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SPECIAL WAR EDITION

The School

(Registered)

Toronto, August, 1916

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The Causes of the War

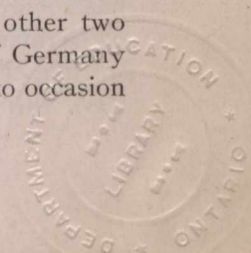
PROFESSOR H. J. CRAWFORD, B.A.
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[In preparing the following summary much use has been made of the presentation of Britain's case by the members of the Oxford Faculty of Modern History in the book entitled "Why we are at War". The book is commended to teachers, who will find it dispassionate and comprehensive.]

TRIPLE ALLIANCE AND TRIPLE ENTENTE.

TO follow intelligently the sequence of events between June 28th and August 4th, 1914, one must hark back to history. The growth of alliances among the powers of Europe since the formation of the German union in 1871 has produced the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy on the one hand, and the Triple Entente on the other. The Triple Entente consists of an understanding between Britain, France, and Russia, the two latter being more closely united in the Dual Alliance. After the defeat of France in 1870, Germany made rapid strides in population and wealth, while her military strength, under the controlling influence of Prussia, grew even faster than her industry and science. Thus she presently became a force in the councils of European nations. For a time Germany and Russia were in close touch, but soon divergent interests began to estrange them. The sentiment of the Russian people had been always anti-German and the Balkan policy of Russia had brought that country into opposition with Austria, a neighbour whom Germany was now interested in supporting. Hence, in 1879, a secret treaty was made between Germany and Austria, and in this union we discern the beginning of trouble. To the dual combination Italy was added three years later, and the Triple Alliance has continued ever since.

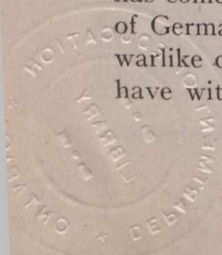
On the part of the other three nations, not till after 1890 was there concerted movement to offset the Triple Alliance. The cautious Bismarck had even courted the friendship of Russia, and there had been causes of contention between Britain and each of the other two countries. After the fall of Bismarck, however, the policy of Germany under Kaiser William II became so much more aggressive as to occasion



alarm. The first result was the Dual Alliance of 1896 between France and Russia for mutual defence. This gave France some sense of protection against attacks upon her Eastern border, which she had dreaded since 1875, when she had been saved from a second invasion only by the intervention of Russia and Britain. French colonial expansion was at first viewed with complacency by Germany but later with jealousy; and when agreements were made between Britain and France relative to Morocco in 1904 and 1911, Germany gratuitously chose to consider herself injured and war was narrowly averted. These conferences between Britain and France, which settled old controversies like that about Egypt, were an indication of growing friendship between those ancient enemies, now united in a common desire for peace and a common apprehension of the German peril. The agreements were supplemented in 1912, not by a formal alliance, but by an undertaking to discuss in common any threatening situation, with a view to a common war of defence should need arise. No power could justly take offence at this arrangement unless that power was bent on attacking unjustly one of the parties to the understanding. Taught by the experience of 1905, when Germany, temporarily freed from concern about Russia by the occupation of the latter in the war with Japan, had attempted to make the Morocco affair an occasion for war, Britain in 1907 likewise made a friendly arrangement with Russia of old disputes about Persia, Afghanistan and India. Touching the alliance of Britain with Russia in this war, it has been said that "war makes strange bedfellows". But those who criticise the alliance have failed to note that Russia since 1907 has made distinct constitutional progress, and that her new political ideals are largely drawn from England. In evidence of this progress may be cited the establishment of the Duma, the leading position taken by the Czar in the Hague concentions, his earnest advocacy of arbitration and disarmament, and his recent promise to give autonomy to Russian Poland.

RUSSIA AND GERMANY.

With this attitude of the Czar and Russia, contrast the attitude of the Kaiser and Germany. An examination of German Army Acts and Navy Laws will show that it has been the policy of the Kaiser and his war advisers to increase the army and the navy just as fast as would be tolerated by those who had to meet the bills; that the opposition to these expenditures has weakened just as the plea of national defence has come to be interpreted as national defiance—"to secure the future of Germany"; that sudden great increases have been accompanied by warlike challenges as in 1909 and 1911; and that the past three years have witnessed the greatest expenditures of all. Thus Germany has



set the pace in the "race of armaments". The German expenditure on the navy in particular cannot be regarded otherwise than as a challenge, especially as she has met British proposals for a truce by evasive replies and increased estimates.

A further consideration affecting the present alliance with Russia is that, though Britain fought for Turkey in 1854, she has no reason to fight for a Germanised Turkey. In fact the interests of Britain now coincide with those of Russia in south-eastern Europe. For several years past Germany and Austria have been extending their spheres of influence eastward.

Roumania had a friendly Hohenzollern on the throne, and Serbia, till 1903, was under the thumb of Austria, with an Obrenovitch as king. As early as 1878, Austria had occupied Bosnia and Herzegovina, and had conceived a line of penetration to Salonica. Germany was supporting and training Turkey, and was following a similar line of penetration through Roumania and Constantinople to Badgad. Clearly the policy was to oust Russia from her traditional position as leader and protector of the Slavonic race, and to interfere with her long-cherished design upon a sea outlet in the Mediterranean quarter. Such a policy was bound to precipitate a conflict.

SERBIA.

In 1903 Serbia escaped from the domination of Austria by a revolution in which the King was slain, and replaced by one of a rival family friendly to Russia; so that in 1908, when Austria formally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia would have gone to war for this part of her old kingdom, had Russia sufficiently recovered from the war with Japan. Russia was on this occasion obliged to submit to the bullying of Austria and Germany, but the humiliation has rankled. Again in 1912, after the Balkan affair, Austria intervened to prevent Serbia from gaining the spoils of war in the shape of Adriatic ports, and a general conflict was prevented only by the good offices of Sir Edward Grey, who saw clearly that hostilities between Austria and Russia meant the embroiling of Europe. Meanwhile Russia has been saving money, reorganising her army and preparing to meet further aggression. Thus was the stage set for war; it remained for Austria to ring up the curtain.

IMMEDIATE CAUSES.

On June 28th, 1914, the Archduke Ferdinand, heir-apparent to the throne of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated at Serajevo in Bosnia. It was apparently a political crime planned by Bosnian conspirators who took this outrageous means of showing their resentment at the annexation of Bosnia by Austria. After investigation, Austria declared

Serbian officials implicated but presented no legal proof. Instead, after almost a month's delay, on July 23rd, Austria presented an ultimatum to Serbia, with 48 hours given for an answer.

This note demanded from the Serbian government an apology and a number of specific requirements. Some of the demands were very drastic, and number five in particular might be thought inconsistent with independence, in the opinion of so good a judge as Sir Edward Grey.

To this note, of a character "sudden, brusque, and peremptory" (to quote the language of Sir Edward Grey), Serbia made a conciliatory reply, which anyone not an Austrian would have regarded as offering reasonable compliance with the demands. But Austria-Hungary would have none of it, and drew up a series of pettifogging objections which, in view of the issues involved, seem little short of criminal. No wonder the British ambassador at Vienna expressed the opinion that the attitude of Austria made war inevitable.

On July 25th Austria withdrew her Minister from Belgrade, on July 26th began to mobilise the army, and on July 28th declared war on Serbia.

Russia took the reasonable position that the Austrian note was harsh that Austria ought to publish the proofs, that the time limit was too short, that Serbia's appeal to arbitration should be granted and that she was willing to accept Germany, France, and Italy as arbitrators. She made it plain that she must mobilise if Austria attacked Serbia. She confided to England the conviction that Austria must feel that Germany was at her back, and that Germany was the real obstacle to a peaceful settlement.

GERMANY FOR WAR.

And in fact Germany's position throughout the negotiations cannot be regarded as consistent with peaceful intentions. If Germany was heartily for peace, why did she warn the powers that Austria must be let alone to fight out her quarrel with little Serbia, when she must have known that Russia would not be content to stand by and see the bullying done? If Germany was heartily for peace, why did she quibble against the proposals of Britain for a conference to ensure the peace of Europe? If Germany was heartily for peace, why did she not, when besought by Britain and other powers, call off her satellite, Austria, in order to give time for some solution of the difficulties? There is no evidence of her using any such persuasion. If Germany was heartily for peace, why on July 31st did she issue an ultimatum to Russia, demanding that the latter should demobilise, when at that very moment Austria, apparently weakening, was engaged in conversations with Russia looking toward peace?

In the controversy as to the responsibility for this war, Germany finds herself on the horns of a dilemma. Either she fancied her bluffing tactics would once more prevail, in which case she convicts herself of misjudgment and folly; or else she saw that her attitude made war certain, in which case she convicts herself of crime.

BRITAIN FOR PEACE.

Britain can conscientiously protest that she did everything possible that peace might prevail. Sir Edward Grey saw at once that if war started all Europe might be drawn into the struggle. Accordingly on receiving news of the Austrian note he suggested to Russia that she should influence Serbia toward humility, and proposed to the German ambassador the co-operation of Germany, France, Italy, and Britain to induce moderation at Vienna and St. Petersburg. When Austria rejected the Serbian reply, he proposed that the German, French and Italian ambassadors meet with himself to discover "some issue that would prevent complications". This failing through the quibbling of Germany, he next day tried to induce the German ambassador to suggest any other device that would save the situation. When this proved abortive, he induced the Russian ambassador to make the offer on July 30th, that Russia would stop all preparations for war, "if Austria would eliminate from her ultimatum to Serbia points that would violate the principle of the Sovereignty of Serbia". On the rejection of this, a general mobilisation in Russia was ordered on July 31st.

Sir Edward Grey still had hopes that Austria and Russia might find a *modus vivendi*, as Austria seemed to give signs of a more conciliatory spirit. But these hopes were dashed by the German ultimatum to Russia of July 31st. The same day Germany, after invading France before July 30th, demanded to know French intentions, to which France replied that she would consult her own interests. On August 1st both Germany and France ordered general mobilisation.

Throughout all the negotiations, there stand out the anxiety of Britain, France and Italy for peace, the moderation of Russia, the stubbornness of Austria, and the cynical indifference of Germany, which made peace impossible.

THE NEUTRALITY OF BELGIUM.

On the 29th of July Sir Edward Grey warned the German ambassador that the interests of Britain might force her into the conflict; and in reply to the bid for Britain's neutrality made by the German Chancellor, the British government made it clear that there were two vital points with which Britain was concerned, and about which there would be

no bargaining. These were that France should not be crushed and that Belgian neutrality should be observed. The reception of this warning at Berlin was, to say the least, peculiar. The Chancellor was so occupied by news of Russia, that he received the British warning without comment. Easier to understand is the reply of the German Secretary of State to the question propounded to France and Germany on July 31st, as to whether they would respect the neutrality of Belgium. France assented at once, but Germany "would rather not answer" because, as the British ambassador hinted, it might disclose their plan of campaign.

Apparently alarmed by the hint of Sir Edward Grey that British public feeling would be aroused by the invasion of Belgium, the German ambassador at London inquired on August 1st whether Britain would remain neutral, if Belgium were left inviolate. Sir Edward Grey naturally refused to tie the hands of Britain, as that was not the only vital question. That the ambassador was reckoning without his home government was proven on August 3rd, when he had to ask that Britain should withdraw the neutrality of Belgium as one of the conditions of British neutrality. Meanwhile on August 2nd Germany had invaded Luxemburg. Still Britain did not declare war. But when on August 4th they swept into Belgium, the British government presented an ultimatum requiring their withdrawal, which Germany accepted as a declaration of war.

There can be no question in any impartial mind as to whether Britain waited long enough; the only question is whether the British Government did not wait too long. It has been said that, had Britain sooner declared her "solidarity" with France and Russia, Germany might have taken a different attitude. Sir Edward Grey was of the opinion that such a course would have interfered with the influence of Britain as a mediator, would not have been justified by public opinion, and would not have mattered in any case, as Germany could not have expected our neutrality. From a study of the deeper causes of the war and the past policy of Germany, one is led to conclude that, at the most, it could only have postponed the inevitable day.

It is true the British declaration of war was received in Germany with a frenzy of resentment, beginning with the Chancellor, who railed at Sir Edward Goschen about the preposterous idea that Britain should go to war for "a scrap of paper" like the treaty of 1839. The storm of fury that swept over Germany appears never since to have abated, and has found expression in the "Hymn of Hate", for which a grateful sovereign decorated the author. We may well be excused for suspecting that the German wrath has lost none of its edge because they feel that Britain has not patiently awaited her turn.

THE CASE OF BELGIUM.

The Treaty of London in 1839 finally established the status of Belgium. Both her independence and her neutrality were guaranteed by Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia.

Bismarck made full use of this in 1870 in order to prevent Britain from supporting the cause of France, when he published proposals of the French made in 1866, that Prussia should help France to get Belgium, if France acquiesced in Prussian annexations in northern Germany. The result was that Britain asked Prussia and France to sign the same treaty, stipulating that, if either violated Belgium, Britain would join the other in defence of it.

By the seventh article of the Treaty of London, the existence of Belgium is dependent on her perpetual neutrality. By the fifth article of the Convention drawn up at the Hague Peace Conference in 1907, neutral powers are forbidden to permit belligerents to move troops or convoys across their territories. The Belgians kept the faith in proclaiming to the Germans "no thoroughfare". The Germans in forcing the passage broke the faith. In fighting for Belgium, Britain is fighting for the law of nations, that is to say, for the peace of nations and the right of the weak to live.

BRITAIN AND SMALL NATIONS.

In 1803 Britain demanded that the French should evacuate Holland and Switzerland. Napoleon replied, "Switzerland and Holland are mere trifles". Compare the "scrap of paper" interview between Sir Ed. Goschen and Bethmann-Hollweg. Neither the First Consul nor the Imperial Chancellor could understand why Britain should object to the violation of treaties.

Great Britain now, as in the case of Napoleon, regards the rights of smaller nations to exist as most important. For not only would it endanger her security to have a military state menacing her in the position of Belgium, but also the sanctity of treaties must be maintained; for if the theory of "might is right" were to be accepted, then no nation would be safe and the result would be that the stronger nations would have to fight one another for the privilege of enslaving the civilised world.

THE CASE OF LUXEMBURG.

The legal case of Luxemburg is even stronger, for it was Prussia herself who, in 1867, after the war with Austria, suggested that this duchy should be neutralised "under the collective guarantee of the powers". This agreement was signed by Prussia, Russia, Italy, Holland,

Belgium, Austria, France and Great Britain. The reason why the violation of her neutrality was not held by Britain as of necessity an occasion for war, lies in the fact that, with respect to the smaller states lying outside the sphere of naval power, Britain has consistently held it her duty to use her influence to secure them fair treatment, but not necessarily to go to war on their account. She holds that the duty of protecting them falls first upon those powers so situated as to make their intervention effective. This was her attitude also towards Serbia.

THE GERMAN PLEA ANSWERED.

The fact is that the south-east portion of the eastern frontier of France was well protected, and would make invasion there difficult; while the north-east part lent itself to a swift advance both from the nature of the country and the absence of defences. For the French had, unwisely, as the issue showed, depended on the neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg.

As the Germans were rapid at mobilisation, in order to make this advantage effective, and secure a quick route to Paris, they set aside all considerations of treaty rights and took the easy way. Sir Edward Grey put the case neatly, when he said that the Germans preferred to rely, not on the original maxim of Shakespeare, "Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just"; but on the gloss which adds, "But four times he, who gets his blow in fust". Military necessity, said the German Foreign Secretary to the British Ambassador at Berlin, justified the act; "it was for Germany a matter of life or death"; and the German Chancellor in a speech to the Reichstag on August 4th, admitted that the policy was "contrary to the dictates of international law, but a case of necessity—and necessity knows no law". We may well credit the stories of the surprise and disappointment in Germany at the sudden disappearance of the menace of civil dissension in Ireland in the face of a national crisis; but the reported indignation at Potsdam, when the ambassador transmitted the British intention to the Foreign Minister and the Chancellor, can scarcely be regarded as sincere, as Sir Edward Grey himself has said. For the Germans, with their thoroughness of knowledge, cannot have been ignorant that for at least three years their preparations to violate the neutrality of Belgium have been known, and the consequences plainly indicated. The purpose of this "injured innocent" pose was evidently to represent Britain as the aggressor. But despite all the laboured efforts of their apologists, including their most eminent scientists and professors, no one has been deluded except those wishing to be deluded. Indeed, the German Chancellor in his impassioned interview with Sir Edward Goschen, the British Ambassador, overreached himself; and his vivid language in describing the Treaty of London as "a

scrap of paper" has seized upon the imagination of the world and become historic. It is one of those lapses that no gloss or explanation can clear away, because it is recognised as aptly and tersely describing the German point of view. The plea of Germany that it was necessary to invade Belgium because France intended to do so, or because there was a French garrison in Liège, is quite unconvincing, because quite unfounded; and the latest defence of the Chancellor, to the effect that in 1911 Britain had determined to throw troops into Belgium without the consent of the Belgian government, is effectively answered by Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary. He shows that the documents discovered at Antwerp recorded the conversations of British and Belgian officers, made necessary by the menacing preparations on the part of Germany of military railways right to the Belgian frontier. He shows that in these conversations between military officials, it was expressly stated that no attempt would ever be made by Britain to put troops into Belgium, unless another country violated her neutrality. So the German Chancellor's argument amounts to saying that Belgium, foreseeing the wrong to be done, violated her rights as a neutral state by considering the means by which the wrong might be resisted. The pity is that the preparations were not more adequate. For now that the war has made us familiar with the political theory and practice of Germany, we can see that the real cause lies far back of the incidents of last summer.

THE PRUSSIANISING OF GERMANY.

The real cause may be stated briefly as the Prussianising of Germany. To understand this is to understand the reason for the balking of negotiations, the violation of neutrality, the ruthlessness of devastation, the indifference to conventions, in a word the *lawlessness* with which the Germans have conducted the war. It will account also for that expenditure on army and navy already described. By the Prussianising of Germany is meant the bringing of Germany under the dominance of Prussian ideals of government. These ideals are essentially military. From the teaching of philosophers like Nietzsche, historians like Treitschke and soldiers like Bernhardi, we can gather the substance of the philosophy adopted by the German Government. "The State is above everything else in the world; the state is exclusively national and is essentially power; the highest duty of the state is self-preservation, and that means care for its power; the greatest sin of a state is weakness. The armed state is the vehicle of the highest culture, that is, German culture. Since the state is supreme, it has the right to repudiate treaties or do anything else it may find convenient for its interests".

The result of this doctrine is naturally the glorifying of war, offensive as well as defensive. War is called the chief business of the state, the

medicine for a sick nation, the law of humanity. Offensive war is justified on the ground that a growing nation can hold all its members only by growth of territory; so colonies must be seized. Hence the necessity of sea-power, and the hatred of Britain for keeping Germany "from her place in the sun".

Briefly the Prussian doctrine is just a restatement of the one in the familiar lines of Wordsworth:

"The good old rule
Sufficeth them, the simple plan,
That they should take, who have the power,
And they should keep, who can".

It is the old pagan doctrine that "might makes right", glossed over by high sounding terms like "political idealism", "heroism", and above all "culture". It is to be feared that evil associations have corrupted that last word for all time. Certainly humanity will never again be able to think of "Kultur", without also thinking of the ruins of Louvain.

The Prussianising of Germany dates back at least to Frederick the Great, but the triumph of Prussia over France accelerated the movement. For, rallying to the cry of a "United Germany", twenty-six states confederated in 1871 with Prussia as the dominant partner, and with the King of Prussia as the German Emperor. The form of government then adopted has lent itself to the Prussianising process; for though with certain semblances to democracy, in reality it is a despotism with the Kaiser and the Prussian Junkers or gentry in supreme control. The military ideals described above permeated the race, and so a war of aggression on the part of Germany became inevitable. Rosebery, with characteristic aptness, has likened the relation of Prussia and Germany to that of the mahout and the elephant.

CONCLUSION.

It is necessary, therefore, to combat Germany, if we are to vindicate the reign of law against lawlessness, honour against dishonour, democracy against despotism, the right of the weak against the might of the strong.

War is dreadful; but if ever the British Empire engaged in a righteous and necessary war, it is this one. The Empire is at war, and Canada, a part of that Empire, is at war. Our national existence, all that makes life dear, is at stake. We in Canada are as much concerned as our kinsmen in England or Scotland. It is therefore our high privilege as it is our bounden duty, to send men and spend treasure without stint, and to make any sacrifice needed to aid in bringing this war to its just and inevitable conclusion.

The "Scrap of Paper"

[From *The School of March*, 1915]

D. E. HAMILTON, B.A.
University Schools, Toronto

EVERY Britisher knows that his Empire entered the terrible struggle at present being waged in Europe chiefly because of the violation of Belgian neutrality by Germany. Every one of us, therefore, should know the contents of the treaty which guaranteed Belgian neutrality and territorial integrity—that document which meant so little to Germany that the German Chancellor designated it as a "scrap of paper", but which proved sufficiently powerful to induce the British nation to enter a war in which it might otherwise have avoided participating.

When Belgium proclaimed herself an independent nation, the European Powers felt that their assent in some definite form should be given, consequently representatives of Britain, France, Austria, Russia and Prussia met in London to discuss the restrictions which were to be laid upon the new nation. On June 26th, 1831, they drew up and signed on behalf of their respective governments the Treaty of Eighteen Articles. Of the eighteen sections of this treaty, two are especially pertinent to the present situation. Their text is as follows:

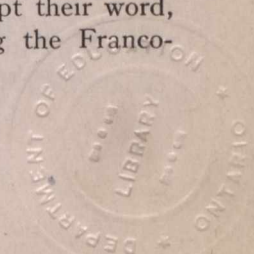
Art. 9: Belgium, within the limits traced in conformity with the principles laid down in the present preliminaries, shall form a perpetually neutral state. *The Five Powers*, without wishing to intervene in the internal affairs of Belgium, *guarantee her that perpetual neutrality as well as the integrity and inviolability of her territory* in the limits mentioned in the present article.

Art. 10: By just reciprocity Belgium shall be held to observe this same neutrality toward all the other States and to make no attack on their internal or external tranquillity, *whilst always preserving the right to defend herself against any foreign aggression*.

On January 23rd, 1839, another treaty was signed by the same five Powers, and accepted by Belgium. In this occurs one particularly interesting section, which is quoted here:

Art. 7: Belgium, within the limits defined in Articles 1, 2, and 4, shall form an independent and perpetually neutral State. *She is obligated to preserve this neutrality against all other States*.

This treaty was respected by both France and Germany in 1870. When interrogated by Britain, both these countries gave full assurances of their intention to respect Belgian territory. Both kept their word, and compromised Belgian neutrality in no way during the Franco-Prussian war.



Diary of the War

JUNE, 1914

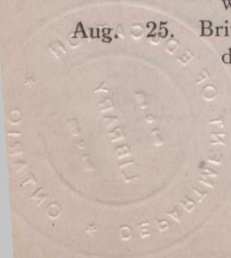
- June 28. *Murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenburg, at Serajevo.*

JULY.

- July 23. Presentation of Austria-Hungarian Note at Belgrade demanding complete submission of Serbia within 48 hours.
July 24. Russian Cabinet Council decides to resist the subjection of Serbia to Austria.
July 25. Serbia's partial submission rejected by Austria.
July 28. *Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia* and Russia begins to mobilise.
July 29. Belgrade bombarded by Austrian artillery.
July 30. *German ultimatum to Russia.*

AUGUST.

- Aug. 1. *Germany declares war on Russia* and asks France her intentions. Luxemburg invaded by German troops. Italy declares her neutrality.
Aug. 2. *Germany invades Belgium.*
Aug. 3. British Navy completes mobilisation.
Aug. 4. *Germany declares war on Belgium.* * *War on Germany declared by Great Britain at 11 p.m., London time.* Britain mobilises her army.
Aug. 5. Germans repulsed at Liège. German mine-layer Königin Louise sunk by British destroyer Lance. Lord Kitchener appointed Secretary of State for War.
Aug. 6. H.M.S. Amphion sunk by a mine and 132 lives lost.
Aug. 8. First British troops land in France.
Aug. 9. British cruiser Birmingham sinks German destroyer U. 15.
Aug. 10. Belgian field army retires from Liège.
Aug. 12. *France and Great Britain declare war upon Austria.* German cruisers Goeben and Breslau reach Constantinople.
Aug. 15. Japan demands evacuation of Kiao-Chau by Germany.
Aug. 17. Official announcement of arrival of British Expeditionary Force in France. Belgian capital removed from Brussels to Antwerp.
Aug. 18. Austrians defeated by Serbs near Shabatz.
Aug. 20. French capture 24 German guns in Alsace. *Battle of Gumbinnen* begun. Lasted three days. Russians defeat Germans. German cavalry enters Brussels.
Aug. 21. Fine of \$40,000,000 levied on Brussels and \$10,000,000 on Liège.
Aug. 22. French defeated in Alsace with heavy loss. Namur bombarded by Germans.
Aug. 23. *Namur falls.* Belgian loss 14,000. *Japan declares war on Germany* and begins the siege of Tsing-tau.
Aug. 24. Anglo-French army begins to retreat from Mons and Charleroi. Allies withdraw from line of the Sambre.
Aug. 25. British army occupy the line Cambrai-Landrecies-Le Cateau. Louvain destroyed by Germans. *Battle of Lemberg* begun.



- Aug. 27. Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse sunk by H.M.S. Highflyer off West African coast. German cruiser Magdeburg destroyed by Russians in Gulf of Finland.
- Aug. 28. Three German cruisers and two destroyers sunk in *Battle of Heligoland Bight*. Malines bombarded by Germans. Russians disastrously defeated after the three-day battle of Masurian Lakes (*Tannenberg*).
- Aug. 29. Samoa captured by a New Zealand force.

SEPTEMBER.

- Sept. 1. British capture 10 German guns at Compiègne. *Austrians defeated by Russians at Lemberg.*
- Sept. 2. Germans almost reach Paris.
- Sept. 3. French Government transferred to Bordeaux. *Lemberg captured by Russians.*
- Sept. 5. British, French and Russian Governments mutually engage not to conclude peace separately during the war. H.M.S. Pathfinder sunk by a submarine off east coast of Scotland.
- Sept. 6. *Battle of Marne begins.* Germans retreat.
- Sept. 7. Maubeuge surrenders. Dinant shelled and burned by the Germans.
- Sept. 8. British drive Germans back from Petit Morin River.
- Sept. 9. Oceanic wrecked off the N. coast of Scotland.
- Sept. 10. *Battle of Marne ends.* Germans hold positions on the Soissons-Rheims line.
- Sept. 12. First day of the Battle of the Aisne.
- Sept. 13. Allies' attempts to force the passages of the Aisne begin. Russian victory over Austrians in Galicia; 30,000 prisoners and many guns taken. British submarine E. 9 sinks German cruiser Hela. Germans invade British East Africa.
- Sept. 18. Parliament prorogued. Labour leader Will Crooks leads the singing of the National Anthem.
- Sept. 20. Rheims Cathedral bombarded. H.M.S. Pegasus disabled in Zanzibar Harbour by the Königsberg.
- Sept. 21. Japanese torpedo-boat sunk by a German cruiser outside Kiao-Chau.
- Sept. 22. *H.M. ships Aboukir, Cressy and Hogue sunk in North Sea by a German submarine.* A Zeppelin destroyed in Düsseldorf sheds by British naval aeroplanes. Madras bombarded by Emden.
- Sept. 30. Tsing-tau invested.

OCTOBER.

- Oct. 1. Admiralty announces that H.M.S. Cumberland has sunk ten German liners off the Cameroon River.
- Oct. 2. Press Bureau announces arrival of Indians at Marseilles.
- Oct. 3. *Battle of Augustowo ends in victory for the Russians.*
- Oct. 7. Bombardment of Antwerp begun. Belgian Government transferred from Antwerp to Ostend. Submarine E. 9 sinks German destroyer in Ems estuary.
- Oct. 8. Arras shelled by Germans. *Fall of Antwerp.*
- Oct. 9. Part of British Naval Brigade interned in Holland. Zeppelin destroyed at Düsseldorf by British airmen.
- Oct. 11. Battle of Flanders begins. Russian cruiser Pallada sunk in the Baltic by German submarine.

- Oct. 12. Rebellion declared in South Africa by Maritz. Martial law proclaimed.
- Oct. 13. Belgian government transferred to Havre, France.
- Oct. 14. *Canadian first contingent reaches Plymouth.*
- Oct. 14. H.M.S. Hawke sunk by torpedo in the North Sea.
- Oct. 17. Four German destroyers sunk off the Dutch coast by British destroyers and light cruiser. Russians begin to drive back the Germans from before Warsaw.
- Oct. 18. Submarine E3 sunk in a German bay.
- Oct. 19. Transference of British army (Oct. 3rd-19th) from the Aisne to Flanders completed. British ships bombard Belgian coast.
- Oct. 20. Sale of vodka prohibited in Russia.
- Oct. 24. Germans cross the Yser. German submarine rammed and sunk by H.M.S. Badger.
- Oct. 25. German centre in full retreat in Poland.
- Oct. 26. German submarine blows up the Admiral Santeaume, a refugee steamer. De Wet heads a rebellion.
- Oct. 29. Turkish vessels bombard Odessa and Theodosia.
- Oct. 30. Lord Fisher appointed First Sea Lord in place of Prince Louis of Battenberg resigned. Russian cruiser and French destroyer sunk by the Emden.
- Oct. 31. British casualties to date 57,000.

NOVEMBER.

- Nov. 1. *British cruisers Monmouth and Good Hope sunk by German squadron at the Battle of Coronel, off the Chilean coast.*
- Nov. 3. German naval raid on Yarmouth. British submarine D. 5 sunk by mine while pursuing German squadron. Akaba bombarded by the Minerva and the Dardanelles forts by a combined French and British squadron.
- Nov. 4. *Russians defeat Austrians at the Battle of the San.* German cruiser Yorck sunk by mine in Jahde Bay.
- Nov. 5. *Great Britain declares war on Turkey and annexes Cyprus.*
- Nov. 6. *Kiao-chau surrenders to Japanese and British.*
- Nov. 8. Fao, in Persian Gulf, captured by Indian troops.
- Nov. 9. The Emden sunk by H.M.S. Sydney off the Cocos Islands.
- Nov. 10. Germans capture Dixmude.
- Nov. 11. *Prussian Guard defeated by British troops near Ypres.* Siege of Przemysl resumed. Gunboat Niger torpedoed by German submarine off Deal.
- Nov. 12. Germans begin vigorous offensive against the Russians between the Warta and the Vistula. De Wet defeated by Botha.
- Nov. 14. Death of Lord Roberts in France.
- Nov. 15. Germans take 28,000 prisoners in Poland.
- Nov. 16. House of Commons passes Supplementary Vote of Credit for \$1,225,000 and agrees to the raising of another million men for the regular army.
- Nov. 17. Libau, a Russian Baltic port, bombarded by German squadron.
- Nov. 19. Partial success of Russians near Lodz.
- Nov. 20. German offensive from Wielun begun.
- Nov. 21. Zeppelin headquarters at Friedrichshafen on Lake Constance raided by British airmen.
- Nov. 22. Hotel de Ville at Ypres destroyed by German bombardment.
- Nov. 23. German submarine U18 rammed in Firth of Forth by British patrolling vessel.

- Nov. 25. Battle of Poland favours Russians.
 Nov. 26. H.M.S. Bulwark blown up in the Medway. Germans begin a new offensive along the Vistula. Austrians defeated to east of Cracow.

DECEMBER.

- Dec. 1. Russians occupy Wieliczka, near Cracow. General de Wet captured at Waterbury by Commander Brits.
 Dec. 3. Germans begin a new and violent attack towards Petrokow and Lodz. Serbian attack on Austrians in Serbia begins. Australian and New Zealand contingent announced to have arrived in Egypt.
 Dec. 5. Botha announces that the Free State rebellion is virtually crushed.
 Dec. 6. Ferryman's house on right bank of Ypres Canal captured by Allies.
 Dec. 7. Russians retire from Lodz. Allies capture Vermelles.
 Dec. 8. *Battle of Falkland Isles*. British squadron sinks the German cruisers Scharnhorst, Gneisenau, Leipzig and Nürnberg. British casualties only eleven. General Beyers drowned in the Vaal River.
 Dec. 9. *Serbians completely defeat the Austrians and recapture the towns of Valjevo and Uzice*. Subhi Bey, the state governor of Basra, surrenders with his troops at Kurnah.
 Dec. 12. Austro-Hungarian troops begin a new offensive eastward from Cracow.
 Dec. 13. Turkish battleship Messudiyeh torpedoed and sunk by British submarine B11.
 Dec. 14. *Serbians recapture Belgrade*.
 Dec. 15. H.M.S. Fox and H.M.S. Goliath, bombard Dar-es-Salam, the chief port of German East Africa.
 Dec. 16. *German cruisers shell Scarborough, Whitby and Hartlepool*. Loss of life among civilians over 100.
 Dec. 17. Egypt declared a British Protectorate.
 Dec. 18. Prince Hussein, uncle of the deposed Khedive Abbas Hilmi, appointed the Government Sultan of Egypt.
 Dec. 21. French battleship torpedoed by Austrian submarine in Otranto Roads.
 Dec. 22. Russians gain victory over Austrians along the rivers Nida and Dunajec, and check the Germans along Bzura.
 Dec. 24. German aeroplane drops bombs on Dover. No serious damage.
 Dec. 25. Seven British naval aeroplanes attack Cuxhaven and some German war-ships. General engagement near Heligoland between British cruisers destroyers, and German submarines and Zeppelins and sea-planes.
 Dec. 27. Germans re-occupy Mlawa.
 Dec. 28. Austrians hastily retreat to the Dukla and other Carpathian passes.
 Dec. 29. United States Government sends a Note to Great Britain "insisting on an early improvement of the treatment of American commerce by the British fleet".
 Dec. 30. German airmen bombard Dunkirk and kill 15 people.

JANUARY, 1915

- Jan. 1. British battleship Formidable sunk in the English Channel by a German submarine. Loss of life 546.
 Jan. 3. *Turks decisively defeated by Russians at Ardahan*. Austrians defeated in Bukowina after a fight extending over several days.

- Jan. 4. French capture Steinbach in Alsace, and the heights dominating Sennheim.
- Jan. 5. *Turks decisively defeated by Russians at Sarikamish.* One army corps captured. In Bukowina, Russians occupy Gurahumora and Borksoheia. Five German prizes sold by auction in London realise \$650,000.
- Jan. 8. French make progress north of Soissons, capturing a redoubt and two lines of trenches. British send an interim reply to U.S. note.
- Jan. 9. Germans recapture Upper Burnhaupt in Alsace from the French.
- Jan. 10. French capture Spur 132, North of Soissons.
- Jan. 11. Russians begin a new offensive movement in East Prussia.
- Jan. 12. Germans defeat the French at Soissons and force them to retire across the Aisne.
- Jan. 14. Victory of Russians over Turks at Kara-Urgan. Kirlibaba Pass on the Transylvanian frontier captured by Russians.
- Jan. 19. German Zeppelins drop bombs on Yarmouth, Cromer and King's Lynn, One Zeppelin destroyed. French submarine Saphir officially announced as missing after attempt to enter Dardanelles.
- Jan. 22. S.S. Durward sunk by German submarine U. 19 off the Dutch Coast.
- Jan. 24. *British patrolling squadron sinks the German armoured cruiser Blücher* and injures two others in a running fight in the North Sea. British casualties 14 killed and 29 wounded. Austrian concentration against the Russians in Bukowina becomes marked.
- Jan. 25. All stocks of wheat in Germany taken over by the Government. Violent attacks on the British lines at La Bassée repulsed with great loss (two battalions).
- Jan. 26. Parsefal airship brought down and captured by the Russians in the Baltic off Libau. Germans capture two companies of French troops in a quarry at La Creute. Austrians re-capture the Uszok Pass. British naval raid on Alexandretta 25th and 26th.
- Jan. 27. Germans advance in the heights of Craonne.
- Jan. 29. Germans attempt to cross the Aisne and are repulsed. A new Russian army in the extreme North, reaches Tilsit in East Prussia. Dunkirk bombarded by aeroplanes. Several persons killed and wounded.
- Jan. 31. The 180th day of the war. German submarines U21 and U31 sink four British merchant vessels and seriously damage a fifth. Three were sunk in the Irish Sea and the fourth in the English Channel.

FEBRUARY.

- Feb. 1. Von Hindenburg begins a new attack upon the Russians in front of Warsaw. A German submarine failed in its attempt to torpedo the Hospital Ship Asturias.
- Feb. 2. Petrograd reports that to date the casualties of the Turkish army in the Caucasus campaigns number 70,000. The 137 lists of Prussian losses to date have given a total of 926,547 as killed, wounded and missing. This is exclusive of 144 Bavarian, 100 Saxon, 104 Württemberg, and 15 navy lists.
- Feb. 3. Lieutenant-Colonel Kemp and his commando of Boer rebels surrender to British forces. *Turks defeated at Tussum and El Kantara on the Suez Canal.*
- Feb. 4. Germany declares a "military area" will exist around the British Isles from February 18th.

- Feb. 5. The attack on Warsaw develops into a great battle on the Bzura, near Borjimow. Russians retire from many Carpathian passes. British army estimates provide for 3,000,000 men exclusive of those serving in India.
- Feb. 6. The Cunarder Lusitania arrives at Liverpool flying the American flag. Two British steamers, the Tokomaru and the Ikaria, torpedoed off Havre.
- Feb. 7. Germans deliver twenty-two violent but fruitless attacks against the Russians on Koziowa Heights, south of Lemberg. Russians retire before Austrian advance in Bukowina.
- Feb. 8. Premier Asquith announces that the British casualties to date amount to 104,000. Destruction of the steamship Oriole by German submarine announced. Turks in full retreat east of Suez. Turks occupy Haviz on Persian border.
- Feb. 9. Soissons bombarded by the Germans. Russian retreat in south Bukowina becomes marked.
- Feb. 10. *New battle in east Prussia begins. Russians forced from Masurian Lakes.*
- Feb. 11 and 12. Thirty-four British aviators bombard German position at Bruges. Zeebrugge, Blankenberghe and Ostend. Russians reform their lines on their own territory. Berlin claims capture of 26,000.
- Feb. 12. Small Turkish force annihilated while attacking Tor on the Gulf of Suez.
- Feb. 13. Battleship Audacious reported by New York press to be ready to join fleet again. From same source Audacious reported sunk off North Coast of Ireland in November. Canadians arrive in the trenches in Flanders. Bank of England announces a \$50,000,000 loan to Russia.
- Feb. 14. The Greek Minister leaves Constantinople. Germans capture British trenches at St. Eloi. Germans capture Norroy and "Hill 365" near Pont-a-Mousson. Lose most of gains later.
- Feb. 15. Riot breaks out among native troops at Singapore. About forty Europeans killed. British recapture the St. Eloi positions. British steamer Dulwich lost in the Channel. Trial of De Wet begins.
- Feb. 16. Canadian contingent officially reported to be doing well at the front. Forty British aeroplanes make another successful attempt on the German positions in Belgium. Three aviators drowned, and one interned in Holland. French capture two miles of trenches at Four de Paris. Berlin claims to have taken 50,000 prisoners in Masurian Lakes battle. British naval losses to date: killed 6,101, wounded 585, missing 888, interned 1,563. Total 9,137.
- Feb. 17. Two vessels, one English, the other French, torpedoed in the Channel. Zeppelin L3 destroyed at the Danish island of Fano.
- Feb. 18. German submarine "blockade" begins. *Germans capture Tauroggen and claim a grand total of 60,000 prisoners in the North Poland battle.* French steamer Dinorah torpedoed off Folkestone. Zeppelin L4, wrecked in Jutland, Denmark. Sir Edward Grey's reply to United States regarding neutral shipping published.
- Feb. 19. *Russians evacuate the whole of Bukowina.* An Allied fleet attacks the forts guarding the entrance to the Dardanelles. American steamer Evelyn mined off Borkum. Norwegian steamer Belvidge torpedoed near Folkestone.
- Feb. 20. *Several Dardanelles forts silenced by the Allied fleet.* British steamers Cambank and Downshire torpedoed in the Irish Sea.

- Feb. 21. Russians retreat in North Poland stopped. German aeroplanes raid Essex towns.
- Feb. 22. British South African forces occupy Garub, ten miles east of Lüderitz Bay. Zeppelins raid Calais; five killed.
- Feb. 23. Norwegian steamer Regin, American steamer Carib, British government collier Branksome Chine, and British steamer Oakley, sunk by German mines or torpedoes in the Channel and North Sea. Russians resume offensive between the Niemen and the Vistula. British Admiralty closes Irish Sea to shipping of all nationalities.
- Feb. 24. Germans capture Przasnysz. British steamers Roi Parana and Harpalion mined or torpedoed off Eastbourne; Deptford mined and sunk off Scarborough; Western Coast mined or torpedoed off Beachy Head.
- Feb. 25. *Allied fleet resumes the bombardment of the Dardanelles.* Last of the forts at the entrance silenced. Admiralty report that the armed merchant cruiser Clan McNaughton is probably lost with all on board.
- Feb. 26. Four forts at entrance to Dardanelles completely destroyed. Germans retreat in North Poland. Blockade of East African coast proclaimed.
- Feb. 27. S.S. Dacia, bought by a German-American after war broke out, and consigned to Hamburg with cotton, stopped by French cruiser in the Channel and taken to Brest. Petrograd reports German retreat in Poland "over a constantly widening front".
- Feb. 28. *Bombardment of the Dardanelles forts at the Narrows said to have commenced.*

MARCH.

- March 1. A vote of credit for \$1,250,000,000 and a supplementary vote of credit for \$185,000,000 moved by Mr. Asquith in the House of Commons.
- March 2. Allied warships enter the Dardanelles Straits; Bulair forts bombarded by four French ships from the Gulf of Xeros. Russians defeat Austrians on the River Lomnitsa and take 6,000 prisoners. Village of Krasna occupied by Russians.
- March 3. Publication of Vice-Admiral Sturdee's despatches on the Falkland Islands victory and Vice-Admiral Beatty's despatches on the North Sea victory. Forty Turkish guns in the Dardanelles demolished to date: four English ships bombard fort E. British defeat Turks at Ahwaz (Persia) and Nakaila (Turkey). Rheims bombarded by the Germans.
- March 4. Demolition parties, covered by detachments of the Marine Brigade, land at Kum Kale and Seddil Bahr, at the entrance to the Dardanelles. German submarine U8 sunk by destroyers off Dover. French make progress along the Belgian dunes. Zeppelin L8 destroyed at Tirlemont. All the Clyde and Mersey strikers resume work.
- March 5. The Queen Elizabeth bombard forts J, L and T across the Gallipoli peninsula. A general attack on the defences of the Narrows begun. Smyrna forts bombarded by East India squadron for two hours.
- March 6. Bombardment of the Smyrna forts resumed. Greek cabinet headed by Venizelos resigns because of King Constantine's opposition to the intervention of Greece in the war. Fighting south-west of Warsaw assumes serious proportions.
- March 7. Ostend attacked by four naval aeroplanes. Liverpool steamer Bengrove torpedoed and sunk in the Bristol Channel. The batteries on the heights of Smyrna and Forts J, U and E in the Dardanelles silenced.

- March 8. The Queen Elizabeth enters the Dardanelles. Fort Maidos partly destroyed by gun-fire from Gulf of Xeros.
- March 9. The following British steamers were torpedoed and sunk: Tangistan off Scarborough, Blackwood off Hastings, and Princess Victoria off Liverpool. Mr. Lloyd George announces the Government's intention to control certain kinds of factories.
- March 10. *The British capture the village of Neuve Chapelle.* British loss over 12,000; German loss about 18,000. British aircraft destroy the railway junctions at Courtrai and Menin. Bulair defences bombarded by two British ships. German submarine U12 sunk by destroyer Ariel. German auxiliary cruiser Prinz Eitel Friedrich reaches Newport News (and later interns).
- March 11. British troops occupy village of L'Épinette near Armentières. The armed liner Bayano torpedoed and sunk near Stranraer, Scotland. The Florazan torpedoed and sunk at the mouth of the Bristol Channel; the Adenwen torpedoed (not sunk) in the English Channel. A French division continues the operations against the defences at Bulair.
- March 12. The British cross the Les Layes brook and make progress towards Aubers. British steamers Headlands (not sunk) and Andalusian and Indian City (both sunk) torpedoed off the Scillies.
- March 13. British steamers Hartdale and Invergyle torpedoed (not sunk) off the Mull of Galloway and Cresswell. Swedish steamer Hannah torpedoed and sunk off Scarborough. British aircraft destroy the railway stations at Don and Douai.
- March 14. The German cruiser Dresden destroyed in Chilean territorial waters near Juan Fernandez Island by the Kent, Glasgow and Orama. British Government subsequently apologises for the mistake to the Chilean Government and apology is accepted. British steamer Atlanta torpedoed (not sunk) off Inishturck.
- March 15. Lord Kitchener makes a statement on the progress of the war and the insufficiency of the provision of war material in Great Britain. British lose some trenches at St. Eloi, but regain them later. Austrians defeated at Smolnik in the Carpathians; Russians bombard the Przemysl forts. The steamer Blonde attacked by German submarine off the North Foreland and the Fingal torpedoed and sunk off the Northumberland coast.
- March 17. Steamer Lieuwarden sunk by gun fire from a submarine off the Dutch coast.
- March 18. *Bombardment of the Narrows. The British battleships Ocean and Irresistible and the French battleship Bouvet sunk by drifting mines.* Russian squadron approaches the Bosphorus. Zeppelin attack on Calais; seven lives lost. Glasgow steamer Glenartney torpedoed and sunk off Beachy Head. Russians enter Memel in East Prussia.
- March 19. British steamer Blue Jacket torpedoed (not sunk) off Beachy Head.
- March 20. Admiralty announce the probable loss of the Karlsruhe at the beginning of November.
- March 21. *Fortress of Przemysl surrenders with 120,000 men to the Russians.* Zeppelin raid on Paris, no lives lost and little damage done. The Germans recapture Memel. German aeroplanes attack two neutral vessels in the North Sea.
- March 22. British troops under Sir G. Youngusband defeat a Turkish force advancing on Suez.
- March 23. British merchant vessel Teal attacked by a German aeroplane in the North Sea.

