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DOMINION OF CANADA
DOMINION BUREAU OF STATISTICS

HISTORY
OF THE
GREAT WAR, 1914-18

BY

Brig.-General E. A. CRUIKSHANK, LL.D., F.R.S.C.,

Director of the Historical Section, General Staff,
Department of Militia and Defence, Ottawa.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND APPENDICES

Reprinted from the CANADA YEAR BOOK, 1919



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LANDING OF THE FIRST CANADIAN DIVISION
AT ST. NAZAIRE, FRANCE, 1915

Canada Year Book, 1919

I.—HISTORY OF THE GREAT WAR, 1914-1918.

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ORIGIN OF THE WAR.



THE news of the murder of the Austrian Heir Apparent, and his wife, in the streets of Serajevo, the capital of the province of Bosnia, on June 28, 1914, came upon the world like a thunderbolt from a blue sky. Demonstrations of popular indignation and hostility to Serbia followed in Vienna and other Austrian cities. The government press in Austria and Germany at once adopted the theory that the murder was the result of a wide-spread conspiracy in that country, although the assassin declared that he alone was responsible for the deed. Three weeks of ominous silence followed. On July 23, Austria presented an ultimatum to Serbia which it was impossible for that country to accept and remain an independent state, and to which was attached a peremptory demand for its entire acceptance in forty-eight hours. Within the period named, Serbia, with Russian approval, announced her willingness to accede to all the Austrian demands except two, which she desired should be referred to the Hague Tribunal.

At noon, on July 28, Austria declared war by an open telegram, and on the following night, the Austrian batteries on the left bank of the Danube, and their gun boats in the river, began a bombardment of Belgrade, the Serbian capital. An invasion of that country followed at once.

Meanwhile, the British Foreign Secretary, Sir Edward Grey, made strenuous efforts to maintain peace. He proposed a European

conference to meet in London. France and Italy accepted without delay. The German Government replied on July 27 that it would accept mediation "in principle," reserving its right to assist Austria if attacked. On July 30, Russia ordered a general mobilization of its army. At midnight of July 31 the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg (now Petrograd) presented an ultimatum from his government, requiring Russia to begin demobilization within twelve hours, or before noon on the following day. As soon as the limit named in the ultimatum had expired, both the German and Austrian Governments ordered a general mobilization of their armies and navies, and at seven o'clock that evening Russia was informed that a state of war existed between Germany and that country. On the same day, the President of the French Republic signed a decree for general mobilization, after receiving information that Germany had presented an ultimatum to Russia, and was beginning to mobilize, thus declaring the intention of France to stand by its ally. Sir Edward Grey had already instructed the British Ambassadors at Berlin and Paris to ask whether the neutrality of Belgium, in the event of war, would be respected by Germany and France. The French Government replied promptly in the affirmative, except in the event of some other power violating that neutrality, when France might find herself compelled in self-defence to act otherwise. On August 2 the German Government required Belgium to take up an attitude of friendly neutrality by permitting German troops to pass through her territory for the invasion of France, granting a time limit of twelve hours in which to make a reply. On the night of August 1 German troops invaded Luxemburg and during the following day, overran the entire Duchy and entered French territory near Longwy. On August 3 France informed Germany that a state of war existed between them in consequence of this invasion. Next day the British Government sent an ultimatum to Germany requiring that country to respect the neutrality of Belgium, which the German chancellor had already declared it would be necessary to violate. Before this was received, the German troops had entered Belgian territory in force and attempted next day, to capture Liège, its chief industrial city, by direct assault. Having undervalued the efficiency of the garrison, they attacked in close formation and were repelled with heavy loss. On August 5, in consequence, the British Government declared the existence of a state of war between Great Britain and Germany, as having begun at eleven p.m. on the preceding day. It is worthy of remark that all belligerents sedulously abstained from making a distinct declaration of war. Italy announced its intention of remaining neutral on the ground that the war undertaken by Austria was an aggressive conflict.

For many years the governing classes in Germany had been schooled in the belief that this gigantic struggle between the great powers of Europe was inevitable and must result in "world power or downfall" for Germany. They had diligently prepared for it by taking every measure which the resources of the country would permit to increase its military and naval strength. The deepening of the Kiel canal had been accomplished. This gave the navy a safe harbour

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of refuge with outlets at once into the Baltic and the North sea. It has been aptly compared to a "fox's earth with a double entrance." The law for the immense increase of the army had not yet come into full effect, and the projected preparations for offensive warfare were not entirely completed. Every conceivable plan for the invasion of France as the most redoubtable adversary had been critically considered. There were three possible routes for this invasion: one leading directly from Germany into France was barred by a chain of great defensive fortresses, with the exception of the somewhat narrow gap of Mirécourt between Toul and Epinal. The other two passed through the neutral states of Luxemburg and Belgium. All of these were eventually to be utilized. The invasion was to take the form of a great tidal wave sweeping irresistibly across the frontier on the broadest front, and ultimately enveloping and destroying the French field army and dictating terms in the capital. Success must be gained by the utmost swiftness and ruthless energy in execution, combined with a decided numerical superiority. Owing to the great extent of the country, the incompleteness of its railway system and presumed inefficiency of its government, it was considered improbable that the mobilization of the Russian army could be effected in less than six weeks. In France, the mobilization period was two days longer than in Germany; consequently it seemed possible that the German army might overwhelm France and be in a position to turn effectively upon the Russians afterwards.

The course that would be pursued by Great Britain was a matter of vital importance to both countries. The German chancellor frankly thought it incredible that Great Britain would risk the existence of her empire for the sake of a mere "scrap of paper" as he scornfully described the treaty for the maintenance of Belgian neutrality. If Great Britain remained neutral, the superiority of the German and Austrian fleets was so great as to insure them naval supremacy. The French feared that British assistance, if given at all, would come so late as to be of small avail. The declaration of August 5 was made so promptly as to relieve them from their worst apprehensions in that respect.

OPERATIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT, 1914.

On August 6 the Germans brought up their heavy howitzers, and in the course of the day, to the amazement of the soldiers of other nations, drove the Belgians out of two of their strongest forts at Liège. Still the Belgian resistance was obstinate and the Germans lost precious time in their advance. Some of the forts held out for many days, and as long as this continued, it was impossible for them to utilize the railways to pass the city in great force, and supply their troops. This delay enabled the French and British armies to advance and meet them on the frontier between France and Belgium.

As a diversion in favour of the Belgians the first French army made a premature inroad into Alsace. A force based upon Belfort crossed the frontier and occupied Altkirch on August 7, and took possession of the large industrial city of Mulhausen next day. On the 9th, however, this force was attacked from two directions and

driven out. It was strongly reinforced and again advanced. There was hard fighting on the march, but on August 19, Mulhausen was again taken with several batteries of German field guns and many prisoners. The whole of Upper Alsace was apparently evacuated by the Germans and the French advanced to the Rhine.

The German mobilization was completed on August 14, and on August 19, the Belgian army was defeated at Louvain and driven into Antwerp. On August 20 the Germans occupied Brussels and levied a huge war contribution. Their armies, estimated at nearly a million of men, were rapidly advancing against the allied forces assembling near the Franco-Belgian frontier. The French mobilization was completed on August 17, and on the same day it was announced that a British expeditionary force, consisting of five infantry divisions and five cavalry brigades had actually landed in France. The movement of these troops, which began seven days before, had been kept a profound secret. The main body of the French army had in the first instance occupied a defensive position extending from Belfort to Mézières near the Belgian frontier, some seventy-five miles southeast of Brussels. This had recently been extended westward by the movement of French troops and the British army to a line reaching from Namur through Charleroi to Mons, the British army being on the extreme left near Mons. Another French army was placed under orders to come up on the left of the British extending the line to the fortress of Lille. It was confidently expected that the ring of forts surrounding Namur and strongly garrisoned would delay the German advance for a considerable period. The bombardment of these forts by heavy howitzers began on the morning of August 22. They were completely wrecked and surrendered on the afternoon of the 24th. The fall of this town exposed the left flank of the allied army to an enveloping movement which the Germans were not slow to undertake.

The Second French Army had forced the passes of the Vosges mountains and advanced into Lorraine. Their success in several small engagements induced them to make an ill advised attack on a strongly prepared position at Morhange which was repelled with heavy loss in men and guns. They were closely pursued across the frontier and retreated to the south of Lunéville, which was occupied by the Germans. This entailed the retreat of the First Army from Alsace, and a large portion of it was immediately sent by rail to the extreme left of the allied line to form a part of the new Sixth French Army which was being organized near Amiens. Of twenty-five army corps of the first line troops in the German army, all but four were now massed for operations in France with the intention of making a rapid and irresistible onslaught upon the allied armies, which it was intended to envelop by a double flanking movement in the hope of bringing about another and greater Sedan. August 23 was a bad day for the allies. One French army was defeated at Charleroi; another at Virton, in advance of Nancy. The Sixth French Army failed to come up on the left of the British, who had held their position near Mons with great difficulty and heavy losses. Consequently, they were compelled to retreat to avoid being turned on both flanks. Lille surrendered and

a general retreat of the whole allied left, from Verdun westward began toward Paris. On August 24, a flood of Uhlans swept through the north of France. They occupied Valenciennes, Denain and many other towns. The First German Army under General von Kluck continued its advance at top speed, trying to outflank the British in their retirement and drive them towards Maubeuge. The obvious purpose of its wide sweep westward was at once to turn the successive escarpments which form the natural defences of Paris to the eastward and envelop the opposing forces. Hot fighting took place at Landrecies on August 25, and next day at Le Cateau. The losses on both sides were severe, but the British were obliged to abandon many guns on continuing their retreat. Fighting took place that day on a front of almost one hundred miles. A very fierce assault by the Germans in the neighbourhood of Nancy was repelled with great loss. Mézières was abandoned by the French. The allied forces were pushed back all along the line on their left. On August 27 the old frontier fortress of Longwy surrendered after a bombardment of several days. Maubeuge was invested. The Germans advanced to the forest of the Argonne. The French Cabinet resigned and was replaced immediately by a stronger one, General Gallieni was appointed Governor of Paris. Arrangements were made for the removal of the French ministry to Bordeaux.

Large Russian armies had entered Eastern Prussia and Galicia, where they had gained important victories. The inhabitants were flying before them in terror. Three German army corps were promptly sent eastward by rail to oppose the invaders. The German operations in France were driven forward with furious energy and speed, regardless of losses and the exhaustion of the troops, in the hope of winning decisive victory before turning against their eastern enemy. The tired men were ruthlessly spurred onward and reminded of the military maxim that "sweat saves blood." As their mobilization was more effective than that of the allies, they still greatly outnumbered them in the decisive theatre of war, west of Verdun. The British army was again outflanked and driven from Cambrai on August 26, and from St. Quentin on the 28th. On the 29th it was directed to fall back to a selected position behind the Marne, on a line extending from Compiègne to Soissons. Amiens, Laon and Reims were abandoned. The Fifth French Army on the British right made a fierce counter-offensive at Guise with some success, but its left attack failed and the line of the Somme was abandoned. The Sixth French Army, however, was hastily forming up on the British left, but retired toward Paris. The bridges crossing the Marne and other rivers were everywhere destroyed in the retreat. On September 3, the French Government removed to Bordeaux. General Joffre advised Sir John French to retire behind the Seine which he did, and the Germans crossed the Marne. It was no longer possible for them to outflank the allied left which then rested securely on the great fortress of Paris garrisoned by half a million men. Their whole enveloping movement had therefore failed. Their losses had been very great, not only in battle but on the march, owing to the feverish haste of their movements. Their First Army which had been moving directly upon Paris, swerved

sharply to its left and marched eastward, thus presenting its right flank to an allied attack. The German line of communication extended back nearly two hundred miles through Belgium, to their own country, and the railways in many places were destroyed and bridges broken. In this perilous situation, the fateful decision was taken to withdraw six additional army corps and send them eastward for the protection of East Prussia and the support of the Austrian Army, which had been badly beaten in Galicia. After their departure, the advantage of numbers was considerably on the side of the allies.

On September 5 representatives of Great Britain, France and Russia signed an agreement binding each power not to conclude a separate peace, nor discuss conditions of peace without the consent of the others. General Joffre issued an order of the day, directing a general offensive to begin next morning. In the evening a sortie from the garrison of Verdun captured a large provision train on its way to the army of the German Crown Prince. The battle of the Marne began at sunrise on September 6, and continued for seven days. The right of the allies rested on Verdun, their left on Paris. The front of battle covered one hundred and fifty miles, and it is estimated that two and a half millions of men were engaged. By noon of the first day, von Kluck discovered the danger of his position and commenced a hurried retreat covering the movement of his columns by strong rear guards. His retirement exposed the flank of the armies on his left which in turn, were forced to retire. Maubeuge, however, surrendered on the 7th, with its garrison of forty thousand men, having endured a fierce bombardment for twelve days. The besieging force was liberated to strengthen other German armies. After retiring across the Marne, the Germans turned at bay and fought desperately to hold their ground. On September 11, the army of the Crown Prince launched a general attack on the French positions at the Grand Couronné de Nancy, which failed with great loss. On the following day, however, the Germans succeeded in taking the forts of Troyon and Camp des Romains on the Meuse and crossed that river at St. Mihiel. The German armies on their right retired across the river Aisne. Amiens, Reims, Chalons sur Marne were evacuated by them. Many prisoners and guns were lost in their retreat. The victors themselves were so amazed at their success, that it became popularly known in France as "the miracle of the Marne." Foremost among the contributory causes of the German defeat, were the physical exhaustion of their troops, the breakdown of their transport service and the withdrawal of nine army corps at the critical moment to the eastern front.

They had already prepared a strong defensive position on the plateau north of the Aisne, with its right resting on the wooded hills near Noyon, and destroyed the bridges in their front. Four lines of railways leading from Belgium were available for their supply, and another connecting these, ran from east to west, close in rear. Their operations at first were wholly defensive, but were followed later by occasional counter-attacks. The allies prolonged their line steadily to their left in the hope of turning the German position, and striking their communications. The Germans responded by a similar extension

of their lines northward, and at the end of the third week of the fighting on the Aisne, the lines held by the opposing forces reached La Bassée, within ten miles of the Belgian frontier.

Antwerp, the new seat of the Belgian Government, had been besieged by the Germans. Their bombardment began on September 28. The protecting forts were soon reduced to silence. A considerable body of British troops and marines had arrived for the assistance of the garrison, but on October 5, the situation was definitely pronounced hopeless, and the evacuation of the city began. Four days later, the Germans took possession.

A great force of cavalry followed by two newly organized German armies, began its advance on the roads leading to Dunkirk and Calais. Lille and the manufacturing towns in its vicinity were soon occupied by them without resistance. The British army had been reinforced from England, and by a strong contingent from India, which landed at Marseilles, and it was hastily moved from its position on the Aisne to a new line extending from La Bassée to Ypres. French and Belgian troops continued the line to the North Sea at Dixmude. In the middle of October, the Germans began a great attack near Ypres, making desperate efforts to force their way to Calais and Dunkirk. This lasted almost without intermission until November 5, when its failure was tacitly confessed. The allies acting on the defensive had lost one hundred thousand men while the loss of the Germans was undoubtedly much greater. At its conclusion, four millions of men faced each other in parallel lines of entrenchments, extending from the North sea to the Swiss frontier, a distance in a direct line of three hundred and fifty miles, but following the sinuous battle front, measuring more than five hundred. During the remainder of the year, these lines practically remained stationary, with little gain or loss of ground on either side.

OPERATIONS ON THE EASTERN FRONT, 1914.

The Russian advance against East Prussia and Galicia began on August 16. Two large armies were directed upon the former province. The first of these, known as the army of the Niemen, defeated a German corps in a rear guard action at Gumbinnen, and threatened Königsberg, the great frontier fortress. The other, called the army of the Narew, advanced successfully in the region of the Masurian lakes and occupied Allenstein. On August 22, General Paul von Hindenburg was placed in command of the German armies on this front. By a skilful use of railways and mechanical transport, and taking advantage of the natural features of the country he enveloped and practically annihilated the army of the Narew near Tannenberg on August 30 and 31. Having been strongly reinforced from the western front, he turned swiftly against the army of the Niemen and drove it across the frontier with heavy loss. He next invaded and overran the greater part of the province of Suwalki. The Russians took up a position behind the Niemen, which Hindenburg failed to cross. He was subsequently worsted in a series of actions near Augustowo, September 28-October 3, and forced to retire into East Prussia. Having been strongly reinforced from the west, the Germans

again advanced and captured the great industrial city of Lodz. They then marched against Warsaw but were checked before reaching that city.

The Russian invasion of Galicia was more fortunate. After some minor successes, they won a very great victory over an Austrian army near Lemberg on September 2. They drove the Austrians across the river San, captured Jaroslav, and besieged the great fortress of Przemysl. They then advanced upon Cracow. The Austrian army was heavily reinforced by Germans and the Russians retired to the line of the Vistula to protect Warsaw. Here they were attacked and succeeded in holding their ground in a battle of six days' duration, when a strong force of cavalry enveloped the German left wing and forced them to make a long and costly retreat. Early in December, the Russians renewed the siege of Przemysl and again advanced towards Cracow.

The Austrian invasions of Serbia had been repelled with severe loss and a Serbian army invaded Bosnia and besieged Serajevo. In November, the Austrian army was reinforced, drove out the Serbians and pursued them into their own country. Belgrade was bombarded and laid in ruins. On December 5, the Serbian army defeated the invaders and recaptured Belgrade on the 14th.

Montenegro declared war on Austria on August 7, and assisted the Serbians in their invasion of Bosnia. On October 31, diplomatic relations between Turkey and the Allies were broken off. Following upon a Germano-Turkish attack upon the Russian Black Sea coast, Great Britain declared war against Turkey and annexed Cyprus on November 5, and France declared war next day. A Holy War against the Allies was proclaimed by the Sultan on November 25. The allied fleet bombarded the forts at the Dardanelles. The Turks invaded the Caucasian frontier of Russia, but were almost immediately driven out. Troops from India landed at the head of the Persian Gulf, and occupied the port of Basra on November 21. The Turks were defeated by this force at Kurna on the Tigris on December 8, and the richest part of the Delta was occupied by the victorious troops.

NAVAL AND COLONIAL WARFARE, 1914.

With the entry of Great Britain into the war, the command of the seas passed into the hands of the Allies. It became no longer possible for the reservists of Germany and Austria to return from beyond the seas, and the conquest of the German colonies was an easy matter. About half of the German shipping at the declaration of war was on the high seas or in foreign and colonial ports. The destruction of German commerce and the close blockade of her ports must eventually accomplish her ruin. Her fleet, however, still commanded the Baltic and enabled her to carry on a prosperous trade with Scandinavia, and the outer world through Scandinavian ports. The main task of the British Grand Fleet in the North sea was to prevent German squadrons or single ships from reaching the Atlantic or from remaining at sea any length of time without meeting a superior British force. The first encounter of any magnitude took place in the Bight of Heligoland on August 28. Three German cruisers and two torpedo boats were destroyed.

Small German squadrons made flying raids upon the English ports on two occasions. Appearing off Yarmouth on November 3, they caused some damage, and on December 16, the ports of Scarborough, Hartlepool and Whitby were bombarded and many inhabitants killed or wounded. The German cruisers, which were then at sea, were able to inflict considerable damage on British and allied shipping. The most successful of these were the Karlsruhe, the Emden and the Koenigsberg. The Emden was finally destroyed by the Australian cruiser "Sydney" at the Cocos islands on November 9, and the Koenigsberg was bottled up in the Rufugi river in German East Africa, where she was subsequently destroyed. On November 3, a British squadron of three cruisers encountered a German squadron of much superior force off the harbour of Coronel in Chile. The German Admiral von Spee skilfully taking advantage of weather conditions, succeeded in sinking the Monmouth and Good Hope, while the third British vessel escaped. When this event became known to the Admiralty, another squadron of superior strength was secretly equipped and despatched under Admiral Sturdee in search of the victors. On the morning of December 5, the German squadron of five ships was sighted off the Falkland islands and four of them were quickly destroyed. They were gallantly fought to the last.

Several British cruisers and destroyers were sunk by submarines, and on October 27 the "Audacious," a new super-dreadnought, was sunk by a mine off the north coast of Ireland. German merchant shipping was quickly swept from the face of the ocean, being captured or interned in neutral ports.

The war against the German overseas possessions was vigorously prosecuted. The German colony in Samoa was taken by an expedition from New Zealand on August 29. The Bismarck Archipelago was captured by the Australians on September 12, and King William's Land, and Yap in the Caroline islands were occupied by them in the latter part of the same month. The colonial forces of British South Africa invaded German South West Africa. Japan declared war against Germany on August 23. In September, a Japanese army, joined by a small British force, besieged the fortress of Tsingtau which surrendered on November 7. The Marshall islands were occupied by the Japanese on October 6.

An insurrection in South Africa headed by Generals de Wet and Beyers was quickly suppressed by the colonial forces.

A Canadian expeditionary force was rapidly assembled in August, 1914, at the training camp of Valcartier, near Quebec, where it remained until transportation and a sufficient escort of ships of war could be provided late in the following month; and on October 14, this force consisting of approximately 32,000 men arrived at Plymouth. Contingents from Australia and New Zealand were transported to Egypt. A large force of British territorial troops was despatched to India, liberating an expeditionary force of British and Indian troops for service in France. The French Nineteenth Army Corps from Algeria was conveyed across the Mediterranean unmolested, and great numbers of native troops were recruited for service in the French dominions of Africa and Asia, and brought to France. Such

movements of troops would not have been practicable without absolute control of the sea.

At the end of the year, Germany had signally failed in her main purpose of destroying the French and British armies, and afterwards in a very desperate effort to reach the Channel ports. She had, however, overrun Belgium and remained in possession of a tenth of the soil of France containing its most valuable mines of coal and iron, and several of its greatest industrial towns. Austrian armies had been soundly beaten by the Russians and Serbians, and the province of Galicia had been lost.

OPERATIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT, 1915.

In January the Allies made three determined efforts to pierce the German lines in Alsace, in Champagne, and at Souchez, north of Arras. A French force crossed the Aisne near Soissons and gained a precarious foothold north of the river. The stream rose in flood during the night and carried away most of the bridges, thus isolating the force on the north side. It was attacked by greatly superior numbers on the 13th and driven across the river with heavy loss. On the morning of March 13, a formidable offensive began on the British front at Neuve Chapelle, ten miles west of Lille. The German entrenchments were levelled by a well directed artillery fire and carried by the infantry without much difficulty. The advance was continued as far as the second line, where the assaulting troops were compelled to halt through disorganization. The artillery was unable to continue its barrage from want of ammunition and the expected reinforcements did not come up. The position won was maintained and German counter-attacks were repelled with great loss. Neuve Chapelle has been aptly described as a victory that "halted half way through lack of prompt support and co-ordination." On March 14, the Germans commenced a terrific bombardment of the British lines at St. Eloi. Shortly after, they sprang an immense mine and blew up part of the British entrenchments which were then carried by assault. Next day the British counter-attacked and retook most of the lost ground. On April 17, the British sprang a mine under Hill 60, three miles south-east of Ypres, and carried the German works by assault. Fierce fighting followed during the next five days. On the evening of the 22nd the Germans discharged a great volume of poisonous gas against the French trenches north of Ypres, which was carried toward them by a favourable wind. The French African troops holding this line were surprised and became panic-stricken. A whole division was nearly destroyed in consequence. The Germans poured into the gap and began to cross the canal. At the same time, they attempted to use gas against the Third Canadian Infantry Brigade, on the French right. Here the direction of the wind was not so propitious and the Canadians firmly held their lines and repelled the attack which was renewed against the Second Canadian Brigade on the following afternoon with no better success. These assaults with gas continued intermittently until the middle of May. Within two weeks, the allied troops were supplied with gas helmets and respirators and the temporary advantage of the Germans was at an end. They had forced

the Allies to shorten their lines at Ypres, but failed to take the city and were ultimately driven back across the canal.

