the Allied landings. The first phase of the campaign was over. The second was under way.

From Algiers to Tunis by sea is 395 miles. The Allies did not go by sea. It is essential in understanding the race for Tunis to have in mind a clear picture of the country involved. The two great mountain ranges of Northern Africa run parallel to the coast. Algiers is backed beyond the limits of the coastal plain by the ridges of the Maritime Atlas that march behind the caselines to the last low hills above Rosetta. South of the 7,000-foot peaks of the Maritime range lies the High Atlas that ends in the Anti Mountains above Tebessa. Between the great masses run communicating spurs. It is a region of tremendous peaks, of deep valleys and high plateaux, diminishing slowly to the strip of the Tunisian coastal plain.
Across it run two roads, one clinging to the coastal line, wide, tortuous and difficult; one running across the high plateau, 500 miles in its windings, to Tunis town. Between them runs a single line of doubtless railway. And over this whole country the Allies had to run the race for Tunisia. They lost that race in the very moment that they entered the straight.

There was no opposition in the highlands. From Algiers to Constantine, from Constantine to Souk Ahras and over the last great rampart of the Medjerda Mountains down into the valley of the Kremmiri, the first elements moved unhampered. As the first formations went over the high plateaus the Allies began to test the little ports—Benghia, Djefaili and Philippeville. By November 15, British destroyers were in the harbour of Bône. On the 16th at dawn the “Beaumont” and the “Emma” had landed a harbour party of five officers and 20 ratings and a commando force to take over the aerodrome. By November 17 a tanker was landing petrol—the life-blood of a modern army. The Allies had a forward base of sorts.

It is necessary again to visualize the country between Bône and Tunis. From Bône the coast road runs comparatively straight to Biskra. It is not a good road and, for most of its length, it runs through deep scrub-covered valleys or over high hills with great spurs and crests of rock. A north-south road links with the inland road near Souk Ahras. These two are the only roads of importance through the semiarid hills to the town of Bône, capital of the ancient Roman grainlands. At Bône the mountain road splits into three. The northern arm makes a fresh communicating link with the coastal road; the centre arm, not so long, runs straight through the deep valley of Sidi Niar to Matera; and the third arm is the old main Casbah road to Tunis by the bridge of Medjier-el-Bab. At Medjier this third road again forks, the northern fork going to Tunis by way of Tebourba and Djebel, the southern continuing straight across the low rolling hills to Tunis town. Knowledge of the roads is vital to an understanding of the campaign, for they conditioned the whole strategy of the British First Army in North Africa.

While the main troops were still moving up on their long pilgrimage, a Battalion of Brigadir General’s Parasol Brigade flew past them and dropped, on November 17, in the middle of the wide valley of the Kremmiri at Souk-el-Arba. They established themselves without opposition on the aerodrome—it was a naked level—commanded French transport, and went forward next morning to Bône. From Bône, acting on local information, they took the centre road of the three into the valley of Sidi Niar. On November 18, six miles beyond Sidi Niar, they made contact with the enemy, ambushing on the steep hillside a patrol of armoured cars. Battle was joined.

The second, and perhaps the most important, fact to remember about the race for Tunisia is that the First Army was not an army. The decision to call General Anderson’s force by that name of tanks with certain supporting elements.

The northern arm—it was in strength a weak brigade—consisted of three battalions of infantry with a handful of 25-pounder artillery. The force in the south consisted of three battalions of infantry, Blade Force, consisting of the main of Crusader and Valentine tanks of the 8th/21st Lancers.

The Parasol Brigade made contact with the Germans 11 days after the initial landings. In those 11 days the Germans had not been idle. Vichy had declared that she would resist any attack whatever on her colonies. The Germans landed at El Aouina aerodrome, the great airport outside Tunis, unopposed. El Aouina had potentially a strong defence. They landed at Bizerta, unopposed, they used the harbour installations unopposed; yet Bizerta had strong defences. The French Army of Tunisia, cut down by the armistice, was still numbered 15,000 men. It was dispersed over a considerable area of the country, but at Tunis and at Bizerta there were relatively strong forces, and at Bizerta they were backed by French naval elements.

There is not the slightest shadow of doubt that instant opposition on the part of the French—indeed, instant opposition which met the Allies at Casablanca and at Oran—would have checked, even if it had not stopped, the German invasion. This was not in its opening stages the mighty outfall of a vast armada from the sea. It was a piddling thing of small airborne detachments hurriedly improvised out of anything from troops recuperating in France after the Russian front, to the personnel and instructors of glider training schools. In the first days, and in actual fact for nearly a week, it had no artillery other than mortars; it had no tanks; it had almost nothing in the way of armoured cars or of transport of any description save what it commandeered. Determined action on the part of the city garrisons of Tunis and Bizerta would have wrecked the initial stages of the German invasion.

There was no opposition. The French Army of Tunisia fell back silently. It lay, for the most part, on General Anderson’s right flank, imponderable in those early days, when no man could say on which side it would throw in its weight. Fifteen thousand men were more than the entire strength at General Anderson’s disposal when he launched his attack.

None the less the attack went forward. The northern arm moved up the valley road through Djebel Ahid.
ORAN OPERATIONS

Stiff resistance met the Allied landings in the Oran area, but it was of short duration. 1. American troops marching along the quay at the important naval base of Mars-el-Kebir: 2. Maj-Gen Lloyd R. Fredendall, commanding the U.S. forces landed at Oran: 3. A landing craft carrying Ramps, the U.S. equivalent of Commandos, touches the shore at a point near Oran: and, 4. guns, vehicles, and supplies for the First Army unloaded on the quay at the port. The map shows the area covered by the military operations around Oran described in Chapter 87.

(Photos, Pan Photos; Associated Press; British Newsagents Association; Times Press)
BRITISH PARACHUTE BRIGADE IN TUNISIA

Parachute troops in considerable force were used in the campaign in Tunisia, especially in efforts to forestall the enemy in securing control of aerodromes in the initial stages of the fighting. 1. Men of the 2nd Battalion of the Parachute Brigade resting after their drop at Debriana in November 1942 (see p. 325). 2. Three German parachutists and an Italian soldier taken prisoner near Beja. 3. Units of the Parachute Brigade near Medjez el-Bab. 4. Parachute troops successfully occupied this airfield in Tunisia; the patches of white on the ground in the middle distance are their discarded parachutes.

EMERGENCY AIRFIELD IN NORTH AFRICA

A Spitfire was up on a newly laid runway. As the Allied forces advanced in French North Africa, units of the Royal Engineers and the Pioneer Corps, under the command of Major J. D. George, prepared emergency airfields. Runways were constructed by laying Colt matting under a Somerfield track, which consisted of metal rods about nine inches apart held together by wire netting. For damaged aircraft making forced landings, land was prepared beside the runways, without the erecting of Colt matting and Somerfield track.

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright

2nd battalion of the Parachute Brigade, with engineers, signallers and a mortar section, in an attempt to render useless the aerodrome at Oudna.

The battalion left in 43 D.C. 3 American transport planes. Four failed to reach the objective. The rest dropped at Dejima in the area of Port du Fahs at 3.10 in the afternoon. They retired to neigbouring hills immediately after the drop, to re-form, and the following morning reconnoitred the aerodrome. Instead of Oudna being unoccupied, as intelligence had believed, there were in position fixed defences and also armoured cars and light tanks. In the afternoon a frontal attack was made, and "C" company lost heavily, fighting first ten armoured cars and the tanks. They retired on the hills again, and that night "A" company attacked, destroyed three planes on the aerodrome, wrecked two armoured cars and the railway station, and put the aerodrome temporarily out of commission. On the third day they were heavily attacked by tanks and surrounded, but they broke through the ring, retiring in the direction from which they believed the main force would come.

For five days they fought one of the most brilliant rearguard actions of the whole campaign. They were almost without food, utterly without water. At one point they found a tributary of the River Miltane, but it was salt. Yet they fought on. They were severely

Originally the attack was planned as an attempt to take El Aouina aerodrome at Tunis, but the time for that had long since gone. The Germans were very firmly in possession of Tunis itself. It was decided, therefore, to send the

CRUSADER TANKS IN THE UPLANDS OF TUNISIA

Crusader tanks, which played an important part in the victorious advance of the Eighth Army (seeills. pp. 1122-23), were used also in Tunisia. "Blite Force," one of the sections into which General Anderson divided his forces, consisted in the main of Crusader and Valentine tanks at the 17th/23rd Lancers. The Crusader was a 17-ton tank mounted with a 4-pounder gun and having a speed of 30 m.p.h.

Photo: British Official / Crown Copyright
survivors came up to the main Tunis road, and there fell in with a mixed reconnaissance column of British and American vehicles. They were still shaven, still smart; and their senior officer, as they made contact, held out his hand and said, politely, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume."

The air was to play an important—perhaps very nearly a decisive—part in the last lap of the race. Souk-el-Arba was within bombing range of the enemy, but it was too far behind the real front for economic fighter cover. In those days, before the rains had come, it was possible to improvise landing strips at a score of places on the coastal plain. The Germans had their front-line aerodrome immediately below Djezdaïa town, at one time within range of our artillery. They had air superiority and they used it ruthlessly until the end of the race.

Despite that air superiority, however, Medjez fell on Thursday, November 26. General Walter Noclair, Rommel's second-in-command in the Western Desert and a leading German tank specialist, was in command of German Axis forces in Tunisia.

He had staked everything on one bold decision. Massing his rapidly growing forces at Djezdaïa, 11 miles from Tunis, under Koch (who had captured Elsen in the advance on Belargus; see Chapter 84), he had thrown out a screen of well-sited mountain outposts to secure time to consolidate his position. Djezdaïa had the advantage of short supply lines from both Tunis and Bizerta; it lay on a cross-roads which gave him freedom of movement to challenge attacks from the north should the "Green Hill" defenses go; from the centre should Blade Force break clear through; and from the northern road out of Medjez; and it allowed him, by way of the road from St. Cyprian, to move swiftly against the flank of any attempt along the old Carthaginian road to Tunis itself.

Against the wall of these prepared positions the Brigade flung itself in a fury of gallantry. The Djezdaïa ridges held long enough for Gen. Noclair to bring up his first medium tanks of the 19th Panzer Division. Blade Force had been reinforced by American medium and light tanks of Combat Command "B," but even this new accretion of strength could not overcome the increasing strength of the defenses, and the attackers lacked...
always infantry to consolidate the gains the tanks had made. The Brigade broke itself vainly against Djeleisda.

The Hampshires, who on the night of November 29, relieved the Northants in the advanced positions on the Djeleisda-Tebourba road near the former village, endured five days that will live long in the history of British infantry.

Early on the morning of the 30th heavy mortar attacks began, supplemented with fire from heavy machine-guns. In the middle of the morning tanks came in to the attack, and with them the tanks the German infantry came forward. The Hampshires had only anti-tank rifles and mortars, but with these they fought off the attacks and destroyed at least two tanks. When the German infantry came in they met them with heavy artillery, changing sometimes between the tanks that screened the infantry. Under overwhelming enemy pressure, however, they were gradually forced back, and eventually completely encircled by enemy infantry companies supported by tanks.

With a last charge into which all the available forces—riflemen, cooks and clerks—led by the colonel, were thrown, the remnants broke back to Tebourba, and from Tebourba they came back, the main body 40 men strong in charge of the chaplain. Scattered units, and men who had been cut off, eventually brought that total up to 350, but the Hampshires were out of the fight and the Northants had suffered intolerable loss.

The Allied forces fell back, fighting magnificently, upon Tebourba; and they abandoned Tebourba only when they had lost the heights that commanded it through the impossibility of spreading the diminishing infantry along the wide terrain. Bombed incessantly, harassed by the brilliant German mortars and the heavy machine-guns to which they had no reply, the infantry fell back from Tebourba—and found itself in its retreat to back a heavy German tank attack to westward of the town. At the end of ten days of ceaseless fighting they had fallen back to the circle of the low hills east of the Mejerdja and north of Medjes-el-Bah, to a maned field covered by artillery astride the Tebourba road in what was called the "bottle-neck," and to the hills above the Sidi Naïr valley.

And the Germans were challenging them for the Medjes hills. On Sunday, December 6, they broke through the American line along the cresos After a day of hard fighting, the position was in some degree re-established, but the threat was clear; and on December 8 the rains came—the first blinding winter rains of the Tunisian mountains. Overnight the hard ground of the highlands turned to a thick, viscous clay; overnight tank warfare became uncertain and precarious. And then, with a superb impudence, Gen. Nehring decided to make a threat to drive the Allies out of Medjes, and give himself the line of the Mejerdja for his main defence. Using the metallic roads, he threat with strong forces from Djeleisda and from Massawa. The attempt almost succeeded. The American armour, hampered in its kill-potentials by the softness of the ground, had difficulty in coming to grips. On the very outskirts of Medjes village the attack was broken by the fire of British 25-pounders, American 105s, and French 75s.

And then in the darkness occurred one of the ineluctable accidents of war. The American armour, outflanked by the German threat, attempted to withdraw across the Borj Toun bridge. In the confusion of the night the officer commanding the column made an error of judgement. By dawn Combat Command "B" had lost—not to the enemy but to the mud—most of its remaining tanks, a heavy proportion of its artillery, and a large number of its fighting and transport vehicles.

The race for Tunis was over. But if the Allies failed to take Tunis, they still held the hills. The Germans had saved Tunis, and over it they were to lose two armies.
Chapter 257
FROM EL ALAMEIN TO TRIPOLI IN 80 DAYS

The Battle of Egypt, described in Chapter 255, was followed by a swift pursuit of the disintegrating Afrika Korps across the 1,400 miles between El Alamein and Tripoli which, last important city of the Italian overseas empire in Axis hands, fell before Montgomery's relentless advance on January 22, 1943. The Eighth Army accomplished this miracle of dash and endurance in some 80 days.

