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MATTERS OF MOMENT

THESE ARE THE DAYS when optimism backed by sound reasoning is a tonic. For that reason General Sir Archibald Wavell's broadcast talk as we entered the fourth year of the war was as stimulating as it was sound.

A Tonic Broadcast

His words carried conviction by cold, hard facts, which braced his listeners and confounded those who for ever fret and fuss about our shortcomings. It is well that some one in authority in India has cast up a balance sheet, the sum total of which demonstrates beyond all doubt that this war can have but one result—presupposing that we cast aside complacency and face the future with grim resolution. On the credit side we have the four mightiest nations on earth, each led by men of courage, vigour and vision; output of munitions, aeroplanes, tanks, guns and ships is rising; reports from the occupied countries of Europe talk of revolt among the enslaved peoples.

How can the enemy view the situation? Harassed by a less plentiful larder, with labour shortages on all sides, with the need for conserving stocks, with the prospect of more intensive bombing raids, and with the uncertainty of a second front, not the least of the Fuehrer's anxieties must be the effect of the enormous German losses in Russia on the millions of his dupes in the Fatherland. As the Commander-in-Chief said: "The shape of things to come is taking on an ever grimmer aspect for the German people; their hearts are sinking into their empty stomachs; soon they will sink still lower into their *ersatz* boots". Hitler may well change the tune of his speeches. By treachery he has achieved his successes; by misleading propaganda he has sought to prove his statement in *Mein Kampf* that the bigger the lie the more likelihood there is that it will be believed. But the iron hand of the Gestapo may prove as brittle as glass when defeat stares him and his followers in the face. The moral to the despondent, the grumbler, and the doubter is plain: Make up your mental balance sheet, and go to your task, whatever it may be, invigorated, heartened, and refreshed.

The Fuehrer's Anxieties

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IT IS, WE BELIEVE, within the sphere of this Journal to survey briefly a subject which attracted considerable attention in Great Britain a short time ago, when the desirability of establishing a Combined General Staff was widely debated. The subject is not new, but the course of the war has led many to search for what is widely held, rightly or wrongly, to be a fault in our system. Lack of a proper and necessary balance between the different arms of the Services has seemed to dog our steps hitherto, and if there is a defect it will be generally agreed that every endeavour should be made to put it right. We do not propose to comment on the pros and cons of the sub-

A Combined General Staff

ject, but it is perhaps permissible to point out that such a reform has in fact been tested out in the present war on a small scale, for a "Combined Operations Headquarters", of which Lord Louis Mountbatten is Chairman, has been responsible for the organisation of the inspiring raids recently made on the French coast. It is justifiable to surmise that if a "Combined General Staff" on a small scale was deemed desirable for those operations, it is likely to be equally efficacious in the war as a whole, for nearly all the factors to be found in major operations are present in these small but effective raids. The summary of the discussion is, however, included in our pages solely with the object of keeping our readers well-informed on an important military subject.

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The Salvage Front

WE MAKE NO APOLOGY for returning to the subject of salvage, which becomes of increasing importance as the war drags on. Elsewhere in this issue will be found a survey of what was done in the Great War and what is being done in India to-day. It will be seen that in the main, the organisation compares favourably with 1914-18, but is the individual, the main-spring of the movement, doing enough? Why not face the facts frankly and admit that he or she is not? We need a more aggressive spirit on this salvage front. Months of planning at Headquarters are now yielding fruit; factories, machinery and staffs are now in full swing, improvising, inventing, and salvaging a wide variety of articles. What is essential now is a nation-wide revival of the spirit which seized the whole British nation a quarter of a century ago. To carry out the bare orders on this particular "war front" is not enough. We want individual men and women to determine that he or she will not waste a single article, and, if its first life is spent, to see that means are found whereby its ingredients can be utilised in other ways. In the last

War salvage played no small part in leading us to victory. In this War its influence will be even greater.

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"THE ALLIANCE OF OUR two countries has been born of political and military history: it must become a human reality". These words of sound common sense are culled from the "Ten Commandments" compiled by General Sir Archibald Wavell for members of the Fighting Services in India. This is a timely opportunity to put them into practice, for with so many newcomers in this country the more each individual strives to learn of India and its peoples, the better will be the relations between the two communities. English customs are as strange to Indians as many Indian practices are to the Britisher. The smile that appears on the face of an Englishman when asked "where the bazaar is in London" is comparable with the look of amazement which greets the new British Officer who regards as strange the fact that his men play football in bare feet.

Fostering Good Relations

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How, then, can we foster this "human" atmosphere? One method, we suggest, is to establish small "Brains Trusts" in camps housing British troops, and to invite two or three local Indians, or English-speaking V.C.O.'s, to become members. The response would be immediate, and members of the audience seeking knowledge of any particular Indian custom, whether it deals with religion or any of the hundred and one details of everyday life, would gain valuable first-hand information. Interspersed with such questions would be inquiries of a general nature, which the British members of the Trust might be able to deal with. To inaugurate such a scheme requires little organisation A Brains Trust would have as Question-

Set up Brains Trusts

master a man of broad ideas, tact, and intuition; its members could be composed of all ranks; questions could be invited beforehand from those who intend to be present, and the problems selected might well yield much interesting, instructive and entertaining answers. The fruits of such meetings would be a better understanding by Britain's new Citizen Army of the Indian and his customs, a fostering of good relationship between the two communities, and a warmer feeling of friendship. As the Commander-in-Chief has written in another of his "Ten Commandments:" "Our common task is not only to win the war but the peace as well. This we will only be able to do if we remain united. We will only remain united if we understand one another."

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Brazil Declares War

BRAZIL'S DECLARATION OF WAR against Germany and Italy, "in face of the acts of war against our sovereignty," has for some time been a foregone conclusion. For years Germany has sought to apply her well-known infiltration policy to this enormous South American Republic, among whose inhabitants are 1,500,000 Italians, nearly 200,000 Germans, and a similar number of Japanese. Economically, by means of barter agreements, Nazi Germany had in the pre-War years exchanged much of her machinery for Brazil's agricultural and mineral products, and by propaganda through the well-organised German and Italian inhabitants, had endeavoured to foster the National Socialist cult there. She achieved a certain measure of success, which, however, has been nullified by the action of her submarine commanders in ruthlessly sinking many Brazilian ships. By her action Brazil has given a significant lead to other Latin American countries, notably Uruguay, Argentina and Chile.

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Strategically, our new Ally will be of great value in providing bases and re-fuelling depots in the ten valuable harbours on her 3,500 mile-long Atlantic seaboard. The passage of Allied convoys in the Central Atlantic will be assisted by the anti-submarine chasers which will now be able to set out from these ports. Moreover, Port Natal being only 1,700 miles from the African mainland will prove to be a valuable bridgehead from which aircraft can fly to West Africa *en route* either for Great Britain or the Middle East. Her armed forces, as such, are comparatively small, numbering only some 100,000 in 1939, but for years her youth has had a good grounding in her conscripted army, so that her reserves are not inconsiderable.

A Valuable Ally

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In the field of raw materials the United Nations will benefit greatly. As an exporter of minerals used extensively for war equipment, coupled with her agricultural output, Brazil will prove a most useful Ally. She exports, for instance, over 250,000 tons of manganese annually; her coal reserves are estimated at 5,000 million tons; she owns one of the richest iron ore deposits in the world and exports nearly 200,000 tons annually. Rubber is an important natural product of the country, which is also the chief source of carnauba wax, used for electric insulation and gramophone records. As an agricultural producer Brazil will be valuable in augmenting the national larder of Britain. In round figures, she has nearly 20,000,000 acres under cultivation, some 600,000 of which are under maize, 400,000 acres under coffee, and 150,000 acres under rice. She is the second highest producer of cocoa in the world, and third in sugar and tobacco. Brazil now ranks second only to the United States of America in the export of oranges, sending abroad nearly 3,500,000 boxes every year. As a source of meat supplies she is of outstanding importance to the Allied cause. Shipping

Brazil's Vast Resources

difficulties there are, of course, but the added protection the United Navies will be able to give by the use of Brazilian harbours may have a profound effect on Hitler's submarine campaign in the Atlantic. Thus this new Ally of the democratic cause will not only assist materially the resources of the United Nations, but will give an inspiring lead to those of her neighbours who are hesitating.

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The "Empire" Mind

IS THERE NEED AMONG US of a revival of faith in the purpose of the British Empire? A member of the Institution says there is, and not a few will agree with him, for there is a spiritual link between that suggestion and the attitude of mind one encounters occasionally to-day. If we are sincere in our beliefs, for a Jap to land in Burma should be as great an insult to us as for a German to land in England. Is it? The question is one for the individual to answer honestly. If it is in the negative, can the questioner hope to impart to his men that spark of enthusiasm which will be not the least of the driving force when we evict the invader from Burma, Malaya and other Far Eastern countries?

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A Spiritual Impulse

Mr. Amery declared in England recently that the Empire can not merely survive the onslaughts of its enemies, but prosper beyond the boldest imagination of any of its sons. To do that we must discover a new high purpose in life. We must have more solid faith in our aims, develop anew an Imperial pride, show the world and posterity that the sons of Britain, the Dominions and India are as virile, determined and unconquerable as their forefathers. This is a subject which deserves to be pondered over by those who are going to lead the Crusade against the Far Eastern gangsters. It will provide the spiritual impulse which has inspired whole nations in the past—and will do so again in the future.

Support War Loans

WHEN RISING COSTS of living assail every individual and more and more calls are made on incomes, an appeal for saving may seem strange, but it is not only patriotic but wise to support to the full the national war loans which are being raised. In this field it is but right that officers of the Defence Services should take the lead. Many are doing so, for they realise that the raising of money with which to buy and manufacture weapons of war is a vital section of our war economy. But more can be done. At times such as these a big bank balance is not a matter of pride. Every anna that can be spared should be invested in one or other war loan. A specific instruction to the Bank to allocate ten per cent., or even five per cent. of the proceeds of the monthly pay bill will materially assist the country's Exchequer, and yield the lender interest which would not accrue when it is merely standing to his credit in the bank.

Members are earnestly requested to notify any change of address to the Secretary without delay. Such cooperation will not only help to ease postal traffic at a time when mail services are over burdened, but will also ensure prompt receipt of the Journal each quarter.

"WHAT DO I DO NEXT?"

THE ARMY IN INDIA, in contrast to its enemies, each of whom has no more than a single problem to worry him, must be prepared to fight anywhere from the Western Desert to Burma and beyond. Differences in equipment and tactical methods introduce the inevitable complications in to training, and there must be many a harassed commander who feels that life would be very much simpler if only he could be told what to train for, and then left to get on with it. Unfortunately, and with the best will in the world, this is not always possible, so it is worth while examining the whole problem of training to find out what can be got on with now and what must await a final polish in the part of the world in which the unit or formation is eventually called upon to fight. For of that there can be no doubt; opposed as we are by first-class enemies who are specifically trained for the task they have in hand, we must ensure that our troops do not go into battle unless they too have had equal opportunity for specialised training.

For the purposes of this examination we can conveniently break the subject down into technical training, which covers the whole field of military subjects requiring specialised skill or knowledge; physical training; and mental training. The last two are self-explanatory.

In peace we probably paid more than its fair share of attention to technical training, which generally reached a very high standard; a number of units insisted on physical fitness, though not generally to an extent that is common to-day; and mental training, except for one aspect of it, was very much neglected.

However, we are not training for peace, but for war, and the three headings call for investigation into the extent to which each can be divided into what can and should be done during preparatory or basic training, and what must await the final specialised training under conditions resembling as closely as possible those in which the troops will fight.