The month of April was also marked by a resolute effort on the part of the French to expel the Germans from their foothold across the Meuse at St. Mihiel. They made limited progress on the flanks of the German salient, but failed to carry the main position. Their losses were severe. To relieve the British and assist the Russians in their operations, General Foch began a great offensive on a front of twenty miles north of Arras on May 10. The first line of German trenches was overwhelmed by a terrific storm of shells and carried with little difficulty. The Germans were well prepared in their alternative lines of defence, and succeeded in holding their positions, although these attacks were continued with little relaxation for the next three months. The British attacked La Bassée, and gained some ground, but eventually failed again from want of artillery ammunition. On July 30, the Germans retook some trenches they had lost near Hooze by making use of flame projectors for the first time.

The Allies began a prolonged bombardment on September 1, which lasted for twenty-five days, preparatory to an advance on a wide front. The British attacked near La Bassée, and penetrated the German lines to a depth of two miles. The French gained some ground on the British right, and in Champagne pierced the German lines on a front of fifteen miles. Nearly 30,000 prisoners were taken, but the Allies failed to break the German third line. Troops were swiftly brought from the Russian front, yet subsequent counter-attacks made by the Germans in the months of October and November did not recover much of their lost ground and proved very costly. For the remainder of the year, operations on this front were of a local and unimportant nature.

OPERATIONS ON THE EASTERN FRONT, 1915.

At the beginning of the year, Warsaw was still the chief objective of the German movements. Their attacks upon the Russian positions in January and February in western Poland were generally unsuccessful. A great army was collected in East Prussia which began its advance on July 7, and drove the Russian forces across the Niemen. At the same time, a formidable Austro-German offensive started in the Carpathians with the purpose of relieving Przemysl. This force was beaten in a great battle near Halicz on March 11; Przemysl surrendered with its garrison of 120,000 men on March 22. The battle in the Carpathians continued until the middle of April when the roads became impassable by continuous rains. The German offensive was afterwards resumed by a skilful attack under the command of Field Marshal von Mackensen. After a terrific artillery preparation on May 2, the Germans succeeded in piercing the Russian positions at Gorlice and forced retreat to the line of the river San. Here the Russians were again attacked and, after a battle which lasted for two weeks, were forced to retire; and Przemysl was retaken. Another battle began for the possession of Lemberg, which was captured by the Austrians on June 22. In the middle of July, a gigantic offensive

commenced all along the eastern front. The Germans forced the passage of the Narew, and advanced against Warsaw. Libau was taken on August 1; Ivangorod fell on August 4, and Warsaw was occupied on the 5th. The Russian armies were pursued with great energy, but succeeded in effecting their retreat without suffering a decisive overthrow. The remainder of their frontier fortresses were taken in rapid succession, or evacuated, and the remnant of their troops retired beyond the river Dvina where they were rallied and received strong reinforcements. In September, they once more assumed the offensive and gained a considerable success south of the Pripet marshes.

During the whole of this period, their well organized network of military railways enabled the Germans to concentrate large masses of troops at almost any point in the theatre of war. Whole armies were conveyed rapidly by this means from front to front and flank to flank.

THE ITALIAN FRONT, 1915.

Italy declared war on Austria on May 23, 1915. Next day Italian troops invaded Austrian territory on all adjacent fronts. The cities of Trent and Trieste were their main objectives. The blockade of the Austro-Hungarian ports was taken over by the Italian navy. Owing to the great natural strength of the Austrian positions, and their careful fortification, the advance of the invaders was slow and costly. On July 25, they gained a foothold on the Carso plateau on the road to Trieste, but were subsequently obliged to retire by the overwhelming fire of the Austrian artillery. This year terminated without any further advance. The natural obstacles of a mountainous country proved well nigh insuperable and could only be overcome by immense exertions and great engineering skill. In many instances batteries, constructed at a height of nine or ten thousand feet above the sea level, were firing at targets above the clouds. An accumulation of water was usually as urgent as a supply of ammunition.

CONQUEST OF SERBIA, 1915.

In the end of September, 1915, a large German army under the command of von Mackensen was concentrated on the northern frontier of Serbia. A week later the Bulgarians definitely entered into the war as allies of the central powers. The Austro-German armies crossed the frontier on October 6 in great force. Their advance was very slow but quite irresistible. The Serbian army was driven steadily before them, and the country overrun. By the beginning of December its remnants were driven into the mountains of Montenegro and Albania, where many perished from disease and privation. French and British troops had occupied the Greek port of Salonik on October 5, and moved northward along the railway into southern Serbia, where they occupied an extensive entrenched position. Here they were attacked by the Bulgarians on December 6, and after nine days severe fighting compelled to retire to Saloniki.

CAMPAIGN AT THE DARDANELLES, 1915.

After closely blockading the entrance to these straits for some months, a powerful British and French fleet was assembled for a naval attack in February, 1915. The coast defences had meanwhile been greatly strengthened, and a powerful army assembled for their protection under the direction of German officers. The bombardment began on February 19, and was continued at intervals until the evening of March 2. Several of the forts were silenced and greatly damaged. On March 20, the attack was renewed. Three battleships of the allied squadron were sunk during the day by mines or gun fire. This was a serious reverse.

A military expedition under the command of Sir Ian Hamilton had already been organized to attack these defences in the rear. It consisted of a British, an Australian-New Zealand and a French army corps, numbering 120,000 men. A much larger force of Turkish troops, with a considerable number of German officers and soldiers had been assembled to oppose the invasion. A landing was effected on April 25, with serious losses. A limited foothold was secured on the peninsula but after most persistent efforts, the troops failed to carry the heights dominating their position. Siege operations were then undertaken, which continued in the face of insuperable difficulties until the end of the year, when the undertaking was reluctantly abandoned, and the allied troops were withdrawn, after months of incredible efforts in which they had displayed indomitable courage and tenacity.

OPERATIONS IN EGYPT AND MESOPOTAMIA, 1915.

The British garrison in Egypt had been strongly reinforced the year before. The Suez canal was fortified and guarded by strong garrisons. An advance of the Turks from Syria was repelled in the first week of February, 1915. Subsequent small raids were easily repulsed. In April the British-Indian force in Mesopotamia was reinforced by a second division, and General Sir John Nixon took command. The Turks were defeated at Shaiba on April 12, and again at Nasiriyeh on the Euphrates about ninety miles above on July 24. They were again defeated at Kut-el-Amara, on the Tigris on September 28, and closely pursued by a British division under General Townshend. They were driven from a fortified position in Ctesiphon, twenty miles from Bagdad, on November 22. Afterwards they were greatly reinforced and Townshend was obliged in turn to retire to Kut-el-Amara, where he was surrounded and besieged.

A formidable attempt of the Turks to invade Russian territory in the Caucasus was defeated. One Turkish army corps was forced to surrender and two others were entirely routed. The Russians gained ground slowly in Armenia and Persia.

CONQUEST OF GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA, 1915.

The rebellion in South Africa terminated on February 3, with the surrender of the last rebel leader. The colonial forces under the command of General Louis Botha, the premier of the Union, under-

took the invasion of German South West Africa. The principal port had already been occupied by a small British force. Two divisions of the colonial forces entered the colony and marched upon Windhoek, the capital, which was occupied on May 12. The German governor surrendered on July 9 with the remnant of his force.

NAVAL WARFARE, 1915.

At the beginning of the year only four German cruisers were still at sea. Two of these sought refuge at ports in the United States in the month of April and were interned. The Dresden, sole survivor of the battle at the Falkland islands, was overtaken by a small squadron at Juan Fernandez, on March 14, and sunk. The Karlsruhe is stated to have been destroyed by accident. The Königsberg, blockaded in the Rufigi river in German East Africa, was destroyed by two British monitors on July 11. On January 24, a German squadron, apparently on its way to attack some British port, was encountered by a British squadron of superior force about thirty miles from the coast of England. In the action which followed, the German cruiser *Blücher* was sunk and the remainder driven off in a damaged condition. The British battle cruiser, *Lion*, and the destroyer, *Meteor*, were temporarily disabled, but the losses of the crews were small. On February 4, a proclamation was issued by the German Admiralty, declaring all the waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland as a war zone after the 18th of that month, in which every hostile ship would be destroyed by their submarines. Many vessels were destroyed in pursuance of this policy, with the loss of thousands of lives. The sinking of the Cunard liner "*Lusitania*," the largest British ship in the Atlantic service, on May 7, by which 1,153 persons perished, caused a tremendous outburst of indignation in all neutral countries, as well as among the allied nations. The submarine campaign, however, absolutely failed in interrupting commerce between the British Isles and the rest of the world, or in interfering materially with the transport of troops and supplies into the several theatres of war. British submarines on the other hand succeeded in entering the Baltic and the Sea of Marmora, where many hostile vessels were destroyed by them. Allied commerce on the high seas was protected and the commerce of their enemies completely stopped.

PARTICIPATION IN THE WAR OF THE BRITISH OVERSEAS DOMINIONS AND COLONIES, 1915.

The First Canadian Division had trained at Salisbury Plain during the fall and winter, and crossed to France toward the end of February, 1915. The frontispiece to this volume facing page 1, represents the landing of the Canadian troops at St. Nazaire. They were engaged with distinction at Ypres, Festubert, Givenchy and Neuve Chapelle. Sir John French reported that at Ypres, in April, 1915, they "held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage," and that they "averted a disaster which might have been attended with the most serious consequences." (See the

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Heliotype Co., Ltd., Ottawa

R. Jack, A.R.A., pinxt.

SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES, 1915

Canada Year Book, 1919



Heliotype Co., Ltd., Ottawa

R. Jack, A.R.A., pinxt.

TAKING OF VIMY RIDGE, 1917

Canada Year Book, 1919

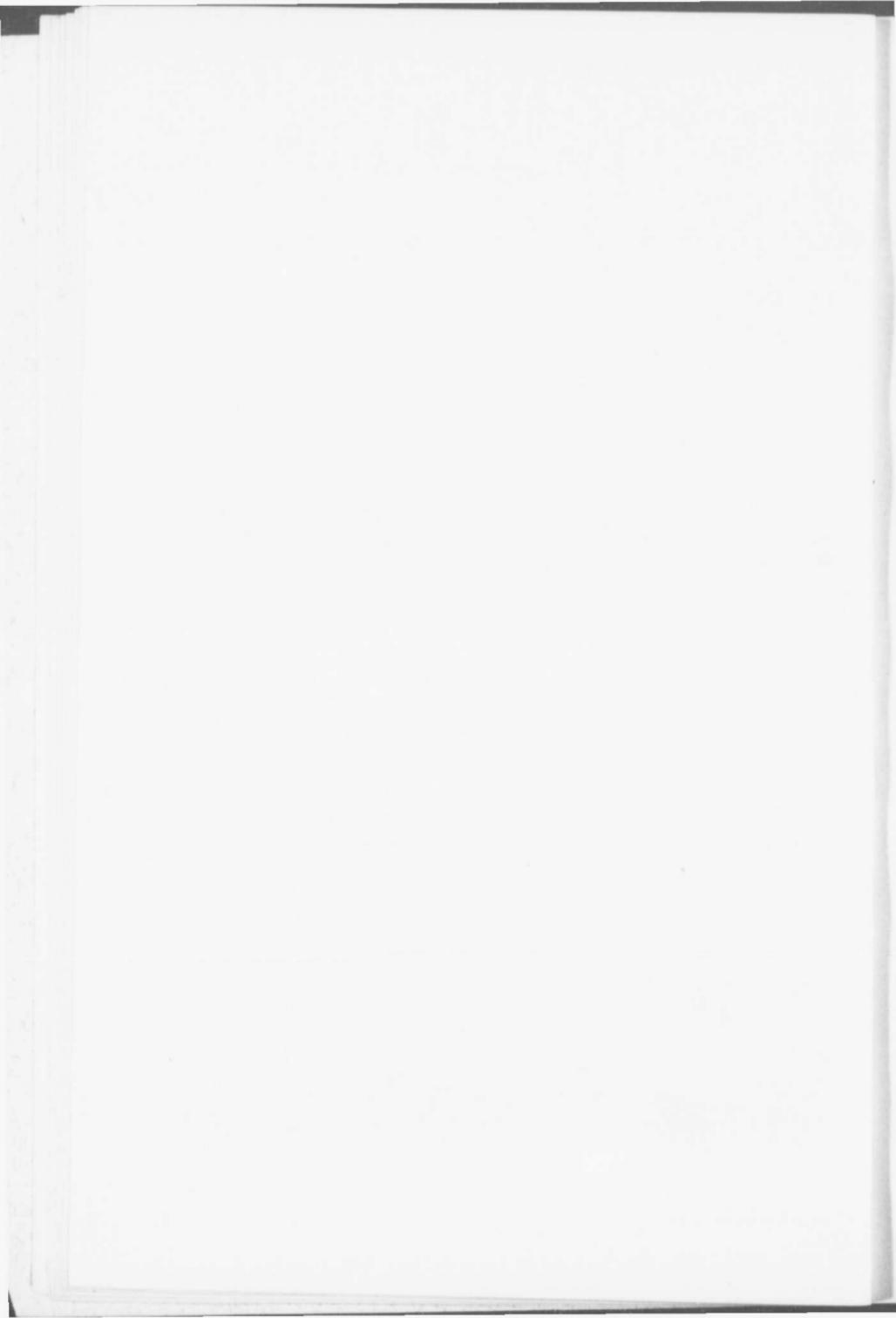


illustration facing page 10.) A second division arrived in England early in the summer, and in November a third division was organized. On September 14, a Canadian Corps of two divisions was formed in France with Lieut.-General E. H. Alderson in command. The total number of troops recruited for service in Canada by the end of the year was officially reported as amounting to 212,690. In a New Year's message published on the last day of the year, the Prime Minister stated that the military force contributed by Canada would be increased to half a million of men. Subscriptions to the various war funds were augmented by many millions of dollars.

The support afforded by Australia was equally cordial both in troops and money. At the beginning of November, it was officially stated that 92,000 men from Australia had actually been despatched to the theatre of war. At the same time New Zealand had sent 25,000 men to the front, and the Union of South Africa, besides supplying large contingents of troops for service in South, West, East and Central Africa, had furnished 6,500 men for service in Europe. Newfoundland had supplied 1,600 men for service on land besides sending many men to the navy. The British colonies in the West Indies sent two thousand men, and smaller contingents were furnished by Ceylon and Fiji.

ECONOMIC RESULTS OF THE WAR, 1915.

Early in the year 1915 it became apparent that the German authorities were seriously alarmed by the tightening of the British blockade. The entire control of provisions and all military supplies was taken by the Imperial Government, and decrees were enacted for fixing prices. All stocks of certain metals were reserved for military use. Before the end of the year, it was confessed that the scarcity of food was bearing very heavily upon the poorer classes, for whom only a sufficient supply of grain and potatoes could be provided. This difficult situation had been alleviated to a certain extent by the occupation of Belgium and the great industrial districts of northern France and Poland, with their valuable mines of coal and iron, numerous blast furnaces and textile factories. Every effort was made to turn these to the best account. It was admitted that on several occasions, the German armies had been placed in a critical situation by a shortage of artillery ammunition late in the autumn of 1914, and again in the summer of 1915.

The chief object of the campaign against Serbia was to establish an overland communication with Turkey, and obtain supplies from that source. The importation of raw materials, food stuffs and certain manufactures, and the export of her own industrial products, had become vital conditions of the economic life of Germany. Consequently, the sinister effects of the blockade were felt more and more daily as the war continued. In Austria-Hungary, a general seizure of all grain and flour was decreed on February 26, and a system of per capita distribution inaugurated in the large cities next month. The prices of food rose enormously, and in the autumn entailed great suffering upon the working classes.

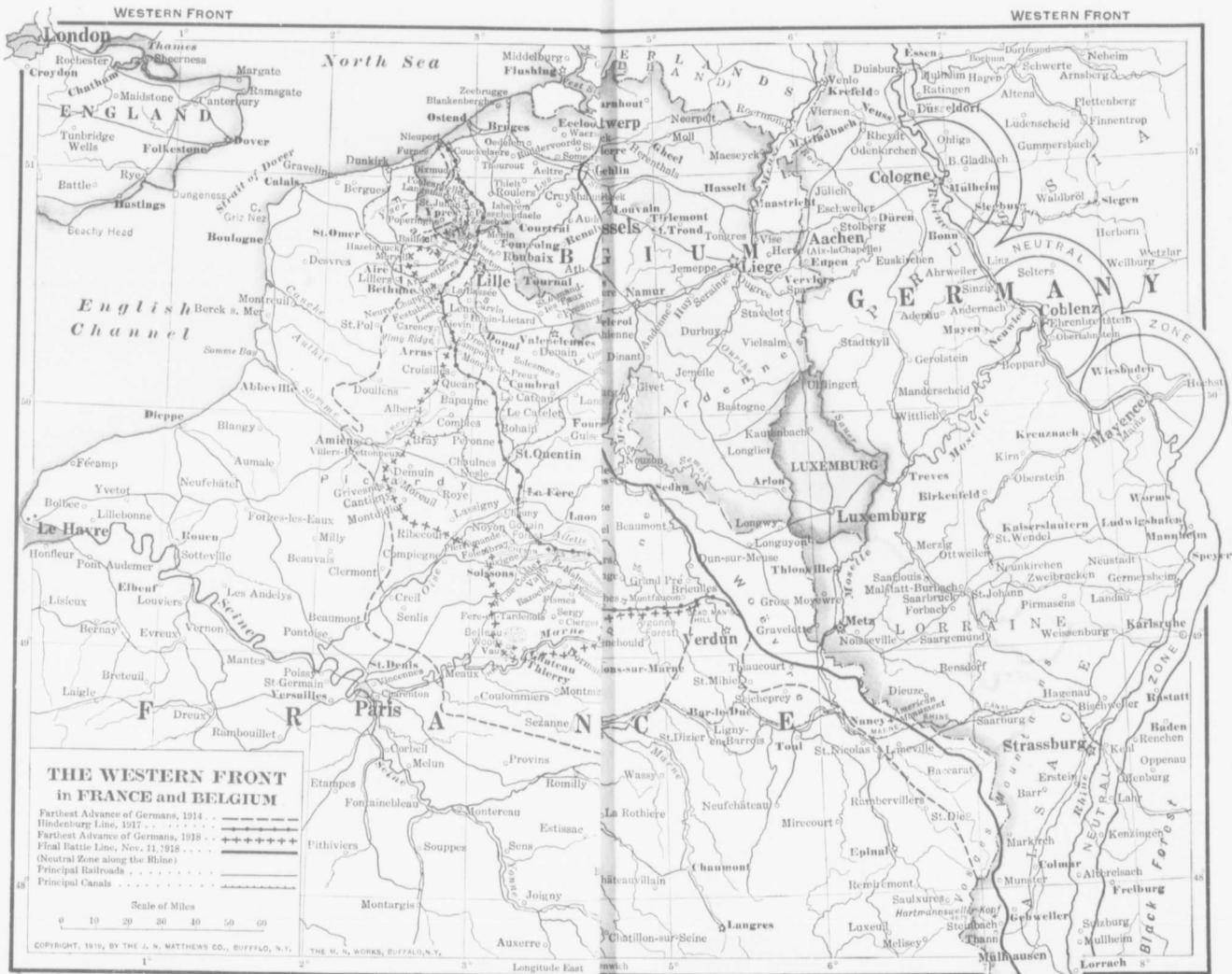
French commerce was seriously affected by the war. Exports were diminished by one half, while imports increased in value by ten per cent. Strong measures were adopted in June to increase the supply of munitions. Skilled mechanics taken from the factories on mobilization were recalled with that object. By the middle of the month 650,000 persons were engaged in producing munitions.

Imports into Great Britain greatly increased, but there was a considerable reduction in exports. A Ministry of Munitions was established in June, and a great campaign inaugurated to increase the output of shells and artillery. A Munitions Bill, which placed the government in nearly as complete control of the persons employed in work shops and ammunition factories as it had over the troops in the field, was quickly enacted.

A National Registration Bill was passed in July; in November the system of recruiting was re-organized, and before the end of the year the government reluctantly decided to adopt a modified form of conscription.

OPERATIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT, 1916.

In December, 1915, General Joffre was appointed to command all the French armies, and was succeeded by General de Castelnau in command of the French troops engaged in France. Sir Douglas Haig succeeded Sir John French in command of the British forces in France, and late in December, 1915, the Indian army corps was transferred to Mesopotamia. At the commencement of the year, the German forces were probably much outnumbered on the western front, but they held dominating positions which were not easily attacked. In the month of January, their armies on that front were heavily reinforced and resumed the offensive at several points apparently to test the strength of the allied positions and keep them in uncertainty as to their future intentions. On the morning of February 21, a tremendous artillery preparation began in the sector of Verdun, followed by a fierce infantry attack in the afternoon, which carried several of the French first line positions. Their assaults were continued on the two following days, and by the night of the 24th they had captured the whole of the first line of the French intrenchments on the right bank of the Meuse, and taken several thousand prisoners at the cost of terrible losses. The French garrison was continually reinforced, and kept well supplied with ammunition. It is stated that four thousand motor trucks were constantly employed on this service, and two hundred thousand men brought up to hold the defences. The struggle continued with a dreadful sacrifice of life on both sides, with little intermission until March 22. The fort of Douaumont, a very commanding position, was taken by the Germans, but otherwise their gains were insignificant. A lull in the fighting occurred between the 22nd and the 28th of March, when the attacks were renewed on both banks of the river, and continued until April 25. Three fortified villages which had been converted by an intense bombardment into shapeless heaps of ruins were taken, but a great final assault utterly failed, and the assailants never succeeded in really approaching the main defences of the place.



Fighting began again during the first week in May and lasted on the left bank of the Meuse, until the first of July. Fort Vaux was taken on June 6, and on June 9 one hundred thousand men were employed on a front of only three miles in a desperate assault on the heights of Thiaumont which they eventually carried. The British offensive on the Somme caused a great diversion of troops in that direction and compelled the Germans thenceforth to remain on the defensive in this sector.

The long delayed allied attack on that part of the German lines was preceded by a tremendous bombardment lasting continuously for five days on a broad front, by frequent raids at night with small parties to ascertain its results, and by successful assaults on the German aircraft. Many of their observation balloons were brought down, and allied aeroplanes bombed divisional headquarters and the principal railway stations in rear. Decisive ascendancy in the air was secured in the sector selected for the main offensive, and the concentration of troops was carried out with all possible secrecy. The British forces had been heavily reinforced and two new armies formed. A large additional frontage was taken over by them from the French on the Somme. The time for the assault was fixed for 7.30 a.m. on July 1. Sir Henry Rawlinson commanded the British troops allotted for the attack, which was made on a front of twenty miles against the Thiepval ridge, while the French attacked on an eight mile front on both sides of the river Somme, to their right, under the orders of General Foch. The British attack failed on the extreme left, owing to insufficient preparation, but the German first line was pierced on a front of sixteen miles in the face of an obstinate resistance, chiefly from machine guns concealed in positions where they could not be reached by artillery fire. The French were successful all along their front, as an attack there seems to have been somewhat unexpected. The advance was continued on July 2 and 3. On the following day, operations were delayed by heavy thunderstorms, but the French continued to gain ground. Heavy reinforcements had been received by the Germans who began violent counter-attacks upon the British.