Thus Eighth Army continued the pursuit, ... These words appeared time and again in the bulletins issued from General Alexander's H.Q. in Cairo in the early days of November, 1942. The nine days of hard slogging, infantry combat, mine detection and destruction, terrific aerial bombing and artillery bombardment, bore their fruit. A great gap had been torn in the enemy's front by Leese's men of the 30th Corps, and the flanks were fatal. Through it poured Rommel's tanks of the 10th Armored Corps, while Horrocks's 13th Corps cleaned up the Italians left behind in the dreary wastes beside Qattara. The breakthrough was achieved on November 4. At Fuka there was a grisly and savage combat between the British armour and the remnants of the enemy's Panzer columns, in which almost the whole of the latter were destroyed; and by November 8 no enemy forces of any importance were left in Egypt. Mersa Matruh had fallen. Halfaya Pass, Sollum, Bir Hakeim and Capuzzo were jammed with traffic, bombed relentlessly by the R.A.F. (see illus., pp. 2360-81). What was left of Rommel's armour streamed away westward across the frontier, and every available truck was commandeered to permit the remnants of the Afrika Korps to escape from the field where everything had been lost. As for the Italians, they were left behind. Some fought gallantly enough: the others, and the majority, as soon as they realized their desertion by their German allies, stumbled wearily to the prisoner-of-war enclosures. The Italian prisoners were counted by the thousand, and for the most part their condition was appalling, since they had lain out for days in the unsheltered desert, now swept by heavy rainstorms, and had had little food and water. The British patrols who rounded up the vast battlefield were engaged in truth on an errand of mercy as they put the humble victims of Mussolini's misgovernance in the bag.

SIDI BACRAN was recaptured by the 60th Rifles on November 10, and on the same day British armour cut off the German retreat by way of Halfaya. Far ahead, somewhere near Sollum, Montgomery's spearhead was thrusting fiercely at the fleeing mass on the road beside the Mediterranean. Halfaya Pass was occupied on November 11, and on the next day the Eighth Army overran the ruins of Bardia, Sollum, and Fort Capuzzo. El Adem aerodrome outside Tobruk was being attacked by the advanced guard. Then on November 13, Fienea's South African storm into Tobruk. To fill the gap of their triumph they found in the town a number of South African coloured auxiliary troops who had been captured with Tobruk by Rommel five months before.

This day Montgomery (just granted a knighthood and promoted General in honour of the Alamein victory) sent another message to his victorious troops. When we began the battle of Egypt
on October 23," he recalled, "I said that we would hit the Germans and Italians for six right out of North Africa. We have made a very good start, and today there are no German and Italian soldiers on Egyptian territory except prisoners.

"In three weeks we have completely smashed the German and Italian army and pushed the fleeing remnants out of Egypt, having advanced ourselves nearly 300 miles up to and beyond the frontier. Four Enemy divisions Smashed (15th and 21st Panzers, 9th and 16th Light); the 10th Italian Corps (Brescia, Pavia and Folgore divisions); the 29th Italian Corps (Ariete and Littorio armoured divisions, Trieste division); and the 32nd Italian Corps (Trento and Bolzano divisions) had ceased to exist. The prisoners numbered already 30,000. (A few days later Gen. Alexander estimated the total enemy loss at 75,000.) The enemy's losses in tanks, guns and aircraft were crippling. This was a very fine performance, concluded General Montgomery, but (he proceeded) "our task is not finished yet. The Germans are out of Egypt, but there are still some left in North Africa. There is some good hunting to be had farther to the west in Libya, and our leading troops are now in Libya ready to begin. 'On with the task, and good hunting to you all!'"

It was indeed a hunt, and a speedy one. On November 14 the Eighth

VICTORS AND VANQUISHED PASS ON THE ROAD TO TRIPOLI

Three hundred of the 9,000 Axis personnel—mostly Italians—captured when Halfaya Pass, scene of bitter fighting in earlier Libyan campaigns, was taken with little resistance on November 11, 1943. They are trudging southward to a prisoner camp in Egypt while supply vehicles of the Allied forces move along the road in a continuous stream westward into Libya.

Churchill Tanks with the Eighth Army in Libya

The Churchill tank, heavily armoured, moving at a speed of ten m.p.h. over any kind of ground despite its weight of 37 tons, and fitted with a 6-pounder gun, went into action for the first time in January 1943, during the pursuit of the Afrika Korps across Libya and Tripolitania. It was subsequently used in Tunisia, where, it was reported on February 23, 1943, nine Churchill tanks had engaged 14 German tanks, destroying four of them for the loss of only one.
MAORIS FROM NEW ZEALAND WERE THERE

A convoy of New Zealand supply wagons passes the wrecked barracks of Sollum, scene of a battle on which Maori troops during Auchinleck's campaign won, but behind by the advancing 8th Army which captured Sollum; they took it at the point of the bayonet. Below, a Maori patrol racing through a street in damaged Bardia, reoccupied on November 12, 1942.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright

Army reached Tunis, on the 18th Martina, on the 18th Bersas and Mehills, on the 17th Cirene and on the 20th Bengal; was once again occupied by British and Dominion troops.

So far history had repeated itself. Men's eyes were fixed anxiously on the spot marked El Aghelia on the map. Would Rommel stand again where he had stood before? And if he had stated, would he be able to recruit his strength and set the pendulum of battle swinging violently back towards Egypt! General Alexander told the correspondents at Cairo that Rommel and his Afrika Korps had been "knocked groggy," but they had shown no weakness at Alamein and still fighting must still be expected. Probably at Aghelia . . .

By the end of November Rommel was dug in at Aghelia and doing his utmost to restore his shattered legions. From Sicily transports and supply ships ran the gauntlet of the British submarines, and the roads from Tripoli were busy with trucks. But by now the Anglo-American thrust in Tunisia was making itself felt, and not all Rommel's demands for men and equip-
A.A. GUN USED AS FIELD GUN NEAR MEDJEZ-EL-BAB

Medjez-el-Bab on the river Medjerda, about 32 miles from Tunis and 43 from Bizerta, was captured by the British First Army on November 27, 1942, after stiff enemy resistance. Gunners of the First Army have been converted their A.A. gun to use as a field gun to counter enemy artillery fire and protect the Royal Engineers as they were repairing a bridge demolished by the retreating enemy.

Photo, British Official
H.M.S. "RODEY" AT MERS-EL-KEBIR
More than 300 ships of the Royal Navy and the U.S. and Allied Navies reported the armada—well over 500,000 ships strong—which brought the Allied troops to French North Africa. After the landings, units of the Royal Navy—among them H.M.S. "Rodney"—lay off Mers-el-Kebir, the naval base and military port near Oran, scene with Oran of the 'melancholy action' of July 3, 1940, when ships of the French Navy were attacked and rendered useless by the Royal Navy to prevent their falling into the hands of the Germans.

ALLIES IN BONE HARBOUR
At Bone, 30 miles from the Tunisian border and 150 miles from the naval base and port of Bizerte, British and U.S. forces of the British First Army were first landed on November 12, 1942. Reinforcements in men and supplies continued to be brought in through Bone during the North African campaign. Naval fighters from the cruiser H.M.S. "Argusant" are seen with soldiers of an anti-aircraft battery. "Argusant" was one of a British naval force which, without damage or casualties, sank four merchant vessels and three Italian destroyers in a vigorous action on the night of December 1-2, 1942.

Photos, British Official
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OUTPOST IN TUNISIA
Towards the middle of December 1942 the Allies were holding a straightened line in Tunisia, between Djedeida and Mateur, their operations being much hampered by rain and mud. Here are a First Army Bren gunner and his observer occupying a forward post in the hills near Mateur.

ENEMY TANK CASUALTIES
Despite adverse weather conditions, and the resultant bogging of the terrain, which rendered tank manoeuvring difficult, there were a number of armoured clashes in Tunisia during November and December 1942. These two light German tanks were put out of action by British armour near Mateur.

Photos, British Official
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COMMODORE OF THE EIGHTH ARMY INSPECTS BENGAZI'S SEA DEFENCES

When Benghazi was recaptured by the 8th Army on November 20, 1941, its harbour was choked with the wreckage of shipping destroyed from the air; but work was begun straight away on clearing it, and as early as the 24th an Allied ship was able to berth there. Benghazi became the base for the landing of supplies and reinforcements during the period from November 27 to December 13, when General Montgomery passed to consolidate his gains and prepare for the next stage of his campaign—the advance on El Agheila.
FROM EL ALAMEIN TO TRIPOLI IN 80 DAYS

After defeating the Afrika Korps in the Battle of Egypt, General Montgomery took only 80 days to drive the disorganized remnants of the once-mighty force back to Tripoli. His advance was held up by weather, mountains, rocky traps, and dispersed markets; but nowhere did the disorganized enemy make a serious stand. The map gives the dates on which Allied units first reached various places on roads and rivers: the dates in Chapter 27 are those on which those places were fully occupied.

Specially drawn for The Sunday Graphic Win by Philip Sherlock

although some of the German tanks and infantry succeeded in breaking out to the west, most of the trapped formation was accounted for.

After this brilliant little stroke, Montgomery resumed the pursuit in strength. On Christmas Day Sirte was occupied, but then heavy rain and dust storms took it in turn to hamper operations.

Sirte Occupied

Rommel received the request to dig in at Birrera; but after a fortnight’s preparation Montgomery’s troops overpowered the enemy lines on January 10, 1943. Rommel did not stay to meet Montgomery’s full strength, but slipped away once more to the west. The pursuit was continued, and there was no stopping the pursuit now. On they pressed, driving the enemy from one battered town after another. Mantua on January 15, Rome on the 26th, L’Aquila on the 29th. Celano on the 30th. Rommel’s rearward units put up a good show, but they were swept aside by Montgomery’s veterans.

Before the offensive started in October, “Monty” was reported to have told the war correspondents that Tripoli would be in Allied hands on January 23. He was as good as his word. Before midnight on the appointed day British columns were in the city’s suburbs, and at dawn on January 23 Montgomery stood on the Dirghat heights and watched his victorious troops stream along the roads and tracks into the capital of Tripolitania, the last city of Italy’s once great imperial dominion. From the south marched in the New Zealanders and two columns of British armor: The Highlanders of the 51st Division entered by way of the coast road from the east. Another column approached from the west. When Montgomery gave the signal—at 6 a.m. on January 23—the entry in full force began, but an hour before a patrol of 11th Hussars had driven into the city and out again. “It anybody deserves the honour of being the first in Tripoli,” wrote Alexander Clifford, the famous correspondent of the Daily Mail, “it was these Hussars, who have been at long in the desert that they glory in the nickname of ‘The Desert Rats.’” Seven Gordon Highlanders clinging to

‘THE PRIEST’ PREPARES FOR ACTION

Because from certain angles it looked against the moon behind it like a priest in a cassock, the 8th Army gave the nickname ‘The Priest’ to the 57mm. self-propelled gun-howitzer, which was mounted on a General Grant tank chassis that also carried an 8-in. gun. Part of America’s contribution to the 8th Army’s armament in the Battle of Egypt, it proved a most useful weapon against the 88-mm. high-velocity anti-tank gun of the Germans. [Photo, British Official
a tank were the first British infantry to enter the city. Close behind (said Clifford) were “Seafarth Highlanders... young machine-gunner of the Middlesex Regiment, and men of the Buffs and the Queen’s followed.”

The formal surrender of the city was tendered by Gen. Montgomery at noon, as he stood at the Porta Benito crossroads, just outside the wall, by the Lord Mayor of Tripoli, the Vice-Governor of Libya, and the Prefect. The Italians were in uniform, glittering with decorations. The General was wearing battle-dress, two sweaters (of different colours) and his famous beret. The little ceremony was soon over. “I have nothing against the civilian population,” said Montgomery, “provided it remains orderly. My war is against the Italian and German armies.” Then inside the city he took the salute. To the skirt of the flags of his men passed by in triumphal procession and the Union Jack fluttered high above the city hall.

The news of Tripoli’s fall was broadcast from Rome. “The great battle of the past 32 months on the African coast and in the Mediterranean has reached its end...”

The Fall of Tripoli

Our sacrifice of this territory is very painful, because the regions concerned have belonged to Italy for a third of a century and have been fertilized with much blood.” A few hours after the victory parade the commander of the Eighth Army made his acknowledgments to the men he had led to so great a triumph. “I have nothing but praise for the men of the Eighth Army: they have done what I expected of them.”

From El Alamein to Tripoli is a matter of 1,400 miles—about the distance of Moscow from Paris, of New York from New Orleans. The Eighth Army covered the distance in some 80 days, their average rate of advance being 17½ miles a day, or 30 miles a day if the major pauses at El Agheila and Buqerat are excluded. It was not an unopposed advance, said Sir James Grieg, Britain’s War Minister, in a special broadcast on January 23; all the time there was fighting. It had been a miracle of dash and endurance by the fighting troops, but it was a miracle of organization, of ceaseless effort, of complete devotion by the administrative services. The Western Desert is threaded by rough, ill-defined tracks, and by one good road with an asphalt surface which runs the whole distance, keeping all the way to the
Tobruk Once More in British Hands

When South African troops entered Tobruk on the morning of November 13, 1942, they found only a few Germans to take prisoner—Rommel had evacuated his forces. In the famous eight-month siege of 1941, without a blow. Above, men of the Queen’s Royal Hussars, marching into the town. Left, hoisting the Union Jack in place of the Swastika. Below, the first Allied supply ship to arrive in Tobruk after its reoccupation by British troops. Its cargo is being discharged into tank landing craft lying alongside.

Photo, British Official. Crown Copyright.
TRIPOLI—LAST CITY OF ITALY’S AFRICAN EMPIRE—SURREndERS TO THE ALLIES

Top left: The Lieutenant-Governor of Libya, Commodore Sant Marco, with the Prefect of Tripolitania and the Mayor of Tripoli, met General Montgomery at the Castel Benito gate into Tripoli and formally surrendered the city to him on January 23, 1943, after which the Union Jack was run up on all the principal buildings as the British authorities took control. Bottom left: Tank crews cheer the flag at the Guard House near the harbour. Right: “Rocky Jock Tripoli”—the heroic scene as recorded by the official New Zealand artist, Captain Peter McIntyre.

Photos, British Official; Crown Copyright; Capt. McIntyre’s painting by courtesy of the New Zealand Government.
coastal region. There was one railway, from the Nile Valley to Tobruk, very largely constructed since Wavell's offensive in 1940; once again in British hands, it was worked with the punctuality of a railway at home, bringing up scores of thousands of tons of supplies. The rule was "supplies must get through," and the work was carried out, to the limits of what was possible, to an imperative time table, over some of the worst going in the world, along a route strewn with mines. An elaborate gradation of aid detachments and workshops retrieved the transport cripples and put them on the road again; thousands of craftsmen laboured to keep the vehicles in action; and more thousands toiled in keeping the road surface in good repair. Rommel fled as Montgomery advanced, but finding he had the advantage of prepared dumps along the road from which he could draw supplies, while our men had to carry everything, in particular water and petrol. And what that meant is seen from the fact that during one week in a later stage of the advance over 3,000,000 gallons of petrol were delivered at the front, and over 8,000 tons of ammunition.