It must be obvious that a very considerably expanded war-time army cannot hope to reach the technical standards of its peace-time parent, and it will be as well to face this fact, particularly during the very early stages, and to consider whether a

completely different method of approach is not desirable. Instruction must be much more gradual, while at the same time passing up the various grades as rapidly as possible. This point will require very careful supervision. The average non-commissioned officer, however well he may do at a school of instruction, is not capable of the necessary discrimination, and he will attempt to drag his bewildered listeners through a maze of technicalities which he himself probably no more than half understands. Instruction must be limited to what the learner needs to know at the particular stage he has reached; that and no more.

Again, in peace, we aimed at acquiring a good general knowledge to form a sound working basis to which more specialised knowledge can very rapidly be added as necessary. There is no time for that now. We must concentrate strictly on essentials; and instead of wasting the best part of a morning arguing in how many ways a hill might be captured, we should devote a frugal quarter of an hour to discovering how few alternatives will pass the scrutiny of a really objective examination and emerge as possibilities. We should then go and practise them, for discussion in these days is valueless unless it is linked to execution. And practice, or methods of execution, must be ruthlessly overhauled and standardized for simplicity as far as possible.

We can conclude, for the moment therefore, that our technical training must be very carefully progressed, that it must be rigidly economical, and we are left with the certainty that there will be a lot that will require a final polish on the day before the race.

There is a popular fallacy, which was effectively exploded in an article in the last number of this journal—"Burma: A New Technique of War," that there is no need to harden oneself against discomfort; all will be well on the day. Quite apart from the fact that the physical strain of war can and does reduce men to physical wrecks, the road to this final collapse is marked by a steadily diminishing efficiency. And the road will be all the shorter, and efficiency will disappear all the more rapidly, unless we do something about it. The slum child thrives in conditions which would kill a child film star in a fortnight; not because physically he is any stronger, but because he is used to them.

The first responsibility of a commander in this matter is undoubtedly to mitigate the hardships his men must suffer. Their food and their clothing must be suited to the conditions of the

country, and a very heavy responsibility rests on the medical profession as the expert advisers in these matters. Promiscuous amateur experiments can do more harm than good.

The next step is to ensure that food and extra warmth will be available when wanted. Most commanding officers pick their quartermaster from the second eleven; they would be well advised to give the appointment to the best officer they have. The individual man must then be taught to look after himself, to make the most economical use of what comforts can be provided for him, to avoid the crasser forms of stupidity which can be just as destructive as a self-inflicted wound, and to learn to do his work as efficiently as possible in the circumstances. Finally, a carefully graded course of physical exercise will enormously increase resistance to fatigue, bodily and mental. It seems, then, that a very great deal can be done under this heading in the preliminary stages, and that little should be left to the last except to condition the man to any special climatic atrocity of the country he has to fight in.

The form of mental training which did receive a lot of attention in peace, and which demands equally careful attention in war—for it is a plant of slow growth—is the relations and confidence which must exist at all levels between the leader and the led. In a new unit there will be little of tradition or custom to build on, and, in any case, it is a problem which every leader must solve for himself, for the solution must depend upon the gifts nature has given him. But there are ways how not to do it, and every commander must see that his subordinates are not setting forth on a hopelessly wrong bearing.

The next step is to conquer man's natural reactions to fear. Fear of noise, and fear of that which flies, descend to us from the days when our ancestors lived a good deal further up the tree than we do. But a man can be taught that noise does not kill; and that flies can be swotted. The instinct of self-preservation is naturally far more highly developed in some than in others, but there is no doubt that by proving conclusively to the more cautious that immediate physical dissolution does not inevitably follow a leap from a fifteen-foot wall, a progressively increasing disregard for danger can be fostered. Guts is the Anglo-Saxon word for it.

It will be most important to link this training to any purely physical hardening that may be in progress: obstacle courses must not be just stupidly difficult, and there is ample scope for the introduction of psychological as well as physical hazards.

Lastly, short periods of drill, when men are in a state of considerable physical and mental distress, must be introduced as the tonic to restore control, both to the individual and to the leader.

The patriotic and spiritual aspect cannot be neglected; for such reserves of strength, though often not very obvious to the eye, will not only carry a man through when all else fails him, but will provide the vital spark that can animate a whole army.

Here again much, in fact nearly all, is basic training, and very little should need modification to meet special conditions.

Having examined the problem in detail, what collectively remains to be done? We must train the leader to see everything in its proper proportion and to watch detail without becoming hypnotized by it, for only thus can he hope to co-ordinate the working of his command as a whole. One big lesson he must learn is to decentralize; and for the commander of a newly-raising unit or formation it is a lesson which will try human nature to the last limit. There are three reasons why he must learn it. The first has already been mentioned—decentralization provides the only safe refuge from the demon detail. The second is that, whether he likes it or not, the commander will have to decentralize on the day of battle, so that it is imperative that he practises it now; the third will be discussed in a moment.

Decentralization, as a habit, can and must be introduced as part and parcel of any system of training. The first essential is that the subordinate should know, before he ever begins, what he is out to do. He will require therefore clear orders; and during training he may also require preliminary instruction. But once he sets his hand to it he must feel he is trusted to carry through, and, what is equally important, the leader must feel that confidence too. Interference during execution is justified only to correct the absolutely blatant blunder, criticism generally being reserved until later. And decentralization must go right down to the lowest ranks. Let us accept that when we send a man away with a barrow, we need not send a naik to watch him wheel it.

The second essential to decentralization is the perfection of the whole machinery of command. The leader must feel confident not only that his subordinate can be trusted to carry out his orders, but that the orders once given will inevitably reach the proper subordinate, and in time for him to act on them. For unless he enjoys the resultant freedom from anxiety he will never be free to exercise that essential function of a leader,

which alone and of itself makes decentralization essential. He will not be free to think, and to think ahead. The speed and complexity of modern battle impose upon the commander the need incessantly to study the future development of events, and to prepare for them. Without some forethought he is doomed to ignominious defeat at the hands of a more quick-thinking enemy; without a whole lot of forethought he can never hope to snatch and hold that elusive preliminary to success, the initiative.

Even when the immediate task seems well and truly finished, it is as well to remember that the war, as a whole, is not yet over. Others are moving up to carry on where we left off, and it is more than likely that we can in some measure prepare things for them; and, oddly enough, even the enemy may feel that the last word has not yet been said in the matter. Think and plan with proper care, but when the time for planning is over grudge every moment spent upon the present. In battle there is one, and only one, motto for the successful commander:

"What do I do next?"

BOMBING: THE WORM'S-EYE VIEW

By Lieutenant-Colonel G. T. Wheeler

This article is based on collected evidence which has been sifted and collated with the help of a little personal experience. The author makes no claim to have suffered all the indignities which would be necessary to render the article entirely first-hand.

AERIAL BOMBARDMENT and ground-strafing of troops has played such a large part in land operations during the present war that any knowledge which can ameliorate the lot of the target is worthy of study. The necessary knowledge divides itself broadly into two subjects: the methods used by enemy aircraft and the counter-measures which should be taken by troops.

The methods used by enemy aircraft naturally differ for each of the three main types, *viz.*, normal bombers, dive-bombers and fighters. It is, therefore, necessary that troops should learn to distinguish these types very early in their career. The formations in which they fly, and the tactics they employ, help one to recognize each type.

The normal bombers, which include the high-level and low-level bombers, work in a deliberate manner, and their target is usually a well-defined installation which has been selected some time before the raid. It is very exceptional for level bombers to engage an opportunity target, such as a battery coming into action. The reason for this is that it is far more difficult than the soldier believes for a bomber formation to fly over an area and select and bomb any suitable target that may happen to be there. So many mistakes are liable to occur that such an operation is not usually attempted. There are, in any case, plenty of permanent targets in or behind any battle area.

The high-level bomber is more disturbing to troops than the low-level formation, because the target area is harder to determine. Bombers at 18,000 feet passing over troops, even a mile to one side, will cause some apprehension; they have a horrid look of being right overhead. In fact, of course, the higher the bombers the more certain is it that their target is well-defined, and the less need for the small unit or individual to worry. The low-level bomber is probably after some target which is rather

hard to see: a small headquarters or a collection of concealed vehicles. Bomber pilots do not risk light A. A. fire and having our fighters on top of them for no reason.

Level-bombers' targets are usually selected either as a result of aerial reconnaissance or from information supplied by ground troops or fifth columnists. Troops that have been caught congested by a reconnaissance plane or flight will become possible objects for later attack. Similarly, troops engaged with the enemy who see their opponents moving clear of them for no apparent reason have probably been notified to enemy bombers as a target.

Dive-bombers are manned by pilots who have been specially trained to engage targets of opportunity. They come over at about 10,000 to 15,000 feet and dive on any good target within their area. The direction of their dive cannot be foreseen until it starts, so very little warning is given of their attack. In one way this has mental advantages, for the awful ordeal of seeing slow bombers grinding up towards one is avoided; the raid is over and finished with restful speed; in all other ways the event is somewhat shattering!

The dive-bomber has very little control over his aim once his dive is fairly launched, and has practically no power to increase the steepness of his dive; so if a moving vehicle is the target, it should be turned and driven hurriedly towards the diving plane in the hope of passing under it. This is a counsel of perfection which can seldom be followed, though it has been by armoured vehicles in the desert. The German dive-bombers usually come down twice in fairly quick succession on to the same target. The interval between the two attacks is about a minute, and that minute can often be spent very profitably by those who have been caught lying in the open.

Fighters attack from low level, very low, with machine-gun or cannon fire. Their target is usually a vehicle or vehicles moving on a road. They, also, attack twice or even more times. They are seldom alone, so the resultant attack from the target's point of view may seem a rather prolonged event. The attack is more horrid if made by two-seater fighters because the rear-gunner joins in as the machine pulls out of his dive, and for some reason he seems to be more deadly than the pilot.

Now let us see what general rules can be formed from these facts and tendencies of enemy aircraft:

(*a*) New arrivals in any area need not worry overmuch about level-bombers, unless they are in some permanent target area; such as a railway station or dump site.

(*b*) The higher the bombers the larger the target, so only very obvious targets should stop work when these pass on their way. It is of course only human for each individual to regard himself as very large and very obvious whenever enemy aircraft are overhead; but this thought must be combated.

(*c*) Troops who have been caught in good target formation by either enemy reconnaissance aircraft or by enemy ground troops will lengthen their lives if they spend the next twenty minutes reducing their target value.

(*d*) All troops who can, should disperse when enemy dive-bombers are about. Batteries of artillery should, if possible, avoid these periods for coming into action.

(*e*) Enemy fighters are harmless to troops so long as they keep high. When they fly in low or start to swoop they are probably after vehicles, so drivers should take some avoiding action. Vehicles, using roads within range of enemy ground-strafers should carry an air sentry, as the driver can neither hear nor see approaching planes.

We now come to the various methods which troops can adopt to save casualties from enemy air action. The Indian follower, and to a less extent the Indian soldier, has a strong natural desire to sit, or even stand, under a tree when bombers are overhead. He reckons that the danger is centred in the bomb falling directly on top of him; and all too frequently dies from the error of this thought. It is, furthermore, extremely difficult to convince him that he is much safer lying in the open than standing under a tree. The process of conversion should begin during his early training.