On the 7th a division of the Prussian guard made a desperate attack on the British position near Contalmaison, which was repelled with great loss, many prisoners being taken. Fighting continued day after day with great fury, and the Germans were driven from a large portion of their second line by the end of the month. Numerous desperate struggles took place for small positions. The fighting in the month of August continued daily with slow but steady gains of ground on the part of the Allies, yet at no point did they succeed in breaking through. The artillery bombardment was continued with unprecedented energy. On some occasions, ninety thousand shells were fired within an hour by the allied guns, and in certain instances, more than a million inside of twenty-four hours. A great force of cavalry and horse artillery was held in readiness close in rear, with the intention of taking advantage of a breach in the enemy's position. A great joint attack was delivered with considerable success on a front of forty miles on September 3, in which twenty-eight allied divisions

were engaged. On September 14 and 15, the British assaulted the German positions near Courcellette, which was carried by the Second Canadian Division. Many heavy armoured landships or "Tanks" were first brought into action on this occasion with great success, and the German losses were extremely heavy, as they had massed troops for a counter attack in their front trenches. On September 26, the First Canadian Division captured the Hessian trench and other British troops carried the great Hohenzollern redoubt, noted for its elaborate system of defences and deemed impregnable. Next day they carried the Stuff redoubt and two thousand yards of adjacent trenches, and on the 28th the Schwaben redoubt which commanded the valley of the Ancre river. During the first week of October, operations were greatly impeded by heavy rains, but on the 7th the British made an advance of twelve hundred yards on an eight mile front. The French undertook a vigorous and skilfully prepared offensive near Verdun on October 24, when they recaptured Douaumont, and in a few hours regained nearly all the ground they had lost on the east side of the Meuse since the beginning of the German offensive, taking several thousand unwounded prisoners. Operations were then begun against Fort Vaux, which was evacuated by the Germans on November 2, as a result of a furious bombardment. The weather during November was highly unfavourable for operations on the entire western front owing to incessant rains which soon converted the country into a sea of mud; still on November 12, the French captured Saillisel, a strong position north of the Somme and pierced the German fourth line. Next day the British attacked on both sides of the river, favoured by a dense mist, and penetrated the German intrenchments to a depth of a mile on a front of three thousand yards, taking five thousand prisoners. Many heavy bombardments and trench raids took place during the remainder of the year without appreciable gain on either side.

After several days artillery preparation, the French executed a successful attack on the German lines east of the Meuse, near Verdun, and carried their intrenchments on a front of six miles, taking nearly twelve thousand prisoners and many guns on December 15.

The German offensive at Verdun had failed disastrously. The allied offensive had also fallen far short of the objectives in view. Both operations entailed immense sacrifices in life and enormous expenditures of ammunition.

OPERATIONS ON THE ITALIAN FRONT, 1916.

The weather prevented active operations on this front during the early months. The snow was deep, and misty weather interfered with the effective use of artillery. The rugged character of the country made supply of the opposing forces a task of extreme difficulty. Continuous preparations had been carried on by the Austrians during the winter and early spring for an offensive on a great scale in the Trentino, when the weather became favourable. In March all their main positions were fiercely bombarded to prevent reinforcements from being sent to the French front. The Austrians had brought

large bodies of men from the Russian front, and had conducted all their operations with such profound secrecy that when their principal attack commenced, the Italians were ill prepared to oppose it. On May 14 the Austrians began a violent bombardment of the Italian positions on a front of many miles. They employed upwards of two thousand guns, of which eight hundred were of very large calibre, among them forty howitzers of the largest class. The force assembled for this attack numbered 350,000. The infantry assault began on May 18, and continued to gain ground in the valleys of Adige and Brenta until June 2, when it was checked upon a new line many miles in rear. The Austrians reported the capture of thirty thousand prisoners and three hundred guns. For the next two weeks they continued to attack the new Italian positions from day to day on various parts of the line, and on one occasion along its whole front, but failed to make any important advance. Three divisions were then hastily withdrawn to oppose the Russian offensive in Galicia. On June 25, the Austrian retreat began to a selected position protected by strong rear guards, but was not effected without serious losses.

An Italian offensive had been planned to take place on the Isonzo, simultaneously with the allied attack on the Somme and the Russian invasion of Galicia, having Gorizia as its main objective. This had been postponed on account of the Austrian advance in the Trentino. The attack began on August 6, and Gorizia was taken three days later. The advance was continued successfully until August 17, when it was checked. Their offensive on this front was not resumed until October 11. Several lines of trenches were captured on that and the following day. On the Carso plateau, a further advance was made on November 1 and 2, when a portion of Austrian intrenchments was carried and many prisoners taken. Further active operations were prevented by bad weather.

OPERATIONS ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT, 1916.

At the beginning of the year the Russians still occupied a defensive line in front of their railway, extending from the gulf of Riga to the frontier of Rumania, over seven hundred miles in length. Here they repelled every attempt of the enemy to pierce their positions and reach the railway. On December 23, 1915, they commenced an offensive to divert attention from their projected operations in the Caucasus. Fierce fighting continued until the middle of January, 1916, along the Strypa and Styra rivers without any important success on either side. On March 16 the Russians advanced towards Vilna to relieve the pressure at Verdun and possibly to anticipate a German offensive in the vicinity of Riga. Little progress was made before a thaw put an end to operations at the end of the month. Another great offensive on their part began in June, with three army groups acting under the immediate direction of the Czar with General Alexieff as chief of staff. This movement opened with simultaneous attacks on selected portions of the Austrian line, south of the Pripet marshes on June 4. Both the opposing Austrian armies were forced back with heavy loss in prisoners, chiefly of discontented soldiers who

voluntarily surrendered by entire units. Lutsk was taken on June 6 and Dubno on the 8th. The Austrians were then heavily reinforced by troops from the line north of the marshes and by some German troops from Verdun and Austrians from the Trentino, who were hurried across from the other fronts by railway. The Russians reported the capture of nearly two hundred thousand prisoners and more than two hundred guns. It was believed that the principal Austrian armies had been reduced to half their former strength. The Austro-German forces commenced their counter-offensive on June 16, and continued it until the end of the first week in July, driving back the Russians for many miles. The Russians renewed their advance on July 4 with considerable success. On July 16 they again attacked and advanced on the city of Brody, which was taken on the 28th. Their other operations farther south were also successful, and they cut the railway leading from Galicia into Transylvania. On August 2 von Hindenburg was given supreme command of the Austrian and German armies on the entire eastern front, and under his able direction a vigorous effort was made to check their further progress. Indecisive fighting continued with little interruption during the remainder of that month.

On August 27 Rumania published a declaration of war upon Austria-Hungary, and made a surprise attack upon the troops guarding the passes of the mountains on the Transylvanian frontier. This step was undoubtedly accelerated by the recent Russian successes. Two days later, the Russian army of the Danube began its march southward through Rumania and crossed the Danube. On the same day Field Marshal von Hindenburg was appointed chief of staff of the German army in place of General von Falkenhayn, who took command of the Austrian and German forces assembling for operations against Rumania. The Rumanian army invaded Transylvania, and in five days advanced fifty miles. It occupied Kronstadt, the commercial capital of the province, and several other large towns. An army of Bulgarians, Germans and Turks under von Mackensen entered the Rumanian province south of the Danube, and gained a considerable success by the capture of the fortress of Turtukai and the occupation of Silistria. Mackensen was afterwards unsuccessful in a battle lasting for five days commencing on September 16, and was compelled to retire some distance. In the beginning of October the Rumanians were expelled from Transylvania, and forced to retire into their own country. On October 23 Mackensen captured Constantza, the chief Rumanian port on the Black Sea, and advanced upon the great bridge over the Danube, at Cernavoda, which was destroyed by the Rumanians. In the middle of November von Falkenhayn's army forced the mountain passes and advanced upon Bucharest. Mackensen's troops crossed the Danube and formed a junction with the army under Falkenhayn. The Rumanians were decisively defeated in a battle on the Arges river, a few miles southwest of Bucharest on December 3. That city was occupied by the Germans three days afterwards. The remnant of the Rumanian army joined the Russian troops which had entered eastern Rumania, and took up strong defensive positions along the Sereth river.

The Italians had landed two divisions in Albania in December, 1915, and advanced as far as Durazzo, which they held until February. An Austrian army invaded Montenegro in the beginning of the year, and captured Cetinje, the capital, on January 13. Ten days later they took Scutari, and advanced towards Durazzo, which was evacuated by the Italians and occupied by the Austrians on February 26.

At a conference of the Allies it had been decided that Saloniki should be retained as an indispensable base for future operations, and a strong defensive position was prepared far in advance for the protection of the city. A large part of the allied armies engaged in the Gallipoli peninsula were after its evacuation transferred to Saloniki. The remnants of the Serbian army were taken to the island of Corfu for a long period of rest and recuperation after the privations and sufferings of their terrible retreat. These troops, numbering in all upwards of 100,000 effective men, were then transported to Saloniki, to reinforce the allied armies there. The Allies began a vigorous offensive early in September on a front of one hundred and twenty-five miles, and the Bulgarians were steadily driven back in the direction of Monastir. Fighting continued with little intermission until November 19, when that town was taken by the Allies and proclaimed as the temporary capital of Serbia.

THE WAR IN THE CAUCASUS AND MESOPOTAMIA, 1916.

The Russian army in the Caucasus was strongly reinforced in December, 1915, and January, 1916. Its offensive operations were considerably hastened by the evacuation of the Gallipoli peninsula by the allied British and French armies, by which a large Turkish force would be released for service elsewhere. In the midst of severe winter weather an advance was commenced upon Erzerum, the principal Turkish fortress in Armenia. The Turkish army assembled for its protection was routed on January 18, and the fortress evacuated by the Turks on February 16. Another army supported by a fleet on the Black sea took Trebizond on April 18, and the conquest of Turkish Armenia was practically completed by the end of August.

The British division commanded by General Townshend had been besieged at Kut-el-Amara since December 3, 1915. Several determined attacks were repulsed, and the Turks then decided to reduce the garrison by starvation. A relieving column commanded by General Aylmer, after advancing a considerable distance and driving a covering force from several positions, was finally checked on April 23. On April 25 Townshend's division, which was reduced to less than 9,000 troops, was obliged to surrender.

The effective defence of the Suez canal was an object of great importance to the Allies. Garrisons had been established at posts several miles east of the canal to keep hostile forces at a distance. Some of these were unsuccessfully attacked in the early part of the year and again in August. The British troops then began a systematic advance along the coast, building a railway and constructing a pipe line for the conveyance of water as they went. A commanding position was occupied in the heart of the Sinai peninsula, and British

aircraft bombed several Turkish military posts on the frontier of Palestine.

THE WAR IN AFRICA, 1916.

Early in February a considerable German force was driven from Cameroon into Spanish Guinea, where it was interned. The conquest of the province was completed by the surrender of the last German garrison on February 18. General Smuts, in command of the British forces in German East Africa, continued his advance with success. Another British force entered that country from Rhodesia. The Germans were defeated in several small engagements, and the seat of government surrendered on September 4. At the end of the year, only about one quarter of the province still remained in the hands of the Germans.

NAVAL WARFARE, 1916.

The command of the sea had passed absolutely into the hands of the Allies. No German merchant ship ventured to make its appearance on the high seas. The German efforts to destroy the commerce of the Allies were limited to the activity of a single light cruiser and to submarine attacks. The British Grand Fleet, having its base in the magnificent harbour of Scapa Flow, encircled by the Orkney islands, kept undisputed possession of the North sea. The lesser channels into this fine sheet of water were blocked with impassable obstacles, the two large entrances guarded by batteries of heavy guns and a double barrier of steel nets provided with gates to admit the passage of ships. A ring of observation balloons constantly hovered over the islands. Many hundreds of mine sweepers and destroyers kept constant watch and ward without. From this secure lair, thronged with countless colliers, tenders, and store ships of all kinds, squadrons of cruisers, battle cruisers and battle ships attended by aircraft went forth periodically to scour the sea. Communication between all parts of the Grand Fleet was maintained by wireless telegraphy.

On the afternoon of May 31, the battle cruiser division of the fleet, under Vice-Admiral Sir David Beatty, consisting of six ships, sighted a squadron of five similar German vessels, which retired southeastward toward the main body of the German fleet, then out of sight. Beatty gave chase at once. It was about 2.30 p.m. Rather more than an hour later, the action began at a range of 18,500 yards. A few minutes afterwards a vast column of black smoke shot into the air to a great height from the "Indefatigable", the rear ship of Beatty's squadron. When it cleared away that vessel had disappeared. Only two men of its crew of nine hundred were picked up. Shortly afterwards some ships of the fifth British battle squadron came up and opened fire at a range of 20,000 yards, and the third ship in the German line was soon seen to be on fire. A little later the British battle cruiser, "Queen Mary", blew up from the explosion of her magazine, and only twenty of her crew of one thousand persons were saved. The action had continued on parallel courses for about an hour when three divisions of the German battle fleet were descried approaching. The British squadrons then stood away on a north-westerly course, which would bring them closer to the remainder of

their fleet, known to be coming up rapidly. As the surviving battle cruisers were ships of great speed, they easily ran ahead and crossed the course of the German fleet, with the intention of leaving a clear field of fire for their own battle ships and then striking in between the Germans and their base. The fifth battle squadron consequently had to sustain for some time the fire of four German cruisers and several of their battleships. One of the German cruisers however soon fell out of the line and took no further part in the battle. At 6.20 p.m., the third British battle cruiser squadron, commanded by Rear Admiral Hood, came in sight and rashly approached within 8,000 yards of the German battle ships. The "Invincible", Hood's flag ship, was soon sunk by a shell, and all but six of the crew perished. Sir John Jellicoe then appeared with the two remaining squadrons of battle ships which formed into line and chased the German fleet from the scene of action. Haze, mist, and dense artificial clouds of smoke assisted their escape as evening fell. During the night the German fleet was overtaken by British light cruisers and destroyers which attacked them fiercely and inflicted heavy losses in ships. These losses were carefully concealed at the time, and have never been accurately ascertained. The British battle ship "Marlborough" was struck by a torpedo, but succeeded in returning to port. Besides the ships already named, three armoured cruisers and eight British destroyers were sunk. Three German battle ships were seen to sink, and a fourth was subsequently added to the number on good authority. The next morning found the British fleet in undisputed possession of the scene of action, and the German fleet never afterwards ventured forth, except on one occasion, when it quickly retired again into port on the approach of its opponents.

The submarine activity of the Germans increased in vigour and ferocity. Thousands of small auxiliary vessels were employed in conjunction with the British fleet in detecting and chasing them, and many were destroyed. A French transport was sunk in the Mediterranean and upwards of 3,000 men perished. Two British battleships and one light cruiser were destroyed by mines or torpedoes, and on June 6, the cruiser "Hampshire", with Field-Marshal Earl Kitchener, the Secretary of War, and his staff on board on their way to Russia, was sunk west of the Orkney isles, and only a single petty officer and eleven seamen were saved out of the entire crew. The destruction of merchant shipping belonging to the Allies and neutral countries by mines and submarines attained serious proportions.

PARTICIPATION OF THE BRITISH OVERSEAS DOMINIONS AND COLONIES, 1916.

In Canada, an Order in Council passed on January 12, authorized an increase of the Canadian military forces to half a million. Great but fruitless efforts were made to reach that number by voluntary enlistment. An official statement published at the end of the year showed that the number of recruits obtained since the beginning of the war, up to November 30, 1916, aggregated 381,438 of all ranks and branches of the service. The volume of contributions for the different patriotic funds was doubled.

On November 11 Sir Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia and Defence, whose activity and energy had greatly stimulated recruiting and organization, tendered his resignation, at the request of the Prime Minister, as a result of serious differences of opinion in matters of administration. He was replaced by the Hon. A. E. Kemp, already a member of the Cabinet without portfolio. A National Service Board was established for the purpose of increasing enlistments without interfering with important industries. The Canadian troops in France were increased to three complete divisions and formed into an army corps under the command of Sir Julian Byng. Large contingents of Canadian Railway and Forestry troops were also sent to Europe. Many men enlisted for special service in mechanical transport and inland navigation. A Canadian cavalry brigade was formed and, with several batteries of horse artillery, was attached to the Fifteenth British Army corps. Garrisons of Canadian troops were maintained in Bermuda and Santa Lucia.

An official document, published by the Government of Australia, stated that 103,000 men had been recruited by voluntary enlistment in that Commonwealth and sent into the field, and that 100,000 more would be required to replace prospective casualties before July 1, 1917. A bill proposing conscription was submitted to a vote of the electors in October, but defeated by a small majority.

The Union of South Africa continued with success the task it had undertaken of expelling the Germans from that continent.

The troops from New Zealand in Mesopotamia and France were kept up to strength by voluntary enlistment.

Mr. Bonar Law, in a speech in September, made the statement that a larger number of men in proportion to its population had enlisted in the army and navy from Newfoundland than from any other part of the British Empire. The colony contributed, according to information furnished by the Newfoundland Department of Militia, 12,132 men out of a population of 256,290; 7,312 others volunteered their services, but were rejected.

Besides an entire army corps despatched to Mesopotamia to accomplish the relief of Kut, troops from India were sent to Egypt for the defence of the Suez canal, to East Africa, Cameroon, and southern Persia, and garrisons were furnished for Mauritius and Singapore, as well as for the defence of Aden and the new posts on the Afghan frontier. Large contributions to patriotic funds and the military services were made by native rulers and nobles.

ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF THE WAR, 1916.

The great shortage and high price of food in Austria caused serious discontent. A more stringent system of government control of provisions was established with three meatless days a week. In Germany a Food Regulation Board was appointed with extensive powers. Meat cards were made compulsory and a maximum ration of meat was established. Reports of food riots became frequent. A Munitions Department was created at the end of October, and a manpower bill enacted making all able-bodied males between the ages of eighteen and sixty subject to industrial or military service.

In France the cabinet was reorganized and the war services concentrated in the hands of a war council of five members. The post of Commander in Chief of the armies was abolished. General Joffre was appointed technical adviser to the government, but retired soon afterwards. General Nivelle was selected to command all the armies in France on December 12, and General Sarrail, in command of the army at Saloniki, was placed directly under the Minister of War. A law was passed offering bounties for the encouragement of wheat growing.

A conscription bill was passed by the parliament of Great Britain on January 24th, after a short debate. Ireland was excluded from the provisions of this bill. As a result three-quarters of a million of single men were added to the military forces.

The number of war workers had increased by July 1, 1916, to three and one-half millions, of whom 660,000 were women, and 4,000 factories, controlled by government, were producing munitions.

An economic conference of the Allied Governments was held at Paris in June, which framed many drastic proposals.

On Good Friday, April 21, a German submarine landed Sir Roger Casement, with a few companions and a small consignment of arms on the coast of Kerry, in Ireland. Casement was arrested shortly afterwards, and no body of men assembled to meet him or make use of these arms. On April 24, however, a serious insurrection took place in Dublin. Organized bodies of insurgents took possession of the post office, law courts, railway stations, and several adjacent houses. Fighting continued for several days before the rebels were subdued. Less important risings occurred at some small towns elsewhere in Ireland, which were soon put down. A number of prisoners were tried and executed by sentence of court martial. Casement was hanged in London on August 3.

The British Cabinet was re-organized in December, when the Right Hon. David Lloyd George became Premier. A war council of five members was then formed with him at its head.

On February 23, Portugal seized many German merchant ships which had remained in Portuguese ports since the beginning of the war. Four days later Germany protested against this action, and on March 9 declared war on Portugal. The Portuguese Government announced that its action had been taken "as a result of our long-standing alliance with England, an alliance that has stood unbroken the strain of five hundred years." A Portuguese force co-operated with British troops from Rhodesia in driving the Germans out of the southern portion of the German colony in East Africa. A division of Portuguese troops was despatched to France to act with the British Expeditionary Force.

OPERATIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT, 1917.

The removal of large bodies of their troops to the Russian and Rumanian fronts had been one of the contributory causes which compelled the Germans to revert to a defensive attitude in the autumn of 1916. The month of January, 1917, was mild and the ground soft with rain, interfering materially with military operations on a large scale. Minor operations continued in several portions of

the line. A new sector on the Somme salient between Bapaume and Peronne was taken over by the British, extending their front to one hundred miles. February began with remarkably cold weather, which delayed their contemplated offensive. An attack beginning on February 17, opposite Miraumont on both sides of the Ancre river, was successful. Serre, a position of some importance, was taken on February 25, and three days later the British advanced posts were within two miles of Bapaume. On March 9 Irlles near Peronne was taken with little resistance, and it became apparent that the Germans were slowly retiring in a methodical manner. Bapaume was occupied on March 16, and Peronne and Chaulnes were taken on the 18th. The German rear guards were in some degree harassed by the British cavalry, but they effectively destroyed the roads, buildings, trees, and property of all kinds as they retired. Their new line ran through Cambrai, St. Quentin, and Laon. It was twenty-five miles shorter than the old and much stronger. They had evacuated an area of six hundred square miles, including some important towns. The Canadian cavalry brigade, with three batteries of Royal Canadian Horse Artillery, attached to the Fifteenth British corps, won much distinction in this fighting. The Germans frankly announced that the chief object of their retirement was to upset the allied plans for acting on the offensive, and they carried out the devastation of the country evacuated with such systematic and ruthless thoroughness that any advance across must be very slow and difficult. The next attacks of the Allies were directed at the supporting points between which this retirement had been made. The principal objectives selected for the British Armies were Arras and Lens, while the French directed their attack upon Laon. On the morning of April 9, after two days' intense bombardment, the British delivered an attack on a front of eleven miles extending far south of Arras. The German front lines were taken with small loss. On the same day the Canadian corps attacked and carried the commanding position on Vimy Ridge near Lens, which had successfully resisted two former assaults, and was deemed impregnable by the Germans. (See the illustration facing page 10.) The defenders clung desperately to several strong points until the 11th, when the Canadians gained the summit at the north end of the ridge and advanced gradually down the eastern slope. At the same time other British troops continued their advance along the road from Bapaume towards Cambrai, driving German rear-guards before them. Another attack near Arras on April 23 also succeeded. Considerable ground was gained and 3,000 prisoners were taken.