SIX-FOUNDER IN ACTION
British 6-pounder anti-tank guns helped the Eighth Army to march its way successfully across Libya in the winter of 1942-43. Below is one firing at an enemy strong point in the hills of Tripolitania shortly before Tobruk was captured. A wounded member of the crew is receiving first aid.

MARBLE ARCH, LIBYA
This triumphal archway of marble, erected by the Fascist Italian government about 40 miles west of El Agheila to mark the half-way point on the coast road from Tripoli to Egypt, was nicknamed Marble Arch by the British troops—a name also given to the nearby desert airfield which served as a forward base for Rommel's fighters until it was made untenable by constant R.A.F. attacks in the first week of December 1942.

On an average each man required five lb. weight of food (and containers) per day, as well as 50 cigarettes and two boxes of matches a week. As for water, the Eighth Army wanted 5,000 tons of water a day, and very small quantities were available in the local wells. Half of it was brought from the Nile, along a pipeline to Tobruk; another 1,500 tons of Nile water were shipped daily to Benghazi, 500 tons were landed on the beaches from lighters, and
the balance of 700 tons was conveyed to the forward troops by water companies operating with water wagons and metal containers holding 40 gallons each. Well might Sir James Grigg dilate on the "unparalleled feat of military organization that has been so great a force at such a speed across an inhospitable desert," and pay a special tribute to the Quarter-master-General, Gen. Lindley, and his staff, and the men on the lines of communication—the Royal Engineers, the Service Corps, the Ordnance, the R.E.M.E. and the R.A.M.C. Nor did he forget to praise the magnificent work of the Royal Navy, in supplying the Army along the shore and in taking so heavy a toll of the ships conveying supplies and reinforcements to Rommel.

Yet a few days more, and in the House of Commons on February 11, the Prime Minister spoke again in glowing terms of the Desert Army. "I have never in my life, which from my youth up has been connected with military matters, seen troops with the style and air of those of the Desert Army. Talk about "spit and polish"! The Highland and New Zealand Divisions paraded after their immense ordeal in the desert as if they had come out of Wellington Barracks. There was an air on the face of every private of that just and sober pride which comes from hard-earned victory and triumph after toil." Then came recognition of the two commanders: Montgomery, "this vehement and formidable general, a Cromwellian figure, austere, severe, accomplished, tireless, his life given to the study of war, who has attracted to himself in an extraordinary measure the confidence and the devotion of the Army;" and Alexander, "on whom the overriding responsibility lay."

A fortnight after Tripoli's fall, Mr. Churchill arrived there to review the conquerors. "The fame of the Desert Army has spread throughout the world," he told the assembled troops. I am here to thank you on behalf of H.M. Government, of the British Isles, and of all our friends the world over. I do so from the bottom of my heart. Hard struggles lie ahead. Rommel, the fugitive from Egypt, Cyrenaica, and Tripolitania, in a non-stop race of 1,400 miles, is now trying to present himself as the deliverer of Tunisia. But, he went on, "the days of your victories are by no means at an end, and with forces which match from different quarters, we may hope to achieve the final destruction or expulsion from Africa of every armed German or Italian." In the years after the war they would be able to boast that "I marched and fought with the Desert Army"; and "when history is written and all the facts are known, your feats will glimmer and glow and will be the source of song and story long after those of us gathered here have passed away."
November 1, 1942. Russian, counter-offensive in Stalingrad factory area. On Guadalcanal, V.S. Marines advanced two miles to the west.

November 2. Russian evacuation of Kolkhozanka (Cascade). In Egypt, 8th Army evacuated with strong tank support; great tank battle raged throughout the day around Tel-el-Aqappir (The Hill of the Wrecker). Australian recaptured Kokoda (New Guinea).

November 3. In Stalingrad, enemy launched five unsuccessful attacks. In heavy night fighting, British armored units took Tel-el-Aqappir; Eighth Army advanced steadily during the day.

November 4. Russians repulsed three attacks in Stalingrad. Axis forces in the Western Desert in full retreat.

November 5. Repulsed enemy attacks in Stalingrad repulsed with heavy losses. Armistice signed by British and Vichy authorities in Mudam, and Stalingrad hostilities.

November 6. Large German infantry and tank attacks in Stalingrad factory area repulsed. Concentrated night attack on Greeks by strong force of bombers.

November 7. Germans driven from two strong-points in Stalingrad; enemy attack smashed southwest of Kotleba. Even heavier air attack on Greeks.


November 9. Naval engagement off Casablanca in which French battleship "Jean Bart" was damaged; Vichy broke off diplomatic relations with U.S.A. Chinese captured positions near Trenching (S. Russia).

November 10. British and New Zealand forces landed at North Cape.


November 13. Eighth Army entered Tripoli and captured Kufra.


November 15. Eighth Army occupied Marsa. In the Solomons, a three-day naval battle (Hollis-Hollis) resulted in capture of two battle-ships, eight cruisers, six destroyers, and twenty troop transports.

November 17. Derua and Mukil (Libya) occupied by 8th Army. Hafouk (E. Tunisia) recaptured by Ch. U.S.

November 18. British First Army entered Buna and captured Taura. German severely defeated near Ortsaunder (Cassamancas).


November 21. Massed German and Turkish airfields (Burma) heavily attacked by R.A.F.

November 22. Powerful Red Army offensive on Stalingrad front announced. Stuttgart, heavily bombed at night. Heavy day and night raids by R.A.F., on Akyab and Magwa airfields (Burma).


November 24. Twenty-five mile advance by Red Army north of Stalingrad, some German divisions captured with their commanders near Kletakaya.

November 25. British 1st Army occupied Medjez-el-Bab (Tunisia). Turdun entered by Germans; most of French forces there scuttled. Strong U.S. bomber formations bombed Canton docks.

November 28. Continued advance of Red Army on all sectors of Don-Stalingrad front. Kletakaya recaptured. R.A.F. used 8,000 tons bombs for first time in heavy raid on Aqbusa, Allied air forces in Burma, bombed by R.A.F.

November 29. Further Red Army advances near Stalingrad. Djojolba captured by 1st Army (Tunisia). Altau and Aqbusa recaptured by 1st Army (Tunisia).


December 1. Enemy retreating on Bismarck Front (Bunca). Bombardment and Akyab aerodrome (Burma) bombed by R.A.F. Japanese attack and land attack at Bura (New Guinea) smashed by Allied air forces.

December 3. Heavy enemy counter-attack in Tunisia area (Tunisia) repulsed. American dive-bombers prevented landing of enemy troops on Guadalcanal.

December 4. German advance continued on Stalingrad and Buhm. Air attack by R.A.F. on airforce bases of French Colonial Empire.

December 5. Don occupied in three places in surprise attack by Red Army. Tchernov (Tunisia) evacuated by Allies; Djojolba recaptured by enemy.


December 10. Two enemy attacks by tanks and infantry near Medjez-el-Bab (Tunisia) repulsed. Japanese troops sailed Chittagong (Bangladesh).

December 11-12. Formation of 11 Japanese, 200000 strong, under Ito, landed on Guadalcanal attacked by U.S. aircraft and M.P.R.A. eight tanks were damaged.


December 16. New Soviet offensive opens on Middle Don.


December 18. Malta, after long repulse, attacked by large bomber force.


December 21. Red Army advanced further 18-19 miles on Middle Don. Munich heavily bombed at night.

December 22-27. Soviet advance on Middle Don continued rapidly.


December 25. Eighth Army occupied State (Tripolitania).


December 28. General de Gaulle broadcast welcome to Guadalcanal.

December 29. Kothbukuro recaptured by Soviet Army after bitter street fighting. No losses of this major success in Tokyo reported by U.S. bombers.

December 30. Largest battle ever in history, 200,000 man, heavily bombed; day and night attacks on Kusukaw and Akyab by R.A.F.

December 31. Enemy in full retreat from Kothbukuro; many planes recaptured on Middle Don; Soviet troops remained over Tobruk.
FRANCE UNDER GERMAN RULE: JULY—DEC. 1942

During the second half of 1942, the differentiation between occupied and unoccupied France disappeared; the Anglo-American landings in French North Africa in November were the signal for German and Italian forces to overrun the whole country, and for the abandonment of the pretence that the Vichy Government was in control of even a part of France. This Chapter continues the history of France under the Nazis from Chapter 219.

Of the many grave problems facing the Laval Government in July 1942, that of supplying French workers to ease the acute shortage of skilled labour in the Reich continued to be one of the most pressing. The propaganda drive for more workers, intensified by the opening of 27 recruiting offices— 17 of them in the Paris area alone—had proved a dismal failure. Only 170,000 French workers (including 35,600 women) had left for Germany by July 3, and of these all but 1,000 had already enlisted before Laval's campaign was inaugurated. In an address at Rulle on July 8 Marshal Pétain appealed to French workers to take up war work in Germany and thereby release war-prisoners for work on French farms.

The pressure of Vichy's desperation to help itself by helping Germany can be gauged by three facts: the announcement in the German economic paper "Der Deutsche Volkswirt," that Laval had agreed to the transfer of thousands of Arabs from North Africa to Germany for work in factories and farms; by a continuation of the German-imposed policy of closing down French factories in the unoccupied zone on the plea of a "lack of raw materials, coal and energy, and irrational production" (thereby offering sound reasons for transferring the newly unemployed workers to German industry); and an increase of working hours.

On August 9 another 1,000 prisoners of war were released, followed on August 37 by the release, for "exemplary conduct" by the population of Dieppe during the Allied raid, of 800 prisoners whose homes were in the Dieppe area. This grandiloquent gesture on Hitler's part came after Laval's address to the 1,000 returned prisoners at Compiègne on August 11, when he said that the day of "mass liberation" was past, and that Germany needed 150,000 specialized workers for her war factories, in exchange for which Hitler would release 50,000 prisoners of war.

On August 22 the German "General Commissioner for the Employment of Labour," Sandel, issued a decree stipulating that from September 1 "all prisoners of war and foreign workers in Germany as well as all civilian workers in occupied countries would be subjected to the same rigorous conditions applying to German workers, including a 64-hour week and drastic penalties for absenteeism, indolence and changing of jobs without permission." The decree also stipulated that all labour becoming available in occupied France through the closing of factories or lengthening of the working week would be transferred to Germany.

The harshness of this decree, however, met with such stiff opposition from Vichy that it was rescinded as regards occupied France. French workers would be "requested" but not compelled to go to Germany; but the condition was accepted that the 150,000 specialized workers be recruited by October 15. Twelve days before this, a grim prophecy of things to come was given by M. Chaffes, Director of Labour Propaganda, in a broadcast from Toulouse. "Unless the workers respond," he said, "I very much fear that eyes here in this zone—which believes itself to be free, but is only in appearance—matters will soon be out of our hands.

The same day (October 3) it was announced that a full census of workers was to be submitted by all employers.

By October 15 it was apparent that the recruitment of the workers was badly behind schedule (only 1,500 workers a day, some 45,000 a month, were leaving for Germany), and the period of grace was accordingly extended to October 31. The next day all Frenchmen between 18 and 50 were ordered to register at mairies before October 29 under penalty of fines.

On October 20 Laval broadcast a new appeal for workers to go to Germany. The higher interests of France, he said, demanded the pursuit of a policy of agreement with Germany. If Germany were beaten, Bolshevism would rule Europe. He concluded with an appeal to Frenchmen to obey the Government's orders.

HOME AFTER TWO YEARS IN GERMAN PRISON CAMPS

Two years after the signing of the Franco-German armistice, only a few thousand of the 1,256,900 French prisoners of war in Germany had been repatriated. A further 800, whose homes were in the Dieppe area, were released on August 30, 1942, in recognition of what Hitler called the 'exemplary conduct' of local inhabitants during the British raid on Dieppe on August 19. Some of this contingent are here seen arriving at Séquigny in Normandy.
A statement of great significance and one showing deep insight into French politics was given to the British Press on July 27 by M. André Philip, Socialist member of the Chamber of Deputies for the Rhône and Professor of Political Economy at Lyons University, following his escape from France.

"Last year," said M. Philip, "a definite cleavage existed between the occupied and unoccupied zones. In the former resistance was very strong, the Vichy Government was non-existent, and there was a straight division between "collaborationists" and those supporting General de Gaulle. In the unoccupied zone, however, the question was complicated by the personal prestige of Marshal Pétain, with his last war reputation and his "grandfatherly manner."

At his side, ultra-reactionary elements of the haute bourgeoisie, including big industrialists and financiers and local dignitaries in rural areas, constituted the so-called Vichy Government. A radical change had, however, occurred last winter, when life became terribly hard in such cities as Lyons and Marseille, owing to the German plundering of French economic resources, and at the same time a revolt developed against the Vichy Government which, ostensibly based on authoritarian principles, actually existed in complete anarchy. The so-called corporative system, the Committees of Industrial Organization, etc., were anarchic in their working.

An indirect confession of the failure of the Anti-Bolshevik Legion—founded by Eugène Delorme as a recruiting agency for the German Army, enlisting especially French Fascist sympathizers for service on the Russian front—was forthcoming in mid-July with the announcement that this legion had become the Légion Tricolore, headed by Raymond Lachal, Laval's right-hand man. Referring to the new legion at a ceremony on July 12, Joseph Darnand, Inspector-General of the Service d'Ordre des Légionnaires (set up in February 1942 as the Legion's "weapon of direct action in the fight of the revolutionary forces of our country against those who wish to maintain an order which we want to abolish"), stated that the Légion Tricolore would, if necessary, fight for the Axis in Europe and in Africa.

The creation of the Légion Tricolore was followed by a drive for recruits, which went on in both zones and in North Africa. Describing its functions as "to intervene where the interests of France or her Empire make it necessary," the Légion Tricolore was given formal recognition at a ceremony in Paris on August 28, attended by Admiral Darlan, De Brinon and Abetz.

The French Parliament, transferred from Vichy to Châtel-Guyon in August
SCUTTLED "STRASBOURG" IN TOULON HARBOUR

At 4 a.m. on November 27, 1942, in spite of Hitler's promise, the Germans entered Toulon, where a large part of the French Navy lay at anchor. The Luftwaffe dropped magnetic mines at the harbor entrance to prevent the escape of the French warships, while German armored columns raced to the docks. Admiral Jean de Laborde, asked to surrender his ships, immediately gave orders to scuttle, and an explosion on the "Strasbourg" was the signal for the scuttling of most of the fleet of battlehips, carriers, destroyers, and submarines—some 253,000 tons of naval shipping in all. The 26,000-ton battleship "Strasbourg," launched in 1936, and here seen resting away on the bottom of Toulon harbor, was one of the finest of the ships lost in this heroic act of self-sacrifice which cost the lives of many French sailors. [See also illus. p. 2400.]