The first essential of air defence is a warning system suited to the local conditions. Any form of syren or hooter is quite out of place anywhere except in very large headquarters, and even there it probably does more harm by stopping work than it does good by preventing casualties. If heavy A. A. fire is available it is an ideal warning system. It should be the signal for roof-spotters to take posts, and not for a general stampede. When the roof-spotters see that the enemy aircraft are flying straight towards their headquarters they blow a whistle and the staff disperse with speed *and* dignity to their trenches or shelters. Dignity in an air raid is as essential as restraint in love; if either is missing, the event is apt to become chaotic and will be followed by regret.

Large headquarters frequently have one great advantage in air raids over other military formations, and that is the presence

of women. It has been proved beyond doubt that women are braver than men during a raid. It may be due to the fact that their brain weighs three ounces less than that of a man, but is more likely a compensation given to them by the Almighty for the unfailing courage that men show in the face of mice and spiders. Whatever the cause, there is many an officer and clerk who has had his courage restored by the absolute coolness of a twenty-year-old typist walking slowly to a slit trench. They apparently have no fear whatever.

Bofors and Light automatics cannot engage high bombers, so their fire is not a reliable warning system. Nor is it fair on the gunner to use it as such, for the last thing one wants is to give away an A. A. gun position prematurely.

The most suitable warning system in a Corps or Divisional Headquarters is whistle blasts by an air-sentry. The warning should be given when enemy aircraft are seen to be approaching, and should not wait for the attack to develop. The action taken will, in practice, be for everyone who is not urgently engaged, say telephoning, to come outside and look up.

Those that are unoccupied should walk towards the more distant slit trenches, leaving the closer ones for the last minute rush of those who are more busy. When the attack develops all take cover as best they can, remembering that it is far safer to be lying down in the open than running for a trench at the moment that a bomb bursts. It is, of course, better to lie in a slight depression or ditch rather than on flat ground.

Small headquarters and troops in action normally work to a whistle alarm; but since they cannot do much about it their chief warning system is the bomb itself. This is more satisfactory than it appears at first sight, because a bomb, by its scream, will give anything between three and ten seconds' warning, and one can do a lot in even three seconds when one's heart is in the job. A bomb that screams on a level note and at a fairly constant intensity is safe, because it is some way off. When the scream sounds something like an express train coming out of a tunnel, *i.e.* with greatly increasing intensity, then it is going to fall close and very rapid action is recommended. In practice it takes a brave man (or normal woman!) to do nothing even when the bomb scream is constant.

For all that has been said and written in official manuals, troops who have suffered much from enemy air action will not open fire on enemy planes with their rifles. They fear that it will attract unwelcome attention. In the case of Bofors guns

this may be true; but any airman will agree that a pilot simply does not know when small arms fire is opened on him, so he cannot be influenced by it into retaliation. This fact should be more widely spread, for it is either not known or not believed.

The part that slit trenches play in air defence is possibly exaggerated by the mental comfort that they give to the majority of people. There is a minority which prefers a small ditch or even the open country to a trench; their preference is probably based on a desire to be alone, which is understandable. Slit trenches undoubtedly provide almost complete protection against anything but a direct hit by a bomb and the machine-gun bullets of a steeply diving aeroplane. A ditch is about equally effective against bombs but not so good against bullets. The open country is a good bet against bombs and an unlikely target for machine-gunning.

Sitting in a slit trench is something of an art. One should not lean against the sides, because a near miss will deliver a tremendous shock to the spine if one's back is against the earth-side of the trench. One's head should be below ground level, but not so low that it can be buried by a near miss. Lastly, if the bombs are falling close, one should cover the ears with one's hands to avoid the shock of blast on the ear-drums. There is a belief that the mouth should be open, and it may be right.

The problem of the motorist when faced with ground-strafing is largely unsolved. In the Desert the drill is fairly well established. As soon as the enemy aircraft looks like attacking, the vehicle is put in full-lock to one side or the other and stopped as soon as possible. This is usually sufficient to avoid the first attack. The occupants then dismount hurriedly, run some thirty yards from the vehicle and lie down preparatory to the next attack.

This system does not apply on a Burman highway, where one cannot suddenly turn off the road. The enemy airman naturally selects a stretch of straight road in open country for his operations, so a bolt into the jungle is seldom possible. The usual practice is to stop, dismount and hope for a ditch or borrow-pit by the side of the road. Anything in the nature of a long run for cover is inadvisable against the Japanese, who use bombs on even single vehicles.

At one time in the Desert an attempt was made to piquet all main roads with permanent air-sentries, who, posted on all available prominent hills, hoisted a red flag when enemy aircraft were about. The idea is good, and might well be applied to the main traffic routes of less open country. The lone motorist is quite

powerless to spot enemy aircraft, and the noise of his vehicle prevents him from hearing them. The roof-spotter which most vehicles carry has a tiring job, and it might well be economical to adopt permanent road air-sentries. It would certainly be very comforting to see a sentry with his flag down as one approached a long straight stretch of road. It would relax the nerves of the drivers, which get very taut under constant air threat.

Let us summarise the main facts which concern the individual's protection from air attack:

(*a*) Indian followers should be provided with, and converted to the use of, slit trenches. Apart from humanitarian reasons, it is well to remember that, at one time, sweepers were top of the priority list for personnel to be flown into Burma. They were above a rather urgently needed major-general! The casualties sustained by officers' cooks from air bombardment were also grievously heavy in Burma; and it is important that such essential and irreplaceable people should have long lives.

(*b*) The warning system must be designed to suit existing conditions, and the over-riding factor is usually the avoidance of stopping work unnecessarily rather than producing a timely warning. In the case of troops that have suffered much from the enemy air force and seen little of our own the warning system might well take the form of a signal for "own aircraft—resume work" only; for such troops will need no warning about enemy aircraft.

(*c*) Slit trenches should be dug with an eye to those who will have to use them. There should always be one close to a telephone, and sufficient close to a wireless set for all the operators. As many as possible should be concealed and distant from the main target, for the German particularly will regard slit trenches as indication of a target. In one famous headquarter site in the Desert it was a point of honour for all who occupied it that no slit trenches should be dug. That site was never bombed.

(*d*) Troops who have had much experience of being bombed, may have learnt a lot about taking cover and interpreting bombing and aeroplane noises, but they will not, on balance with morale, be improved thereby. Such troops need special treatment, particularly in the matter of warning systems. The subject is dealt with later when morale is considered. There is, however, at least one soldier who improved with experience of enemy air action. A headquarters was established near the Lybian border wire. A flight of German bombers came over from the South, and, when still south of the headquarters their bombs were released. A well-known brigadier watching the display from beside

an armoured car moved with dignity to the north side of the car, where he would have the shelter of the turret. All the bombs then burst just north of the car, and for his solution of that problem in aerodynamics he got just one mark. He has it still, under his right eye. The point of the story is, however, that the next time he was bombed he lay down; so some soldiers do improve with experience, but most do not, because constant bombing breeds a fear that induces irrational action.

If ever it were true to say that the moral is to the physical as three is to one, it is true regarding enemy air action. The actual physical damage done by bombing is usually negligible, sometimes considerable, but never disastrous. The moral effect of constant enemy air superiority is usually disastrous and always considerable. This has been proved in Poland, Greece, Crete, Malaya and Burma; and to some extent in France.

When troops have become shaken by air action, the first thing to do is for officers to display, and insist on, dignity during an air alert. Men must continue at their jobs as long as possible and then walk, not run, to slit trenches. Officers must be prepared to stand up as long as possible, and lie down in the open when the time comes. Officers who have to do this should choose the softest possible ground to walk about on, because a bomb bursting in soft ground does most of its damage upwards, not sideways.

Defiles, such as bridges, should be piquetted with reliably stolid officers or sentries who can make encouraging remarks to the men as they approach the defile. The most welcome remark is, of course, "It's one of our's". Unfortunately, this cannot always be said; but any comment such as "It's old Uncle George and his party again, they've been over twice already and can't hit a b..... county" will help the men to get over without checking the traffic.

After a raid officers should talk to their men and let them admit any fear that they felt. It relaxes the nerves and helps a lot for the next raid. Three examples of this will help to show the types of comfort that can be given.

An obviously brave sergeant of the Tank Corps arose with dignity from a ditch where he had been sitting during a brief raid. An officer asked him if he was frightened He obviously had not been. "A lot more than the two men beside me" he replied. The two men, and everyone else who heard, could be seen relaxing. They felt that their fear had passed unnoticed and, in any case, was nothing to go on worrying about.

Three Japanese dive-bombers once descended on a small headquarters and put six bombs neatly to one side of it, where an orderly was walking. As he got up from the ground someone asked him, "Any damage?" "Yes", he said, "I made a bad mistake, I jumped into a slit and dropped my bottle of beer in the open as I ran. It's broke. Next time I'll be sensible and change places with the bottle." The thought of that man dropping his bottle of beer into a slit trench and lying in the open himself must have helped a lot of people through the next raid.

The last example happened in Burma Army Headquarters in Maymyo. The office chaprassis came from an Orphan School for Burmese boys. One particularly cheerful boy had the name of Maung Maung, which being normally abbreviated to Mg Mg, led to the boy being called "Young Mug Mug" by the English-speaking members.

There was a raid on Maymyo, in which the Japanese milled around overhead looking for a gap in the clouds in a rather disconcerting manner. Finally the bombs fell at least a mile from the headquarters, and clerks and officers walked back to their rooms. On the way an officer said to a Burman clerk: "Ask Young Mug Mug how he felt during the raid." Young Mug Mug had a lot to say in Burmese, then the clerk turned to the officer and said: "He says, Sir, that it was the most enjoyable sight he's ever seen in his life, and he hopes, Sir, that there will be a raid every day."

Thereafter that particular office took little thought of air alarms, for no one could avoid the thought of the joyful anticipation that was coursing through Young Mug Mug's happy heart. The "All Clear" almost brought groans of regret for the ecstacy that had been snatched from a lonely love child. Incidentally, Young Mug Mug reached India intact and is worth acquiring in any war headquarters.

THE HISTORY OF FLYING IN INDIA

By "Hereward"

FEW PEOPLE are aware that the earliest flights in India took place in Calcutta as early as the end of 1910. They were purely civilian flights, the first recorded flight by an Army officer in India being by Captain Maxwell, Brigade Major of the 2nd Infantry Brigade, on February 17, 1911. The following day Captain Brancker (later Sir Sefton Brancker) flew as a passenger in a Bristol biplane during Army manoeuvres at Midnapore, the flight being officially observed by Captain Aspinall of the General Staff.

These interesting facts came to light when I set out to trace the origin and growth of the Air Forces in India. This article is the result. It shows how the spirit of airmindedness has developed among the peoples of India, and how aviation has played an increasingly important part in this country in peace and war since 1910.

Following the early flights referred to above, a number of Indian Army officers learnt to fly, mostly while at home on leave, and the first to take his pilot's certificate is believed to have been Captain P. W. L. Broke-Smith, R. E. In 1912 an officer of the Royal Artillery imported at his own expense a Farman biplane and a French pilot, with whom he flew over the Army manoeuvres at Rawalpindi. Although this aircraft was finally wrecked, the flights drew the attention of the military authorities in India to the potentialities of the new arm as an additional source of reconnaissance to the army in the field.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MILITARY AVIATION

On June 3, 1913, a proposal was submitted to the Secretary of State for India for the formation of an Indian Flying School at Sitapur in the United Provinces, to open on October, 1, 1913. The intention was to start by training 12 officers in two batches of six each in the first year.

The scheme was approved in a modified form and the first aircraft arrived at Sitapur in December 1913. Flying commenced on February 14, 1914, at which time the instructional staff consisted of Captain S. D. Massey, of the 29th Punjabis as Commandant, the Instructors being Captain Hoare, of the 39th C.I.H.; Captain Pitcher, 39th C.I.H.; and Lieut. Newall, 2nd Gurkhas,

and later Chief of the Air Staff. The Adjutant and Quartermaster was Captain Reilly of the 82nd Punjabis.