The French carried the German positions on a front of twenty-five miles between Soissons and Reims on April 16, penetrating to a depth of two miles and taking 10,000 prisoners and many guns. They continued their advance on the two following days and repelled all counter attacks. On April 23 the British attacked on an eight-mile front between Vimy and Croisilles, and gained ground at all points, although opposed by seven German divisions. The French attack was resumed on May 4 and 5, upon the German positions along the Chemin-des-Dames, or Ladies' Road, on the high ground north of the Aisne. The town of Craonne was taken but the southern

attack failed with severe loss. Between April 9 and May 12 the Allies reported the capture of fifty thousand prisoners and four hundred and forty-four guns with nearly one thousand machine guns and many trench mortars. On May 15 General Petain, who had won renown by his successful defence of Verdun, was appointed commander in chief of the French armies in France in place of General Nivelle, who took command of a group of armies under him. General Foch, who had been in partial retirement for six months, succeeded General Petain as chief of staff. Hard fighting continued near Arras where the Germans made violent counter-attacks on the British troops. An Australian division carried the salient near Bullecourt on the night of May 9, but was partially driven out next day. The position was finally taken by them on the 17th. The change of command of the French armies encouraged the Germans to assault their newly won line along the Ladies' Road, but they failed to gain much ground, and were eventually expelled from the heights overlooking the valley of the Ailette. Early on the morning of June 7 an attack was made on the salient south of Ypres on a front of nine miles by the British.

The ridge between Messines and Wytschaete had been strongly fortified with three lines of intrenchments protected by broad belts of wire entanglements and many concrete emplacements for machine guns. Nineteen deep mines had been excavated beneath this ridge from the British trenches and loaded with many hundreds of tons of high explosives. For two weeks preceding the attack an overwhelming fire of artillery directed from aircraft had been maintained against the German works, and nearly succeeded in silencing their fire. The mines were exploded simultaneously with a concussion that was felt in London and formed craters some of which were eighty feet deep and of great width. The infantry advanced at once under cover of the smoke and carried the front line in a few minutes, then moving forward against the second line. The garrisons of the two villages continued to resist obstinately until the afternoon, but the remainder of the position was taken shortly after daylight when the assailants again pressed on and penetrated the third line. Violent counter assaults were repelled during the following night, and trenches on a two mile front were captured near Souchez. More than 7,000 prisoners and twenty guns were taken.

The Allies had secured a decided ascendancy in the air and adopted a settled policy of harassing and wearing down the German resistance by continual raids and surprise attacks on different parts of their line. A great force of British artillery was concentrated near Lens on a narrow front and a violent bombardment continued for the remainder of the month of June. Constant small gains of ground were made, but the Germans resisted stubbornly from concealed positions among the mounds of slag and refuse from the mines, which are such a striking feature of the country in that locality. The British had also taken over the sector next the coast, but a heavy bombardment seriously damaged their trenches and destroyed the bridges they had thrown across the river Yser. An attack by a superior force succeeded in overwhelming a body of troops on the further side of the river whose retreat had thus been cut off. A

sudden attack by the Canadian Corps carried the trenches on a six hundred yard front south of Lens on July 22. In the latter part of the month of July the Germans assumed the offensive on the French front along the Chemin-des-Dames, employing specially selected and trained "shock troops" who gained some ground from which they were eventually expelled. On July 31 a combined attack by French and British troops began on a front of twenty miles, preceded by a tremendous bombardment and followed by the use of gas-shells on a large scale. The German front lines were rendered untenable but their troops promptly took refuge in shell craters and prepared positions for machine guns, from which they made a desperate resistance. The greater part of their second line was carried, however, and the third line penetrated. Determined counter-attacks recovered some of the lost ground. Heavy rains then seriously interfered with further operations. Fresh gains were made by the Canadian Corps near Lens. On August 15, advancing on a front of two miles, the First and Second Canadian Divisions captured Hill 70 and gained ground in some places to a depth of two miles. Violent counter-attacks were repelled and they continued to close in upon that town, a place of great importance as a great coal-mining centre from which the Germans had extracted large supplies of fuel. Several of its suburbs were evacuated by the Germans and occupied by British advanced posts. An allied attack near Ypres, preceded by a large number of tanks, was also successful and substantial advances were made. Heavy rains inundated the low country in that vicinity in the latter part of August, and delayed further active operations. The offensive was resumed by the British near St. Julien on September 18, after a prolonged bombardment. Under the protection of a devastating curtain of fire, sweeping along in front of the advancing infantry, several strong German positions were easily taken and organized for defence. Counter-attacks on these trenches were repelled a few days later. Another offensive on a front of nine miles gained further ground in the direction of the Passchendaele ridge on October 4, and five days afterwards a joint attack with the French gained ground to the west of this point. The French resumed their offensive in the vicinity of Laon on October 23, taking fort Malmaison and several neighbouring fortified villages and quarries with eight thousand prisoners. Important artillery positions were gained here and guns brought up to them, from which an enfilading fire was directed on other German intrenchments which were abandoned a few days later when they retreated across the Ailette, destroying the bridges behind them.

Sir Julian Byng was appointed to command the Third British Army, and Sir Arthur Currie succeeded him in command of the Canadian Corps on June 9.

The Canadian Corps took over the Passchendaele sector from the Australian and New Zealand divisions which had previously held it. With the usual preparation of a violent bombardment successful assaults were made on the German positions on October 26 and 30 by the Third and Fourth Divisions, and on November 6 and 10 by the First and Second Canadian Divisions, the last of which carried

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Helotype Co., Ltd., Ottawa

Official Photograph

SURVIVORS OF THE SQUADRON OF THE FORT GARRY HORSE
RETURNING TO THE CANADIAN LINES

the high ground northeast of the village of Passchendaele. These gains were not made without desperate fighting in which the Canadian troops engaged lost nearly fifteen thousand men.

Suddenly transferring a large striking force to his right, the British general began a surprise attack on the renowned Hindenburg Line near Cambrai. Great bodies of troops were secretly moved into an advanced position by night. No preparation by an artillery bombardment or by trench raids was made. The movement of seven infantry divisions was preceded by the advance of three hundred and sixty tanks, which took place shortly after daybreak on November 21. These powerful machines tore their way through the German entanglements and crawled over their trenches before artillery fire could be successfully directed against them. They paved the way for the advance of the infantry and cleared out many machine gun positions by an enfilading fire. Two lines of German works were carried along a front of ten miles to a depth of five miles in several places. Nearly ten thousand prisoners and more than one hundred field and heavy guns were taken. Next morning the Germans recovered Bourlon Wood, the most advanced position taken by the British in the direction of Cambrai, where the trees greatly interfered with the successful operation of the tanks. On the three following days the greater part of this forest and the neighbouring village were taken by the British, but they were unable to make further progress as the enemy had brought up a superior force of artillery and infantry which eventually compelled them to abandon the village.

Two divisions of British cavalry and two brigades of Indian cavalry with many horse artillery batteries had been massed in rear of the infantry, with instructions that if the last trench line beyond the Scheldt canal between Marcoing and Masnières was carried, they were to push forward through the gap and sweep around Cambrai on both flanks. One squadron of the Fort Garry Horse actually passed the canal on a temporary bridge under machine gun fire near Masnières before it was known that the infantry had not succeeded in carrying the heights beyond. They charged and took a German field battery and came under heavy machine gun fire by which a number of officers and men were killed or wounded. It was then growing dark and they sought shelter in a sunken road until it became evident that they were unsupported. The horses were turned loose and the remnant of the squadron made their way back on foot. Lieutenant H. Strachan and forty-three other ranks succeeded in regaining their lines bringing with them a few prisoners out of a total of one hundred and twenty-three who rode off. During this retreat they were obliged to fight their way most of the time, with rifle and bayonet, dispersing several bodies of the enemy whom they encountered. For his gallantry and leadership on this occasion Lieutenant Strachan was awarded the Victoria Cross.

The remainder of the cavalry were held back and the projected dash forward was never attempted. After the failure of their last counter-attacks near Bourlon the Germans made a sudden and much more successful effort on a front of seven miles in the bend of the river between Masnières and Villers-Guislain, where it had not

been expected. Here a strongly-organized front line was weakly held and strong masses of infantry broke through on a front of three miles. They pushed rapidly forward, seized a portion of the railway and occupied the villages of Villers-Guislain, Gouzeaucourt and Gonnelleu. The British and Indian cavalry and horse artillery were brought forward in great haste and checked the German advance. The Germans made frequent desperate assaults on these troops who were soon supported by infantry and succeeded in repelling them. Gouzeaucourt and Gonnelleu were retaken, but on December 1 the British withdrew to a stronger position behind the Scheldt at Masnières. Fighting continued in this area until the middle of December without much gain or loss of ground on either side. The Germans announced the capture of six thousand prisoners and sixty guns in this offensive, and recovered about one third of the ground they had lost. On November 25 the French attacked and gained considerable ground north of Verdun. The important successes of the Austrians and Germans on the Italian frontier caused the transfer of large bodies of British and French troops to that theatre of war. Offensive operations on their part terminated in consequence, and the arrival of reinforcements for the Germans late in the year seemed to portend an attack.

THE ITALIAN FRONT, 1917.

An Italian offensive on March 3 in the Trentino resulted in small gains. They began a bombardment on a front of thirty miles in the vicinity of Gorizia on May 12. Five days' fighting ended in the capture of several strong Austrian positions with nearly 7,000 prisoners. In this operation the Italians were powerfully assisted by British heavy artillery. On May 24 they carried another series of trenches on the Carso plateau, taking nine thousand prisoners. In conclusive fighting continued for several days, but on June 5 the Austrians made successful counter-attacks south of Jamiano taking nearly ten thousand prisoners. Another Austrian attack east of Gorizia on July 14 was repelled with heavy loss, and a lull in operations followed for several weeks. The Italians began another formidable offensive on the upper Isonzo on August 19, assisted by the fire of not less than two thousand guns distributed along a front of thirty-seven miles. Taking advantage of a dense fog bridges were thrown over the river at several points and crossings effected. Many squadrons of aeroplanes numbering in all two hundred and fifty machines, flew over the Austrian lines and bombed the troops massed in reserve. The first line of trenches was carried, and in two days' fighting the Italians took thirteen thousand prisoners. Several strong positions were subsequently evacuated by the Austrians, but they obstinately retained their ground facing Gorizia. Several German and Turkish divisions then arrived to their assistance and by counter-attacks succeeded in recovering much of the lost ground. During the first and second weeks in September an extremely numerous and well organized force was concentrated for a renewal of this offensive, containing ten divisions of veteran German troops. At the same time a very subtle and successful propaganda was carried on among

disaffected troops in the Italian army. After a short but very destructive bombardment of the Italian possessions, the attack was carried out on a front of nineteen miles and the Italians were forced to retire precipitately across the Isonzo with a loss of 10,000 prisoners. The pursuit was pressed with great energy and success, and the new Italian position was outflanked and threatened with envelopment. Gorizia was retaken on October 28. The Italian armies were constantly outflanked, and they were forced out of successive strong positions in which they attempted to retard the enemy's advance. The frontier was crossed and the invaders occupied Udine on October 29, while the disorganized Italian armies retired behind the Tagliamento. This position was held for five days when their bridge-heads were destroyed by a fierce bombardment and the Austro-German troops crossed the river. The Italians fell back behind the Livenza, another parallel stream, and thence to the line of the Piave. The capture of one hundred and eighty thousand prisoners and fifteen hundred guns was announced from Berlin in these operations which became known as the battle of Caporetto.

On November 21 the Austrians gained another considerable success on the upper Piave in the vicinity of Belluno, where they cut off and captured a body of fourteen thousand Italians. General Cadorna was replaced as commander in chief by General Diaz, and a war board, composed of Generals Cadorna, Foch and Sir H. H. Wilson, was established. British and French troops speedily arrived from France bringing with them a great force of artillery, and a strong line of defence was organized behind the Piave. Repeated efforts to cross that river were repelled and some troops who had succeeded in getting over were driven back with severe loss. British gunboats destroyed bridges on the Austrian line of communication in the Piave Delta. On December 5 the German troops resumed their efforts to turn the Italian line from the north and carried several strong positions taking a considerable number of prisoners. Repeated Austrian attacks between the Brenta and Piave failed with heavy loss and although they made considerable advances on other fronts they were unable to reach the Italian plain and turn the line of the Piave.

OPERATIONS ON THE RUSSIAN AND RUMANIAN FRONTS, 1917.

General von Mackensen continued his advance driving the Russian and Rumanian forces over the Sereth and Danube with heavy losses, and captured Focsani on January 8. Other fortified positions in that vicinity were taken by his army a few days later. The Rumanian army had been practically destroyed and the country conquered.

Desultory fighting continued along the river Aa and the marshy country near Riga, during the entire month of January, and the Austro-German forces displayed considerable activity in Galicia and Volhynia.

On March 15 a despatch from Petrograd announced the fall of the Imperial Government and the substitution of a provisional revolutionary authority. A German attack on the bridge-head of

Toboly was successful on April 6; the fortress of Brody was bombarded a week later, and the Russians retired across the Styr, destroying all bridges over that stream. The Germans then suspended operations and attempted to enter into friendly relations with the Russian troops with the object of concluding a separate peace. The Russian officers found great difficulty in maintaining even a semblance of discipline. By special orders from the revolutionary government, soldiers were instructed to cease saluting their officers and to decide by voting whether they would execute the orders they received. Three generals of great distinction resigned as a protest against the interference of the Council of Workmen and Soldiers with military operations. In June, Kerensky, the new Minister of War, visited the troops at the front, and after hearing his address, they voted for a resumption of hostilities. On July 1 Russian troops began an advance from Tarnopol in the direction of Lemberg, forcing back the Austro-German army and taking many prisoners. Halicz was taken by them on July 10, but heavy rains prevented effective pursuit of the Austrian garrison who retired behind the Lomnica river. A vigorous Austro-German counter-offensive began on July 9, which was completely successful, as many regiments of Russian troops retreated without fighting or refused to obey orders. Tarnopol was captured by the Austrians on July 24, and they crossed the Serech without opposition. The Russian government restored the death penalty for desertion and took other drastic measures for re-establishing discipline. On August 3 the Russians evacuated Czernowitz and entirely withdrew from the province of Bukowina.

The Dvina was crossed by the Germans on September 2, when the Russian garrison evacuated Riga and retreated along the coast of the Baltic. The German fleet co-operated in the pursuit and much war material was taken from the retiring forces. General Korniloff, who was in command of one of the Russian armies, marched in the direction of Petrograd, with the declared intention of overthrowing the government. This movement failed and he was made prisoner. A Russian republic was proclaimed on September 14, with Kerensky as Prime Minister, but this government was overthrown on November 8, by the Bolsheviks, who had pronounced in favour of an armistice and a separate peace with Germany. Meanwhile the Germans had taken Jacobstadt on September 21, and occupied the islands at the entrance of the Gulf of Riga on October 12 and 13. The new Russian government shortly after its establishment opened negotiations with the Central Powers by requesting an armistice.

THE SERBIAN AND GREEK FRONTS, 1917.

During the early months of the year the allied fleets maintained a close blockade of the Greek ports. Military operations of slight importance were carried on in Macedonia and Serbia. The Italians gained ground in Albania and occupied the capital on June 10. Two days later the abdication of King Constantine of Greece, in favour of his second son, who had declared for the Allies, was announced. Soon afterwards Athens and other Greek cities were occupied by

allied troops. A French commission was appointed to aid in organizing and training the Greek army for active participation in the war.

THE WAR IN MESOPOTAMIA AND ASIA, 1917.

A British army corps continued its advance up the Tigris with Bagdad as an immediate objective. The Turks were compelled to abandon Kut on February 24 and were hotly pursued by the British and Indian cavalry who took many prisoners and guns. A great quantity of materials shipped from Germany for the construction of the Bagdad railway was also taken. General F. S. Maude, who had taken command of the British force in succession to Sir Percy Lake, advanced up the river with great rapidity, defeating the Turks in several rear-guard actions. Bagdad was taken on March 11, with the greater part of the Turkish artillery. At the same time a Russian force advanced westward through Persia to co-operate. The eighteenth Turkish corps was defeated by General Maude and the end of the railway line was occupied on April 23. Hot weather then made further operations almost impracticable. A division of Australian troops advancing from the Sinai peninsula entered Palestine early in March, and on April 22, had arrived in front of a strong Turkish position covering Gaza, where they remained stationary for the next two months. In the beginning of July General Sir E. H. Allenby took command of this force. Turkish cavalry were defeated near Beersheba on July 19. That place was not captured until the end of October when operations were renewed with great vigour. The Turkish position at Gaza was turned by cavalry on the night of November 7, and the British army advanced in two columns, one following the coast line of the Mediterranean, the other moving forward from Beersheba. Joppa was taken by the Australians on November 17. A Turkish position within five miles of Jerusalem was carried by assault three days later. The city was gradually invested and compelled to surrender on December 9. The moral effect of these operations upon the Mohammedan population was very great, and all danger of an attack upon the Suez canal was effectually removed.

THE WAR IN GERMAN EAST AFRICA, 1917.

A division of Indian troops landed in German East Africa on June 10, and took part in the operations in that colony during the remainder of the year. Early in December General Vandevanter commanding the British troops reported that the conquest of the colony was complete, the remnant of the German forces, having retreated into the adjacent Portuguese territory, where he was making active preparations to pursue.

NAVAL WARFARE, 1917.

The German High Seas Fleet remained at anchor under the protection of their strong defensive works at the Kiel canal. The few naval actions which took place occurred between light vessels engaged in patrolling or making raids. German submarines showed increased activity and did great damage. The policy of unrestricted submar-

ine warfare by which the Germans still hoped to secure the ultimate victory which they had not succeeded in gaining on land, was brought into effect on February 1. Ten vessels were sunk on that day. During the course of the year, one British and one Russian battleship, several British cruisers, destroyers, hospital ships, troop ships and a very large number of merchantmen were sunk by them. An immense number of small armed vessels of various descriptions was constantly engaged in detecting and hunting them down and many were destroyed, although the particulars of their actual destruction were not made public. One German surface cruiser succeeded in returning to her base after destroying several vessels. On May 12 a British squadron bombarded Zeebrugge and another bombarded the docks and harbour of Ostend on September 22. Two German destroyers were sunk on April 21 in an unsuccessful raid against Dover. A German submarine shelled Scarborough on September 4 and evaded pursuit.

THE ENTRY INTO THE WAR OF THE UNITED STATES, 1917.

The announcement by the German Government of the adoption of unrestricted submarine warfare on February 1, caused an immediate crisis in its relations with the United States. The German Ambassador was given his passports next day. All diplomatic relations were severed, and the President addressed the Congress on the situation with convincing force. On April 6 Congress formally adopted a resolution declaring the existence of war with Germany. The ports of the United States were thrown open to the allied fleets and the naval forces of the country placed upon a war footing. All interned German ships were seized. On April 14 Congress voted a war credit of seven billions of dollars and authorized loans of three billions to the allied nations. An act for raising troops by a select draft was passed and received the President's signature on May 18, by which all men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty were required to register by June 5. Arrangements were immediately made for recruiting and training a million of men and great camps for their accommodation were swiftly formed. The visit of British and French missions resulted in a declaration that a division of the regular army would be sent to France at an early date. The safe arrival of these troops was announced on June 22. Other contingents followed in rapid succession, and the movement of troops belonging to the National Guard began on October 15, and continued during the remainder of the year. Some battalions of United States infantry entered the French front-line trenches for training about the end of October. Their first casualties were reported to have occurred in an attack by German "shock-troops" on November 3.

PARTICIPATION OF THE BRITISH OVERSEAS DOMINIONS AND COLONIES, 1917.

Hitherto the four divisions of the Canadian Expeditionary Force serving in the field had been maintained at full strength by voluntary enlistment without much difficulty. Recruiting declined, and early in the year it became evident that the maintenance of the

force in the field by that means could no longer be relied on with certainty. In addition to the army corps and troops training in England, as reinforcements, several battalions of railway and forestry troops had been organized, who were employed under the orders of General Headquarters. Many British reservists living in Canada had rejoined their regiments at the beginning of the war, and a large number of Canadians had enlisted in the British Royal Flying Corps, the Royal Naval Aviation Service and the Auxiliary Motor Boat Patrol Service. A return completed to November 15, showed that the total number of persons who had joined the Canadian Expeditionary Force since the beginning of the war was 441,862. A Bill providing for compulsory military service was introduced in Parliament on June 11, and became law on August 29. It provided for raising 100,000 men, and the first drafts were to report on January 3, 1918. A war income tax was also imposed. The Ministry was reorganized as a Union Government on October 12, and a general election, held on December 17, resulted in favour of the new administration by a large majority. The contributions for patriotic purposes greatly increased during the year. The appointment of a food controller was made on June 21, and regulations were adopted for the sale and distribution of various food products. Prices for wheat were fixed to the end of the crop year, August 31, 1918. An Order in Council under the War Measures Act was passed on December 22, prohibiting the importation into Canada of intoxicating liquor on and after December 24, 1917.

The Imperial Expeditionary Forces from Australia and New Zealand were maintained by voluntary enlistment by the most strenuous efforts. Various methods of indirect pressure were adopted to promote recruiting. In Australia a single men's tax was introduced to compel single men and widowers without children of military age who had not enlisted to contribute ten per cent of their taxable income in addition to the ordinary income tax. A war profits tax was also imposed by the Federal Parliament. The Government of India maintained its expeditionary force at full strength and made a contribution of one hundred million pounds towards the cost of the war. Many of the ruling princes and chiefs gave further liberal gifts of money.

ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF THE WAR, 1917.

In Austria-Hungary the shortage of food caused extreme discontent and much suffering. In Bohemia and Hungary demonstrations by noisy crowds culminated in rioting and bloodshed.

The German Chancellor was forced to resign and with him retired the Imperial Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Prussian Minister of War. A reduction of the bread ration of the people caused bitter discontent followed by violent demonstrations. A strike of seventeen thousand workmen took place at the Krupp works at Essen and many others occurred at other industrial centres. Food riots were reported from Berlin. The chief Socialist newspaper printed a statement in December that forty millions of people were

on the verge of starvation and that a general collapse might be expected at any moment.

The French Ministry was twice reorganized, and on November 15 Dr. Georges Clemenceau became premier for a second time and succeeded in forming a strong Cabinet. The privations of the people from want of food increased but were generally endured with patience. A serious strike occurred in the large steel works at Harfleur and similar strikes on a smaller scale occurred elsewhere.

The lack of food in Italy also caused adverse criticism and discontent. The defeat of the Italian army followed by an alarming invasion of Italian territory brought about the defeat of the Ministry.

The adjustment of the supply of food to the needs of the people became the problem of chief importance in Great Britain. Stringent regulations were enforced respecting the manufacture of flour and use of sugar. Before the end of the year the control of all principal articles of food was taken over, and maximum prices fixed for most of them. The shortage of tea and sugar was severely felt.

The premiers of all overseas dominions had been invited at the end of the preceding year to attend meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet. Its first meeting was held at Westminster on March 20. All overseas dominions except Australia were represented. Fourteen meetings were held at which the overseas members were furnished with all information respecting the prosecution of the war in possession of the British Government.

The high cost of food and restrictions on personal liberty introduced under the War Measures Act caused considerable discontent and restlessness among the working classes. Little economic disturbance, however, was occasioned by strikes among workmen.

OPERATIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT, 1918.