1942 (see Chapter 302), suffered what in effect amounted to its death-blow by a decree signed by Marshal Petain and Laval on August 26 eliminating the offices of MM. Edouard Herriot and Jules Jeanneeny, respectively Presidents of the Chamber and Senate, and transferring the functions of the Bureaus of both Chambers to a Government Commissioner. This decree, ironically signed on the anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of Man in 1789, while leaving Parliament with a theoretical existence, in effect abolished it, its plenary powers having legally expired on June 1, 1942.

The continued existence of the Parliamentary Bureaus, said Vichy, was inconsistent with the Constitution of 1875, which required the renewal of the mandate at the beginning of each year's session—hence the reason for the decree. On August 25, a second decree abolished the electoral system of the Conseil General (departmental councils). By this decree the Government was granted powers to nominate its own members, to be selected from "partisans of the new order who have direct knowledge of the needs of the population among whom they live."

Although the activities of the French Parliament in the intervening year since its removal to Chatel-Guyon had been negligible, the passing of these decrees brought a strong protest, in the form of a joint letter, from MM. Herriot and Jeanneeny to Marshal Petain and Laval.

During the second half of 1942 Laval pushed forward with vigorous determination his policy (epitomized in his anti-Doriot statement of June 12: "but the power is the Government, and I am the Government") of concentrating control of the entire executive machinery in his own hands and of wielding still greater power over the destiny of his country. Evidence of this was his assumption of control on July 18 of the new Department of French Labour.

In mid-September a Franco-German conference was held in Paris at which the German authorities demanded:

1. The surrender of all French merchant tonnage in French ports, aggregating about 329,000 tons.
2. The opening of a German Consulate-General at Dakar to which members of the German High Command should be attached to supervise the defense of West Africa.
3. The immediate dispatch of 600,000 French workers to Germany.

Concerning the first two, Vichy stated that "a decision has not been reached" and negotiations were continuing, but nevertheless it became known in London early in November that 123,000 tons of Allied merchant ships had been handed over to Germany and Italy.

Reporting his conversations with the German authorities at a meeting of the Vichy Cabinet, Laval demanded and was granted plenary powers to enable him to grapple with the new problems forced on him by his German masters.

On September 26 the intrigues of Benoist-Mehin with Doriot for Laval's overthrow prompted Laval to dismiss Benoist-Mehin from his position as Secretary of State in charge of Franco-German relations, and also to remove him from the presidency of the Legion Triomphante. Reducing the number of his Secretaries from three to two (De Brinon and Vice-Admiral Platon) Laval stated: "I shall not tolerate attacks on the authority of the Government. I am fully determined to complete my task: the Government stands firm and there is no reason why it should not remain so."

Then, with a suddenness that stunned the Axis Powers and revitalized the enslaved peoples everywhere, came the Atlantic convoys, a new American landings in North Africa on November 8. A joint Anglo-American statement was broadcast to the people of Metropolitan France explaining the reasons behind this act, and leaflets containing the text of a broadcast appeal by President Roosevelt to all patriotic Frenchmen were dropped in France and in North Africa.

The same day President Roosevelt sent a letter to Marshal Petain through
Mr. Francis Tuck, the U.S. Chargé d'Affaires, explaining the reasons for the American action, to which Pétain replied that the pretenses invoked could not be justified. "France and her honor are at stake," he said. "We are attacked. We shall defend ourselves. That is the order I give."

Following a Cabinet meeting the same evening, Vichy announced that the United States, by carrying the war into North Africa, had broken off relations with France. and Mr. Tuck was handed his passports. To this President Roosevelt stated in Washington that "no act of Hitler or his puppet can sever relations between the American and French peoples; we have not broken relations with the French—we never will."

This was followed by the official severance of diplomatic relations between the U.S. Government and Vichy. Before the end of the month Canada, Mexico, Brazil, Cuba, Colombia, Venezuela, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Peru, and Ecuador had followed suit.

On November 10 Marshal Pétain broadcast a message to the French people, in which he asked for the "greatest calm," and stated that he had taken over command of the sea, land and air forces in the absence of Admiral Darlan.

The armistice was reached on November 11, the 24th anniversary of the ending of the first World War, when, following an all-night conference of the German High Command with Laval in attendance, the German forces crossed the demarcation line and began the occupation of the unoccupied zone. Among others, the occupation of the hitherto unoccupied zone was forced on him by the Anglo-Americans, Hitler said the army had no intention of establishing German rule in those territories, and that their presence was only for the purpose of repelling enemy landings. During the morning, Marshal Pétain received Field Marshal von Runstedt, C-in-C of German forces in France, and protested against Hitler's decision as "incompatible with the armistice agreement."

Then, on November 13, the freedom-loving nations heard with mixed feelings...
HEADS OF THE COLLABORATIONIST GOVERNMENT AT VICHY

Marshal Pétain, head of the French (Vichy) State, Admiral Darlan, Minister of Defence, and M. Pierre Laval, Premier, watching a military parade in front of the hotel used as the office of the French collaborationist government at Vichy. Behind Laval is General Negue, French Resident General in Morocco, who later strenuously opposed the Allied landings in North Africa, but placed himself under Darlan's orders when Darlan ordered the "cease fire" on November 11, 1942. (See page 2441.)

Photo, Associated Press

the news that Admiral Darlan had "joined" the United Nations. In a proclamation, from Radio Algiers Darlan stated that, in full freedom and full accord with General Negue and at his request, he had assumed responsibility for French interests in Africa, and requested that all Frenchmen should continue at their posts.

Darlan's defection from Vichy, coupled with his appointment of General Giraud as Chief of Staff, was a surprise to Pétain, who felt himself grievously betrayed, and issued a statement on November 16 that Darlan, by his actions in North Africa, had put himself outside the national community, and was, therefore, stripped of all public office and military command.

These unexpected events in North Africa and in Metropolitan France were followed by the accession of General de Gaulle to the premiership of Algeria, and further official recognition of the remnants of empire left to Vichy France; French West Africa, however, joined Admiral Darlan.

At a result of a meeting of the Vichy Cabinet on November 18, and following a statement signed jointly by Marshal Pétain and Laval, announcing that Laval was to be given powers to deal swiftly and in all places with the difficulties through which the State was passing, a new Constitutional Act (No. 13) was passed. The text of this was as follows:

"We, Marshal of France and Chief of State, by virtue of the constitutional law of July 19, 1940, desire that the head of the Government—outside the constitutional law—have power in his simple signature alone to make laws and enjoin decrees."

Relating to the provision of a deputy for and successor to the Chief of State, the text of the Constitutional Act, following a preamble as above, was as follows:

Art. 1. If for any cause whatsoever before the ratification of the new constitution by the nation we are prevented from exercising the functions of Chief of State, those functions shall be assumed by Pierre Laval, head of the Government. In the case of permanent incapacity, the Cabinet shall within a month appoint a Chief of State by a majority vote. At the same time it shall define and fix the respective powers and attributions of the Chief of State and the head of the Government, whose functions shall be separate.

Art. 2. The Constitutional Act No. 4 (dated February 2, 1941) appointing Darlan as Pétain's successor shall be suspended, cancelled.

The text of the new Act was as follows:

Changes in the Government were also announced, Admiral Abrial replacing Admiral Auphan as Secretary for the Navy, M. Jean Richelot as Secretary for Communications, and M. Pierre Cathala, Secretary for Finance, being appointed to a present post as Minister of National Economy and Finance.

The bitter political opposition to Vichy by Marcel Déat, the pro-German leader of the Rassemblement National Populaire, had continued despite

Laval's attempts to suppress it, was further evidenced by a violent attack on Vichy by Déat in a broadcast from Radio Paris on November 19, in which he asserted that Laval should transfer his Government to Toulon, because Vichy had become the symbol of all that was rotten.

Defending himself and outlining further his policy of collaboration with Germany, Laval in a broadcast the next day insisted that it was in the interests of France and in the interests of peace that Vichy was attempting reconciliation with Germany.

The formation of a Phalange Africaine, a body of so-called volunteers pledged to fight in Africa against the Allies, was announced on November 25 by Bénoist-Méchin. On the same day De Brinon Africaine announced that the Phalange Africaine had as its aims "the representation of France on the battlefields of the Orient, and as its object "the barring of the Anglo-Saxons from the French Empire." Three days later Déat demanded that the Phalange Africaine, which recruiting centres had been opened, should replace the "armistice army," dissolved on Hitler's orders.

Meanwhile, anxiety regarding the French fleet had grown considerably. President Roosevelt's proposals of early July, during the crisis in the Libyan situation, that the French warships, immobilized at Alexandria, should be placed in the protective custody of the United States had been rejected by Vichy. The broadcast announcement by Admiral Darlan from Radio Algiers on November 12, asking the chiefs of the French fleet at Toulon to bring their ships to North Africa or put them beyond the German's power, did much, therefore, to clear the air. This was followed by a German High Command announcement that as the French naval chiefs at Toulon had "given a solemn declaration that the French warships will defend themselves against any attack from the Anglo-Saxons, the Führer and the Duce have given orders that the military zone of Toulon is not to be occupied by German and Italian troops."

Nevertheless, the Germans lost little time in preparing to seize the French fleet. The Toulon thoroughness of their plan, by which Toulon was cut
off at the critical hour from all communication with the rest of France, was by the irony of fate the cause of the German failure. When, therefore, Marshal Pétain received, in the early hours of November 27, a message from Von Rundstedt ordering the immediate surrender of the fleet, his order to Admiral de Laborderie, the French Naval Commander, to comply with the German demand failed to reach him.

By 10 a.m. some 230,000 tons of naval shipping had been scuttled or destroyed, in accordance with the Admiral's armistice orders. Thus was completed the grimmest as well as the greatest operation of its kind since the scuttling of the German High Seas Fleet at Scapa Flow in 1919. This was indeed a great blow to German hopes, and a sad day for all patriotic Frenchmen as well.

With the announcement by Vichy radio on November 28 that the demobilization of virtually all the French forces remaining under the terms of the Armistice was continuing and that German troops had taken over all important military points in the former unoccupied zone, Marshal Pétain issued an Order of the Day to the French land, naval and air forces:

"You who have joined the army in a spirit of sacrifice are today undergoing a trial which afflicts my soldier's heart. France will always remember your segments which have been torn and your ships which have disappeared. France will never allow your glorious traditions to vanish. Officers, soldiers and sailors—stand beside the man who loved you for what you are. When you salute your flag I request you to keep firm in your hearts the words—Heroism and Homeland. France will not die."

Then came the assassination of Darlan by a young Frenchman at Algiers on December 24, the hasty execution of the assassin on Christmas Day, and the appointment of General Giraud to succeed Darlan as High Commissioner of French North Africa and French West Africa.

During this stormy period of French history, measures designed to restrict the few remaining activities of the Jews were passed in France, together with other measures against saboteurs and "Communists and De Gaullets." Between July 14–16 some 13,000–15,000 Jews of all ages were rounded up in the occupied zone and herded into concentration camps. Scenes of unspeakable brutality were an everyday occurrence in both schools and homes, and public and religious ceremonies were held for the Jews in the occupied zone. By the end of August it was estimated that no less than 30,000 Jews had suffered.

The deep disgust of the French populace was shown by their attempts to alleviate the sufferings of the Jews, despite threats of imprisonment or worse. Many police and other officials refused to carry out their anti-Semitic orders, preferring the risk of arrest. Anti-German and anti-Vichy demonstrations were a daily occurrence.

An appeal for the Jews by the Papal Nuncio, Mgr. Valerio Valori, was rejected by Vichy, as was also a joint protest made to Marshal Pétain by all the Cardinals and Archbishops in the occupied zone in September. Vigorous protests by the French National Committee in London (August 7) and the U.S. State Department (September 4) had no effect. Laval declaring on September 13 that no protests would "prevent the liberation of the country from undesirable elements."

At a Press conference on September 16 Mr. Cordell Hull condemned as "revolting and diabolical" the delivery by Vichy of Jews and others into the hands of a people "who had announced, and in a considerable degree executed, their intention to enslave, maltreat and eventually exterminate them under conditions of the most revolting cruelty."

A similar protest was made by the Canadian Government on September 27. In connection with the numerous acts of sabotage and arrest which played so prominent a part in the daily life of French men and women, it was announced by General Stumppangel on September 18 that 110 "Communist terrorists" had been executed for the killing of a number of German soldiers. Bomb explosions, railway accidents, sabotage and destruction of power stations and military installations, as well as food riots, widespread disturbances and demonstrations were of frequent occurrence, and were followed, as usual, by harsh and severe reprisals.

The end of the year, however, saw new hope born in the hearts of all patriotic French people, a point stressed by Mr. René Massigli, leading French diplomat who escaped from France to join General de Gaulle in January 1943.

Reporting on the situation in France at the end of 1943, he said:

"In all these trials French opinion was optimistic. The news from Russia, Libya and North Africa was like a whiff of oxygen. Nobody doubts victory."

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**WAR LEADERS HONOUR THE FALLEN**

Chapter 259

OCCUPIED EUROPE: CZECHOSLOVAKIA, POLAND, GREECE AND YUGOSLAVIA

Rounding up men and women for slavery in Germany, shooting of hostages, pogroms—these were among the 'blessings' conferred on Axis-occupied Europe by the Nazi New Order. Here is the record of conditions in the occupied countries lying between Baltic and Mediterranean up to the close of 1942; earlier phases were covered in Chapters 137, 139 and 186.

When the year 1941 opened, 21 months had passed since the solemn and spiritless Czech President, Dr. Emil Hacha, had handed over the fortunes of his people to the care of Adolf Hitler, who on March 15, 1939, publicly promised, in gracious return, "to guarantee the Czech people an autonomous development of its national life."

The worthlessness of this typical undertaking was dramatically illustrated on the first day of the year: on January 1, 1941, the Czech crown disappeared as national currency, to be replaced by the German mark under the terms of the Customs and Monetary Union between the Reich and the Protectorate of Bohemia-Moravia, thus destroying the last nominal vestige even of economic autonomy in the former republic of Czechoslovakia.