In May, 1914, the Indian C.F.S. possessed the following aircraft:

One B. E. (70 h.p. Renault) biplane.
Two B.E. (80 h.p. Gnome) biplanes.
Three Maurice Farman (70 h.p. Renault) biplanes.

It is interesting to note that Indian mechanics were to be trained and employed if the school had continued, but on August 11, 1914, the Government of India sent home a telegram offering to close the school and to send home the personnel to supplement the resources of England in aviation for the war. The officers and aircraft were eventually sent to Egypt as a unit, and there they first saw active service with the Indian Expeditionary Force defending the Suez Canal. Later, the Indian unit was transferred to Mesopotamia, and the winter of 1915 saw the end of the Indian Flying Corps as a separate body.

After the departure of the Indian Central Flying School to Egypt, there was no further military flying in India until December, 1915, when, as a result of an urgent request by the Viceroy, one flight of No. 31 Squadron and a nucleus Aircraft Park arrived at Nowshera for work on the North-West Frontier. Thus No. 31 Squadron was the first regular air force unit to serve in India, and it has maintained an unbroken record of service in this country until the present time. The Squadron crest is the five pointed Star of India with the motto: "In Caelum Indicum Primus"—"First into Indian Skies". On its arrival it was equipped with B.E.2c aircraft. By June, 1916, it was completed to full strength with 18 aircraft, and was commanded by Major C. R. Bradley.

On October 6, 1916—for the first time in India—aircraft were employed on active operations, though for reconnaissance duties only, in the Shabkadar district of the N.W.F.P. The first offensive air operations in India were against the Mohmands in November, 1916.

During 1917, No. 31 Squadron was expanded to five flights and re-equipped with Henri Farman aircraft. By the end of September the fourth and fifth flights were formed into No. 114 Squadron, R.F.C., at Lahore, with a half-flight detachment destined for Aden, the first flight at Aden being carried out on December 5, 1917. In June, 1918, No. 52 Wing R.A.F. was formed at Simla, and assumed command of all R.A.F. units in India and Aden.

The first flight from Egypt to India took place in December, 1918, when Major-General W. G. H. Salmond, Brigadier-General A. E. Borton, and Captain Ross Smith arrived in Karachi.

Post-war re-organization of the air forces in India was entrusted to Brigadier N. D. K. MacEwen, D.S.O., who arrived from England by air on January 15, 1919, having made the first England to India flight. During the year four additional squadrons arrived in India by sea and were located initially as follows: No. 99 Squadron: Ambala; No. 48 Squadron: Quetta; No. 97 Squadron: Allahabad; and No. 20 Squadron: Risalpur.

By the end of the year the air forces were organized under a Group Headquarters, situated with Army Headquarters, and the older types of aircraft had been replaced by Bristol Fighters, D. H. 9s and D.H. 10, with a total of 109 aircraft in India.

Nos. 31 and 114 Squadrons took an active part in the 3rd Afghan War in the summer of 1919, and in 1920 the increase in operations in Waziristan provided ample opportunity for the development of air support for ground forces and of simple though effective methods of inter-communication by the use of smoke and ground strips. Nos. 1 and 3 Fighter Squadrons and the Aircraft Depot were formed during 1920 and, by the end of that year, the air forces were organized into two Wings with Headquarters at Peshawar and Ambala. Air Headquarters moved from Simla to Ambala. A Hill Depot was established at Lower Barian in the Murree Hills in April, 1920.

The policy of retrenchment which followed the Great War resulted in the cessation of supply of stores and equipment from England in 1921, and rendered the R.A.F. virtually ineffective. For the same reason, No. 1 Fighter Squadron was transferred to Iraq in April, 1921, and No. 3 Fighter Squadron was disbanded in September. By the end of 1921, there were 147 officers and 1844 airmen in India and the total of aircraft of all types was 94.

In September, 1922, the Government of India decided on the scheme for the permanent control of Waziristan, and in the same month, Sir John Salmond rendered his report on the future of the Air Forces in India. His recommendations were accepted, and henceforth the R.A.F. in India was to be established on a workable if comparatively small basis. The immediate result of this definition of policy was a marked improvement in the general efficiency of all units. At the end of 1923 there were 225 officers and 1,751 airmen in India, while the total of aircraft had risen to 144. The R.A.F. budget appeared under a separate

head for the first time, and expenditure for 1923 amounted to Rs. 1,93,47,731.

With a view to encouraging the spirit of airmindedness in India, the first R.A.F. Display took place in Delhi in February, 1927. Aircraft from all units took part, and the display was a great success. Since then, and until the outbreak of the present war, the Air Display became an almost annual event, and was increasingly popular among all sections of the Indian community.

Towards the end of 1927 the first Inter-Command flight passed through India on its way to Australia. This flight consisted of four Supermarine flying boats under Group Captain Cave-Brown-Cave, of whom the following amusing—though unauthenticated—story is told. On arrival at the slipway at Port Darwin, the Group Captain stepped out of his aircraft clad in flying overalls without any visible badges of rank. He was met by the Duty Officer, a young Canadian Flight Lieutenant, who appeared utterly unimpressed by the importance of the occasion. Somewhat disturbed by this unceremonious welcome, the Group Captain said: "I don't suppose you know me. I am Cave-Brown-Cave". Still unabashed the Flight Lieutenant replied: "Is that so? Well I'm glad to know you—my name is Home-Sweet-Home."

With the increase of air activity on the Frontier it became necessary in 1928 to centralise the control of all R.A.F. units and formations in this area under one command. Consequently, No. 1 (Indian) Group was formed in November with Headquarters at Peshawar, and the Officer Commanding was charged with the day-to-day control of all air operations.

In January, 1929, the R.A.F. was further reinforced by the arrival in India of Nos. 11 and 39 Bomber Squadrons, making a total of eight squadrons in this country. Agreement was reached between the Home Government and the Government of India that this force should thenceforward be maintained as the standard peace-time strength of the Air Force in India, with the role of assisting the political and military authorities in the control of the North-West Frontier and in the maintenance of internal security throughout the country. It has since provided the R.A.F. with a very valuable training area, where flying conditions are generally excellent and where personnel can become accustomed to overseas service. We have also been able to develop India as an important link in the chain of R.A.F. Stations throughout the Empire. Aerodrome development during 1929 included work on the Burma-Singapore route at Moulmein, Mergui and Victoria

Point, and the construction of Landing Grounds at Gilgit and Chilas. The latter were to facilitate communications and co-operation with the Scouts.

Since the arrival of No. 31 Squadron in December, 1915, the R.A.F. has played an important part in the control of the N.W.F.P. both in co-operation with land forces and independently.

Flying over the mountainous country of Waziristan, and under conditions where close support of land forces is essential, entails considerable training for both pilots and air-gunners. In addition, the skill with which the tribesman has adapted his tactics to meet attack from the air, and his instinctive flair for concealment and camouflage, make identification and attack from the air extremely difficult.

It has, therefore, been necessary to evolve a series of simple but efficient means of communication between land forces and aircraft, and, in the succession of frontier operations, much has been done to develop and improve rapid inter-communication by ground strip codes and wireless. The mutual confidence now existing between the land and air forces employed on frontier operations and normal Watch and Ward duties is proof of the success of the systems evolved.

R.A.F. operations on the Frontier can be divided into three categories:

(*a*) In co-operation with military and irregular forces in comparatively major operations for which the area is placed under the control of a military commander.

(*b*) Routine operations in co-operation with the Frontier Corps, or Constabulary.

(*c*) Independent operations in which general control remains with H.E. the Governor, N.W.F.P., or with a Political Officer designated by him.

Since the first employment of aircraft in October, 1916, the R.A.F. has been engaged in many operations of all categories, and a very large turnover of personnel has thereby gained valuable experience before the start of the present war.

A Bomber Transport flight was originally formed at Lahore in April, 1929, and began life in India with one aircraft only. The value of this type of aircraft in a country of good flying conditions and great distances was always appreciated, and although the flight was later expanded to a complete squadron, the demands made upon it have at all times been heavy. The aircraft have been employed as transports for the equipment of long distance

flights to other R.A.F. Commands, and have thus obtained much valuable data on the problems of Inter-Command reinforcement.

During the disturbed conditions in Afghanistan in 1928-29, the Transport Flight, augmented by aircraft from Iraq, helped in the evacuation of 712 people from Kabul, at a time when evacuation by other means was impossible. On several occasions since its expansion to squadron strength, the unit has assisted in the relief of the military garrison at Chitral, flying in the new troops and their stores, and bringing back the troops thus relieved.

Together with all other available aircraft, the Transport Squadron took part in the relief and evacuation work following the earthquake at Quetta in June, 1935. This entailed many hours of flying by day and night in the conveyance of doctors, nurses, medical supplies and food to Quetta, and the evacuation of wounded and homeless persons.

In 1932 all Indian enrolled personnel serving with the R.A.F. in India were formed into the Indian Technical and Followers Corps, to be subject to the Indian Air Force Act. This Act came into force on April, 1933, on the formation of the first regular Flight of the Indian Air Force. "A" Flight, No. 1 Squadron, I.A.F., formed at Drigh Road, Karachi, the Indian officers having been trained at Cranwell, and the technical airmen at the R.A.F. Depot, India.

The intention was that the Unit should eventually be manned entirely by Indians, but during the period of its formation and development, R.A.F. officers and N.C.O.'s were to be attached for supervisory duties. This policy persisted throughout the expansion period, and the Indian Air Force has since grown appreciably. A number of units are now commanded by officers from the original squadron.

Units of the Indian Air Force with Indian Commanding Officers have already served with considerable distinction in the present war, and re-equipment with modern aircraft is being welcomed as an incentive to still greater efforts in the future. The young men who are at present joining the I.A.F. as Cadets for flying training are enthusiastic and eager to master the art of flying and fighting with modern aircraft, and there should be no shortage of volunteers for this attractive and obviously vital arm of India's defence.

The newly-sanctioned I.A.F. Ensign and Crest were presented by H.R.H. the Duke of Gloucester at Risalpur during his recent extended tour of the India Command.

Since the inception of the Indian Air Force, flying and technical training schools have been opened in India, and the general standard of instruction brought into line with the Empire Air Training Scheme, so that pupils pass into the service fully qualified to take their share in the expansion of the service and its part in the general war effort. From the flying training school, several batches of Indian pilots have been sent to England for operational training and subsequent attachment to R.A.F. squadrons, where they have seen service over England and Europe.

Turning to civil aviation in India, the development of air routes in the country began in 1919 with a temporary service between Karachi and Bombay, operated by R.A.F. aircraft and personnel. This was followed by the arrival of three aircraft and operating personnel sent out by Messrs. Handley Page to inaugurate an air mail service between Bombay, Calcutta and Rangoon. Although this venture was not a commercial success, the Company continued its services for two years and helped considerably to lay the foundations for the later Imperial Airways and other trans-continental air services.

In 1925 the site for an Airship Base was fixed at Drigh Road, Karachi, and in 1927 the Base with its mooring mast and airship hangar, was inspected by Sir Sefton Brancker. It will be remembered that the first airship to leave England for Karachi—the R. 101—crashed at Beauvais in France in October, 1930. Among those who lost their lives in this disaster was Sir Sefton Brancker himself, to whom India owes much of the development of aviation.