The conclusion of an armistice with the Russian Soviet Republic on December 15, 1917, left Germany at liberty to transfer to this front a force estimated to amount to more than a million of men with artillery in proportion, and the German army there was consequently increased from one hundred and fifty divisions in November, 1917, to one hundred and ninety-six in March, 1918. A considerable numerical preponderance was accordingly regained and combined with the enormous advantage of the unified command of a homogeneous force acting upon interior and therefore shorter lines. A deficiency in the necessities of life had however produced serious discontent and suffering among the people, and the conviction was growing daily stronger that decisive success was no longer possible; still it was decided by the governing authorities to make a final desperate effort to gain a favourable decision by an offensive on a greater scale than had yet been attempted. Preparations for this were carried on with great secrecy for many weeks, by the concentration of troops in reserve positions, the accumulation of munitions and special training of "storm troops" in the new methods of attack that had recently been developed with marked success on the eastern front by General von Hutier. As the number of American troops in France was

steadily increasing, and would increase still more rapidly when spring returned, this blow must be delivered at the earliest moment that operations became practicable. The point of junction between the British and French armies was naturally selected for the main attack with the intention of separating them and driving the British armies into the restricted area north of the Somme, where they would be hampered by want of room for manœuvre. Forty divisions were brought forward by night marches with the utmost secrecy and held in positions concealed as far as practicable during daylight. Preceded by a short but very heavy bombardment and favoured by dull foggy weather, this attack began on a fifty-mile front extending from Arras to La Fère. The German soldiers had been assured that this would be the last battle and that a decisive victory would certainly bring peace. Emerging in dense masses from the fog which had screened them on leaving their reserve positions they flung themselves upon the British trenches with irresistible fury. They were preceded by a rolling barrage fire leaping forward at ten-minute intervals in which poisonous gas shells were mingled with shrapnel. The troops holding the advance positions were nearly annihilated and the few survivors easily overwhelmed by the rush of their assailants. The German infantry were accompanied with light cannon, portable trench mortars, a great number of machine guns and a few tanks of a cumbersome type. The two lines of defence, which had been so carefully prepared and were deemed practically impregnable, were soon pierced in four places. Both faces of the Cambrai salient were penetrated. The whole of the British Fifth Army was compelled to fall back, fighting desperately on all parts of their line where resistance seemed possible. The pursuit was carried on at first with tremendous energy, and many supporting batteries were taken or driven out of action. The retreating troops lost touch next day with the French on their right, and with the Third Army on their left. After being rallied on a second position several miles in rear, this line was broken and a further disorderly retreat took place. The Third Army had lost some ground on its right in the first attack. It was then obliged to retreat still further in the hope of maintaining contact with the Fifth Army, by whose hurried retreat a gap of eight miles was opened. This gap was hastily filled by an extemporized force of engineers, army service corps men and other details who took their place in the line at this critical moment. Peronne was evacuated on March 23 and Bapaume next day. The French were driven from Roye on March 27, and afterwards withdrew from Noyon, but continued to extend their line to the left in a vain effort to keep contact with the British Fifth Army. General von Hutier continued to press his advantage on the 27th by advancing more than ten miles and reaching Montdidier, an important railway junction. His onslaught had then spent its force and he was unable to gain further ground. To the northward the Germans regained the positions abandoned in 1916, occupying Albert on March 27. They had then advanced within fourteen miles of Amiens which thenceforth became one of their chief objectives. This great disaster convinced the Allies of the necessity of unity in command. Controversies and rivalry ceased for the moment. On March 31 it was

announced that the Allied War Council had entrusted the supreme command to Marshal Ferdinand Foch, and that the entire American force had been placed at his disposal.

The Germans had solved the problem of breaking through a strongly entrenched front, but they had accomplished it at an enormous cost and the force of the blow was exhausted until they could reorganize their forces and prepare for the delivery of another. A pause of a week then ensued. On March 23 Paris had been bombarded at intervals by a high velocity gun which opened fire at a range of more than seventy miles. The material damage occasioned was not great, until Good Friday, March 29, when a church was wrecked by a shell and many of the congregation killed or injured.

The Germans crossed the Oise on April 5, and gained considerable ground at the expense of heavy losses. The French retired behind the river Ailette. The Germans forced the passage of this river on April 8, and made some further progress. Their main attack was then suddenly shifted to Flanders, where the first British army occupied the sector of the line between Arras and Ypres. After another short, but destructive artillery bombardment, an assault was made on a front of twenty miles between Givenchy and Ypres, having Hazebrouck as its chief objective. A Portuguese division in the front line was driven out with heavy loss, and a breach made on a front of nearly ten miles. The British position at Armentières was turned on both flanks and abandoned during the night of April 10-11. Neighbouring entrenchments were lost and retaken several times, but the British line from Bethune to Arras was eventually maintained. The German advance along the Lys continued; they reached the railway and approached within five miles of Hazebrouck. The situation had become so extremely critical that on April 12 Marshal Haig published a general order calling upon his troops to "die where they stood, fighting with their backs to the wall." The German assaults were renewed with unremitting fury. Bailleul and Wytschaete were both taken on April 16, with the entire adjacent line of heights captured by the British the year before. Fierce fighting with varying success, in which these positions twice changed hands, continued for two days. Reinforcements of British and French troops had then come up and some American battalions were brigaded with the British. A violent attack was repulsed that day, and a pause followed which lasted for a week. The Germans were reinforced by specially trained "shock" and Alpine troops, and began another attack on April 25, after a very severe bombardment on a front of seven miles in the vicinity of Mount Kemmel. Here a section of five miles of the front line had been taken over from another area by veteran French troops, against whom the whole force of the onset was directed. Mount Kemmel and the adjacent villages were eventually taken after a stubborn defence and this compelled a considerable withdrawal from the line south of Ypres. All attempts to pursue, however, were checked with great loss. Subsequent attacks on the new British position were repelled and the German troops occupying Mount Kemmel were subjected to a destructive and continuous artillery fire. The German advance in Flanders had then been

brought to a definite halt. On April 23 another offensive in the direction of Amiens made some progress, but in most places the assailants were repulsed or driven back by counter-attacks.

Finding that their efforts to force a passage to the Channel were unsuccessful and that a great body of troops had been assembled to resist them, the Germans then prepared to deliver a great attack on the French front in the direction of Paris. Twenty fresh divisions of veteran troops were brought forward by night marches with great secrecy. This attack was made along the Aisne on a front of thirty-five miles opposite Soissons and Reims. An artillery bombardment of terrific violence began at one o'clock on the morning of May 27, which continued for two hours and a half. Preceded by the usual barrage of gas shells and shrapnel, the German "storm troops," accompanied by many tanks, swept over the front line trenches. Their success was greatest on a part of the line west of Craonne, where the defenders were driven across the Aisne, then across the Vesle, and nearly annihilated. Four British divisions, which had been worn out by hard fighting elsewhere and sent to this part of the line for rest were forced to retreat in the direction of Reims. The German advance continued until the French had retired beyond the Marne, where they organized a fresh position and held their ground stubbornly. German attacks in the vicinity of Soissons and Reims met with little success. Inside of a week this offensive had lost its driving power. It had, however, been still more damaging than those preceding it, as a wide pocket was opened in the French front extending from the Aisne to the Marne, bringing the enemy appreciably nearer to Paris. The general situation had grown distinctly more serious for the Allies.

As a result of their costly experience, in attempting to resist these tremendous onslaughts on their advanced lines and in bringing up supporting troops through an exterminating barrage fire, it was decided by the Allied commanders to adopt a system of "elastic defence," which had already indeed been successfully practised by the enemy on several occasions. Secret instructions were accordingly issued to army commanders directing them no longer to hold their first positions at all costs as heretofore, but to retire to a main line of resistance a considerable distance in rear, by which great losses from gas shells and barrage fire might be avoided. This was substantially a reversion to the old doctrine by which the line of support was made the line of resistance.

On June 9 the Germans launched another attack on a front of twenty miles between Noyon and Montdidier, pushing forward in great force on both sides of the river Oise in the direction of Compiègne. They penetrated the French position to a depth of three miles and made further advances the next day. The French retired gradually to their main line of resistance among the hills south of the river Matz. The evident intention of the Germans on this occasion was to unite the two pockets they had previously formed and secure a new base of operations from which they might accomplish an effective bombardment of Paris and render that great city untenable. They failed to break through, although they used forty

divisions in this offensive and suffered enormous losses. An attack on a large scale in the vicinity of Reims on June 18 also failed with very heavy loss. A pause in operations then occurred during which a great number of British and American troops arrived in France and careful preparations were made for a counter-offensive on a grand scale.

The German artillery preparation for their fifth and last effort began at midnight, July 14-15, on a front extending for nearly sixty miles from Chateau Thierry to the western edge of the Argonne forest. Their fire was to a great extent wasted upon positions which the French had already determined to abandon, and when the infantry advanced at daybreak they were opposed by a mere curtain of troops, who retired rapidly before them. As they followed in pursuit, they were overwhelmed by the fire of batteries securely posted in the rear of the main line of defence. By using canvas boats they succeeded in crossing the Marne at several points and then establishing pontoon bridges. Their progress was definitely checked on July 16, and a vigorous counter-offensive began two days later against the exposed right flank of the German salient on the Marne. One of the secret preparations made for this counter-offensive was the construction of a very large number of light tanks on the Renault model, armed with small guns to accompany the infantry in their advance. Rain was falling heavily on the morning of July 18, when the French counter-offensive began in the region between Villers Cotterets and Soissons by an army commanded by General Mangin, whose troops had been discreetly hidden in the wooded valleys among the hills. There was no preliminary bombardment. The infantry advanced at dawn under cover of a rolling barrage, directed by the map, and accompanied by eight hundred swift "mosquito tanks." The German front line was taken by surprise and gave way. On the left the French advanced until they reached the hills overlooking Soissons, and in some places the French cavalry pressed through the gaps thus created and took part in the pursuit. When night fell the Allies were able to report that twenty thousand prisoners and three hundred and sixty guns had been taken. Three British divisions and many British tanks took part in this attack near Reims. Several divisions of United States troops also co-operated in the vicinity of Chateau Thierry, where they fought stoutly. The pressure of the Allies continued with encouraging success, driving the Germans steadily before them until they were forced to recross the Marne, and part of their troops were withdrawn to the Aisne. These advances had the effect of materially shortening the allied front, and removing the menace against Paris. Large masses of troops assembled as reserves for a projected offensive against the British front under Prince Ruprecht of Bavaria were drawn away to resist this attack and the contemplated operation was consequently abandoned.

On July 23, a secret conference was held of the allied commanders at which the methods for developing the advantages of the success already gained were discussed at considerable length. The commanders of the British, French and American armies were required to pre-

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WAR IN THE AIR

Canada Year Book, 1919

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pare plans for local offensives to be undertaken at an early date with definite limited objectives. The first great objective proposed on the British front was the liberation of the Amiens-Paris railway which had been rendered unworkable by the enemy's fire for several weeks.

The British forces had been greatly diminished by casualties during the two great offensives directed against them in March and April. Eight divisions had then been reduced to mere skeletons and no longer could be regarded as fighting formations. Two others which still continued in the line were greatly weakened. There had been immense losses of artillery and military stores, including two hundred tanks, material for light railways, rolling stock and motor carriages. Two months of comparative quiet had brought about a great improvement. The gaps in the ranks were more than filled by drafts from England and reinforcements from other fronts. The number of infantry divisions had been increased from forty-five to fifty-two, and the total strength of British troops employed in France was not less than 1,700,000. All losses of material had been more than replaced. The artillery was stronger than ever before and a stock of thirty-five million shells had been accumulated for its use. New lines of railway had been built and additional tracks laid on old lines in many places, totalling a length of two hundred miles. New defensive lines of great strength and remarkable complexity had been constructed which included five thousand miles of trenches. By the end of July, the British forces were wholly reorganized in France and prepared to undertake the great task imposed upon them. Reserves amounting to more than a million of men were under training in England from whom losses could be readily replaced. A decided supremacy had been secured in aerial warfare. To enable this attack to be made with sufficient force, it was decided to transfer the Canadian Corps from the area occupied by the First British Army to that held by the Fourth Army. In order to deceive the enemy as regards this move, two battalions were placed in the line in the Kemmel hill sector and wireless messages purposely sent to be intercepted, worded in such a way as to indicate the presence of Canadians in this part of the front. It was freely announced that the corps would move in the direction of Ypres, where the Second Army expected an attack. Many tanks were ostentatiously paraded near St. Pol. The transfer began on July 30, and the movement into battle-assembly positions was completed on the night of August 7-8. The concentration area lay to the southwest of Amiens, a distance of forty miles from the battle-assembly position. Every precaution was taken to conduct these movements with the greatest secrecy. The troops moved by railway, motor bus and route march, entraining and detraining being accomplished during hours of darkness. The area chosen for concentration was heavily wooded and well adapted for concealing the presence of troops. The advance of the infantry to the position of assembly was accomplished in motor lorries and buses during the night. Here woods, villages and sunken roads afforded considerable cover from overhead observation. The extensive wood of Gentelles was largely used to conceal the assembly of many tanks. Cloudy and foggy weather greatly favoured secrecy and the movement of these troops seems to have been unobserved by the enemy.

The front of attack covered twenty thousand yards. The First French Army, acting under the orders of the Commander-in-Chief of the British Army, was to attack on the right, the Canadian Corps in the centre, the Australian Corps on its left and the Third British Corps on the left of the latter. The intention was to push forward rapidly in the direction of the railway leading from Roye to Chaulnes. A large number of officers from the Australian and Canadian Corps were sent to observe demonstrations of co-operation between tanks and infantry at the training school to familiarize them with the combined tactics of these troops. After a brief bombardment on the morning of August 8 four hundred and fifteen heavy and light tanks advanced, followed by strong columns of infantry, the number of tanks allotted to each division ranging from twenty-four to thirty-six according to the nature of the ground. This movement was favoured by heavy fog which screened them from view until close to the German positions. The ground was broken and interspersed with many compact villages surrounded with gardens and orchards, and here and there small woods and copses. The German defences consisted largely of disconnected trenches with many machine gun emplacements scattered about. Their defenders were surprised and the advance was extremely rapid at first. The German positions were penetrated to a depth of more than eight miles and many villages captured. In an official report the defeat of the German Second Army on this occasion was attributed to the fact that "the troops were surprised by the massed attack of the tanks and lost their heads when the tanks suddenly appeared behind them, having broken through under the protection of natural and artificial fog." The attack was resumed on the morning of the 9th and rapid progress again made all along its front, in some places to a depth of more than six miles. During the day the resistance perceptibly stiffened and the Germans brought up fresh troops supported by a few huge tanks. The movement of the French First Army had been restricted to a demonstration in force on the 8th followed on the morning of the 9th by a heavy artillery bombardment which was discontinued about noon-day. The Germans were thrown off their guard and relaxed their vigilance in the course of the afternoon. At five o'clock when they were engaged in preparing their evening meal, the French began their principal infantry attack, moving swiftly against the German line of retreat, eastward, and ultimately surrounding the town of Montdidier which was taken about noon on the 10th. The German reserves had been moved to protect the important railway junction at Chaulnes from the British attack. Counter-attacks were repelled on August 11 and 12, and the French continued their advance all along their front from Montdidier as far as the Oise. They crossed the Matz and recaptured several villages on the further bank. Farther to the south and east other advances were made. This success brought the allied troops into the old trenches occupied by them in 1916, and the pressure of strong German reserves supported by many batteries of artillery made a further advance inexpedient. Thirteen British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions had been engaged and in the course of four days they had captured 21,850 prisoners and four

hundred guns. Twenty German divisions were identified among the prisoners.

The French army commanded by General Mangin began a forward movement east of the river Oise on August 18. Attacking on a nine-mile front, with a large number of light tanks which enabled him to break up the German machine gun positions very easily, he made rapid progress. Resuming his advance on August 20, on a wider front, he took ten thousand prisoners and gained the line of the Ailette on August 22.

The British attack was then transferred to the north. The Canadian Corps and the Second American Corps were moved in that direction by night in railway trains and motor transport vehicles. On August 22 the Third Army under Sir Julian Byng, reinforced by these two corps, attacked in the direction of Bapaume and reached the Arras-Albert railway. The point of attack then shifted to the south of Albert. That town was captured and the assailants crossed the river Ancre. German reserves, hurried up to oppose this attack, were defeated. Montauban was taken on the 26th and on the following day the New Zealand division entered Bapaume. On August 23, another advance began from Arras along the Scarpe, which was equally successful in spite of obstinate resistance. The town of Bray was taken by another British force on August 24. On August 26 the Canadian Corps co-operating with the Seventeenth British Corps carried the German positions at Monchy-le-Preux, Wancourt and Roeux. German reserves thrown in on the following day were repulsed and a further gain of ground made. Southward of this the Australians made a swift advance in the direction of Peronne which they carried by assault on the 31st, after severe fighting from house to house, taking many prisoners. By these operations the flank of the German positions on the Somme was turned, and they were compelled to withdraw to the east bank of that river. Twenty-three divisions were engaged on the part of the Allies, and during the ten last days of August, they took 34,250 prisoners and 270 guns. They had been opposed by thirty-five German divisions.

French troops, who had been released by the shortening of their front after the success of their recent operations, moved northward and took over part of the line from the British. A successful attack was made by them on August 25. On August 27 they took Roye and next day captured Chaulnes. The Germans withdrew from Noyon on August 29 and the French pursued them closely. On September 4 Mangin commenced a new offensive in which he succeeded in crossing the Aisne near Vailly. This compelled a further retirement of the German line in that region. They fell back to their old defensive positions in advance of Douai, Cambrai, St. Quentin, and Laon. The First British Army striking eastward from Arras had made slow progress against very stubborn opposition. Experience gained in the operations near Amiens indicated that tanks should follow rather than precede the infantry. An attack was launched early on the morning of September 2 by the Canadian Corps and 17th British Corps against the Drocourt-Quéant system of defence. Preceded by an effective barrage and followed by a large fleet of tanks

the infantry advanced on both sides of the Arras-Cambrai national road and carried the German intrenchments on a front of eight miles, in the face of a most resolute resistance by ten German divisions, holding a very strongly prepared position. This was one of the most remarkable exploits during the war. Almost 10,000 prisoners were taken and an advance made of five miles. Further progress was made next day and on September 4 the British advanced within seven miles of Cambrai. The Germans were forced to fall back on the outer defences of the Hindenburg line. As a result of these operations the Lys salient was evacuated by them. Lens, Bailleul and Kemmel Hill were abandoned and the important railway centre at Hazebrouck was freed from any further menace. Seven British divisions were engaged in this operation. Between August 26 and September 3 they took 8,850 prisoners belonging to thirteen German divisions, and 200 guns.

By the night of September 8 the Germans had retired to the general line, Vermand-Epehy-Havrincourt, and thence running northward along the east bank of the Canal du Nord. From Havrincourt southward, their main line of resistance was the system of defences known as the Hindenburg line which ran southeastward of the Scheldt canal at Bantouzelle, thence following the line of that canal to St. Quentin. In front of this main line strong detachments held well prepared advance positions about Havrincourt and Epehy, which must be taken before a final attack could be made on the Hindenburg line. On September 12 two corps of the Third British Army attacked on a front of five miles at Havrincourt, employing the New Zealand and three British divisions. These positions were carried and the line advanced. On September 17 the Ninth British and the Australian Corps captured Holnon village and a neighbouring wood. Next day, early in the morning, the Third and Fourth Armies attacked in the midst of a heavy rain on a front of seventeen miles extending from Holnon to Gouzeaucourt, accompanied by a small number of tanks. The First French Army and two American divisions co-operated south of Holnon. The British troops advanced to a depth of three miles as far as a strongly organized belt of defences formed of the old British and German lines of 1917. They were stubbornly opposed and had severe losses. Fourteen British divisions were engaged and captured 11,750 prisoners among whom fifteen German divisions were identified, and took one hundred guns. All the positions required for an attack on the main Hindenburg line were then secured. The French army had also advanced steadily on their right and on September 20 reached the Oise near Vendeuil. The fort of that name was taken by them on September 22.

The First American Army was organized in the latter part of August by the withdrawal of divisions hitherto serving with other allied armies. General Pershing was placed in command and took over a sector of the front extending from Port-Sur-Seille to Verdun, where he began independent operations. After a very fierce artillery preparation lasting for four hours in the early morning of September 12 the seven leading divisions assisted on the left by French troops advanced at daybreak against the German salient at St. Mihiel;

preceded by a number of tanks whose crews were provided with wire cutting torpedoes and other instruments for demolition of entanglements. This movement was made on a front of ten miles, and by noon some of the outer positions were taken. During the afternoon the advance was continued, and at daybreak on the following morning the retreat of a considerable body of the defenders was intercepted. Violent counter-attacks enabled a portion of the German forces to withdraw, but 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns were taken. All the ground necessary as a starting point for the projected advance down the Meuse was carried.

This series of operations is a notable example of well co-ordinated effort. It was only made possible by unity of command and a highly efficient service of supply and transport. An immense army of railway construction troops, foresters, artificers, and labourers of all descriptions was constantly employed on the lines of communication behind the advancing troops. Several hundred thousand unskilled labourers had been recruited in the African and Asiatic possessions of Great Britain and France and in China. The losses of the fighting troops had been severe, but they were rapidly replaced from the large reserves constantly pouring into France from England and the United States. The French had likewise organized and brought in from their African dominions fighting troops numbering nearly a million men.

It was next decided, after a careful discussion between the allied commanders, that four convergent and simultaneous offensives should be undertaken. These were as follows: by the Americans west of the Meuse in the direction of Mézières; by the French west of the Argonne in close co-operation with the American attack and having the same general objective; by the British on the St. Quentin-Cambrai front in the general direction of Maubeuge; by Belgian and other allied troops in Flanders in the direction of Ghent. It was anticipated that if these operations were successful the German forces opposed to the French and Americans would be forced back into the difficult hilly region of the Ardennes, while the British advance would strike at their chief lines of communication. In Flanders it was expected that the gradual weakening of the German forces would enable the Allies to clear the Belgian coast by a surprise attack. Much depended upon the success of the British advance in the centre, as the German system of defence was there most strongly developed and if it was once broken, their lines of lateral communication would be vitally menaced.

By launching these attacks in rapid succession along a front of one hundred and twenty miles, the enemy would be unable to shift about his reserves on interior lines of communication as he had done so frequently in the past with success. His troops would be nailed to their positions and if the Hindenburg line was once penetrated he would be driven from a defensive position where he had probably planned to remain during the winter.

As these operations were to commence from the right, the whole of the First American Army was transferred to the area behind the sector of the line between the Meuse and the western edge of the

Argonne forest which had been quiet for many months and was thinly held by both the opposing forces. In rear of their front lines, the Germans had, however, constructed three strongly fortified alternative positions. On the morning of September 26, the First American and Fourth French Army accordingly attacked on both sides of the Argonne between the Meuse and Suippe rivers. The right flank of the American army was covered by the Meuse; its left wing was, however, obliged to force its way through a region of hills, ravines and thick woods, obstructed by numerous entanglements and trenches. Although this movement appears to have taken the Germans by surprise to some extent, reserves were soon brought and the advance was checked. On the right the first and second lines of defence were taken with several thousand prisoners. West of the Argonne the French penetrated to the German second line, where they were held up.

The British First and Third Armies, on the evening of September 26, occupied a front extending from the village of Selency, west of St. Quentin, through Gouzeaucourt and Havrincourt to the marshy and inundated country on the banks of the Sensée river at Ecourt St. Quentin.