A year later, on January 19, 1942, the Government of the Protectorate was reorganized in a fashion which abolished the few remaining traces of Czech political autonomy. The offices of Prime Minister, Public Works, Social Welfare and Health were abolished; Dr. Krejci, former Minister of Justice, was appointed to the new position of "Chairman of the Cabinet," and Minister of Justice and Education; Dr. Walter Berthels, a German economics expert, became Minister of Labour and Economics, virtual dictator of Czech economy, and Col. Moravec, a Czech collaborationist, Minister of Popular Culture. German nominees were similarly appointed to the Ministries of Communications and Finance, and to the new Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, which replaced the former Ministries of Industry, Commerce and Trade—a significant transformation.

The framework of the "New Order" in the Protectorate was thus completed, Masters of the sadistic art of rubbing salt into the wound—witness the humiliation of the French at Compiegne in 1940—the Germans picturishly symbolized the thraldom of Czechoslovakia on November 19, 1941, when Hacha surrendered to Heydrich the venerated seven keys of the Crown jewels of the old kingdom of Bohemia, three being returned by Heydrich as token of "loyalty" and four retained by him as "trustees" for Hitler and the Reich.

Reinhard Heydrich, Himmler's second-in-command of the Gestapo, had replaced Baron von Neurath as Reichs-Protector of Bohemia and Moravia on September 28, 1941. He put his experience of the use of terrorism in Norway and the Netherlands into effect immediately, and until his death on June 2, 1942, as the result of shots fired at him by two patriots, Jan Kubis, a Czech, and Josef Gabcik, a Slovak, on May 26, his regime was a melancholy cycle of repression, revolt, and punitive measures.

Up to November 1941, the InterAllied Information Committee in London calculated that Heydrich's summary courts had sentenced 352 Czech
TRIBUTES TO A BOHEMIAN SAINT

As a silent protest against Nazi oppression, the Czechs constantly placed fresh flowers on the monuments to the great men of their past. Here is the hour-glass monument at Prague by St. Wenceslaus (or Václav), the 'Good King Wenceslaus' of the carol. A convert to Christianity, this early Bohemian ruler was renowned for his piety. He was assassinated by his brother on his way to mass in 935, and was later canonized. The anniversary of his death, September 28, is a great festival day in Czechoslovakia.

because, it was said, it had sheltered parachutists who had plotted the attack on Heydrich. The victims numbered about 100.

Unable to break the stubborn resistance of the Czech people, Heydrich's successor, Group-Leader Dalman, formerly chief of the German police, launched a further terrorist drive towards the end of 1942. Among the dead were Jan Sykora, President Masaryk's aide-de-camp in the Czech fight for freedom in the First World War, and Jiri Sedlik, formerly private secretary to President Beneš. The Germans officially admitted 1,940 executions during 1942, but this figure also did not include the Lidice and Lezaky massacres, nor deaths of Jews in concentration camps.

Jewish persecution was unceasing. On October 6, 1941, all synagogues were closed as "centres of mouth to mouth propaganda," and it was made a severely punishable offence for non-Jews to associate with Jews. All Jews in the Protectorate—estimated in 1939 at some 189,000—were in Feb. 1943 ordered to reside in Theresienstadt, a town of 7,000 inhabitants, who were moved elsewhere.

On April 12, 1941, the Germans seized all the premises of the nationwide Solid voluntary gymnastic organization, confiscating its documents and funds and arresting some of its leaders.

This figure, which probably does not err on the side of exaggeration, did not include the victims of two destroyed villages. On June 10, 1942, Prague radio announced that the whole population of Lidice (30 miles west of Prague) some 1,700 to 2,000 in number, had been dispersed, the village razed to the ground, and its name removed from official records. All the men, about 500 in number, mostly farmers in the Kladno coalfield and steel-workers, were shot, their women were taken to concentration camps, and their children to Nazi "educational centres." The reason given was that Lidice had harboured the killers of Heydrich.

On June 25 it was announced that the village of Lezaky, in the Chrudim industrial district some sixty miles east of Prague, had suffered a similar fate.
NAZI WAR ON THE JEWS IN POLAND

Passageways for "Aryans" were shut off down the centre of certain streets in the ghetto of Warsaw. Jews could cross these streets only by using a bridge like the one shown. (Below) Photograph taken from the body of a German officer killed in the Russian front showing a Gestapo raid on the Warsaw ghetto; inhabitants lined up, hands above their heads, while Gestapo agents searched them. Poles escaping from German-occupied Poland reported that anti-Semitism was at an end there—Nazi persecution of the Poles had brought them to sympathize with their even worse persecuted Jewish fellow-citizens.

The agony of Poland reached new depths in the period under survey. The homicidal policy of the Nazis found expression in the Ostmarkscher Beobachter, of Poznan: "We Germans do not admit the right of the Poles to life in any form." (May 1941). In July, Grosz, Gaullester of Warthegau, echoed this: "God has helped us to conquer the Polish nation, which must now be destroyed; no Pole must have the right in future to own any land or house in Poland."

The atrocities that were committed in pursuance of this set policy of extermination both of the Polish people and of Polish culture constitute a recital too long to be fully documented here. A "White Paper" handed to the U.S. State Department by the Polish Ambassador in June 1941 summarized the position in Poland thus: "There is not a single principle of the right of human beings, not a single clause of positive international law, which has not been ground underfoot by the occupying forces."

In November 1941 the Inter-Allied Information Committee estimated that some 82,000 people had been executed during the two years of occupation, not including 30,000 who died in concentration camps. A flagrant case of the Nazis' common practice of killing hostages occurred in May 1941. The Polish film star Igo Syna was shot dead in Warsaw by patriots for serving the Gestapo. Thirty hostages among the best-known Polish actors and other members of the artistic community were arrested and would, announced the Gestapo, be shot after three days if the assassins were not handed over. No one betrayed them, and the sentence was carried out.

The story of the German attempt at the "biological destruction" of the Polish nation was told in a Polish White Book published in the United States in August 1941 and in Britain in January 1942: The German New Order in Poland. It told a documented story of every conceivable kind of brutality, massacre and humiliation, of mass murders and imprisonments, starvation, the destruction of cultural life by the closing of universities and schools, the deliberate debasement of the Polish people to the level of slaves, and mass deportations (estimated at 1,500,000 before the end of 1943).

The climax of horror was reached in the summer of 1942. On October 17, 1940, the Jews of Warsaw, some half-million in number, had been given a week (extended to a month) to move into the ghetto area set apart for them, taking only their personal effects, their other property being confiscated; non-Jews living inside the ghetto area, which was surrounded by a wall in the medieval manner, were ordered to leave it. Entrance and exit were permitted only by the use of a pass, anyone who

SECRET POLISH PAPERS

Below are the headings of a number of sheets printed and circulated secretly in Poland. "To-morrow," "The Signal," "Pinpricks," "Polish Daily," "Army and Independence," "The Struggle," "The Polish Soldier," "The Voice of Poland" are among their names. Reproduced in one issue of "Army and Independence" shown is a photograph of Mr. Churchill on a visit to the Polish army in Scotland.
VICE-ADMIRAL LORD LOUIS MOUNTBATTEN, G.C.V.O., D.S.O., C.C.O.,
WITH HIS STAFF AT COMBINED OPERATIONS HEADQUARTERS

On April 13, 1942, Mr. Churchill announced in the House of Commons that Captain Lord Louis Mountbatten had succeeded Admiral Sir Roger Keyes as Adviser on Combined Operations on October 19, 1941, and had been appointed Chief of Combined Operations (C.O.) on March 18, 1942, with the rank of Vice-Admiral and the honorary rank of Lieutenant-General and Air Marshal. He is seen here at his desk at Combined Operations Headquarters with Major-General J. C. Haydon, D.S.O., O.B.E., and Air Vice-Marshal J.A. Milne-Robbi, C.B., D.S.O., D.F.C.

Early in the Second World War, Lord Louis was a captain in command of a destroyer frigate. He was in the thick of the naval fighting off both Norway and Crete. One destroyer he served in was mined, a second—H.M.S. ‘Kelly’—was torpedoed (see illus., p. 106), but he brought them both back to port. A third was sunk off Crete by dive-bombers. Lord Louis being picked up by another warship. During part of 1941 he commanded H.M.S. ‘Ilium’ (see illus., p. 160).

In his position as head of Combined Operations, he directed a number of daring raids on the coasts of Norway and France (see Chapter 226). In June 1942 he visited Washington for consultations with American Service Chiefs. The big raid on Dieppe of August 19, 1942 (see Chapter 233)—the first object of which was ‘the testing on a larger scale than hitherto of what is known to be a heavily defended section of the coast’—was followed by the successful Allied landings in French North Africa. Lord Louis was appointed Supreme Allied Commander of the newly created South-East Asia Command in August 1943.

Direct colour photograph by Fox Photos.
"CHURCHILLS' ON MANOEUVRES IN BRITAIN

Churchill tanks were first publicly mentioned in July 1941, when the Ministry of Supply announced that they were being mass-produced in British factories, and were 'probably the most formidable fighting instrument possessed by any army in the world.' (see illus., p. 3025). But in its first form the Churchill proved a disappointment—the 2-pounder gun with which it was equipped was altogether inadequate for a tank of its size and weight. An improved model did useful service in the raid on Dieppe, where it was used by the 74th Canadian Army Tank Battalion (see Chapter 245, and illus., p. 2470). Still another type went into action for the first time with good effect in Libya in January 1943 (see illus., p. 736), and later played an important role in the fighting in Tunisia. It weighed 37 tons, was mounted with a 6-pounder gun, could move at 16 m.p.h. over any kind of ground, and was notably manouevrable. Alec Morehead, the war correspondent, describing from the scene of battle the capture of Longstop Ridge on April 26, 1943, said: "Those incredible Churchills! One of them mounted to the ultimate crest of Longstop, a place where you would think hardly a fly could climb. They outclimb any German tank."

Direct socket photograph by Leonard de Varona.
ROYAL MARINES
TRAIN FOR
INVASION

Somewhere on the south coast of England, these Royal Marines practice for landing operations on enemy-held territory. The course they went through was tough, and included exercises in boats and landing-craft, the climbing of rocks and cliffs under fire, and the crossing of streams on ropes. Right, Royal Marines in a dummy landing-craft waiting for the order to go "ashore." Below, scaling the cliffs after "landing" while under fire from live ammunition and exploding ground charges.

Orient colour photographs
by Ben Fiddes
"NO GREAT DEED IS DONE BY FALTERERS WHO ASK FOR CERTAINTY"

These are the badges of twenty-five ships of the Royal Navy—battleships, cruisers, destroyers, and submarines—which were among those lost on war service in the seven seas during the year 1942. Emblems of vessels lost in earlier stages of the war were similarly recorded in the plate facing page 1812.

From material supplied by H.M. Dockyard, Chatham. By permission of H.M. Stationery Office.
left without a pass rendering him liable to the death penalty.

Life in the Warsaw ghetto in the winter of 1940-41 and 1941-42 defies description. The food allowance to each person consisted of little beyond about one pound of bread weekly; in the second winter the death rate, calculated on an annual basis, had risen to 13 per cent (the figure for Warsaw in 1938 was 1.07 per cent).

In March 1943 Himmler, chief of the Gestapo, visited the Government General—the Polish reservation—and is credibly reported to have ordered the extermination of 60 per cent of all the Polish Jews by the end of the year.

Jews Little, relatively, by Nazi standards, was done until he paid a further visit in July. Beginning on July 22, 1942, the ghetto population was rounded up indiscriminately and deported at the rate of 10,000 on the first day, 7,000 on subsequent days. The chairman of the Jewish council of the ghetto, M. Czerniakow, committed suicide when presented with the Nazis’ demands. The wretched people were packed into cattle-trucks—120 to each truck capable of holding 40 in minimum comfort. They were mainly dispatched to three localities—Ternopilka, Belzec and Sobibor, “extermination camps” according to a report handed to all the Allied Governments on December 9, 1942.

Of the 250,000 Jews deported from Warsaw up to September 1, 1942, only two groups, numbering in all some 4,000 people, had been traced as living at the end of 1942.

On December 17, 1942, Mr. Anthony Eden, British Foreign Secretary, told a hushed House of Commons that “reliable reports have recently reached H.M. Government regarding the barbarous and inhuman treatment to which the Jews are being subjected in German-occupied Europe.” He cited the report mentioned above. The whole House later stood in silence as a tribute to the martyred Jews of Europe. British Jewry and Jewish refugees in Britain observed December 13 as a day of prayer and mourning for their persecuted fellows.

The partnership between Germany and Italy was no more more uneasy than in Greece; one political consequence was that each had its own quisling.” As a rival to General Tsolakoglou, put in power by the Germans on April 30, 1941, the Italos backed M. Kotsmann, a politician from Salonika, who became Tsolakoglou’s finance minister.

Tsolakoglou’s position was never secure. In vain he tried to achieve the pacification of Greece in face of its plundering by the conquerors and of steadily deteriorating economic conditions. There were rumors constantly circulating of moves to replace him, and at last he resigned in November 1942 ostensibly on grounds of ill-health. Kotzmann, however, did not succeed him; though backed by the Italians, he was not acceptable to the Germans. Instead, M. Logothetopoulos, a wholehearted admirer of Germany, was appointed Premier. The real power, however, lay with Nerbacher, a former Mayor of Vienna, who at the end of November was sent to Athens by Berlin to take complete control of economic affairs.

They were in a lamentable state. The country that had enjoyed the highest standard of living of all the Balkan states saw its precarious prosperity crumble under Axis occupation. As it had no heavy industry to serve the enemy’s war needs, there was no inducement for the Axis to ensure supplies of food for (to them) useless mouths; on the other hand, by July 1942 some 40,000 labour conscripts had been sent to work in other occupied countries and in Germany.

Security considerations crippled the country’s valuable fishing and mercantile industries; the countrywide
BRITONS WERE STILL FIGHTING IN CRETE IN 1942

Although the Royal Navy evacuated 37,000 men from Crete during June 1, 1941, a number had to be left behind (see Chapter 123). Some of them ended up in the Greek island of Ikaria, which they hoped to use as a base for guerrilla operations. But the Germans launched a successful attack on Ikaria, and the British were forced to retreat.

In the meantime, the Greeks had formed a resistance movement, the National Democratic Greek Army, under the command of General Zervas, claiming to be Republican, and the E.K.K.A., a non-political band, supported by officers, led by Col. Pears.

During most of 1942 the various resistance groups cooperated so well that the enemy was driven out of the country districts and strong opposition centers were established in Western Macedonia, Thessaly, and Aetolia. The Athens-Salonika railway was cut so often as to be rendered strategically useless; the Axis movement of men and supplies was thus seriously handicapped during the North African campaign—no mean contribution by Greece to the cause of the Allied Nations.