- March 24. German submarine works at Hoboken near Antwerp raided by two British naval airmen. Russians win a decisive victory over the Austrians in the region of the Lupkow Pass in the Carpathians.
- March 25. French aviators raid Metz. Dutch steamer Medea sunk off Beachy Head by the U28. British steamer Delmira torpedoed in the Channel by U32.
- March 26. The Admiralty report the sinking of the U29 with all hands.
- March 27. Russian Black Sea Fleet attacks the Bosphorus forts. British steamer Vosges sunk by submarine shell-fire off the Cornish coast. Steamer Aguila torpedoed and sunk off the Pembroke-shire coast. Belgian aviators bombard the German aviation ground at Ghisteltes, near Ostend.
- March 28. British liner Falaba torpedoed and sunk south of the St. George's Channel: over 100 passengers and crew drowned. German warships bombard the Russian port Libau.
- March 29. A deputation to Mr. Lloyd George from the Shipbuilding Employers' Federation demand total prohibition during the war.
- March 31. Effective air raid on Bruges by allied aviators.

APRIL.

- April 1. French and British steamers Emma and Seven Seas torpedoed.
- April 2. British steamer Eston, Norwegian barque Nor, three British trawlers torpedoed. Russian victory in Bessarabia.
- April 3. Russian advance in Carpathians.
- April 4. Russians drive Austrians from Beskid range. British steamer City of Bremen torpedoed.
- April 5, 6, 7. Russians seize all commanding positions in Carpathians.
- April 8. Russians invade Hungary. French make progress at St. Mihiel.
- April 9. French capture Les Eparges.
- April 10. Belgian relief ship Harpalyce torpedoed.
- April 11. Kronprinz Wilhelm enters Newport News.
- April 12. German counter-attack at Les Eparges defeated.
- April 13. British vessels penetrate Dardanelles for 10 miles.
- April 14. Zeppelin raid on north coast of Britain.
- April 15. Zeppelin raid on east coast of Britain. French advance at Arras and in Alsace.
- April 16. French air-raid on Baden and Metz. British defeat Turks on Persian Gulf.
- April 17. Turkish torpedo boat Demir Hissar destroyed at Chios.
- April 18. British submarine E15 ashore in Dardanelles, destroyed by Turks.
- April 19. British capture Hill 60 close to Ypres. Trawler Vanilla torpedoed; all hands lost.
- April 20. German troops reinforce Austrians in Hungary.
- April 21. Counter-attacks at Hill 60 repulsed by British. French and British victory in the Cameroons.
- April 22. *Germans make progress at Langemarck by the use of suffocating gases. Stopped by Canadians.*
- April 23. British steamer Orcoma sinks the German steamer Bayovar.
- April 24. *Landing of Allied troops begun at Dardanelles.*
- April 25. German attacks repulsed at Ypres.
- April 26. Kronprinz Wilhelm interned.
- April 27. Germans driven from Lizerne and Het Sas. French retake Hartmannsweilerkopf.

- April 28. German offensive at Ypres definitely ends. Zeppelin headquarters raided by allied aviators. French warship Leon Gambetta sunk by Austrian submarine off Italian coast. Queen Elizabeth sinks Turkish transport.
- April 29. Dunkirk shelled by Germans from a distance of 20 miles. Triumph bombards Maidos.
- April 30. Ineffective air raid on east coast of England.

MAY.

- May 1. British trawler Columbia attacked and sunk in the North Sea by two German torpedo-boats, which were afterwards sunk by British destroyers. British destroyer Recruit torpedoed and sunk in the North Sea. American oil-tank steamer Gullflight torpedoed by a German submarine off the Scillies.
- May 2. The Norwegian steamer Baldwin and the Swedish steamer Elsa sunk in the North Sea by the U39. The Austro-German army defeats the Russians very severely south of Cracow.
- May 3. General Botha arrives within sixty miles of Windhoek. Eight British trawlers sunk by a submarine in the North Sea.
- May 4. Germans gain a footing on Hill 60.
- May 7. *The Cunarder Lusitania sunk by a German submarine off the Old Head of Kinsale; 1,142 lives lost.* British destroyer Maori mined and sunk off the Belgian coast; her crew and some of the men of H.M.S. Crusader, which went to her help, captured.
- May 8. French forces win a victory north of Arras. Germans occupy the Russian port of Libau on the Baltic. Turks defeated on Gallipoli Peninsula after three days' fighting.
- May 9. *British first army advances at Festubert.* China accepts the demands in Japan's final note.
- May 10. French again victorious north of Arras. Zeppelins raid Southend; one life lost. Anti-German riots break out in many English towns.
- May 11. Russians victorious over the Austrians near the Roumanian frontier.
- May 12. French continue their progress north of Arras. H.M.S. Goliath torpedoed and sunk in the Dardanelles by a submarine; 500 lives lost. British submarine E14 penetrates into the Sea of Marmora and sinks two Turkish gunboats and a transport. General Botha enters Windhoek the capital of German South-West Africa. General Cox's brigade repulses a Turkish attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula.
- May 13. The French capture Carency and a large quantity of German war material. Lord Bryce's committee of inquiry publishes its report on the German atrocities in Belgium.
- May 14. Russians forced to continue their retreat in Poland and Galicia. Germans occupy Jaroslav.
- May 15. Text of the American Note to Germany on the submarine "blockade" published. Austrians enter Sambor, south of Przemysl. Lord Fisher, the First Sea Lord, resigns.
- May 16. Lancashire territorials make progress on the Gallipoli Peninsula. British capture two German lines south of Richebourg l'Avoué; further south they cross the Festubert-Quinque road and advance nearly a mile. King of Italy requests Signor Salandra to remain in office.

- May 17. British First Army captures two miles of German trenches south of Richebourg l'Avoué. Germans forced across the Yser by French artillery fire. *Germans defeat the Russians and force several crossings of the River San.* A Zeppelin drops about fifty bombs on Ramsgate, but it is attacked and disabled by British aeroplanes; no casualties.
- May 18. Lord Kitchener asks for 300,000 more recruits and announces that Allies intend to use asphyxiating gases.
- May 19. Premier Asquith announces that a Coalition Government is about to be formed. German attack on Przemysl begun. Australasian troops inflict a loss of 7,000 on the Turks in the Dardanelles campaign.
- May 20. Italian Chamber passes vote of confidence in the Ministry. Two German Taubes brought down by French artillery.
- May 21. French complete the capture of the Lorette Hills and take 250 prisoners. The French division makes progress at the Dardanelles.
- May 22. Troop train carrying 500 men of the Royal Scots wrecked near Carlisle; 200 killed and many injured.
- May 23. *Italy declares war on Austria.* Turkish gunboat sunk by British submarine. Turks are granted an armistice in order to bury 3,000 of their dead killed between May 18th and 20th.
- May 24. General Mackensen's army attacks the Russian positions between the rivers Lubaczowka and San. Italians attack Austrians and march towards Trent and Trieste. Austrian aircraft raid Italian coast towns. Italian destroyer bombards the Austrian port of Porto Buso.
- May 25. German submarine U21 sinks H.M.S. Triumph in the Aegean Sea.
- May 26. Zeppelin raid on Southend; two women killed. Constitution of the new Cabinet announced.
- May 27. H.M.S. Majestic sunk off the Dardanelles by the German submarine U21. H.M.S. Irene blown up in Sheerness harbour; 300 lives lost. Eighteen French aeroplanes bombard the Baden Aniline Company's works at Ludwigshafen and destroy part of the chlorine plant. Russians win a victory at Sieniawa on the San. Italian forces occupy Ala. Hull steamer Cadeby sunk off the Scillies by gunfire from a German submarine.
- May 28. Admiral Sir Henry Jackson succeeds Lord Fisher as First Sea Lord. Operations on the Gallipoli Peninsula from May 6th to 19th described in a despatch from General Hamilton. Submarine E11 sinks a Turkish transport and a supply ship in the Sea of Marmora. Newcastle steamer Spennymoor and the Elder-Dempster cargo liner Ethiope sunk by a submarine in the Channel.
- May 30. White Star liner Megantic unsuccessfully attacked by German submarine off Queenstown.
- May 31. German reply to the American Note on the sinking of the Lusitania and other vessels published.

JUNE.

- June 1. French capture the sugar refinery at Souchez after two days' battle and make progress in "The Labyrinth". German attack on Bzura-Rawka line repulsed. Austrian aeroplanes bombard Italian towns of Brindisi, Bari, and Molfetta; four killed.
- June 2. *Italians cross the Isonzo, and establish themselves on Monte Nero.* Germans capture three of the forts at Przemysl. German transports torpedoed by British submarine in the Sea of Marmora.

- June 3. *Austro-German forces capture Przemysl and advance towards Lemberg.* Amara, on the Tigris, captured by the British. British capture German trenches at Givenchy along a front of 200 yards.
- June 4. Anglo-French attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula results in the capture of lines of trenches, length 3 miles, depth 500 yards.
- June 6. Zeppelin raid on the East Coast; 24 killed and 40 injured. Von Linsingen forces a crossing of the Dniester at Zurawno, forty miles from Lemberg.
- June 7. Flight Sub-Lieutenant Warneford destroys a Zeppelin between Ghent and Brussels at a height of 6,000 feet. British airmen drop bombs on airship shed at Evere, north of Brussels, and destroy a Zeppelin. French capture two lines of trenches at Hébuterne, south-west of Arras, and at Moulinsous-Touvent, north of the Aisne.
- June 8. German counter-attacks at Hébuterne repulsed; further French gains in the "Labyrinth" at Neuville St. Vaast. Mr. Bryan, United States Secretary of State, resigns. Victoria Cross conferred on Flight Sub-Lieutenant Warneford.
- June 9. Canada resolves to raise a further force of 35,000 men. British casualties to May 31st given by Mr. Asquith as 258,069. United States sends a second note to Germany on the sinking of the Lusitania. Montfalcone captured by the Italians. Mr. Balfour announces that a German submarine had been sunk during the past few days and that of the crew six officers and twenty-one men had been made prisoners.
- June 10. British torpedo-boats No's. 10 and 12 torpedoed by a German submarine off the East Coast and sunk. Russians drive the Austrian and German troops who had crossed the Dniester at Zurawno back again and make 16,000 prisoners.
- June 11. Gradisca on the Isonzo securely held by the Italians. The Breslau attacked by a Russian destroyer near the Bosphorus and severely damaged. German attack on Mosciska repulsed by the Russians with great loss.
- June 12. Austro-Germans again cross the Dniester at Kolomea. Italians bombard the fortress of Malborghetto. Souchez railway station captured by the French.
- June 13. Austro-Germans make a successful attack on Russian front from Mosciska north to the San. M. Venezelos gains 193 seats out of 316 in the Greek general election.
- June 14. Austro-Germans advance to Jaworow, north-west of Lemberg. Austrian attacks in the Carnic Alps repulsed by Italians.
- June 15. French airman bombard Karlsruhe. Mr. Asquith moves vote of credit for £1,250,000. British carry German trenches along a mile front east of Festubert, but fail to hold them. Zeppelins raid East Coast; 16 killed and 40 injured.
- June 16. British carried German first line trenches and some of second along a front of 1,000 yards north of Hooge. French advance along the Fecht valley and capture Steinbrück, a suburb of Metzeral.
- June 18. Petrograd announces that during the past month's operation the Austro-German losses were from 120,000 to 150,000. Italian coast raided by Austrian warships with little damage.
- June 19. *Russians defeated by Austro-Germans and compelled to retreat towards Lemberg from Grodek Lakes line.*
- June 20. Zolkiew and Rawa Ruska captured by the Austro-Germans. Italians consolidate their positions on Monte Nero. British aeroplane drives off a German super-biplane with two engines.

- June 21. Metzeral captured by the French who also make progress towards Souchez. De Wet found guilty of treason and sentenced to six years' imprisonment and a fine of \$10,000. Mr. McKenna announces issuance of a war loan, unlimited in amount, at par and bearing interest at four and a half per cent. Successful attack made on the Turkish positions on the Gallipoli Peninsula by the French and British.
- June 22. *Lemberg re-captured by the second Austrian army.* Austrians defeated near Nizniow and thrown back across the Dniester. Sondernach, south of Metzeral, captured by the French. German submarine sunk at Borkum, apparently as the result of an explosion.
- June 23. Munitions Bill introduced into House of Commons by Mr. Lloyd George. Austrians cross the Dniester along the line Zurawno-Demeskowce, but are heavily defeated and flung back across the river.
- June 24. British government waives the right of confiscation in respect of breaches of blockade. German attack with asphyxiating bombs and burning liquid at Calonne on the Meuse repulsed by the French.
- June 25. Russians fight delaying action at Bobrka, eighteen miles south-east of Lemberg. Bukoba, a German port on Lake Nyanza, destroyed by British East African force. French throw twenty bombs on Douai station.
- June 26. General Sukhomlinoff, Russian Minister of War, resigns and is succeeded by General Polivanoff. Germans obtain footing on sunken road between Ablain and Angres, north of Souchez, along a front of 200 yards.
- June 27. *Germans capture Halicz.* Russians retreat to the Gnila Lipa. Austro-German army advances towards the Bug. French airman bombard Zeppelin sheds at Friedrichshafen.
- June 28. French re-capture the lost sunken road. British attack successfully in Gallipoli.
- June 29. German attack at Bagatelle in the Argonne, use of aerial torpedoes by the Germans. National Registration Bill introduced into House of Commons by Mr. Walter Long.
- June 30. German attack east of Metzeral repulsed. French make slight progress west of Souchez.

JULY.

- July 1. General Botha's army occupies Otavi. Mr. Asquith states that the British naval and military losses in the Dardanelles to May 31st amount to 38,636. The Germans advance in the Argonne and take 1,735 prisoners.
- July 2. In a naval action in the Baltic the German minelayer Albatross is driven ashore by Russian cruisers and the German battleship Pommern is torpedoed by a British submarine. On the Gallipoli Peninsula the Turks lose over 5,000 killed and 1,500 wounded between June 28th and July 2nd.
- July 4. Germans take French trenches between Lorraine and the Meuse and take over 1,000 prisoners. Turks take the offensive in Gallipoli but are repulsed. French liner Carthage sunk by a submarine at the entrance to the Dardanelles. Turks attack Aden and compel an outlying force to retreat to the city.
- July 5. Austro-German advance in Galicia and Southern Poland temporarily checked.
- July 6. Sir Ian Hamilton's despatch regarding the fighting in Gallipoli between June 28th and July 2nd published. British capture 980 German prisoners and take 200 yards of trenches south-west of Pilkem.

- July 7. Publication of first long despatch from Sir Ian Hamilton, covering operations in the Gallipoli Peninsula up to May 5th. French gain fresh ground to the north of Souchez station.
- July 8. French storm a German position in the Vosges and capture 700 prisoners. Italian cruiser *Amalfi* torpedoed and sunk in the upper Adriatic by an Austrian submarine.
- July 9. *General Botha receives the surrender of the Governor of German South-west Africa with all his troops.* British drive the Germans back from the Ypres Canal after a bombing duel which lasted two days. Manchester steamer *Ellesmere* sunk by a German submarine off the Pembrokeshire coast. Atlantic liner *Orduna* unsuccessfully attacked by a German submarine south of Queenstown.
- July 11. Two British monitors destroy the German cruiser *Königsberg* in the Rufigi River, German East Africa. Germans recapture Souchez cemetery.
- July 12. Publication of long despatch from Sir John French concerning the operations of the British army in Flanders from middle of April to the end of May. Text of the second German note to the United States on the Lusitania outrage published.
- July 13. Remarkable success of the British war loan announced by Mr. McKenna. British drive back German attacks on the Ypres-Menin road.
- July 14. *Germans recapture Przasnysz*, cross the Windau in the direction of Riga, and defeat the Russians at Altantz. British troops announced to have been co-operating with the Serbians against the Austrians during the past six months.
- July 15. South Wales miners strike. Munitions tribunal appointed. Austrians bombard Montfalcone.
- July 16. French recapture Hill 285 in the Argonne. Ten French aeroplanes bombard the military station of Chauny. Russians capture 2,000 Austrians on the Dniester.
- July 17. Allied forces announced to have captured Ngaundere, in the Central Cameroons, on June 29th.
- July 18. Germans capture Windau and Tuckum in the Baltic region. Italian cruiser *Giuseppe Garibaldi* sunk in the Adriatic by an Austrian submarine.
- July 19. Mr. Asquith announces in the House of Commons that the total naval and military casualties in the Dardanelles up to the end of June amount to 42,434.
- July 20. Vote of credit for £150,000,000 passed by the House of Commons. South Wales coal strike settled. Thirty-one French aviators bombard the station of Conflans-Jarny. Radom occupied by Austrian troops. Italians capture a line of heights commanding the town of Gorizia.
- July 23. Bill for the Suspension of Elections introduced into the House of Commons. Germans cross the Narew between Rozan and Pultusk. Anglo-Indian army advances up the Euphrates from Kurna westward.
- July 24. French gain a success in the Vosges at the Ban de Sapt. Text published of America's third note to Germany.
- July 25. Russian torpedo boats destroy forty Turkish ships laden with coal in the Black Sea.
- July 26. Anglo-Indian force capture Nasrie on the road to Bagdad. Turkey reported to have ceded to Bulgaria the Dedeagatch railway. Italians capture the position of San Michele on the Carso Plateau. French submarine *Mariotte* sunk in the Dardanelles Straits.

- July 27. Mr. Asquith announces that the total British casualties, army and navy, from August to the beginning of July amount to 330,995.
- July 28. Russians born in 1896 called to the colours.
- July 29. Two British and nine neutral vessels announced to have been sunk recently in the North Sea by German submarines. Parliament adjourns.
- July 30. *Austro-German forces capture Lublin*. Press Bureau announces the arrest of more alleged German agents.

AUGUST.

- Aug. 1. Germans are held on the Blonie line west of Warsaw, but occupy Mitau, south-west of Riga.
- Aug. 2. British submarine sinks a large German transport in the Baltic containing a regiment of Von Below's army. British submarine torpedoes a steamer off Mudania Pier, and a small steamer in Karabogha Bay. Austro-Hungarian troops gain a success before Ivangorod, capturing 2,300 prisoners and 32 guns. German success at Hill 213 in the Argonne. Germans defeated by British on the Northern Rhodesian border.
- Aug. 3. British submarine announced to have sunk a German destroyer near the German coast on July 26th. Germans force the Blonie line, and the Narew line near Ostroleka. Ivangorod partly occupied by the Austro-Hungarians. Germans unsuccessful in attacking French lines in the Argonne.
- Aug. 4. *Fall of Warsaw*. French cruiser destroys the German submarine base at Spelia in Asia Minor. Italians capture big entrenchments on the Carso. Four Allied Powers make representations to Serbia in order to get an understanding among the Balkan States.
- Aug. 5. *Fall of Ivangorod*. Germans under Prince Léopold of Bavaria occupy Warsaw. Russians begin the evacuation of Riga and take offensive in the Caucasus. Russians obtain a minor success in the Baltic Provinces.
- Aug. 6. Fierce fighting reported in the Argonne near Hill 213. *New landing at Anzac cove in Gallipoli*. General Sarraill appointed French Commander-in-chief at the Dardanelles.
- Aug. 7. Germans repulsed near Riga. Portion of Sari Bahr crest occupied; Turks report a landing above the Bulair lines. Germans capture Sierok on the Bug and advance towards Wyszkwow. French repulse the Germans on Lingekopf.
- Aug. 8. *Nine German battleships and twelve cruisers repulsed in the Gulf of Riga; one cruiser and two destroyers damaged*. The auxiliary cruiser India sunk in the North Sea by a German submarine. A small armed vessel, H.M.S. Ramsay, sunk in the North Sea by the armed German liner Meteor, which was afterwards abandoned and blown up by British cruisers. Turkish battleship Hairredin Barbarossa sunk by British submarine.
- Aug. 9. British capture 1,200 yards of trenches at Hooge. Zeppelins raid the East Coast killing fourteen and wounding fourteen; a Zeppelin damaged by gunfire of land defence, and finally destroyed at Ostend by aircraft. French air raid on Saarbrücken. Germans repulsed in the Bois le Prêtre. British destroyer Lynx mined and sunk in the North Sea.
- Aug. 10. Sir Ian Hamilton reports progress in Gallipoli; the ground held at Anzac nearly trebled in area by the gallantry of the Australian and New Zealand troops. British also advance 200 yards at Krithia. Admiralty announce the sinking of a Turkish gunboat, Berk-i-Salvet by a British submarine in the Dardanelles. *German fleet in Gulf of Riga again driven off*.

- Aug. 11. Austrian submarine U12 sunk in the Adriatic by an Italian submarine. *Germans reach the Petrograd-Warsaw railway.* Germans repulsed in the Argonne at Marie-Thérèse and La Fontaine-aux-Charmes. Van evacuated by the Turks.
- Aug. 12. Zeppelins raid the East Coast killing six and injuring twenty-three. Austrian submarine U3 sunk in the Adriatic by the French destroyer Bisson after being rammed by an Italian auxiliary cruiser. Germans repulsed in the Mitau region and driven beyond the River Aa. German's capture Siedlce and make progress towards the Bug. Belgrade bombarded. Flight-Lieutenant Edmonds sinks a Turkish transport filled with troops in the Dardanelles.
- Aug. 13. German munition works at Jaffa destroyed by a French cruiser.
- Aug. 14. British transport Royal Edward torpedoed and sunk in Aegean Sea by a German submarine; loss of life about 1,000. Germans bombard Novo Georgievsk with heavy guns. Severe fighting on Zlota Lipa.
- Aug. 15. The new forces landed in Gallipoli at Sulva Bay advance 500 yards. Germans driven back south of Riga. Germans break through the Russian lines at Bransk between the Narew and the Bug; Leopold of Bavaria and Von Mackensen close in on Brest-Litovsk. Van recaptured by the Turks.
- Aug. 16. Germans capture forts at Kovno and Novo Georgievsk. Russians partly evacuate Bialystok. A German submarine shells the Cumberland coast.
- Aug. 17. *Fall of Kovno;* 400 cannon captured by the Germans. Von Mackensen's army cuts the Cholm-Brest-Litovsk railway. Zeppelin raid on the East Coast; ten killed and thirty-six wounded.
- Aug. 18. *President of Duma reports that a strong German squadron which had penetrated the Gulf of Riga had been repulsed with the loss of two cruisers, eight torpedo boats and four barges full of troops attempting to land at Pernau.* The Moltke reported torpedoed by British submarine; the truth of this report has subsequently been denied by the German Admiralty. A Russian gunboat, the Sivoutch, was sunk in this action. Germans cross the Bielsk and penetrate the outer positions of Brest-Litovsk near Rokitno.
- Aug. 19. *Fall of Novo Georgievsk.* White Star liner Arabic torpedoed by German submarine off the south coast of Ireland. British submarine E13 grounds on the Danish island of Saltholm in the Sound; crew, while in the water, fired upon by German destroyer and fifteen killed.
- Aug. 20. *Italy declares war on Turkey.* Germans enter Bielsk.
- Aug. 21. Cotton declared absolute contraband by the British and French Governments. M. Venizelos accepts the Greek Premiership. Further gains in the Anzac and Sulva Bay zones, Gallipoli. German squadron driven out of the Gulf of Riga.
- Aug. 22. *Ossowiec occupied by the Germans;* retirement of the Russians from the Nieman and Bobr line. Two French torpedo boats sink a German destroyer off Ostend.
- Aug. 23. British warships shell the Belgian coast near Zeebrugge. Seven French aeroplanes bombard Tergnier and Noyon.
- Aug. 24. Germans cross the Narew near Tykocin. Count Bernstorff asks the United States Government to postpone any decision on the Arabic affair until the German report is available.

- Aug. 25. *Brest-Litovsk falls.* Sixty British, French and Belgian airmen make a raid on the Forest of Houthulst. Sept.
- Aug. 26. British aeroplane, Squadron Commander Arthur W. Bigsworth, R.N., destroys a German submarine off Ostend. Sir Edward Grey replies to speech of the German Chancellor made in the Reichstag on August 19th. Lord Selborne announces that "the navy have the submarine menace well in hand". Allied airmen bombard German poison-gas factory at Dornach and the station at Mülheim. Russians evacuate Olita on the Niemen. Count Bernstorff announces that German submarines have been ordered to attack no more merchantmen without warning. Sept.
- Aug. 27. Germans advance from Brest-Litovsk and push the Russians back nearly to Kobryn. Zlota Lipa positions pierced north and south of Brzezany. Renewal of coal strike in South Wales. Sept.
- Aug. 28. Germans attempt an air raid on Paris and French make an aeroplane attack in the Argonne. Mr. Balfour states that Zeppelins have, to date, killed eighty-nine and wounded two hundred and twenty civilians, and wounded seven soldiers and sailors. Sept.
- Aug. 29. Germans take Lipsk and make an attack on Friedrichstadt.
- Aug. 30. Mr. Balfour gives reasons for reticence of Admiralty over Zeppelin raids. Sep.

SEPTEMBER.

- Sept. 1. General Alexieff appointed chief of the Russian General Staff. Four German aeroplanes bombard Lunéville. Sept.
- Sept. 2. *Fall of Grodno.* Germans capture a bridgehead on the Dvina between Riga and Friedrichstadt. Sept.
- Sept. 4. Allan Liner Hesperian torpedoed without warning and sunk off the south coast of Ireland; 25 lives lost. Sept.
- Sept. 5. *The Tsar takes supreme command of the Russian forces by land and sea.* Grand Duke Nicholas transferred to the Caucasus. Turkish destroyer Yar Hissar sunk in the Sea of Marmora. Two Russian torpedo-boat destroyers drive away the Turkish cruiser Hamidieh and two torpedo-boats in the Black Sea. A Mohmand rising on the Indian frontier suppressed. Sept.
- Sept. 6. French aeroplane bombardment of Saarbrücken in Lorraine; 75 persons reported killed. Sept.
- Sept. 7. *Russian victory near Tarnopol in Galicia,* 8,000 prisoners and thirty guns captured. Raid on the Eastern Counties by three Zeppelins; 17 killed and 39 injured. Belgian coast bombarded by 30 to 40 vessels of the British fleet; French and British airships bombard Ostend. Germans admit the loss of the U27. Se
Se
- Sept. 8. Zeppelin air raid on London and Eastern Counties; 20 killed and 88 injured. Further Russian successes at Tarnopol and Trembovla. Heavy German attack repulsed in the Argonne.
- Sept. 9. Further Russian successes at Trembovla; 5,000 prisoners and a number of guns captured. Von Mackensen in possession of Dubno and advancing on Rovno. Germans by use of liquid fire make slight progress between Lingekopf and Barrenkopf. French airmen raid Luttenbach and Grand Pré. Se
- Sept. 11. Zeppelin raid on the East Coast; no casualties and no damage done. Text of German note on the sinking of the Arabic published. Great German concentration on the Dvinsk-Vilna line. Se

- Sept. 12. Zeppelin raid on the East Coast; no casualties. Germans reach the Dvinsk Vilna railway.
- Sept. 13. Russian forces at Vilna threatened with envelopment. Russian forces advance in Tarnopol district. Von Mackensen checked near Rovno. German air raid on East Coast; no casualties. German aeroplane raids Kent coast; seven injured. Admiral Sir Percy Scott placed in command of the aerial defences of London.
- Sept. 14. Russian attacks force the enemy across the River Strypa. At the opening of parliament British casualties for the army during the first year of war announced to be 381,982. British success in East Africa at Maktan.
- Sept. 15. *Gremans occupy Pinsk.* Violent fighting along the Strypa in Galicia. Germans make progress in the offensive towards Rovno.
- Sept. 16. Duma prorogued until November. British casualties in Dardanelles to August 31st announced to be 87,630. Dvinsk and Vilna encircled by the Germans. German cavalry reach the railway at Molodeczna.
- Sept. 17. British submarine E7 announced to have been sunk of the Dardanelles. Official account of the week's casualties in London from Zeppelin raids gives totals of 38 killed and 124 injured. Germans occupy Vidsy, east of the Vilna-Dvinsk railway.
- Sept. 18. *Fall of Vilna.* Nine air combats between British and German aeroplanes; two hostile aeroplanes destroyed. French and British fleets co-operate in bombarding German positions on the Belgian coast.
- Sept. 19. Bulgaria mobilises and announces policy of an armed neutrality. Germans reach the Lida line on the Niemen and threaten the Russian retreat from Vilna.
- Sept. 20. French gain a footing on the Aisne-Marne Canal and make progress at Hartmannsweilerkopf in the Vosges.
- Sept. 21. Mr. McKenna introduces a budget which greatly increases taxation. Despatch from Sir Ian Hamilton published describing the Gallipoli operations during May and June. Russians retire successfully from Vilna and also defeat the Germans at Lennewarden on the Dvina.
- Sept. 22. Allied aeroplanes raid Stuttgart and bomb the palace of the King of Württemberg.
- Sept. 23. Greece orders the mobilisation of her army. British make a successful air raid on the German communications near Valenciennes. Russians re-occupy Lutsk in Volhynia.
- Sept. 24. *Furious German assault on Dvinsk repulsed.*
- Sept. 25. *Allies open a great offensive in France. British advance 4,000 yards south of the La Bassée Canal, capture Loos and reach the slopes of Hill 70 north of Lens. Near Hooge they gain 600 yards of trenches. The French gain the cemetery at Souchez and the remainder of the Labyrinth. In Champagne they break the German lines to a depth of two and a half miles on a fifteen mile front, taking 16,000 prisoners and 24 field guns. A British squadron bombards Zeebrugge.*
- Sept. 26. French capture Souchez and make further progress in Champagne. British and French gains consolidated; prisoners announced to total 20,000 and guns thirty-three. British occupy Hulluch.
- Sept. 27. British make further progress east of Loos. British captures to date amount to 53 officers, 2,800 men, 18 guns, and 32 machine guns; French to 300 officers, 20,000 men and 70 guns. German offensive in the Argonne repulsed. General Evert defeats German forces near Vileika.

- Sept. 29. *British defeat the Turks at Kut-el-Amara on the Tigris.* French make progress in Champagne. Germans recross the river Styr below Lutsk. Italian battleship Benedetto Brin accidentally blown up in harbour.
- Sept. 29. French reach Hill 140 in the crests of Vimy, and make progress in Champagne on right centre and right wing.
- Sept. 30. Progress made in Champagne at Hill 185, the Butte de Tahure, and before Ripont.

OCTOBER.

- Oct. 1. Sir Edward Grey makes a statement of the gravity of the situation in the Balkans. French progress in Artois and capture German positions to north of Mesnil, in Champagne.
- Oct. 2. Bulgarian forces move towards Serbian frontier. Germans launch an attack against the Serbs and are repulsed at Semendria when trying to cross the Danube. Germans begin a new movement against Dvinsk.
- Oct. 3. The German counter-attack against the British positions and succeed in retaking the greater part of the Hohenzollern Redoubt.
- Oct. 4. *Russia presents an ultimatum to Bulgaria;* the Russian Minister to leave Sofia if Bulgaria "does not within 24 hours openly break with the enemies of the Slav cause and Russia" and expel all German and Austrian officers. Greek Chamber passes vote of confidence in M. Venizelos's policy of assistance to Serbia. Turks defeated in the Caucasus near Van. Number of controlled establishments under the Munitions of War Act stated to have reached 979.
- Oct. 5. *Diplomatic relations between Russia and Bulgaria broken off.* Lord Derby assumes the direction of recruiting for the British army. Allied forces land at Salonika at the invitation of the Greek Government. Greek cabinet resigns because King Constantine informs Venizelos that he cannot support his policy.
- Oct. 6. Austro-German invasion of Serbia begins. Austro-German troops cross the Dvina, Save and Danube in many places. French capture the village of Tahure and the Navarin Farm, in Champagne. German assaults on Dvinsk; desperate fighting at Grand Grunwald; attempts to cut the Riga-Dvinsk railway.
- Oct. 7. New Greek Ministry formed by M. Zaimis. French gain ground in the Trapeze, south-east of Tahure. Fighting takes place within nine miles of Dvinsk. Sir Ian Hamilton reports that during past months the centre, four miles long, had advanced a distance of 300 yards at Sulva Bay.
- Oct. 8. British submarine sinks a German transport in the Baltic. British repulse fierce German attacks on their positions north of Hill 70 and between Hulluch and the Hohenzollern Redoubt, and also gain possession of a German trench 500 yards west of St. Elie.
- Oct. 9. *Belgrade occupied by the enemy* and the Danube crossed east of Semendria. General Ivanoff advances in Galicia. German steamer Lulfa, of Lubeck, torpedoed by a British submarine in the Baltic.
- Oct. 10. The crossing of the Danube completed and the heights around Belgrade occupied by the enemy. Maidos is shelled by Allied monitors. French make progress in Souchez Valley, in Givenchy Wood, on the ridges towards La Folie, and in Champagne. Germans are driven out of Garbounovka.

- Oct. 11. Bulgaria opens her attack on Serbia at three points. Semendria stormed and occupied by the Germans. General Ivanoff breaks the Austro-German line at Hajvoronka, on the Strypa. German steamer Lulea sunk by British submarine in the Baltic. French progress northeast of Souchez and on the heights of La Folie, and dominate La Goutte ravine in Champagne.
- Oct. 12. *Execution of Miss Edith Cavell in Brussels.* Germans make progress south of Belgrade; Pozarevatz attacked. Greek Government declines to assist Serbia. French progress in Champagne. Russians attack the German line from Dvinsk to Smorgon. Italians gain a success in Carnia.
- Oct. 13. Zeppelins raid London area; 55 killed and 114 injured. M. Delcassé, the French Foreign Minister, resigns. British re-capture the greater part of the Hohenzollern Redoubt. Russians driven back across the Strypa. The German steamers Director Reppenhagen, Nicomedia, and Walter Leonhardt sunk in the Baltic.
- Oct. 14. *Bulgaria officially at war with Serbia;* Pozarevatz, on the River Mlava, stormed and taken by the Austro-German forces. Germans driven across the Strypa at Hajvoronka.
- Oct. 15. *War declared between Great Britain and Bulgaria.* Heavy fighting between French and Bulgarian troops at Valandova, near the Salonika-Nish line. Germans capture the crest of Hartmannsweilerkopf in the Vosges. Italian troops capture the strongly fortified position of Pregasina, north of Lake Garda. German steamers Svania, Gertrude, Pyrgos and Emgard sunk in the Baltic.
- Oct. 16. *France declares war on Bulgaria.* French retake all their positions on Hartmannsweilerkopf. Austro-German forces 10 miles south of Belgrade. Franco-Serbian forces repulse Bulgarians at Valandova. Russians repulsed at Gross Eckau. British Government declares a blockade of the Bulgarian coast.
- Oct. 17. Bulgarians capture Vrania and cut the Salonika-Nish-Uskub railway. Austro-German troops 15 miles south of Belgrade. Allies send a Note to Greece. Britain offers Cyprus to Greece in return for participation in the war. Russians gain an important success south of the Pripet. French airmen raid Treves.
- Oct. 18. British submarine sinks the German steamer Babylon in the Baltic. German advance on Riga; Borkowitz on the Dvina captured. Heavy fighting on the Styr; Russian success at Chartoryisk. Bulgars occupy Istip. Austrian troops capture Obrenovatz on the Save. German troops 20 miles south of Belgrade. Fierce fighting between Bulgars and Serbs at Vrania; 20 miles of the railway line in the hands of the Bulgarians. Italy declares war against Bulgaria. General Sir C. C. Monro appointed to the command of the Mediterranean expeditionary force in succession to General Sir Ian Hamilton.
- Oct. 19. German attacks on British positions from the Quarries to Hulluch and at the Hohenzollern Redoubt repulsed by the British. German steamers Pernambuco and Söderhamm sunk by British submarine in the Baltic. Germans advance on Riga; fighting takes place within twelve miles of the city.
- Oct. 20. *Bulgarians capture Veles,* on the Salonika-Nish railway. Allied forces take up a position on the Strumnitza-Krivolak line. German advance in Serbia progresses; forces reach a point 25 miles south of Belgrade.

- Germans capture the bank of the Dvina from Borkowitz to the mouth of the Berze. Russians carry German positions on the Styr and take 3,500 prisoners. German steamers Johannes Russ, Hernosand, Dalalven and John Wulf sunk by British submarine in the Baltic.
- Oct. 21. Bulgarian coast from Dedeagatch to Porto Lagos shelled by Allied squadron. Bulgarians checked by French troops near Rabrovo, south of Strumnitza. Kumanovo and 100 miles of railway line captured by Bulgarians. Russian Fleet bombards Varna. Austrian troops enter Shabatatz on the Save. General Ivanoff defeats the Austro-German forces at Novo Alexinetz, north of Tarnopol, taking 7,500 prisoners.
- Oct. 22. The King arrives in France on a visit to the front. Russians effect a landing upon the German flank in Courland. Bulgarians occupy Uskub. Allied forces in touch with Bulgarians at Krivolak. Bulgarians again repulsed by French at Rabrovo. German storm Illutsk near Dvinsk. General Italian advance on the Isonzo front; 1,000 prisoners taken.
- Oct. 23. The King's appeal to the nation published. Greece reported to have refused the offer of Cyprus. British submarine sinks the German cruiser Prinz Adalbert and the German steamers Electra, Rendsburg and Plauen in the Baltic. Germans cross the Danube at Orsova. Bulgarian Army under General Bojadjeff crosses the Timok and occupies Prahovo.
- Oct. 24. The French capture the German position La Courtine south of Tahure in Champagne. British submarine sinks a Turkish transport laden with munitions in the Sea of Marmora. Bulgarians capture Negotin. Austrian air raid on Venice. Germans in furious fighting before Riga capture the island of Dahlen in the Dvina.
- Oct. 25. *Franco-Serbians re-capture Veles. Austrians enter Valyevo, occupy Kladovo and almost come into touch with the Bulgarians. Germans re-take part of La Courtine.*
- Oct. 26. Admiralty announce that the British transport Marquette has been sunk in the Aegean; 99 lives lost. Connection between the Austro-German armies and the Bulgars established along the Danube bank at Liubichevatz. Two German aeroplanes brought down by British airmen.
- Oct. 27. Austrians cross the Dvina east of Vishegrad against the opposition of the Montenegrins. Varna bombarded by the Russian Fleet.
- Oct. 28. Accident to King George while inspecting troops in France. French Cabinet resigns and M. Briand is asked to form a new Ministry. H.M.S. Argyll wrecked on the north coast of Scotland; no lives lost. British mine sweeper H.M.S. Hythe sunk off the coast of Gallipoli; 155 men missing. The French capture Strumnitza and the Bulgarians retake Veles. Lieutenant-General Sir Bryan Mahon announced to be in command of the British Forces in the Balkans.
- Oct. 29. The total British casualties up to October 9th stated to be 493,294. General Joffre arrives in London.
- Oct. 30. Germans retake summit of the Butte de Tahure, but suffer defeat in other attacks in Champagne.

NOVEMBER.

- Nov. 1. *Austro-German troops progress in Serbia and occupy Kraguyevatz. Turks sink the French submarine Turquoise in the Sea of Marmora by gun fire.*

- Nov. 2. German submarines succeed in passing through the Straits of Gibraltar on their way to the Mediterranean. Austro-Germans occupy Kalafat, ten miles east of Nish. *Russians capture the village of Siemikovtse on the Strypa with 5,000 prisoners.*
- Nov. 4. Four Turkish attempts to rush the Anzac zone checked. Two French steamers and one Italian sunk in the Mediterranean by enemy submarines.
- Nov. 5. Russians make a further capture of 9,000 prisoners near Siemikovtse on the Strypa. British submarine E 20 sunk in the Dardanelles. British steamer Tara sunk in the Mediterranean by a German submarine.
- Nov. 6. Lord Kitchener leaves for a visit to the Near East. London *Globe* suppressed for a fortnight for publishing false news of Lord Kitchener's resignation. *Bulgarians capture the town of Nish* and effect a junction with the German Army operating to the north. British War Office announces that the transport Ramazan was sunk in the Aegean by a submarine on September 19th and that over 300 Indian troops were drowned.
- Nov. 7. M. Skouloudis appointed Premier of Greece. British submarine sinks the German light cruiser Undine in the Baltic. The Italian liner Ancona sunk in the Mediterranean off Sardinia by an Austrian submarine; 208 lives lost. Germans occupy Krusevatiz, east of Nish. Beskovatz captured jointly by Germans and Bulgarians.
- Nov. 8. Text published of the United States Note to Great Britain regarding the British embargo on German trade.
- Nov. 9. The Italian liner Firenze sunk by a submarine; 21 lives lost.
- Nov. 10. Premier Asquith makes a statement regarding the conduct of the war and asks for a vote of credit of £400,000,000 (\$2,000,000,000). H.M. torpedo-boat destroyer Louis wrecked in the Eastern Mediterranean; no lives lost. Bulgarians attack the Allies west of Uskub and Vranja but are repulsed.
- Nov. 11. Premier Asquith announces the composition of the new War Cabinet Committee of five. British transport Mercian announced to have been attacked by a submarine using gun-fire; 53 killed and missing and 50 wounded. Bulgarian attacks near Nish and Monastir repulsed. Greek Chamber dissolved. Russians capture Kemmern and Anting, west of Riga.
- Nov. 12. Mr. Winston Churchill, having been omitted from the War Committee of the Cabinet, resigns to take up active service with the Army.
- Nov. 13. Germans defeat the Russians near Tchartorysk on the Sty.
- Nov. 14. Austrian airmen raid Verona; 30 killed and 48 injured.
- Nov. 15. Lord Kitchener arrives at Lemnos. Mr. Winston Churchill, in a speech in the House of Commons, gives an account of his stewardship.
- Nov. 16. Bulgarians occupy Prilep.
- Nov. 17. *First Franco-British War Council in Paris.* British hospital ship Anglia mined and sunk in the Channel; rescue ship also sunk; 85 lives lost. Zeppelin Z 18 explodes in its shed.
- Nov. 18. British Headquarters Staff in France attacked by Lord St. Davids.
- Nov. 19. Russians re-capture Tchartorysk on the Sty.
- Nov. 20. Lord Kitchener interviews King Constantine and the Greek Premier, and Allies take measures to apply pressure to Greece. Bulgarians take 8,000 Serbs in two days. German troops occupy Novi Bazar.
- Nov. 22. *British force captures Ctesiphon, 18 miles from Bagdad, but troops are forced to withdraw owing to lack of water.*

- Nov. 23. Turks found to have retreated from the battlefield of Ctesiphon. Serbs are driven across the Sitnica. Mitrovitza captured by Austro-Hungarians and Pristina captured by German troops.
- Nov. 24. Serbia refuses Germany's offer of a separate peace. The Greek Government in replying to the Allies' Note, agrees to the Entente demands in principle.
- Nov. 25. First French War Loan opens. French troops in Serbia withdraw to the right bank of the Cerna.
- Nov. 27. The Entente Ministers present a further Note to Greece. Lord Kitchener visits the Italian Headquarters.
- Nov. 28. Greece replies to the latest of the Entente Notes. German Army Headquarters announce the completion of the campaign against Serbia. A British airman bombs and sinks a German submarine off Middlekerke on the Belgian coast.
- Nov. 29. *General Townshend retreats with his forces from Ctesiphon to Kut-el-Amara, a distance of about 100 miles.* Lord Kitchener arrives in Paris.
- Nov. 30. Lord Kitchener returns to London.

DECEMBER.

- Dec. 1. General Townshend, forced to retreat from Ctesiphon on account of heavy losses and the arrival of Turkish reinforcements, fights a rearguard action and retires to Kut-el-Amara, 80 miles down the Tigris; two river boats disabled. Baron Sonnino announces that Italy has signed the pact of London and that aid will be given to Serbia.
- Dec. 2. *General Joffre appointed to be Commander-in-chief of all the French armies.* British casualties up to November 9th announced to be 510,230. Austro-German troops occupy Monastir; Serbians retreat in good order towards Albania. British submarine damages a train on the Ismid railway. British airmen raid Don.
- Dec. 3. The United States Government asks for the recall of Captains Boy-ed and Von Papan, the German Naval and Military Attachés at Washington. General Townshend's force reaches Kut-el-Amara and entrenches. British submarine torpedoes and sinks the Turkish destroyer Yar-Hissa outside the Gulf of Ismid.
- Dec. 4. British submarine sinks a Turkish supply steamer of 3,000 tons and four sailing vessels in the Sea of Marmora. Anglo-French war conference Calais.
Fresh British forces landed at Salonika. Mr. Henry Ford's "peace mission" sails from New York.
- Dec. 5. Austrian warship Wardiner sinks the French submarine Fresnel off the Albanian coast, and an Austrian submarine sinks a small Italian cruiser off Valona. Austrians and Bulgarians, pursuing the Serbian army, cross the Montenegrin and Albanian frontiers. French troops repulse an attack of the Bulgarians on the bridge head at Demir Kapu. American steamer Petrolite shelled by an Austrian submarine in the Mediterranean.
- Dec. 6. Germans capture Ipek in Montenegro. The French forces retire from Krivolak and Kavadar to strong positions in the Demir Kapu Pass. Bulgarian attack on the British repulsed at Strumnitza. All-Allies' War Council in Paris.
- Dec. 7. Anglo-French line in Balkans forced back by superior Bulgarian forces. Enemy occupies Demir Kapu. Germans compelled by heavy floods to

retire from many advance works along the Yser river. French lose and re-capture part of an advanced trench near St. Souplet, Champagne. President Wilson denounces pro-Germans in his message to Congress. American steamer *Communiaw* attacked by an Austrian submarine off the coast of Tripoli.