From 1926 onwards, the general interest in long-distance flying resulted in a great increase in trans-India flights, and a corresponding though gradual improvement in aerodrome and navigational facilities in India. Early in 1927 a Director of Civil Aviation was appointed, and the R.A.F. was relieved of a great deal of work in connection with civil flying.

In preparation for the employment of flying-boats on the Empire air services, the trans-India route at present used was surveyed in 1934. Since then, flying-boats have taken an increasingly important part in the development of the Empire air routes.

The interest in civil and military flying, which began in India almost as early as at home, has led to a slow but nonetheless sure development of aerodrome, supply and navigational facilities, forming the foundation on which the present expansion was based. As a whole, the country was slow to appreciate the possibilities of the aeroplane in peace and in war, and considerable leeway has

had to be made up before Air Forces could play their full and vital part in the defence of India.

The expansion of the Indian Air Force and the excellent work already achieved by its units in this war, are proof that the spirit of air-mindedness exists, ready for encouragement and further development.

With the present organization, the R.A.F. and I.A.F. in India will be able to develop their maximum efforts, and, after the war, the change-over to civil flying will be facilitated by the greatly-improved aerodrome systems now being organized. Air routes in India will have been opened up and developed on a scale never before envisaged, and post-war air travel throughout India will become as familiar as the Indian train.

A COMBINED GENERAL STAFF

ATTENTION WAS RECENTLY focussed in England on the subject of a Combined General Staff, and as the question is one which concerns all students of military matters, the views expressed by several leading authorities in London are summarized below.

Sir Edward Grigg, M.P., former Joint Secretary to the War Office, raised the subject in an article in *The Times*. "Victory", he wrote, "will depend upon close co-ordination of the three fighting services in a common strategical plan. Defects in such co-ordination were evident enough in Norway, Flanders, Greece and Crete. They were heavily paid for by the Navy, and the Army, but accepted as insurmountable in the conditions of that time. Our strength is now much greater, and it should suffice to provide the essential balance between the Services wherever critical operations are in hand."

He recalled General Sir Archibald Wavell's views, expressed in his lectures on generalship, upon the task of any leader who should qualify as a "great captain" in coming wars:

"'On the ground that he will have to handle forces moving at a speed and ranging at a distance far exceeding that of the most mobile cavalry of the past, a study of naval strategy and tactics as well as those of cavalry will be essential to him. He must be able to handle air forces with the same knowledge as forces on land. It seems to me immaterial whether he is a soldier who has really studied the air or an airmen who has really studied land forces. It is the combination of the two, never the action of one alone, that will bring success for a future war'."

Sir Edward pointed out that a single command over all three services had already been instituted in more than one theatre of war, but such co-ordination in each theatre "could not give what we needed unless the same co-ordination was thoroughly effective in the central system which allots the forces to the different theatres and forms the strategic plans". After writing that General Wavell's experience during his short tenure of the South-West Pacific Command made that plain, Sir Edward continued:

"The fault is manifest; but neither the Naval nor the General nor the Air Staff can justly be held to blame. The

fault is not in any one of them but in the system under which their respective lines of action are combined (or not combined) in a common plan. We know how that system works. The three Chiefs of Staff sit daily together to decide what needs to be done; they have various co-ordinating committees at lower levels to assist them in their plans; the Prime Minister himself presides at their meetings when he feels inclined; and the Prime Minister again reviews their recommendations with the Defence Committee and the War Cabinet when such further scrutiny appears to him to be required.

"This elaborate machinery is unquestionably a great advance upon any system of inter-service co-ordination that has existed before; but it is not producing the balanced strategy or the co-ordination of our strength by sea, land, and air which the exacting task before us demands. . . .

"A considerable measure of agreement exists on the main reform required. It lies in the direction of giving greater scope and power to the Combined General Staffs of the three services which is already at work in sub-committees below the level where decisions are made. Lord Swinton has pointed out that the problem of defence at Singapore was completely transformed at the moment, many months ago, when Indo-China passed under Japanese control. It certainly appears that the need of combined three-service defence which then became grave would have been anticipated and met by a Combined General Staff with adequate opportunity and power.

"The question is how a Combined General Staff is to be given adequate influence over strategy in its early formative stages at the centre of affairs. I find it hard to believe that a Combined General Staff will give us what we require so long as it has no chief of its own. The Chiefs of Staff whom the Combined Staff sub-committees at present serve have each of their separate pre-occupations, and an immense amount of work to discharge. However able the Combined General Staff, it must be handicapped by the fact that it serves a committee of that tripartite kind.

"It is said that the Chiefs of Staff seldom disagree. If that be indeed so, their recommendations must often be a matter of compromise, a lowest common denomination between incompatible ideas. That is not a method which wins wars. Lord Swinton has suggested that the functions proper to a Chief of the Combined General Staff are not functions which a Minister is best suited to exercise. . . . If I define those functions as I

see them, the type of mind required will not, I think, be in doubt.

"The Chief of the Combined General Staff should have no executive power at all. His post should be a service post, or at any rate, a non-Ministerial one, with no responsibility but that of presiding over the Chiefs of Staff Committee and advising the War Cabinet on the long-range conduct of the war. He would be responsible only for the three main duties of a non-executive kind, namely—

"1. He would as C.C.G.S. be responsible for presenting its plans to the Chiefs of Staff Committee, sifting them with that committee and thereafter submitting them to the War Cabinet.

"2. He would be responsible for seeing that our strategic plans took full account of what the production staff and transport authorities may be expected to achieve. The present system, for instance, puts sudden strains upon our shipping programmes which greater foresight would minimize.

"3. He would above all be responsible that in all operational plans the proper balance between the services was maintained, so that the Commander-in-Chief in the various theatres could use the three services wherever necessary as instruments of a single balanced plan.

"It has, after all, been found essential to appoint a Minister of Production to bring the whole field of production under the direction of a single brain and will. Our strategic plans seem to me to require a similar process of co-ordination under a single mind.

"Whereas, however, production is a highly political business which only a Minister can handle as a whole, that is not the case with professional strategic plans. These latter should be immune from political influence at the formative stage; the merits and demerits of any course of action should be weighed in the first instance by cool and concrete professional minds, and these should work unhampered by political suggestion or surveillance of any kind. The C.C.G.S. should therefore be a professional or non-Ministerial middle-man, bringing all essential factors together and serving all three Service Chiefs by laying combined plans before them, and also by sifting and fusing their special knowledge and separate service ideas".

In a leading article supporting Sir Edward, *The Times* said, *inter alia*:

"A Combined General Staff . . . would be the right body not only to produce that 'balanced strategy' and 'co-ordination of our strength by sea, land and air', but also to establish the appropriate relation between strategy and production through Mr. Lyttleton's 'general staff' at the Ministry of Production. If it is true that resources—and therefore production—condition strategy, it is essential that strategy, planned in advance in all its implications, should have a decisive voice in the planning of production; and failure to dovetail production policy with strategy is not the smallest of the penalties we have paid for the lack of a combined strategic plan.

"Nor would the services of a Combined General Staff be restricted to the function which it can itself discharge. Co-operation between the Services tends already to be more whole-hearted and more effective at the lower than at the higher levels. A new combined organization at the top would give a fresh impetus to co-operation.

"It is wholly desirable that it should be matched and completed by a system of combined headquarters and combined local commands. Only by living together and working together on the same tasks will the best men in all services learn to think and act in terms, not of three separate units assisting one another for a common end, but of a single fighting unit animated by the same spirit and the same conception of a single task."

Major-General Sir Frederick Sykes followed with a letter in the course of which he wrote:

"There are two important lacunæ in our present organisation. First, the machinery for welding our naval, military and air forces into one combined instrument of attack and defence is inadequate. There is the Minister of Defence and the War Cabinet. There is also the Committee of the Chiefs of Staff. But, so far as one can make out, there is no combined staff to prepare plans, and, when they are approved, to ensure that they are carried out. To provide them is the duty of the Minister of Defence or a deputy appointed by him, who for this purpose should have a Combined Staff composed of members of the three services headed by a C.C.G.S. These plans would then be submitted to the War Cabinet for approval. These having been approved, the Combined Staff would have the duty of ensuring that they were carried into effect. If the War Cabinet as a whole does not bear the responsibility, it shrinks into a body whose sole duty is the endorsement of decisions already taken by the Minister of Defence. The crucial factor would be

the choice of a suitable man as C.C.G.S. I think he must be a service officer and not a civilian, if he is to command the confidence of those serving under him, and I cannot think of a better man for the post than General Wavell with his unique experience of the war in all its aspects."

Lord Hankey, who was Secretary of the War Cabinet in the Great War, and up to his retirement a few years ago was Secretary of the Committee of Imperial Defence, said that though it was true Chiefs of Staff seldom disagreed, that was mainly because combined study and experience over many years had produced a large measure of common doctrine. "There is, however, a risk that they may overlook their 'individual and collective responsibility for advising on defence policy as a whole' and tend unconsciously to stitch together the plans of each fighting service instead of focussing all resources on a single war plan. As Mr. Lloyd George said on a notable occasion, "stitching is not strategy'. Here a C.C.G.S. might render valuable service. Success would depend on the man. He would need the confidence of the Prime Minister, the War Cabinet, and the Chiefs of Staff, as well as a profound and up-to-date knowledge of war and of the system of higher control. He would require drive, tact, and an instinct to leave well alone."

Lord Swinton, former Air Minister, commented that the Combined General Staff must be the Chiefs of Staff in their corporate capacity. It would be radically unsound, he added, to set up a parallel organization divorced from real responsibility. "I agree with Sir Edward Grigg's plea for a man who will be the Chairman of the Chiefs of Staff in their corporate capacity, and who can devote his whole time to the task. I think, too, that if the right man can be found, a service Chief is the ideal. At the same time, the economic side is important. Economic needs and risks should always be present in the minds of the Combined General Staff, and should be seen as far forward as strategy itself, envisaged and provided for before economic risks become actual dangers.

"In the choice of a service Chairman two things are necessary: (*i*) He must have the three-service mind, that of the great captain, as General Wavell has described him. The most brilliant officer in his own service without that mind and outlook is not the man for the job. (*ii*) Each of the three services must feel they have as complete confidence in this service chief as they would have in a member of their own service. Both these conditions are essential. If these be the spirit and functions of a

Great General Staff I believe that, while a Service Chairman is the ideal, if he has the necessary qualifications, the post can be adequately filled by a civilian with the right kind of mind and outlook, and accustomed to working with Service Chiefs and Service departments."

Viscount Trenchard said a few days later in a debate in the House of Lords: "In the Middle East our air forces, together with naval and army aircraft, have been at one and the same moment co-operating tactically with the naval forces and strategically with the land forces. This example shows how indivisible are all our three fighting forces. They were three elements, but one service."

Lord Winster reminded the House of Lords that in Germany all agencies for attaining victory were co-ordinated in a high command—a general, who was assisted by a combined general staff, which co-ordinated the heads of the three services. For any given operation this combined general staff selected the best man for the operation, regardless of the service to which he belonged and regardless of seniority. This man in turn selected his own staff and drew up his own plans. In other words, he added, whereas Germany enjoyed co-ordination and control we relied on co-operation and agreement.

Commander R. T. Bower, M.P., wrote to *The Times*: "In peace-time in combined operations the three staffs worked together in conditions approximating to those suggested by Sir Edward Grigg in his advocacy of a Great General Staff. In war-time, however, they work separately, but experience has shown that no amount of co-operation can rival integration.

"The daily meeting of the Chiefs of Staff is not enough; it is vitiated by the fact that they all have to devote the greater part of their energies to look at their respective trees, and not enough combined attention is devoted to regarding the wood as a whole.