Yugoslavia in 1942 presented a tragic picture of a group of peoples who in two decades had made some progress towards forming a nation and who were now not only subjugated by a common enemy but were warring bitterly once more among themselves. The year was primarily significant for the clarification of the conflict between the two guerilla movements: the Chetniks of Mihailovic and the Partisans of "Tito"—a "nom de guerre" which concealed the personalities of several leaders, but which was finally attributed to one Josip Broz, a 53-year-old Croat from near Zagreb.

Underlying the feud was the traditional antagonism between Serbs and Croats—Mihailovic may be called an impassioned Serb; but with Germany's attack on Russia a new political element was added: Mihailovic was regarded as representing the ancient régime by the Tito Partisans, who not only drew inspiration and material aid from Russia but had their communiqués incorporated in their own documents.

In the summer of 1941 Mihailovic accused the Partisans of attacking the Chetniks, and repeatedly urged the Yugoslav Government in London to intervene with the Soviet Government to end those attacks. After more fighting, the Soviet Government in August
1942 charged the Chetniks with attacking the Partisans. Evil blood continued, but not until just after the period under review—in the spring of 1943—did the Chetnik-Partisan conflict reach its bloodiest height, when the Partisans, driven south-eastward by the Germans, reached territory occupied by Mihailovitch's forces.

Mihailovitch, with remnants of the old Yugoslav Army, was the first to offer resistance to the invader, withstandings two mighty German drives before the Partisans started operating; but by April 1942 resistance in Serbia and Eastern Bosnia had been suppressed. From that time most of the fighting was carried on by the Partisans, Montenegro, becoming the main area of activity, which, however, during the early summer shifted to north-west Bosnia, where Prijedor was captured by the Partisans in May. South-west Bosnia and Serb, south-west of Novi Sad, were areas of battle in July. In August the Italians were reported to have eastern Herzegovina under control, while guerrilla activity continued in Slovenia. About this time fighting was also reported from north and west Croatia, north-east Bosnia, south-west of Sarajevo, and on the River Drina. In December Partisans organized in divisions were active in the area round Prijedor, Rihac, and Djece, south of Banja Luka, in north-west Bosnia.

Politically, the most interesting developments were in 'independent' Croatia (see map, p. 1876), largest of the sections of Axis-occupied Government in Yugoslavia. The appointment of the Italian-supported Croat terrorist, Pavlicich, as leader of the Government, and the proclamation on May 18, 1941, of the Duke of Spoleto (brother of the Duke of Aosta) as king, implied that Croatia was out of all theory within the Italian orbit.

However, Croatia occupied a nut-in-a-cracker position between the two German-controlled areas: north Slovenia, and Serbia plus the Banat, and throughout the war Italian war leaders were being successfully undermined by the Germans. German moves which illustrated this trend were the purge of leaders of the state party, the Ustasha (fostered by Italy and Hungary) under the orders of the German military chief in Zagreb.

General Gluse-Horstenau: the establishment of communications through guerrilla activities, that it was even suggested in the summer of 1943 that extra food should be supplied to Government workers rather than wage-increases of no practical value. By the end of the year Germany had to divert emergency supplies to Croatia, admitting thus that the state had become a liability.

German policy in Serbia and the adjacent Balkan, characterized by the familiar oppression and exploitation, was hampered by the country's paralyzing economic situation. Shortage of coal stopped the factories in January. Food production lagged behind needs. Despite the announcement of a program of intensified agricultural effort, with compulsory labour, in February, and a further drive in the autumn, grain had to be sent to Serbia from the fertile Banat in the spring of 1943. Order was maintained only by extreme repression; the Yugoslav Government in London announced that in 1942 in Belgrade alone 50,000 people were shot. For every German killed, 100 Serbs were executed; for every German wounded, 50 Serbs paid a similar penalty.

The year in Italian-controlled Montenegro was marked by relentless conflict with the partisans and the continued draining of the resources of what had always been a poor and unproductive part of Yugoslavia. Italian-controlled Slovenia, too, was the scene of so much subversive activity that the hostage system was introduced in April. Later compulsory labour was enforced and some 130,000 of the population sent to Italy. Italian-controlled Dalmatia, under its Governor, Bardanini, was by 1942 completely Italianized.

The Bulgarian pogrom of the Serbs of Macedonia continued: out of 25,000 Serbs formerly in Skopje, for example, only some 1,000-2,000 remained by February 1942. Hungarian rule in the Bačka and Banat areas, west of the Banat, tended to be moderate after the initial repression following the invasion, but in June 1942 there was a massacre of Serbs in consequence of a nationalist rising in Zabój.

In 1943, in short, the obliteration by Axis forces of the Serb-Croat-Slovene experiment in mutual tolerance and unity of nationhood continued.
POLISH AIRMEN IN BRITAIN

After the conquest of Poland, a Polish Air Force was formed in France, and following the defeat of France it was reformed in Britain, where Polish pilots fought in the Battle of Britain, winning high honours (see illus., p. 126). By the end of 1942 Polish airmen, operating from Britain, had destroyed 500 enemy aircraft; in June 3,000 raids had dropped more than 9,000 tons of bombs, and had damaged 100 aircraft in two 1,000-bomber raids.


2. Polish air crew entering a Wellington; note the red and white chequered national marking. (See also plate facing p. 173.)

3. Warsaw’s Gift to Berlin: ground staff inspects a bomb going to Germany.

4. Polish pilots with Fighter Command receive final instructions.

Photos: British official: Polish Govt.
Chapter 260
FREE POLAND, CZECHOSLOVAKIA,
GREECE AND YUGOSLAVIA

Practical contributions of considerable value to the Allied cause were made by
the exiled Governments of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Greece, and Yugoslavia—
among them in particular hundreds of thousands of fighting men of fine calibre
and determined purpose. These Governments also established useful contacts
among themselves which gave promise of friendly relations between their
countries after the war. Earlier developments in the history of the Czech and
Polish Governments were covered in Chapter 121.

Though, naturally, the main pre-
occupation of the London Govern-
ments of Poland, Czechoslovakia,
Greece and Yugoslavia was the plight
of their Axis-occupied countries (see
Chapter 259), they had two other major
problems to demand their attention.
The first was the solid establishment

agreement reached between the two
Governments in London during Novem-
ber 1940 to co-operate in the post-war
reconstruction of Eastern and Central
Europe. Poland's view on this issue
was stated by her Premier and C-in-C,
General Sikorski, in New York in May,
when he advocated a post-war confed-
federation of Slavonic states extending
from the Baltic to the Black Sea.

A great step forward to the realisation
of such a plan was the signing on July 30
of a Russo-Polish Agreement which
recognised that the Soviet-German
Treaty of 1939 as to territorial changes
in Poland had lost their validity, provided
for the immediate resumption of
Russo-Polish diplomatic relations, and
arranged for the formation on Russian
territory of a Polish army under a Polish
commander. Under a protocol to this
agreement, the Soviet Government
granted an amnesty to all Polish citizens
detained in the U.S.S.R., either as
prisoners of war or on other grounds.

Mr. Churchill declared that this pact,
negotiated by Mr. Molotov and General
Sikorski, marked "the association of
two historic nations of Eastern Europe
in the defence of human rights." A fortnight
later, the release of all
Polish nationals and the formation of a
Polish army—originally to be two
divisions, later expanded to six divisions
—were announced in Moscow. Prof.
Sikorski, Minister for Home Affairs under
Sikorski, arrived in Moscow as
Polish Ambassador on September 4.
One of the most difficult of inter-Allied
problems—Russo-Polish accord—seemed
healthily on the way to solution.

CZECH A.A. GUN CREW
Czechoslovak refugees stranded at Haifa in
1936 passed into Palestine, where they were
formed into an infantry battalion which saw
service in Syria, and later in the Western
Desert, where they helped to man the anti-
aircraft defences during the long siege of
Tobruk in 1941.

Photo: British Official: Crown Copyright

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN RUSSIA AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Germany's attack on Russia in June 1941 was followed by the signing in London on July 18
of an agreement between the U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovakia arranging for the exchange of
Ministers, mutual aid in the war against Germany, and the formation of Czech military units
on Russian soil. Here is M. Ivan Malicky, Soviet Ambassador to the Court of St. James's,
signing the document, watched by Dr. Jan Masaryk, Czechoslovak Foreign Minister, who signed
on behalf of his government.

Photo: F.S.A.
But there were Polish dissentients. Three members of the Cabinet resigned following the agreement. Count Edward Raczyński, Polish Ambassador to the Court of St. James's, became Acting Foreign Minister, and a little later the Cabinet was completed by the very significant addition of M. Stanisław Mikolajczyk, chairman of the Polish Peasant Party, as Deputy-Premier and Minister for Home Affairs; Dr. Herman Lieberman, leader of the Polish Socialist Party, as Minister of Justice; and M. Karel Popil, chairman of the Polish National Labour Party, as Minister without Portfolio.

Early in December Sikorski proceeded to Moscow, where on December 5 he signed the Russo-Polish pact of collaboration declaring that "the two States, at the side of Great Britain and the other Allies, and with the support of the U.S.A., will fight the war until final victory and the destruction of the German invaders," and looking forward to a relationship between them in time of peace "based on friendship and the loyal fulfilment of contractual engagements by both parties." On the last day of the month it was announced that the Soviet Government had made a loan of 100,000,000 rubles to Poland for the relief of Polish citizens on Soviet territory. Back in London, Sikorski revealed that Stalin had given him an assurance, as Britain had already done, that he believed a strong Poland to be an essential part of the new Europe.

Further Cabinet changes which, it was claimed, made the executive once again a Government of National Unity, were announced on January 22, 1942: one notable appointment was that of M. Wachowski Komorowicz, an authority on international law and a member of the National Democratic Party, just returned from Russia, to be Minister of Justice.

The exiled Polish and Czechoslovak Governments had issued on November 11, 1940, a joint declaration affirming the intention of their countries to collaborate closely after the war in a Declaration of foreign, economic, and military affairs, and expressing the hope that other nations in the region would join the confederation on a basis of freedom and equality. In January 1942 the movement towards
POLISH DESTROYERS ON ACTIVE SERVICE

Right, the 'Brama' standing by to take all the crew of the U.S. Coastguard cutter 'Campbell,' disabled in sinking a U-boat. Below, gunners of the 'Brama,' presented by Britain to replace the 'Grend,' last May 1942. Below right, on board O.R.P. 'Garland': aimed at for attack, they maintained persistent and effective A.A. fire from enemy planes during a running five-day action on convoy to Russia in May 1942; a number of her crew were killed or wounded, but she fought through.


Federal organization among the smaller states of Europe made further promising advances; on the 15th the exiled Greek and Yugoslav Governments signed a pact in the presence of Mr. Eden, British Foreign Secretary, containing detailed plans for the post-war federation of their countries after the war. On the 23rd the Polish and Czechoslovak Governments implemented their 1940 declaration by an agreement setting out the basis of their proposed federation, and inviting the entry into it of neighbouring states.

The Czechoslovak and Polish Governments used this occasion to congratulate Greece and Yugoslavia and to declare that only the co-operation of the two proposed federations could ensure security and prosperity in that area of Europe between the Baltic and Aegean seas; thus supporting similar sentiments expressed a few days earlier by King Peter of Yugoslavia.

During March 1943, General Sikorski followed his visit to Russia by a conversation with members of the British Government, including Mr. Churchill himself, and visits to Canada and Washington, where he saw Mr. Roosevelt. Following these contacts, Sikorski stated that there had been "perfect harmony on all matters pertaining not only to the war but to Poland itself." He also stressed the importance for his country of good relations with the U.S.S.R.—a subject to which he returned in November after another visit to Mr. Roosevelt, when he declared in Detroit, "Being a realist I am of the opinion that Poland should seek an understanding with her eastern neighbour." He made a special point of expressing Poland's pleasure at the conclusion of the Anglo-Soviet Treaty of May 29, 1942 (see Historic Document CCXLIX, p. 2107). Only by such a firm alliance was public indication given of the strain latent in Russo-Polish relations.

The drawing together of the Czechoslovak and Soviet Governments was evident from an agreement signed in London on July 19, 1941, providing for the immediate exchange of Ministers, mutual aid in the war against Germany.
and the raising of Czechoslovak units under their own commanders on Russian soil. The third of these points was reaffirmed under a military agreement signed in Moscow on September 30.

The Czechoslovak Government in London was accorded full recognition by the British Government on July 18; and by the United States on July 31.

Just a year later the text of a note exchanged between Mr. Eden and Dr. Masaryk was published as a British Government White Paper: they agreed that the final post-war settlement of the Czechoslovak frontier should not be influenced by any changes effected in and since 1938. On August 8 Dr. Beneš announced in a broadcast that the Soviet Government had officially recognized Czechoslovakia's pre-Manich frontier; and the French National Committee

issued a declaration in a similar sense on September 29. Manich was dead.

As might have been expected from one of the founders of Czechoslovakia and the pupil of President Masaryk, Dr. Beneš on many occasions publicly pronounced suggestions for a stable post-war Europe. Notably, speaking at Aberdeen on November 10, 1942, he outlined the most comprehensive plan till then proposed by any statesman. He gave as fundamental European peace principles: (1) Western Europe: a close alliance between Britain, France, Holland, and Belgium; (2) Germany: to be a decentralized confederation excluding Prussia, which might require to be broken up into three or four separate states; a return to the 1938 frontiers with such modifications as general security might demand and with all
deductions of territory to be compensated by allocations of Colonial territory; (3) Italy: certainly to be shown how ill-gotten gains in the Mediterranean and Africa; (4) Central Europe: the nucleus to be a close Czechoslovak-Polish federation, to which Austria, Hungary, and perhaps Rumania, would be invited to adhere; Hungary to surrender territories given her by Germany; (5) Balkans: a similar federation of Yugoslavia, Greece, and Albania, and perhaps Rumania; Turkey would be invited and Bulgaria compelled to join; (6) Soviet Union: Russian participation in the reconstruction of Europe was essential, as was Russian collaboration with the proposed new federations; (7) Scandinavia: a federation of the states in accord with both Britain and Russia; (8) South-western Europe: Spain and Portugal to decide their future for themselves. President Beneš declared that Czechoslovakia would accept any limitations of her sovereignty that were accepted also by other nations of theirs.

In October 1941 changes were made in the Czechoslovak State Council to afford representation to Sudeten Germans and Communists; and early in the New Year it was enlarged to admit a Czech labour leader, Dr. Vrbenský, and M. Vacek Pascual. On December 23, 1942, the State Council prolonged Beneš's term of office as President in view of the impossibility of holding presidential elections.