- Dec. 8. Owing to fierce Bulgarian attacks the Allied forces are compelled to retreat still further towards the Greek frontier. Russians occupy the Sultan Bulak Pass in Persia and thus open the way to Hamadan. French make a counter attack at Butte de Souain in Champagne.
- Dec. 9. Further retreat of the Allies in Macedonia. British lose eight guns and suffer 1,500 casualties. Despatch from Vice-Admiral King Hall published regarding the operations against the German cruiser *Königsberg* in the Rufigi last July. Russian troops defeat Turco-German detachment in Persia between Teheran and Hamadan. Allied War Council meet in Paris.
- Dec. 10. Two Turkish gunboats sunk in the Black Sea by Russian torpedo-boats. First British official communiqué from the Balkans published.
- Dec. 11. Bulgarians attack the French and British front at Furka and lose 8,000 men. Greek Government agrees to withdraw all troops save one division from Salonika, but fails to order demobilisation. General Castelnau appointed to be General Joffre's Chief of Staff. Explosion at the Belgian Government's powder works at Havre; 110 men killed. A small British force routs a party of hostile Arabs on the western frontier of Egypt.
- Dec. 12. *Franco-British troops evacuate Serbia* and Bulgarians enter Doiran and Ghevveli. Derby recruiting campaign ends. Greek ships detained at Malta released. Turkish attacks at Kut-el-Amara repulsed.
- Dec. 13. British force under Colonel Gordon defeats 1,200 Arabs west of Matruh, western Egypt. Text published of President Wilson's Note to Austria-Hungary on the Ancona outrage.
- Dec. 14. German seaplane destroyed off the Belgian coast by Flight Sub-Lieutenant Graham, R.N.A.S. General Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien appointed to command the British forces in East Africa. Supplementary War Credit Bill for \$2,500,000 introduced in the Reichstag.
- Dec. 15. *Sir John French retires from command of the army in France and Flanders*, and is succeeded by Sir Douglas Haig. Italy officially announced to have landed an expeditionary force in Valona and elsewhere in Albania.
- Dec. 16. *Russians occupy Hamadan*. British make two successful night raids on German trenches near Armentières.
- Dec. 17. German cruiser *Bremen* and a torpedo-boat sunk in Baltic by a submarine. Text of Austria's reply to the American Ancona Note published.
- Dec. 18. Orders for Derby groups 2 to 5 to report on January 20th issued. Intense artillery bombardment on the Western front.
- Dec. 19. *Withdrawal from Anzac and Suva Bay accomplished by Sir Charles Monro and Admiral Wemyss with three casualties and loss of six guns*. German gas attack at Ypres foiled.
- Dec. 20. Greek Government admits Bulgarians and Greeks in collision at Koritza. Russian fleet bombards Varna. General Ruskyski retires from Russian northern command because of ill-health. Persian rebel forces on the Kermanshah road endeavouring to retreat towards Bagdad.
- Dec. 21. French capture enemy works on Hartmannsweilerkopf and take 1,300 prisoners. Mr. Asquith moves a supplementary vote of a million more

- men for the army. Japanese steamer *Yasaka Maru* torpedoed and sunk in the Eastern Mediterranean. German munitions factory at Münster blown up; 400 lives lost. Jan.
- Dec. 22. Germans regain a footing in the captured trenches on Hartmannsweilerkopf. Russians defeat a band of rebels at Rabat Kerim, 26 miles south-west of Teheran.
- Dec. 23. Italian troops reach the Greek outposts in Southern Albania. Text published of America's second Note to Austria on the sinking of the *Ancona*. Jan.
- Dec. 24. Turks make a fierce attack on British forces at Kut-el-Amara. They take and subsequently lose one of the forts. French mail-boat *Ville de la Ciotat* torpedoed and sunk in the Mediterranean; 80 lives lost. Jan.
- Dec. 25. Turks repulsed before Kut-el-Amara with 900 casualties. British defeat 3,000 hostile Arabs near Mersa Matruh in Western Egypt.
- Dec. 26. Russian troops in Persia occupy Kashan and march on Ispahan. Jan.
- Dec. 27. Total British losses reported to be 528,227. Indian Army Corps announced to have left France. Heavy fighting between Russians and Austrians at Toporontz on the Bessarabia-Bukowina frontier.
- Dec. 28. French capture German positions on the Hartmannsweilerkopf. British successfully raid German trenches near Armentières. French submarine *Monge* sunk off Cattaro. British cabinet practically decides on Compulsory Service. Jan.
- Dec. 29. French troops occupy the Island of Castellorizo in order to facilitate action against Adalia in Asia Minor. Austrian destroyers *Triglav* and *Lika* sunk by Italian and Allied warships off Durazzo. Ja
- Dec. 30. H.M.S. *Natal* sunk in harbour by an internal explosion; about 300 lives lost. P. & O. liner *Persia* sunk by enemy submarine in eastern Mediterranean with great loss of life. German, Austrian and Turkish airmen bomb Salonika. Ja
- Dec. 31. In their offensive in Galicia the Russians cross the Styr near Chartorysk. They also capture trenches on the Strypa. Sir John Simon resigns from Cabinet on the compulsion issue. Ja

JANUARY, 1916.

- Jan. 1. *Canada announces increase of overseas force from 250,000 to 500,000*. British force occupies Jaunde, an important centre in the Cameroons. J
- Jan. 2. French forced to retreat 200 metres on Hartmannsweilerkopf. Glen liner *Glengyle* sunk in the Mediterranean; 10 lives lost. Turks shell Kut-el-Amara. Russians advance and occupy heights north-west of Czernowitz. J
- Jan. 4. Lord Derby's report on the results of the group system canvass published; 651,160 unstarred single men not offered themselves for service. White paper *re* the Baralong case published. Sir John Simon's resignation announced by the Premier. J
- Jan. 5. Mr. Asquith introduces the Military Service Bill in the House of Commons. Groups 6 to 9 of the Derby recruits called up for service on February 8. Russian offensive continues along the line of the Styr, Strypa and in Bukowina.
- Jan. 6. British submarine sunk off Texel, Holland. British force marches up the Tigris to the relief of Kut-el-Amara. Russians capture the town of Tchartorysk, on the Styr. Italian steamer mined and sunk in the Mediterranean; 200 Montenegrin recruits drowned.

- Jan. 7. General Aylmer defeats the Turks at Sheikh-Saad. Long despatch from Sir Ian Hamilton published regarding the Sulva battle in the Gallipoli operations. Russians gain successes on the Middle Strypa and north-west of Czernowitz. Count Bernstorff presents statement to United States *re* German submarine policy and offers reparation for damages caused by death or injuries to American citizens.
- Jan. 8. *Allied forces complete the evacuation of the Cape Helles zone on Gallipoli* with one casualty and 17 guns abandoned. Text of the Compulsion Bill published. Germans retake some of their lost positions near Hartmannsweilerkopf.
- Jan. 9. British capture a Turkish position at Sheikh-Saad. Austrians assault Mount Lovtchen, Montenegro. French repulse a German attack in Champagne. Admiralty announce the loss of H.M.S. King Edward VII through striking a mine; no lives lost.
- Jan. 10. *Austrians capture Mount Lovtchen* and the town of Berane in Montenegro. Enlistment under the group system re-opens. French occupy most of their lost positions in Champagne. Resignation of Sir John Nixon of command in Mesopotamia announced; Sir Percy Lake to succeed him.
- Jan. 11. French troops occupy Corfu to prepare for the Serbian Army; Greek Government protests. Austrians approaching Cettinge, the capital of Montenegro.
- Jan. 12. Four British aeroplanes destroyed by the Germans. Allies blow up the bridge at Demir Hissar, on the Saloniki railway.
- Jan. 13. *Austrians capture Cettinge*. Despatch from Vice Admiral Bacon published regarding the operations off the Belgian coast from August to November, 1915. French submarine Foucault sinks Austrian cruiser off Cattaro. General Aylmer defeats the Turks at Orah in the Wadi position, 25 miles from Kut-el-Amara, and forces them to retreat.
- Jan. 14. Text of German reply *re* Baralong case published; Sir Edward Grey's proposals refused, and policy of reprisals announced. Montenegro reported to be suing for peace. British damage enemy trenches near Givenchy.
- Jan. 15. Russians rout Turco-German detachment at Kangavar, half-way between Hamadan and Kermanshah.
- Jan. 16. Russian offensive south of Pinsk continues; Kukhotska Volia sector cleared of the enemy.
- Jan. 17. General Sarrail appointed to the supreme command of all the Allied troops at Salonika. *Capitulation of Montenegro reported by the Austrians*. Russians break the Turkish centre at Köpri-Keui, along a line of 66 miles on the Caucasus front, and drive the Turks back on Erzerum. Russian torpedo-boat raid on the Anatolian coast; 163 sailing ships destroyed.
- Jan. 18. Five Allied warships bombard Dedeagatch. Germans evacuate Ebolowa and Akonolinga in the Cameroons. German governor and commandant escape into Spanish Guinea. French air raid on Metz.
- Jan. 19. *Russians resume the offensive north-east of Czernowitz*. Montenegro breaks off negotiations with Austria. Allied war council in London. British relief forces reaches a point 23 miles from Kut-el-Amara. Swedish government prohibits the export of paper pulp.
- Jan. 20. *Turkish rout in the Caucasus completed*. Hassankala, east of Erzerum captured, and 1,500 prisoners taken. Russian forces occupy Sultanabad in Persia. British Admiralty announce that a British submarine grounded off the Dutch coast; no lives lost.

- Jan. 21. Russians shell the forts at Erzerum.
- Jan. 22. British attacks on the Tigris checked by rain and flood. Norway prohibits the export of butter.
- Jan. 23. Two German air raids on the east coast of Kent; one person killed and six injured. Two French air squadrons, comprising 24 aeroplanes, bombard Metz. French air raid on Monastir. Austro-Hungarian troops occupy Scutari. French first line penetrated between Arras and Lens. A British column under General Wallace disperses a large force of Senussi Arabs at Mersa Matru near western frontier of Egypt.
- Jan. 24. German seaplane chased away from Dover by two British machines. Military Service Bill passed. German attack east of Neuville; some mine craters occupied and recovered.
- Jan. 25. Austrians occupy San Giovanni di Medua in Albania.
- Jan. 26. Sir Edward Grey discusses blockade policy in House of Commons. Turks retreat near Kut-el-Amara about a mile.
- Jan. 27. Germans make an unsuccessful attack on British trenches near Loos. French air raid on Freiburg-in-Breisgau. Russians defeat Turks west of Melashkert, in the Caucasus, and south of Lake Urmia, in Persia, and advance between Erzerum and Mush.
- Jan. 28. Total British losses up to January 9th announced to be 549,467. Germans gain a success in the Amiens region and capture the village of Frise on the Somme; French trenches carried on a two mile front. German failure against the British at Carnoy. Allies occupy the Cape and Fort of Kara Burim commanding the harbour of Saloniki; Greek government protests. The United States protest against the seizure of neutral mails, and Sir E. Grey's reply published.
- Jan. 29. Zeppelin raid on Paris; 25 persons killed and 27 injured. French re-capture some of their lost trenches west of Hill 140.
- Jan. 30. A second Zeppelin raid on Paris. No casualties reported.

FEBRUARY.

- Feb. 1. Elder Dempster liner Appam, having been captured by the German raider M \ddot{o} w \ddot{e} , is brought into Norfolk, Virginia, by a German prize crew. A British collier is sunk in the North Sea by a bomb from a Zeppelin; 13 lives lost. Salonika raided by enemy aircraft; six soldiers, three of them Greeks, and four civilians killed. French airmen raid the Bulgarian town of Petrich; about 1,000 people killed and injured.
- Feb. 2. German surprise attack near Ypres repulsed by the British. Russians renew offensive and capture an enemy work near Czernowitz in Galicia; fighting also occurs at Usietchko and Rapancze. Austrians repulsed by Serbian rearguards in Albania.
- Feb. 3. Zeppelin L19 reported in a sinking condition in the North Sea by trawler King Stephen.
- Feb. 5. Twenty-eight air combats fought between British and German machines.
- Feb. 6. British cruiser and French torpedo-boat covering the retirement of the Serbian Army engage four enemy destroyers in the Adriatic and drive them in direction of Cattaro.
- Feb. 7. Fierce bombardment in the Arras sector; Lille bombarded by the Allies. Russian ships bombard the Turkish positions on the Anatolian coast. An enemy submarine makes an unsuccessful attack on a British cruiser off Durazzo.

- Feb. 8. German submarine sinks French cruiser Amiral Charner off the Syrian coast; 374 lives lost. Russians capture Usietchko and cross the Dniester to the western bank. Germans capture a French trench near La Folie. British explode a mine near Hulluch and occupy the crater. Uniform lighting order for England issued by Home Secretary.
- Feb. 9. A proclamation issued under the Compulsion Act calling up 11 classes of men liable for service. Hostile seaplanes raid Kent coast; three injured at Ramsgate. Eighteen British aeroplanes raid a German camp at Terhand Belgium. Germans capture 52 French prisoners and 22 machine guns in the Vimy-Neuville region. British punitive force destroys four Arab villages near Nasrie, Mesopotamia. General Smuts, War Office announces, is to take command in East Africa in succession to Sir H. Smith-Dorrien, retiring through ill-health.
- Feb. 10. Four mine sweepers attacked by German torpedo-boats off the Dogger Bank; one sunk. German Note to United States and other neutral nations *re* Allies arming merchantmen; all such to be treated as belligerents. French re-capture a great part of their lost positions south of Frise.
- Feb. 12. Germans test the Allied lines north of Ypres. They fail in attempts to cross the Yser Canal near Pilkem, Steenstraate and Het Sas. They capture trenches in Vimy sector, and make progress between Navarin and St. Souplet roads. The French are successful at Mesnil, Champagne. Russians advancing on Erzerum capture 700 Turks and 7 guns. British defeat a small German force in East Africa.
- Feb. 13. *Russians capture one of the Erzerum forts.* French capture more trenches at Frise, north of the Somme. Germans capture several hundred yards of trenches and take 300 prisoners in Champagne on the Tahure-Somme Py road. They also take some French trenches at Sept, in Alsace.
- Feb. 14. Russians take another of the Erzerum forts and 20 guns. Germans capture 600 yards of British trenches South of Ypres. H.M.S. Arethusa strikes a mine and sinks in the North Sea; ten lives lost. Austrian air raid on Milan; 8 killed, 70 injured.
- Feb. 15. Russians capture 7 more forts at Erzerum. French retake part of their lost ground in Champagne. Thirteen French aeroplanes bombard Strumnitza.
- Feb. 16. *Fall of Erzerum to the Grand Duke Nicholas; 235 Turkish officers, 12,753 men, and 323 guns captured.* United States refuses to recognise German claims *re* torpedoing of armed merchantmen. General Dobell reports the conquest of Cameroons.
- Feb. 17. Lord Kitchener speaks on the British air service.
- Feb. 18. Russians pursuing the Turks capture Rush and Akhlat in Armenia; 49 officers and 2,500 men taken. The last German remnant at Mora in the Cameroons surrenders. Italian air raid on Laibach in Austria.
- Feb. 19. Germans seize an unimportant British post north of Ypres.
- Feb. 20. *Germans begin the battle of Verdun* by a bombardment of the French positions to the north. Four German seaplanes raid Lowestoft and Walmer; one person killed and one injured. Twenty-six British aeroplanes bombard Don behind the German lines in Flanders.
- Feb. 21. In the battle of Verdun the Germans attack from Brabant-sur-Meuse to Herbebois; Haumont Wood and Beaumont salient captured. Between La Bassée and Arras the Germans capture half a mile of French trenches

- and over 300 prisoners. French motor-gun corps destroys Zeppelin L.Z.77 near Revigny. British aeroplane destroys a Turkish power station at El Hassana.
- Feb. 22. British steamer Westburn is taken into Teneriffe by a German prize crew; on board are 206 prisoners from ships sunk by the Möwe.
- Feb. 23. Germans make further progress at Verdun and force the French to withdraw from Samogneux and Ornes. Portugal seizes 36 German and Austrian merchant vessels in the Tagus. The Westburn is scuttled by her prize crew.
- Feb. 24. French at Verdun now on Champneville-Ornes line. Germans claim 10,000 prisoners to date. Russians capture Ispir in the Caucasus and Bidesurkh and Sakhen Passes in Persia; Turks retreating on Kermanshah British aeroplanes bombard a German aerodrome near Lille.
- Feb. 25. *Germans capture Fort Douamont*, north-east of Verdun. Russians advancing beyond Erzerum capture Ashkhala.
- Feb. 26. German attacks in the Verdun region checked by French reinforcements Russians capture Kermanshah between Teheran and Bagdad. Senussi defeated by South Africans under General Lukin, south-east of Barani Western Egypt. French transport Provence II sunk in the Mediterranean with over 1,000 lives lost.
- Feb. 27. French recapture ground around Fort Douamont and almost encircle it Germans report capture of Champneville and 15,000 prisoners. Other German attempts on village of Douamont, on the railway station at Eix and on Hill 255 repulsed. A German attack in Champagne carries first French line near Navarin Farm. The P. and O. liner Maloja mined and sunk two miles off Dover; 155 lives lost. Austrian troops enter Durazzo.
- Feb. 28. French withdraw on the east of Verdun to the heights of the Meuse. Fighting continues at Eix, Hill 255, and Douamont.
- Feb. 29. Fighting at Manheulles, south-east of Verdun.

MARCH.

- March 1. German seaplane drops bombs on the South-east coast; one life lost. Mine sweeper H.M.S. Primula torpedoed and sunk in the Eastern Mediterranean.
- March 2. *Compulsion Act comes into force.* Russians capture Billis in Southern Armenia and take six guns. German artillery activity to the north of Verdun and in the Woivre. Germans penetrate into village of Douamont; furious street fighting; attack on village of Vaux repulsed. British capture the International Trench to the South-east of Ypres.
- March 3. United States Senate votes against an official warning being given to Americans not to travel on armed liners.
- March 4. The raider Möwe returns to a German port. Bombardment of Douamont continues; German assault east of Pepper Hill ridge frustrated. Russians land forces at Atina, on the Black Sea coast, 60 miles from Trebizond. The Russian land forces occupy Maprava, between Atina and Rizeh.
- March 5. Three Zeppelins raid 8 countries on the North and North East Coasts 18 killed and 52 wounded.
- March 6. *Germans attack to the north-west of Verdun and carry the village of Forges and Hill 265.* They also penetrate a small advance work near Maisons de Champagne.

- March 7. Colonel Winston Churchill suggests the recall of Lord Fisher. French in a vigorous counter-attack recapture the greater part of the Corbeaux Wood west of the Meuse. They also repel a violent attack near Douaumont. In Champagne the French re-capture some of their lost trenches. *Germans capture the village of Fresnes south-east of Verdun.* Russians progress towards Trebizond and occupy Rizeh. General Smuts advances against Kilimanjaro area.
- March 8. General Aylmer makes an unsuccessful attack on the Es Sinn position seven miles from Kut-el-Amara and is forced to retire.
- March 9. Thirty-one British aeroplanes bombard an enemy rail head east of Loos French progress in the Corbeaux Wood. General Van der Venter occupies Taveta and Salaita, East Africa.
- March 10. *Germany declares war on Portugal.* After a furious struggle the Germans re-capture part of the Corbeaux Wood and make gains at Béthincourt and in Vaux village. British destroyer Coquette and torpedo-boat No. 11 strike mines off East Coast and sink; 45 lives lost.
- March 11. *Russians occupy Kirind* 130 miles from Bagdad. General Smuts defeats the main German Army in the Kilimanjaro region and forces it to retreat towards the Usambara Railway. German surprise attack near Rheims between Troyon and Berry-au-Bac is successful; some French positions penetrated.
- March 12. H.M. Fleet Auxiliary Fauvette mined and sunk off the East Coast; 14 lives lost.
- March 13. *General Smuts occupies Mosh* and advances on Arusha, farther inland.
- March 14. German assaults on Verdun renewed; those between Béthincourt and Cumieres repulsed, though the Germans gain a footing on the lower slopes of Mort Homme. British force under Major-General Peyton re-occupies Sollum on the western frontier of Egypt; several Bedouin tribes surrender.
- March 15. *Admiral von Tirpitz resigns*, and is succeeded by Admiral von Capelle. French regain part of the ground lost at Mort Homme.
- March 16. Dutch liner Turbantia torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine 30 miles off the Dutch coast. General Gallieni resigns the office of French Minister for War and is succeeded by General Roques. Fresh German assault on Mort Homme repulsed. German attack on village and fort of Vaux also repulsed. *Russians occupy Mamahutun*, 60 miles west of Erzerum.
- March 18. Dutch liner Palembang sunk by a German submarine in North Sea. Allied airmen bombard Zeebrugge; French airmen raid Mülhausen.
- March 19. Four German seaplanes raid the Kentish coast; 9 killed and 31 injured. Two of the seaplanes are brought down. German attack on extreme left of French lines at Verdun and carry Avocourt wood. Russians enter Ispahan, in Persia.
- March 20. Four British destroyers pursue three German destroyers off the Belgian coast damaging two of them. North west of Verdun the Germans attack with liquid fire between Avocourt and Malancourt and are repulsed. A German attack on Pepper Hill is also repulsed. Sixty-five Allied aeroplanes bombard the German seaplane stations at Zeebrugge and the aerodrome at Houtlave near Zeebrugge with four tons of explosives.
- March 21. French drive back the Bulgar-German outposts north of Salonika. Italy announced to have seized German shipping worth \$15,000,000. General

- Russian offensive from Gulf of Riga to south of Dvinsk; progress made at Lake Narotch east of Vilna. General Smuts defeats the Germans in East Africa near Kabe and pursues them along the Tanga Railway.
- March 22. Germans gain a footing on the Hill of Haucourt, near Malancourt, threatening Mort Homme.
- March 23. British communiqué records fighting in the new sector taken over from the French from Souchez to Arras.
- March 24. Cross-Channel steamer Sussex torpedoed and sunk; 100 lives lost. Atlantic Transport Company's liner Minneapolis torpedoed and sunk in the Mediterranean; 11 lives lost. Russians occupy Khizan, 35 miles south-east of Bitlis. War Office announces General Sir A. Murray to command in Egypt, in place of General Sir J. G. Maxwell.
- March 25. Admiralty publish an account of an action in the North Sea on Feb. 29th in which the British armed merchant cruiser Alcantara and the German armed raider Greif sank each other. British sea-planes raid German sheds in Schleswig-Holstein east of the Island of Sylt; three of them captured. Two of the convoying destroyers Medusa and Laverock in collision; Medusa lost. Two German patrol vessels sunk. H.M.S. Cleopatra rams a German destroyer.
- March 26. Russians continue their offensive and capture trenches at Postavy.
- March 27. War conference of the Allies in Paris. British capture first and second line trenches at St. Eloi over a length of 600 yards. Russians occupy Of, 30 miles from Trebizond. Fierce Austrian attacks on the heights north-west of Gorizia; Italian centre forced back.
- March 28. Italians recover the lost trenches by counter-attack; 302 prisoners taken. Fighting continues at St. Eloi. Fresh German assault on Haucourt-Malancourt line repulsed.
- March 29. French re-capture the Avocourt redoubt and drive the Germans from the south-eastern line of the Avocourt Wood; German counter-attacks repulsed. German attack between Malancourt and Béthincourt; they reach an advanced work outside Malancourt. General Polivanoff, Russian Minister of War, resigns, and is succeeded by General Shuvaieff.
- March 30. *French evacuate the village of Malancourt.* German attacks on Douamont repulsed. Germans re-take the easternmost of the craters at St. Eloi. French bring down 8 German aeroplanes. Premier Asquith leaves Paris for Rome.

APRIL.

- April 1. Two Zeppelins raid the North-east coast; 116 casualties. French repulse a German attack between Forts Douamont and Vaux.
- April 2. Extensive raid by Zeppelins on Britain. Six raid the south-eastern coast of Scotland (21 casualties) and northern and south-eastern counties of England (no casualties). Germans obtain a precarious footing in the Caillette Wood.
- April 3. French forces in a counter-attack drive the Germans from the Caillette Wood and re-occupy the western portions of Vaux village. British recapture a mine crater at St. Eloi and take 84 prisoners.
- April 4. Zeppelin raid on East Anglian coast; no casualties and no damage. German attack on French centre at Verdun repulsed; French make further progress in Caillette Wood.

- April 5. Successful German attack west of the Meuse; Haucourt village taken, but attack on Béthincourt fails. General Gorringe carries the Umm-el-Hannah positions and forces the Turks to retire to the Falahiyah and Sanna-i-Yat lines; Falahiyah position subsequently taken. Anglo-French squadron sinks a German submarine and takes the crew prisoners. Zeppelin raid on the North-east coast; one Zeppelin hit by gun-fire; nine casualties.
- April 6. Germans make a successful attack on French salient at Hill 304; French trenches penetrated in a few places. At St. Eloi the Germans re-take part of the lost ground at the craters.
- April 7. French repulse German attack on Hill 304.
- April 8. *French are forced to evacuate the Béthincourt salient.*
- April 9. British fail in an attack against the Sanna-i-Yat position. In a vigorous assault on Mort Homme, west of the Meuse, the Germans carry an advanced trench.
- April 10. Germans make further progress against the Mort Homme positions. British re-capture a mine crater at St. Eloi. Portuguese troops occupy Kionga in German East Africa.
- April 11. French repulse a German attack between Forts Douamont and Vaux.
- April 12. A trench lost and regained by the British on the Ypres-Pilkem road. A German attack west of the Meuse repulsed by the French. British make progress on the right bank of the Tigris opposite the Sanna-i-Yat positions. General Van Deventer's cavalry occupy Umbugwe (Köthersheim) in German East Africa.
- April 13. Australians make reconnaissance at Jifjaffa in Egypt and occupy the Katia oasis.
- April 14. British aeroplanes make a successful raid on Constantinople and Adrianople.
- April 15. French make a successful attack at Douamont carrying several trenches and taking 200 prisoners. British make further progress opposite the Sanna-i-Yat positions.
- April 16. Fighting on the Tigris. Russians make progress towards Trebizond occupying Surmaneh.
- April 17. *Fall of Trebizond* to the forces of Grand Duke Nicholas. French repulse a German attack between the Meuse and Douamont. Turkish forces make an attack from the Sanna-i-Yat lines and force back the British but at enormous cost. Fighting reported at Kondoa Irangi in German East Africa.
- April 19. German attacks at Les Eparges repulsed. General Van Deventer's forces occupy Kondoa Irangi. American note on submarine warfare sent to Germany. Field-Marshal von der Goltz assassinated in Turkey.
- April 20. *Sir Roger Casement captured* after landing from German submarine at Tralee on west coast of Ireland. German auxiliary carrying arms scuttled by crew as it was being towed to Queenstown.
- April 21. British recapture trench on the Ypres-Langemarck road.
- April 23. British attack on the Sanna-i-Yat position fails. British forced to withdraw from Katia. Turco-German attack at Duweidar, Sinai Peninsula, repulsed.
- April 24. *Rebellion in Ireland.* Sinn Feiners occupy Stephens Green, the railway stations, and Post Office in Dublin. Zeppelins raid East Coast; one casualty. A last attempt to ship supplies by steamer through to Kut fails.

- April 25. German battle cruisers bombard Lowestoft; 25 casualties. Martial Law proclaimed in Dublin. Rebels driven from Stephens Green. Zeppelins raid East Coast; no casualties. Secret session of Parliament on recruiting proposals.
- April 26. British military destroy Liberty Hall and occupy ruins. Dublin rebellion well in hand; cordon established around rebels.
- April 27. Martial law declared throughout Ireland. H.M.S. Russell strikes a mine in Mediterranean and sinks. German submarine sunk off East Coast. British submarine, E 22, announced sunk by Germans in North Sea. Furious German attack leads to capture of a few British trenches near Arras.
- April 28. Further German attacks near Arras repulsed.
- April 29. *Fall of Kut* after a siege of 143 days. Nine thousand troops, mainly Indian, surrender with General Townshend. Germans defeat Russians at Lake Narotch, east of Vilna. French take German trenches north of Mort Homme and Cumières.
- April 30. Irish rebellion broken; leaders begin to surrender. German attack on British lines at Messines Ridge stopped by artillery.

MAY.

- May 1. *End of Irish rebellion*. All Dublin rebels surrender. British repulse German attacks east of Ypres and north of Albert. French gain 500 yards of trenches south-east of Douamont Fort. Admiralty announce loss of the armed yacht *Aegusa* and mine-sweeper *Nasturtium* through striking mines in the Mediterranean.
- May 2. Immediate compulsion decided on by the British Cabinet. Five Zeppelins attack East Coast from Norfolk in England to Rattray Head in Scotland; 9 killed and 29 injured. French troops make progress towards Monastir and occupy Florina.
- May 3. Zeppelin L. 20 wrecked on the Norwegian coast. French offensive north-west of Mort Homme is successful; 100 prisoners and some German positions taken. Aeroplane raid on Deal; 3 casualties. New Military Service Bill introduced by Mr. Asquith. Mr. Birrell resigns his office as Chief Secretary for Ireland.
- May 4. Zeppelin destroyed by a light cruiser squadron consisting of H.M. ships *Phaeton* and *Galatea* together with a submarine.
- May 5. Zeppelin destroyed by the guns of the Allied Fleet at Salonika. Germans make an attack on Hill 304 near Avocourt and gain a footing in an advance trench.
- May 6. Text of German reply to American Note on submarine warfare published.
- May 7. Further German attacks at Hill 304 and Fort Douamont; trenches gained and lost.
- May 8. Australians take over a portion of the British line in France. German attacks on Hill 304 again repulsed. French make progress in neighbourhood of Thiaumont Farm. Heavy fighting in German East Africa. Germans rally and advance on Kondoa Irangi. Belgian advance towards Ruanda progresses satisfactorily. White Star Liner *Cymric* torpedoed off south-west coast of Ireland. Five of crew killed.
- May 9. President Wilson replies to German Note accepting the proposed abandonment of submarine warfare. Russians reach the Persian frontier at Kasr-i-Shirin, 110 miles from Bagdad.

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- May 10. German assault on French lines at Hill 287 repulsed. French make successful counter attack at Mort Homme. General Van Deventer's troops repulse German attack on Kondoa Irangi.
- May 11. Sir John Nixon's despatch regarding General Townshend's campaign on the Tigris published. Germans capture 500 yards of British trenches north-east of Vermelles. German attack on French centre west of Vaux Pond repulsed. Italian occupation of Mersa Moresa and the port of Bardia on the Mediterranean near the Egyptian frontier announced. Mr. Asquith leaves for Dublin.
- May 12. Attack on French centre at Verdun repulsed. French extend their positions south-east of Haucourt. Belgian troops occupy Kigali, German East Africa. Germans attack Nhika, Portuguese East Africa, and are repulsed.
- May 13. British monitor, M. 30, sunk off Smyrna by Turkish gun fire. Germans attack British lines at Ploegsteert Wood, enter trenches, but are driven back. Attacks on lines near Hill 304 and north-east of Mort Homme repulsed. Turkish offensive at Ashkala, 30 miles west of Erzerum partially successful; Russians forced back a short distance.
- May 14. *Great Austrian offensive against Italian front in Trentino begun.* Italians fall back on their main trenches. Germans attack on Loos salient at Hulluch and the Hohenzollern Redoubt. Russians occupy Revandruz on the road to Mosul.
- May 15. Casement proceedings begun at Bow Street, London. Lancashire Fusiliers seize and occupy 250 yards of German trenches on the Vimy ridge. British force under Colonel Kelly advances on El Fasher, capital of the Sultan of Darfur, Sudan.
- May 16. Austrians gain ground against Italians in the Val Terragnola, on the Folgaria Plateau and around Rovereto. Fight between German destroyers and English destroyers and monitors off the Belgian coast; Germans forced to withdraw. Turkish camp at Bayoud, Sinai Peninsula, stormed by Anzac forces. Three German ships torpedoed off the south coast of Sweden.
- May 17. Germans capture British mine crater on Vimy Ridge. Italians rally at Zugna Torta. Lord Curzon heads the new Air Board.
- May 18. Germans open up a new attack on Hill 304 which the French repulse. Italians evacuate Zugna Torta and retire on new positions between the Terragnola Valley and the Upper Astico. British deliver a successful attack by sea and air on El Arish, Sinai Peninsula. German steamer sunk by submarine off south coast of Sweden.
- May 19. Germans succeed in capturing a small redoubt south of Hill 287; other attacks between Hill 304 and Avocourt repulsed. British, under Sir G. Goringe, capture the Dujailah Redoubt on the south bank of the Tigris seven miles from Kut. A force of Russian cavalry joins General Goringe. Lancashire troops retake Vimy crater. Enemy seaplanes raid Kent coast, some casualties; one of raiders brought down by a naval patrol off the Belgian coast.
- May 20. Fierce German assault by 5 divisions north and west of Mort Homme; some ground gained including summit of Hill 295. General Lake reports that south bank of Tigris free of enemy as far as Shatt-el-Hai and the outskirts of Kut.

- May 21. Summer Time Act comes into force. *Germans penetrate the British front-line trenches for 1,500 yards on the Vimy Ridge.* French re-capture the Haudromont Quarry and repel attacks on western slope of Mort Homme.
- May 22. French carry German trenches near Fort Douamont on a mile and a quarter front and enter the fort.
- May 23. German assault on the front Thiaumont-Douamont repulsed. Germans gain Cumières village. Austrian troops cross the Italian frontier south of the Sugana Valley. Sultan of Darfur defeated by British column and El Fasher, his capital, entered.
- May 24. Verdun fight assumes great dimensions. Germans re-take Fort Douamont and Haudromont Quarry. French regain part of Cumières. British occupy Lembeni and other points of the Moshi Railway, German East Africa.
- May 25. Great German attack at Verdun between Haudromont Wood and Thiaumont Farm; a trench taken. General Smuts occupies Same on the Usambara Railway. British forces in East Africa invade German territory between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika.
- May 26. French win back trench between Haudromont Wood and Thiaumont Farm and repulse a German attack between Avocourt Wood and Mort Homme. A Bulgarian force crosses the Greek frontier near Damir Hissar and seizes Fort Rupel and other border fortifications. American Note on Allied searching of mails published.
- May 27. French take some trenches south-west of Mort Homme. Mr. Lloyd George appeals to munition workers to forego the Whitsuntide holidays
- May 28. Austrian offensive continues against the Italians north of Asiago; Austrians repulsed in the Lagarina Valley.
- May 29. German attacks on Hill 304 repulsed; north-west of Cumières Germans gain some trenches. Italians forced to evacuate Asiago. Austrians drive a wedge between Monte Pasubio and Arsiero.
- May 30. Sir Douglas Haig's first long despatch published. Townshend papers published. French abandon the Béthincourt-Cumières road, evacuate Caurettes Wood, and are driven back towards Chattancourt. Turkish offensive in Armenia takes them into Mamakhatun. German trenches at Pangani, German East Africa, carried by troops under General Smuts; Germans retire to Mkomazi. Neu Langenburg occupied by General Northey.
- May 31. *Battle of Horns Reef.* British lose battle cruisers Queen Mary, Indefatigable and Invincible, cruisers Defence, Black Prince, and Warrior, and destroyers Tipperary, Turbulent, Fortune, Sparrowhawk, Ardent, Nomad, Nestor and Shark; Germans lose three battleships—Kaiser, Kronprinz and Pommern, two or three Dreadnought battle cruisers—the Lützen and another (possibly two others), five light cruisers—Wiesbaden, Rostock, Elbing, Frauenlob and another, possibly a battleship, nine destroyers (six seen to sink), and a submarine. Austrians capture Monte Priafore and town of Gallio.

What was the reason given by Italy, as a member of the Triple Alliance, for not joining Germany and Austria against the Allies? Do you consider that her reason was sufficient? What considerations seem to be influencing the Italian people in favour of the Allies? Do you consider these reasons satisfactory?

The British Empire a Maritime Power

[From *The School* of January, 1916]

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FEW of us realise the great effect that geographical conditions exercise in the moulding of every great empire, and in none have these influences been more potent than in the shaping of the British Empire. Just how much lies in that little phrase "an island" is difficult to grasp. Great Britain is an island washed by the waves of turbulent seas; no part of it is far from the sound of the ocean for it is not a compact island but narrow and elongated, with drowned river mouths extending far into the interior. These estuaries swept clean of sediment by the tidal currents offer unrivalled facilities for the entrance and exit of ships. Its situation is fortunate; it lies to the west of Europe directly on the route from America to the continent and it is also on the line of traffic between the Indies, Africa, Australia, the Orient, the Mediterranean and the most developed parts of Europe on the one hand: and France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Scandinavia and northern Russia on the other. As much as Winnipeg is fitted by nature to be the emporium for Western Canada, or New York for the United States, so is Britain fitted to be the emporium of northern Europe for the productions of almost the whole world.

The blood of the British contains a strange intermixture of races, but one characteristic of each invader of her shores must be that of a sea-rover for in no other way could inroads be made. Whether it be Danes, Northmen or Normans all were hardy seamen which gave that bias to the British character which has led to the production of a race of great mariners. This taste for maritime life in the Britisher has been transmitted from his ancestral lovers of the sea and has been nurtured by the island conditions of his home.

The insular surroundings has had other effects on the British nation. Unlike every other nation in Europe she is cut off from her neighbours by an expanse of waters difficult for an enemy to cross. As a result, while every country in Europe has been overrun and desolated by war many times, Britain alone has stood unscathed from the devastation of the advancing army since the days of William the Conqueror. It is true there has been rebellion and civil war but during the last 250 years these sinister conditions have been happily absent also.

Freedom from the devastating effects of war gives great opportunity to a country to develop in wealth, and an increase in wealth promotes

industries and especially manufacturing industries, for manufacturing requires great capital and freedom from the destructive influence of war. As a result of this insular protection Britain rapidly developed great manufactures after the Napoleonic Wars, while the other countries of Europe were repairing the ruin wrought by that exhausting strife. In order to carry on manufacturing extensively two things are essential, a continuous supply of raw materials and a market for the finished product, and again to be assured of these, suitable means of transportation must be developed, and in a nation situated as Britain is this must be transportation by ships. Moreover as manufacturing developed the population rapidly increased, but with the increase of population there was no increase in agricultural development but actually a rapid decrease for with the great influx of people to urban manufacturing centres, fewer were left to till the land, so that at the present time only enough food is produced in Britain each year to supply the wants of the people for a few weeks. Thus the free shipment of goods is of vital interest not merely for the continuation of industry but also to prevent starvation.

It was not until the discovery of America and the discovery of a water-way to the East around South Africa that the innate sea-faring nature of the British asserted itself. The new ideals that seemed to pervade the Elizabethan age filled the British with bold desires to explore new regions of the world and a whole galaxy of fearless mariners in the most ramshackle ships pushed into the most dangerous parts of the ocean endeavouring to discover new lands. Hawkins, Drake, Gilbert and Raleigh are but a few of many daring mariners. Trading was undertaken, colonies were established and the growth of the British Empire had begun. Necessarily the new colonies were established on the sea-board as that alone was accessible to the motherland. Trading companies were established in India colonies were founded in America, trading posts were later established along the coast of Africa, and much later a convict settlement was formed in Australia which had been visited and annexed already by British explorers.

In the course of time the great British Empire began to crystallise out of these early colonial ventures. India was won by Clive and consolidated by Warren Hastings and his successors; while the American colonies were lost by a short-sighted policy; the embryo of what was to develop into the Dominion of Canada was won by the valour of British red-coats on the Plains of Abraham. Fifty years later when the Netherlands joined Napoleon in his campaign of spoliation, Cape of Good Hope was wrested from the Dutch and became the nucleus of that great African Empire that is only taking form during the present generation. A little later, that other great possession colonised by adventurous spirits from the motherland began to feel her strength and Australia

appeared as a new jewel in the crown of the Empire. New Zealand, the land of beauty and wonders, beginning with a later growth has become already a leader in many directions. The genius of Cecil Rhodes greatly extended and consolidated the South African possessions. The Transvaal and Orange Free State were won during the South African War and Rhodesia was annexed. The whole west African coast for more than a century was under the protection of Britain and Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone and East Africa were finally added to the Empire. When under the blighting influence of Turkish tyranny, Egypt was brought to the verge of ruin; at the solicitation of Europe it was occupied by the British and under the enlightened government of Lord Cromer she has gained much of her ancient prosperity, while the British Empire has been extended up the Nile to Sudan by the defeat of the Dervishes in the battle of Omdurman.

Thus the British Empire, unlike any other great empire in the history of the world, is scattered over the seas and the continents. Its larger units are either islands or washed by the sea on many sides. Australia is an island; India has the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea extending up to the bases of its northern boundary. South Africa looks at the sea from three sides, Egypt has the Mediterranean on the north and the Red Sea extends along the whole eastern frontier, and the river Nile brings the sea in touch with its whole interior. Canada has the sea on three sides; every part of the maritime provinces can smell its saline breezes, and the St. Lawrence brings the ocean to the heart of older Canada. The Pacific coast is a labyrinth of inlets, islands and bays. Besides the whole sea is dotted with those fragments of the British Empire that deck the blue of the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans.

All the parts of the British Empire beyond the seas are producers of raw material that requires the free sea in order that they can be exported, and they also require large imports of manufactured products. The motherland and the children are complementary to one another. She must have their surplus food and raw material, they must have her manufactured material.

All the conditions mentioned above have led to the development of the greatest merchant fleet that sails the seas. In fact more than one-third of all the ships of the world are British. They are more than three times as numerous as those of the United States and more than four times as many as those of Germany. They carry not merely the merchandise of the Empire but transport much of the commerce of the world. British ships are found in every harbour and in British hulls are found the cargoes from every climate.

It has been to Britain's interest to do everything that would encourage international commerce. Her explorers have been in the van in every

part of the world, new regions have been opened to trade and the shores of the wilderness have been made safe through her influence. The shallows and dangerous places have been charted whether it be in the Straits of Magellan or the Persian Gulf. The haunts of the pirate, whether in the China seas or the Persian Gulf have been patrolled and the corsairs swept from the waters. In making the sea safe she has spent much money and sacrificed many lives. Though she has performed these acts, largely unaided by other governments, she has never claimed any exclusive privileges on the sea. She has always stood without reservation for the true "freedom of the seas" and the "open door" on the lands.

We have endeavoured to show how vitally the whole fabric of the British Empire is determined by the seas in order to show how absolutely necessary it is that she should possess a navy predominant over any enemy or possible combination of enemies. Let the control of the seas depart, let the British navy be worsted and every part of the Empire lies exposed in its nakedness to the thrust of the enemy. Britain could be starved into any kind of submission in a few months, the outlying parts would more easily fall to the captor than have the German possessions during the present war.

Britain began to recognise the vital importance of the navy when the mosquito ships of Drake and Howard put to flight the galleons of the Great Armada. When glorious Nelson gave Napoleon the vital thrust at Trafalgar the true importance of the navy to national safety was fully recognised and since that day the British navy has stood so impregnable that up to the present war it was never necessary to strike a blow on the sea.

Britain has coordinated her energies towards an unconquerable navy. This is shown not merely by the manner in which she has spent her money in defensive preparation, but also by the foresight shown in the acquisition of new territory. As a result she has her coaling stations dotted uniformly over the face of the seas and her fortresses and naval stations guard every vital water passage on the commercial highways of the world. Gibraltar stands guard at the entrance to the Mediterranean, the greatest highroad of the world's commerce; at its exit is the Suez Canal, in whose stock the British government holds a controlling interest; at the exit of the Red Sea the impregnable fortress of Aden keeps guard, while further east the fortress of Singapore controls the passage through the Straits of Malacca.

Through more than one hundred years the British fleet has never met a foe in combat, and in that time the whole structure of ships and guns have so completely changed that it was often hinted that perhaps in the long lapse the British tar had lost his skill and seamanship, and

when the present war broke many were tremulous lest "the day" had come. But from the first victorious struggle in the Bight of Heligoland to the day when the flag of Germany vanished from the broad and narrow seas there never was need for doubt; man for man, ship for ship and gun for gun the descendants of Blake and mighty Nelson stand unrivalled. Never was the efficacy of sea power more complete. From the fateful fourth of August not a single German ship either merchant or fighting has broken through that wall of iron that crowds them into the narrow recesses of their coast. The submarine which alone appeared in the open water was soon bound within narrow limits in its nefarious work and to-day the British fleet stands out predominant to a much greater degree than it did even after Trafalgar. The great naval war song of Britain which always has been sung with fervour now has a new meaning, and the aspiration and determination of every Briton will still be:

Rule Britannia; Britannia rule the waves,
Britons never will be slaves.

Method of teaching the subject.—Using a map of the world locate the different units of the Empire, show how they are connected to the motherland by the sea. Assign to each member of the class one unit and ask him to find out how it was acquired, its distance from Britain, its chief exports and imports. Let them find these facts from any reference books in the school, the home or the public library (an encyclopædia will be very suitable for this purpose). A lesson in the meantime on Great Britain should be taken stressing the following facts: its excellent position to become a trading centre, because it is practically at the centre of the land area of the globe; its long coast-line, its many estuaries which form good ports, its industries, especially manufacturing; its decreasing agriculture, its exports and imports. Show how vitally these depend on a free sea. Show also how history has favoured the development of British industry. Now deal with the other units, each pupil assisting with the facts he has specially studied. Show how complementary the other units are to the motherland, that her exports are their imports and *vice versa*.

Now trace the great trade routes and show how Britain by her coaling stations, naval stations and fortresses commands them. Examine the different possessions to study what extensive coast-lines they have and how vulnerable they are from the sea if another nation had control. Finally show how complete has been the control of the seas during the present war by the British fleet. Endeavour to increase the patriotic pride of the pupils in the Great British fleet; then conclude by allowing all the pupils to rise and sing together "Rule Britannia".

The Passing of the Turkish Empire

[From *The School* of April, 1915]

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THE thunders of the 15 inch guns of the Queen Elizabeth, crashing her way through the Dardanelles to Constantinople, doubtless announce the fall of the Turkish Empire, not only in Europe, but in Asia as well. "With the disappearance of Turkey", said Mr. Asquith, in his Guild-Hall speech, on November 9th, "will disappear, as I hope and believe, the blight which, for generations past, has withered some of the fairest regions of the earth". "It is not the Turkish people, but the Ottoman government that has drawn the sword, and I do not hesitate to predict that that government will perish by the sword".

Only sixty years have passed since Great Britain engaged in the Crimean War to defend the Turk from Russian aggression. To-day she stands, the ally of Russia in an attack on Constantinople, and has announced that she does not desire to put obstacles in the way of Russia's access to the sea. When the war is over, Russia may have reached at last the long-desired goal. It may not be without interest to note the circumstances that have from time to time altered and finally reversed the policy of Great Britain toward the "sick man of Europe".