"It is the machine which has failed, but it can easily be remodelled in the light of our experiences on the lines suggested, and hope lies in the fact that the men to work it are there, a splendid team, all imbued with a sound common doctrine on the waging of war."

THE WAR ON THE SALVAGE FRONT

By The Editor

THIS WAR differs from the Great War in practically everything—but in one sphere it is the same. Salvage, practised with such assiduity and enthusiasm in 1914—1918, is again a vital factor; and India, for decades the land of plenty, must now follow the lead of Great Britain, where salvage of material, properly organized, has resulted in the saving of millions of pounds sterling, thousands of tons of shipping space, besides giving the population a fine opportunity of using its genius in obtaining every ounce of usefulness from articles hitherto discarded as worthless.

What better guide for the present could we have than the Great War? Our troubles to-day are no less severe, and our difficulties equally surmountable. Let us recall, then, how well the Defence Services played their part in this sphere during those years.

Towards the end of the war salvage was prominent in the minds of public and Forces alike. It became a craze. From posters, press, public platform and music hall came the call to save. A Salvage Club was formed, its newspaper showing members how they could turn an article to further use. Ideas came in by the thousand, and *Punch* lightheartedly included a picture of a child holding up a tabby which was in the last stages of decay, the caption reading: "Look, Mummy, I've saved a perfectly good dead cat".

In the Army, as in England to-day, special salvage centres were established, statistics were issued of what had been collected by units, and there developed a healthy rivalry in all formations serving at home and overseas as to which could show the best results.

"Never has the practical genius of the English revealed itself so strongly as in this War", wrote a famous Russian war correspondent in *The Times* in 1916 after a visit to France. "It is marvellous to see the things done. Our soldiers, for instance, throw away their boots when they are worn out. Heaps of them were to be seen in Galicia and Poland. But here in France we see sheds full of old boots, all of which are later repaired or the parts used again in some other form."

Here are some examples of improvisation carried out by the Services in 1914—1918. From the uppers of old boots leather laces were made, the remainder of the upper, if worthless, being used as fuel; solder was recovered from old tins; lead from the linings of tea chests; nosebags and cooks' clothing from old tents; worn-out ground sheets and waterproof capes reappeared as ration bags and cap covers; old oil drums became braziers, kerosine tins were converted into fire buckets, arm or leg baths for hospitals were made from petrol tins, and the spokes of old wheels turned into legs for tables and chairs.

Even the blood of slaughtered animals was commandeered from the A.S.C. butchery and used in place of linseed oil for making paint, according to the "History of the Army Ordnance Services during the Great War."

Initiative had its practical as well as financial reward in Salonika, where the Ordnance Service organized and erected a soap factory—and showed a net profit of £36,000, in addition to saving a substantial shipping tonnage. Waste fats from rations and the carcases from slaughtered animals, together with any margarine, cheese, etc., that might have been condemned, were collected.

A small plant was erected, and from these by-products the total local army requirements of hard soap, soft soap and dubbin were made. Soaps of higher quality made in the factory were sold to the Canteens; while the French Army sent in its waste products and received soap in exchange. A further valuable by-product was produced—glycerine, an essential munitions ingredient, and according to the above-quoted volume sufficient glycerine was sent to England to make up a quarter of a million 18-pr. shells.

This was not the only example of unusual enterprise in matters pertaining to salvage. It is on record that on the eve of the final offensive in Salonika in 1918 the supply of ink ran dry and operation orders could neither be typed nor duplicated. Lieutenant Baker, an infantry officer chemist working in the Laboratory, obtained some blue aniline dye in Salonika, and, with glycerine produced at the Ordnance soap factory, plus other ingredients, manufactured ink, which was rapidly delivered where needed.

These instances, quoted at random, give a vivid picture of enterprise and initiative in the last war. That the lessons they taught have been well learned can be proved by what is being done in India to-day.

It is often said that the American Continent is the Arsenal for the United Nations. India may be also, though there are some major differences. America has an abundance of raw materials of all kinds, and an industrial organization that has been harnessed to convert raw materials into weapons of war, and into those goods necessary for the economic life of the people.

India, on the other hand, though possessing abundant raw material supplies, has in the past relied very largely on exporting them rather than converting them into manufactured goods to meet her own requirements. The advantage of this policy in peace-time is obvious, and India has thus benefited in having a favourable trade balance for many years past.

During war-time, however, this policy cannot be maintained. Owing to the difficulty in shipping, loss of trade routes and the heavy call made on her to support the needs of armies in the Near East and other fronts, India's industrial production has been unable to expand in proportion to the demands made on her.

A natural consequence of this, therefore, has been "Conservation"—conservation of stocks of all kinds—to endeavour to adjust this unfavourable trade balance, and also to set off, as far as possible, the loss of such areas as Burma, Malaya and the Dutch East Indies, all of which previously supplied almost all India's domestic requirements in tin, timber, rubber, quinine and other essential commodities.

Whilst giant strides have been made to increase factory production of every type, the fact still remains that owing to the difficulty of procuring specialized machinery and equipment, production is still far below demand.

Energetic measures have therefore been taken to conserve and economize in every way possible. Salvage dumps are being created at ports and in the various army formations to deal with overseas salvage and salvage which is beyond the capacity of existing installations to deal with. All this is being done to make absolutely certain that all possible action is being taken to re-use all discarded articles to the best advantage of the war effort.

How do the efforts so far made compare with what was done in the Great War? From the following *résumé* of what is being practised now it will be seen that very little escapes the salvage

net. Boots which are completely unserviceable are being robbed of essential parts and re-used, and the scrap remaining is being converted into leather-boards. Unserviceable clothing has all buttons, hooks, eyes, buckles, etc., removed and re-used. Tunics with worn-out sleeves are either patched or with sleeves cut to the elbows made into bush-shirts.

Knitted woollen garments are unravelled and the wool used again for re-knitting, while other woollen and cotton garments are processed by rag-pulling machines to recover wool and cotton. Finger-worn gloves are changed into mittens by cutting off the fingers and binding tape over the loose strands. Unserviceable mosquito-netting is used in a variety of ways in hospitals, and in canteens, as food covers, etc., and it has also been found valuable for camouflage purposes.

All ferrous and non-ferrous scrap is carefully accounted for, and either re-issued to smelting plants or re-converted into ingots. Sump oils from mechanised vehicles and all forms of lubricants are collected and refined; component parts from unserviceable aircraft and M.T. vehicles are being used in maintenance workshops. Glass bottles of all kinds are collected and re-issued for use as beer, fruit-juice and medical necessities containers.

These few examples illustrate what is being done to utilise to their maximum life every type of article. They do not give the complete picture, for, with commendable foresight, a number of Substitutes Committees have been set up for the purpose of inventing (and considering inventions and suggestions), improvising and bringing into use every form of material to replace those which are in short supply.

As in the last war necessity compelled research chemists to seek substitutes for wood and metal (one result of which was the speedy development of plastics in their stead), so in this war India is showing an inventiveness and imagination which may prove the basis of new secondary industries in the post-war world.

Jute fabric tents, for instance, are being made; terne plate is now being used for tin-plate containers; rope-soled shoes and chaplies are replacing boots and rubber-soled shoes; shellac-treated wooden plugs are being used instead of cork and glass stoppers; hollowed out bamboos are utilized as oil fluxes and other liquid containers.

While, therefore, much has already been done, a very great deal more can and must be done in the matter of salvage and conservation. It is a field in which everyone can play a part; it requires the whole-hearted co-operation of every individual. Persistent and sustained effort will assuredly produce results which will not be measured in terms of money but in hastening the day of victory.

REGIMENTAL NICKNAMES—AND THEIR ORIGIN

By T. H. B.

IT IS OFTEN said that unfortunate is the man who has never been human enough to qualify for a nickname. And that goes for most institutions in general and the Army in particular.

In 1816 a military writer said: "Nicknames among military men are familiarly used in a collective sense. Thus: the Light Infantry are called 'Light Bobs'; the Grenadiers 'Tow Rows', and the battalion men 'Flat-foots'; and in many instances whole corps have been particularised in this manner."

Undoubtedly in the past nicknames were in more general use and more widely known than they are to-day. Many regiments, however, still proudly cherish their old nicknames, and it is the object of this article to set down many that have been applied to our regiments from time to time, and to explain briefly how these interesting and historical names have been acquired. Before doing so, it is perhaps better to be clear as to the various designations held by regiments since their formation. Briefly, the position is as follows:

Prior to 1750, regiments were known by the name of their Colonels, more often than not by those who raised them, and the Army List of 1740 designates regiments by their Colonel's name. Numerical designations were assigned to regiments in 1751, but they are not found in official correspondence until 1754.

Despite this, the Colonel was still very much the owner of his regiment, and the numbers found it hard to win their way into general use, as, indeed, did the territorial titles by which the numbers were officially superseded some 130 years later. Right through the "Seven Years' War" people continued to speak of "Kingsley's" or "Bragg's" instead of the 20th or 28th Foot, and even in official documents like the Commission Register names and numbers were used concurrently right down to the end of the 18th century.

In 1881 the Cardwell system, which remains to this day, was introduced. The old single battalion infantry units bearing historic numbers were grouped into pairs—the two forming a single unit—and the old numerical designations were dropped, all being linked with counties or towns, on a territorial basis.

The origins of nicknames are numerous. They can be traced to the names of Colonels who raised the regiments, to the colours of old uniforms and facings, to historical events, both in battle and elsewhere, or sometimes to play or puns on the old numerical titles. Some are comparatively modern, while with the passage of time the source of others has been forgotten and become obscure. Moreover, it should be remembered that it is somewhat easy for any inventive soldier, especially in a canteen or club, to label almost every corps in the Army with an appropriate nickname.

The oldest regiment of the British Infantry of the Line is the Royal Scots. Out of regard for the remoteness of its beginnings it is referred to as "Pontius Pilate's Bodyguard". Legend has it that this rather strange nickname arose in the following manner: whilst serving on the Continent as *Le Regiment de Douglas* (1633—1678) the officers entered into an argument with the French regiment *de Picardie* as to the antiquity of their respective corps. The Frenchmen claimed to have been on guard at the Crucifixion, whereupon the Scotsmen retorted: "Well, if we had been on guard we wouldn't have slept at our posts—and in any case, that night we were acting as Pontius Pilate's bodyguard".

Another famous Highland regiment, The Seaforths, has had two well-known nicknames, "The Macraes" (1st Battalion), from the very large number of men of the Macrae clan who joined the Regiment, and "The King's Men" (2nd Battalion), from its motto (that of the McKenzies) "Cuidich'n Righ", which means: "Help the King" or "He saved the King".

Still another distinguished Highland regiment, the Argyle and Sutherlands, who recently fought so well in Malaya, are justly proud of being known as "The Thin Red Line" from their gallant conduct at Balaklava, where they withstood, without support, the charges of the Russian cavalry and put them to rout. It is the only infantry regiment to carry "Balaklava" on its colour.

And before leaving Highland regiments, why is it that the Gordon Highlanders are always known as "The Gay Gordons"? It is a fact that the flamboyant Duchess of Gordon originally helped her husband to raise the regiment. Wearing a diced bonnet, and mounted on a white horse, she rode around the "feeing" markets and offered a guinea from her lips to each

recruit who stepped forward to join up. This stimulating event took place over 150 years ago, and one is reasonable in wondering why the gaiety has extended to the present day.