In March 1942 the Government issued a decree to prevent transfers of Czechoslovak property to Germans and their subsequent sale in other countries (e.g. Sweden and Switzerland); on June 17 they announced that arrangements were well in hand for the trial and punishment of war criminals; on June 29, following the assassination of Heydrich (see Chapter 259), Dr. Riplka, Czechoslovak Minister of State in London, warned all "that whoever defies himself by collaboration with the murderous enemy will not escape punishment."

Mr. Eden, on behalf of Great Britain, and M. Tsouderos, on behalf of the Hellenic Government, signed an agreement on March 9, 1942, affirming the intention of their Governments to collaborate for victory and for the liberation of Greece: agreeing on the principles which should govern the organization and use of the Greek armed forces; and providing for the supply of necessary

GREECE
WITH THE CZECH TROOPS IN RUSSIA

Patriotic Czechs began to escape from their country after Munich. Many fought with the Poles when Poland was invaded, and other hundreds escaped into Russia and joined compatriots already there. Following the agreement made in London in July 1941, a Czech brigade was formed in Russia. Clothed and equipped by Britain, it fought under its own leaders collaborating with the Russian High Command.

1. Colonel Ludovik Seboda, commander of the Czechoslovak Brigade in Russia.
2. Czech tank crewmen pursuing the enemy during the liberation of a Russian village.
3. Captain Boguník, second-in-command, receives reports in the field.
4. The standard of the Brigade.

Photos, Fournier Fracq
KING AND PRESIDENT RELAX

Eighteen-year-old King Peter of Yugoslavia and President Roosevelt in happy mood during the conference held in welcome the young king when he visited the White House at Washington in June 1942. While there he addressed a joint meeting of the Senate and the House of Representatives, and afterwards went on to Canada.

Photo, Apert de General

Equipment by Britain on a lease-land basis.

May 1942 saw the elevation of the British Ministers to the Helenes, Yugoslav, and Czechoslovak Governments to Ambassadorial status—a status also accorded to their representatives at the Court of St. James's.

In June King George of the Helenes, accompanied by his Prime Minister, M. Tsouderos, arrived in Washington on a state visit, staying as the guest of President Roosevelt. He addressed a joint session of Congress—the first monarch to do so since King Albert of the Belgians addressed Senate and Representatives in 1919. He also spoke to the Greek War Relief Society in New York of the memory of Greece. On October 30 Mr. Dresk Babbe presented letters of credence to King George in London as first U.S. Ambassador to Greece, while simultaneously the Helenic Minister in Washington assumed Ambassatorial rank.

Throughout the year the Helenic Government was preoccupied with the plight of the starving Greek people. An early disaster was the loss of the Turkish Relief ship "Kurtalina," chartered in October 1941 to make 10 fortnightly voyages carrying a total of 50,000 tons of vital foodstuffs; she founded in the Sea of Marmora on January 30, 1942, becoming a total loss. The Turkish steamship "Dumlupinar" was chartered to replace her. It was officially estimated that food sent by Turkey fed 300,000 people daily. In this work of bringing relief to Greece the Greek Government enjoyed the collaboration of the British, U.S., Turkish, Argentine, and Swiss Governments, and the International Red Cross.

In a re-shuffle of the Yugoslav Cabinet in London, announced on January 12, General Draja Mihailovitch, leader of the Chetnik guerilla bands in Yugoslavia (see Chapter 259), was appointed Minister of War.

In June King Peter, accompanied by his Premier and Foreign Minister, Dr. Kintekitch, followed King George of the Helenes as a guest of President Roosevelt at the White House. He also addressed a joint session of Congress, pledging his country to adherence to the principles of the Atlantic Charter and the Four Freedoms. He went on to visit Canada, where in an interview with Canadian Members of Parliament he stated that 100,000 patriot troops were fighting in Yugoslavia, that he was in regular communication with General Mihailovitch, that a Yugoslav submarine and two patrol vessels were operating in the Mediterranean, and that a small Yugoslav air force was stationed in Africa. On September 2 his Government announced that by agreement with the U.S. and Soviet Governments the Yugoslav

YUGOSLAVIA

 skies were declared the "Seabase of the Atlantic." It was announced that the Yugoslav Government would assume Ambassatorial rank in London, where the Yugoslav Mihailovitch was appointed Minister of War.

GREEK FORCES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

A fighter pilot of the Royal Hellenic Air Force stationed in the Middle East. Left, a detachment of Greek troops in the Western Desert, passing a bullet-riddled Greek dugout during the stubborn fighting in Greece that

A Greek army, made up of men who escaped from Axis-occupied Greece, and of Greeks resident in the Middle East, underwent training in the use of the latest weapons in Palestine, and afterwards did service and valiant service in the Western Desert.

Legations in Washington and Moscow would be raised to Ambassorial status, and that the U.S. and Soviet envoys to the Yugoslav Government would assume Ambassorial rank.

2999
RECORD AND REVIEW OF MAIN EVENTS
JULY TO DECEMBER, 1942

A survey of the first six months of 1942 is given in Chapter 238, of the year 1941 in Chapter 239, and of the year 1940 in Chapter 151. This review covers the second half of 1942, when events began to move rapidly again—but with the Allies now on the offensive. Dates have been collated with the Chronology published by the Royal Institute of International Affairs.

Chapter 281

Greece indicated the war situation of the United Nations as the second half of 1942 opened. The German offensive in Libya, in a few weeks, had reversed the fortunes of war in that vital theatre of operations. Teheran had fallen, and Memel Matriu; the Eighth Army stood now along the El Alamein line, facing Rommel's Afrika Korps. The enemy was flushed with victory, all eager for the 90-mile dash to Alexandria. In Russia the German advance held, and the key to Stalingrad was still elusive. Britain was now sending the rest of the 14th Army to reinforce Rommel in Libya.

The Eighth Army's losses in Libya had amounted to 80,000. But the crisis and sombre aspect of the war at this stage somewhat hallowed the raid position, for already the weapons of victory had been forged; and plans had been concocted by the Allies for brilliant and co-ordinated enterprises which were soon to cross the life of time, and which, from 9th to 28th September, were to prove a signal for the triumph of democracy.

In consequence the German advance threatened the Caspian ports and the oilfields. Cairo and Alexandria were in immediate danger. But the crisis passed and the enemy drive was checked. A counter-attack was made on July 1, and after another 36 hours of fierce fighting, the enemy was driven to a halt.

Two weeks later, General Montgomery had added Corunca on the plateau to El Alamein. The Roman /German offensive had been checked, and the enemy's losses had been so severe that he was forced to withdraw. The Battle of El Alamein had saved the River Nile, the Suez Canal, and the Middle East. The Allied forces had now occupied the strategic position which had been lost to them in the fall of 1940.

Allied Plan of Recuperation

In his review of the war given to the House of Commons on November 11, 1942, Mr. Churchill told numbers of decisions taken in conference and he announced their imminent implementation. He said that the British Army was now in a position to make a determined attack on the enemy's lines, and that the only question was whether this attack would be made now or at a later date.

Eighth Army Drives Westward

Tunis El Alamein line extended, the enemy was pushed back 50 miles. The Eighth Army, now under General M. Montgomery, had achieved a great victory, and the allied forces were now in a position to begin the advance towards Tunis.

The British Army had been reinforced by the American 1st Army, which had been sent to join the Eighth Army in Tunisia. The Allied forces had now occupied the strategic position which had been lost to them in the fall of 1940.

North African Invasion

The American and British forces which landed in Algeria and Morocco early on the morning of November 8, 1942, were under the supreme command of Lieut.-General Dwight D. Eisenhower, who had been chosen from among the Allied forces for the invasion of North Africa. The invasion was a landing on the coast of Morocco, which was followed by a landing on the coast of Algeria, and the capture of Bizerte, Oran, and Constantine. The invasion was a success, and the Allied forces were now in a position to begin the advance towards Tunis.

French opposition to the Allied landings on November 8 varied in strength and extent. In Algiers, the French forces were strengthened by the presence of the French Army, which had been sent to the African coast to support the Allies. In Morocco, the French forces were weaker, and the Allied forces were able to land without much opposition. In Tunisia, the French forces were stronger, and the Allies had to fight a fierce battle to capture the city.

The invasion of North Africa was a great victory for the Allies, and it marked the beginning of the end of the Axis powers in the Mediterranean. The Allies were now in a position to begin the advance towards Italy, and to victory in the Allied theatre of operations.
Algeria and French Morocco soon died down, but the struggle continued in the hills east of Dakhla, which seemed to be in Algiers at the time. On November 11 he ordered all French troops to cease fire, and himself assumed authority in North Africa, in the name of Marshal Pétain. His assumption was in response to the demand of the French fleet at Toulon, asking them to bring their ships to Algiers. Meanwhile, Pétain, disavowing the order of the French High Command, also ordered French forces in Tunisia to make a public declaration against General Henri-Honoré Giraud, who, after a secret journey in a submarine, had reached Algiers a short time before the Anglo-American forces landed.

Some months earlier preparations had been made for the campaign. A small number of American and British officers at whose hand was ultramontane—by the time Clark had made their way by night to Algiers, where they landed from a submarine commanded by Lieutenant N. L. A. Jowell—also commander of the submarine that picked up Giraud, for a secret conference with French officers in touch with Giraud and antagonistic to the Germans.

After consolidation of the Allied forces at an advanced base in the Tunisian desert. But the invasion force was small and lacked transport; communications were poor. Meanwhile, German armour had been held in reserve for several weeks, and while the Axis troops were steadily reaching Bizerta and Tunis by air until a strong enemy force had been built up. The first clash came at a point roughly midway between Bizerta and Tunis, southeast of Kasserine. The French troops took Moglen-el-Bah and reached the outskirts of Tabarka on November 27, where a heavy counter-attack was made by German and Italian troops directed to Piedmont, but was held in check.

In the air the struggle was heavily favored by good airfields near at hand in Sicily and in Tunis itself. On the 26th, the Allied bombers became more active; Tabarka had to be evacuated (December 5). It was clear that the Axis forces were too strong to be defeated by the methods used so far by the Allied air forces. No stronger, in order to build up a more methodical campaign—communications improved, better and more adequate supplies prepared, and transport arrangements made adequate. Moglen-el-Bah was taken on December 25, renewed assailed by the French and American troops regained the hilltop which became known as "Longueville," but it was taken and repelled on December 26.

Up to Christmas Day we had destroyed 377 enemy aircraft, 129 shot down by the R.A.F.; 106 by the U.S.A.A.F., 18 by the A.A. guns, and 21 at night. Allied losses for the same period were 154.

German Reaction to North African Blows

As contact with the Eighth Army moved forward, the Germans had lost 75,000 men by casualties or captured, including 13,000 prisoners (November 15). German junior tactics had been exploited by the expansion of the Eighth Army on the east of Egypt, so that hope of a success in the Caucasus, which at one time seemed likely, was now a doubt. Operations in the Western Desert, and the successful retreat at El Alamein, showed the value of the air forces operations. The German high command had to take drastic measures to contain the advance of the Eighth Army. The Italian coast, and to the north of it, the French fleet, and to the south of it, the German forces were threatened by the advance of the British and American forces in North Africa.

Cover for North Afrinian Landings

During these weeks, aircraft of the Eighth Army, over 30,000 more than a million miles to support our forces, and the submarines, and aerial auxiliary that might have attacked our transports on route to North Africa. An armed force of United States Army Air Force bombers attacked the Suez, where our enemies had landed. On November 27, about 14 million, German aircraft landed the port of Tunis and bombèed some of the French forts. German tanks and infantry overran the docks and seized the port of Tunis, but the Allies were ready for such an attack, and on the order of Admiral de Labouchère and until the warships were scattered—some even until their guns were firing to hold off the German until sailing was completed. The old battleship "Pomone," and the new ones: "Strasbourg," and "Dunkerque," four heavy cruisers and three light, a score of destroyers and four submarines were irreparably destroyed, or damaged so much as to be put out of the war. The new battleship "Jean Bart," had been bombèd, set on fire, and sunk. The German attack on Oran, November 9, 1942.

Air Tacties, Mediterranean and North Africa

The spectacular successes of the Desert Army in Libya were in a remarkable measure to the close collaboration of the Allied Air Force. Tactical and strategic forces were under separate commanders—Vansittart, respectively, with Air Chief Marshal Tedder as Air C-in-C. A tightly knit organization made the air arm directly available to the C-in-C Middle East (General H. H. L. G. Lochnand), which I consider a significant step. It became for the first time as an "army of the air," functioning in harmony with the requirements of the land force commanders, with the British troops meeting a less formidable enemy than a less formidable enemy. Our air power was increased over the North African front, the enemy air base was destroyed, and the enemy bomber was unable to continue the offensive. Allied was at El Alamein (November 26, and from Tunis to El Alamein), that our submarines were able to stay over the battle area as long as a few days, and did not return, bringing fresh supplies to the battlefield, in order to assist the Germans. Allied was at El Alamein (November 26, and from Tunis to El Alamein), that our submarines were able to stay over the battle area as long as a few days, and did not return, bringing fresh supplies to the battlefield, in order to assist the Germans.

After the Allied forces had encircled the German forces, the Allied air forces supported the ground forces by means of tactical air strikes and strategic air strikes. The Allied air forces were able to support the ground forces by means of tactical air strikes and strategic air strikes. The Allied air forces were able to support the ground forces by means of tactical air strikes and strategic air strikes.

Russian Arm of the Pincers

The end of December, while it saw the offensive in North Africa, the United States', and the British, offensive in the Mediterranean. The German forces in Russia were breaking through the Russian line of defense at Kursk. At the beginning of July, the German forces in North Africa were beginning to advance, and the Allies were able to capture Tunis, which remained in Russian hands after a fierce battle lasting three weeks, and Cassino on March 17, 1944. The Soviet forces met the German forces at the lower Don and Hunter, and that important turn and all other forces were on the right flank of the Don had been established by the end of July. Everywhere below Verinno the enemy attacked, and the Soviet forces were able to capture Tunis, which remained in Russian hands after a fierce battle lasting three weeks, and Cassino on March 17, 1944.
Stalingrad. A wide enemy buildup had been established on the east bank at Rostov. Soviet forces had evacuated Stalingrad on July 1 (see Chapter 237 for an account of the final battles there). The fall of the great Crimetea Foree to the north, and the German forces to take part in the drive to the Caucasus, followed the loss of Protrazyanka (where the Stalingrad-Krasnodar railway crosses the Don) to the German 14th Army on the west bank, and Balaclav, opposite Rostov, Marshal Turochenko withdrew his army to the Caucasus foothills and the region near the Don. The German plans then developed—towards Krasnodar from Balaclav, and against the oil center of Maikop, by way of Armavir (see relief map in p. 2412). The first of these two objectives was achieved on August 7, and though fighting still went on in that region, the Germans were outside Krasnodar by the 11th; after destroying the oil refineries there Soviet troops evacuated the city on August 18. Maikop had been evacuated three days earlier, but here again the oil installations were first destroyed, much of the equipment being got away to Turgut and the oil center on the coast of the Black Sea.