The considerations that guided the policy of Great Britain sixty years ago are well known. Russia had steadily expanded her land empire toward the east and south, expanding apparently in the direction of India. For her to absorb Turkey in Europe would mean the rise of a new Mediterranean power with enormous potential resources. Lord Palmerston, moreover, believed that Turkey would in time reform her methods of government and grant some degree of liberty to the races under her control. That hope has proven vain. The Turks, always a minority in the land which they have held so long, have kept their place only by force. It has been less a government than a military occupation. It is not necessary to recount the cruelties of Turkish rule which have again and again demanded the intervention of the European powers and hopelessly alienated the sympathies of western peoples. After the Bulgarian atrocities of 1875 popular sympathy for Turkey could hardly be aroused in England. Financially, the government of Turkey was bankrupt. By the treaty of Berlin, 1878, Turkey was shorn of most of her European possessions and the Balkan States arose with various degrees of independence.

The twenty years that followed the Treaty of Berlin saw an unlooked-for increase in British interests in the African dominions of the Sultan. In 1875, Lord Beaconsfield purchased for £4,000,000 the shares of the Khedive of Egypt in the Suez Canal. In 1882 the safety of Europeans, endangered by the rebellion of Arabi Pasha, led to military intervention in Egypt. The British fleet bombarded Alexandria. British troops, led by General Wolseley, finally defeated Arabi at Tel-el-kebir. This British occupation, meant to be a matter of only a few months, has continued to this day, to the unquestioned and immense advantage of the whole country. Though Turkish names and forms of government have been maintained, and the country continued up till last year to pay tribute to the Sultan, the control of the Turk over Egypt was only nominal. Meanwhile, his rule in the domain still left to him, showed no improvement. The Armenian massacres of 1895 showed the hopelessness of the situation.

But at the very last, it seemed as if internal revolution might mend the government of the Turk, and justify the hopes once held by Lord Palmerston. Eight years ago occurred the revolution of the Young Turks, a political party of seemingly liberal tendencies. The Sultan, Abdul Hamid, was deposed, and, guided by the Committee of Union and Progress, the Young Turks sought, doubtless with sincerity, to re-organise the government of the land on a modern basis. But the task was too great. Instead of granting a degree of self-government to the provinces of the Empire, the Young Turks sought only to make more efficient the rule of the Ottoman and to make more effective the policy of centralisation. Not unconnected with this may be the fact that they had found new counsellors. Germany was seeking a place in the sun.

Projects of expansion, commercial if not political, had begun to dominate the policy of Germany and Asia Minor, seemed the most promising field. There German financiers were obtaining concessions and building railways. A close alliance with Austria-Hungary and lack of organisation among the Balkan States seemed to make easy the German pathway to the East.

But the Young Turks had a hard road to travel. A disastrous war with Italy, involving the loss of Tripoli was followed by a more disastrous war with the Balkan League, and the consequent loss of nearly all her European provinces.

For a time it seemed as if the formation of a strong Balkan League might bar the hope of Austro-German expansion, though that possibility was lessened by the second Balkan War. The problem of Turkey and the Balkan States remained unsolved. What alliances would they seek? What great European power, if any, would exercise a dominating influence in their councils?

When the great European war broke out last August, the position that Turkey would assume was a matter of doubt. With the Young Turks, German influence was strong. Of the influences that prompted their final decision it is too early to speak, but the decisive factor was probably the escape of the Goeben and the Breslau through the Dardanelles in the early weeks of the war. Their presence in front of Constantinople, doubtless lent an added vigour to the admonitions of German counsellors, and helped to preserve the authority of the party in power. Great Britain did not desire the entrance of Turkey into the war. She wished to avoid such a complication of the tremendous problem she already had to solve. The Allies were willing if Turkey remained neutral to guarantee her independence and the integrity of her Empire.

Compelled to face the problem at once, the Allies set themselves to its solution in no half-hearted way. On November 5th, Great Britain declared war on Turkey. Cyprus, already a protectorate, was promptly annexed. Egypt was declared a British protectorate, the Khedive was deposed, and his uncle was appointed, not Khedive, but Sultan of Egypt. British forces from India, coming through the Persian Gulf, drove off the Turkish garrisons, and advanced into Mesopotamia as far as the junctions of the Tigris and Euphrates.

Men of the new world, free from the responsibilities that have vexed the statesmen of the Old, have from time to time viewed with impatience the seeming impotence of the European powers to promote reforms in Turkish government. Now with keenest interest and earnest hopes they watch to see in these fair lands that were once the seat of the world's highest civilisation, the rise of

“Phantoms of other forms of rule
New majesties of mighty states,
The warders of the growing hour,
But vague in vapour, hard to mark
And round them sea and air and dark
With great contrivances of power.”

General Questions on the War

1. What nations at the present time are engaged in war? Name those that are on the side of the Allies. Name those on the side of the enemy.
2. What were the causes, near and remote, that led to this war? What nation made the first attack? What was the immediate cause? Name the declarations of war, as far as possible in chronological order.
3. Name and locate the different battle fronts where fighting is now going on. Tell what nations are fighting on each separate battle front.

The Rise of Prussia since 1805

[From *The School of March*, 1916]

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ON the whole the part played by Prussia in the Napoleonic struggle was a very pitiful one. Under her weak, hesitating King, Frederick William III, she patiently suffered insult over the disposition of Hanover, which Napoleon first offered to Frederick William and then proposed to restore to George III of England; then she stood supinely by, while Napoleon defeated Austria and Russia in the battles of Ulm and Austerlitz in 1805. This defeat resulted in the dissolution of the useless, old Holy Roman Empire and the formation in western Germany of the Confederation of the Rhine, under the protection of Napoleon. Then in 1806, when Napoleon was all ready to deal with Prussia by herself, Frederick William declared war. His officers were quite confident of defeating Napoleon. A certain Captain Liebhaber was heard to say at mess: "Napoleon is as certainly ours as though we had him in this hat". Even Blücher expressed his perfect satisfaction with the condition of the Prussian army. But, in reality, its condition was deplorable in the extreme. Its spirit was unwarlike; its chief commands were in the hands of self-satisfied old greybeards, who had outlived their usefulness; the commander-in-chief, the Duke of Brunswick, although brave and experienced, was as weak as the king, when it came to making a decision. It is no wonder, therefore, that Napoleon marched into Germany in 1806, overwhelmed the Prussians at Jena and Auerstädt, and occupied Berlin, whence he issued the famous Berlin Decree. The King and his court fled to East Prussia, where the last remaining Prussian Corps joined with the forces of the Czar. But misfortune followed still, and in the battle of Friedland Napoleon was again victorious. Russia was won over to be an ally of Napoleon. Prussia was stripped of more than half her territory, that part west of the Elbe going to make the new Kingdom of Westphalia for Jerome Bonaparte, and most of the Polish provinces going to form the new Duchy of Warsaw for the King of Saxony. A crushing indemnity was exacted from Prussia, 160,000 French soldiers were stationed in the country, and she was forbidden to keep an army of more than 42,000 men.

But, at the moment of greatest humiliation, a reformation was begun which in the end enabled Prussia to throw off the yoke of the oppressor. To take charge of affairs, Frederick William called in Baron Stein, "a stern, terrible, yet very just official, who had never learned to

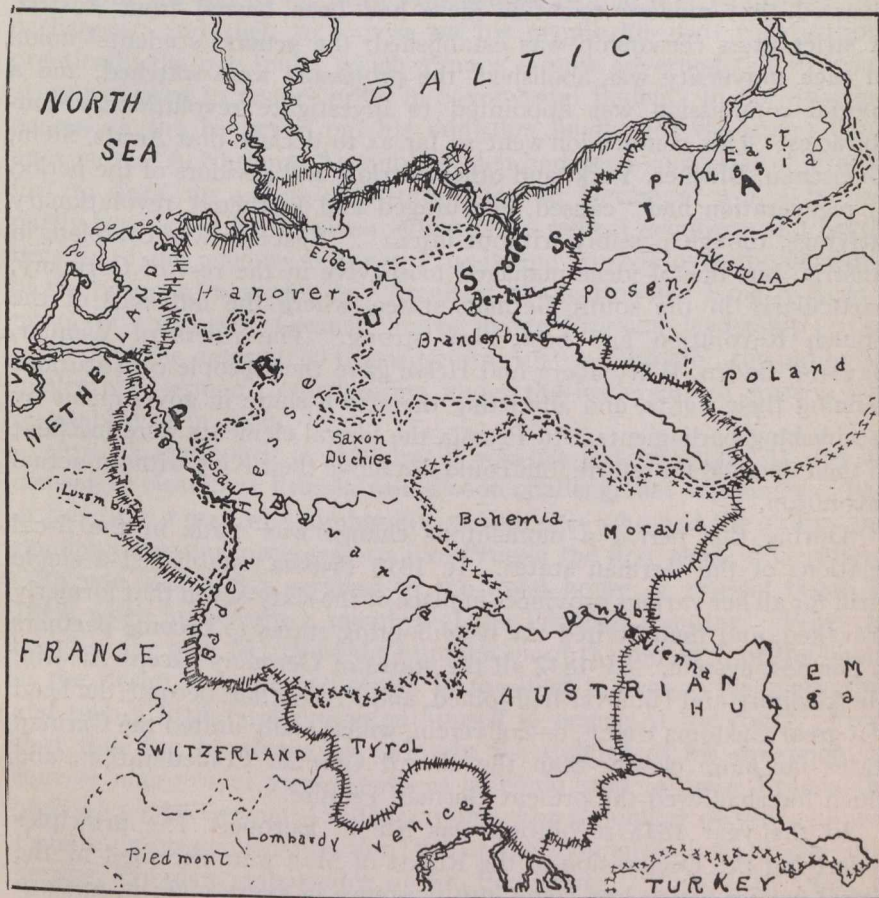
cringe to royalty". This man, with the support of the King, and the assistance of such talented, patriotic men as Scharnhorst, Hardenberg, Blücher, Arndt, Fichte and Gneisenau, began a thorough social, educational, economic and military reformation. Serfdom was abolished. Artificial class distinctions were abolished, and not only might any citizen buy land or engage in any occupation he wished, but a peasant might pass into the citizen class. Cities were given self-government. The army which had shown up so badly at Jena, was thoroughly reorganised. Incompetent commanders were dismissed, and of 143 generals only seven were retained; luxuries for the officers were curtailed; and treatment of the common soldier was much improved; finally, the army was thoroughly trained. Not least important, there spread among the Prussian people a glowing patriotism that made them ready for any sacrifice. And all of this was accomplished while the country was ground down by French indemnities, and while her fortresses were held by French garrisons.

Stein thought the opportunity to strike had come in 1808, when the Peninsular War was engaging the attention of Napoleon; but it was not until the terrible Russian campaign of 1812 had almost annihilated Napoleon's grand army that the hesitating Frederick William was finally driven by Russia, England and his own officers into declaring war on Napoleon in March, 1813. Nothing could exceed the enthusiasm and self-sacrifice of the Prussian people when the King appealed for their help. "Whole classes from the universities, professors at their heads, adjourned in a body to the recruiting ground". Voluntary gifts of every kind were made, and after this war it was a disgrace to be found in possession of jewelry or silver plate. One hundred and fifty thousand persons even exchanged their wedding rings for rings of iron.

The Russian, Austrian, Swedish and Prussian forces gathered around Napoleon near Dresden, and finally defeated him thoroughly in the Battle of the Nations. Then they followed him into France. The allies were quarrelling fiercely, but, mainly through the dogged perseverance of Blücher, "le vieux renard" as Napoleon called him, the allied force was finally led into Paris, and Napoleon was forced to abdicate. When Napoleon came back from Elba, it was the same old Blücher, who at times was crazy, and believed he had a beast in his body, who came to the aid of Wellington at Waterloo, and helped to complete the final overthrow of Napoleon.

At the Congress of Vienna, which met in 1814, and again in 1815, Prussia made important gains. She got important territories on the Rhine and, in return for the Polish territories she had lost, half of the Kingdom of Saxony. As for Germany, it was once more organised as a loose confederation with Austria at the head.

The accompanying map illustrates the peculiar composition of this German Confederation. Besides a large number of smaller states, such as Bavaria, Baden, Württemberg, Hesse and Hanover, it included a part of Prussia, a part of the Austrian possessions and a part of Denmark. Austria and Prussia were the leading states, and it was inevitable that



Boundaries of German Confederation marked thus **|||||**
 " " Prussia **-----**
 Northern and western boundaries of Austria **xxxxxxx**

CENTRAL EUROPE 1815-1866

in time a keen rivalry should grow up between them for leadership. In such a confederation there could be no real unity. It was governed, nominally, by a Diet which was composed of representatives of the princes whose territories lay, in part or in whole, within its boundaries but the individual states were really independent. Yet, in spite of the

absurdity of its composition and government, this German Confederation lasted, with one slight interruption, down to 1866.

From 1815 to 1848 Germany went through a period of political stagnation and repression. Metternich, the Austrian Chancellor, was determined that liberal ideas should be thoroughly suppressed, and even boasted that modern scientific ideas had been barred from Austria. A strict press censorship was established, the general students' union in each university was abolished, the professors were watched, and a special commission was appointed to investigate revolutionary conspiracies. This commission went so far as to declare that Arndt, Stein, Gneisenau, Blücher, York, and other patriots and saviours of the period of regeneration had "caused, encouraged and furthered revolutionary strivings, though possibly without intent". Reaction was complete in Austria, but liberal ideas managed to survive in the rest of Germany, particularly in the south German states, where the influence of the French Revolution had been very strong. The rulers of Weimar, Bavaria, Baden, Württemberg and Hesse gave their people constitutions defining their rights, and admitting them to a share in government by establishing parliaments. In Prussia the liberal elements were insistent in their demand for reform, but could not move their King without actual revolution.

During this period a momentous change was made in the fiscal relations of the German states. In 1818 Prussia established a single tariff for all her various provinces in place of the sixty-seven that formerly prevailed, and then invited the neighbouring states to become partners in her new system. By 1842 all the states of Germany except Austria, Mecklenburg and Hanover had joined, and Prussia had become the head of a great Customs Union, or Zollverein, which really united the German states far more closely than the absurd German Confederation, and which foreshadowed the present German Empire.

In the year 1848 revolution was rife in Europe. The principles underlying the Declaration of the Rights of Man were accepted by the liberal parties which had come into existence in every state in western Europe. The national spirit, which had been awakened during the Napoleonic period, had been at work for nearly half a century. Moreover, the Industrial Revolution was quickening the thought and stirring the aspirations of the industrial classes. England just escaped serious trouble, but France, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy and the different states of Germany all had their revolutions or other violent disturbances. The trouble was particularly acute in the Hapsburg possessions. Metternich, the inveterate enemy of all change, fled to England; the Emperor was obliged to grant or promise constitutions to his varied possessions; in Italy a determined effort was made to throw off the Austrian yoke.

In southern Germany the rulers were compelled to grant reforms at once. In Prussia, the King, Frederick William IV, after submitting to the most humiliating treatment at the hands of the Berlin mob was forced to call a national parliament to revise the constitution. Finally, however, with the aid of his army, the king was able first to dismiss this parliament, and then to impose on his people his own constitution, practically the one under which Prussia is now governed. A Prussian army was used to restore order in Saxony and Baden. In the Austrian possession the Emperor and his ministers finally got the upper hand once more. A National Assembly which had been convoked at Frankfurt to draw up a new constitution for all Germany, was a failure, partly because of the unwise conduct of its radical members, and partly because of the jealousy between Prussia and Austria over the headship of the proposed new empire. An effort of the Prussian King to form a union of the north German states under Prussian leadership failed because of the determined opposition of Austria. Finally, the old loose, ineffective German Confederation under the leadership of Austria was re-established in 1850.

Austria triumphed in 1850, but it was her last triumph. It was increasingly clear that Prussia would soon challenge her supremacy. Just at this time a man was coming into prominence who had the ability and the determination necessary to give Prussia the first place in Germany. Otto von Bismarck's services to the royal house of Prussia began in 1847, when he became a member of the Prussian Landtag. When he heard in the next March of the humiliation of the monarch at the hands of the Berlin mob, he first wrote to the king to express his sympathy, and then a little later presented himself in person at the court. From that time on, he strove to maintain the dignity of his sovereign, to save as many royal prerogatives as he could, and to make Prussia the head of a new German Confederation. For a number of years he was Prussia's representative in the Diet of the Confederation. Later still, he was Prussian ambassador at St. Petersburg. Finally, in 1861, in the midst of a great crisis in Prussian affairs, he was made chief minister by William I, grandfather of the present Emperor.

In the ten years between 1861 and 1871, Prussia was engaged in four struggles which culminated in the formation of the present German Empire. From 1862 to 1866, there was a bitter struggle between the Prussian Diet on the one hand, and the King and Bismarck on the other. In 1864 there was the war on Denmark. In 1866 came the war with Austria. Finally, in 1870, there was the Franco-Prussian war, which led directly to the formation of the present German Empire in 1871.

The vacillating, reactionary Frederick William IV became insane in

1857. For three years his brother William acted as regent, and then in 1861 ascended the throne as William I. He was much more liberal than his brother had been, and was anxious to maintain the constitution of 1850; but, both because he was a soldier, and because he was convinced that Prussia must have a large army to take her proper place in Europe, he was determined to increase the size and improve the organisation of his army. The Liberal majority in the Prussian Diet opposed his plans with so much determination, that William had already written out his abdication, before he asked Bismarck in 1862 to become chief minister. For four years, King and Minister defied the Diet. They continued to strengthen the army, and raised the necessary money without parliamentary consent. Sometimes they contemplated the possibility of their suffering the same fate as Charles I and Strafford, but still they persisted. Even at the Prussian Court Bismarck met opposition. The Queen and the Crown Prince (father of the present Emperor) openly sympathised with the Diet. The opposition even extended to the English Court. Queen Victoria was alarmed for the interests of her daughter, the Crown Princess. A story is told that when the Princess Beatrice was asked what she would have for her birthday, she demanded the head of Bismarck on a charger. But Bismarck, declaring that questions of the day were decided, not by speeches and party votes, but by blood and iron, persisted despite all the opposition. He saw clearly, however, that in the end, he and the King could justify themselves in the eyes of the German people only if the increased, re-organised Prussian army proved to be necessary for the carrying out of national aims.

A popular desire for a national union of all Germans had been growing in Germany since the time of Napoleon. It had found expression in 1848-9 in the futile National Assembly at Frankfort. In 1859 this national spirit was strengthened by the attack on Austria by Sardinia aided by France, which resulted not only in the wresting of Lombardy from Austria, but in the revelation of Napoléon III as the most dangerous foe of German unity. Bismarck, like the National Liberals, desired to bring about a close confederation of the various German states under the leadership of Prussia; and he saw very clearly what they did not see, that such a confederation could be brought about only after the defeat of Austria by Prussia. He laid all his plans, therefore, for the inevitable war, and used the Schleswig-Holstein question to bring it about.

This Schleswig-Holstein question is a complicated one, into the details of which it is not necessary to go. Lord Palmerston once said that only three persons had ever understood it. One was dead, one was crazy, and the third, he himself, had forgotten what it was all about. These two duchies, inhabited mostly by Germans, were ruled by the King of Denmark, but were not an integral part of the Danish Kingdom. In

1863 the new King, Christian IX (father of Queen Alexandra) published a constitution which treated Schleswig as an integral part of the Danish Kingdom, and separated it from Holstein. Germany was profoundly stirred by this defiance of German national feeling. Ultimately in 1864, Prussia and Austria sent their armies into the duchies, utterly defeated the Danish forces, and compelled the Danish King to relinquish all claim to Schleswig, Holstein, and the little wee duchy of Lauenburg.

By engaging in this war, Bismarck had accomplished two things. First, he had tested out the enlarged re-organised Prussian army; secondly he had found a suitable cause for a quarrel with Austria. Years before he had written home from Frankfort: "I foresee that one day we shall have to fight for our very existence with Austria". Now that the Prussian army was thoroughly prepared, he deliberately used the question of the disposition of Schleswig and Holstein to bring on war. It was agreed that Lauenburg should be annexed to Prussia, and that Schleswig should be temporarily administered by Prussia, and Holstein by Austria; but almost immediately afterwards the manner of administering the provinces furnished ample opportunity for quarrels. Finally, Austria appealed to the Federal Diet, which by a majority of three voted to support Austria. The representative of Prussia then laid before the Diet a programme for a new Confederation from which Austria should be excluded, and, when a majority of States refused to entertain it, despite Prussia's warning, that refusal meant war, he withdrew. Bismarck had already secretly arranged that Italy should attack Austria in the south and seize Venice, and had secured from Napoleon III a secret assurance that he would not interfere. War was declared by Austria on June 14th, 1866.

All the German states, except Mecklenburg and the small states of the north, sided with Austria; but, so admirable was the organisation of the Prussian army, so thorough were the plans of the Prussian War Office, and so absolutely inadequate were the preparations of the Austrians and their allies, that the whole struggle was over in three weeks. Three days were sufficient to dispose of Saxony and Hesse-Cassel. Hanover was over-run with almost equal ease. Finally the two main Prussian armies, numbering 221,000 men, effected a junction in Northern Bohemia, and between Sadowa and Königgrätz utterly defeated an Austrian army of 222,000. The total losses of the Austrians were 44,000.

The results of this brief war were momentous. Prussia annexed Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, Schleswig and Holstein. The old German Confederation was dissolved. Austria was excluded from Germany and a new North-German Federation under the leadership of Prussia was formed of all the German states north of the Main. For this new Federation, a constitution was devised which would suit

the needs of a wider federation, when the South-German states—Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden and South-Hesse—decided to join. It is almost the same constitution which to-day serves the German Empire. The King of Prussia became President of the Federation, but not its sovereign. The chief governing body was the Bundesrat, in which each ruler and each of the free cities was represented by at least one member. Finally there was a Reichstag, or popular assembly, representing the people of all the States. Because her King was president, and because of the large number of representatives she had in both the Bundesrat and the Reichstag, Prussia had the preponderating influence in the new Federation. Not the least important result of the war with Austria was the fact that the Prussian people and the Prussian Diet forgave both the King and Bismarck for increasing the army and levying taxes in defiance of the popular will. In other words, the success of the war led the Prussians to condone the very thing that brought both Charles I and Strafford to the block in England. In Prussia the Crown triumphed over Parliament.

Bismarck's task of unifying Germany was not yet complete, because Napoleon III, who acted as umpire between Austria and Prussia after the battle of Königgrätz, insisted that the South-German states should be permitted to form a separate federation. This action among others, as well as the apparent necessity of Napoleon's doing something to re-establish his waning credit at home, convinced Bismarck that France, also, would have to be crushed before German unity could be attained. Accordingly, he and the military advisers who had assisted him to defeat Austria, prepared for another war, which came in 1870. A Hohenzollern prince distantly related to the Prussian King was a candidate for the vacant Spanish throne. The French government demanded that his candidature should be withdrawn. The demand was complied with. Then the French Government, which was bent on war, demanded that the King should give a pledge that no Hohenzollern prince would ever again be a candidate for the Spanish throne. The King refused, and Bismarck so altered a telegram from him as to make it appear to the Germans that the King had been insulted by the French ambassador, and to the French that the King had refused to see their ambassador. War was declared by France on July 19th.

The Franco-Prussian War was short and decisive. The Prussian plans were so thorough that the Government needed only to send out the order: "The army is to be mobilised according to plan". The French mobilisation was chaotic. One general even sent word to headquarters that he could find neither his brigade nor his division general. To make it worse for the French, the South-German States, for whose assistance Napoleon had hoped, joined Prussia. The Prussian Govern-

ment respected Belgian neutrality, and so the three German armies marched into Alsace and Lorraine. Very quickly, a French army under Bazaine was shut up in Metz, which ultimately surrendered. Then another army under McMahon and accompanied by Napoleon was forced to surrender at Sedan on September 2nd. Napoleon was sent off to Germany, and two days later the French Assembly deposed him. On September 19th, Paris was surrounded and from that time until January 28th, experienced the terrors of war in ever increasing force. Rats were finally worth 60 centimes each. Heroic efforts were made throughout France to raise forces with which to relieve Paris and drive the invaders out of the country, and it is estimated that up to February 1st, 1871, 1,893,000 men were armed and placed in the field. But it was all of no avail. The untrained French forces were no match for the trained Germans, and on January 28th, Paris capitulated, and an armistice was signed. By the treaty which was signed later at Frankfort, France agreed to give up Alsace and Lorraine, and to pay an indemnity of five billion Francs.

While the siege of Paris was going on, negotiations were proceeding for the inclusion of the South-German States in the North-German Federation. Various difficulties were raised, especially by Bavaria, but finally an agreement was reached, and on January 18th, 1871, while the German guns were still hurling shells into Paris, King William of Prussia, in the midst of a brilliant assemblage of princes and generals, placed a crown on his own head, and was proclaimed German Emperor. The North-German Federation became an Empire under almost exactly the Constitution adopted in 1866. The struggle of Bismarck and William I for Prussian leadership and German unity had been eminently successful.

Towards Armageddon, 1871-1914.

In 1871, as a result of the successful war with France, the German States were united in an Empire, but it required twenty years and the genius of a Bismarck to amalgamate thoroughly the varied elements of which the Empire was composed. Gradually, the lawcourts, the monetary system, weights and measures, and the army, were made uniform, either wholly or in part, for the whole Empire, and were brought under imperial control. But, more important still, the undemocratic, absolutist, aggressive ideas of Prussia were gradually imposed on the rest of Germany by the Imperial Government, through the schools and universities, the army, and a highly organized and unscrupulous press bureau. The population was increasing rapidly, Germany was becoming more and more a great manufacturing and exporting state, and the industrial workers under the banner of Socialism were increasingly hostile to the undemocratic government; but the old Kaiser and Bis-

marck managed to do much as they pleased, and continued the unification of Germany, both materially and intellectually. They sought to overthrow the influence of the Socialists by introducing a series of social reforms, such as compulsory insurance against sickness (1883), against accidents (1884), and against old age (1890); and, when these palliatives failed, they managed to secure the passage of most unjust, oppressive laws for the suppression of all Socialist societies and newspapers. It is true that in spite of these measures, which were relaxed after the fall of Bismarck, the Socialists so increased in numbers that to-day they have 110 members in the Reichstag; yet, because that body has little effective control over the Government, the Socialists were not able to affect seriously German policy, either at home or abroad. The best proof of the success of the persistent efforts of the Government to Prussianize the whole people is the fact that to-day the Socialists like the other parties are supporting the Government in the prosecution of the present war.

While thus making the reactionary, imperial Government secure at home, Bismarck was busy also making the position of Germany secure abroad. After beating France into the dust in 1870, he proceeded to isolate her. In 1872 the three Emperors (German, Austrian, Russian) met at Berlin, and agreed to consult each other concerning international affairs. This good understanding was much weakened by the intervention of the Russian Emperor (and Queen Victoria) to prevent Germany attacking France in 1875, and by the subsequent failure of Bismarck to support Russia at the Congress of Berlin in 1878. But the league of the three Emperors (Dreikaiserbund) was renewed in 1884, and remained in force until 1890. This was not enough, however, to satisfy Bismarck, and in 1879 he brought about a Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria. In 1882 this was enlarged to a Triple Alliance by the inclusion of Italy. Great Britain, at that time, refused to enter into alliances, and, moreover, was for many reasons hostile to France; and so it seemed that Bismarck had been eminently successful in leaving France without a friend in Europe.

Having rendered Germany secure in Europe, Bismarck at last gave his countenance in 1884 to the acquiring of German colonies. While Russia, France and Great Britain were engaged with their own schemes of expansion, Germany secured German South-West Africa, German East Africa, Cameroon, Togo, part of New Guinea, and a respectable number of small islands in the South Seas. In 1884 a conference was called in Berlin which led in 1890 to the peaceful settlement of the boundaries of the various British, German and other colonies. One feature of this settlement was the cession to Germany by Great Britain of the tiny island of Heligoland, which was not very important to the British, but was essential to the successful fortification of the Kiel Canal. Ger-

many had entered the competition for colonies very late, but she soon had a colonial empire with a population of 14 million people (estimate in 1911).

France paid very heavily for the folly of Napoleon III in 1870, but she has wonderful recuperative powers, and Bismarck thought in 1875, when he and Moltke wished to attack her, that she would be ready again for war with Germany by 1877. But France was woefully divided politically. It was long uncertain whether she would be a monarchy or a republic, and the dispute was settled in 1875 in favour of a republic, by a majority of only one in the Assembly. Since that decision there have been numerous plots against the Third Republic, but it has weathered all the storms of forty-five years. In 1871 the French colonial possessions consisted of Algeria, the Senegal region on the west coast of Africa, some minor posts along the Gulf of Guinea and part of Indo-China. By 1874 France had put down the rebellion in Algeria, which broke out during the Franco-Prussian War; in 1881 she established a protectorate over Tunis; by 1894 she had extended her Senegal possessions as far inland as Timbuktu; she extended her possessions in the Congo region until they covered an area of 550,000 sq. miles; she established a protectorate over Madagascar in 1885, and then, ten years later, deposed and expelled the queen; she extended her possessions in Indo-China until they covered 310,000 sq. miles and contained a population of 14 million people. As a result, France's colonial empire extends to-day over a total area of 4,538,540 sq. miles, and has a population of 41,000,000.

Into the midst of this European world of fairly stable international relations and keen colonial rivalry, a new and portentous factor entered when William II dismissed his Chancellor Bismarck and began to direct German policy himself. Bismarck had been guided by a cautious nationalism; the new Kaiser was obsessed with the idea of so spreading German influence and power over the world, that no great decision either on the ocean or across it could be "arrived at without Germany and the German Emperor". His ambitions and his views concerning *Weltpolitik* were like those of the Pan-Germans, who dreamed of a great colonial empire across the seas, and of an enormous home empire extending from the North Sea to the Bosphorus, and even to the Persian Gulf. Such dreams could be realised only at the expense of other states. South Africa would make an ideal home for many millions of Germans; Brazil was suitable for another German colony; the Balkan States and Turkey, as vassal states, would extend German power and enterprise into Asia; Morocco was an inviting field for both commercial and political enterprise. But, before any of these territories could be won, Germany must have a powerful navy as well as an enormous army. A navy

was begun in 1895, but not much headway was made until 1897, when Admiral von Tirpitz became Secretary of the Admiralty.

A few years after Bismarck's retirement, the Kaiser began to interfere actively in the affairs of other nations. In 1895 he helped Russia and France in forcing Japan to give up the Liao-tung peninsula. In 1897 he seized Kiao-Chao in China. Despite his telegram to President Krüger after the Jameson Raid, he and his Government maintained a proper attitude, but it may well be believed that that was only because the great fleet which von Tirpitz started in 1898, was not yet ready.

This intriguing activity of the German Emperor aroused the suspicions of the neighbouring states. Already in 1891, France and Russia had formed a Dual Alliance to oppose the designs of the Triple Alliance. In 1904, France and Great Britain settled all their varied differences, despite their traditional hostility to each other. Among other things, France recognised the position of Great Britain in Egypt, and Great Britain admitted that France had predominant interests in Morocco. Shortly after, France and Spain came to an agreement about Morocco. At the time, Germany made no protest, but in March 1905, after the defeat of the Russians at Mukden at the hands of the Japanese, the Kaiser landed at Tangiers, and greeted the Sultan of Morocco as an independent sovereign. A few months later he forced the French Ministry to choose between war and dismissing Delcassé, minister of foreign affairs. Delcassé was dismissed. The Kaiser's course in this matter, and his domineering demands at the Algeciras Conference of the next year, which confirmed France in her privileged position in Morocco, were meant to challenge both the Dual Alliance between Russia and France and the Entente between France and Great Britain. The direct outcome was that Russia and Great Britain settled, in 1907, all their many disputes, and so brought about the Triple Entente between France, Russia and Great Britain.

The Kaiser had managed to undo all the careful work of Bismarck in isolating France, and had arrayed against Germany three powerful countries. But he felt confident of the strength of the Triple Alliance, and pursued his buccaneering course. In 1908, he aided Austria in her seizure of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1911 he sent the gunboat Panther to Agadir, in Morocco, when he thought German interests there were threatened, but settled the dispute with France on the basis of territorial compensation in the Congo district. He proposed in 1912 that Austria should make war on Serbia during the course of the Balkan Wars, but Italy refused to be a party to the attack. From that time on, as we now have good reason to believe, he simply waited for a convenient excuse to bring on the next bit of aggression. The excuse was furnished by the murder at Serajevo, on June 28th, 1914.

Is it at all surprising, when we review the intrigues and aggressions of the period from 1890 to 1914, that the great nations felt compelled to engage in the mad race to build great fleets and organize great armies? The following table will show how mad the race was.

ANNUAL EXPENDITURES ON ARMIES AND NAVIES COMBINED.

Country	1881	1891	1901	1911	Excess 1911 over 1881	Estimated Total for Thirty Years
Austria-Hungary	\$66,182,000	\$64,317,000	\$68,424,000	\$87,244,000	\$21,062,000	\$2,094,540,000
France	156,154,000	185,448,000	204,580,000	270,918,000	114,764,000	6,035,640,000
Germany	102,509,000	144,434,000	205,783,000	318,446,000	215,937,000	5,606,945,000
Great Britain	126,256,000	157,575,000	445,115,000	341,820,000	215,564,000	6,367,280,000
Italy	49,455,000	80,777,000	78,709,000	120,676,000	71,221,000	2,445,515,000
Russia	103,881,000	145,206,000	208,811,000	319,770,000	215,889,000	5,658,425,000
United States	51,654,000	66,589,000	190,728,000	283,086,000	231,432,000	3,996,870,000
Totals	\$656,091,000	\$844,346,000	\$1,402,150,000	\$1,741,960,000	\$1,085,869,000	\$32,205,215,000

In 1913 Germany set a new and more terrifying pace by raising the peace strength of her army from 544,000 to 870,000, and by levying a special war tax of \$250,000,000. The nations led by Germany have been preparing for Armageddon, and now Armageddon has come.

Geographical Questions on the War

4. Describe carefully the position of Constantinople and explain its importance.
5. The following countries are called the six great Powers of Europe: Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austro-Hungary and Italy. Compare them with regard to (a) area, (b) population, (c) facilities for commerce by sea, and (d) possessions outside of Europe.
6. The use of motor cars has made the belligerent nations dependent upon the supply of oil. Locate the regions which produce oil for the different belligerent nations.
7. Germany is a manufacturing country. Does she carry on her manufacturing in the same way that Britain does? Explain fully any differences and show whether they are advantageous or disadvantageous to Germany.
8. What would be the commercial advantages to Poland if her three parts were united to form an independent state?
9. Locate and give a brief description of: Bavaria, Alsace, Luxemburg, Essen, Bohemia, Transylvania.
10. Locate and state the importance of each in relation to the present war: Ostend, Dukla Pass, Cracow, Kiel, Louvain, Rheims, Plock, Thorn, Warsaw, Marne, Wilhelmshaven, Cuxhaven.
11. Trace the course of the Rhine. Name the different provinces it passes, and describe briefly the physical features of each. Describe the cities situated in its valley.
12. Locate and briefly indicate the course of the chief rivers that have come into prominence in connection with the present war on the Continent. Explain why rivers are so important in a campaign.

The Balkan States

[From *The School* of January, 1916]

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THE Balkan Peninsula is a patchwork of rival nationalities composed of such mixed populations so entwined and entangled that no geographical boundary lines can be made to fit the race groups. Crowded together on this one small stage are five races, each with its own wild aspirations, its insistent individuality, its rightful claims and its lawless lusts. The best example of the Balkan peculiarity was the man who said he was a Greek, but he was born in Bulgaria, his father was a Serbian and his children were Montenegrins. Not only do the various governments war for territory, but the different churches fight for adherents, while the most disturbing element of all is the fact that the little propaganda of these little Powers is worked by the big propaganda of the big Powers.

The Albanians are the oldest race in the peninsula. They are the more or less direct descendants of the primitive savage people of the Balkans. The Greeks are the next oldest race. The immigration from Asia took place in prehistoric times. Alexander the Great's mother was a Southern Albanian and his father a Greek. To-day Greek and Albanian alike claim him enthusiastically, and along with him, of course, his Macedonian lands. Bulgarians, too, pretend to be Alexander's sons and claim his lands as their birthright. Rome next swept down on the struggling mass and parcelled out the peninsula into Roman provinces, but there is little that is Roman left save the Latin dialect of the Roumanians.

Into this land of fierce tribesmen came other wild peoples who poured in from the strange dark lands beyond the Danube. Dates are uncertain but as early as the third century A.D., Slav tribes were drifting over the Danube and settling in the lands that form modern Serbia and Bulgaria. By the end of the sixth century this immigration became an invasion. They disputed the lands with the original inhabitants, driving them before them to the mountains as the Saxons did the Britons. Neither Slav nor Albanian has yet quite outgrown this early hatred. From these Slav tribes are descended all the Serbian-speaking people of the peninsula, the Serbians, the Montenegrins, Bosnians and Herzegovinians and in a large degree modern Bulgars too.

About 679 A.D. the Bulgars crossed the Danube and established themselves in the land still called Bulgaria. Who they were, and what

tongue they spoke, is unknown. They came from the wild lands north of the Black Sea. They burst into the land and poured over it conquering both Greek and Slav as well as aboriginal tribes. Thus as early as the seventh and eighth centuries were sown the seeds of a plentiful crop of hatreds from which the Balkan peoples reap an annual and a bitter harvest. In connection with the Bulgarian conquest, one notable thing happened. Though the Bulgar conquered the Slav, yet the Slav ab-



Fig. 1. (See page 70 for key).

From "The Round Table" published by the Macmillan Co.

sorbed him. Bulgarians adopted Slav customs and the Slav tongue. Of his own language nothing is now known to exist.

Up to the period of the arrival of the Turks the Balkan peoples were busy growing up. Trade routes had been opened by Greek, Bulgar and Serb and considerable trade was carried on between Ragusa and

Venice. The arts were cultivated. National literatures were beginning. In fact the people of the great Serbian Empire were very little behind the average of the rest of Europe. True their early history is a blood-stained story of struggles carried on by chieftain against chieftain, prince against prince; one-man empires rose and fell, but was it not by a similar process of evolution that the other peoples of Europe worked out

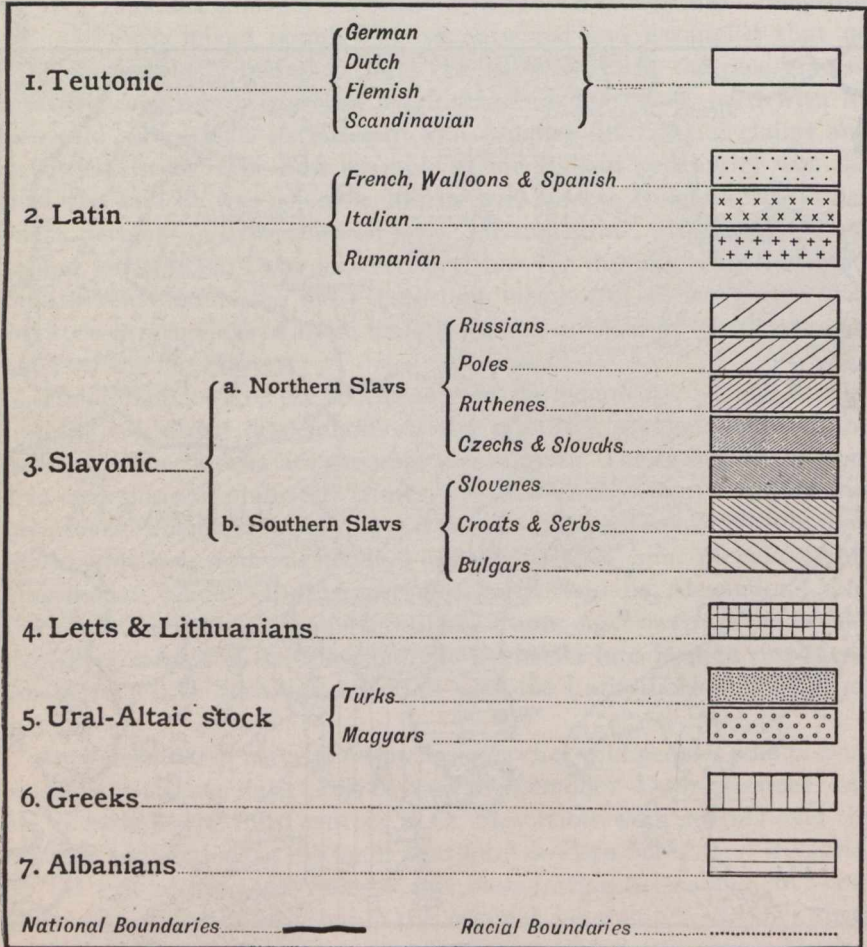


Fig. 3 Explanation of Map.

From "The Round Table" published by the Macmillan Co.

their salvation or destruction, and that the modern Powers of Europe gradually came into being?

While the Balkan peoples were still in this early stage of national development their growth was arrested. The all-conquering Turk swept down upon them, and for four centuries they were blotted out

from the world's history. In 1389 the Turks crushed the Serbs at the battle of Kossovo. That disaster ended the days of splendour of the Great Serbian Empire, and it is Kossovo, not the capture of Constantinople (1453), which marks the beginning of the Eastern Question. Thereafter the Turks overcame the Bulgars, the Greeks and the Roumanians. They even crossed over into Italy but here they were baffled. In Hungary their advance was steady. Finally they reached even to Vienna but they won no further. In 1683 they were completely routed outside its walls, and this is a turning-point in Balkan history. Turkish power was waning and they began that slow retreat from the conquered lands which even yet is not accomplished.

Under Turkish mis-rule the subject peoples retrogressed in many ways. They lost their knowledge in the arts of peace and war through lack of opportunity to exercise either. The Turkish policy of making means of communication as difficult as possible prevented the growth of trade or manufacture. Heavy and irregular taxation made the gathering of any capital hopeless. Disarmed and systematically robbed by their conquerors, the mass of the people were no better than slaves.

However bad this government might seem from a Western point of view, it had at least the saving virtue of not interfering with the national habits and ideas of the different Christian peoples. No government pressure was ever used to try to assimilate or change the character of the people. They retained not only their language but their religion, manners and peculiar characteristics, so when Turkish power waned they still possessed the germs of national existence, and were animated with a desire to continue their struggles for national existence from where they left off.

Following up her victory of 1683, Austria lost little time in turning the tables upon the Turks. The Emperor Leopold marched into Turkish territory and made a bold attempt to annex Serbia and ever since that time Austria has plotted and is still plotting to secure territory in the Balkan Peninsula. The principle of growth which pushes the Germans towards the North Sea and into new lands also urges Austria towards the Adriatic and Aegean.

We now arrive at modern history with both Austrian and Russia appearing upon the scene as players in the Balkan drama. Russia constituted herself the champion of the Slav against the Turk in the days of Peter the Great, and planned to extend her power to Constantinople, but it was kinship in race and a common religion (that of the Greek Church) that impelled them to intervene, the same generous feelings that prompted mankind to undertake the Crusades. Whatever may have been the ambitions of politicians, the rank and file of the Russian people have been actuated by a noble impulse, the desire to free the

oppressed. It is the same feeling largely which inspires them now to overthrow the last but deadliest enemy of the Balkan Slavs—Austria.

In 1804 the Serbians rose in open revolt against Turkish oppression, under a popular leader called Karageorge, or the Black George whose descendant is to-day King Peter I of Serbia. Thus the Serbians may claim to be the real pioneer of Balkan independence. In 1817 Turkey agreed to recognise a certain measure of Serbian self-government whilst still retaining garrisons in Belgrade and other fortresses. By the Treaty of Adrianople, after the Russo-Turkish War of 1827-9, which had completed the liberation of Greece, a few more districts were added to the self-governing Serbian province; and in 1867, after a succession of risings, the Turks finally withdrew all their garrisons. Though practically independent since 1867, yet Serbia still comprised but a very small portion of the territories inhabited by Serbs, a large part of whom were incorporated in the Austrian dominions, while Bosnia and Herzegovina remained for many years under Turkish rule as did the Bulgarian Slavs.

In 1875 Bosnia and Herzegovina rose against Turkey. Serbia and Montenegro gave them material aid and in 1876 boldly went to war with Turkey on their behalf. Defeated by superior numbers, the Serbians were compelled to make peace. At the conference which met at Constantinople in the following winter, Russia tried hard to impose far-reaching reforms upon the Turkish government. Failing in this the Russian armies took the field in the Spring of 1877. They were victorious and imposed upon Turkey at the gates of Constantinople the Treaty of San Stefano, 1878. By the terms of this treaty, Russia tried to construct a huge Bulgaria which was to be under Russian control and occupied by 50,000 Russian troops but the scheme was too bold. The Treaty of San Stefano was overthrown in Council at Berlin by the Powers of Europe who considered their own interests more than those of the races immediately concerned. For example, Bosnia and Herzegovina, indisputably Serb lands, were handed to Austria to be administered—this being the price for her neutrality throughout the struggle. Serbia and Montenegro were extended over lands which were Albanian, and Albanian land in the south was awarded to Greece. Its immediate result was an Albanian rising, and Albanian patriots are still working for Albanian autonomy.

Even in Austrian history there are few more discreditable pages than her treatment of Serbia during the quarter of a century which followed the Congress of Berlin. Serbia depended upon the markets of Austria-Hungary for the greater part of her import and export trade for which there was scarcely any outlet in other directions, and up to 1905 she was practically in economic subjection to Austria. Austria's dream was to annex Serbia and whenever Serbia displayed signs of political

independence, Austria began a sort of economic blackmailing of her imprisoned neighbour by closing her markets to Serbian pork and beef and by a merciless tariff war. This roused Serbia, and for the first time she applied herself to develop new channels of economic communication with the outer world. Imports from Austria fell from 60% to 35%. Then came the revolution at Constantinople in 1908. Austria found in this the long-sought-for pretext for definitely annexing the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia and Montenegro appealed to Russia for help. Russia strongly pressed for compensation for Serbia and Montenegro only to be confronted with a scarcely veiled ultimatum, not from Austria-Hungary but from her ally, Germany, who thus had gone out of her way to inflict humiliation upon Russia.