Most English regiments, too, have been christened with famous nicknames. Take, for example, The Queen's Royal Regiment (West Surrey). Raised in 1661 to garrison Tangier, part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, wife of King Charles II, it received on its formation the badge of the Paschal Lamb, the crest of the House of Braganza. The name Tangier at once gave rise to the soubriquet "The Tangerines", but its alternative nickname, "Kirke's Lambs" is the correct one. This was derived from the name of its Colonel, and, of course, its badge. During the Peninsula War, The Queens were also known as "The Sleepy Queens", owing to their carelessness in allowing General Brenner to escape at Almeida in 1810.

The Buffs (Royal East Kent Regiment) were originally designated "The Buffs" from being the first whose accoutrements, such as pouches, sword-belts, etc., were made of leather prepared from the buffalo, after the manner of chamois. In 1749 they became known as "The Old Buffs" to distinguish them from the 31st Foot (East Surrey Regiment). This came about from an incident at the Battle of Dettingen. The East Surreys were mistaken by George II for The Buffs, as both regiments had similar buff facings. On being informed of his mistake, the King said: "Well done, then, Young Buffs". The East Surreys still retain this name with esteem, as a memento of their gallant conduct at Dettingen.

The Buffs have also been known as "The Resurrectionists", sometimes attributed to the fact that they lay claim to an ancestry as old as that of the Royal Scots. But more probably it was due to their extraordinary recuperative powers after they had been ridden down by cavalry at Albuera (1811) and in which battle they particularly distinguished themselves. Finally, during the period 1737—1749. The Buffs were also known as "The Buff Howards", to distinguish them from "The Green Howards". Both regiments were serving in Flanders during 1742—45, both Colonels bore the name of Howard, and, as will be remembered, in those days regiments were named after their Colonels. The facings of the second-named regiment were green. Hence its nickname—which is now its official title.

The Royal Northumberland Fusiliers have earned several distinctive nicknames. The one by which they are generally

known, "The Fighting Fifth", arose from a favourite saying of the Duke of Wellington in connection with the services of the regiment in the Peninsula, "The Ever-fighting, Never-failing Fifth". They have also been known as "The Old and Bold" by reason of their long and gallant conduct in war, and as "Lord Wellington's Bodyguard" from their constant association with Wellington. In 1811 The Fifth were attached to headquarters. About 1770 they were known as "The Shiners", which commemorated their reputation for cleanliness and smartness about that time.

The nickname "Elegant Extracts" was given to The Royal Fusiliers by other regiments because from the date of its foundation they had no officers of the rank of Ensign—only full Lieutenants. Thus when an officer was posted to the regiment, an Ensign or Second Lieutenant from another regiment had to be chosen and promoted to the rank of Lieutenant. This custom continued until the Crimea, when, owing to heavy losses in officers, newly-commissioned officers had to be posted direct. During the Great War this title was revived and adopted by the 4th Battalion Concert Party.

The badge of the figure of Brittania, said to have been given to The Royal Norfolk Regiment by Queen Anne, is responsible for it being known as "The Holy Boys". This somewhat irreverent nickname was due, according to one story, to the men selling Bibles for drink in the Peninsula. But it is more reliably due to the Spaniards mistaking the figure on their badge for that of the Virgin Mary.

About the same time, at Salamanca, the 11th Foot (Devons) were nearly cut to pieces by the French, and only about seventy men of all ranks survived. The regiment was, therefore, dubbed "The Bloody Eleventh". Some thirty-one years later the 13th Foot (Somerset Light Infantry) gained fame by their gallant defence of Jallalabad, and thereby earned for themselves the distinguished nickname of "The Illustrious Garrison". To this day they carry the word "Jallalabad" on their badge.

If by chance the reader should see a football match in which the team of certain regiment is taking part the shout "Come on the Snappers" will undoubtedly be heard. This is the nickname by which the 15th Foot (East Yorkshire Regiment) is still familiarly known, and is in memory of the action during the American War, in which a detachment of the 15th was surrounded by the enemy, and, running out of ammunition, the men snapped their

muskets in the usual way, and so deceived the enemy and prevented them from coming any closer.

A tiger, surmounted by the word "Hindoostan", is the badge which recalls their many years of hard service in India and Afghanistan, and is responsible for The Leicestershire Regiment being known as "The Green Tigers" and "The Tigers."

When known as Kingsley's Regiment, the now Lancashire Fusiliers won great fame at Minden in 1759, and hence their nicknames "The Minden Boys" and "Kingsley's Stand". At Minden they suffered 300 casualties and were ordered to rest on the following day, but, at the request of the survivors, this order was cancelled. For this action they were awarded a laurel wreath, and to this day, on the anniversary of the battle, officers and men of the Regiment wear a rose in their headdress because on their way into action, in passing through a rose garden, their predecessors plucked the flowers and decorated their hats with them. Their old numerical designation, 20th Foot, is responsible for their having been known also as "The Double X's" and "The Two Tens".

In a similar way the Cheshire Regiment (22nd Foot) are known as "The Two Two's." They, however, own another and more distinguished nickname—"The Meanee Boys", in commemoration of Meanee (1843), when, under Sir Charles Napier, they were the only white troops among the 1,800 opposed to 22,000 native troops and are thus the only British regiment entitled to the battle honour "Meanee."

The Royal Welch Fusiliers, with their privilege of being led on parade by a goat, were obviously cut out for the name "The Nanny Goats". They also own another unique privilege, that of wearing a flash of black ribbons attached to the back of the collar. In 1805 pig-tails for the Army were abolished, but when the order was promulgated, the 24th were at sea, and so the order did not reach them. They were, therefore, the last to wear the pig-tail, and in commemoration of this they obtained the distinction of wearing the "flash", which represents the leather-bag formerly used to sheath the pig-tail or queque, and so protect the uniform from grease and powder.

It is often erroneously supposed that "The Fore and Afts" or "The Back Numbers" are nicknames of The Gloucestershire Regiment, on account of their conduct at Alexandria in 1801, where they were attacked by French Cavalry. There was not time to form square, and so they were ordered to stand back to back, which they did, and beat off the attack. To commemorate this

event they have the distinction of wearing a second small badge at the back of the cap. While these two names are appropriate, it is believed they are entirely the invention of a well-known military publisher. The only historical nicknames officially recognized are "The Old Braggs's". "Braggs's" and "The Slashers", the first two being derived from their Colonel of that name from 1734 to 1751, and the third from an incident in the American War. This is attributed to two sources. One, from their gallant conduct at the battle of the Bronx, and the other from a story which says that while serving in America some officers of the Regiment dressed themselves up as Indians and cut off the ears of a magistrate by the name of Walker, who had refused to give billets to the families of the regiment during a particularly hard winter.

Alone of all Line regiments, The Worcestershire Regiment were allowed to retain the old valise ornament when it was abolished in 1784. This star is the same as that of The Coldstream Guards—the Star of the Garter, and accounts for their nickname "The Guards of the Line". while their motto "Firm" accounts for another—"The Firms". They own to yet another soubriquet "The Ever-sworded 29th" (1st Battalion). The origin of this is obscure, but until 1850 it was customary for officers to wear swords on all occasions, even in Mess.

It is, of course, somewhat obvious that The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, famous for their defence of Lucknow in 1857, should be christened "The Docs."

The 33rd Foot (The Duke of Wellington's Regiment), commanded by the Duke in 1806, is the only regiment named after a subject other than one of Royal blood. Their crest is that of the Duke of Wellington, and they earned for themselves the title "Immortals" from their conspicuous service in India about the end of the 18th century. The 33rd also used to be called "The Havercake Lads" because a well-known recruiter for the regiment used to invite recruits by displaying an oatcake on the point of sword.

The badge of the Roussillon plume was gained by The Royal Sussex Regiment at Quebec in 1759, when it captured the colours of the French Roussillon Grenadiers. On this standard the golden *fleur-de-lys* were shown, and thus the regiment received the nickname of "Orange Lilies".

The Dorsetshire Regiment, which was the first King's Regiment to fight in India, gained for themselves the motto *Primus in Indis* and earned a quaint nickname in Almanza. Fearing they

would be late for the encounter they were mounted on mules in order to arrive more quickly, and were thereupon given the name of "Sankey's Horse", Sankey being the name of the Colonel.

Prior to 1941, the 1st Battalion, South Lancashire Regiment (Prince of Wales Volunteers), had twenty-nine Colour honours, a number exceeded by only one other corps. They had served in Europe, Asia, Africa, Australasia and North and South America, a unique record. Its old title of the 40th Foot (XL) resulted in it being called "The Excellers".

In 1719 the authorities decided to economize, and one step taken was to form a regiment of invalids. Thus came into existence the 1st Invalids. It is on record that in 1767 the youngest officer was a Captain of 42, there were two totally blind officers—an Ensign of 71 and a Lieutenant of 80—and there was also a major of 82. In 1787 they paraded for the last time as Invalids, and two years later the regiment was thoroughly sound. Wellington was among the officers. In 1822 they became the 41st Welsh —now spelt with a "c"—Regiment of Foot, and, of course, the nickname "The Invalids" has always stuck to them.

Serving at the close of the year 1796 as marines for the third time in their history, a portion of the 2nd Battalion of this regiment was employed on H.M.S. "Brittania", H.M.S. "Courageous", and H.M.S. "Agamennon", under Nelson. The following year "The Old Agamennons", as Nelson called them, accompanied him when he transferred his flag to "The Captain", and were present at the battle of Cape St. Vincent. The Welch Regiment is the only regiment to have the honour of bearing "St. Vincent" on its colours.

About 180 years ago, in 1756 to be exact, the 56th Foot had crimson facings. These wore so badly that the Colonel wished to have them changed to blue. This, however, not being allowed, he adopted that particular hue known as "pompadour", so named from its being the favourite colour of Mme. de Pompadour, the beautiful and shrewd mistress of King Louis XI of France. And here is the origin of the nicknames "Saucy Pompy's" or "Pompadours" now used by both battalions of the Essex Regiment. That these were in use over 140 years ago can be seen from the following recruiting poster which appeared in 1800:

> "The Highest Bounty in National Bank Notes, or Hard Guineas. 56th Regiment, Major Keating, Now wants Sixty men of Spirit and Enterprise to complete the Fifty-Sixth Regiment, or Old Saucy Pompadours. Any lads chusing to

follow the Honourable Profession of a Soldier, may apply at the Sign of the Fighting Cocks, Rathkeale. The Major begs to remind his countrymen of the preference already given by One Hundred and Sixty County Limerick and Kerry Lads who have joined the Pompadour standard, and he hopes, for a continuance of that partiality which he has so amply experienced".

The Loyal Regiment (North Lancashire) served with Wolfe at Quebec, and it is in memory of his death that officers wear a double line of black lace in their gold lace, and it also accounts for the 1st Battalion being known as "Wolfe's Own".

The 48th Foot (Northamptonshire Regiment) achieved great fame at Talavera and in remembrance of this action are known as "The Heroes of Talavera". It was in this battle that their Colonel, the last officer in the British Army to wear the old three-cornered hat or "Nivirais", being seriously wounded, called the next senior officer, bowed, raised his hat, and said: "Major Middlemore, you will have the honour of leading the 48th to the attack."

Whatever others may think of it, the nickname "Dirty Half-Hundred" is not at all what it appears to be at first sight. At Vimiera (1808) the 50th Foot (Queens Own Royal West Kent Regiment) particularly distinguished itself, and when one reads in Napier's account of the battle: "their faces were begrimed with powder and black as their own lapels . . . and 900 tumbling down on Laborde's division of French (5,300 strong) amidst a fearful war-cry and with a shock that nothing could withstand", the reader will realize how glorious a deed this uncomplimentary-sounding nickname commemorates.