From Krasnodar the enemy pushed on towards Novorossiisk, nearing the lower reaches of the Terek where the Russians had gone after the battle of Lake Tchernaya on September 5, and claiming to have entered Novorossiisk on September 8; the Russians announced evacuation of the town on the 11th. In mid-October the German forces attacked Turgut from Novorossiisk and Maikop, but without success.

A German drive along the Rostov-Tuapse railway had reached Minervaeidhow 6 by the middle of September, the enemy having no reinforcements sent by land. In fact, the speed of the drive was due largely to the fact that the enemy made frequent and desperate attempts to cross the Terek river at Minervaeidhow. But they failed, and in the middle of October the Germans were able to advance to the vicinity of Novorossiisk and Maikop, not by land, but by water. In October the enemy command seems to have diverted forces from the Stalingrad area to quell the attempted uprising of the Caucasus in the Don, and thus the attack was repeated against the Terek river at Minervaeidhow. The Germans were met by the enemy and defeated, and the Terek river once again became a barrier to the advance of the German forces.

Seige of Stalingrad

The German offensive to the east of Stalingrad was a failure. The Don, the main focus of German efforts, has been bypassed by the Red Army forces. The German forces have been unable to break through the Terek river at Minervaeidhow, and the Russian forces have been able to retreat to the safety of their own territory.

Air War Over Western Europe

The forces of the United Nations in Africa were gathering strength. For the crossing they blew up the only bridge across the Volga near Mahilow. The Germans were forced to use the bridging pontoons. The British and American bomber Commandos, aided by the R.A.F. fighter Commandos, carried out the heavy bombing of the airfields, the German airbase at Mahilow, and the industrial area of the city.

The German forces in the east of the country were severely weakened. The German offensive in the spring was met with a counter-offensive by the Red Army, which inflicted heavy casualties on the Axis forces. The German forces were driven back to their own territory, and the German offensive was ended.

Stalingrad's Defenders Take the Offensive

The Russian forces north of Stalingrad between the Don and Volga had been successively attacked by the Germans. The losses of the Red Army were heavy, but the German forces were unable to break through the lines of defense. The German forces were forced to use the bridging pontoons, and the Russian forces were able to retreat to the safety of their own territory.

On November 20, the Russian forces announced their successful advance across the Don, and the capture of the bridgehead on the Don. The German forces were forced to retreat to the safety of their own territory, and the German offensive was ended.

The second phase of the offensive was begun with the capture of the Don on a wide front at the site of Bosphorus (November 13). On November 18, this Soviet army joined up with Rokossovsky's 62nd Army on the southern outskirts of Stalingrad, and the demoralized German forces were forced to retreat to the safety of their own territory.
Six Months of the War at Sea

On the evening of the 19th, Dönitz sailed for Kiel. On August 30, 1937, the German navy took the offensive. The enemy was faced with a series of attacks.

The U-Boat, commanded by Captain H. L. Barnett, was attacked by enemy aircraft and "wolf pack" submarines; the attack continued until the convoy made its rendezvous point. Losses were severe, but the bulk of the ships got through. The escort that took over a homeward-bound convoy and ran the gauntlet, once again, faced the destroyer "Blücher", which had been damaged and had to be sunk.

On September 11, a large convoy under Admiral E. K. Bödicker was attacked by an escort under Admiral H. W. Barnett. The convoy was attacked by enemy aircraft and "wolf pack" submarines; the attack continued until the convoy made its rendezvous point. Losses were severe, but the bulk of the ships got through. The escort that took over a homeward-bound convoy and ran the gauntlet, once again, faced the destroyer "Blücher", which had been damaged and had to be sunk.

The Norwegian losses required the use of 500 transports and an escort of 250 warships of the three separate forces engaged—100 British, 40 American, and 110 from the U.S.A., all the other two—100 British and 40 American, sailed from Britain. Admiral Sir Andrew Cunningham was in command of the British force. He was successful in destroying the German battleship "Bismarck".

The British destroyer "Aceakers" was sunk, but the convoy got through unscathed. The British lost 250 ships in the operation, but the convoy got through unscathed. The British lost 250 ships in the operation, but the convoy got through unscathed.

Among Allied losses in addition to the British, the Dutch destroyer "IJsbrand" and the Dutch cruiser "De Ruyter" were sunk.

The United States Navy lost 500 ships in the operation, but the convoy got through unscathed. The United States Navy lost 500 ships in the operation, but the convoy got through unscathed.

The destruction of the "Bismarck" was a great victory for the Allies.

Malta, Tobruk, and Madagascar

The plight of Malta—key position in the Mediterranean and the Mediterranean was the key to the Mediterranean. The German Navy blockade of the Mediterranean was necessary to cut off supplies to the Allies. The German Navy blockade of the Mediterranean was necessary to cut off supplies to the Allies.

On August 10, 1940, the British blockade of the Mediterranean was lifted. The British blockade of the Mediterranean was lifted. The blockade was lifted at 11 A.M. on August 10, 1940, and the Allied forces met the blockade at 11 A.M.

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The Allied forces met the blockade at 11 A.M.
to assume the continuance of Malta's defense; H.M. cruiser "Cairo," and the destroyer "Firesight" were so badly mangled that they had to be abandoned. For the loss of the American tanker "Ohio," which brought high-octane motor spirit badly needed for Malta's aircraft, see p. 2388. Other convoys reached Malta later in the year and made the island safe for a long period.

On September 13 a big Commando raid was launched against Tobruk with the object of seizing the port as an enemy supply base; a bitterly contested battle ensued and the planned landing place could not be reached (see p. 2388). H.M. destroyers "Zulu" and "Sikh" were lost.

The vital port of Madagaskar, where further operations to control the island were undertaken in September 1942; Mayotte Island, the Mozambique Channel, had been occupied by British Commandos on July 9, as a measure to safeguard Allied couragous passing through as route to Persia and the Middle East; widespread landings were made on the west coast of Madagaskar on September 10 by British, South African and East African troops under Gen. Sir W. Platt. Majunga and Morondava were occupied, and our columns advanced inland from the latter place towards the cities of Antananarivo and Toamasina. At Antsibidy a junction was effected with the force landed by the Free French from the south. Many troops moved on to Majunga, but, in an advance towards the capital, Tananarive, and secured the heights over the low-lying coast. Komoro and Toamasina fell on September 15, and two days later the French Governor, M. Azn on, opened negotiations for an armistice, which was signed on November 5. Meanwhile, heavy Battles for Madagaskar continued at Ivato, a well-walled coastal town, 11,000 strong, deserted in the face of the British attack. Attempts were made to land a force at Morondava from the west coast, but were cut off by the Japanese in the Mananara area. The island was declared to be seised on December 26, 1942.

The War Against Japan

Pallad will add the reader in feeling the course of events over the wide area of conflict with Japan if he refers to the map in P. 2371. The Japanese launched a furious attack on the Americans in June, occupying Attu, Kiska and Attu. On August 6, U.S. warships bombarded Kiska, and next day the island was abandoned by the Japanese. By September, column, landing on Attu, Kiska several times during September, and U.S. forces landed on islands of the Aleutian group of the Americans, settling up on an air base from which to launch aircraft against Kiska and Attu. These raids became of almost daily frequency in October, and early that month another airfield on the Aleutian islands was seized by U.S. forces.

Struggle for Guadalcanal

A new offensive against the Japanese-held islands began on November 1; 7, when a U.S. Marine division and shock troops entered Tulagi, and two other small islands; they were given a battlefield on November 12. The Japanese seared in an overwhelming force, but the American position was secured.

On the night of October 26-27, 24 enemy tanks were destroyed on Guadalcanal. The 29th, 35 enemy tanks were engaged, and many more captured. The 30th, 15 more tanks were destroyed. On the night of November 1-2, 20 enemy tanks were destroyed on Guadalcanal.

On November 8, the Japanese began to make a desperate effort to push back the Americans on Guadalcanal. The Japanese had advanced to a point where they had been fighting against overwhelming odds. The Japanese had been forced to retire by the American forces.

Situation in Burma

Japan's policy in occupied Burma was governed mainly by enemy hopes of its effects upon India. A quelling administration was set up in August 1942. The Allies, however, had advanced in 1942 and in 1943. The Japanese were surprised by this advance, and by May 1945, they had been forced to retreat. The Japanese forces in Burma were forced to retreat and were forced to evacuate the country. The situation in Burma was critical.
The Allied column reached the Cambrai valley in 27 days and two days later there was fighting east and west of the Somme river near Bethune. Meanwhile, on the night of December 20, Japanese aircraft bombed Calcutta. The Japanese repulse that night was followed later by the eight-day following. Chittagong was attacked eight times by enemy aircraft during the month.

The Indian Deadlock
Japan's political and propagandist maneuvers in Burma, and the latent threat to India, did not fail to impress missionaries across the border. Gandhi with his humanism and Subhas Chandra Bose,倡导 of large-scale industrialization and betterment, smote more. Then, too, there was the Muslim League, led by Jinnah, now bolder urging his claim for a separate Muslim state. Jinnah was no issue willing than Gandhi to take up any positive attitude which would further Indian unity. At the session of the All-India Conference held at Bombay on August 7 a resolution was passed calling for a movement of "non-violence." The reply of the Government was to arrest Gandhi and his chief associates. Jinnah, who could have given a better collaboration to a strike attitude and reiterated his demands for a separate Muslim-controlled state, embroiling these areas where his co-religionists were in the majority.

End of Extra-Territoriality in China
Twice the end of 1943 the British and U.S. Governments opened discussions for the immediate abrogation of their extraterritorial rights. Treaties relinquishing these rights were signed in January 1943 and ratified in May. A British Parliamentary Mission visited Chiang in November and the invitation of Chiang Kai-shek. Japanese military operations in China were unaccompanied, though a large army body advanced against the Chinese in the Yunnan mountains during November and drove back the defenders. China's own Air Force had been strengthened by aid from India, and the U.S. Government had greatly expanded its bases and increased its range and growing in numbers. Enemy-held bases as far apart as Hongkong, Canton, Yuchow, Hankow and Tientsin, besides objectives on the Burma border, were attacked by American bombers.

The American War Effort
The global strategy of the United Nations necessitated a braking down of Japan while steadily increasing pressure was exerted upon Germany—both in the West. United States soldiers, sailors and airmen played a vital part in many of the operations against Germany and her satellites. The invasion of New Guinea aided Australians in rounding up the retreating Japanese in November and December 1943. In day raids from British bases, Fortresses and Liberator bombers made several successful attacks on occupied France and the Low Countries. A big force of all arms was built up in India, and under Maj. Gen. Lewis Brereton the Ninth U.S. Army Air Force had been organized. In the South seas, one of the decisive parts in the results of Hommel, and in his fight Art. From them came the large-scale American operations, in collaboration with British forces, for the invasion of North Africa. Two more were planned, of which one has been described in another section. The U.S. Army Air Force in China (recognized from the volunteer armies who had served under Maj. Gen. Chiang, Chennault), which, looked

Wide Plans for Social Services
December 5 the Government published the "Brussels Report," Sir William Beveridges (Master of University College, Oxford) had been asked by the Government to review the existing schemes of social insurance and workmen's compensation, etc., and to submit recommendations for the improvement and coordination of those schemes. (The report is summarized in p. 3983.) Sir William Beveridge proposed the setting up of a compulsory all-in insurance scheme to provide pensions, disability benefits, payment during illness, and unemployment, all from contributions of the persons employed or self-employed. Beveridge's Commisssion on various aspects of post-war reconstruction are summarized in Pp. 3970-72. Another question which gave rise to much sharp argument, was that of the future areas of the Middle East, East Anglia and the south-west and east coasts. Civilian casualties during the six months amounted to:

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<td>Killed</td>
<td>431</td>
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<td>167</td>
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<td>238</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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A bomb was dropped on a London suburb on July 7—after the first daylight alert for more than twelve months. Three weeks later, London was raided at night, and Birmingham also suffered. Further violent attacks on Burmese and other Midland towns followed, but the enemy force was not as strong as it had been. About 10 per cent were also down with some consistency during the period. Greater London was attacked again on the night of August 12.

It was announced on November 13 that since the outbreak of war in two and three millions of people had been killed or injured. A total of 184,000 had been killed or injured. Of the rest, 150,000 had been totally destroyed or seriously disabled. Certain changes were announced in the R.A.F. Command: Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur Todd was Chief of Air Staff, and Air Chief Marshal Sir William A.F. Pemberton, and Air Chief Marshal Sir William A.F. Pemberton, in charge of Air Defence Command. The War Office was reassigned to the A.O.M. in Great Britain, and was followed as A.O.G. Overspade by Air Marshal V. W. lady, Air Marshal.
JULY 14, 1942. IN THE RUE DE LA REPUBLIQUE, LYONS

General de Gaulle, leader of the Free French Movement (which changed its name to La France Combattante - Fighting France - on July 14, 1940), called on the people of the cities of unoccupied France to observe this anniversary of France's national day by holding disciplined demonstrations between 6 and 7 p.m. There was a great demonstration in Marseille, where three men and a woman were shot; and in Lyons thousands of people marched through the streets watched by thousands more from the pavements. This photograph, taken between 6.30 and 6.55, shows a thin line of French police standing in the path of the demonstrators across the Rue de la République, Lyons.
POLISH ARTILLERY GOES INTO BATTLE ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT

Heavy guns given by the U.S.S.R. to the First Polish Tadeusz Kosciusko Division moving up in support of Polish infantry. In April 1942 there were three Polish divisions in Russia, three in Persia, and one in Libya in addition to the Polish forces in Great Britain. General Sikorski stated in August 1942 that the Polish Army was the fifth largest of the Allied armies. It included two armoured and motorised corps—one with the army in Britain, and one in the Middle East. The Polish air force was then twice as strong as at the outbreak of war; and the Polish navy was also greater—a third greater, it was announced in February 1943.