At this time, too, Germany was extending her influence over the Young Turks at Constantinople. Turkish military power was gathering strength under German instructors. Trained at Berlin, leaders of the Young Turks had imbibed the doctrine that nationality and religion were absurd survivals, to be swept aside as soon as possible. Under such influences, Turkish oppression settled down more heavily than ever upon the Christian populations of Macedonia, whether Serbs, or Bulgars or Greeks. A Young Turk said to Miss Durham: "All is now simplified. The Greek, the Bulgar, the Serb, the Albanian Questions no longer exist. We have passed a law, and now all are Osmanli". To which Miss Durham replied: "You can pass a law if you like that all cats are dogs; but they will remain cats".

Bitter as had been the rivalry between the small States of the Balkan Peninsula, they were compelled now, by a sense of common danger, to draw closer together. They formed themselves into a Balkan League for common defence, Serbia and Montenegro chiefly as a safeguard against Austria-Hungary, Greece and Bulgaria rather with an eye to Turkey.

Then came the war of 1912. Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria banded themselves together to wrest from Turkey the provinces of Macedonia and Albania, which then extended from the Black Sea to the Adriatic. Before beginning they had already agreed upon the division of the territory to be conquered, and had agreed that, in case of disputes it should be submitted to the decision of the Czar of Russia. In a year the war was over. The Turks were driven from Albania and Macedonia. They held in Europe only Constantinople and a small territory about it. There was a possibility of Serbia expanding to the sea. This result was a tremendous blow to both Austro-Hungary and Germany. Serbia would be no longer the ward of the Dual Monarchy, since every maritime nation would then be Serbia's neighbour as well as Austria. Austria-Hungary chafed at the growth of the Serbian Kingdom, Italy

also intervened, anxious to hold for herself the eastern seaboard of the Adriatic.

At the Peace Conference held in London the pre-arranged plan of the Balkan League for the division of the spoil suffered wreck. The old jealousies between the Balkan States in regard to the division of Macedonia broke out afresh between Serbia and Greece on one hand, and Bulgaria on the other. Serbia was ready to refer the question to the arbitration of the Czar. King Ferdinand rejected the Russian offer and rushed into war against his recent allies.

Thus the second Balkan War began. In a month it was over and Bulgaria had lost. Again the hopes of Austria-Hungary and of Germany were frustrated. Not only had Serbia proved herself a fighting power of no mean value; not only had she, under the Treaty of Bucharest, which closed the Second Balkan War, nearly doubled her territory and added more than fifty per cent. to her population, but the Southern Slavs of Austria-Hungary were openly showing a remarkable sympathy for their Serbian kinsmen.

Exposed to official persecution and robbed of their liberties by Austrian misgovernment, the Southern Slavs brooded over the wrongs of their disunited race and began a movement which was directed more or less openly to the emancipation of all the Southern Slav provinces. The widespread nature of the movement may be illustrated by the school strike of the Spring of 1912, during which every boy and girl above the age of fourteen in most of the primary and secondary schools of Croatia, Dalmatia and Bosnia played truant as a protest against the misgovernment of Croatia. On that occasion a crowd of 5,000 school children paraded the streets of Agram shouting "Down with Cuvaj" (the Ban or Governor of Croatia). The younger generation had been profoundly affected by the Croatian dictatorship and the Balkan Wars, and from among them came the two young assassins who murdered the Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife in Bosnia. The actual murderers were Serbs, though Austro-Hungarian subjects, and though no connection between the crime and the Serbian government was established, yet the incident was used as a pretext for aggression against Serbia.

We did not enter the war to fight for Serbia yet we have no reason to feel ashamed that we are now fighting on the same side with her against a common enemy. The cause for which she is fighting is to-day the same cause for which we are all fighting—the cause of freedom.

How might such a disposal of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus affect Canada or the United States? What are Britain's reasons for usually favouring the "open door"?

The Colonies and the War: Africa

[From *The School of May*, 1915]

G. A. CORNISH, B.A.

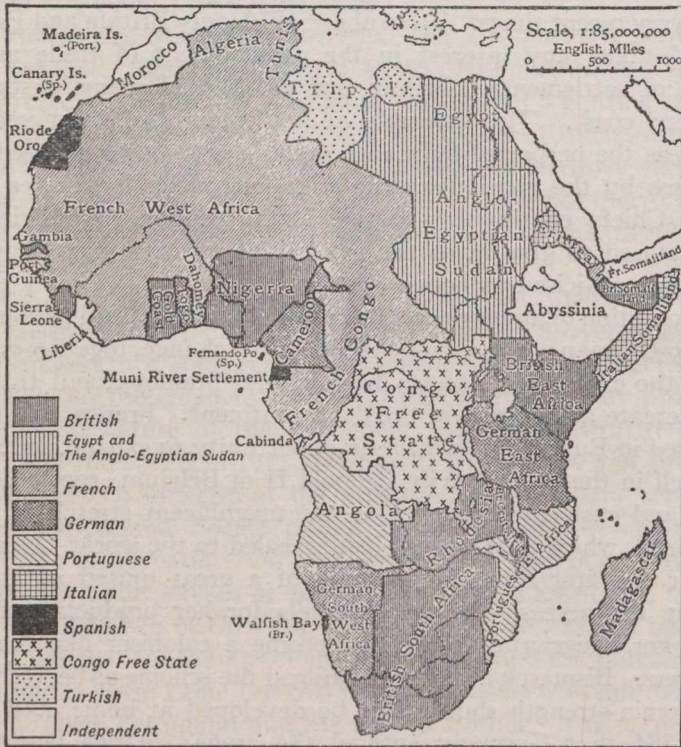
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THE partition of Africa among the European nations is the work of very recent times. Up to about 1870, only Britain and Portugal had taken any interest in the development of trade and the formation of settlements. Britain had established many posts along the western coast. The attempts at settlement had been very discouraging as the perpetual fight with malaria was only surpassed in its hopelessness by the continual strife with irreconcilable savages in the interior. Chiefs continually begged for protection, but Britain as steadily refused to give it, as the expense of punitive expeditions was ever severely criticised at home.

This condition of apathy came to a close about 1870, and undoubtedly the Franco-German war was responsible for the change, together with the fact that the explorations of Livingstone and Stanley about this time, began to create an interest in the dark continent. France, hemmed in and worsted in Europe, looked for an opportunity to expand and strengthen herself in the south. Wily Leopold II of Belgium, recognised the situation and cast covetous eyes on the magnificent stretch of waters on the Congo, which Stanley had just revealed to the world. Germany, feeling for the first time the strength of a great united nation, and recognising the necessity of new markets for her products, and new lands for her emigrants, desired to become a coloniser like the other great powers. Bismarck at first discouraged the scheme as he recognised that economic strength should first be developed at home, and it was not till 1884 that Germany entered the arena. Africa became the Christmas pie, and the European nations became the Jacky Horners, and each "Put in his thumb, and pulled out a plum, and said 'what a good boy am I'".

The accompanying map shows the result of the scramble up to 1910. Since then important changes have taken place. Tripoli now belongs to Italy; Egypt and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan are to all intents and purposes British; and at the expense of the French Congo, Cameroon is larger by 100,000 square miles than the map indicates. The ambitions of none of the nations have been quite realised. Portugal wished to have a stretch extending from Angola to Portuguese East Africa, but Cecil Rhodes had still more ambitious schemes for Britain and annexed Rhodesia. France owns a small district near the Gulf of Aden and her

ambition was to connect up her western possessions with this district, and hence extend across the continent; but Kitchener by his conquest of the Sudan, dashed that hope to the ground. Cecil Rhodes had a still greater scheme for Britain, namely, to have British territory extend from Cape of Good Hope to Egypt and the Cape-to-Cairo railroad has been the aspiration of every imperialist up to the present time. German East Africa, however, bars the way.



Map of Africa, showing possessions of the different European nations in 1910. Tripoli now belongs to Italy, Morocco is a French protectorate, Cameroon now extends much further south.

From *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

It has been said that Germany entered the field late, but she certainly lacked nothing in vigour once she made the plunge in the stormy sea of colonialism. At the beginning of 1884 she owned not a square mile of Africa, yet by the end of the same year her colonial possessions were only surpassed by those of Britain and France. Four colonies were founded during this one year. Togo, on the Gulf of Guinea, Cameroon further east on the same gulf; German South West Africa, north of Cape of Good Hope*; and German East Africa on the Indian Ocean. Togo is a model

*At the Union of the South African Colonies the names Cape Colony, Orange River Colony and Vaal River Colony disappeared and the provinces were called Cape of Good Hope, Orange Free State and Transvaal.

colony with good roads; its chief products are rubber and palm oil. It contains less than 300 Europeans, though it is larger than New Brunswick. When war broke out it offered no resistance, and was early entered by the British who now have possession.

Cameroons, like Togo, is sandwiched in between the British and the French possessions, and so was bound to prove a good fighting ground. This colony is considerably larger than Ontario, but quite unsuitable for Europeans on account of its climate and unhealthfulness. Cocoa, rubber, bananas and coffee are the chief products. Though there are less than two thousand whites in the country, the Germans had looked to its defence and some severe fighting has taken place. The British have made several raids across the border, but have met with stiff resistance. Much better progress has been made in attacks from the coast, and a British-French expedition occupied the chief city, Duala, as early as October the first, and, a little later, the capital, Edea. Since then they have been fighting their way inward along the railroad, and at the present time all the railroad is under the control of the allies. Probably the most serious fighting is over in this colony, as the more important towns are now in the hands of the Allies. As both Togo and Cameroon lie between British and French territory, it is doubtful to whom they will be ceded when the war is over.

German East Africa is by far the most valuable of the German African colonies. It has a great variety of productions both vegetable and mineral. Moreover, it has on its borders the three great fresh-water lakes, Nyasa, Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza. It is as large as the province of Quebec, and has several railroad lines and good roads which connect the ports with the great lakes. It is particularly interesting to the British as it is the only barrier to the all British Cape-to-Cairo railway. There are probably about five thousand whites in the colony. Very severe fighting, both by land and sea, has taken place in the colony, and up to the present the Germans have been very aggressive and give every evidence that they are capably led. As there were few whites and small military forces in the adjoining British colonies, early in the war they were strengthened by Indian troops. At the beginning of September the Germans were on the offensive in every direction; they attacked Nyasaland on south-east, Uganda on the north-east and made several raids across the border of British East Africa. They were also active on Lake Victoria Nyanza. In every case they have been driven back, but the casualties have been heavy on both sides. The greatest disaster to the British in any of the African campaigns occurred in this colony on November 2nd, when they made an attack on an unnamed town on the coast. They were allowed to enter the town, and what looks like an ambush was prepared. They were compelled to retreat after suffering

nearly eight hundred casualties. On December 15th, two British cruisers bombarded Dar-es-Salaam, the chief city of the colony, and the terminus of the chief railway. All shipping was destroyed and several prisoners were taken. In February, the coast of the colony was blockaded by British cruisers so that nothing can now either enter or leave the colony. This is the extent of our knowledge of the fighting. Up to the present Britain has made no serious inroad on the colony, but undoubtedly more vigorous measures will be taken, because this is the German possession which will prove of most value to Britain as it will give a continuous stretch of British territory from the Cape of Good Hope to the Mediterranean Sea.

German South West-Africa is the most barren of all the German possessions in Africa, and yet it is the only one that is fit for European occupation. The others are all tropical and unfitted for farming by the white man so they are occupied by plantations worked by the natives, and superintended by the whites. It is larger than any province in Canada, but has a meagre population, there being less than 15,000 whites, and less than 100,000 natives; a good many of the whites are Boers, who have no particular love for German methods of government. The coast is desert, but the higher interior is fair grazing land. The chief products of the farm are cattle, sheep and goats. Recently diamonds have been found, and they are now by far the most valuable export. Right at the outbreak of war, the Germans crossed the Orange River into Cape of Good Hope, and at first little resistance was offered because of the rebellion there, the incidents of which will be first related.

General Beyers was commandant-general of the Union Defence Forces and in that capacity had complete control of all the military forces in South Africa. He was considered to be a fair-minded man, and in a visit to England quite recently, had thanked the British people for the self-government they had bestowed upon the Boers. From evidence which has been produced at the courts in South Africa recently, it appears that as early as August 12th, less than a week after war was declared, he was preparing for rebellion. All the plans for the attack on German South-West Africa were discussed by General Smuts with him, and it was taken for granted that he would conduct the operations for the British. He sent Colonel Maritz, apparently to repel the inroads of the Germans into Cape of Good Hope, but really to stir up rebellion in the north. The treachery rapidly developed, and on September 15th, Beyers resigned. General Botha at once took measures to inform the Boers of the facts. At Banks on September 28th, he addressed five thousand people and stated that there were only two courses open; one, that of loyalty and help, and the other that of disloyalty and treason. His great influence had a wonderful effect on the people. On October 11th,

Colonel Maritz broke into open rebellion. On October 12th, martial law was proclaimed throughout the colony, and a few days later Beyers was leading a rebel commando in Western Transvaal and De Wet one in the northern parts of the Orange Free State. From the very first the rebels were in a hopeless condition and began surrendering in groups. Both De Wet and Beyers were in continual flight, their followers were surrendering, and when on December 1st, De Wet surrendered without a shot being fired, and Beyers was shortly afterwards drowned in the Vaal River, the backbone of the rebellion was broken. Although a few rebels even yet have not surrendered, the Union is a unit behind their great leader General Botha.

Good progress has been made in the conquest of the German possession. German South-West Africa has two main lines of railway, one in the south and one in the north, both terminating on the coast; one at Lüderitzbucht in the south, and the other at Swakopmund in the north. General Botha's plan evidently was to send three expeditions. One left by water and took possession of Lüderitzbucht as early as September 19th, but owing to the rebellion, little progress was at first made. The second expedition was to enter from the coast farther north at Swakopmund, and the third expedition was to penetrate the enemy's country from the south and east. In order to get a sufficient supply of troops, General Botha on December 31st, decided to depend no longer on voluntary enlistment and commandeered the state citizens in sufficient numbers. Campaigning in South Africa is quite different from that in Cameroon or German East Africa. While in the latter difficulties are all the result of excessive rains,—dense vegetation, impassible roads and swollen streams, in the former the difficulties are due to desert conditions—scant vegetation and absence of water for man and beast. Good progress, however, has been made with all three expeditions. The southern one has already crossed the Orange River, and is penetrating the southern part of the enemy's country; the central one that entered at Lüderitzbucht has followed the railroad, has penetrated over one hundred miles into the interior, and has been uniformly successful. The northern expedition is under General Botha's command. It entered Swakopmund on the coast early in March, advanced into the interior, and has captured already a large number of prisoners.

Complete subjugation of the enemy will be very difficult in any of these colonies as very large parts of them are entirely unexplored, and have few roads and settlements. However, the backbone of resistance has already been broken in Togo and Cameroon. The enemy is also well under control in South-West Africa, so that only in East Africa has the main campaign still to be waged.

The British Navy*

[From *The School of March*, 1916]

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FIG. 1. Dreadnought—First “All-big-gun” ship. Built 1906; 17,900 tons; 520 ft. long; 23,000 h.p. Parsons’ turbines, speed 21 knots. Armament: ten 12 in. guns mounted in five revolving turrets so placed as to give a broadside fire of eight, and ahead or astern fire of six guns. She has also a battery of twenty-four 12 pounders. There are five submerged torpedo tubes (shaded in illustration). Vitals and gun positions are protected with armour 11 in. thick. She has bunkers for 2,700 tons of coal, a complement of 800 officers and men and cost £1,800,000 to build.

Fig. 2. Agamemnon and Lord Nelson—built 1907—a hybrid class called “semi-Dreadnoughts”; 16,500 tons; 410 ft. long; 16,500 h.p.; speed 18 knots. Armament: four 12 in., ten 9.2 in. guns all mounted in armoured turrets; twenty-four 12 prs. Armour 12 in. on all vital parts. Broadside four 12 in., five 9.2 in. Great defect of these vessels is that there is scarcely elbow-room in the 9.2 in. turrets and therefore these guns cannot be worked to their capacity. Complement 750 men; cost £1,650,000.

Fig. 3. Bellerophon Class—Bellerophon, Téméraire, Superb. Built 1909; 18,900 tons; length 490 ft.; 23,000 h.p., speed 22 knots. Armament: ten 12 in. guns in five twin turrets; broadside, eight 12 in.; ahead or astern fire, six 12 in. Armour 11 in.; Fuel (coal and oil) 2,700 tons; 800 officers and men; Cost £1,700,000.

Fig. 4. St. Vincent Class: Vanguard, St. Vincent, Collingwood. Built 1910; 19,250 tons; 500 ft. long; 24,500 h.p.; speed 21 knots. Main battery ten 12 in. guns of very powerful type. Armour 10 inches; Fuel (coal and oil) 2,700 tons; Crew over 800 officers and men; Cost £1,700,000.

Fig. 5. Neptune Class: Colossus, Hercules, Neptune. Built 1911; 20,000 tons; 510 ft. long; 25,000 h.p.; speed 21 knots; Main battery ten 12 in. guns—each 50 ft. long. Reference to the diagram will show that all ten may be fired over either broadside within a limited arc, eight guns can be fired astern and six ahead. In this class the “super-barbette” appeared for the first time (vide diagram showing one pair of guns at stern raised above the other pair). Armour 11 in.; Fuel (coal) 2,700 tons; Complement 800 men; cost £1,700,000.

Fig. 6. Orion Class: Orion, Monarch, Conqueror, Thunderer—First of the “Super-Dreadnoughts”. Built 1911-12. Displaced 22,500 tons; 545 ft. long; 27,000 h.p., speed 24 knots; Main battery ten 13.5 in. guns; firing a 1,250 lb. projectile at the rate of two per minute. These guns are mounted in five twin turrets all on centre line and all can be trained on either broadside. Armour-belt 11 to 12 in. thick; Fuel capacity 2,700 tons coal and oil; Complement 900; cost £2,000,000.

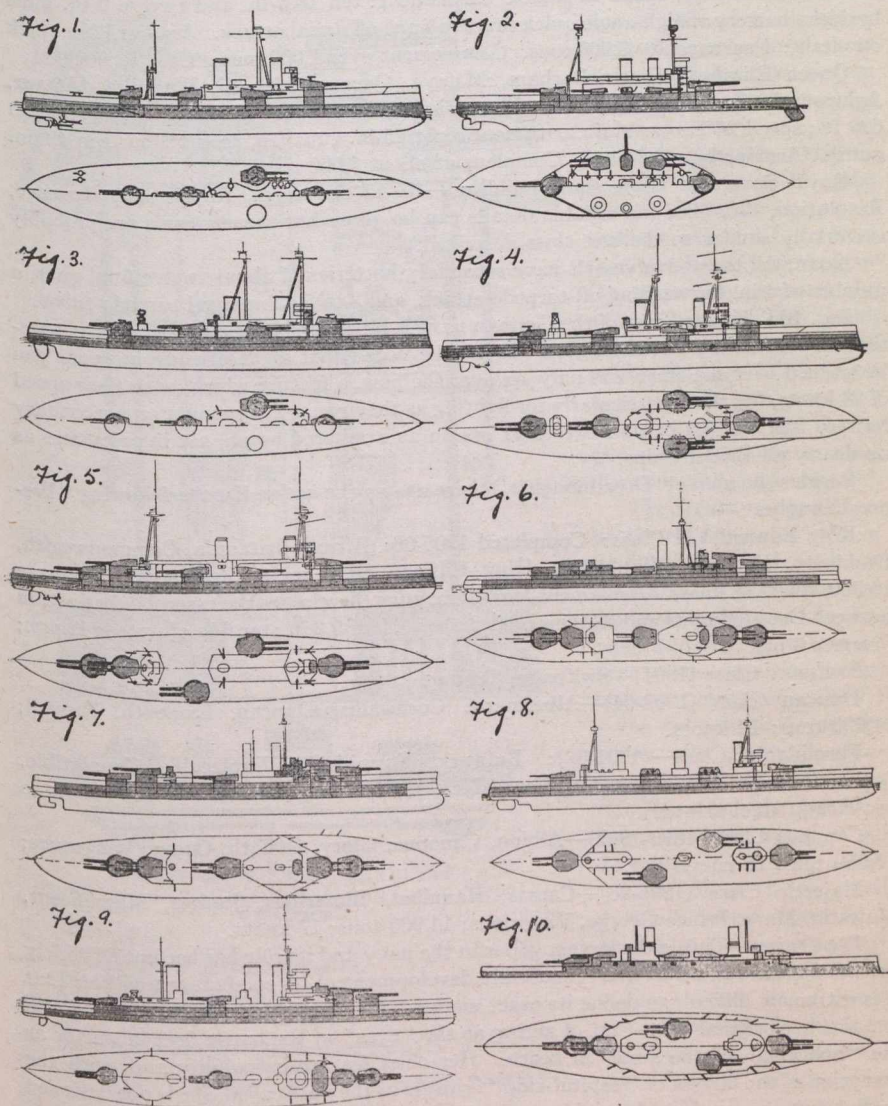
FIG. 7. King George V Class: Erin, King George V, Ajax, Centurion, Audacious; Built 1913. Displacement 25,000 tons loaded; 596 ft. long; 27,000 h.p.; speed 21½ knots. Armament, etc., similar to Orion class.

FIG. 8. Invincible Class: Invincible, Inflexible, Indomitable, Indefatigable, Australia, New Zealand (slight differences). Built 1909-1913. These were the first group of Battle-Cruisers to be built. The displacement is from 17,500 to 19,000 tons; length about 550 feet; 41,000 h.p., speed 25 knots or more. The armament consists of

*The illustrations in this article are from “The Fleets at War,” by Archibald Hurd, The Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

eight 12 in. guns in four double turrets. Armour-belt 7 in. Fuel (coal and oil) 2,500 tons; Complement 790; cost £1,500,000.

FIG. 9. Lion Class: Lion, Princess Royal, Queen Mary, Tiger (slight differences).



Completed 1912-1914. These also are Battle-Cruisers—combining strength and fighting powers of the Dreadnought and the speed of the Cruiser. Displacement 27,000-28,000 tons. Length 660 ft. Engines 70,000 to 100,000 h.p.; speed at least 28 knots. Main armament ten (Tiger, eight) 13.5 in. guns all on centre line, discharging projectile 1,400 lbs. in weight at rate of two per minute. All guns can be trained on either broadside. Fuel is coal or oil of which 3,000 to 4,000 tons can be carried. Complement about 1,000 men; cost £2,200,000.

Iron Duke Class: Iron Duke (Flag ship of Sir John Jellicoe), Marlborough, Emperor of India, Benbow—Completed 1914. These vessels are essentially similar in design to the King George V Class (Fig. 7). Their displacement is 27,000 tons loaded; length 645 ft.; 29,000 h.p.; speed 22 knots. Armament: ten 13.5 in. and twelve 6 in. guns besides a battery of high-angle quick firers to ward off aerial attack. Armour 12 in. thick on vitals. Fuel capacity 3,000 tons. Complement over 1,000 men. Cost £2,000,000.

Queen Elizabeth Class: Barham, Malaya, Queen Elizabeth, Warspite, Valiant, Agincourt*—Completed 1914-15. Plans similar to above. Tonnage 27,500, length 620 ft.; speed 25 knots; Main armament eight 15 in. guns (Agincourt* fourteen 12 in. guns). Armour belt 13½ ins. Complement about 1,000 men.

Royal Sovereign Class (now building)—Royal Sovereign, Royal Oak, Revenge, Resolution, Ramillies (no reliable details can be given but these vessels are probably essentially similar to the last class described.)

NOTE: All the above vessels have secondary batteries of about twelve 6 in. guns, a number of 4 in. for warding off torpedo attack, and 3 to 5 submerged torpedo tubes.

FIG. 10. Kaiser Class of the German navy is illustrated to show a common characteristic of German Dreadnoughts. It will be noted that eight of their big guns can be trained over the stern and only six over the bow, a feature which, with their speed of 24 knots, fits them particularly for fighting as they run. They mount as a secondary battery fourteen 5.9 in. and twelve 21 prs. in an armoured house, not in casemates as on nearly all British ships.

Besides the above "Dreadnoughts" there are on the active list the following "Pre-dreadnoughts"—

King Edward VII Class: Completed 1905-06: Africa, Britannia, Commonwealth, Dominion, Hibernia, Hindustan, King Edward VII (sunk), Zealandia. Tonnage 16,350, speed 18 knots. Armament *four* 12 in. guns (herein lies the essential distinction between Dreadnoughts and *all* their predecessors), four 9.2 in.; ten 6 in.; fourteen 12 prs.; fourteen 3 prs.

Swiftsure Class (1904)—Swiftsure, Triumph.

Duncan Class (1903-04)—Albermarle, Cornwallis, Duncan, Exmouth, Russell; 14,000 tons; 19 knots.

Formidable Class—(1901-02): Bulwark, Formidable, Implacable, Irresistible, Queen, Prince of Wales, London, Venerable. 15,000 tons; 18 knots. (First vessels to use Krupp steel armour).

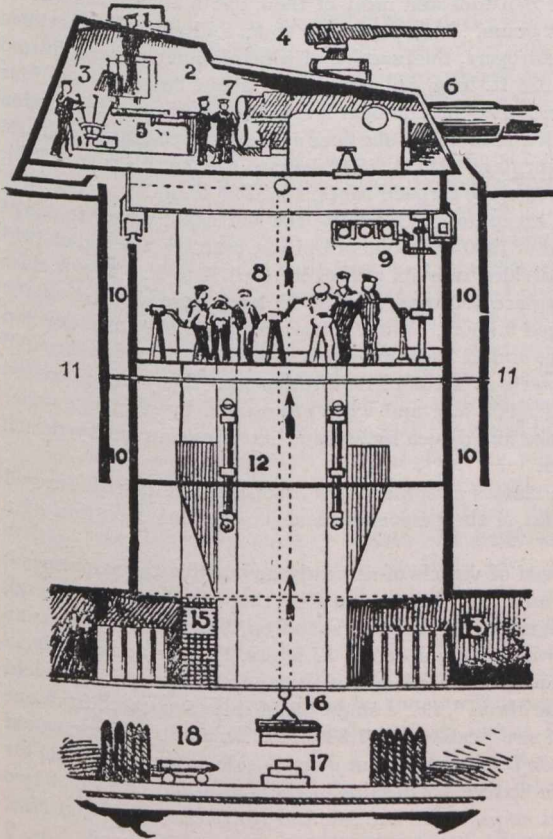
Canopus Class (1899-1902)—Albion, Canopus, Glory, Goliath, Ocean, Vengeance; 12,950 tons, 18 knots.

Majestic Class (1895-98)—Caesar, Hannibal, Illustrious, Jupiter, Magnificent, Majestic, Mars, Prince George, Victorious; 14,900 tons; 17 knots.

The Cruiser—This is the largest genus in the navy and its rôle has become so widely extended of late years by the remarkable development of its combatant qualities that it is extremely difficult to define its exact metier. The Cruiser's principal function still remains her original one—that of acting as the "eyes" of the battle fleet in war or as the "policeman of the seas" in peace. Her chief feature is mobility and, with the exception of the largest or "capital-ship" cruisers as they are called, she is not designed for fighting save against ships of her own type. But modern development, as has been said, has extended these limits to within the scope of the battleship—as witness the Queen Mary and Lion groups. It is a far cry from the little Pelorus type (1897) of 2,135 tons to the Minotaur type (1909) of 14,600 tons and yet the gap is bridged by a great number of intermediate groups, all having similar characteristics: first, mobility

*Agincourt—Originally laid down as the Rio de Janeiro for the Brazilian government; she was purchased by Turkey and was on the point of leaving for Turkish waters under the name of Osman I. at the outbreak of the war, when she was taken over by the British Admiralty.

the *Arethusa* class of 1914 can steam at a sustained speed of 29 knots; second, relatively small resisting power; the *Minotaur* has a narrow belt of 9 in. armour, but the remainder



INTERIOR VIEW OF BARBETTE

(Shewing how worked, and Method of Ammunition supply to Guns inside).

1. Sighting Hood.
2. Armoured Barbette.
3. Working Levers for Gun Mechanism.
4. Pair Quick-firing Guns.
5. Hydraulic Charge Rammers.
6. Pair 13.5 Guns.
7. Breech of Gun.
8. Emergency Hand-power for working Barbette.
9. Machinery for working Barbette.
10. Continuation of Armour from Barbette to below waterline.
11. Waterline.
12. Shaft, up which Shells are hoisted by lift to Gun.
13. Powder Magazine.
14. Ditto.
15. Carrier which conveys Powder up to Gun.
16. Shell on hoist for conveyance up to Gun.
17. Pivot on which Barbette revolves.
18. Shell Magazines.

is practically unprotected against the fire of heavy guns; the heaviest armament is four 9.2 in. guns and on most classes of Cruisers the heaviest gun is the 6 in. breech-loading rifle. The big guns are mounted in radial houses which can be turned through nearly a full arc or in "sponsons"—semi-circular projections beyond the ship's sides. The small quick-firers are mounted behind shields which turn on a pivot with the gun, thus affording protection to the gun-crew no matter in what direction the gun is pointed.

The Scout—is a small fast protected cruiser of little or no fighting value designed to dart about a war zone, and transmit tidings of the disposal and size of an enemy fleet. There are two groups of Scouts on the effective list—the "Attentive" class (to which the *Pathfinder* belonged) and the *Boadicea* class (to which the *Amphion* belonged) numbering in all 15 ships.

The Sloop—is a small auxiliary vessel rigged as a barque so that on long patrols she can cruise under canvas. There are a dozen of these vessels dating from 1898-1903, one of which was the "*Condor*" which, when on the Pacific station, disappeared mysteriously, leaving not a single survivor to tell the tragic story.

Torpedo Craft of all designations have been aptly termed the "mosquito" fleet. They include torpedo gun-boats, Destroyer-destroyers, Destroyers, Torpedo boats and Submarines (which last term as far as concerns the British Navy is a misnomer, the correct

name being "submersible"). Torpedo gun-boats or Destroyers of destroyers as a distinct class is the result of abnormal development of the destroyer. The largest boat of this type is the Swift (1910) of 2,170 tons with engines of 30,000 h.p. The "Tribal" Class of 1911 average 875 tons and most of them can maintain a speed of 35 knots for a period of over six hours. It is impossible to fix a dividing line between the above class and ordinary Destroyers, the function of which is sufficiently indicated by their name. They average 225 ft. long, are armed with about two 4 in. and four 12 prs. besides two torpedo tubes. The torpedo boat is a baby-destroyer. Her mission is harbour and coast defence work and therefore she does not require sea-going qualities. They vary in size from the "Lightning" (1877), 75 ft. long to the No. 31 class (1908), 180 ft. long, 280 tons, two 12 prs., three torpedo tubes, speed 26 knots.

Great Britain was, with the exception of Germany, the last naval power to adopt the submarine. Down to the end of 1900 we had none of these craft, by the end of 1913 we had eighty-four. They are divided into six classes lettered A to F. The A class belong to the years 1904-06, displace 200 tons, are 100 ft. long, have a speed on the surface of 12 knots and submerged 9 knots. The F. class displace 1,000 tons, develop a speed of 20 knots on the surface and 12 knots submerged, have six torpedo tubes and two disappearing 3 in. guns as well as a complete wireless set. They are propelled on the surface by oil engines of 5,000 h.p. and when submerged by electric engines (since oil engines would poison the air) driven by storage batteries charged by the oil engines when running on surface.

Having briefly described the classes of ships which constitute the British Navy I shall endeavour to give some idea of the personnel management and evolution of a "fleet".

A fleet or squadron is composed of vessels of as nearly as possible the same speed, because the speed of the whole unit must be regulated by that of the slowest vessel, and it would not be a good arrangement to have in a squadron, Royal Sovereigns with a speed of $22\frac{1}{2}$ knots and Majestics with a speed of 17 knots. Let us assume that a command of sixteen ships is steaming at sea. If about to attack an enemy, they would probably be formed in "single line ahead", *i.e.*, a single file of ships separated from one another by a uniform distance of two "cables" or 1,200 feet. In addition there would be a screen of cruisers and torpedo boats thrown out on each side as far as possible for purposes of reconnaissance. The sixteen battleships in the line would consist of two divisions—a leading line of eight ships, under the Admiral No. 1 (flagship), and Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and a second line under the Admiral Second-in-Command, Nos. 9 (flagship) to 16. Each line would again be told off into subdivisions of four ships, each under a "Junior Flag Officer". Another common formation is the "Column of Divisions", where the sixteen ships mentioned above would steam in two parallel lines of eight ships each, six cables or 3,600 feet between the line, every ship taking its direction, speed, etc., from the senior flagship. In the arrangement known as "Line Abreast", the ships are in broadside formation. This would not be used in battle as it places all the ships end-on to an enemy, leaving them in a position to be raked fore and aft. The commonest arrangement for pursuing an enemy is the "Bow and Quarter Line", which is a diagonal array in which each following ship is two cables off to one side of, and has her bow even with the stern of the next ahead. This disposition allows all the ships to deliver their ahead and beam fire unobstructed and leaves them free to change direction very quickly if the enemy dodges. The speed of the fleet is set by knots and the Admiral-in-Command signals by flags the speed he wishes, every commander being expected to "keep station" with the utmost precision. Any ship which gets out of alignment or too far ahead or behind is at once the object of uncomplimentary attention from the flag-ship. What struck Mr. Frederic Palmer most forcibly on his visit to the

British Grand Fleet last fall was the almost uncanny power the navigating officers had for keeping their ships in their exact positions, no matter what the weather conditions. The aim of every Admiral in going into battle is to "play for a large target and trim for a small one"—that is, to place his ships so that they can concentrate the greatest degree of gun power on the foe while themselves presenting as small a mark as possible.

The disposition of the guns on the different classes of battleships was shown in the last article. It is fitting that a few words should be said here on a most important topic—that of fire control. It stands to reason that in a big armoured ship where all the gun positions are so entirely isolated, unless there is some thoroughly organised system of directing the firing there will be a great deal of desultory and ineffective shooting. Up to the time of the Russo-Japanese War, gunfire was directed by means of speaking tubes from a "conning tower"—which is a small armoured citadel wherein the captain and his staff fight the ship with a minimum of risk to their valuable lives. This method was then seen to be most unsatisfactory; and so the fire control station was established. On British ships this is an armoured platform mounted on a mast which has the form of a tripod of steel tubes, inside of which, the men mount to or descend from their fire control stations. A series of electric wires and a switch-board enable the men on the platform to communicate with the gun crews, and the guns in each barbette are directed from aloft by a man who watches where the projectiles from that barbette strike. From this platform also the searchlights are controlled.

We now come to that asset of naval efficiency, without which the most formidable fleet in the world is impotent; namely the personnel. Big guns win the battle only by virtue of the men behind them; the engine hurls the warship across the ocean only through the ceaseless labours of stokers and artificers. Without these men the fleet remains but an inanimate heap of cunningly wrought steel and iron, powerless for destruction or resistance. Some sort of infantryman can be trained in a year—a really efficient naval gun crew requires seven years to train and the average length of service of the men now "somewhere in the North Sea" is considerably greater. When we consider that the average length of service in the German navy is rather under three years, we have at least one reason for the unwillingness of our enemies to come out and fight. The total authorised numbers given in the Navy Estimates for 1914-15 are 150,000 officers and men on the Effective List, Royal Fleet Reserve 24,000, Royal Naval Reserve 20,000, Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve 4000—just under 200,000 officers and men.

There are eighteen classes of commissioned officers in the fleet. The highest officer is the Admiral-of-the-Fleet, who, in peace time, never goes afloat in active command. Below him in order is the Admiral, Vice-Admiral and Rear-Admiral. These are all "Flag-officers", so termed because they are entitled to fly their flags as squadron or fleet commanders, the first two carrying their flags at the mainmast head, the last two at the foremast head. Below these come Commodores, Captains, Commanders, Lieutenants, Sub-Lieutenants, Chief Gunners, Boatswains and Telegraphists, their several grades of gunners, Chief Master-at-Arms, Midshipmen and naval cadets. The petty officers and men are divided into sixty-nine "ratings" which include seamen, sail-makers, signallers, telegraphists, armourers, carpenters, blacksmiths, plumbers, painters, cooperers, engine-room artificers, electricians, stokers, cooks, stewards, naval schoolmasters, writers (*i.e.*, the auditing department) and boys. Finally there are the medical department and the Royal Marines. This outline is sufficient to show how complicated is our naval ménage and it must be borne in mind that every man on a battleship is a specialist who knows *exactly* what he has to do—and does it.

Boys enter the navy between the ages of 15 and 16 and receive at first 3s. 6d. per week; an able seaman draws 11s. 8d. per week; whilst a chief gunner or boatswain gets

from £182 to £219 per annum. In addition there are many extras such as good-conduct pay, gunnery and efficiency prizes, etc. A lieutenant draws from 10s. to 17s. a day according to service, a commander £1 2s., a captain about £1 13s., admirals from £3 a day up and the Admiral-of-the-Fleet £6 a day. All these officers receive messing and maintenance allowances in every case nearly equal to their pay. Thus it will be seen that a naval officer can live comfortably if not luxuriously on his salary. Messing and wine-bills are strictly limited by the Admiralty, rather to prevent over-indulgence than to protect less well-to-do officers against the expensive temptation of "keeping pace". The Admiralty also defray the expense of any entertaining which may be done in diplomatic interests of the state—"with their Lordships' approval".

This account will give a fleeting glimpse into the interior economy of the greatest defensive machine the world has ever known, a machine primarily defensive, but possessed of awful powers of offence. What it has done in this war we know in a general way, but only "when the war-drum beats no longer and the battle-flag is furled", shall we fully realise the part the Navy has played in the struggle. It is quite true that Trafalgar did not crush Napoleon and that Leipsic and Waterloo did, but it is equally true that Trafalgar kept Napoleon's flat-bottomed boats at Boulogne, kept England immune from invasion and enabled her and her allies to carry on the struggle that culminated at Waterloo. With a different Trafalgar, it is hard to imagine Waterloo and if it be true that "history repeats itself", we can await a new Waterloo with a good deal of equanimity.

NOTE.—The Naval Events to date will all be found in the "Diary of the War."

General Questions on the War

13. What nations are included in the Balkan States? How are they divided on the war question? Name the prominent men on each side that are taking part in this Balkan war.

14. Write a paragraph or two, about what happened at each of the following places: Namur, Antwerp, Liége, Mons, Langemarck, Ypres, Aisne, Warsaw, Lemberg, Salonica, Dardanelles, Louvain, Rheims, Belgrade, Vosges.

15. What German colonies has Britain obtained control of since the opening of the war? Tell where and what they are?

16. What work has each of the following done in prosecuting this war? Kitchener, Sir John French, Smith-Dorrien, Asquith, Earl Grey, Lloyd George, Jellicoe, Beatty, Joffre, Poincaré, General Botha, Sir Douglas Haig, Sir Ian Hamilton.

17. Name ten prominent men on the side of the enemy, either as statesmen or in directing the war from their side. Write a paragraph or two on each one.

18. Explain what is meant by each of the following terms: conscription, aviation camp, base hospital, sniper, parapet, war zone, strategy, artillery, machine gun, contra-band of war, submarine warfare, torpedo, torpedo tubes.

19. What has the British navy done in this war? Name and describe any naval battles that have been fought. What has the German navy done?

20. What do you understand by sanitary conditions? Contrast them with the conditions existing in former wars. What department of the army has charge of these conditions?

21. What department of the army has charge of the wounded? How are they cared for? What epidemic diseases are prevalent in the army? What preventive measures are commonly used?

The British Army

[From *The School* of February, 1916]

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“It is only by means of well-regulated standing army that a civilised country can be defended” Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations*.

Taken in its broadest sense the British Army can be divided into what are commonly known as the three arms, Infantry, Cavalry, and Artillery. But in addition to these there are many corps and departments essential to the smooth and efficient working of the whole machine;

DISTINCTIVE RANKS OF OFFICERS IN THE ARMY						
Field Marshal	General	Lieut. General	Major General	Brigadier General		
Colonel	Lieut. Colonel	Major	Captain	Lieutenant		

In lower right-hand corner are the badges worn by non-commissioned officers.

1, Company Sergeant-Major (highest). 2, Sergeant. 3, Corporal.

4, Lance-Corporal (lowest).

for example, The Royal Engineers, The Army Service Corps, Army Ordnance Corps, Royal Army Medical Corps, Royal Flying Corps, etc.

The King is head of the army; the chief constitutional adviser of the Crown is the Secretary of State for War who is responsible to parlia-

ment for the efficiency of the military forces of the Realm. To assist in the work of Administration there was established in 1907 (in the reign of Edward VII) the Army Council to consist of seven members:

Sec'y of State for War,	now Earl Kitchener
Chief of Imperial Gen. Staff,	" Sir Wm. Robertson
Adjutant General	" Lieut. Gen. Sir H. C. Sclater
Quartermaster,	" Maj. Gen. Sir J. S. Cowans
Master Gen. of Ordnance,	" Maj. Gen. Sir S. B. von Donop
Parliamentary Under-Sec'y of State	" Rt. Hon. H. J. Tennant, M.P.
Financial Sec't,	" H. T. Baker, M.P.

In addition to these, some extraordinary offices have been created since, the beginning of this war, chief of which is the Ministry of Munitions held by the Rt. Hon. David Lloyd George. It must be borne in mind that the function of the war-office is purely administrative and that the Secretary of State for War exercises very little control over the actual operations of the Expeditionary Force.

Passing from the war-office to the army itself we shall first consider that humble individual who constitutes nine-tenths of the British Army—the British Infantryman:

"For it's Tommy this and Tommy that, and Tommy get away,

But it's 'Thank you, Mr. Atkins', when the guns begin to play."

The unit of British infantry is the Battalion which ordinarily consists on a war footing of about 1,000 men although all establishments are more or less elastic. It is commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel assisted by a Senior Major (other Majors are Company Commanders) and by an Adjutant who is the mouthpiece of the Colonel, and who drafts and issues all orders. The Adjutancy, by the way, is an "Appointment" not a rank and is generally held by a captain. A battalion is divided into four companies each consisting of 230 to 250 men of all ranks. This is a Captain's or Major's command and it is again divided into four platoons each commanded by a lieutenant with a "platoon sergeant" as second in command. Platoons are sub-divided into sections each under a sergeant or other non-commissioned officer. To assist the company commander is a second in command, a Captain, and a non-commissioned officer called the Company Sergeant Major. Four battalions may, for manoeuvre or administrative purposes, be linked into a Brigade commanded by a Brigadier General. The word Regiment as applied to Infantry is generally misunderstood. It is a very comprehensive term which may embrace one battalion or forty. Thus the Gordon Highlanders or the Black Watch are famous regiments which are used as a basis for recruiting fresh battalions for overseas service. It is readily seen what *esprit de corps* can be created even in raw levies who are members of a regiment with a glorious history reaching back hundreds

of years, a spirit which would be entirely lacking if they were merely members of the *n*th battalion.

The service uniform of the Infantryman is too familiar to need description here. The arm at the present day is the short Lee Enfield rifle which has a length of 3 ft. 8½ ins. These rifles are sighted for every 25 yards from 200 to 2800, the extreme distance to which they will carry being 3500 yards or 2 miles. Each Soldier on Service carries 120 rounds of ammunition in a bandolier and waist-belt while 430 rounds per man are carried in the Ammunition Columns. Picks and shovels for entrenching purposes are also carried in the rear while each man carries an entrenching tool as part of his equipment. Two machine guns are attached to each battalion, these being worked by a detachment consisting of one lieutenant and 17 non-commissioned officers and men. This weapon is the smallest member of the gun family and is chambered for the .303 cartridge identical with that used in the Government rifle. It has a nominal rate of fire of 450 rounds per minute and is very useful for supplying a deficiency in infantry fire or for bringing a large amount of fire to bear over a predetermined and limited field.

Of Cavalry, little need be said in this article because, owing to the nature of this war, it has been but little used since the memorable retreat, when, under the leadership of Sir Douglas Haig, it contributed not a little to the defeat of the German drive on Paris. The British Cavalry consists of 31 regiments with a total strength at the outbreak of the war of 21,098 men of all ranks on home and foreign service. Of the rôle of cavalry in the field it was argued after the South African War that the days of "shock-action" are over, that never again shall we witness cavalry charges, that the lance and the sword are obsolete as weapons, that in the future the cavalry soldier will be trained first and foremost to fight on foot with a rifle, using his horse solely as a means of locomotion. Certainly "Mounted Infantry" proved of immense value in South Africa but all Cavalry Officers of experience and most Infantry Officers maintain that the duties of reconnoitring and reconnaissance ahead of the Main Army will always devolve on the Cavalry.

There is perhaps no branch of the Army so popular as the "gunners". The "Royal Regiment of Artillery" was organised in 1716 by Royal Warrant of George I and since then they have worthily upheld their two famous mottoes "*Ubique*", everywhere, and "*Quo Fas et Gloria Ducunt*", where duty and glory lead. For Administrative purposes the artillery is divided into two corps (1) Horse and Field, and (2) Mountain and Garrison. The Royal Horse Artillery or R.H.A. was founded in 1793, England being the first country to adopt Horse Artillery pure and simple that is, gunners on horseback who ride with their guns and serve them. The R.H.A. is divided into 25 batteries each numbering

about 200 men of all ranks, 230 horses and 6 guns. Each battery is commanded by a Major assisted by a Captain and is subdivided into 3 sections each under a lieutenant. Each section is complete in itself and can be detached for service instantly. Each gun require 11 men for service. Two batteries with an ammunition column constitute a Brigade and numbers 680 men, 780 horses, 12 guns and limbers and 70 wagons or motor trucks. The arm of the R.H.A. is the new 13-pounder quick-firing gun which has a calibre of 3 inches and an effective range of 6300 yards. This gun consists of an inner or "A" tube wound with steel wire over which a steel jacket is fitted. The gun is provided with a hydraulic buffer to limit the recoil and running-out springs by which the gun, after recoil, is returned to the firing position. The organisation of the Royal Field Artillery is much similar to that of the R.H.A. but they use a heavier gun and are not so mobile. Their weapon is the 18-pr. Q.F. gun, calibre 3.3 ins., which fires a high explosive and also a shrapnel shell weighing $18\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. and containing 364 bullets. Besides these guns there are in use Howitzers with calibres from 4.7 inches up, throwing projectiles of 50 lbs. or more. The howitzer has a short barrel which can be elevated to an angle of 45° or more. By means of this high angle or indirect fire, shells can be dropped on an enemy under cover. Howitzers are also used for carrying on demolitions at a distance and by their use fire can be maintained over the heads of their own infantry in attack, preventing the enemy from bringing up reserves. The service high-explosive is Lyddite, which, however, is a poor man-killer if the shell bursts on the ground owing to its extremely local effect, but is very effective in demolition work.