Between St. Quentin and Bantouzelle the main defences of the Hindenburg line lay generally on the east side of the Scheldt canal and were sited with great skill to prevent the occupation of suitable artillery positions for their attack. The canal itself was utilized to furnish cover for troops in reserve or rest and for the garrisons of the main trenches during a bombardment. Deep cuttings were numerous, being in some places sixty feet in depth, and in one case the canal passed through a tunnel for a distance of three and one-half miles. This tunnel was used to provide quarters for troops and was connected by shafts with trenches above. In the sides of the cuttings many tunnelled dug-outs and shelters of concrete had been constructed. Along the crest of the bank were numerous concealed machine gun emplacements. On the western side of the canal two well-organized lines of trenches ran parallel to it south of Bellicourt, where the canal cutting became shallow. They were protected by wide belts of wire entanglements. Many other trenches, switch lines and communication trenches, in most cases strongly wired, were constructed to strengthen weak points or gain desirable fields of fire. The entire defensive system, with numerous fortified villages, occupied a belt of country varying in width from seven to ten thousand yards, thoroughly organized with every device, revealed by four years' experience in active warfare. The northern portion of the canal was deemed too formidable an obstacle to attempt its passage in the face of the enemy. The extraordinary strength of the position made a prolonged artillery preparation necessary. This began during the night of September 26-27, along the whole front of all three armies, with the intention of deceiving the enemy as to the main point of an attack to be delivered by the First and Third Armies only. At 5.20 a.m. on September 27 the Canadian and three British corps began their advance in the direction of Cambrai, on a front of thirteen miles, extending from Gouzeaucourt northward. Assisted by sixty-

five tanks the infantry soon penetrated deeply into the German position, in the face of stubborn resistance. The passage of the canal was forced at several points and the slopes on the farther bank secured. Bridges were then quickly constructed and the leading divisions passed over. At the end of the day a substantial advance had been made all along the front of attack. Ten thousand prisoners and two hundred guns were taken. Next day the movement was continued and several fortified villages carried by assault. The bombardment begun on the morning of September 27 had been maintained along the whole front of the Fourth Army for forty-eight hours without intermission. During that day alone the British artillery fired 943,837 shells, weighing 40,000 tons. This was a greater expenditure of ammunition than had been made in the entire South African war lasting three years. The troops in the German front line were driven by this intense fire into their deep dugouts and tunnels and their provision parties were unable to bring up food and ammunition.

On the morning of September 29 an attack was made on a front of twelve miles, extending northward from Holnon by two British and one American corps, aided by a large fleet of tanks. On the right of the Fourth Army the French First Army continued the attack in the sector of St. Quentin, while on its left two corps of the Third Army also attacked. One division of the Fourth British Army stormed the village of Bellenglise on the eastern side of the canal, some troops crossing the canal on foot bridges which the enemy had not been allowed time to destroy, others equipped with life-belts and carrying mats, rafts, and scaling ladders dropped down the steep sides of the canal and swam or waded across. The German trenches with their posts in the great tunnel were carried and the garrison of the village surrounded and taken. The 46th Midland division alone took 4,600 prisoners and more than a thousand machine guns. The second American corps further north was obstinately opposed, but succeeded in carrying the main points of resistance. The Third Army captured Masnières and secured the crossings of the canal on the outskirts of Cambrai. The Canadian Corps gained ground to the northwest of that town, taking two villages. Attacks continued on all these fronts for the next two days. On September 30 the gap in the Hindenburg line was considerably enlarged. The Germans abandoned two of their main positions on the west side of the canal and retired behind it. Next day the First French Army attacked from the west, taking the greater part of St. Quentin, driving the enemy from house to house, while the Australian Corps and a British division attacked on their left, reaching the railway beyond the canal. Wet weather accompanied by high winds drenched the troops and soaked the fields, but did not stop the advance. On October 2 the French took the remainder of St. Quentin and their lines south of the town were advanced to the river Oise. South of Cambrai the New Zealand division and one British division took two fortified villages, while north of that town the Canadian corps cleared the high ground. The fighting here was extremely severe, as in the course of five days the Germans employed

eleven divisions in succession in their frantic efforts to check this attack. The advance was continued along the whole front with slow but steady success until October 8, when the Canadian Corps carried the canal crossings near Ramillies, northeast of Cambrai, making that town untenable. The Germans consequently abandoned it and fell back on the line of the river Selle. On the night of October 9 Cambrai was occupied by British and Canadian troops. In ten days of victorious fighting the last and strongest German line had been effectually smashed and the way opened for a war of movement and a thrust against their railway communications. This may be regarded as one of the most decisive operations of the war. Between September 27 and October 10 thirty-five British infantry, three British cavalry, and two American infantry divisions engaged forty-five German infantry divisions, from whom they took twelve thousand prisoners and two hundred and fifty guns. The moral effect of so damaging a defeat was of still greater importance.

Arrangements for the development of offensive operations on the Flanders front were settled at a conference held by Marshal Foch at Cassel on September 9. The large force assigned for these operations was placed under the command of the King of the Belgians. It was composed of the Belgian Army, two corps of the British Second Army, several French divisions, and two American divisions transferred from the Meuse. Without any preliminary bombardment the two British corps attacked on a front of five miles and easily carried the whole of the high ground east of Ypres, which had been so fiercely fought over the year before. The Belgian attack was made on an eight mile front from Dixmude to the north of Ypres and made an advance of about three miles. Next day, the British crossed the Lys and advanced upon Roulers, which the Belgians were likewise approaching. The Germans commenced to withdraw from La Bassée and from Armentières and Lens. A salient was driven into their lines which greatly endangered their positions on the Belgian coast. During its advance on September 28-29 the Second British Army took 4,800 prisoners and one hundred guns.

The second and final phase of the British offensive then began, having the capture of Maubeuge and the disruption of the main lateral system of the German railway communications as its chief objectives. The Fourth and Third British Armies, and the right of the First Army advanced with the left flank resting on the canal running from Cambrai to Mons and its right covered by the First French Army. North and south of the Aisne the French armies, assisted by some Italian troops, continued their forward movement. On October 8 the First French Army advanced along the Oise to the southward of St. Quentin, and French and American troops attacked in Champagne and east of the Meuse, and made important progress. The Third and Fourth British Armies advanced on a front of seventeen miles in the direction of Le Cateau, assisted by one American division. The German positions were penetrated after severe fighting to a depth of between three and four miles. Their unfinished trenches were quickly carried, and they were driven into the open country beyond. The enemy's resistance fairly broke

down; his infantry became disorganized and retired eastward. British air-scouts reported that the roads converging on Le Cateau were jammed with retreating infantry and transport vehicles. Next morning the advance was resumed and the British cavalry engaged in the pursuit. When night came the advanced troops were within two miles of Le Cateau and the Germans had been prevented from completing the destruction of the railway. On October 10 progress continued, but the German resistance perceptibly stiffened, and attempts of the British cavalry to pass the Selle were unsuccessful. The French First Army made a substantial advance east of St. Quentin. In this operation twenty British infantry, and two British cavalry divisions, and one American infantry division drove before them twenty-four German divisions and took from them 12,000 prisoners and 250 guns. Full possession was gained of the important double-tracked line of railway from St. Quentin to Cambrai, running through Busigny. By October 13 the British armies had advanced to the river Selle and established bridge-heads at several places. Another deep pocket had been driven into the German position. French and American troops had pushed forward steadily on both sides of the Argonne. The entire ridge of the Chemin des Dames was occupied by them on October 11 and 12. La Fère and Laon were entered on October 13 without opposition. The key of the old German line in France was abandoned.

At daybreak on October 14 the allied forces commanded by the King of the Belgians resumed the offensive on the whole front extending from the river Lys at Comines to Dixmude. This attack was attended by complete success. Roulers was taken, and on October 16 and 17 the allied troops entered Menin and Courtrai. The defences of Lille were turned on both flanks. The Germans removed their supplies and abandoned that city on October 16, when it was entered by the British troops. Ostend was evacuated on October 17, with the important submarine bases on the Belgian coast. The next German line of defence was established on the Selle and Scheldt rivers.

The advance of the American forces on the right was slow and difficult, owing to the hilly nature of the country, the stubborn resistance of the enemy, and to some extent to a breakdown of their transport services, which had been encumbered with an undue amount of baggage. Their staff was inexperienced and had not the advantage of satisfactory railway lines of communication. On October 4 the First American Army renewed its attack along its entire front, advancing on both banks of the Meuse and along the winding valley of the Aire, where the wooded hills of the Argonne had been skilfully fortified. Its losses were severe, but the casualties were rapidly replaced. Not until October 16, however, did this force succeed in gaining a foothold in the German third line of defence, taking the town of Grandpré, an important road junction. Here it halted for the purpose of re-organization for an effective attack on the Freya position, the last German line south of Sedan, which was its prospective objective. On the American left the French advanced on the same day, crossed the river Aisne and took the German

positions on the right bank. General Gouraud then moved along the Aisne, taking Neufchatel and other towns. Vouziers was captured on October 12, and a further advance made in the direction of Rethel. The German retreat on that part of the line had become general, but was accomplished in good order.

The communications on the British front were rapidly improved and it was soon possible to undertake further important operations. On October 17 the Fourth Army attacked on a front of ten miles from Le Cateau with two British and one American corps, acting in conjunction with the First French Army on its right. The Germans held a line running through a wooded undulating country in great strength, and were well supported by their artillery. Their resistance was obstinate, but by the night of October 19 they were driven across the Sambre and Oise canal at nearly all points south of Catillon. This success was followed up at two o'clock next morning by the advance of six divisions of the Third British Army and one division of the First Army along the line of the Selle river north of Le Cateau. Supported by a number of tanks, which succeeded in crossing the river, the infantry overcame a very stubborn resistance and repelled vigorous counter-attacks. The objectives on the high ground east of the Selle were gained while the other troops of the First Army advanced on both sides of the Scheldt canal and occupied Denain.

Another large operation was undertaken on a front of fifteen miles shortly after midnight on the morning of October 23, in which four divisions of the Fourth and the same number from the Third British Army were engaged. Next day three divisions of the First Army extended the line of attack for five miles further northward to the Scheldt. Unfavourable weather had made it difficult to locate the enemy's batteries, and their fire was heavy and well directed; still, in the course of two days' fighting, an advance of six miles was made through difficult country. Many woods and villages were stubbornly held by the opposing troops, and one of the latter was not taken until the afternoon of October 24, by an enveloping attack of two divisions. The western outskirts of the Mormal forest were reached and in the course of minor operations in the three following days, a large section of the railway running from Valenciennes to Le Quesnoy was seized. In the course of the fighting between October 17 and 25 twenty-four British and two American divisions had engaged thirty-one German divisions, from whom they took twenty-one thousand prisoners and four hundred and fifty guns, and carried their objectives at all points. It became apparent that the German infantry and machine gun troops were no longer reliable, and in several instances they retired in front of the British artillery barrage without fighting. The difficulty of replacing their heavy losses in guns, machine guns, and ammunition had enormously increased, and the German reserves of men were almost exhausted. The capitulation of Turkey and Bulgaria and the approaching collapse of Austria rendered their military situation desperate and their troops had become thoroughly disheartened. It still seemed possible that if their armies were allowed to withdraw to shorter lines near their own frontier, they might protract the contest during the winter.

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To anticipate this another general forward movement was undertaken on the whole allied front.

On October 9 a second American army was formed and took over a sector of the front in the Wœvre. Twenty-one American divisions were then in the field, numbering with other army troops nearly a million men. The American First Army continued its advance slowly down the left bank of the Meuse, overcoming stubborn resistance. On November 2 it had advanced as far as Buzancy and cleared the Germans out of the Argonne. The Third Army Corps forced the passage of the Meuse at two points on November 4 and 5, and gained a footing on the right bank. On November 6, the first corps reached the river opposite Sedan, which it entered in conjunction with French troops next day. On November 8 other troops of the same army advanced to Montmedy and occupied Stenay on November 10.

After the capture of Vouziers, the French army moved against that portion of the Argonne lying north of Grandpré, which they cleared of the Germans after several days severe fighting. Another column of the same army occupied Hirson on November 9, and advanced to the Belgian frontier. Between the Aisne and Meuse, Gouraud's army advanced without opposition until it arrived on the Meuse between Sedan and Mezières, where it crossed the river and retook the latter town. Mangin's army reached the north bank of the Serre on October 25, and crossed the Aisne at various points between Rethel and Attigny on November 5. The First French Army commanded by General Debeney advanced along the Oise. They were strongly opposed at Guise which was resolutely held by the Germans until October 23.

Early on the morning of November 1, the Seventeenth Corps of the British Third Army, and the Twenty-second and Canadian Corps belonging to the First Army attacked on a front of six miles south of Valenciennes. In the course of two days bitter fighting the Germans were expelled from their positions, and the Fourth Canadian Division captured Valenciennes and advanced beyond that town. On November 3, the Germans withdrew and the line was further advanced. As information was then secured that a further retirement was under contemplation, the principal attack was accelerated. This was launched by the Fourth, Third and First British armies on November 4, upon a front of thirty miles, extending from the Sambre north of Cisy to Valenciennes. The character of the country made this an extremely difficult operation. The river had to be crossed at the start and in the centre the great forest of Mormal, obstructed by the debris of German forestry operations, presented a formidable obstacle. Further northward several streams running parallel to the line of advance must be passed and the fortified town of Le Quesnoy had to be taken. Preceded by a most effective artillery barrage the German positions were soon penetrated along the whole front, and by nightfall an advance of five miles was accomplished. The Sambre was crossed by rafts and the town of Landrecies was taken. Before dawn on November 5 fighting was resumed and the eastern edge of the forest was reached. Le Quesnoy was surrounded by the New Zealand

division, and the German garrison surrendered in the afternoon. On the British right the French First Army continued the line of attack southward to the vicinity of Guise, taking many prisoners and guns. By these operations the German resistance was finally broken. During the night they fell back on nearly their whole front, and on the three following days, in the midst of continuous rain, the victorious troops continued to press forward almost without opposition. The roads packed with the enemy's troops and carriages presented favourable targets for the airmen of the allies, who made effective use of their opportunities in spite of the weather. Many guns and vehicles were abandoned by the retreating forces. On November 8 the British troops entered the outskirts of Maubeuge, and that fortress was occupied next day. The First, Fifth and Second British Armies crossed the Scheldt in several columns. On November 10 the advance of all five British Armies continued with cavalry and cyclists operating in front of the infantry. Little opposition was encountered except in the neighbourhood of Mons, and in the early morning of November 11 that town was captured by the Third Canadian Division with small loss. (See the illustration facing page 52). The whole of its defenders were killed or taken prisoners. The great disorder of the retiring troops, the number of the abandoned trains and stores of all kinds indicated that their defeat had been decisive. At eleven a.m. on November 11, in pursuance of instructions from the Commander in Chief of the allied armies, hostilities were suspended in consequence of the conclusion of an armistice. The right of the Fourth Army had then crossed the Franco-Belgian frontier.

During this last phase of the operations which has received the name of the battle of Maubeuge, extending from November 1 to November 11, twenty-six British divisions were engaged with thirty-two German divisions from whom they took 19,000 prisoners and 460 guns. The enemy's last great line of lateral communications was broken. His positions on the Scheldt were turned and his forces separated into two distinct groups by the great natural barrier of the Ardennes.

During this long period of uniformly successful offensive enterprises beginning on July 18, the British armies had taken 188,700 prisoners and 2,480 guns, the capture of 31,537 prisoners and 623 guns being credited to the Canadian Corps; French armies had taken 139,000 prisoners and 1,880 guns; the American armies had taken 43,300 prisoners and 1,421 guns; Belgian armies had taken 14,500 prisoners and 474 guns.

The terms of the armistice provided for the evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine, and the occupation of these territories by allied and American garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine at Mayence, Coblenz, and Cologne with bridge-heads at those points having a radius of thirty kilometres on the right bank. This evacuation was to be completed in thirty-one days after the signing of the armistice. In conformity with these arrangements, it was decided that the First and Fourth British Armies should advance to the Rhine and that the



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Canadian Corps should form part of the Second army. This movement began on November 17, each army advancing with two corps in front, marching in several nearly parallel columns. This long march was conducted by easy stages. The German frontier was crossed on December 4, and Cologne reached by the leading troops on December 10. The bridge-head at Mayence was occupied by French troops and that at Coblenz by Americans.

OPERATIONS ON ITALIAN FRONT, 1918.

During the early part of the year there were few engagements of much importance on this front. Austrian attempts to cross the lower Piave failed without exception.

On June 15 their long expected offensive commenced on a front of ninety miles, extending from the Asiago plateau to the shores of the Adriatic. In the sector of the Brenta they succeeded in penetrating the first three lines of Italian intrenchments taking many prisoners. Their advance was finally checked on the 17th. Elsewhere after crossing the river they were held up close to its banks. The Austrians reported the capture of 30,000 prisoners and 120 guns, and the Italians stated that they had taken 9,000 Austrians. Very heavy rains then came to the assistance of the Italians, causing a complete suspension of operations. The Piave river rose rapidly and carried away several bridges, leaving large bodies of Austrian troops on the right bank, separated from their reserves and supplies. The situation of these forces became very perilous, but they succeeded in retiring across the river on the night of June 22, at most points, not without heavy losses. In a series of successful operations on June 24 and 25 the Italians reported the capture of 18,000 prisoners. On July 6 the Austrians were forced out of positions near the mouth of the Piave which they had held since November, 1917. In October the situation on the western front had become so promising that Marshal Foch directed a general Italian offensive on the Upper Piave by which he anticipated that the Austrian forces might be separated and defeated in detail. The main attack began on the night of October 26-27, in which the Tenth British army under Lord Cavan participated in conjunction with two Italian armies. The passage of the river was forced, and after two days hard fighting, the Austrians were driven from their main positions. On October 31 the allied armies reached the line of the Livenza, advancing on a very wide front. Then the Austrians requested an armistice which was refused. They were rapidly driven across that river and their retreat practically became a rout. Udine and Belluno were retaken, and the Tagliamento was crossed on November 2 so quickly as to prevent the Austrians from taking up a new position behind that river. An armistice was concluded on November 3, by which the total demobilization of the whole Austro-Hungarian army and the evacuation of all territories invaded by them was agreed upon. During their advance the allied armies had taken three hundred thousand prisoners and five thousand guns. The overthrow of Austria as a military power was complete.

OPERATIONS ON THE BALKAN FRONT, 1918.

French and Italian troops began a series of offensive operations in Albania early in June which met with considerable success. The Greek army had been thoroughly re-organized and trained by French officers with the intention of co-operating in the recovery of Serbia, by a general attack on the Bulgarian army in the vicinity of Lake Doiran and the region of Kavadar. British, Greek, French, and Serbian troops took part in these operations, which began by a general attack on September 15. The Bulgarian lines were pierced and their forces separated and driven back on divergent roads. The pursuit was vigorously pressed, and by September 23 the Bulgarian troops became thoroughly disorganized, abandoning their trains and throwing away their arms. The victorious forces marched at once upon the capital, and the Bulgarian Government requested an armistice on September 26, which was granted on terms practically amounting to an unconditional surrender. All fighting ceased at noon on September 30. The defeat of the Bulgarians left the Austro-German forces in Serbia and Albania in such an exposed situation that a rapid retreat became inevitable. Durazzo was taken by Italian troops on October 14, and on November 3, after the conclusion of the armistice with Austria, allied forces were landed at Scutari for the occupation of the country until a treaty of peace was signed.

THE WAR IN ASIA, 1918.

After taking Jerusalem General Sir E. H. Allenby advanced slowly northward, with a view of preventing any movement against General Marshall's army in Mesopotamia by the large Turkish army assembled at Aleppo, under von Falkenhayn. An irregular force of Arabs, organized by the king of the Hedjaz, assisted him by co-operating on the east side of the Jordan. Jericho was taken on February 21, and the Turks retreated beyond the Jordan. Early in March British troops advanced in Mesopotamia, defeating an opposing force on two occasions.

The Russian army of occupation in Armenia began its evacuation of the country early in February, followed by the Turks who re-occupied Trebizond and Erzerum, and took Batum on April 16. A small British column, pushing swiftly forward from Mesopotamia, after a very difficult and trying march of nearly seven hundred miles, took possession of Baku, a city of great importance on account of its large production of mineral oil. Late in the year, when menaced by an attack from a much superior force of German and Bolshevik troops, this detachment was withdrawn. During the hot season, while active operations were suspended, General Allenby held a line extending from the Mediterranean coast to the Jordan, some fifteen miles in advance of Jerusalem, while a Turkish force exceeding 100,000 men occupied the hills of Samaria on his front. A military railway had been completed connecting Jerusalem with Cairo, and a pipe line was laid for the conveyance of water from the Nile. The Turkish position was naturally very strong and had been carefully prepared for defence. Their troops were supplied by two short railway spurs from the

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Damascus line, while the main highway from Jerusalem to Damascus ran directly through their position and would form their natural line of retreat. A series of demonstrations and limited attacks was planned upon the left of their main position lying between the high-road and the Jordan river to attract their attention to that part of their line while the main attack was launched to their right near the sea coast. If this succeeded in effecting a breach the whole of the cavalry were to pour through it and endeavour to cut their lines of communication and pursue the defeated troops. A vigorous holding attack was made on the Turkish left on September 19, with the anticipated result. Next morning the main attack was launched by a very strong force of Australian, British, and French troops on a front of sixteen miles with its centre opposite Gilgal. After some hours of stubborn resistance the Turkish troops on the extreme right gave way and in the course of a vigorous pursuit were completely routed and dispersed. The whole of the allied cavalry rapidly advanced across the plain of Sharon in two columns, one of them turning immediately eastward to intercept the retreat of the remainder of the Turkish army by seizing the Damascus road and railways while the other pursued the routed enemy to Nazareth and thence turned eastward toward the Jordan. British infantry advanced by forced marches and seized the fords of that river while the Arabian auxiliaries cut the enemy's railways by a series of attacks at the same time. Seventy-five thousand prisoners and seven hundred guns were taken in this decisive victory. The Seventh and Eighth Turkish Armies ceased to exist. A cavalry column advancing from Nazareth on September 23 occupied Haifa and Acre and the country around Lake Tiberias. Allenby then advanced northward meeting with very slight opposition. His cavalry entered Damascus on October 1, taking 7,000 prisoners while a French force occupied Beirut. The junction of the Palestine railway and the main line to Aleppo was reached on October 5. Tripoli was taken on October 13, Homs on October 15, and Aleppo, the enemy's base and great railway centre, was occupied on October 26, the insignificant remnant of the Turkish army retiring without any resistance. The Turkish forces in Mesopotamia were entirely cut off from their supplies. General Marshall resumed his advance upon Mosul on October 24. Conscious of its weakness, the Turkish government despatched General Townshend, whom they still held as a prisoner of war, to the British Admiral in command in the Aegean Sea to sue for peace. The terms offered and eventually accepted were equivalent to unconditional submission. A fleet of British and French destroyers entered the Dardanelles on November 9, and British troops took possession of the forts at Constantinople. A large allied fleet arrived on November 13, with the intention of beginning active operations against the German fleet on the Black Sea, which were only prevented by the conclusion of the armistice with Germany.

EVENTS ON THE EASTERN FRONT, 1918.