Having briefly examined the composition of the three great arms of the Service, we must say a word about a few other branches which do not come within these three classes. First in point of numbers and in order of precedence come the Royal Engineers. The duties of the "Sappers", as the Engineers are called, are the most varied and manifold in the British Army and on this point I cannot do better than quote the list laid down in the official Army Book:

In War—All engineering operations connected with an army in the field; roads, bridges, making and working railways, field telegraphs and telephones, preparation of camping grounds, water supply, field works, attack and defence of fortresses and positions, demolitions, surveying.

In Peace—Charge of all lands and buildings belonging to the War Department, construction and maintenance of all Department works, roads, railways, fortifications, surveys, military telegraphs, submarine mines, preparation and custody of all plans connected with the above.

The Royal Flying Corps was designated in 1913 with two wings, Naval and Military. It has rendered splendid service at home and with Expeditionary Force in reconnaissance and offensive work and its members are skilled in the operations of all types of military aeroplanes and air-ships.

The Army Service Corps consisting of Horse and Mechanical transport, Supply companies, Supply columns and parks and Remount companies is perhaps the hardest worked branch in the whole army when on active service. It is a saying as old as the hills and as true as it is old, that "an army marches on its stomach" and great is the wrath of a general if the mobility of his division is hampered by a failure of the Supply Officer to keep his stores up with the fighting men,

At the present time the largest recognised military unit is a Division, the composition of which on a war establishment is approximately as follows:

At the head would be a Lieut.-General who would be assisted by a staff of officers. The division would consist of three infantry brigades each under a Brigadier-General, a proportion of Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, Army Service Corps, etc., the whole division having a total strength of just over 18,000 of all ranks with about 5600 horses.

General Questions on the War

22. What geographical conditions make it necessary for Britain to have the strongest fleet?
23. Explain why Britain considered it important to send an expedition to the Tigris valley when men were so urgently needed in other spheres of action.
24. Trace the fortunes of this expedition up to the present time. (Watch future developments there.)
25. State what part each of the following has played in the great war: Lord Derby, Lloyd George, General Von Hindenberg, Sir Ian Hamilton, Sir David Beatty, General Pau.
26. Explain why the resistance of the Belgians at Liège was of such great importance.
27. After organising the campaign on the boundary between Germany and Russia and conducting it for about a year, the Grand Duke Nicholas was transferred to the Caucasus region. Show that results have justified his presence in this region and trace the relation between this campaign and the British expedition on the Tigris. (Watch the developments.)
28. Trace the history of Turkish atrocities in the Armenian region and thus show why the Turkish defeat here is doubly welcome.
29. Name what you consider the most important battle of the Great War up to the present, and state why you consider it to be so important.
30. Why is the retention of Egypt during the war of such great importance to the Allies?

The Colonies and the War

[From *The School* of March, 1915]

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THE British Empire is of slow growth. Like everything British, it has had a gradual evolution, the stimulating force being practical experience. Every new institution has been tried and tested before it was adopted, and old institutions were only modified after being tried in the searching crucible of experience. Unlike the German Empire it is not the product of the mind of one man, nor based on one man's theory of what a great empire should be. It is built on no theory, for the Englishman detests theory, but honours experience. As a result, to the metaphysical theorist at least, it is an inchoate conglomeration of unscientific blunderings. Such was undoubtedly the view of official Germany. One of the factors which stimulated the Kaiser to plunge into a reckless war was the firm belief that the decrepit old Empire would disintegrate when the first stroke of adversity fell on the Motherland.

To the man whose god is the material things and whose ideal of strength is theoretical symmetry, there was room for such a belief. Ireland appeared to be on the verge of civil war; the whole country was divided into two warlike camps; the British Army in Ireland had shown a mutinous spirit, and Sir John French had resigned his office. India had been stirred to its depths by a ghastly series of dacoities, seditions, and bloody assassinations. Egypt was in none too quiescent mood. The Nationalists, stirred up by paid agents from Turkey, had for years preached open sedition against the British rulers, and more than one political murder had been committed during the last decade. In South Africa, General Herzog, ever since he had broken with General Botha, had fired the back velder with racial animosity and tried to open up the sores that the generous treatment of the mother country and the magnificent statesmanship of that giant among colonials, Botha, had done so much to heal. To the Germans, even Canada seemed none too eager to assume her responsibilities for the defence of the Empire. She presented a series of hesitations to assume adequate naval expenditure, and finally a political squabble followed by a deadlock which ended in doing nothing. Australia and New Zealand alone, isolated from the rest of the Empire, seemed eager to do their parts.

Such, apparently, was the political state of affairs when the war came like a bolt from the blue. All was immediately changed. Never before has the British Empire revealed its essential unity and grandeur more magnificently. The whole became a brotherhood filled with one desire, pulsating with one fixed purpose to defend the glorious Empire

with their resources to the last dollar, and their blood to the ultimate man. The war showed Germany, showed the world—yes, even showed the Empire itself, for they hardly realised it previously—that this ramshackle, disjointed, nondescript Empire has a bond of unity more yirile than any material symmetry or theoretic logic, the bond of a unity of spirit and sentiment. Ireland flew to arms, Nationalist and Unionist vieing with each other in their eagerness to enlist. The fervour, enthusiasm and devotion of India was sublime. Princes, with the royal blood of a thousand years coursing through their veins, laid their all at the feet of the King-Emperor to defend his realm, and volunteered their services in any capacity to serve him at the front. Mr. Tilak, the most able and inveterate of all the Indian agitators against British rule, who had just come from 'a six years' imprisonment for preaching sedition, offered his services to stimulate the people to defend the flag. India was at once emptied of her soldiers without the slightest fear that mutiny would arise. When Turkey joined the enemy, though Mohammedans look up to the Sultan as their spiritual head, the Indian Moslems to a man, denounced the action of Turkey and scorned the appeal for a holy war against the Christians. The same is the story of Egypt and the Sudan. The Sudan is the home of the most fanatical of Moslem enthusiasts, who under the Khalifa fought a successful war for the prophet till Kitchener crushed them at Omdurman. Yet when Turkey proclaimed a holy war, the golden thread of unity in the British Empire had penetrated far up the Nile and the leaders of the fanatical dervishes came one and all to the Sudan to pledge their allegiance and offer their services to the Emperor-King; the very first to lead being the eldest son of the Khalifa, who had been only a few years ago hunted to death by the British army.

What shall we say of South Africa? Is it the great exception? Without hesitation we can say that South Africa is the noblest example of that wooing by the British Empire which compels the love of the unwilling suitor. A few years ago Boer and Briton were locked in the deadly grasp of a bloody and ruthless war. The Boer was conquered and felt fully the bitterness of the vanquished. He was no Oriental, but of European stock and aspirations. Yet almost at once Britain gave him free institutions. He prospered and in ten years became a friend of the Empire. It is true there was a rebellion, stirred up among the far back velder by a few traitors well paid with German gold. This rebellion was put down by Boers. One has only to scan the casualty lists to be assured of that. Their fidelity to the Empire was so unselfish that it impelled them to raise the sword against their brothers and friends, to point the gun at the men who only a few short years ago had fought by their sides in the unequal contest against the common enemy. Surely that was the supreme test of patriotism and the Boers never faltered during the

bitter ordeal. General Botha stands to-day as the noblest patriot of the British Empire.

Canada, of course, showed a fine spirit from the first; party politics disappeared, parliaments and provincial legislatures vied with each other in offering gifts, and private individuals gave their contributions with a generous hand. The rush of recruits became a stampede, and the quality both intellectually and physically was not to be surpassed among the picked armies of Europe. Australia and New Zealand, impelled by the same deep feelings as Canada, poured out their offerings in money and men with true patriotism. The same feeling that actuated the larger colonies stirred the smaller ones scattered over all the continents and in every ocean. None was too remote, too isolated to feel the spell of the British kingship. As we read the simple letters accompanying contributions, coming from the red Indians of the far North West, from the deserts of Central Africa, and from isolated islands of the Pacific, nobody knows where—we realize to the full that our Empire is a thing of flesh and blood and not of mere dead materialism.

We said that the British Empire was not understood by the Germans; its irregularities, its lack of due proportions, disgust their fine sense of logical completeness and efficiency. All have observed the pyramidal evergreen tree on the well-kept lawn. Its axis is vertical, the branches spring out from the stem with the regularity of the spokes of a wheel, every branch is trimmed to the line, the bounding surface is geometrically perfect. Again, all know the gnarled old oak rearing his ancient head above the lesser things around, his trunk is rough and crooked but stout, his every branch has answered to its environment and taken its natural course where the air and light commanded, for the members have sprung from the stem wherever conditions to form them in perfect vigour appeared. The vulgar monstrosity of the lawn is the German ideal. Its very symmetry is its weakness, and the unnatural and cramped warping necessary to its symmetry contain the germs of its early decrepitude. The grand old oak of a thousand years well represents the British Empire, where every member is free to develop to perfection in his local environment. Each branch spreads out where God's sunshine and air are most invigorating; but all are firmly fixed in the parent stem, and the same vital sap courses its way to the extremest tip of the most distant twig. The truly æsthetic eye perceives a deep beauty, a perfect symmetry, a noble sublimity in the oak that is completely absent from the deformed evergreen.

If the Allies are successful in taking Constantinople, what are the arguments in favour of making an international waterway of the passage between the Mediterranean and the Black seas?

The Colonies and the War: Canada

[From *The School* of April, 1915]

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IN order to understand the part played by the self-governing colonies in the present war, it will be necessary to state briefly what preparation of a naval and military nature these had previously made. Up to 1909 none of the colonies had begun to build up a navy, but contributions had been made since 1887 by the Australian colonies and New Zealand. Cape Colony began contributing in 1897, as did Natal. At the Imperial Conference of 1902, all of these colonies increased their contributions, while Newfoundland came into the circle with a small contribution also. Canada has assumed charge of the fortifications at Esquimalt and Halifax, but never made any contribution. At the Defence Conference in 1909 a plan was drawn up by which three naval units were to be constructed for the defence of the Pacific. Each unit was to consist of one battle-cruiser or dreadnought; three light cruisers, six destroyers and three submarines. Canada was to supply one unit, Australia one, and England and New Zealand a third. Australia undertook her unit with zeal, and it was complete and ready for action when the war began. New Zealand also constructed her part of the unit, namely, the battle-cruiser *New Zealand*, which has played her part in the North Sea fights. Canada did not see her way clear to undertake a unit of so great a size, and asked the Admiralty for a plan of a smaller unit, consisting of light cruisers. This was given, and Canada purchased from the Imperial government two such ships, the *Niobe* and *Rainbow*, which are being used in the present war. The other elements of the Canadian unit have never been constructed.

The beginning of hostilities found Canada badly prepared. She had never taken military or naval matters very seriously. There were only two possible enemies, Japan and the United States; the former was our ally and the latter was never considered as a probable antagonist. Generation after generation grew up who knew little of war, and as a result military training has been considered as a sort of harmless pastime to be tolerated as long as it was kept within bounds, and as long as the expense of it was held strictly within narrow limits. Within the last few years, it is true, the present Minister of Militia, Major-General Hughes, focussed attention on the militia, and has done much to develop an interest in it, and to improve its efficiency, but he was considered a

dangerous man, as he went about the country endeavouring to fan to a flame the embers of military enthusiasm which were liable to die out.

When the bolt came, it found the Canadian militia in a better condition than it had been in many years. Nevertheless, equipment of all kinds was almost entirely lacking. But if it was weak in material equipment it was strong in those spiritual qualities of patriotism, courage, enthusiasm and unselfishness, that are as valuable in a long war as are ammunition and guns.

When Germany declared war on Russia on August the first, the Governor General took special train to Ottawa, and the Dominion Cabinet began to prepare for the mobilisation of the Canadian forces, and the defence of the more vulnerable points on the sea coast as well as to guard public buildings and railways. Within a few hours, fifteen militia regiments volunteered for active service, and by the time England had declared war on Germany, three days later, over one hundred thousand had already volunteered. Canada at once undertook the garrisoning of Bermuda in order to release the British regulars.

The public feeling expressed itself in a series of generous gifts from individuals, and from the Dominion and provincial governments. It was expected that there would soon be much suffering and poverty in Britain, so the public gifts were largely of provisions to be used both for the troops in the field and for the poor at home. The Dominion government gave 1,000,000 bags of Canadian flour, and Alberta on the same day offered 500,000 bushels of oats; on August 24th, Quebec offered 4,000,000 lbs. of the cheese for which that province is noted, and little Prince Edward Island gave 100,000 bushels of oats on the next day; Ontario and Manitoba gave respectively 250,000 and 50,000 bags of flour, while Saskatchewan gave 1500 magnificent horses; New Brunswick gave 100,000 bushels of potatoes and British Columbia contributed very appropriately 25,000 cases of salmon; Nova Scotia gave \$100,000 in cash for the relief of distress. The contributions of local bodies of various kinds have been very numerous, but cannot be stated here.

Within three hours of the declaration of war, orders were issued by the Militia Department for the enlistment of an expeditionary force for service at the front. At once all over Canada the crowds swarmed about the enrolment offices, and only the most perfect physical types were accepted. The troops from the different parts collected at Valcartier, outside Quebec, and soon a monster camp was formed at this point which had been purchased for military purposes some time before. The original 22,000 soon grew to over 30,000. By the end of September this large mass of men was completely equipped in every detail and was ready to sail for England. About sixty per cent. of this first contingent were born in the British Isles, the other forty per cent. were born in Canada. One regiment deserves special mention as Canada has taken a peculiar

interest in it. This is the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry regiment, or as it is known to everybody, the "Princess Pat's". Major Gault, a wealthy merchant of Montreal, undertook the expense of raising, equipping and maintaining this special regiment. The men selected for it were all veterans, who had served already at the front, and so it was ready for service long before the rest.

Toward the end of September over 30,000 men marched to Quebec and aboard about forty transports waiting for them. They sailed down the St. Lawrence, where warships were waiting to convey them across the Atlantic. They sailed across the Atlantic three abreast, with battleships and cruisers on the flanks ready for any attack. The trip took nineteen days, as it was regulated by the speed of the slowest. There were great expectations in England, and the whole country was preparing to receive them at Southampton. On October 15th, the people of Plymouth were surprised to see transport after transport enter the harbour and when the rumour went around that they were the Canadians, the people determined to give them a right royal, though impromptu, reception. As they landed and passed through the streets to take the train for Salisbury Plains, they were "snowed under" with good things, as one private expressed it. Workgirls pressed apples and bananas on them, clerks shared their cigarettes with the men, ladies stood at vantage points with pots of coffee and piles of sandwiches, offering them to the men as they passed by.

Salisbury Plain is a large lowland in Southern England, and has long been used for military purposes, and it was to this camp that the Canadians were sent to take their preliminary training before they crossed the channel to go on the fighting line. Major-General E. A. H. Alderson, C.B., was appointed Commander of this first Canadian Expeditionary force. He is an officer of high standing, who has already seen service in South Africa, and there had opportunity of recognising the good fighting qualities of the Canadians. The training in this camp has been very arduous and has tested the quality of the men. Unfortunately there has been excessive rainfall in England, and as a result the low-lying plain has been a quagmire during the winter, but the troops have made the best of their hardships and have evidently got in proper shape for work at the front. The first troops to cross to France were the "Princess Pat's", and by the first of February they were in the trenches, and have already distinguished themselves. They form part of the 27th Division, which is composed largely of British battalions drafted from India. In his latest despatch, Sir John French mentions them by name and reports on them as follows. "They are a magnificent set of men, and have since done excellent work in the trenches". Quite recently the largest part of the troops who were at Salisbury Plain have crossed to France and have probably by now participated in the fight.

Canada and the War

[From *The School of May*, 1916]

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"No Canadian can ever look forth unmoved upon that valley where Ypres lies shattered in the distance, and the sweep of the hills overlooks the graves of more than 100,000 men who fell because a remorseless militarist autocracy decreed this war."

SIR R. L. BORDEN.

The New National Uplift

A new spirit has been infused into Canadian life. The buoyancy of an unashamed vigorous nationhood pervades the Dominion. Bowed, as she is, with grief over the loss of her heroic sons; consumed, as she is with anxiety for the well-being of the many others who are overseas discharging their dangerous duties; yet, uplifted with justifiable pride at the record of her sacrifices during these twenty-one months of the war, Canada faces the future with confidence.

Why Canada Entered the European War

When Janus flung wide his temple doors and the Furies of war were unexpectedly let loose upon the world, the nations not immediately imperilled took to cover. To her everlasting credit unhesitatingly and wholeheartedly Canada followed the lead of Britain which could not remain neutral without the loss of national honour. Sympathy with Belgium and France, loyalty to the British Empire and its ideals, amazement at Germany's disregard of treaty obligations, and the instinct of self-preservation led the Canadian government and people to offer the Motherland support to the limit of the last man and the last dollar. Before the German plot was disclosed with its cunning system of espionage and its barbarous policy of frightfulness, Canada believed the cause of the Allies to be just. A sifting of the evidences of Germany's guilt contained in published documents and in the translation of German work, and the corroborative proof given by Germany's savage conduct of the war, have more than justified that belief. The inexcusable crimes of the central powers committed with brutal ruthlessness on sea and land, their insane repudiation of human obligations when interfering with the advancement of their dishonourable designs, have revealed a foe whose arrogant and relentless ambitions, for humanity's sake, must be curbed at all costs. The sacred cause of liberty was threatened by a powerful people schooled by pastors and professors, by army officers and political leaders to enforce the mischievous doctrine of world-power even though forfeiting the world's esteem. Because of this menace Canada is at war.

What Canada has Contributed in Men

War was declared on August 4th, 1914. Within two months, out of many volunteers from all parts of the Dominion, 33,000 carefully selected men had been assembled at Valcartier, organised, equipped, drilled, and sent to Quebec where they were embarked on troopships for service overseas. Under a convoy of British warships the first contingent sailed secretly from Gaspé Bay on October 3rd and as secretly anchored in Plymouth Sound on the morning of October 15th. In due time a second and a third contingent followed. Preserving the same policy of silence as to time of sailing, the militia department has repeatedly dispatched overseas her best drilled and equipped battalions. At present, it is estimated that upwards of 290,000 men have enlisted for service in Canada's Expeditionary Force. Of these 22,000 have become non-effectives through casualties, sickness, etc., 62,000 men are at the front, 44,000 men are completing their training at the various military camps in England, and 149,000 men are in training camps, and on garrison duty, in different parts of Canada.

What Canada has Contributed in Money

Upon the equipment, transportation and maintenance of her troops, Canada had spent 152 million dollars from the commencement of the war at the end of the last calendar year. The war estimates for the following twelve months based upon an enlistment of 250,000 troops was placed at 235 million dollars. As the authorised enlistment has been placed since then at 500,000 men, increased war credits will be required.

In a recent address, the Prime Minister, speaking of the bountiful generosity of the people, stated that already over \$22,000,000 had been contributed for patriotic, Red Cross, and relief purposes.

The women are working as women have never worked before to provide comforts for all who enlist. Hundreds of nurses and doctors have enlisted with the troops, while scores of hospitals and convalescent homes have been established for our sick and wounded in England, France, Egypt, Greece and Canada.

Actions in which Canadian Troops were Engaged

The men of the First Contingent spent four dismal winter months in training on the muddy ground of Salisbury Plain. By the middle of February, 1915, they had arrived in the west of France whence they were transferred by train to the low-lying trenches in Flanders somewhere in the thirty-mile front then held by the British army between Ypres and Givenchy. The story of the endurance and

heroism of these troops has been well told in volumes* which should be made accessible to every schoolboy and schoolgirl. Only a brief outline of their career may be given here.

St. Eloi The valorous deeds of the Princess Patricias who were the first Canadian troops to receive their baptism of fire in the battle of St. Eloi "were the pride of the whole Empire". Unfortunately the regiment lost its brave Commanding Officer, Colonel Farquhar.

Langemarck and St. Julien The battle of St. Eloi took place in the middle of March, 1915. In the second battle of Ypres at Langemarck and at St. Julien the Canadian troops won imperishable fame. The Germans were attempting a drive on Calais by the Ypres salient. By the use of asphyxiating bombs and poisonous gases a gap was made in the defence and the enemy almost got through. The official report of Sir John French briefly describes the conduct of the Canadians. "In spite of the danger to which they were exposed the Canadians held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage, and it is not too much to say that the bearing and conduct of these splendid troops averted a disaster which might have been attended with most serious consequences". Thus early did the troops of the Dominion justify the confidence reposed in them in one of the most terrible battles of the war.

Festubert and Givenchy At the battles of Festubert in May, and of Givenchy in June the same indomitable spirit won the commendation of their commanding officers and the esteem of their British and French comrades in arms. For almost ten months while the Allies have been mobilising munitions and men for a final drive, the troops have been employed in the trying though less eventful work of holding the trenches against the assaults of the foe.

What of the Future? This sacrifice of life and treasure must not be in vain. Greater sacrifices, if need be, will be dutifully made by all true Canadians to secure the end in view. The monster of Prussian militarism must be completely destroyed. Restitution must be made to those nations which have been so cruelly wronged. Under the guidance of Providence a just and lasting peace must be arranged among the nations of the world.

"Then the common sense of most shall hold a fretful realm in awe,
And the kindly earth shall slumber, lapt in universal law."

*Canada in Flanders by Sir Max Aitken, 25 cents.

Nelson's History of the War by John Buchan, Vol. VII, 25 cents.

The Times History of the War, Parts 20, 54, 58, 15 cents each.

India and the War

[From *The School of March*, 1916]

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“Is there aught you need that my hands withhold,
Rich gifts of raiment or grain or gold?
Lo! I have flung to the East and West
Priceless treasures torn from my breast,
And yielded the sons of my stricken womb
To the drum-beats of duty, the sabres of doom.”

All this India has done for the Empire in its hour of need. An emphatic answer has been given to those who believed that sedition and disloyalty were characteristic of the Indian peoples. No portion of the Empire has proven itself more devoted. India has shown the world in a manner that admits of no contradiction, that to her mind British rule is best. Further, she has shown her readiness and capacity to bear her share of the responsibilities of the Empire. Her attitude is not that of a conquered people, held in subjection, but rather that of a free member of the Empire discharging her Imperial duties gladly and willingly. Here, as in South Africa, British justice has forged a link in the chain of Empire which the strain of the greatest war in history has been unable to break.

Scarcely had war been declared when the rulers of India began to pour in offers of the entire resources of their States and of their personal services to the Government. The Nizam of Hyderabad offered \$2,000,000. In addition, he defrayed the expenses of his own personal regiment, the Imperial Service Lancers, and those of the Twentieth Deccan Horse. The Maharajah of Mysore offered \$1,650,000 for military purposes. The Maharajah of Gwalior gave large amounts of money to provide remounts, and fitted out a Motor Ambulance Corps at his own expense. These are typical of the offers made by the rulers of Indian states to the Government. The seven hundred rulers of India were loyal to Britain to a man.

The people of India were just as eager to help. At a meeting of the Viceroy's Legislative Council, Sir G. Chitnairs aroused great enthusiasm by his motion offering the united support of the Indian peoples to the Empire. The motion was seconded by one of the chief Mohammedan leaders, the Rajah of Mahmudabad, and passed the Council without a single dissenting voice. The people's representatives were for Britain.

Even those leaders of malcontents in India, who had previously done all in their power to arouse the people against British rule, were converted into loyal British subjects by the danger threatening the Empire. No more striking instance of this can be given than the case of Tilak. This man had been imprisoned twice for sedition, and had been released from a four-years' term just prior to the outbreak of war. Tilak's first act was to deliver a speech in Poona, calling upon the people to give the Government their whole-hearted support, and declaring vehemently that the presence of British rulers in India was desirable from the viewpoint of Indian self-interest.

This strong pro-British spirit was not confined to the States of British India. From all the border states came offers of help. The Prime Minister of Nepal offered the military resources of his State. The Dalai Lama of Tibet offered a contingent of 1,000 men, and ordered special prayers to be offered for the success of the British arms. The chiefs of Beluchistan made valuable offers of camels. The Maharajah of Bhutan offered the financial and military resources of his state. Striking proofs of friendship to Britain were received from the Ameer of Afghanistan.

So convincing were the proofs of loyalty given by the people of British India and the adjoining states, that it was possible for the Viceroy to withdraw many of the soldiers doing garrison duty throughout the country. 70,000 troops were sent from India to France in September, 1914, and arrived in time to give needed assistance in stopping the German rush to Calais. Since then, great numbers of troops have been drawn from India. To-day, at least 250,000 Indian soldiers are fighting for the Empire, in France, in Mesopotamia, at the Suez, in China, in East Africa.

In many other ways India has been most active in helping carry on the war. Three hospital ships, equipped and maintained from private sources, were put in commission in 1915. One of these was wrecked on its way to the Persian Gulf, the other two have been steadily employed in carrying sick and wounded between India and the various theatres of war. Large sums have been given for the purchase of aeroplanes, machine-guns, motor-ambulances, and other equipment.

These magnificent services rendered by India to the Empire will surely win for her a higher place in it than she has yet held. Will not India demand as a right that full measure of self-government which so far has been denied her? Will it be possible for Canada or Australia to bar the doors to the Indian people as we have done in the past? Must we not realise that the sons of India who have fought for the Empire are our blood-brothers and are entitled to corresponding treatment?

The Overseas Dominions and the War—Australia and New Zealand

[From *The School of March*, 1916]

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Australia and New Zealand

Australia and New Zealand from the beginning played their part in the war with vigour and wholeheartedness. Their enthusiasm rivalled those of the Mother Country, and their direct and practical methods gave promise of valuable developments in the governance of Empire. It must be said of the Dominions generally, that their military strength was unorganised, although potentially it was fully half that of the Mother Country.

No such risks had been run with the preparations on sea. The Australian Navy, purposely kept at greater strength than that of Germany in the Pacific, was ready to take its station in the Admiralty's prearranged plans. The ships were maintained at an efficiency bordering on complete mobilisation, and their part in the event of war had been mapped out in detail.

In the South Pacific

Australia is rightly proud of the fact that she alone of His Majesty's dominions, has been able to place at the disposal of the Admiralty an efficient, self-contained, adequately trained and organised naval force, which has fulfilled all the previously formed expectations that it would prove itself able to render valuable service on behalf of the Empire in the time of war.

Not until November did the main expeditionary force—carried by a flotilla of about forty transports under the protection of British, Australian and Japanese warships—proceed towards the chief theatre of war. While crossing the Indian Ocean, the cruiser Sydney was detached to fight and destroy the Emden.

The Emden, commanded by Captain Karl von Müller cruised the Indian Ocean and South Pacific for three months destroying twenty-five merchant vessels worth \$25,000,000 without their cargoes, firing the oil tanks at Madras, sinking four British steamers in Rangoon harbour, and stealing into the harbour of Penang, disguised by the addition of a false fourth smokestack, to sink the Russian cruiser Jemtchung and the French torpedo boat Mousquet. Again and again powerful war-

ships were on the Emden's trail, but each time she escaped. One day Captain Müller decided to destroy the wireless station at Cocos Islands southwest of Java. There the Emden was discovered by the Australian cruiser Sydney and driven ashore in flames on November 9th, 1914, after a sharp battle.

It was not surprising that this incident which ended the romantic and destructive career of the Emden, should have attracted world-wide attention. As an historic event in Imperial development the incident cannot be overrated. An Australian ship, paid for by Australia and manned largely by Australians, has received its baptism of fire, and emerged from the ordeal by performing a truly Imperial service.

The presence in the South Pacific Ocean of the battle cruiser Australia has been responsible for the comparative immunity of British merchant vessels and the whole of the British possessions in those waters. The knowledge that the Australia was in the Pacific forced the Scharnhorst and Gneisenau to keep at a discreet distance.

If the Australian vessels have been indispensable in protecting trade routes and safeguarding the dominions of the Crown from menace, they have been equally active in removing every vestige of the German Colonial Empire in the Pacific. The first German possession to be occupied was Apia, the chief town of the Samoan Islands (where R. L. Stevenson lived and died). The New Zealand Expeditionary Force convoyed by the Australia and the Melbourne, before August was out, had hoisted the British flag here, and in New Britain, Nauru, the Carolines and Marshall Islands. This force is now acting as garrison.

So efficiently were the trade routes protected that the German Navy was unable to interfere with a single British ship in the South Pacific. Our commerce proceeded as in times of peace, except for the variations in routes; and the strong German squadron could do no more damage than a "thorough" but easily remedied disturbance of the Pacific Cable Board's station on Fanning Island. When this scourge was removed H.M.A.S. Australia took her place among her sister ships in Admiral Beatty's battle-cruiser fleet, leading the second squadron, and the light cruisers, torpedo craft and submarines filled their respective roles.

In Egypt

Meanwhile the main expeditionary force was being assembled and trained. It was ready to sail in September, but owing to the continued elusiveness of von Spee's squadron in the Pacific there were many delays, and it was not until November that the New Zealanders and Australians foregathered at Albany, W.A., and proceeded towards the main theatre of war. By the time the force reached the Red Sea a new problem had arisen by the entry of Turkey into the war. The Australasians were consequently

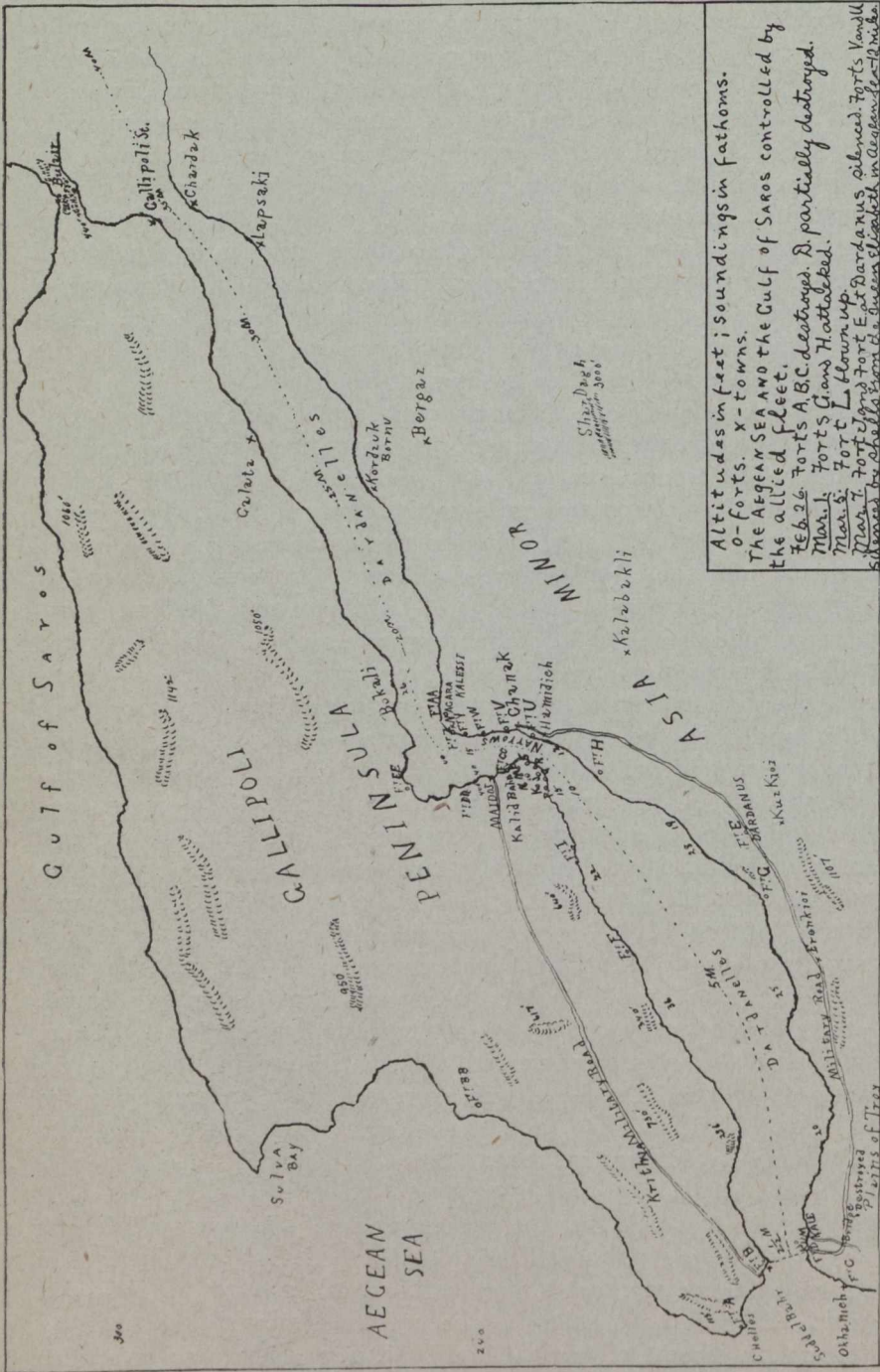
disembarked in Egypt as a precaution against a Turkish invasion and a possible rising of the Egyptian population. Throughout the winter they trained hard and faithfully in their desert camps near Cairo.

In the incursion of the first week of February the Turks were easily repulsed. The Suez Canal is not only the equivalent of a broad and deep river, but it is navigable for warships, and its banks provide superb opportunities for defence. It has a width of over 200 feet, and the banks in most places rise at an angle of thirty degrees to a height of 40 feet. On its western shore a lateral railway runs the whole way from Port Said to Suez, connecting at Ismailia with the line to Cairo. Most of the ground to the east is flat, and offers a good field of fire to the defenders on the west bank, or to ships in the channel.

The Turks officially described the main attack as a reconnaissance, and we may accept the description, for it cannot be regarded as a serious invasion. The troops seem to have numbered about 12,000, and to have advanced by the central route up the Wady el Arish. Four hours' journey from the Canal they split into two detachments. One moved against Ismailia, and the second and much strongest, advanced to a point opposite Toussum, just south of Lake Timseh. The first movement was made on the night of February the second. The Turks had brought a number of pontoon boats in carts across the desert, and these they attempted to launch, along with several rafts made of kerosene tins. Crowded on the shore with a high steep bank behind them, our men mowed them down with rifle fire and Maxims. A few of the vessels were launched but they were soon riddled and sunk. The enemy then lined the high banks, and tried to silence our fire, and the duel went on till morning broke, when the battle became general all along the stretch from Ismailia to the Bitter Lakes. We had a small flotilla on the canal—several torpedo boats, an old Indian Marine transport, and two French guardships. The Turks had a number of field batteries and two six inch guns, which one of the French ships promptly silenced. The torpedo boats made short work of the remaining pontoons. During the afternoon the enemy was cleared from the eastern bank, and by the evening of the third the fiasco was over, and early next morning the canal was crossed in force, and the enemy rounded up. The total Turkish casualty list was well over 2,000.

Gallipoli

But the serious work of the war, which first reconciled the colonials to their disappointment in being withheld from the battle line in Flanders, came towards the end of April. The infantry, which had been considerably strengthened by reinforcements since their arrival in Egypt, were embarked for service in Turkey.



The Gallipoli Peninsula

The men waded ashore to Gallipoli in the dawn of Sunday, April 25th, under a hail of fire from Turkish rifles and machine guns, and landing, went over the hills with such a dash that within three quarters of an hour some had charged over three successive ridges driving the Turks headlong before them. The ridges ran up tier after tier into steep cliffs which seemed to the beholders almost impregnable. Yet they too were stormed and the Turks driven out with the bayonet. The men then dug themselves in while under heavy shrapnel fire. The valor and dash of this magnificent charge was of course attended with the heaviest mortality.

Undoubtedly, nowhere in this great war have the soldiers of the Empire fought from more disadvantageous positions. "The country is broken, mountainous, arid and void of supplies; the water found in the areas occupied by our forces is quite inadequate for their needs; the only practicable beaches are small cramped breaks in impracticable lines of cliffs; whilst over every single beach plays fitfully throughout each day a devastating shell fire at medium ranges". After some months of most heroic effort, with countless cases of wonderful deeds of daring on the part of all the assembled forces, the Gallipoli Peninsula was finally abandoned on January 9th. Fortunately the evacuation was accomplished with but four casualties.

General Questions on the War

31. The Russian campaign broke down for a time through lack of munitions. Her present source of supply seems adequate. What new routes have been opened by which she can obtain supplies?
32. Of what value would the occupation of Constantinople be to the Allies?
33. Explain the relations of Greece to the Balkan States and show why the Allies landed troops at Salonica on Greek soil.
34. Explain the meaning of the following terms: howitzer, salient, enfilade, torpedo, monoplane, flank, machine-gun, communication trench, pontoon, artillery park, salvo, "getting the range".
35. Though Italy has been fighting for about a year on the side of the Entente powers, war has not yet (March 17th) been declared between Italy and Germany and German troops have not been used directly against Italy. Assign what reasons you can for this seeming contradiction in the German policy.
36. How and why are conditions in the eastern Mediterranean region of such vital importance to Great Britain?
37. Describe the political and geographical conditions in Albania, and show that Italy, Austria, Greece and Bulgaria are all deeply interested in the settlement of affairs in that province.
38. State what you believe to be the causes that have kept Roumania and Greece out of the struggle to the present time, when all the neighbouring states are involved in the war.

The Naval Campaign

[From *The School of March*, 1915]

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“WE have upon the seas the strongest and most magnificent fleet which has ever been seen. We rely on it with the most absolute confidence, not only to guard our shores against the possibility of invasion, but to seal up the gigantic battleships of the enemy in the inglorious seclusion of their own ports. . . . It has hunted the German mercantile marine from the high seas, and it has kept open our sources of food supply.”—Mr. Asquith at the Guildhall.

If we would understand clearly the navy which has achieved this splendid victory we must go back to the “Naval Renaissance” about the year 1900, when Britain began to readjust her world naval policy, to carry into effect vast correlated schemes or the redistribution of the fleets at sea and the more rapid mobilisation of the ships in reserve, to reorganise the Admiralty and to train officers and men for the Naval Reserve. In the preamble to the German Navy Act of 1900 we find the following:

“It is not absolutely necessary that the German Battle Fleet should be as strong as that of the greatest naval power, for a great naval power will not, as a rule, be able to concentrate all its striking force against us. But even if it should succeed in meeting us with considerable superiority of strength, the defeat of a strong German fleet would so substantially weaken the enemy that, in spite of the victory, he might have obtained, his own position in the world would no longer be secured by an adequate fleet.”

The man who realised the sinister significance of this was Lord Selborne, then First Lord of the Admiralty, and happily for Britain he was able to lay his hand on the man to carry out the most gigantic task to which any governmental department had ever addressed itself. He succeeded in having Sir John Fisher, now Lord Fisher, made First Sea Lord. Instantly with the support of Lord Selborne and Mr. Balfour, then Prime Minister, the Naval Board began its work. Overseas squadrons which had no strategic purpose were disestablished, unimportant dockyards were dismantled, ships too weak to fight and too slow to run were recalled, a whole fleet of old iron-clads were scrapped, officers and men were transferred from the weak and obsolete ships or wrenched from comfortable employment ashore and made the nucleus of the

crews guarding our new naval frontier. Furthermore, Lord Fisher, with the instinct of a great strategist, saw that radical changes were necessary in the design of British ships of all classes. He organised a powerful committee of naval officers, shipbuilders and scientists, and the result of their work was the laying down of the first group of the famous "Dreadnought" class. Secretly and rapidly four units of the new type, the "Dreadnought", "Indomitable", "Inflexible" and "Invincible", were rushed to completion. The essential difference between these ships and their British predecessors or those then building abroad was that they carried ten big guns as against four of their most powerful rivals.

Unfortunately, just as the task of rebuilding the fleet had been initiated a change of government occurred, and there was reason to suppose that the naval reorganisation would be delayed indefinitely or perhaps abandoned. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the Prime Minister, and Lord Tweedmouth, First Lord of the Admiralty, were above all things desirous of arresting the rivalry in naval armaments. In 1906, 1907 and 1908 only eight Dreadnoughts were laid down, while Germany began nine and began to accelerate her programme.

Lord Tweedmouth then resigned and was succeeded by Mr. Reginald McKenna. The new Minister threw himself heartily into the work of reorganisation and accorded Lord Fisher his undivided support in spite of his finding most of the Cabinet arrayed against him—indeed, Sir Edward Grey was the only Minister who agreed with him. Then a momentous event took place—the Admiralty resigned in a body. This dramatic act won the day: the Cabinet was converted. It was decided to lay down eight Dreadnoughts in regular rotation, the reason for not beginning all the ships at once being that the Admiralty wished the later ships to be armed with a very powerful gun which could not be ready if all were laid down immediately. Public opinion was roused and the cry, "We want eight and we won't wait" was heard on every platform from Land's End to John O'Groats. But the Admiralty stood firm; they felt that they alone were in possession of all the facts and that secrecy was absolutely necessary. During this period Mr. McKenna was probably one of the most unpopular Ministers England ever had, but he resisted all pressure.

In the autumn of 1911 Lord Fisher retired under the age clause, and Mr. McKenna, who was needed in the Home Office, was replaced by Mr. Winston Churchill, who put the finishing touches on the new navy.

On March 17th, 1914, Mr. Churchill announced in the House that there would be no naval manœuvres in 1914, but that it had been decided to call up the whole of the Royal Feet Reserve for a period of eleven days. From March to July elaborate drafting arrangements were

adjusted and tried out. Then after the assassinations at Serajevo on June 29th, the principal ships passed in review before the King and disappeared in the Channel and were by the most remarkable coincidence in all history, fully ready and mobilised when war broke out.

This is the fleet which, two weeks after hostilities began, won four notable victories without firing a shot:

1. It frustrated Germany's elaborate scheme to produce a panic in England.
2. It strangled Germany's overseas commerce. There were 2,000 German steamers of 5,000,000 tons gross afloat when war began. Practically all were captured or interned, and the heart of the German mercantile navy stopped beating.
3. British trade went on its normal course owing to the confidence of ship owners and shippers.
4. The British Expeditionary Force was transferred to the Continent unmolested and Britain was able to avail herself of the help offered by the Dominions and by India.

Next let us look at the relative strength of the fleets involved in this terrible struggle. The following table shows the number of effective fighting ships belonging to the chief belligerents in commission and building at the outbreak of hostilities:

CLASS OF SHIP	Britain	Germany	Russia	France	Austria
Super Dreadnoughts and Super Battle Cruisers.....	14
Dreadnoughts and Battle Cruisers.....	18	18	11	12	12
Pre-Dreadnoughts.....	70	30	8	21	3
Armoured Cruisers.....	34	9	6	28	3
Protected Cruisers.....	15	31	16
Light Cruisers.....	87	12	...	4	8
Destroyers.....	227	152	141	84	12
Torpedo-boats.....	109	45	26	187	8
Submarines.....	75	40	48	76	7
Mine-layers.....	7	2
Total.....	656	339	256	412	53

The story of the naval campaign may be divided into two parts: events in the North Sea and events on the high seas. In the North Sea

we know that our Home Fleet forced the German ships to skulk behind the powerful fortifications at Heligoland, Wilhelmshaven, Cuxhaven and Kiel, while their mine-layers violated every international and humane



law by sowing mines broadcast over the sea and by abusing the use of neutral flags. Abroad, as has been said, they never attempted to protect their commerce, vessels like the "Emden" and "Karlsruhe" contenting

themselves with inflicting as much damage as possible on the shipping of enemy nations.

Following is a summary of the British and German losses to date:

GREAT BRITAIN: BATTLESHIPS

Bulwark, blown up off Sheerness, November 26th, 1914.
Formidable, sunk in Channel, January 1st, 1915.

CRUISERS:

Amphion, sunk by mine, August 6th, 1914.
Pathfinder, sunk by submarine, September 22nd, 1914.
Pegasus, disabled by Königsberg, September 20th, 1914.
Aboukir, Cressy, Hogue; sunk by submarines, September 22nd, 1914.
Hawke, sunk by submarine, October 15th, 1914.
Hermes, sunk by submarine, October 31st, 1914.
Good Hope, Monmouth; sunk in action off Chili, November 1st, 1915.

GUNBOATS:

Speedy, sunk by mine, September 3, 1914.
Niger, torpedoed, November 11th, 1914.

SUBMARINES:

E3, sunk in North Sea, October 18th, 1914.
D5, sunk by mine, November 3rd, 1914.

GERMANY: ARMoured CRUISERS

Scharnhorst and Gneisenau, sunk off Falkland Islands, December 5th, 1914.
Yorck, sunk by mine, November 4th, 1914.
Friederich Karl, sunk in Baltic, November, 1914.
Blücher, sunk in action, January 24th, 1915.

CRUISERS:

Magdeburg, destroyed by Russian fleet, August 27th, 1914.
Ariadne, Mainz, Köln, sunk in Heligoland Bight, August 28th, 1914.
Königsberg, imprisoned in East Africa, October 30th, sunk later, 1914.
Emden, destroyed by H.M.A.S. "Sydney", November 9th, 1914.
Leipzig, sunk off Falkland Islands, December 5th, 1914.

DESTROYERS:

Two, not named, sunk in Heligoland Bight, August 28th, 1914.
S128, sunk by submarine E9 off mouth of Ems, October 7th, 1914.
Four, S115, S117, S118, S119, sunk by H.M.S. "Undaunted" and destroyers off the Dutch coast, October 17th, 1914.
Taku, sunk at Tsingtau.

SUBMARINES:

U15, sunk by H.M.S. "Birmingham", August 10th, 1914.
One (unnamed), rammed by "Badger", October 25th, 1914.
U18, sunk off Scottish Coast, November 23rd, 1914.

MINE-LAYERS:

Königin Louise, sunk by "Amphion", August 5th, 1914.
Ruahin, sunk at Tsingtau.

GUNBOATS:

Soden, captured by "Cumberland", September 30th, 1914.
Comet, captured by Australians, October 14th, 1914.
Fuchs, Tiger, Jaguar, Iltis, Cormoran, sunk at Tsingtau, 1914.

ARMED LINERS:

Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse, sunk by H.M.S. Highflyer, August 26th, 1914.
Cap Trafalgar, sunk by H.M.S. Carmania, September 14th, 1914.
Spreewald, captured by H.M.S. Berwick, September 12th, 1914.
Berlin, interned at Trondhjem.
Preussen, interned at Batavia.

Further, Germany must write off her effective list the battle cruiser Goeben and the light cruiser Breslau, though these have become part of Turkey's fleet.

This is a sorry record for the Germans to contemplate. Practically every merchant ship has been captured or held in neutral ports, while every armed vessel which has put its nose beyond the protection of fortress guns and mine fields has been destroyed.

The record is what it is because the British fleet has been active. Twenty-five years of peaceful plodding work in building up Germany's colonial empire, oversea trade, shipping and prestige has gone in six months. Empires in the past have decayed slowly, never before has an empire had its life-blood sucked from it in a period of 200 days.

General Questions on the War

39. Describe the physical difficulties which the Italian armies must surmount in their operations against Austria.

40. Why have Italy's operations been chiefly against Austria? Give historical and geographical reasons.

41. Why is Austria-Hungary called the "dual monarchy"? Is this dual condition a strength or a weakness?

42. Japan entered the war as an ally of Great Britain and drove the German army out of Kiao Chau and her fleet from the Pacific Ocean. State what you consider were the reasons why she did not send an army to Europe to fight against Germany.

43. Show how race and religion have influenced some of the alliances formed in the war.

44. In the past Britain has depended for defence almost entirely upon her navy. Why has she recently considered it of vital importance to raise an army of several million men? In what respects has this achievement been unique?

45. Germany has lost all her colonies but one. Where is this? And what efforts are being made to wrest this from her?

46. Show how the government and people of South Africa have shown their allegiance to the British Crown.

The Western Campaign

[From The School of January, 1916]

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INTRODUCTORY.

In an attempt to understand the fighting in the western arena one must bear in mind two cardinal points in the theory of warfare as held by Germany.

FIRST: In common with others it was accepted by her generals that to beat an enemy meant to destroy her field armies or so place them that their power could not be exerted through lack of proper supplies or other cause.

SECOND: To accomplish this end the factor most worthy of consideration was the one of time. "Once war is declared fighting is to be pushed forward with the utmost speed and determination; victory comes to that country which can muster adequate forces in the shorter period of time". The worth of this theory was proven in her war with Austria in 1866, and again in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870; she was convinced of its correctness. Everything was ordered accordingly—her organisation for necessary supplies, her railways of strategic importance, her system of mobilisation. When war was declared every train in Germany stopped at the next station, discharged its passengers, and within twenty-four hours was on its way to the front with that town's quota of troops.

Before we can possibly conceive the German action on the declaration of war we must try and imagine "speed" as the one condition of success; without it they were doomed to failure. When we have grasped the significance of that point a relief map tells the rest; France must be attacked through Belgium. The parallel ridges, opposing themselves to attacks from the east, precluded any rapid invasion from that quarter, where "two could put to flight a thousand." The low plain leading from Liège through Namur, Charleroi, Compiègne towards Paris offered an open thoroughfare for millions. The fact, that if she were to fight at all against France she must violate the neutrality of Belgium, puts a tremendous onus of proof of the unavoidableness of war upon the shoulders of Germany. Will she ever be able to submit her case to history as a cause sufficiently righteous to justify her acts of dishonour?

So we see Germany's plan of campaign—her battle-front, like a giant's arm with the shoulder at Verdun, was to sweep south crushing in its embrace the field armies of France—the superlative "Battle of Sedan".

Successive phases of the attempt will go down in history something like this,—

- I. The German Rush.
- II. The Battle of the Marne.
- III. Outflanking Movements to the North.
- IV. Siege Warfare.

I. THE GERMAN RUSH.

Before formal declaration of war each country, under fear of being taken at a disadvantage, instructed her fighting forces to hold themselves in readiness for a call to arms. As evidence accumulated of the preparedness of the others the breaking-point came, mobilisation was ordered on all hands—Germany, France, Belgium—on August 1st. On August 2nd, Britain addressed a note to France and Germany as to their intentions regarding the guaranteed neutrality of Belgium. France at once signified her readiness to observe the guarantee; Germany claimed it impossible to reply, as to answer at all would disclose her plans. Meanwhile her troops were moving on France, Luxemburg and Belgium. The next day, August 3rd, Germany made known her plans to Belgium, demanding free passage for troops through her land. Belgium refused and appealed to Britain. Great Britain declared war on Germany at 11 p.m., London time, August 4th, 1914.

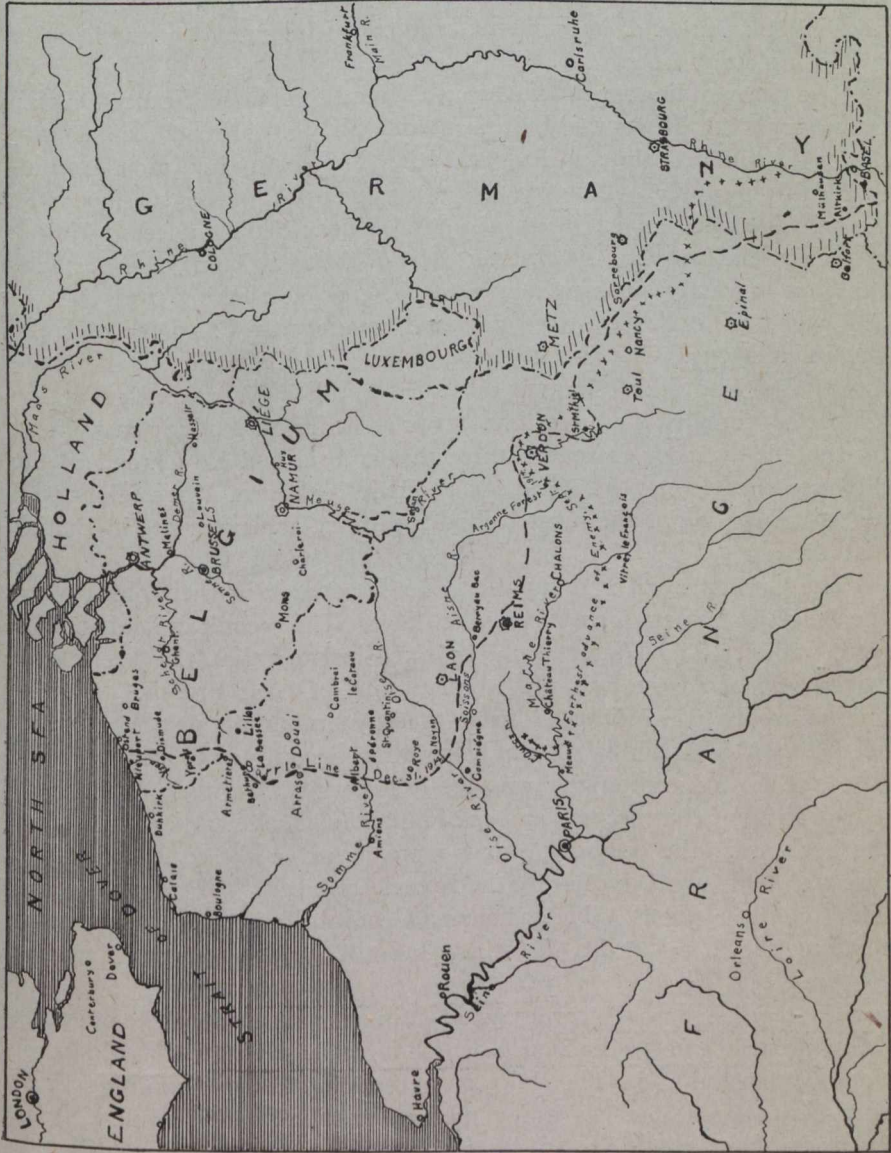
The Germans came forward in force all along the Belgo-German border during August 5th, 6th, and 7th. Liège was heavily assaulted, but her troops held off the invaders with enormous losses. The Belgian mobile force, however, withdrew, leaving only the garrison in Liège.

Expecting the main attack in the south, or hoping to draw off German troops from Belgium, or for the moral effect of an invasion of the Lost Provinces, the most readily available troops of France were used in the southern part of the Verdun-Toul-Epinal-Belfort line. By August 8th forces had been carried forward as far as Altkirk and Mülhausen. This advantage was not long held.

The Belgians fought heroically, but before the fierce and continuous onsets of superior numbers they could but retreat. At a terrible cost the great mission of the Belgian people to the allied cause was being fulfilled; they were holding on and giving time to Britain and France. By August 12th, they had retreated twenty miles to the west through Huy and Hasselt; but the French and the British had by that date come up to their right by extending their left wing into Belgium as far as the Sambre, east of Namur.

Pursuing the policy mentioned above, the Germans on August 15th with an army of over half a million, began to move around Brussels on the north. The government was removed to Antwerp on August 17th,

and, to avoid bombardment, Brussels was left to the enemy on August 19th, without a fight. The Belgian army drew off to the north towards Antwerp, leaving a gap to the west. With wonderful speed the Germans



rushed through to Ghent, and then turned south, leaving sufficient forces to protect their lines of communication against the Belgian army from Antwerp.

Things now looked rather gloomy for Belgium. No doubt there were

acts of desperation on the part of Belgian civilians. The Germans, holding lines through the land of the enemy, and believing that war should be waged as bitterly as possible, seized upon these acts as an excuse for wholesale reprisals calculated to strike terror into the hearts of all; civilians were shot in numbers, Louvain with its renowned university was completely destroyed.

The German line now moved south directly upon the Franco-Belgian boundary. At Mons the British, under Sir John French, came into action for the first time on August 24th. The enemy had now accumulated driving-force. Longwy fell after twenty-four days' siege; the French line was driven in on the Meuse near Sedan, necessitating a retreat by the forces to the east and west of the weak point; the Germans came on in vastly superior numbers. There was nothing to do but to fall back. The French were defeated severely at Charleroi and the British at Mons. The British troops formed the left wing of the allied line, facing the main German advance. Fighting a rearguard action almost continually for three days, to prevent an outflanking movement by the enemy, they retreated through Cambrai and Le Cateau in the direction of St. Quentin. The successful retreat from Mons might well be ranked as one of the most brilliant military achievements in British history.

The German staff had experienced one setback in their plans when the Belgians fought so stubbornly at Liége. The second difficulty came from within. The Kaiser seems to have insisted that the French be driven out of Alsace and the Russians out of East Prussia. A half-million troops were diverted from the western arena just when they needed them most and in spite of being directly contrary to arrangement. Due to this, and the terrible wastage in her ranks, Germany now found herself without that preponderance of numbers which had been hers from the beginning; the opposing forces were more nearly equalised. The case was made worse for her by the French withdrawal of troops to place directly on the enemy's line of march; General Pau's troops came up to reinforce the British at St. Quentin. But still the German armies moved south.

The struggle now was a race against time for each side. The question was whether the new French and British forces being formed would be on time to stem the tide. The Belgians were doing their full share north of Brussels to keep there as many men as possible, making sallies from Antwerp upon the German lines of communication. But still the Germans came on. Paris was put in condition for siege. One third of the civilian population moved to the south, and the government departments were transferred to Bordeaux.

The German right had reached a point about thirty miles north from

the centre of Paris, near the outer fortifications, on September 3rd. The German left was caught on Verdun, and the centre bent southward beyond the Marne. The capture of Fort Troyon, to the south of Verdun, would have completed the investment of that fortress. Two French armies, looped around Verdun, stretched to the south, fighting back to back against fierce German assaults from the northwest and from the east respectively.

So far, on the whole, it would seem that the Germans had been successful. It is likely that the investment of Paris was not contemplated. More probably their programme called for the separation of the field armies from Paris, the crowding them up the valleys to the south-east, and there, in the rear of the line of great fortresses, the finishing of their task. With this opens the second phase in the operations.

II. THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE.

After a running fight of two weeks the troops on both sides were much fatigued. But, while the German spirit was upheld by evidence of success, their fleeing enemy had nothing to contemplate but continued, disheartening retreat. Through it all, however, with a superb faith, General Joffre was preparing his plans for a decisive blow. On their part the German leaders became less cautious, as one drops his guard when he sees his opponent apparently too weak to strike another blow.

In their retreat the French and British moved to the south-east of Paris. Von Kluk, on the German right, wheeled to the south-east on their track. The one thing was to land a knock-out blow upon the enemy, who, as he concluded, must now be at the limit of endurance; everything else could now be quite disregarded. Von Kluk figured only on defensive strategy on the part of Joffre in such hard circumstances. But Joffre had plans of his own. The German generals spoke of September 6th as the final day, the day of victory; the allied generals, from their own point of view, urged their men to think of it as the turning-point. No wonder the fighting was so sanguinary!

Locate Paris and Verdun. Join points a few miles north of each by a line curved away to the south. Also join Verdun with the Swiss border. These lines will indicate the battle-lines on September 5th. Opposing each other on the Paris-Verdun front were the German generals, von Kluk, von Buelow, von Hausen, Duke Albrecht of Württemberg, the German Crown Prince, and the allied generals, Manoury, French, Franchet d'Esperey, Foch, Langle de Cary and Sarrail. On the east front were the Crown Prince of Bavaria and von Heeringen opposed by Castelnau and Dubail. The German forces are estimated at 1,275,000 and the French and British at 1,125,000.

When von Kluk wheeled to the left he seems to have altogether underestimated the French forces in and about Paris and to have misjudged the ability of the British, now withdrawn behind Crecy and Coulommiers, to deliver another blow. The forces left by him, west of the Ourcq to guard his flank, were quite inadequate.

In the early hours of September 6th, the allied offensive was begun by the army of Paris west of the Ourcq, under General Manoury, and by the British at the angle south-east of Paris. The activity rapidly spread eastward involving the successive armies. After ten hours' fighting the pressure on the British right was seen to diminish. Under cover of the fierce fighting of the last few hours von Kluk had transferred two corps (80,000 men) to the assistance of the hard-pressed 4th corps, west of the Ourcq. The fighting on the 6th slightly favoured the Allies.

On the morning of the 7th Manoury found in front of him, not the single corps of the preceding day but an army of 120,000 men. The day was saved for him by the wonderful fighting of the Zouaves and the good work of the British cavalry to the south. To the east it was "touch and go"; ground was gained and lost again by each side. The Plateau of Amance, an important position, was lost and re-taken by General Castelnau. The fighting continued throughout the night.

In the fighting of the 8th there were some important developments. A new army corps from Alsace reinforced Manoury and the British. While Manoury was still hard pressed, the British and French to the east got forward, especially the army of Franchet d'Esperey. His success facilitated the movements of Foch on his right, who, at an enormous cost, finally succeeded in capturing the key position, the Chateau of Mondement. On information brought in by the aviators, as to a gap between von Buelow and von Hausen, General Foch boldly massed his troops under cover of darkness and threw them on the exposed German flank. The Prussians were thrown in disorder, into the marshes of St. Gond where thousands perished.

Langle de Cary, who had sustained heavy losses the previous day, little more than held his own.

General Sarrail was menaced with envelopment by enemy forces front and rear. He directed his troops against the front and sent his cavalry to the rear. Reinforcements sent up from Metz, to take him in force from the east, were more than met by Castelnau in the bitter fight for possession of the Heights of Sainte-Genevieve. To the south Dubail was forced to abandon Luneville.

On the 9th the situation grew worse for the army of Paris; they were greatly outnumbered. General Joffre ordered Manoury to hold nevertheless. His men, encouraged by successes elsewhere, redoubled their assaults, and were on the point of winning, towards the end of the

day, when a fresh corps (of Landwehr) was signalled coming from the north to aid von Kluk. Manoury appealed to General Galleni, the Governor of Paris. With fine enterprise Gallieni requisitioned 5,000 automobiles and rushed 20,000 men to Maunoury's support.

The British, in the meantime, were driving von Kluk's weakened centre back to the Marne near Chateau-Thierry; they had gained twenty miles in two days. After seventeen attempts they succeeded in bridging the Marne and threatened von Kluk's rear. The British cavalry coming up with the rearguard cavalry of the enemy, rode through them and back, and then charged them again in front. The guard was broken; the enemy was in full retreat. The whole centre moved forward rapidly.

The morning of the 10th showed the battle decided. The allied army even after two weeks' retreat and five days of desperate fighting harassed the retreating foe. Everywhere were discovered carbonized bodies, where the foe had not time to bury the thousands killed. Towns crowded with wounded, were taken; many cannon and great convoys of ammunition and supplies were captured. The Duke of Württemberg held on longer at Vitrey-le-Francois enabling those to his right to take up their position on the Aisne. On the 11th he retreated hurriedly to the north.

It is hard to get a big enough idea of the Battle of the Marne; we are too close to it. It is estimated that 300,000 of the enemy were accounted for in killed, wounded and prisoners, during the week's fighting. But perhaps the great significance was not in the material but in the spiritual victory. The "invincible" German machine could be beaten; the haunting spectre of 1870 was slain. There was a tremendous weakening of the morale of the German soldiery, and a corresponding gain for their opponents. We have lists of decisive battles of the world. Ultimate success of the Allies will guarantee a place in that list for the great Battle of the Marne, 1914.

III. OUTFLANKING MOVEMENTS TO THE NORTH.

On September 12th, the allied forces reached the Aisne, crossed in pursuit and attacked on the whole front. The German wedge, withdrawn from Vitrey-le-Francois and Revigny, still maintained its footing at the south of the Argonne Forest. The French on this same date had successes along the Verdun-Belfort line, occupying several smaller towns. The Germans withstood the attack along the Aisne except in a few places where they gave ground for the purpose of adjustment. No great results were expected; the Germans were extremely well entrenched on the high ground all along the north bank. Their line stretched from the Argonne west, passing north of Rheims, crossing the river near Berry-au-Bac and continuing west, north of Soissons and

Compiègne. For the next week fighting went on without any decisive results.

The Germans, thinking they had sufficiently terrorised the people of central Belgium and drubbed the Belgian army, began to draw off reinforcements from their lines of communications for the work in France. King Albert with his army again sallied out for a week's fierce fighting through Aerschot, Malines, and Louvain, and seriously threatened to drive the Germans out of Brussels. A realisation on the Kaiser's part of what the Belgian army was still capable of was no doubt the immediate reason for his demanding that Antwerp be dealt with. The siege of Antwerp, begun on September 26th, was pushed forward with the greatest determination. On this same date the Germans got a foothold on the Meuse at St. Mihiel.

Failing to dislodge the enemy from their strong positions on the Aisne by a frontal attack, the Allies on September 21st began a flanking movement from Noyon on the German left, carrying the line to the north from that point. The opposing forces had each very much at stake. The Allies hoped to join the Belgians, relieve Antwerp and thus hold the foe to the east. The Germans sought to prevent the giving of any such help, to effect the capture of Antwerp and with it, almost inevitably northwest Belgium to the sea.

The lines were pushed north very rapidly, ringing around each other like our representation of mountain chains. Cavalry on each side was used very extensively, the ground being hotly contested before the infantry could be brought along. The extension of the line passed through Roye, Peronne, Albert, Cambrai and Arras, the latter place being reached on October 1st. Very severe fighting took place along this line with varying results.

The Germans put a stop to the extension of the lines by means of a large army aiming west, north of Lille. This compelled the northern allied flank to bend away from Antwerp to the west to receive the new opposition on their front. All hope of a successful flanking movement on the part of the Allies was lost when Antwerp capitulated on October 9th, after the Belgian army under King Albert had escaped on October 8th. Part of a brigade of British marines were cut off and fled into Holland where they were interned.

This move of the Germans was a strong one; it bent the allied line to the left, threatened to reach the coast and march on Calais and Dunkirk, and in doing so shut the Belgians up in the north-west corner of the country. To meet this difficulty, Joffre sent a large force to the coast on October 10th. On the next day a junction was effected between the Allies and the Belgians, and the danger greatly lessened. At this time the British force were being secretly transferred from the

Verdun-Noyon line to the Noyon-North Sea front. The transfer was completed by October 19th.

The prize the German Staff was out for was nothing less than the capture of the channel ports—Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne. In itself this would seem enough to guarantee the exertion of their armies to the utmost. But there was another reason why the German Staff was particularly anxious—the decidedly unfavourable conditions of affairs in Poland at the time. They determined to obtain a decision on the western front at all costs. The complete defeat is therefore significant.

The enemy with a considerable quantity of heavy artillery directed his effort at first, October 23rd to November 1st, upon the coast and the country to the north of Dixmude. At the latter place the Belgians were strengthened by a French division. Against superior numbers, better supplied, the allies fought successfully, holding the Germans back from the Nieuport-Dixmude railway except at Ramscapelle. The British monitors were used to good effect. On the 29th the Belgians succeeded in flooding the country between the railway and the canal, occupied by the enemy. On November 2nd the Germans evacuated the inundated territory, leaving cannon, dead and the wounded. The coastal attack had proved a total failure. Since then it has never been renewed seriously.

Quite simultaneously with the struggle at the coast the Germans launched a second attack against the Allies at Ypres, designed to break in two the left wing. In point of numbers engaged, the sanguinary character of the conflict and the uncertainty of the outcome, the former dwindles into insignificance. This was the Battle of Ypres. The British were chiefly concerned.

The battle was begun on October 25th and ended on November 13th. The superiority in numbers on the German side was tremendous; British reinforcements were used, as soon as they detained, at whatever point happened to be weakest at the time. The fighting was renewed with increasing violence daily. The crisis was reached on October 31st.

Sir Douglas Haig, with the First Army Corps, was stationed east of Ypres. Early that morning an aviator dropped down to General French's Headquarters with the startling news that three army corps were moving upon the British First. Soon after a painful message came that the British were retreating rapidly. To make matters worse, Haig's staff was almost completely wiped out when the Germans landed a shell on the house in which they were. French, like Caesar, in his battle near there with the Nervii, constituted himself line-officer as well as general. He rushed in his motor-car to the front. Dozens of times he risked his life while going from one point to another, encouraging, directing and giving personal orders to men who had lost all their leaders. The retreat

was stopped and, fired with the elation which comes with such an occurrence, the British did the impossible—by nightfall they had advanced and established the original line.

The battle went on till November 13th but it was really decided on October 31st.

The Germans were urged on by the Kaiser in person. They fought disregarding death. It is said that 40,000 German corpses were counted on the field, and over 110,000 were wounded or taken prisoner. The British lost terribly as well, 50,000 out of the 120,000 engaged. But the line held.

The line was then established which has been the line of conflict from then till now. With the main features of that conflict the next article will deal.

IV. SIEGE WARFARE.

The line as established in October and November 1914, comprises three distinct fronts: North Sea—Noyon, Noyon—Verdun, and the Verdun—Belfort.

The operations which have been carried out since that time may be conveniently considered as of two classes; first: local conflicts carried out on a small front for the purpose of getting control of some desirable position, and second: large-scale endeavours in which the stake was much higher, and in which some definite strategy was being worked out. Between these greater efforts there were periods of comparative calm. It was in these interludes that the previously mentioned local contests took place, either to put a stop to the work of a troublesome enemy, or to obtain control of better positions in preparation for a future move.

There have been three of these large attempts definitely planned,—the French advance in the Champagne and the British attack at Neuve Chapelle in the spring of 1915; the very similar movements in the fall at Loos and in the Champagne; and the Battle of Verdun.

From the official reports of Generals Joffre and French we obtain a fairly clear idea of the operations of the spring of 1915. General Joffre stated the reason for the continual pressure exerted on the enemy at Perthes and Beauséjour in the Champagne, and at Bagatelle and Vauquois in the Argonne, was "to see what could be done against the German positions, and to wear down the enemy's reserves of men and ammunition". Concerning Neuve Chapelle, French gave as one of his reasons,— "the influence of a forward movement on the morale of the troops after a period of inaction during the winter". To these reasons, in view of the duplicating of the operations in the autumn, we may possibly add another,—to close in the lines which, if all goes well, are to act as pincers upon the Germans along the Aisne.

The results of these efforts have been considered fairly favourable. The French took German positions which had been long in the fortifying and compelled the use of thirty-three instead of eighteen battalions. At Neuve Chapelle the British massed artillery wrought havoc among the Germans and, though they were the attackers, the British losses were 13,000 to the enemy's 18,000. They advanced two miles. The loss would have been less severe, and the ground gained more considerable, had not a battery, losing touch, continued firing, and had not an officer of reserves failed in a part of his duty.

During March, after having held and lost the position, the French, by persistent and heroic work, succeeded in retaking Hartmannsweilerkopf, the outermost hill in the Vosges, reaching towards the Rhine. In spite of desperate counter attacks the position is still in the hands of the French.

At the same time very heavy fighting was going on between the Meuse and Moselle, where the French were trying for commanding positions on each side of the German salient at St. Mihiel. Considerable success attended these efforts, especially on the north side, where the plateau of Les Eparges was taken on April 10th, with great loss of life on both sides.

The salient of Ypres has been always a thorn in the side of Germany. In April 1915, efforts were made at least to crush out this salient; perhaps even a drive on Calais was again contemplated. To the south and north of Ypres the Germans prepared attacks which ended in two sanguinary struggles. On the south side they planned a drive from Hill 60. The British suspected the plans, took the initiative and captured Hill 60 after a hard fight. The enemy countered several times without results and in the meantime prepared the attack from the north.

It was here that complete bodies of Canadian troops came under fire for the first time. And right well did they acquit themselves that day! The Germans had a new and barbarous surprise in the form of poisonous gases to let loose. The French colonial troops on the left, overcome by the deadly fumes, were driven back. This left the north flank of the Canadian troops "hanging in the air". The men from Canada fought heroically, and, though they suffered very heavily, we have this consolation from General French's lips, "Their gallant work at Langemarck and St. Julien saved the situation for the British". The Germans advanced about two miles, but no farther; Ypres is still held.

During the summer months the fighting was largely on the eastern front where the Russians were being driven back far into their own country. The western allies seemed able to render no real assistance at the time; there was a deplorable lack of munitions. And just to keep up a desultory artillery action could be productive of no great benefit.

Accordingly munitions were husbanded during the summer for concerted action in September. The object was to draw off forces from pursuing the Russians, and at the same time to increase the value of the hold on the two flanks of the German wedge towards Paris.

The attacks opened on September 25th. The British on the North Sea front pushed forward two or three miles to a position beyond Loos and near to Lens on the north. The French also carried forward their line south of Lens, thus threatening that town. But the main French effort was in the Champagne, where they went forward a distance of two or three miles on a fifteen-mile front. The losses on both sides were very heavy. The British alone lost something like 60,000 men, but succeeded in capturing about 2,800 of the enemy. The French captured in all about 27,000 men. Each of the Allies lost a number of prisoners themselves. The greatest result was without doubt in the fact that the Germans were not permitted to land the knock-out blow against their almost exhausted Russian enemy.

During the month of October the conflict in Champagne went on near Tahure and the Navarin Farm, with a favourable balance for the French. At the same time very sharp fighting was going on for the possession of strong trenches south-east of La Bassée—the Hohenzollern Redoubt. This position has changed hands several times.

But the centre of the storm again moved east, and south, to the Balkans.

During the winter nothing of commanding importance is to be recorded. At the present time (March 10th, 1916), what is perhaps the most sanguinary struggle of the war is being fought out about Verdun. As to the result, time alone can give us information.

General Questions on the War

47. Show in detail how this war has proved and increased the unity of the British Empire. What do you consider the chief factor in this unity?

48. It has been said that neutral countries are the only gainers from this war. What truth is there in this statement? Is it possible that the whole world may gain from the nation's sacrifices?

49. Why does not the peace propaganda in belligerent countries, as well as from neutral peoples, make more headway?

50. Do you think the determination of the Entente powers to fight until Belgium and Serbia are re-established in their sovereignty is justified? Give reasons.

51. Show how the demands and stress of the war have influenced the habits and customs of the people in the belligerent countries.

52. State how Canadians, young and old, may assist our country and the British Empire to maintain this struggle and strengthen and encourage our men at the front.

The Eastern Campaign

[From *The School of May*, 1916]

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THE Eastern Campaign can best be considered under three headings:

- I. *Russia on the Offensive*, covering the period from the beginning of the war to March, 1915.
- II. *Russia on the Defensive*, covering the period from April, 1915, to the present.
- III. *The Russian Campaign Against Turkey*.

I. RUSSIA ON THE OFFENSIVE.

Russia had partially mobilised her military forces before war was actually declared and almost immediately upon the outbreak of war, she began an invasion of East Prussia. The object in this invasion was to relieve the Pressure against the Allies on the Western front. During the month of August, the Russian forces advanced well into East Prussia and won a signal victory over the Germans in a six days' battle at Gunbinnen. This victory led the Germans to withdraw a large force, probably amounting to a half million men from the west front to stem the invasion in the East. After the victory at Gunbinnen, the Russians pressed on, occupying Insterburg, Allenstein and Soldau, and invested Königsberg. But victory led the Russians too far. Von Hindenberg, strongly reinforced, led the Russians into a trap and in the battle of Tannenberg, so completely defeated them that they retreated swiftly beyond the borders of East Prussia. The German official report placed the Russian killed at 120,000 and prisoners 70,000. Although this was a serious blow the campaign had been successful in helping the Allies.

Russia next turned her attention to the Austrian front. During August she obtained a footing in Eastern Galicia by the River Styr while the Austrians in three armies were advancing into Poland. The campaign opened with a severe defeat of the Russians at Krasnik after which the Austrians pressed on toward Lublin. General Russki with a superior force not only stopped this advance but forced them to retreat toward the border. Russki followed and by the capture of Tarnopol he forced back the Austrian centre towards Lemberg. By a successful engagement at Halisch the Austrian right was forced back also on Lemberg. Russki now managed to separate the Austrian left from the centre and in the battles of Tomasov and Podgorzo inflicted terrible losses on these

armies. Then followed a seven days' battle about Lemberg, resulting in a great Russian victory in which over 700 guns were captured, 64,000 prisoners taken, and immense stores of ammunition and provisions. With the defeat of these three Austrian armies, the Austrian force was reduced by the middle of September to half a million men, struggling for their lives in morasses and besieged fortresses against the victorious troops of Russia. The fortress of Przemsyl alone resisted the Russians for months but was finally forced to surrender on March 22nd, 1915. Following up these successes the Russians pressed on to the south and during the winter of 1914 occupied the passes of the Carpathians. In the meantime the Russian army of the south had overcome Austrian resistance and had occupied nearly the whole of Bukowina.

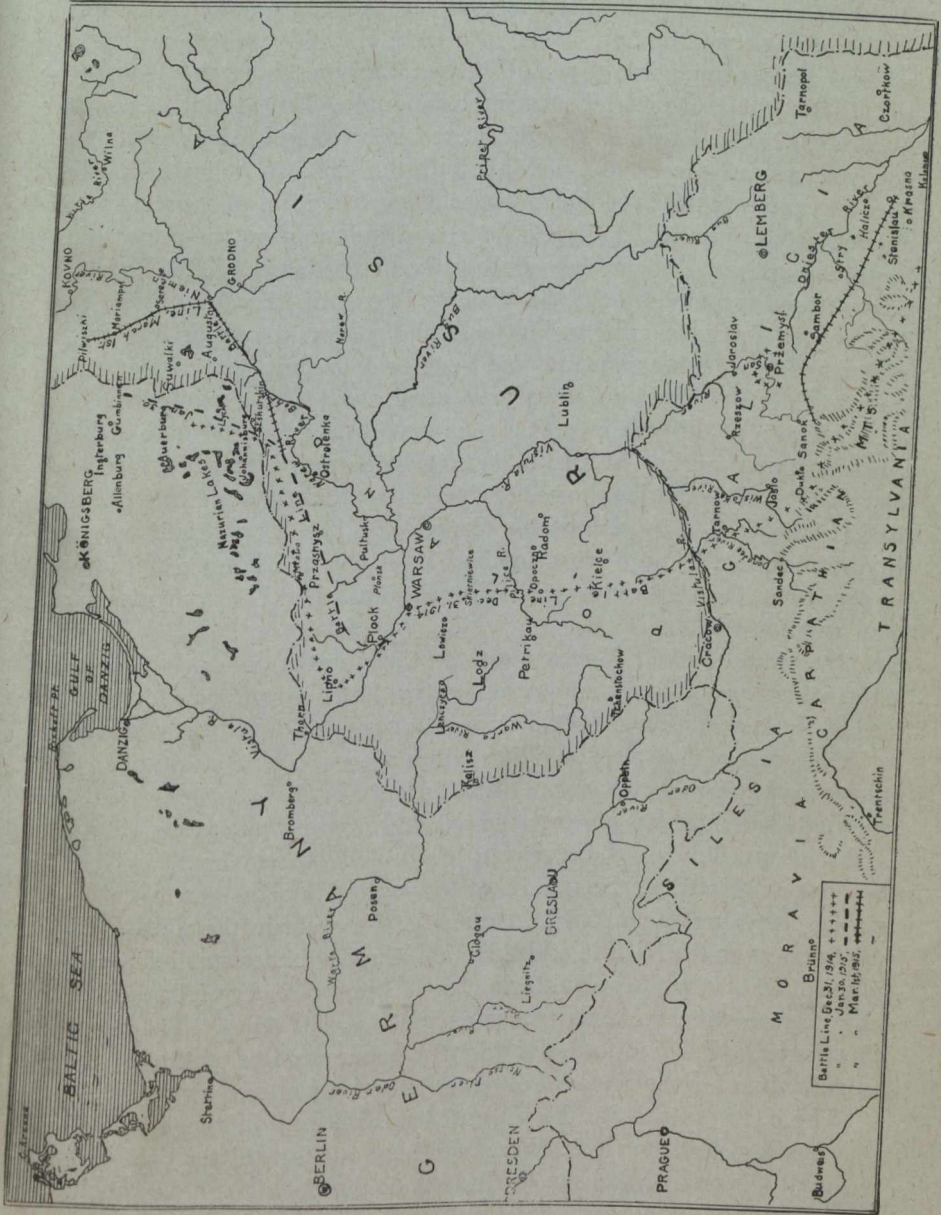
To return to the German campaign. The retreat of the Russians from East Prussia at the end of August was followed at once by a German invasion of Poland. Three armies pushed forward at this time, the one to the north advanced toward Grodno, but was defeated near Suwalki and retreated into East Prussia. The second advanced at Mlawa and the third in the south toward Kalisz. Both these were defeated and forced to retreat to the River Warthe. These armies strongly reinforced again advanced into Poland as far as the Vistula, where in the first battle of the Vistula the Germans were defeated and forced back from a point perhaps twenty miles west of Warsaw to the River Warthe again, a distance of some seventy-five miles. Reinforced again, the Germans made another drive at Warsaw, drove the Russians back to the Bzura River, winning victories at Lodz and Lowicz and reaching a point within fifteen miles of the Polish capital. The Germans, however, failed to reach the goal, the struggle moved back and forth with heavy slaughter on both sides, and when winter set in, the Germans had been driven back along their own borders.

During these first months of the war Russia had accomplished more than the most optimistic had expected. She had crumpled up the Austrian armies, occupied Bukowina and nearly all of Galicia, and had not only withstood the onslaught of the Germans but had driven them back to their own borders. In view of these successes, all looked with intense interest to another great Russian offensive when returning spring aroused the armies to renewed activity in 1915.

II. RUSSIA ON THE DEFENSIVE.

What actually happened was perhaps the most dramatic reversal of fortune which the campaign can show. So far from being the attacker, Russia became the attacked. In a second, as it seemed, the main strength of Germany descended upon her in an avalanche, the Russian offensive disappeared like smoke, the gain of nine months vanished and

the whole fortitude of the nation was centred in a desperate effort to keep the southern armies from destruction. It was a severe blow to the Allies,



for it involved the postponement of their main attack and the lengthening of the war.

During the winter months Germany had been accumulating immense

supplies of guns and material for a mighty offensive. These were assembled close to the Russian lines in Western Galicia and Poland. She seemed to have kept Russia in complete ignorance of her intentions until the mighty blow fell.

The main attack was directed against the line along the Donajetz and Biala where Dmietrieff was in command. The attack began on April 28th. The Russian trenches were blown out of existence by the heavy German guns and on May 2nd the defence collapsed. The Russians retreated to Wisloka, twenty miles to the rear. The retreat was almost a rout, guns had to be sacrificed and the troops in the Carpathian foothills extricated themselves only after heavy losses. The Russians having been reinforced held the Wisloka line until May 7th, when Von Mackensen forced a crossing at Jaslo and a second retreat had to be undertaken. The Russian line had been broken and there was extreme danger that the army in the Carpathians would be surrounded. By exercising great skill the retreat was effected to the San, but not without the loss of many prisoners. In two weeks Dmietrieff's force had retreated eighty-five miles and lost heavily in prisoners and material, but this loss had been exceeded by Brusiloff's troops who had to cut their way out of the foothills. The retreat to the San marks the closing of the first stage of the German drive, when the Russians had been surprised and had run for shelter.

The Grand Duke had now mastered the situation, and while he knew that a further retreat would be necessary, he could prepare for it in an orderly manner. The Russians were not prepared in heavy guns and other necessary material to hold the lines against such a storm of shell as the Germans could rain upon them. Henceforth the retreat would be conducted as slowly as possible and with the greatest loss to the attackers, and without allowing the enemy to win a decisive victory.

Just at this time, the middle of May, the Russians made two very strong counter attacks, one in the north, the other in the south. In the north between the Vistula and the Nida, the Germans were defeated with a loss of 30,000, while in Bukowina, the enemy were driven back from the Dniester to the Pruth, in places as much as 30 miles. The object in these attacks was two-fold, to inflict the maximum loss on the enemy and to gain time for the removal of supplies and guns from Przemsyl.

The battle of the San began on May 15th and on the 17th 160,000 men had crossed the river. Przemsyl held out for a little time but was entered by von Mackensen on June 2nd, the Russians having held it a little over two months. The Russians were now forced to retire to the Grodek positions which could not be attacked from the frontal because of marshes, but in a fierce battle at Rava Russka the position was turned and the key to Lemberg was won. On June 22nd Boehm-Ermolli, the

Austrian general, entered the city without opposition. It was once more in Austrian hands after nine months of Russian occupancy. It was a great achievement for von Mackensen, not only from sentiment, but because Lemberg was a great railway centre which could provide transportation for troops and supplies. With the fall of Lemberg, the reconquest of Galicia was complete.

Von Mackensen now turned his attention to the Ivangorod-Lublin-Cholm railway. By July 2nd Krasnik and Zamosc had fallen without much resistance. This brought the Austro-German army in contact with the main Russian defence. The Russians attacked the Austrian forces and in a four-day struggle captured 15,000 prisoners and many machine guns. The advance on this whole front was checked and the railway was safe for another week.

On July 14th a great attack began from the Baltic to the Bukowina. The first place to fall was Przasnysz. On the 18th the Russian lines on the Rawka and Bzura were abandoned and by July 25th the enemy had reached the Bug within 20 miles of Warsaw. The Grand Duke had now to decide upon the fate of the Polish capital. The three great fortresses of Novo Georgievsk, Ivangorod and Brest-Litovsk were still intact. Possibly the enemy might be held and Warsaw saved. The Grand Duke decided to retreat but the lines were held until the records and everything of military value was removed. On August 5th the bridges of the Vistula were blown up and the same day some German cavalry entered the city. Following the occupation of Warsaw, the enemy pressed on, endeavouring to win a decisive victory. On the 17th Kovno was captured, on the 19th Novo Georgievsk, and the 25th Brest-Litovsk.

Aided by the fleet the Germans seriously threatened Riga, but, while they have approached within a few miles of the town, the Russians hold it firmly.

Thus the year 1915, which at the beginning promised a great Russian offensive saw the greatest retreat in history. It is only now that Russia is beginning to recover. She has been endeavouring to obtain a sufficient supply of guns and ammunition to be able to strike back with some chance of success. The summer of 1916, we hope, will bring more encouraging news from the eastern theatre of war.

III. THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN AGAINST TURKEY.

With the entrance of Turkey into the war early in November, 1914, the Russians had a frontier of about a thousand miles exposed to the enemy. The Turks began an offensive by sending two armies into the trans-Caucasian province with Batum on the Black Sea and the interior fortress of Kars as their objectives. Both suffered defeat, the first at Ardahan and the other at Sari Kamish. These defeats opened the way

for a Russian advance into Turkey by way of Erzerum. This campaign has been conducted successfully. Erzerum is now in Russian hands, the Turks have been driven westward from Persia and the Russians are now pressing on toward Trebizond. The Russian fleet has been able to control the Black Sea, thus cutting off reinforcements and supplies from the Turks.

A Glossary of Military Terms*

Army Corps—A miniature army, composed of from two to three divisions, with every arm of the service represented in due proportion. When mobilised for war a British Army Corps has a strength of about 38,000 men with 152 guns; the strength of the French Army Corps varies between 34,000 and 48,000 men with 148 guns; a Russian Army Corps comprises about 42,000 men with 152 guns; a German Army Corps, 40,000 to 50,000 men with 160 guns; an Austrian Corps has about 50,000 men with 120 guns.

A *Division* is a mixed body of troops under a general officer, forming a section of an army. It numbers on mobilisation about 19,500 officers and men. A Cavalry division consists of headquarters (administrative centres with their staffs), and four brigades of three regiments each; Artillery comprising headquarters, two Royal Horse Artillery brigades, each with headquarters, and two R.H.A. batteries with brigade ammunition column; Engineers, comprising headquarters, four field-troops, a signal squadron; Transport and Supply Column, comprising headquarters, headquarters company, and four companies of the Army Service Corps; four cavalry field ambulances of two sections each.

An *Infantry Division* comprises headquarters, three infantry brigades of four battalions each, and the following divisional troops: two mounted infantry troops; Artillery, headquarters, three Field Artillery brigades, each with headquarters, three batteries, and one ammunition column; Field Artillery howitzer brigade, comprising headquarters, three batteries and ammunition columns; Heavy Artillery, one battery and ammunition column, divisional ammunition column of headquarters, and four sections; Engineers, headquarters, two field companies, and one signal company; Transport and Supply Column, headquarters, headquarters company, and four companies Army Service Corps; Transport and Supply Park, comprising headquarters, headquarters of mechanical transport and workshop, three sections (two mechanical and one horse), bakery detachment; three field ambulances of three sections each.

A *Brigade* is a group of troops under a Brigade-General, a Colonel, or Lieutenant-Colonel, and usually forming part of a Division. An Artillery Brigade has about 800 officers and men; a Cavalry Brigade, 1500 to 2000; an Infantry brigade, about 4000.

A *Battalion* is the tactical and administrative unit for infantry. It is commanded by a Lieutenant-Colonel. It has four companies of 1000 bayonets.

Army Service Corps—This corps is under the administration of the Quartermaster-General's Department, and is responsible for the transport of all Army supplies, and the supply of food, fuel, and forage. It takes charge of the bakers' and butchers' departments.

A *Regiment* is a unit consisting of two or more battalions or squadrons, commanded by a field officer, usually a Colonel. The normal composition of infantry is two battalions, but several have a larger establishment.

*From the "Dictionary of Naval and Military Terms", by C. F. Tweney.

Italy's Part in the War

[From *The School* of February, 1916]

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The Making of Modern Italy

Until the year 1848 Italy was divided into a great number of little duchies and kingdoms, of which the kingdom of Sardinia and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies were the most prominent. In that year the inhabitants of Lombardy, Venetia, Modena and Parma revolted against the Austrians who were their rulers, and drove them back to Verona. At the same time Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, declared war against Austria but after initial successes was defeated at Novara, 1849, and abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel II. Meanwhile the pope had been driven from Rome and a republic set up there under the leadership of Mazzini and Garibaldi. Rome however was captured by the French who came to assist the pope (July 1849,) and by their aid the old absolutism was re-established. But in 1859, after the war of the French and Sardinians against Austria, the latter power was forced to give up Lombardy, Romagna, Modena, Parma and Paicenza to the kingdom of Sardinia. In the same year the Sicilians, aided by Garibaldi who sailed from Genoa with a thousand volunteers, overthrew the Bourbon government in Sicily. Crossing to the main land, Garibaldi, proclaimed dictator in the name of Victor Emmanuel, defeated and scattered the forces of the Sicilian King. As a result of this successful war, all Italy was united under Victor Emmanuel, except the province of Venice and the Papal States. Venice was won by an alliance of Italy with Prussia during the war with Austria in 1866; the Italian troops took possession of Rome and the papal territory on the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war in 1870, when the French garrison was required elsewhere. Victor Emmanuel died in 1878. He was succeeded by his son Humbert I who fell by the hand of an assassin in 1900. His son the present king, Victor Emmanuel III, has always aimed to improve the relations between France and Italy.

Why Italy entered the Triple Alliance

In the year 1882 Italy entered into an alliance with Germany and with Austria, her old enemy. This alliance, which lasted till 1915 and is known as the Triple Alliance, has had a great effect on history. How did Italy come to range herself with these powers in opposition to the other countries of Europe? To answer this question

we must glance at the stand taken by the other countries of Europe while Italy was working out her own salvation. For she worked it out almost alone. England lent her a lofty patronage; Austria twice fought her; France helped her to Lombardy but interfered to prevent the acquisition of Venice and Rome; Prussia gave her Venice in 1866 but forced her to agree to a peace which deprived her of those lands for which she is fighting Austria now, the Trentino and Istria, whose population is almost wholly Italian by birth and racial sympathy. After 1870 the feeling grew in Italy that France by her actions was retarding the growth of Italy, a feeling which was intensified in 1881 when France, by agreement with Great Britain and Germany, took possession of Tunis in North Africa. Previous to this, in 1878, for their support of Turkey against Roumania and Russia, Great Britain had acquired Cyprus, and France and Great Britain were controlling Egypt. Italy had wanted territory in Africa and had picked out Tunis for herself; her entrance into the Triple Alliance was the direct and immediate result of France's acquirement of that country.