After the conclusion of the armistice with the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk, the Bolshevik Government at Petrograd was still

engaged in waging war with the new republics of Finland, the Ukraine, and the Cossacks of the Don. Negotiations with Germany were resumed on January 7, 1918, at Brest-Litovsk, and as the Ukraine republic was then represented by delegates, a peace acceptable to the Germans was concluded. The Bolshevist Government at once ordered the demobilization of all armies under their control and proclaimed that the war was over. Before these orders could be carried out a Bolshevist force had captured Kief, the capital of the Ukraine. Alleging that the Bolshevists had failed to comply with the terms of peace and that their demobilization had not been sufficiently carried into effect, Austrian and German forces swiftly advanced to the assistance of their new allies in the Ukraine. One army crossed the Dvina on February 18, and took the important town of Dvinsk; another force marching from Kovel occupied the fortress of Lutsk. A third advanced from Riga along the Baltic coast, following the railway towards Petrograd. Kief was taken by them on March 1, but no further advance then made beyond a line extending from that city northward through Vitebsk to the Baltic near Reval. All the terms proposed were submissively accepted by the Bolshevist Government, and a treaty signed on March 3, 1918. German troops, however, continued to move southward. Odessa was taken by them with the whole of the Black Sea fleet and a force advanced eastward into the Crimea. German troops were also despatched into Finland and the Ukraine with the avowed intention of enforcing the economic provisions of the treaty of peace, particularly the shipment of food to Austria and Germany.

A remnant of the Rumanian army had been forced to retire into Bessarabia. The Allies were unable to give that force any assistance. After the conclusion of the armistice in the fall of 1917, the Rumanian Government had firmly declined to submit to the German terms of peace. It was now helpless, and on May 6, 1918, a treaty was signed between Rumania and the Central Powers by which a large cession of territory was made, the payment of a large indemnity agreed to, and a free passage guaranteed for German troops advancing into Russia. After the collapse of Bulgarian opposition allied troops crossed the Danube, and the German army retired before them. Upon the conclusion of the armistice the German forces still commanded by Field Marshal von Mackensen attempted to retire, but were interned in Hungary at the demand of the Allies. Allied troops entered Bucharest on November 17, and a British force occupied Constanza, the great Rumanian port on the Black Sea.

British and French troops and marines were landed from allied vessels at Murmansk on July 15, and at Archangel on August 4, for the purpose of assisting the local Russian garrisons in the defence of those ports, and for the protection of large quantities of military stores and other supplies landed there for the former Russian Government. A column advanced southward from Archangel and ascended the Dvina, where they were attacked by Bolshevist troops. This column was reinforced by an American brigade in September.

An allied force composed of American, British, French, and Japanese troops, landed at Vladivostok on August 4 for the protection of that port and the valuable supplies deposited there. At the request of the British Government these troops were reinforced by a body of Canadian troops, organized for that special service, and designated the "Canadian Siberian Expeditionary Force," under Major-General J. H. Elmsley. A body of Czecho-Slovak troops, formerly belonging to the Austrian army, had voluntarily surrendered to the Russians and had taken service in the Russian army under the auspices of the Kerensky Government. They were quartered near Kief when the Germans invaded the Ukraine, but retired along the line of railway from the Don to Vladivostok, after which they cooperated effectively in the operations against the Bolshevik forces in Siberia.

THE WAR AT SEA, 1918.

The British Grand Fleet continued to maintain and even strengthen its effective blockade of the ports of the Central Powers. The task of detecting and hunting down hostile submarines was pursued with greater vigour and success than ever, and although the incursions of German submarines were fitfully extended to the coasts of the United States and Nova Scotia during the summer and a number of small vessels destroyed by them or by mines they had laid, these raids had not the slightest effect in delaying the continuous movement of troops and supplies across the Atlantic. A few unimportant attacks by destroyers or submarines were also made on some British and French coast towns, in which little damage was done, as the assailants after firing a few shots took to flight. Four British hospital ships returning to England with wounded were sunk with heavy loss of life, although all of them were plainly marked to indicate their character. The German High Seas Fleet was unable to put to sea for a great battle, owing to the demoralization of the seamen which had set in immediately after the battle of Jutland. A serious mutiny occurred among them on November 3, which seems to have developed into a general revolutionary movement and accelerated the signing of the armistice, by the terms of which the surrender of the most efficient ships and all the submarines of the German navy was exacted. It had, however, already ceased to exist as an effective fighting force. It was officially announced by the British Admiralty that one hundred and fifty German and seven Austrian submarines had been sunk during the war up to August, 1918. Subsequent information shows that this estimate was considerably under the truth and that the number taken or destroyed exceeded two hundred.

A formidable base for submarine activities had been established by the Germans at the ports of Zeebrugge and Ostend on the Belgian coast soon after their occupation. From its position and comparative security from attack it had become a serious menace to the sea communications of the British army in France and the seaborne commerce of the country generally. An attack on these ports on April 13 had failed with some loss. A second enterprise on a larger scale was then carefully organized and reinforced from the French navy. Its objects

were to block the Bruges ship canal at its entrance into the harbour of Zeebrugge; to block the entrance from Ostend harbour to the sea; and to inflict as much damage as possible upon these two ports. Five obsolete cruisers were filled with concrete to be used as blocking ships. The expedition started from its secret point of concentration, sixty-three miles distant, on the afternoon of April 22, and under a cover of artificial screens of smoke and mist the vessels employed boldly entered the channels and at midnight succeeded in running alongside of the mole at Zeebrugge, where a storming party of marines and sailors was successfully landed. As a diversion to enable the blocking ships to enter the harbour, this attack was entirely successful; those vessels proceeded to their allotted stations and four of them were sunk in accordance with the plan. The entrance of the Bruges ship canal was completely blocked. The viaduct was blown up by the storming party, but the damage to the mole was not as complete as had been planned. The entrance of the Ostend channel was only partially blocked, but a second attempt made on May 9 was more successful. The old cruiser "Vindictive" was filled with concrete for the purpose and sunk in such a position as to block the entrance entirely. These daring enterprises and the establishment of an immense mine field in the North Sea extending from the Orkneys to the coast of Norway, a distance of two hundred and thirty miles, mainly carried out by the navy of the United States, contributed greatly to the defeat of the enemy's submarine campaign.

British war ships attacked the Turkish cruisers, formerly the "Goeben" and "Breslau" of the German navy, at the mouth of the Dardanelles on January 20. The "Breslau" was sunk in this action and the "Goeben" seriously damaged and driven ashore. The British lost two light monitors.

Another squadron of monitors shelled Ostend on March 22.

On May 14 Italian torpedo boats entered the harbour of Pola, and after destroying a dreadnought succeeded in making their escape. Other vessels of the same class attacked a squadron of battleships on June 10. One battleship was sunk and another seriously damaged. Still another successful attack was made in the harbour of Durazzo on October 2.

Three Russian battleships with a number of Russian and British submarines frozen up in the Baltic ports were destroyed on the approach of the Germans in April, but the remainder of the Russian fleet in that sea succeeded in escaping to Kronstadt. The whole of the Russian Black Sea Fleet was taken possession of by the Germans in June, but surrendered to the Allies on November 27. The first division of the German High Seas Fleet, in accordance with the terms of the armistice, was delivered to an allied fleet, commanded by Admiral Sir David Beatty, off the Firth of Forth. German submarines numbering one hundred and twenty-two, among them several of the largest cruiser type, were surrendered to a British squadron at Harwich.

The following table of the naval war losses of the Allies and Central Powers, although not official, has been derived from an authoritative source. All vessels lost through accident are included,

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as well as those destroyed by hostile action. The comparatively small losses of the German navy, particularly in large vessels, are due to the fact that the greater part of her fleet remained in port during the war and as she had no mercantile marine at sea the service of scouting vessels and patrol boats to protect her shipping was unnecessary.

Description of vessel.	Great Britain.	France.	Italy.	Japan.	United States.
Battleships.....	13	4	3	1	-
Battle cruisers.....	3	-	-	-	-
Cruisers.....	25	5	2	4	1
Monitors.....	6	-	1	-	-
Destroyers.....	64	14	10	3	2
Torpedo boats.....	10	8	5	1	-
Submarines.....	50	14	8	-	1
Small craft.....	27	9	-	-	-
Total tonnage.....	550,000	110,000	76,000	50,000	17,000

Total for the Allies—803,000 tons.

Enemy losses were as follows:

Description of Vessel.	Germany.	Austria-Hungary.
Battleships.....	1	3
Battle cruisers.....	1	-
Cruisers.....	24	2
Monitors.....	-	3
Destroyers.....	72	5
Torpedo boats.....	51	4
Submarines.....	205	8
Total tonnage.....	350,000	65,000

Total for the Central Powers—415,000 tons.

The total loss of the British merchant tonnage was stated by the Admiralty to amount to 15,053,386 gross tons, valued at \$3,000,000,-000. According to this official statement 2,475 British ships were sunk with their crews and 3,147 sunk and their crews set adrift, and 670 fishing boats were destroyed. The total number of lives lost by the warfare waged against the British merchant marine exceeded 15,000.

Early in the year 1918 the demand that American troops should be rapidly transported to France became so urgent that a large number of British fast vessels were detailed for this service. Between May 1 and November 1 the number of troops transported across the Atlantic amounted to 1,673,000, of whom the greater part were embarked in British vessels and in many cases escorted by British cruisers and destroyers.

The action of the British fleet was unquestionably one of the most decisive factors in the war, as the blockade had brought the Central Powers to the verge of famine and deprived them of the most essential supplies for a continuation of hostilities.

It had also kept the seas absolutely free for the transportation of troops to every important theatre of war.

**PARTICIPATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE BRITISH
OVERSEAS DOMINIONS IN THE WAR, 1918.**

The mobilization of the forces of the United States for active employment in the war was conducted with great energy and ability. Between the date of the declaration of war on April 7, 1917, and the conclusion of the armistice on November 11, 1918, the army of the United States was expanded from 190,000 to 3,665,000 men, of whom 1,993,000 had been actually embarked for the theatre of war.

Shortly before the re-organization of the Government of Canada on the basis of a union of political parties, Major General S. C. Mewburn became Minister of Militia in Canada in succession to Sir A. E. Kemp, who had been appointed Overseas Minister for the same Department. At a secret session of both Houses of Parliament held on April 17, the Prime Minister gave an explanation of the extreme gravity of the military situation in consequence of the marked success of the great German offensives on the western front and emphasized the necessity that every possible effort should be made to maintain the troops in the field at full strength, and increase the production of food as well as that of munitions of war. An Order in Council was passed taking the widest powers in dealing with all cases of exemption, and on April 20 all men between the ages of twenty and twenty-three were called to the colours. By the operation of the Military Service Act, large reinforcements were sent at once to the reserve battalions in England, enabling them to maintain the Canadian Corps at full strength and to augment all infantry battalions by one hundred men and add several pioneer battalions, field companies, forestry companies and other units, thereby increasing the strength of the troops in the field by nearly 19,000 of all ranks. Notwithstanding the severe losses sustained in subsequent operations, the forces engaged were constantly kept up to strength, or nearly so. Before the conclusion of the armistice, the number of troops sent overseas reached 418,052 of all ranks. The total casualties reported up to December 31, 1918, numbered 9,989 officers and 204,397 other ranks, besides 3,575 prisoners of war. The total number of deaths in service in Canada during the same period numbered 2,221 of all ranks. The total number of enlistments up to November 15, 1918, were officially reported to number 595,441. More than 350,000 men, women and children were employed in munition factories in Canada, and the value of contributions for war purposes and to patriotic funds was estimated to exceed \$90,000,000, or more than eleven dollars per head for the total population. Opposition to the Military Service Act in the city of Quebec culminated in disturbances in which a few lives were lost. These were promptly suppressed and the premier of the province and the leader of the opposition in the Federal Parliament strongly discountenanced all unconstitutional opposition to this measure. These wise counsels soon had the desired effect.

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In June the Imperial War Cabinet and an Imperial War Conference met in London and were attended by the Canadian Prime Minister and two members of his cabinet.

In Australia the result of the referendum showed that a majority of the people were opposed to the principle of compulsion. The government of Mr. Hughes consequently resigned, but as it immediately became evident that no administration headed by another had any chance of remaining in power, he was asked to form a new cabinet in which he succeeded and a vote of no confidence was promptly defeated by a decisive majority. A recruiting conference was convened in April, presided over by the Governor-General, at which many labour delegates were present. As a result of its deliberations, and the success of the Germans on the western front, a vigorous recruiting campaign was started with great effect, and in the end the Australian troops in the field did not suffer materially for want of reinforcements. Australia was represented at the war conference by Mr. Hughes and Sir Joseph Cook, and the former remained in England to represent Australia.

Reinforcements for the New Zealand division in the field were also maintained by voluntary recruitment until late in the summer. In South Africa, a republican agitation became bolder and more outspoken until in March there was serious apprehension of another rising. In May, after making repeated appeals to the Nationalists for moderation, General Botha announced that the government would take the most energetic measures to suppress sedition. In July plots were discovered which made military measures indispensable. Order was quickly restored. General Smuts remained in England to assist in the vigorous prosecution of the war and, with Mr. Burton, represented the union at the Imperial War Cabinet.

India promptly responded to a stirring appeal from the Prime Minister. A war conference at Delhi was attended by representatives of all shades of popular opinion, and it was decided to take measures to raise another half million men within twelve months. The non-official members of the Viceregal Legislature approved a proposal by the Finance Minister that India should pay the expense of maintaining a much larger proportion of her troops. The forces in Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine were strongly reinforced and losses quickly replaced.

TERMS OF PEACE IMPOSED BY THE ALLIES, 1919.

In the conference held at Versailles which continued to sit for nearly five months, thirty-two allied countries were represented by official delegates. The five great allied nations, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan and the United States, were each represented by five delegates, while the other nations and Overseas Dominions of Great Britain, ranking as such, were represented by delegates varying in number from one to three. Dr. Georges Clemenceau, the French Prime Minister, was elected Chairman of the Conference. A Supreme Council of ten members was appointed, consisting of two delegates from each of the five great nations already mentioned. Subsequently

this council was divided and an executive council established, consisting of the Prime Ministers of France, Great Britain and Italy, and the President of the United States. The council of allied delegates met officially on January 18, 1919, to consider the terms to be submitted to the German delegation.

One of the first steps taken by this conference was to invite the representatives from the contending Russian factions to meet on Prince's Island in the Bosphorus to debate a pacific settlement of their internecine warfare. This plan was positively rejected by the Bolsheviks and met with opposition from other Russian parties. On January 24, the conference adopted a plan for the organization of a League of Nations and a committee was appointed to draft a covenant. On January 30, a plan of governing the conquered German colonies and other territories, inhabited by unprogressive races, through mandates granted to various nations subject to the direction and approval of the League, was formally adopted. The terms of the covenant were completed on February 14. A few days later, President Wilson sailed for the United States, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to assassinate Dr. Clemenceau.

A report from the International Labour Committee of the conference was adopted on April 11. Three days afterwards formal demands for reparation from Germany were approved.

The German Government was invited to send delegates to Versailles for the acceptance of the treaty. The terms of the treaty with Austria were next considered. The Italian delegates demanded the cession of the city of Fiume. In accordance with the provisions of a secret agreement between Italy and other powers before the entry of the United States into the war, Italy had been promised accessions of territories in Dalmatia in which Fiume was not included. President Wilson firmly opposed a cession of that city to Italy. The Italian delegates returned to Rome on April 24, as a protest of their dissatisfaction and did not come back to Versailles until May 7. On April 28, a revised form of covenant for the League of Nations was presented in which the Monroe Doctrine was formally incorporated.

The German delegates, headed by Baron von Brockdorff-Rantzau, presented their credentials on May 1. The treaty of peace was presented to them on May 7 at Versailles, that date being purposely selected in commemoration of the anniversary of the sinking of the *Lusitania*. It was announced at the same time that Great Britain and the United States had entered into a solemn agreement to assist France whenever attacked by Germany at any time in the future. The German delegates and other leading men declared that the treaty would not be signed, and the German Government formally proclaimed a week of mourning. From time to time notes were presented by the German delegates to the supreme council of the four great powers requesting concessions and objecting to the terms proposed. On May 16 it was announced that the treaty would become effective when ratified by Germany and three of the allied nations. On May 28, the German reply to the terms offered was presented and this was followed by several alternative proposals from the German

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delegates. On June 2, the Austrian delegates arrived and were presented with the allied terms four days afterwards.

The treaty was reluctantly signed by the German delegates on June 29, and the Turkish delegates were directed to return to their own country, as it was hopeless for them to expect to save their empire from dissolution in consequence of the frightful atrocities committed by their troops during the war. The Nations concerned in the treaties of peace and the dates on which they entered the war are as follows:—

ALLIES.		Portugal.....	Mar., 1916	Guatemala.....	April 24, 1918.
Serbia.....	July 28, 1914.	Rumania.....	Aug., 1916.	Costa Rica.....	April 27, 1918.
Russia.....	Aug. 1, 1914.	United States of		Nicaragua.....	May 8, 1918.
Belgium.....	Aug. 2, 1914.	America.....	April 6, 1917	Haiti.....	July 15, 1918.
France.....	Aug. 3, 1914.	Cuba.....	April 7, 1917	Honduras.....	July 19, 1918.
Great Britain.....	Aug. 4, 1914.	Panama.....	April 10, 1917	ENEMY.	
Montenegro.....	Aug., 1914.	Greece.....	June 30, 1917	Austria.....	
Japan.....	Aug. 23, 1914.	Siam.....	July 22, 1917	Hungary.....	July 28, 1914.
Italy.....	May, 1915.	Liberia.....	Aug. 8, 1917.	Germany.....	Aug. 1, 1914.
Albania.....	Jan., 1916.	China.....	Aug. 16, 1917.	Turkey.....	Nov., 1914.
		Brazil.....	Oct. 27, 1917.	Bulgaria.....	Oct., 1915.

The treaty was divided into fifteen sections. The first contained the covenant of the League of Nations. The second described the new geographical frontiers of Germany. The third section, consisting of twelve clauses, bound the Germans to accept the political changes made by the treaty in Europe. It established two new States, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland it revised the basis of Belgian sovereignty and altered the boundaries of that country it set up new systems of government in Luxemburg and the basin of the river Saar. Alsace-Lorraine was restored to France. Germany was bound by it to recognize the independence of German-Austria and accept certain conditions respecting the new States created by the revolutionary movement in Russia. By the fourth section Germany abandoned her possessions and rights abroad. Her colonies were ceded to the Allies, together with certain rights obtained by various international conventions for regulating European influence in tropical Africa. The British Protectorate in Egypt was recognized, and the treaty of Algeciras annulled. The military, naval, and air conditions of peace were embodied in the fifth section, which limited the size of the German army and navy and abolished compulsory military service in Germany. The sixth section obliged all powers concerned to maintain the graves of soldiers who had died in the war and dealt with the release of prisoners. The seventh section dealt with responsibilities and punishment, and provided for the trial of the former German emperor. The eighth section stated the terms of reparation and restitution required from Germany. The ninth contained financial clauses relating to the previous section. The tenth dealt with economic conditions and renewed former political international treaties and conventions relating to the postal and telegraph services and sanitation. The eleventh section dealt with aerial navigation. The twelfth section contained clauses dealing with the international control of ports, canals, rivers and railways, with special provisions for the control of the Kiel canal. The labour convention was embodied in the thirteenth section. Guarantees for the execution of the treaty

were included in the fourteenth. The fifteenth contained a number of miscellaneous clauses, including the recognition of other subsequent treaties of peace and confirmed the decisions of prize courts. Its final clauses dealt with the ratification of the treaty and fixed a date for it to come into force.

Prussia was deprived of territory containing an area of 30,000 square miles and a population of 6,674,000, and the future fate of other Prussian territories, containing an area of 8,600 square miles and a population of 1,000,000, was to be determined by a plebiscite. The following disposition of the former German Colonies was adopted. German East Africa—the mandate will be held by Great Britain. German Southwest Africa—the mandate will be held by the Union of South Africa. The German Samoan Islands—the mandate will be held by New Zealand. Other Pacific possessions, those south of the equator (excluding the German Samoan Islands and Nauru)—the mandate will be held by Australia. Nauru—the mandate will be held by Great Britain. Pacific islands north of the equator—the mandate will be held by Japan. Togoland and Cameroon—France and Great Britain will make a joint recommendation as to their disposition.

THE TOLL OF THE WAR.

The loss of human life resulting from the war was truly appalling. An official estimate of the total British casualties has been submitted to parliament. Those in the Royal Navy were as follows:—

Killed.		Wounded.		Untraced Missing.	
Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
2,061	20,197	813	4,081	15	8

These figures do not include the casualties of the Royal Naval Division, but do include those of the Royal Naval Air Service to April 1, 1918, when it was transferred to the Royal Air Force.

The whole number of casualties among all military forces and in all theatres of war was as follows:—

	Killed.		Wounded.	
	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
British.....	30,807	466,831	76,132	1,532,552
Colonials and Indians.....	7,602	168,703	17,125	421,402
Total.....	38,409	635,534	93,257	1,953,954
	673,943		2,047,211	

Killed as per above table.....	673,943
Add deaths presumed through lapse of time.....	97,000
Missing, at present unaccounted for.....	64,800

Total presumed deaths including died from wounds and died from other causes..... 835,743

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These figures include the losses of the Royal Naval Division and of the Royal Flying Corps up to April 1, 1918, making a grand total of casualties from all causes of 2,882,954.

The number of casualties in the Royal Air Force between April 1, 1918, and the date of the Armistice, was reported as follows:—

Killed.		Wounded.		Missing (including prisoners).		Interned.	
Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
1,551	1,129	2,357	631	1,612	225	45	39

The casualties (including members of His Majesty's Forces) due to hostile air raids and bombardments were as follows:—

Killed, 1,570. Injured, 4,041.

The French naval losses were officially reported as numbering 5,421 killed, 5,214 missing.

The French Army is reported to have lost 1,089,700 killed and 265,000 missing, or 16.2 per cent of the immense mobilized force of 8,410,000. No report of the number of wounded in the French Army or navy has been made public; the number of prisoners was officially stated as 446,300. Italian casualties as presented in an official statement to the reparation commissioners of the Peace Conference were as follows:—

	Army.	Navy.
Killed.....	462,391	3,169
Wounded.....	953,880	5,252

Half of the wounded men belonging to the army were stated to be permanently disabled; the total number rendered unfit for service was 4,385,487, which included 2,400,000 sick.

The Russian casualties were estimated to amount to 1,700,000 killed, 4,050,000 wounded, 2,500,000 prisoners, making a total of 9,150,000. The American losses were: dead, 53,169; wounded, 179,625; prisoners, 2,163; missing, 1,160; total, 236,117. German casualties were stated to amount to: dead, 1,600,000; missing, 103,000; prisoners, 618,000; wounded, 4,064,000; total, 6,385,000.

The Austrian losses in killed and wounded were stated to amount to 4,000,000, of whom 800,000 were killed. Official reports of the losses of other nations have not been made public.

The material losses of the countries involved practically defy computation. A statement, presented for the information of the Budget Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies, shows that the loss suffered by that country amounted to a total of 119,801,000,000 francs, made up as follows:—Damages to landed property, 35,446,000,000 f.; loss of household effects, material, cattle, securities, etc., 32,352,000,000 f.; raw materials and provisions, 28,861,000,000 f.; loss to revenue or trade, 23,242,000,000 f.

APPENDICES.