Advantages of the Alliance

The Alliance was advantageous to all three partners or they would not have made it. Bismarck's policy was to reduce the power of France; Italy would be useful as a colonial rival of France and as a naval base in the Mediterranean. Austria would not have to fear the continual agitation for the restoring of the Trentino and Istria, *Italia Irredenta*, (Italy unredeemed) and would have additional support against the Russian plans for increased influence in the Balkans. To Italy the Alliance seemed a matter of vital importance. England and France were on good terms; Russia was allied with France; Italy stood alone. With the aid of Germany, Italy could hold her own and would have a friend in case of trouble with Austria. France was feared lest she should lend her aid to restore the temporal power of the pope. In 1887 the Alliance was renewed, and Italy was guaranteed by her allies the maintenance of her rights in the Balkans and the Mediterranean. The Alliance was renewed three times more, in 1891, in 1902, and in 1912. During this time Italy secured a foothold in Africa. She was badly defeated in an attempt to conquer Abyssinia, but she afterwards acquired Somaliland and Eritrea, and, as late as 1912, secured Tripoli in a war with the Turks.

Why Italy broke away from her Allies

If it was thus to her advantage to enter the Triple Alliance, why did Italy drop out on the outbreak of the war, and denounce the treaty in May, 1915? The reasons were varied. France had come to treat Italy more favourably in commercial matters; Great

Britain had supported Italy in her struggle against the Turks; and both countries had shown a disposition, not only to acquiesce in Italy's plans in Africa, but also to support her against Austrian aggression, which was threatening the Italian command of the Adriatic. Germany was offended by Italy's campaign against the Turks in 1911; Austria and Germany used their united influence to prevent the Italian navy from attacking the Turks in Europe during the war of 1911-1912. The attitude of Austria and Germany towards the Balkan States was becoming more and more distasteful to Italy, as it began to show more clearly a grand scheme for the aggrandizement of these powers. Italy was beginning to feel that she was merely a catspaw for Teutonic imperialism.

Why Italy is at war with Austria

On the outbreak of the war all parties in Italy, whatever their domestic differences, were agreed that Italy should not associate herself, directly or indirectly with the Austro-German policy of aggression. They considered that Italy was not bound, having been consulted neither in connection with the Serbian issues nor in regard to the declaration of war. They also held the attack on Belgium to be wrong. Italy assumed therefore the principle of minimum neutrality. But as the war progressed, the Italian people sympathised more and more with the Allies. At the same time the government made an attempt to secure from Austria the lands that Italy thought should be given to her for her benevolent neutrality, the unredeemed territories of Istria and Trent. So anxious was Germany to keep Italy from going to war with Austria that a special ambassador, Count von Bülow, was sent to Rome as mediator. For a time his efforts seemed to promise success; but, after the sinking of the Lusitania, and the rejection of the Italian demands by the Austrian government, popular feeling ran so high that the "neutrals" had to give way on May 23rd, 1915, to the demand for war with Austria.

Why there is no war with Germany

Italy is at war with Austria; why not with Germany? Diplomatic relations with Germany were broken off at once, but neither Italy nor Germany has declared war against the other. It was thought that Germany would send part of her armies to help the Austrians, and that the result would of course be war. But although in the battlefields of this campaign German soldiers have been taken prisoners or found dead, they all have carried on them a document to show that the bearer had, on his own accord, left the German army and was granted leave to volunteer in the Austrian forces. Moreover, Germany was anxious that Italy should not declare war against Turkey.

Various reasons for the German attitude have been given. Germany has immense capital invested in Italy which would be jeopardised by an open breach. In Italian ports also there are large numbers of German steamers, some of them big Trans-Atlantic liners. These are liable to seizure and their loss would mean a great deal to Germany when she tries to regain her trade by sea. It has been said also that the Germans are anxious to have a friend at court when the day of peace proposals comes. At the same time, the German government may be trying to maintain their hold on those Italian politicians who still retain, though not openly, sympathy for the Teutonic cause. There are some who think there may be a secret agreement that if Germany does not join in the campaign in the Alpine front, Italy will not take part in the Balkan and Turkish campaign. Such an agreement would be dangerous for Italy in view of the projected invasion of Egypt and of the danger to Italian colonies in case of a Turkish victory.

General Questions on the War

53. "The preparedness of the Germans will redound to their eternal shame; The unpreparedness of the Allies will redound to their lasting honour"—Sarolea. Explain this statement, illustrating your answer by references to ante-bellum conditions (1) in the countries of the Allies, (2) in Germany.

54. What is the Hague Convention? When, and by whom was it signed? Give any of its articles that have not been observed during this war.

55. What are the duties and responsibilities of neutral nations?

56. Explain conscription, universal military training, voluntary enlistment, naming countries in which each method is followed.

57. Distinguish between British and German ideals of colonisation and indicate the results of these different ideals.

58. "Britain had nothing to gain from this war, only to lose." Explain; and give your own opinion of this statement.

59. Write short notes on: Sir John French, General Joffre, King Albert, Sir Edward Grey, President Poincaré, General Bernhardt, Professor Treitschke, Chancellor Lloyd George, Premier Asquith, Herr Nietzsche, Premier Botha, Lord Kitchener.

60. When, and by whom, was the neutrality of Belgium guaranteed? How was this neutrality observed (1) by France, (2) by Prussia in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870? Name any other state thus guaranteed.

61. What are (1) the duties, (2) the privileges of the "daughter-nations within the Empire", when Britain is engaged in war? Give briefly the contributions (1) in men, (2) in money, (3) in resources of the various colonies.

62. Tell what and where the following are and what they are noted for in connection with the present war: Paris, Ostend, Zeebrugge, Antwerp, Liège, Rheims, Hartlepool, Serajevo, Warsaw, Constantinople, Tsing Tau, Heligoland, Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, Wilhelmshaven, Louvain, Alsace-Lorraine.

63. What do you understand by the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente? What countries did they affect? What result had these agreements on the war?

The Work of General Botha in South Africa

[From The School of January, 1916]

A. N. SCARROW

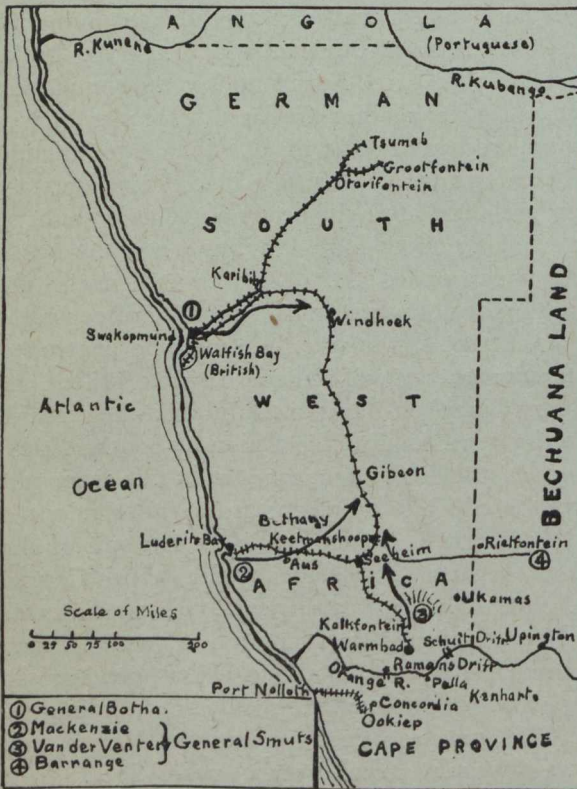
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THE work of General Botha reads like a fairy-tale, and yet the events were enacted in a world of the sternest realities of modern times. Sixteen years ago General Botha was a simple burgher living on his lonely farm at Vreyheid on the South African veldt when war broke out and he saddled his horse and shouldered his rifle to join the commando of his friend, General Lucas Meyer, against the British forces. It was not long before his ability was recognised and he obtained a commando of his own. His skill and strategy as a leader soon placed him amongst the greatest of the Boer generals and after the death of General Joubert, he was given full command of the Boer forces. Thus when the peace of Vereeniging was signed which ended the Boer war and placed the South African people on a sort of probation with a promise of complete self-government in the near future, Botha was the man who controlled the political destinies of that virile, but self-centred people. When four years later, in 1906, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman fulfilled the promise of the British and gave self-government to the Union of South Africa, General Botha was chosen as the first Premier. As if this were not enough to convince the world of the fidelity of this great leader, adopted into the British family, he was given a commission as General of the British Army and again took the oath of allegiance to the British Crown, and to the Empire he was now striving to strengthen. Thus when war broke out General Botha was not only Premier of the South African Union but was also commander of the Imperial and Union forces raised to drive back the invading enemy and to quell a rebellion of false friends.

When on August 4th, 1914, war was declared between Britain and Germany it was natural to expect an attack from German South-West Africa which lies to the north of the Cape Colony and west of British Bechuanaland. The Germans established their colony in South-West Africa in 1884, and have since done much in their own characteristic fashion to subdue the nations and strengthen the territory in a military way. The Colony lies on the west coast of Africa, extending 800 miles from north to south and from 300 to 600 miles from east to west. The area is about 320,000 square miles, as large as Germany and Italy together. It is bounded by Portuguese territory on the north and by British territory on the south and east. The population is made up of

about 100,000 natives, mainly Bushmen and Hottentots, and 15,000 German settlers. The country is largely desert with little water, though there are 30,000,000 acres of good pasture land on which the Germans have made their settlements. The minerals so far found are diamonds and copper, extensive diamond mines being discovered in 1906 in the south-east, near Lüderitz Bay. There are two German ports, Swakopmund about half way up the coast; and Lüderitz Bay, two hundred and fifty miles farther south. A few miles south of Swakopmund lies Walfish Bay, a small British territory nestling into the edge of the German colony.

In addition to these German posts on the coast there are two crossings or drifts on the Orange River leading from British to German territory Raman's Drift and Schuit Drift which give entrance at the south. The capital of the colony is Windhoek, situated far in the interior, being 200 miles east from Swakopmund. South of Windhoek and almost directly east from Lüderitz Bay is Keetmanshoop, another important town in the south east. A railway about 600 miles long runs around three sides of this rectangle, from



Swakopmund to Windhoek, then south to Keetmanshoop, and again west to Lüderitz Bay. Two other railways run north and south from this general system, one starting from Swakopmund and running far to the north east through much desert and waterless territory, the other a short line running south from Seeheim on the main line to Warmbad, about 25 miles from British territory. It is important to get a clear idea of the situation of the German ports, the capital of the colony and the railways connecting them in order to understand General Botha's campaign against the enemy.

It is estimated that, when war broke out, Germany had about 10,000 troops in the colony, 3,500 regulars, about 6,000 German settlers who had seen service against the natives, and had settled on the best of their land, and a camel corps of 500. They were well equipped with artillery and machine guns and their system of railways made military movements easy. The governor of the colony was Dr. Seitz, who, on the declaration of war, withdrew all his forces from the seaports to the capital far inland, as he had no hope of receiving assistance from Germany by sea or of being able to defend his ports against the British sea power. Before leaving he destroyed the jetty and sank the tugs in the harbour of Swakopmund. His only hope now was to arouse dissension among the Boers of South Africa and to this end he had long been in communication with certain of the malcontents of the Union, notably with Lieutenant-Colonel Maritz who had command of the British forces along the Orange River frontier. When General Botha met the Union Parliament on September 8th he informed it that Germany had begun hostilities by invading British territory.

The question of German South-West Africa had not escaped the Imperial Government which was soon in correspondence with General Botha regarding the importance of the conquest of the German colony and requesting Botha and the South African Government and people to undertake the work and thus perform "a great and urgent imperial service". After full consideration it was decided that the work should be undertaken "in the interests of South Africa as well as the Empire". The Imperial Government offered towards the cost a loan of \$7,000,000. The chief opposition came from the people along the frontier of German Africa and the western Transvaal and from the Orange River Colony. This opposition, however, largely broke down when the Germans invaded British territory. Fighting began early in September and by September 15th an expedition from Port Nolloth had driven back the enemy from the Orange River and had taken possession of Raman's Drift. On the 18th of September, a British force entered Lüderitz Bay and hoisted the Union Jack on the town hall. The wireless station had been destroyed, but otherwise the town was undamaged. The effect of this frontier fighting was to create a great enthusiasm in the Union, so that General Botha, who had agreed to take command of the troops, soon had an army of several thousand men ready to invade German territory from Port Nolloth, from the upper Orange River region, and from the coast ports. Fighting continued in the South with varying success until September 25th, when a British force was attacked at Sandfontein north of the Orange River the only watering place in that desert region, and being caught in a valley, was hemmed in and, having fought until their ammunition was gone, was forced to surrender.

This mysterious affair at Sandfontein was in some measure explained a fortnight after when it was learned that the British forces in this district were under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Maritz who had long been playing a double game with the enemy while retaining command of a British force. Suspecting the loyalty of Maritz, General Botha despatched Colonel Britz to take over his command but Maritz would not come in, and sent a challenge to General Botha, boasting that he would forthwith invade the Union unless Generals Hertzog, DeWet, Beyers, Kemp and Müller should be allowed to come and meet him. The result of the discovery of this treason was the proclamation of martial law throughout the Union and a general strengthening of the Union forces. The time had come for every man in South Africa to declare himself. Maritz was not a strong leader, but there was growing reason to believe that he was not alone in his disloyalty. His chief strength lay in his knowledge of local conditions in the great waterless frontier country. After several engagements his forces were scattered and he was wounded and driven across the German frontier on October 30th.

It was now November 1st and General Botha was forced to postpone his expedition against the enemy to deal with the growing treason at home. General Hertzog was leader of the Africander party in Parliament in opposition to the Premier but while he was opposed to the Union as establishing Imperial rather than National ideals, he seems to have been too honourable to break his oath of allegiance to the government as established. General DeWet was a pronounced reactionary who had never agreed to the peace of Vereeniging or taken the oath of allegiance to the British Sovereign. As a leader of guerilla warfare DeWet had proved in the Boer war that he had no equal, but as an organiser and disciplinarian he was a failure. He belonged to the old Boer type, stiff and narrow, with a strong vein of religious fanaticism. He was much influenced by a certain prophet, Van Rensburg by name, who suited his prophecies to local politics and thus won great influence with the Boers of the country side who knew little of modern conditions. Of this latter class DeWet's followers were chiefly made up and they, with their leader, were always deploring the changes that had taken place in modern life. General Delarey who was accidentally shot by the police on the night of 15th September while driving with Beyers, had been a trusted Boer leader and many think he was too honourable to be guilty of treason to the British cause, but unfortunately he had been keeping very questionable company. Of Beyers no good can be said. A man of education and influence, Commandant-General of the Union Defence forces, he used his power to overthrow the Government he had sworn to uphold. He did not think it beneath himself to break his military oath, or to plot with Maritz, his subordinate, against his Sovereign. Kemp and Müller

were both good soldiers, but were under the control of Beyers and when his career ended, their forces were soon scattered. We cannot follow the rebels in all of their journeyings and encounters with Botha's loyal troops; let it suffice to say that the rebellion began about October 25th and was virtually at an end when DeWet was captured on December 1st, though Beyers continued the struggle until December 8th, when he was drowned while trying to swim across the Vaal River. By the end of the year the rebellion was completely quelled and General Botha was free to give attention to his expedition against German South-West Africa. "Of the five leaders whom Maritz had named, DeWet was captured, Müller was wounded and a prisoner, Beyers was dead, Kemp was across the German border, and Herzog had never declared himself".

And what shall we say of the leader who was able to accomplish this in a short two months—to command the support of his people, who with him had lately become British subjects, to raise his forces to 30,000 men to meet rebellion at home and to carry war into the enemy's territory? Seldom, if ever, has a British statesman-soldier accomplished so great a work in so short a time and done it so well.

When at last General Botha was free to undertake the conquest of German West Africa he was not long in entering upon the task. To understand the greatness of the undertaking we must keep in mind the vast distances to be covered, the great waterless deserts to be crossed and the necessity of transporting supplies and troops from 500 to 700 miles by sea. The great barren Kalahari Desert stretches 200 miles wide along the south and east of the country separating it from the railways of the Union. We have seen that on September 18th Lüderitz Bay had been seized by our sailors, and shortly afterwards the valuable diamond mines near by. On Christmas day our troops re-occupied Walfish Bay which for a short time had been in possession of the Germans. On January 15th, 1915, sailors from the ever-active fleet took possession of Swakopmund which they found deserted but undamaged, though sown with mines.

Botha now held the two German ports and one of the two crossings of the Orange River—Roman's Drift; the other—Schuit Drift—was seized early in January and the enemy driven across the river. At the beginning of February the four principal gateways into the colony were held by the Union forces and Botha could press forward with his plan of invasion. "This was well conceived, well planned and well executed". The plan was to be an enveloping advance on Windhoek, the capital, from the coast and from the south, the railways to be cleared on the way. The forces were divided into the northern and the southern armies. The former, commanded by General Botha himself, was to assemble at Swakopmund and to march along the railway to Windhoek, while

the southern army, commanded by General Jan Christain Smuts, was given a more complicated task. This army was divided into three columns; one under Sir Duncan MacKenzie was to advance from Lüderitz Bay on the coast, the second under Colonel Van de Venter from Warmbad on the railway 25 miles from the southern border, while the third under Colonel Berrange was to cross the Kalahari Desert from Kimberley and clear the south-eastern section of the colony.

After its occupation by the British, on January 15th, Swakopmund became the centre of great activity, large stores being landed and a railway built along the few miles of coast to Walfish Bay. Early in February General Botha left Cape Town to take over the direction of operations and on February 12th he reached Swakopmund. On the 22nd his army began its march along the railway towards Windhoek. He established a base farther on and, after finding out the strength of the enemy, was ready on March 19th to advance again. The advance was made along the railway and along the highroad running south of the railway from Swakopmund to Windhoek. Colonels Britz, Alberts and Celliers led columns along these parallel roads engaging and driving the enemy back at each encounter, while Colonel Skinner with the Kimberley regiment protected the railway behind. On May 5th Botha with his main army had reached Karibib, the junction of the Tsumab line with the main line to Windhoek. By this time all serious resistance was over for the Northern army.

We must now turn our attention to General Smuts' army of the south, beginning with Sir Duncan MacKenzie's column advancing along the railway from Lüderitz Bay. On February 22nd his advance guard had reached Garub, a station seventy miles inland. His army had crossed the desert which skirts the sea coast and was approaching a more hospitable region beyond. Here too there was a plentiful supply of water and his anxiety on this score was considerably lightened. Fifteen miles beyond Garub is the important station of Aus, the principal resting place for caravans journeying from north to south. Here sand was plentiful but food and water were scarce, the enemy having filled up the bore holes and poisoned some of the wells. When the British advanced, land explosions were heard as the retreating enemy blew up the railway and yielded this naturally strong and well fortified place. On March 30th a body of our mounted infantry advanced and took possession of two important passes giving access to Aus and the whole position was at once vacated. Our men entered the place and began at once to repair the bridges and culverts which the enemy had destroyed. The railway was soon open again and a further move was possible.

In the meantime Van de Venter's column had crossed the Orange River by Schuit Drift and before the end of March had seized two or

three German Camps, containing large quantities of supplies. On April 30th he had reached Warmbad, the terminus of the southern branch of the railway, and two days later entered Kanus, a station sixty-five miles to the north. His headquarters were at Kalkfontein, twenty-five miles north of Warmbad, and here General Smuts joined him on April 11th. The enemy was found in force on the slopes of the Karras Mountains and Van de Venter divided his men into three columns to drive them out. By sending one division to the east, another to the west, and the third through the mountains he swept the district clear without meeting any opposition. On April 18th Colonel Villiers entered Seeheim where the branch joins the main line of the railway. The Germans hurriedly evacuated this junction, without even taking time to destroy the bridge which here crosses the Great Fish River.

By this time Van de Venter's column was in touch with Colonel Berrange's force, which, it will be remembered, set out from Kimberley to cross the desert. Reaching the frontier without opposition, he fought his way steadily westward to Keetmanshoop which was entered on April 20th by our men. Before General Smuts could concentrate his whole force it was necessary for MacKenzie's column from Aus to join the others, and this was done in May. The railway from Aus to Keetmanshoop was clear and MacKenzie led his column north east, across the corner of the rectangle through Bethany and Berseba, to join the railway line at Aritetis, a station seventy miles north of Keetmanshoop. Van de Venter's and MacKenzie's forces now united to drive the enemy from the railway and, though considerable loss was sustained, they rescued seventy of their own prisoners, captured seven officers and two hundred men and took the enemy's field guns and several maxims. The cutting of the railway also delivered into their hands a train, a number of transport wagons and a quantity of live-stock. Among the killed was Major Watt of the Natal Light Horse. Another severe loss sustained by MacKenzie about this time was that of Sir George Farrar, who had given great assistance to MacKenzie in crossing the desert region from the coast and then again over 120 miles between Bethany and the northern line of railway. Sir George was killed in a railway accident near Gibeon on May 18th.

We must now see how Botha's northern army is faring. On May 5th the railway junction of Karibib had been reached and occupied. From here Botha's forces advanced to Wilhelmstal from which Windhoek was almost in sight. General Myburgh was rapidly approaching the Capital and on May 10th General Botha was informed by telephone that the place was prepared to surrender. With a small escort he set out in a motor-car, entered the capital the following day and arranged the terms of capitulation with the Burgomaster. On May 12th Union

forces under Myburgh entered the town and at noon took place the historic ceremony of capitulation. The Union Jack was hoisted and the troops presented arms, after which General Botha thanked his troops for their services in an enterprise "of the utmost importance to the Empire and the Union". The valuable high-power wireless station about a mile from the town, was found intact and with its capture Germany had lost her last wireless station outside of Europe.

Botha had now to turn his attention to the line of railway to Tsumab and Grootfontein in the far north-east where the enemy's forces had gone. One column marched along the railway while others swept the country to the south-east. Again and again the enemy entrenched himself but as a result of Botha's flanking movements he was forced to withdraw. The chief characteristic of this northern expedition was the long forced marches made by the British forces, each circling farther out than the preceding, compelling the surrender of force after force of the enemy until at last near Otavifontein where the railway forks off to Grootfontein and Tsumab the Germans made their last stand. They had been driven into the wildest and most inhospitable parts of the country, where no food could be stored or water found. Moreover, the natives, with good reason, were fiercely hostile and Botha's columns were closing around them. Far to the West of the line General Myburgh and Colonel Britz were sweeping through the country and bringing in the prisoners by hundreds and on June 30th the last of our prisoners in the enemy's hands were released.

By this time Dr. Seitz, the German governor, was communicating with General Botha about a surrender, and while terms were being arranged the Union forces stood to arms ready to renew the struggle. On the stroke of time, however, the terms were accepted, and at two o'clock, July 9th, the terms were agreed to and signed by Botha, Seitz, and Colonel Francke, the commander of the enemy's troops. All the Germans surrendered unconditionally. Botha "rang up" Myburgh in that dark continent and informed him of the surrender.

At the cost of some 2,000 casualties, General Botha had captured a territory over 300,000 square miles in extent, and had brought 15,000 white folk and 100,000 natives under the rule of King George. Let Premier Asquith speak his praise: "I ask the House at this the earliest opportunity, to testify to the admiration and gratitude of the whole Empire, first to the illustrious General, who is also Prime Minister of the Union, and who has rendered such inestimable service to the Empire which he entered by adoption, and of which he has become one of the most honoured and cherished sons and to his dauntless and much enduring troops, whether of Burgher or British birth, who fought like brethren, side by side, in the cause which is equally dear to all of us—the broadening of the bonds of human liberty".

The War in Africa*

[From *The School* of February, 1916]

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THE campaign in Africa was carried on in four different districts. Beginning from the west the first colony, Togoland, is about the size of Ireland and is bounded on the one side by French Dahomey and on the other by the British Gold Coast. About 1,000,000 natives inhabit it, chiefly Hansas, and its white population numbers about 400.

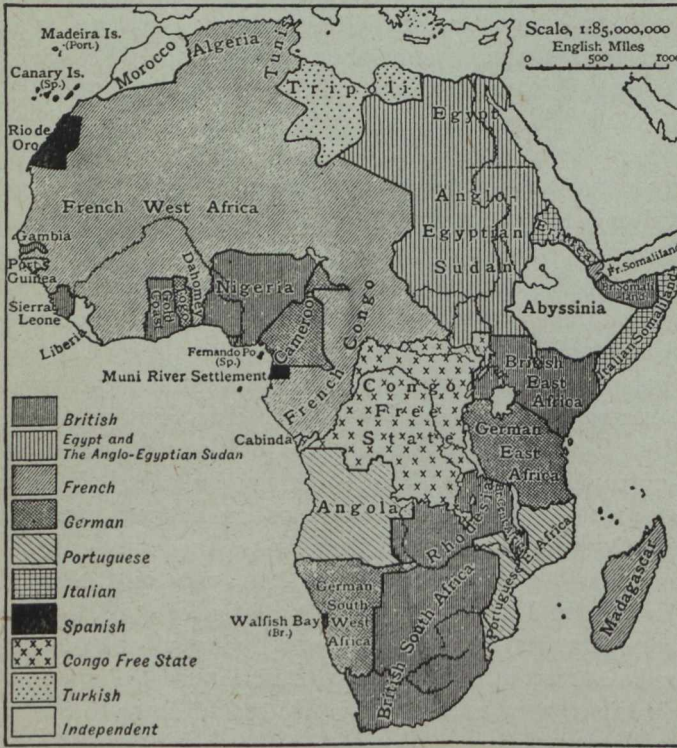
It was here that the first blow was struck early in August of 1914. The colony occupied an impossible strategic position with French and British territory enveloping it on three sides and a coast line open to the attack of British warships. Its military forces were, at the outside, 250 whites and 3,000 natives. As a result of these conditions the whole of the southern part was taken by allied forces without much real effort in the early days of August and an advance was made by Captain Bryant on Atakapane, where the enemy had made a stand. On August 27th, this town surrendered unconditionally and Togoland became a colony of the Allies. Normal trade was resumed and in two months time there was nothing to distinguish it from Dahomey and the Gold Coast.

Farther south the German Cameroons lay between British Nigeria and French Congo and extended from Lake Chad in the north to the Ubangi and Congo rivers. Its area is about one-third larger than the German Empire in Europe and its population of 3,500,000 contained 2,000 whites—the rest were Bantu and Sudanese tribes. It will be remembered also that in the trouble with France, in 1911, over Morocco, Germany obtained a long narrow strip of French Congo to the south and east of the Cameroons.

This colony presented a much more difficult problem than Togoland. It too was practically hemmed in by the Allies, but here, distance and difficulty of communication made a concerted scheme difficult. The British forces advanced from Nigeria and, it is believed, they were not sufficiently prepared. At any rate the Germans met them on August 29th and drove them back to Nigerian soil with heavy casualties. Two other expeditions entering from more westerly points in Nigeria met with the same fate, the Germans in this case crossing the frontier and occupying the Nigerian station of Okuri.

[*For an historical review of the colonial situation in Africa since 1870, read the article by G. A. Cornish on page 75 et seq.]

The French forces advanced from the south and by the aid of the fleet, the Allies captured the main port Ukoko on Corsica Bay on September 27th. The coast was then blockaded, thus cutting off supplies and recruits for the enemy. By spring both railways running up the coast were in our possession and reinforcements having arrived the process of "rounding up" the various sections of the enemy commenced. The French in the south met with little serious resistance and by June



Map of Africa, showing possessions of the different European nations in 1910. Tripoli now belongs to Italy, Morocco is a French protectorate, Cameroon now extends much further south.

From *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

25th, had taken practically all that part of the colony. The natives, on whom the Germans had depended for assistance actually rose against them and thus weakened their power of resistance.

The British in Nigeria and in the north of the Cameroons met with more stubborn opposition. In Nigeria at Gurin a stiff engagement took place against a greatly superior enemy force, who were finally driven off. Then the Allies advanced into the Cameroons and on June 11th, Garna, a German stronghold was attacked and captured. The northern part of the colony, with the exception of the small post at Mora, was now

free of the enemy. The British then marched south and, with the capture of Ngaundere on June 29th and of Tingr a few days after, penned the enemy up in the hilly country in the centre of the colony.

With the exception of a few slight engagements in which the enemy sustained a few casualties, little happened in the Cameroons till the month of November. During this time the Franco-British forces had been reorganised under Major-General Dobell, and they now pushed forward to the elevated area around Jaunde where the enemy had entrenched themselves. The important French forces were gradually closing in on the south and on November 23rd active fighting began. The enemy had made preparations to hold out until the end of the war and it was only after days of terrific fighting that Jaunde passed into the hands of the Allied forces early in December.

With the fall of this town we believe the German resistance in the Cameroons is practically broken. Nearly the whole of the large colony is now in the hands of the British and French.

Following the western coast-line past the Congo mouth and the Portuguese territory of Angola, we reach a more important colony, German South-West Africa. (For an account of the campaign in this Colony see the article on "The Work of General Botha in South Africa", by A. N. Scarrow).

The last and greatest of the German colonies is German East Africa. It is about twice the size of European Germany and has a population of 8,000,000 which includes in normal times about 5,000 whites. Its northern frontier runs from the coast south of Mombasa to the Victoria Nyanza. Going westward, it includes the eastern shores of Lakes Kivu and Tanganyika, as well as the north eastern shore of Lake Nyassa. It has Britain for its neighbour on the north and part of the west borders, while the remainder of the west is bounded by the Belgian Congo and the whole of the south by Portuguese Mozambique.

The situation in East Africa was the gravest which a British Colony had to face. British forces here were practically non-existent while the Germans to the south had an armed force of some 8,000. Luckily, for some obscure reason, Germany did little in the way of an aggressive warfare to the north during August, but contented herself with attacks on the south and west borders. Outside of a few desultory and unimportant attacks, August was without event, and early in September British reinforcements arrived from India.

By this time the Germans were commencing activities against the Uganda railway. Owing to defective maps, the first expedition sent out to cut the line lost its way and was captured. A second advance was made and engagements, adverse to the enemy, took place near and on the shores of Lake Victoria Nyanza. A third advance along the coast from

Vanga towards Mombasa was arranged. This was to be supported by the *Königsberg* from the sea, but the presence of British warships in those waters made it impossible for this programme to be carried out, and the land advance was met and defeated by an allied force on October 2nd.

A month later the allies suffered two reverses and the loss of 800 men and some guns at Tanga and Longido. By the end of December, with the Indian reinforcements to aid, our borders were cleared of the enemy and Jassin, 20 miles inside German territory, was occupied. On January 18th a German force of 2,000 attacked us here and before reinforcements could reach us, we were compelled to surrender thus losing 240 men. This was the severest disaster which we suffered, and the Germans now justly claimed their East African territory free from the enemy. However, our ships so blocked the coast for over 300 miles that the inhabitants, though strong and well-equipped, were comparable to the garrison of a beleaguered city.

There was little real activity after this reverse till spring. In March skirmishes took place near the eastern shore of Lake Victoria and, in May, between the German frontier and the Uganda railway. On May 30th, Sphinxhaven on Lake Nyassa was shelled and captured. Here a large quantity of ammunition and rifles fell into our hands. On June 25th we defeated a force of 400 at Bukoba and captured most of their artillery. During the summer more skirmishes took place along the borders of Nyassaland and north-east Rhodesia. But an event of greater importance happened on July 4th. On this date the cruiser *Königsberg* was discovered in hiding in the midst of a thick jungle in the Rufigi river. Our artillery was immediately trained on her and after a six-hour bombardment she was set on fire. The attack was continued and the vessel was finally destroyed.

No further engagements of importance have been reported from this quarter. The enemy has sent no more expeditions across the borders and is apparently content to act on the defensive. The coast has been blockaded constantly by British warships and the German supplies must be failing. A British expeditionary force has been organised in South Africa and has been on the way to the attack for some time. General Smith-Dorrien, the hero of the Marne, was placed in command of these troops on December 15th, and we feel confident that, before the war draws to a close, he will wrest from Germany her sole remaining possession on the African continent.

The War in Eastern Waters

[From *The School* of April, 1916]

N. L. MURCH, B.A.
University of Toronto Schools

ALL told, Germany owned about 100,000 square miles of territory in the Far East before the war. The greater part of this was included in Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, which lay in the northern part of the south-eastern section of New Guinea. This tract of land had a population of 500,000, three hundred of whom were Germans.

Northeast of Kaiser Wilhelm's Land lies the Bismarck Archipelago, consisting of New Pomerania, New Mecklenberg, New Lauenberg, New Hanover, Admiralty Island and some two hundred small islands. The population of all these consisted of 200,000 natives and a few hundred Chinamen and Germans.

A little to the east are the Solomon Islands of which Germany owned two, Bougainville and Buka. North of New Guinea lie three groups, the Carolines, the Pelew and the Ladrone Islands and the Marshal Islands, twenty-four in number, are a little to the east of these. Samoa was Germany's remaining possession in the South Seas. It has a population of 15,000 and 500 Europeans.

Far to the north on the China coast is situated Kiao-chau, a district 200 square miles in extent situated on a sheltered bay. Its chief town Tsing-tau, was a naval station and most of its 5,000 German inhabitants were marines. Germany had spent \$100,000,000 in developing and fortifying this possession and, on account of its fortifications and its excellent natural harbour, it was exceedingly important as a base for the German Pacific Squadron.

The initial attack was made by the Australian Squadron on the island possessions. These offered little resistance and one by one they fell into British hands till, by the end of September, only one or two little islands in the whole southern island possessions remained under German control. Early in November the Japanese occupied the Marshall Islands and the other northern groups and handed them over to Australia.

The chief episode in the eastern seas was the capture of Tsing-tau. Notwithstanding its immense fortifications a Japanese force of 23,000 aided by a British force of 1,500 accomplished this seventy-six days after war was declared. For this expedition the Japanese organised a special siege force under General Komio. This general was a competent

one and before setting out he saw to it that his force was perfectly equipped in every particular. On August 27th some small islands at the mouth of the harbour were occupied and mine-sweeping operations were commenced. On September 2nd troops were landed at the northern base of the peninsula. These advanced and, on September 13th, took the railway-station of Kiao-chau at the head of the bay. By the 27th the outer defences of Tsing-tau were captured, and at this stage the Japanese were joined by a small British force of regulars from Wei-hei-wei under General Bernardiston.

This combined force advanced steadily and on October 15th, when they were within five miles of the town, General Kamio gave an opportunity for the non-combatants to leave. The siege guns had been placed in position and a combined land and naval bombardment of the town was begun. This continued until November 6th on which date the Allies penetrated the inner line of forts. At six o'clock the following morning, to the surprise of the assailants, the enemy surrendered Tsing-tau and Germany had lost her foothold in Asia.

The early capture of this stronghold was an achievement of which Japan might well be proud. Her casualties were only 236 killed and 1,282 wounded, and those of the British were 12 killed and 61 wounded.

General Questions of the War

64. Explain what brought the following countries into the war: Russia, France, Belgium, Britain.

65. What is Canada's justification for taking part in the war?

66. How has this war shown the unity as well as the strength of the British Empire?

67. What do you understand by the following: A belligerent country, neutral country, contraband, conditional contraband, war footing, peace footing, mobilisation?

68. State what you believe to be the different ideals for which Germany and Britain, respectively, are fighting. Show that each nation is true to its national history.

69. State what you believe will be some of the effects of this war on the world.

70. Tabulate in parallel columns what you consider Britain would have gained and what she would have lost by remaining neutral in this war; what do you find to be the chief difference in character between the gains and the losses?

71. Taking into consideration the fact of Belgium's suffering, do you think it would have been better for her to have allowed Germany to pass through her territory without opposition? If you answer in the negative, give your reasons.

72. After answering the two questions immediately preceding, state what you believe to be the motives which should actuate a civilised power in her dealings with other powers.

73. If Belgium and Britain had allowed Germany to attack France from Belgian territory, consider the differences it might have made in the war; and then state which, you believe, would have been the greater losers, France and Russia on the one hand; or Belgium and Britain on the other.

The War for Primary Grades

[From *The School* of February, 1916]

HELENA V. BOOKER
Wentworth School, Hamilton

WHAT shall we say about the present war to our primary classes? We feel a great reluctance to bring so unhappy a subject before such young minds. But what do they hear at home? Many times only words of hatred, ignorant tirades, useless bragging, equally vain of purpose and harmful in their imprint on young minds. So if we speak of the war let it be with the sole purpose of teaching patriotism a love of our own country, not a hatred of our enemies—a positive, not a negative, thing. Even the youngest children will understand and appreciate the prayer for the soldiers used in England every day at the noon services. Teach them to repeat it after the Lord's Prayer in the mornings.

"O Lord, guard and bless our soldiers and sailors, and grant us victory and peace, through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen."

After this all may rise and repeat the Children's Pledge.

"I give my band, my head, my heart to my country—One King, One Empire, One Flag.—I pledge myself to do my duty always, and to love and serve my country forever."

Speak of the ways in which we can give "our hand", "our head", "our heart" to our country. Under "hand" children will all say "firing cannon", "shooting with rifles", etc., but lead them to see that not only these men, not only the makers of shot and shell at home, but the man of peace who tills his soil, raises cattle, makes clothing, builds houses, performs any of the arts of peace is also serving his country. Speak of how we can all serve in Red Cross work. Under "head" speak of the men who are the brains of the war. Kitchener is the children's best known hero. It is the men of intellect who have given their heads to their country, who are behind the man at the gun, and who must really decide the issue of the war. Speak of Lloyd George, not a fighting man, but a nation's hero nevertheless. "Our heart"—Here is the conclusion of the whole matter, for here we have the spirit, not the letter of the law. If we *love* our country our hearts will find ways of making head and hand serve faithfully. Let us try to inspire this love in the hearts of all our pupils and with this love we shall have no room for hatred of another's country. Teach patriotic songs, but choose those that are pure, inspiring, uplifting, not those that brag of "mailed fist" and revenge.

Speak of any deeds of heroism, omitting all horrors and details which are beyond the comprehension of primary pupils.

THE SCHOOL COMPETITION IN ART

Send only the Best.

Prizes (12 each month). 1st.—An eight-colour box of water colours with brush; 2nd.—A three-colour box of waters colours with brush; 3rd.—An eight-colour box of crayons.

Four sets of three prizes each will be awarded each month, commencing with November, to the three students sending the best drawing according to the requirements outlined in columns A, B, C and D. Honourable mention will be made in THE SCHOOL of all sending meritorious work.

(See opposite page for conditions).

For Public and Separate Schools.

	A. Forms I and II.	B. Forms III and IV.
NOV.	A charcoal drawing of a stalk of grain, grass or sedge.	A brush and ink drawing of fruit, or of a vegetable, including leafage and stem.
DEC.	A charcoal drawing of a simple landscape, including bare trees.	A brush and ink drawing of a fall or winter landscape in three tones of gray, and white.
JAN.	A coloured crayon design of a Christmas or New Year's card, lettered with simple capitals.	A water colour design of a New Year's calendar cover or of a Christmas programme cover with appropriate lettering in Roman capitals in black.
FEB.	A coloured crayon drawing of your most prized Christmas toy.	A pencil drawing of a boy or of a girl posed before the class.
MARCH	A design in charcoal or black crayon of a pattern of large and small spots (round or square) on a plain surface.	A pencil drawing of a dog, a cat, a rabbit, or a parrot, as posed in school or home.
APRIL	A design in charcoal or black crayon of a pattern of wide and narrow stripes on a plain surface.	A coloured crayon drawing of a small group of kitchen or garden utensils.
MAY	A coloured crayon illustration of the game you like best.	(1) A water colour drawing of a spring flower. (2) A conventionalized unit based upon the same flower and used in an all-over design.
JUNE	A coloured crayon drawing of some simple form of spring growth.	A landscape drawing or a window sketch in colour of a scene in which some person, animal or bird is the centre of interest.

CONDITIONS :

(1) The drawings must be sent fixed, flat, and with sufficient postage for return.

(2) Each drawing must have on the back the student's name, the name of the school and form, and the teacher's signature.

(3) The drawings must reach this office on or before the 5th of the month.

(4) The drawings must be original, and not copied, except where specified for the Middle School. They must be of good size.

For Collegiate Institutes, High and Continuation Schools.

	C. Lower School.	D. Middle School.
NOV.	A water-colour sketch of a spray of the daisy, clover, or golden rod, upon a graded background; or of a well-composed group consisting of a basket and fruit or vegetables.	A local autumn landscape in water colours or in coloured crayons.
DEC.	A poster, in black and white, or in colour, advertising some event of school interest. The lettering is to be in Gothic capitals.	A charcoal drawing from the cast of a hand or of a foot.
JAN.	A study in composition, colour, light and shade and perspective, as of a group consisting of an opaque jug, a transparent glass tumbler, upon an oblong tray.	A charcoal drawing of the human bust, from the cast or from life.
FEB.	A pencil drawing of an interesting street, an avenue or row of trees, or of an interior of a room or hall in home or school.	A pencil drawing of an <i>initial letter</i> and a tailpiece suitable for the decoration of an essay on the Christmas holidays.
MARCH	A design in colour, conventionalized from some native wild flower, and arranged with a geometric basis to make a curtain border.	A pencil copy of a piece of historic ornament, as a specimen of Saracenic interlacing wall ornament from the Alhambra; or a border based upon the Greek fret, or honeysuckle.
APRIL	A stencil design based upon some flower, fruit, or insect, and suitable for a wall-border in neutral tones or in colour.	A pencil copy of: (1) A Gothic mullioned window as seen in views of Melrose Abbey; or (2) A Greek fluted column with an Ionic capital.
MAY	A colour drawing from the living object, or from a mounted specimen of a robin, a bluejay, or a bluebird.	A cover design in colour suitable for a school magazine. The lettering is to be in Roman capitals.
JUNE	A water-colour sketch of some accessible bit of scenery in which a tree (apple, pine, elm, or poplar) is in the foreground with a building in the distance.	A water colour rendering of an interesting building in your neighbourhood, with its natural surroundings, e.g., school, church, public library or home.

Address—THE SCHOOL, Bloor and Spadina, Toronto.

Ontario Department of Education.

The Minister of Education directs attention to the fact that, when some years ago the Ontario Teachers' School Manuals were first introduced, Boards of School Trustees were furnished with a copy of each bound in paper, free of charge, to be placed in the School Library. For the same purpose, a copy of the "Golden Rule Books' Manual" was supplied free last September to all Public Schools, and the Manual entitled "Topics and Sub-topics" has also been supplied free to schools where there are Fifth Forms.

In future, however, the Manuals must be purchased by Boards of Trustees and others as follows:

(1) Paper-bound copies of the following Ontario Teachers' Manuals, free of postage, from the Deputy Minister, Department of Education, Toronto:

Teaching English to French-speaking pupils, 15 cents.

Manual Training, 25 cents.

Sewing, 20 cents.

(2) The revised editions of the following Ontario Teachers' Manuals, bound in cloth, from a local bookseller, or the publishers, The Copp Clark Co., Ltd., Toronto:

Primary Reader, 13 cents.

History, 14 cents.

Arithmetic, 20 cents.

The Golden Rule Books, 19 cents.

The following Ontario Normal School Manuals, bound in cloth, from a local bookseller, or the publishers, the Methodist Book and Publishing House, Toronto:

Science of Education, 32 cents.

History of Education, 29 cents.

School Management, 30 cents.

Grammar, 14 cents.

Geography, 16 cents.

Nature Study, 19 cents.

The Manual on Manners, 25 cents, from a local bookseller, or from the publishers, McClelland, Goodchild & Stewart, Toronto.

A discount of 20% off the prices of the Manuals listed under (2) above is allowed when the books are purchased from the publishers, express or postage charges being extra.

II, III, IV Readers, Public School Literature, Composition and Spelling, Household Management will be issued as soon as possible.

A copy of "The Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Public Schools" was presented to each School Library by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust. If any school has not yet received a copy, application should be made to "The Secretary, Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, Ottawa", and not to this Department. The Syllabus may be obtained by others from the publishers, The Copp Clark Co., Ltd., Toronto, 25 cents.

Toronto, February 1st, 1916.

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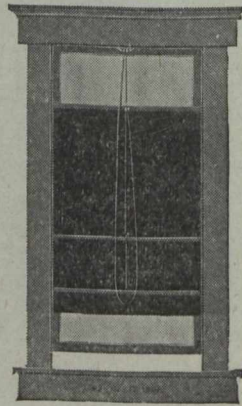
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The School

Special Features for 1916-17

English literature, history, grammar and composition for public and high schools will receive attention in special articles and lessons. A series of articles on arithmetic has been arranged.

Diary of the War. Under this heading are mentioned all the events of the present war for each day of each month. All the material necessary for teaching the war will be supplied.

Useful and practical articles on **Primary Work** will appear in every issue. At least three times as much space will be devoted to this department as in previous years. Primary English, number work, music, writing, art, constructive work, seat work, geography, physical culture, and nature study will be dealt with thoroughly. This department will be in charge of four successful primary teachers, and will surpass in practical value any material on primary work to be obtained anywhere. An article on kindergarten-primary work will appear each month.

Classics, mathematics, moderns, science, art, and all high school subjects will be dealt with by specialists in the respective departments.

Art always receives special attention. Instead of two competitions each month as last year there will be four each month (beginning with December). Two sets of prizes will be offered public school pupils (one for junior grades, one for senior) and two sets for high schools (one for lower school, one for middle school). The requirements will be so arranged as to cover the entire art course during the year.

The changes in Departmental Regulations, new and old problems in education, and all matters of general educational interest are discussed in *Editorial Notes*.

Interesting items of news of the movements of teachers, experiments and changes in the educational world are outlined under *Notes and News*.

One article each month will treat of some phase of the science of education and will be of interest to all educationists.

Nature Study for each month will be continued as in the past two years. These articles have been much appreciated.

The above list of special features covers only part of what is proposed for this year. All the departments will be continued and new ones will be added.

The School aims to help every teacher in whatever subject help is desired. Suggestions are welcomed. Questions are answered personally when postage is enclosed.

Subscriptions, \$1.25 per annum; in U.S., \$1.50.

Address **The School**,

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