I. Awards of THE VICTORIA CROSS (V.C.)

No.	Name.	Number.	Rank.	Unit.	Deed
1	ALGIE, Wallace Lloyd	—	Lieutenant	20th Battalion	Oct.
2	BARKER, William George (D.S.O., M.C.)	—	Major	Royal Air Force, formerly Canadian Mounted Rifles	Oct.
3	BARRON, Colin	404017	Corporal	3rd Battalion	Nov. 6
4	BELLOW, Edward Donald	—	Captain	7th Battalion	April 24
5	BISHOP, William Avery (D.S.O., M.C., D.F.C.)	—	Lieut.-Col.	Royal Air Force, formerly Canadian Light Horse.	—
6	BRERETON, Alexander	830681	Acting Corporal	8th Battalion	Aug. 9
7	BRILLANT, John (M.C.)	—	Lieutenant	22nd Battalion	Aug. 8-9
8	BROWN, Harry	226353	Private	10th Battalion	Aug. 16
9	CARNS, Hugh (D.C.M.)	472168	Private	46th Battalion	Nov. 1
10	CAMPBELL, Frederick William	—	Lieutenant	1st Battalion	June 15
11	CLARK, Leonard	73132	Acting Corporal	2nd Battalion	Sept. 10
12	CLARKE-KENNEDY, William H. (C.M.G., D.S.O.)	—	Lieut.-Col.	24th Battalion	Aug. 27-28
13	COMBE, Robert Grierson	—	Lieutenant	27th Battalion	May 3
14	COPPENS, Frederick George	1987	Corporal	8th Battalion	Aug. 9
15	CHRAK, John Bernard	445312	Private	13th Battalion	Aug. 8
16	DINESEN, THOMAS	2075467	Private	42nd Battalion	Aug. 12
17	FINBER, Frederick	24066	Lance-Corporal	13th Battalion	April 23
18	FLOWERDEW, Gordon M.	—	Lieutenant	Lord Strathcona's Horse.	Mar. 30
19	GOOD, Herman James	445120	Corporal	13th Battalion	Aug. 8
20	GREGG, Milton Fowler (M.C.)	—	Lieutenant	Royal Canadian Regiment	Oct. 1
21	HALL, Frederick William	1539	Colour-Sergeant	8th Battalion	April 24
22	HANNA, Robert	75361	Company Sergeant-Major	29th Battalion	Aug. 21
23	HARVEY, Frederick M. W.	—	Lieutenant	Lord Strathcona's Horse.	Mar. 27
24	HOBSON, Frederick	57113	Sergeant	30th Battalion	Aug. 15
25	HOLMES, Thomas William	838301	Private	4th Canadian Mounted Rifles.	Oct. 26
26	HONEY, Samuel Lewis (D.C.M., M.M.)	—	Lieutenant	78th Battalion	Sept. 29
27	HUTCHESON, Bellenend Seymour	—	Captain	75th Battalion (Medical Officer).	Sept. 2
28	KARBLE, Joseph (M.M.)	889958	Corporal	22nd Battalion	June 8-9
29	KERR, George Fraser (M.C.)	—	Lieutenant	3rd Battalion	Sept. 27
30	KERR, John Chipman	101465	Private	40th Battalion	Sept. 16
31	KINROSS, Cecil John	437793	Private	10th Battalion	Nov. 10-11
32	KNIGHT, Arthur George	428402	Acting Sergeant	47th Battalion	Sept. 2
33	KONOWAL, Filip	144039	Acting Corporal	47th Battalion	Aug. 22-2
34	LEARMONTH, O'Kill Massey (M.C.)	—	Captain, Acting Major	2nd Battalion	Aug. 18
35	LYALL, Graham Thompson	—	Lieutenant	102nd Battalion	Sept. 2
36	MACGREGOR, John (M.C., D.C.M.)	—	Captain	2nd Canadian Mounted Rifles.	Oct. 3
37	MACDOWELL, Thain Wendell (D.S.O.)	—	Captain, Acting Major	38th Battalion	April 9-13
38	MCKEAN, George Burdon (M.C., M.M.)	—	Lieutenant	14th Battalion	April 27-2
39	McKENZIE, Hugh (D.C.M.)	—	Lieutenant	7th Machine Gun Company	Oct. 30
40	McLEOD, Allan Arnett	—	2nd Lieutenant	Royal Air Force.	Oct. 1
41	MERRIFIELD, William (M.M.)	8000	Sergeant	4th Battalion, Canadian Engineers.	Oct. 1
42	METCALF, William Henry (M.M.)	22614	Lance-Corporal	16th Battalion	Sept. 4
43	MILNE, William Johnstone	427586	Private	16th Battalion	April 9
44	MISER, Harry G. B.	823028	Corporal	58th Battalion	Aug. 8
45	MITCHELL, Coulson Norman (M.C.)	—	Captain	4th Battalion	Oct. 9
46	MULLIN, George Harry (M.M.)	51339	Sergeant	Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry	Oct. 30
47	NUNSEY, Claude, J. P. (D.C.M.)	410935	Private	35th Battalion	Sept. 2
48	O'KELLY, Christopher Patrick John (M.C.)	—	Acting Captain	52nd Battalion	Oct. 26
49	O'LOURKE, Michael James (M.M.)	428545	Private	7th Battalion	Aug. 15-17
50	PATTON, John George	808887	Private	50th Battalion	April 10
51	PEARRES, George R. (D.S.O., M.C.)	—	Major	5th Canadian Mounted Rifles.	Oct. 30-31
52	PECK, Cyrus Wesley (D.S.O.)	—	Lieut.-Colonel	16th Battalion	Sept. 2
53	RAYFIELD, Walter Leigh	2204279	Private	7th Battalion	Sept. 2
54	RICHARDSON, James	28930	Piper	16th Battalion	Oct. 8
55	ROBERTSON, James Peter	552665	Private	16th Battalion	Nov. 6
56	RUTHERFORD, Charles Smith	—	Lieutenant	27th Battalion	Aug. 26
57	SCRIMGER, Francis Alexander Caron	—	Captain	5th Canadian Mounted Rifles.	Mar. 25
58	SHANKLAND, Robert (D.C.M.)	—	Lieutenant	14th Battalion (Medical Officer).	Oct. 26
59	SIFTON, Ellis Wellwood	53730	Lance-Sergeant	43rd Battalion	April 9
60	SPALL, Robert L.	475212	Sergeant	18th Battalion	Aug. 12-11
61	STRACHAN, Hircus (M.C.)	—	Lieutenant	Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry	Nov. 20
62	TAIT, James Edward (M.C.)	—	Lieutenant	Fort Garry Horse.	Aug. 8-11
63	YOUNG, John Francis	177239	Private	78th Battalion	Sept. 2
64	ZENGEL, Raphael Louis (M.M.)	424252	Sergeant	87th Battalion	Aug. 9
				5th Battalion	Aug. 9

APPENDICES.

For conspicuous bravery, instituted January 29, 1856.

Deed.	Gazette.	Casualty.	Date.	Where Won.	No.
Oct. 11, 1918	Jan. 31, 1919	Killed in action	Oct. 11, 1918	Cambrai	1
Oct. 27, 1918	Nov. 29, 1918	—	—	Forêt de Mormal	2
Nov. 6, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Passchendaele Ridge	3
April 24, 1915	May 15, 1919	—	—	Ypres	4
—	Aug. 11, 1918	—	—	Near Cambrai	5
Aug. 9, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	—	—	East of Amiens	6
Aug. 8-9, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	Died of wounds	Aug. 18, 1918	East of Meharicourt	7
Aug. 16, 1917	Oct. 17, 1917	Killed in action	Oct. 17, 1917	Hill 70 near Loos	8
Nov. 1, 1918	Jan. 31, 1919	Died of wounds	Nov. 2, 1918	Valenciennes	9
June 15, 1915	Aug. 23, 1915	Died of wounds	June 15, 1915	Givenchy	10
Sept. 10, 1916	Oct. 26, 1916	Died of wounds	Oct. 19, 1916	Near Pozières	11
Aug. 27-28, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Arras	12
May 3, 1917	June 27, 1917	Killed in action	May 3, 1917	South of Acheville	13
Aug. 9, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	—	—	Beaufort Wood	14
Aug. 8, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	Killed in action	Aug. 8, 1918	Amiens	15
Aug. 12, 1918	Oct. 29, 1918	—	—	Parvillers	16
April 23, 1915	June 22, 1915	Killed in action	April 23, 1915	St. Julien	17
Mar. 30, 1918	April 24, 1918	—	—	Northeast of Bois de Moreuil	18
Aug. 8, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	—	—	Hangard Wood	19
Oct. 1, 1918	Jan. 6, 1919	—	—	Cambrai	20
April 24, 1915	June 22, 1915	Killed in action	April 24, 1915	Ypres	21
Aug. 21, 1917	Nov. 8, 1917	—	—	Lens	22
Mar. 27, 1917	June 8, 1917	—	—	Guyencourt	23
Aug. 15, 1917	Oct. 17, 1917	Killed in action	Aug. 18, 1917	Northwest of Lens	24
Oct. 26, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Near Passchendaele	25
Sept. 29, 1918	Jan. 6, 1919	Died of wounds	Sept. 30, 1918	Bourlon Wood	26
Sept. 2, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Quéant-Drocourt Line	27
June 8-9, 1918	Sept. 16, 1918	Died of wounds	June 9, 1918	Neuville-Vitasse	28
Sept. 27, 1918	Jan. 6, 1919	—	—	Bourlon Wood	29
Sept. 16, 1916	Oct. 26, 1916	—	—	Courette	30
Nov. 10-11, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Passchendaele Ridge	31
Sept. 2, 1918	Nov. 15, 1918	Killed in action	Sept. 3, 1918	Villers-lez-Cagnicourt	32
Aug. 22-24, 1917	Nov. 27, 1917	—	—	Lens	33
Aug. 18, 1917	Nov. 8, 1917	Died of wounds	Aug. 19, 1917	East of Loos	34
Sept. 2, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Bourlon Wood	35
Oct. 3, 1918	Jan. 6, 1919	—	—	Cambrai	36
April 9-13, 1917	June 8, 1917	—	—	Vimy Ridge	37
April 27-28, 1918	June 28, 1918	—	—	Cavrelle Sector	38
Oct. 30, 1917	Feb. 13, 1918	Killed in action	Oct. 30, 1917	Meetechele Spur near Passchendaele	39
—	May 1, 1918	—	—	Abancourt	40
Oct. 1, 1918	Jan. 6, 1919	—	—	—	41
Sept. 4, 1918	Nov. 15, 1918	—	—	Arras	42
April 9, 1917	June 8, 1917	Killed in action	April 9, 1917	Near Thelus	43
Aug. 8, 1918	Oct. 26, 1918	Died of wounds	Aug. 8, 1918	Demuin	44
Oct. 9, 1918	Jan. 31, 1919	—	—	Canal de l'Escaut (Cambrai)	45
Oct. 30, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Passchendaele	46
Sept. 2, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Quéant-Drocourt Line	47
Oct. 26, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Southwest of Passchendaele	48
Aug. 15-17, 1917	Nov. 8, 1917	—	—	Hill 60 near Lens	49
April 10, 1917	Aug. 2, 1917	Killed in action	June 3, 1917	Vimy Ridge	50
Oct. 30-31, 1917	Jan. 11, 1918	—	—	Near Passchendaele	51
Sept. 2, 1918	Nov. 15, 1918	—	—	Cagnicourt	52
Sept. 2, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Arras	53
Oct. 8, 1916	Oct. 22, 1918	Killed in action	Oct. 9, 1916	Regina Trench	54
Nov. 6, 1917	Nov. 11, 1918	Killed in action	Nov. 6, 1917	Passchendaele	55
Aug. 26, 1918	Nov. 15, 1918	—	—	Monchy-le-Preux	56
Mar. 25, 1915	June 23, 1915	—	—	Near Ypres	57
Oct. 26, 1917	Dec. 18, 1917	—	—	Passchendaele	58
April 9, 1917	June 8, 1917	Killed in action	April 9, 1917	Neuville St. Vaast	59
Aug. 12-13, 1918	Oct. 26, 1918	Killed in action	Aug. 13, 1918	Parvillers	60
Nov. 20, 1917	Dec. 18, 1917	—	—	Masnères	61
Aug. 8-11, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	Killed in action	Aug. 11, 1918	Amiens	62
Sept. 2, 1918	Dec. 14, 1918	—	—	Arras	63
Aug. 9, 1918	Sept. 27, 1918	—	—	East of Warvillers	64

II.—Statistical Abstract, showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force.

1. VICTORIA CROSS (V.C.).

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	3
Major.....	2
Captain.....	8
Lieutenant.....	17
Sergeant.....	10
Corporal.....	10
Private.....	14
Total.....	64

2. THE MOST HONOURABLE ORDER OF THE BATH.
(Instituted 1399.)

KNIGHT COMMANDER (K.C.B.).	
Lieutenant-General.....	3
Major-General.....	5
Total.....	8
COMPANION (C.B.).	
Major-General.....	4
Brigadier-General.....	29
Colonel.....	10
Total.....	43

3. THE MOST DISTINGUISHED ORDER OF ST. MICHAEL AND ST. GEORGE. (Instituted 1818).

KNIGHT GRAND CROSS (G.C.M.G.).	
Lieutenant-General.....	1
KNIGHT COMMANDER (K.C.M.G.).	
Major-General.....	5
COMPANION (C.M.G.).	
Major-General.....	9
Brigadier-General.....	38
Surgeon-General.....	1
Colonel.....	38
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	74
Major.....	5
Chaplain.....	4
Total.....	169

4. THE ROYAL VICTORIAN ORDER.
(Instituted 1896.)

MEMBER (M.V.O.).	
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Captain.....	1
Total.....	2

5. THE MOST EXCELLENT ORDER OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.
(Instituted 1917.)

COMMANDER (C.B.E.).	
Colonel.....	19
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	26
Major.....	1
Chaplain.....	1
Matron.....	1
Total.....	48
OFFICER (O.B.E.).	
Colonel.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	77
Major.....	105
Captain.....	90
Lieutenant.....	2
Chaplain.....	7
Matron.....	1
Total.....	253
MEMBER (M.B.E.).	
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	6
Major.....	12
Captain.....	29
Lieutenant.....	43
Regimental Sergeant-Major.....	2
Company Sergeant-Major.....	1
Staff Quartermaster-Sergeant.....	2
Sergeant Major.....	2
Total.....	97

6. DISTINGUISHED SERVICE ORDER
(D.S.O. with Bars).
(Instituted 1886.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Major-General.....	1	—
Brigadier-General.....	6	4
Colonel.....	—	6
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	68	202
Major.....	26	399
Captain.....	1	55
Lieutenant.....	1	32
Chaplain.....	—	7
Total.....	103	705

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7. MI

Major.
Captain
Lieuten
Chapla
Compa

8. D

Major
Captai
LieuteMajor
Captai
Lieute

10. D

Corpc

11. D

Capt
Lieut
Serge
Corp
Privi

II.—Statistical Abstract, showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force—con.

7. MILITARY CROSS (M.C.) With Bars.
(Instituted 1915.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Major.....	27	95
Captain.....	145	896
Lieutenant.....	136	1,807
Chaplain.....	2	25
Company Sergeant-Major.....	—	44
Total.....	310	2,867

8. DISTINGUISHED FLYING CROSS
(D.F.C.) With Bars.
(Instituted 1918.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Major.....	—	1
Captain.....	1	18
Lieutenant.....	3	20
Total.....	4	39

9. AIR FORCE CROSS (A.F.C.).
(Instituted 1918.)

Major.....	3
Captain.....	7
Lieutenant.....	6
Total.....	16

10. DISTINGUISHED FLYING MEDAL
(D.F.M.)
(Instituted 1918.)

Corporal.....	1
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11. DISTINGUISHED CONDUCT MEDAL
(D.C.M.) With Bars.
(Instituted 1862.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Captain.....	—	1
Lieutenant.....	—	10
Sergeant-Major.....	9	340
Sergeant.....	19	726
Corporal.....	5	394
Private.....	5	448
Total.....	38	1,919

12. MILITARY MEDAL WITH BARS (M.M.).
(Instituted 1916.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Lieutenant.....	2	21
Matron.....	—	1
Nursing Sister.....	—	8
Sergeant.....	318	3,062
Corporal.....	194	2,984
Private.....	359	6,149
Total.....	873	12,225

13. ROYAL RED CROSS (R.R.C.) with Bars.
(Instituted 1909.)

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Matron.....	3	39
Nursing Sister.....	—	273
Total.....	3	312

14. KING'S POLICE MEDAL.
(Instituted 1909.)

Sergeant.....	1
---------------	---

15. MERITORIOUS SERVICE MEDAL.
(Instituted 1845.)

Lieutenant.....	4
Sergeant.....	901
Corporal.....	168
Private.....	193
Total.....	1,266

16. MENTIONED IN DISPATCHES.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-General.....	2
Major-General.....	48
Brigadier-General.....	18
Colonel.....	56
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	378
Major.....	648
Captain.....	676
Lieutenant.....	645
Chaplain.....	16
Matron.....	15
Nursing Sister.....	117
Sergeant.....	1,125
Corporal.....	345
Private.....	412
Total.....	4,501

II.—Statistical Abstract, showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force—con.
17. FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS.
FRENCH
LÉGION D'HONNEUR—CROIX DE COMMANDEUR.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-General.....	2
Major-General.....	1
Brigadier-General.....	2
Surgeon-General.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	2
Total.....	8

LÉGION D'HONNEUR—CROIX D'OFFICIER.

Rank.	No.
Major-General.....	2
Brigadier-General.....	6
Surgeon-General.....	2
Colonel.....	2
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	5
Total.....	17

LÉGION D'HONNEUR—CROIX DE CHEVALIER.

Rank.	No.
Brigadier-General.....	1
Colonel.....	3
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	9
Major.....	11
Captain.....	6
Lieutenant.....	2
Total.....	32

MÉDAILLE MILITAIRE.

Rank.	No.
Sergeant.....	27
Corporal.....	12
Private.....	11
Total.....	50

DÉCORATION MILITAIRE.

Rank.	No.
Sergeant.....	6
Corporal.....	1
Private.....	1
Total.....	8

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—continued.
CROIX DE GUERRE. (Belgian and French.)

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-General.....	1
Major-General.....	5
Brigadier-General.....	12
Colonel.....	5
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	37
Major.....	54
Captain.....	51
Lieutenant.....	58
Sergeant.....	241
Corporal.....	86
Private.....	158
Total.....	708

**MÉDAILLE D'HONNEUR AVEC GLAIVES.
(en Vermeil.)**

Rank.	No.
Sergeant.....	2
Private.....	1
Total.....	3

(en Argent.)

Rank.	No.
Sergeant.....	3
Corporal.....	4
Total.....	7

(en Bronze.)

Rank.	No.
Corporal.....	3
Private.....	12
Total.....	15

**MÉDAILLE DES ÉPIDÉMIES.
(en Argent.)**

Rank.	No.
Major.....	1
Nursing Sister.....	2
Quartermaster Sergeant.....	1
Total.....	4

II.—Statistical Abstract, showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force—con.

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—
continued
(en Vermeil.)

Rank.	No.
Nursing Sister.....	1

ORDRE DU MÉRITE AGRICOLE. Chevalier.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	3
Major.....	2
Captain.....	1
Lieutenant.....	1
Total.....	7

MÉDAILLE DE LA RECONNAISSANCE. (FRANÇAISE.)
(en Bronze.)

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Lieutenant.....	1
Total.....	2

BELGIAN

ORDRE DE LÉOPOLD—COMMANDEUR.

Rank.	No.
Major-General.....	1

ORDRE DE LÉOPOLD—OFFICIER.

Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
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ORDRE DE LÉOPOLD—CHEVALIER.

Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Major.....	2
Sergeant.....	1
Not stated.....	1
Total.....	5

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—
continued

ORDRE DE LA COURONNE—OFFICIER.

Lieutenant-General.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	2
Total.....	3

ORDRE DE LA COURONNE—CHEVALIER.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant.....	1

MÉDAILLE DE LA REINE ELIZABETH.

Rank.	No.
Matron.....	1
Nursing Sister.....	2
Total.....	3

RUSSIAN

ORDER OF ST. STANISLAS.

Rank.	No.
Major-General.....	1
Brigadier-General.....	2
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	3
Major.....	8
Captain.....	9
Lieutenant.....	8
Total.....	31

ORDER OF ST. ANNE.

Rank.	No.
Colonel.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	5
Major.....	8
Captain.....	3
Lieutenant.....	2
Total.....	19

II.—Statistical Abstract, showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force—con.

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—continued

CROSS OF ST. GEORGE.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant.....	3
Sergeant.....	14
Corporal.....	7
Private.....	79
Total.....	103

MEDAL OF ST. GEORGE.

Rank.	No.
Sergeant.....	6
Corporal.....	7
Private.....	12
Total.....	25

ORDER OF ST. VLADIMIR.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Major.....	1
Total.....	2

ITALIAN

ORDER OF THE CROWN OF ITALY.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1

ORDER OF ST. MAURICE AND ST. LAZARUS.

Rank.	No.
Brigadier-General.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	2
Total.....	3

SILVER MEDAL FOR MILITARY VALOUR.

Rank.	No.
Captain.....	3
Lieutenant.....	1
Total.....	4

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—continued

BRONZE MEDAL FOR MILITARY VALOUR.

Rank.	No.
Captain.....	1
Lieutenant.....	2
Sergeant.....	9
Corporal.....	4
Private.....	6
Total.....	22

SERBIAN

ORDER OF THE WHITE EAGLE.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-General.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Major.....	2
Total.....	4

ORDER OF ST. SAVA.

Rank.	No.
Major-General.....	2
Colonel.....	1
Captain.....	2
Total.....	5

GOLD MEDAL FOR ZEALOUS SERVICE.

Rank.	No.
Private.....	1

MONTENEGRIN

ORDER OF DANILU.

Rank.	No.
Brigadier-General.....	2
Colonel.....	1
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	1
Major.....	2
Lieutenant.....	2
Total.....	8

II.—Statistical Abstract showing Number of Military Honours and Decorations conferred upon Members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force—concluded.

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—
continued

SILVER MEDAL FOR BRAVERY.

Rank.	No.
Private	2

PORTUGUESE

MILITARY ORDER OF AVIZ.

Rank.	No.
Brigadier-General	1
Colonel	3
Total	4

RUMANIAN

ORDER OF THE STAR OF RUMANIA.

CHEVALIER.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel	1
Lieutenant	1
Total	2

ORDER OF THE CROWN OF RUMANIA.

CHEVALIER.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel	1
Lieutenant	1
Total	2

CROIX DE VERTUE MILITAIRE.

Rank.	No.
Sergeant	4

FOREIGN ORDERS AND DECORATIONS—
concluded

MÉDAILLE BARRATIE SI CREDENTA.

Rank.	No.
Sergeant	3
Private	3
Total	6

ORDER OF REGINA MARIA.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-Colonel	1

AMERICAN

DISTINGUISHED SERVICE MEDAL.

Rank.	No.
Lieutenant-General	1
Major	1
Total	2

18. SUMMARY OF ALL ORDERS AND DECORATIONS, BY RANKS.

Rank.	Bars.	No.
Lieutenant-General	-	9
Major-General	1	35
Brigadier-General	6	98
Surgeon-General	-	4
Colonel	-	90
Lieutenant-Colonel	68	464
Major	53	713
Captain	147	1,151
Lieutenant	140	2,044
Chaplain	2	44
Matron	3	33
Nursing Sister	-	286
Regimental Sergeant-Major	-	2
Company Sergeant-Major	-	45
Staff Quartermaster-Sergeant	-	3
Sergeant-Major	9	342
Sergeant	337	5,006
Corporal	199	3,681
Private	364	7,088
Not stated	-	1
Total	1,329	21,139