Almost everyone has heard of the title "Die-Hards", which The Middlesex Regiment won at Albuhera (1811), when over 400 officers and men fell, and where their Colonel, fatally wounded, rallied the 57th by the cry: "Die hard, my men, die hard". It is unfortunate that this name is frequently used as a term of contempt in these days, when it is to be hoped that those of us who are fated to die *will* "die hard". The 2nd Battalion of this Regiment is known as "The Pothooks" in reference to their number (77th Foot).

The 60th (King's Royal Rifle Corps) and The Rifle Brigade used to wear dark green uniforms in the days when full dress was worn. Hence their nickname "Greenjackets". As Rifle Regiments they carry no colours, and therefore wear their battle honours on their badges and other appointments.

According to one story, it is in tribute to a much-cherished local ballad that the Wiltshire Regiment answer to the title of "The Moonrakers", while another says it is due to some members of the regiment being surprised one dark night dragging a pond with long rakes, looking, as it turned out, for smuggled brandy kegs, or as they said, for the moon. They gained another nickname, "The Springers", because of their alertness during the American War, while yet another, "The Splashers", was earned within the British Isles.

In 1760 they were serving at Carrickfergus Castle. At this time the regiment had a large number of young recruits, and they found themselves, when without guns and with little small arms ammunition, confronted by 1,200 Frenchmen. Consequently, they had to use their buttons as bullets. Later they had to resort to stones and bricks, and, finally, they charged with the bayonet. The Castle was taken in the end, but the 62nd were allowed to march out with the full honours of war, as were, incidentally, the Duke of Aosta and the Italians at Amba Alagi during the present war. In memory of this episode the regiment wore a "splash" or dent on their buttons for some time.

Finally, that grand old regiment, The Royal Irish Fusiliers, who captured the first French eagle in the Peninsula War. This episode accounts for two of their nicknames, "The Aiglers", and "The Eagle Takers", while their motto, "Faugh-a-Ballagh" (Clear The Way) is the reason for two others, "The Old Fogs" and "Faugh-a-Ballagh Boys".

* * * *

Well! there they are—some of the grand old nicknames which recall many years of courageous and hard service of the British Army all over the world. May this Army of ours, which has laid the foundation of the British Commonwealth of Nations, long continue to fight in the cause of freedom for all peoples!

AFTER THE WAR . . . ?

By Lieutenant-Colonel G. F. Bunbury

HAVE YOU DECIDED what you are going to do in England when you have finished with the army and have earned a pension which, even in pre-war days, allowed of few extravagances? Perhaps you are not going to live in England, or have already made up your mind what to do in retirement. If so, this article can have no more than a passing interest for you; it is written for those who are still undecided.

Most of us, despite present preoccupations, find our thoughts wandering from time to time into the future. We have misgivings. We wonder whether post-war England will be anything like the pre-war England of our infrequent but utterly wonderful leaves. We imagine, probably correctly, that the purchasing power of our small pensions will be greatly reduced and that we will be unable to afford the leisure and relaxation we feel we have earned.

But have we earned a twilight of ease just because we have served twenty-five to thirty years in the army? I doubt it. Why should we, because of the years spent in soldiering on good pay, consider that we have no further responsibility to society? Why, having earned our pensions, should we become social parasites at whom the ever-increasing socialist element will jeer?

These jeers are well deserved. The working man does not sit back at the age of fifty and do nothing. He more often than not dies in harness at a ripe old age. The necessity for wearing that harness prolongs his useful life and increases his happiness. Why should not we accept a new harness and thus prolong our usefulness, both to ourselves and to the nation? To what, you may ask, does all this lead? It leads to the possibly unpopular statement that England will not want, and will tolerate only with resentment, the physically fit *bouche inutile*. What, then, is the answer? It is that every one of us must, despite the fact that we have given the noonday of our lives to the army, find some useful occupation which will end only with our death, or with the complete loss of our physical powers.

Some, and they are optimists, may think that they can get jobs. Some may already have useful hobbies. A few may think, erroneously, that their wealth relieves them of the necessity for doing anything but enjoy themselves. Most of us will want to do something useful but do not know how to set about it. Our only

hobby has been our profession. What can we begin at the age of fifty that will be of any practical use? It is to those in this category that the following suggestions are offered.

Without claiming undue originality or perspicacity, the writer believes that many of our national misfortunes have been due to over-industrialization and over-specialization of production. Also that we will regain our national strength and virility only by exploiting to the utmost the natural resources of the country: in fact, by going back to the land.

Any one of us, with little knowledge but plenty of industry, can wrest treasures from the land and thereby find that mental and physical satisfaction which results from quenching the thirst of creative instinct. The financial satisfaction of reducing expenditure by producing foodstuffs at home must also loom large in times when the balancing of the family budget is an acrobatic feat.

On the lowest financial level the "back to the land" enthusiast can get this satisfaction by working an allotment; on the highest he owns or rents a farm. The latter connotes a highly specialized knowledge, and more capital than most of us possess. The retired officer who loves a country life will obviously fall into a category between these two. This middle category itself can be divided into the small holder and the small farmer; that is to say the pensioner with nothing but his pension in the former, and the pensioner with a certain amount of capital in the latter.

If you retire with £1,000 with which to buy yourself a house, and nothing but your pension on which to live, you are a potential small holder. Do not spend your money on a villa in Cheltenham, or in any other of the "army suburbs". Such a sum will purchase a pleasant and convenient small house and a few acres of land in a rural area. Five acres or so of good land will provide you, if you are industrious, with the means of reducing your household expenses by almost £100 a year. With five acres you can keep your family supplied with eggs, vegetables and dairy produce, and at the same time keep yourself fit and happy. Your wife can help to cut down expenses by doing the work of the house and by doing the household laundry at home. This is no longer the weekly nightmare that it used to be, as the modern machines for both washing and ironing are simple to use and, taking into consideration the saving on laundry bills, inexpensive.

But surely with your education and social assets, you are worth more than £100 a year. Undoubtedly you are, but where

can you demand such a wage? If your hobby, be it writing, painting, carpentry or stamp collecting, were to bring you in a steady income of £100 per year you would be delighted. How much more proud you should be if your physical energy and mental balance can reduce your budget by this sum, at the same time keeping you usefully employed?

Now we will see how this saving is to be affected. You must keep a cow and you must learn to milk it: it will keep you in milk, butter and cream for nine months of the year. You must buy your milk for the remaining three months. Learning to milk presents few difficulties, and if you want an occasional day off, a local farmer's son is usually delighted to earn some pocket-money by doing the evening milking for you. A dozen good fowls will, in their youth, provide sufficient eggs for the household and when they stop laying will boil. Fifty pullets, raised from day-old chicks, will give you a chicken once a week. A good vegetable garden with some carefully tended fruit trees will save you packets.

All this will get you out of bed early in the mornings, both in summer and in winter; will keep you healthily and happily occupied all day, and you will find that you have neither the time nor the inclination for the expensive recreations that might have tempted you if you were less busy.

Now for the small farmer. Assume that you have, or have saved, three or four thousand pounds capital. This should buy a good farm house and sufficient suitable outbuildings and land (say 50 acres) to enable you to be practically self-supporting in all your household needs except meat, tea, sugar, tobacco and alcohol. But a word of warning. Do not think that you can be a successful farmer, however small, without some practical and theoretical knowledge of the subject. Many a farmer would be willing to take you and your family as P.G.s for a year, and in return for your manual labour he would gladly teach you all he can. You will thus gain experience of a complete seasonal cycle, and should be ready to plough your own furrow. If you want still more instruction, spend six months at Reading University. There you will be taught exactly what you ask to learn, and the fee is incredibly small.

Now for the job for which you have spent this time of preparation. For the type of small farm envisaged you will have to employ a full-time labourer to help you. His wages will be about £120 per annum and your plans must cater for supplying

your household needs and for making enough cash profit to pay for his hire.

The following suggestions are offered:

2 cows (the skim milk to feed the pigs);
One dozen fowls for laying;
50 pullets for the table;
10 sows and a boar;
12 store cattle;
½ acre vegetable garden;
½ acre fruit;
15 acres for hay or silage for cows and store cattle;
1 acre for roots;
8 acres of arable land for corn;
16 acres for grazing cows and store cattle;
6 acres for folding pigs.

The progeny of the sows, sold as weaners, should bring you in sufficient cash profit to pay the wages of your man. The arable land will provide grain for your livestock, and whole-meal flour for the household. The straw will be trodden into muck for your fields by the cattle in the yards during the winter. In the summer the store cattle will each want an acre of pasture, and if they are bought as yearlings in the autumn, and sold as Christmas beef the following year, these should bring in a substantial profit.

The above is only an outline of a scheme which can have untold variations. Your imagination, foresight and initiative is given all the scope required, and the whole-time healthy outdoor work will keep you fitter than you have ever been. Most important, perhaps, is the fact that for the first time in your life you are your own master, answerable to no man. What a pleasant change for a soldier!

These suggestions are not intended to belittle the usefulness of the market gardener, apiarist or fruit grower: they are all producing essentials, and are useful units in the national life. It is suggested, however, that these occupations are somewhat limited in scope, and that they are more dependant on the vagaries of the English climate than general farming.

If this article has stirred the imagination of any it has achieved its object. Whatever you may decide to do, make up your mind that your future life will be useful to England who, debilitated by years of war, needs the brains, courage and physical energy of all of us, for so long as we possess such qualities. Let us, like the phoenix, arise from the ashes of war to a new and happier life.

OUR MILITARY MAN-POWER PROBLEM

By Lieutenant-Colonel F. L. Roberts

NO ONE WILL deny that the demands on our man-power in this war are far heavier than were similar demands in the last war. Furthermore, the Empire's population has not by any means increased between these two wars to such an extent as to be commensurate with the demands made upon it now. Again, within the army itself there are now many more and varied calls upon our available men than ever entered our peace-time philosophy. The hundred-and-one different weapons and vehicles which our land forces must use, and the various new individual roles which must be carried out, have resulted in varying degrees of specialization, which, in their turn, have increased our requirements in *trained* soldiers of various types and categories.

Consequently, we are not finding it any too easy to provide trained—and by this I mean fully trained—soldiers for our very enlarged and growing land armies. And so what is the result? We are reduced to a process known as "milking", which, in effect, more or less amounts to "taking away from him even that which he hath."

Any Officer who has recently returned to India from overseas will bear witness to the fact that this "milking" process, in its application to Indian Army units overseas, results in, or has been resulting, in a drastic if not a dangerous turn-over of personnel. Units which have been 100 per cent. war-experienced in officers and men have been reduced to a 40 per cent. or 30 per cent. strength in war-experienced men after a lapse of a few weeks away from active operations.

Nowadays units in any theatre of war are apt to be moved from non-active areas to very active areas in the space of a few hours. Hence it will be appreciated that a drastic change-over in the quality of their personnel might well be classified as "dangerous". Modern war imposes such a strain on endurance that those who have experienced its strains and who have proved to themselves that they can "take it" are of far, far, greater value to any fighting force than the percentage which have yet to be tested. This is a factor far more potent to-day than it has ever been in the whole history of warfare.

To turn to the home front in India. There are in India today many battalions which, through no choice or fault of their own, have so far had no experience of modern war. But what they have experienced to no ordinary extent is this process known as "milking". They must have started their war-time careers with a very high percentage of regular soldiers, and the milking system has subsequently drained off a high percentage of their original personnel during the two-and-a-half years that we have been at war.

It may be argued that the drastic result, in the case of these battalions, is a necessary evil which cannot be avoided, and that the situation is not as dangerous with them as it is in the case of battalions overseas. There is, however, one aspect which, if disregarded, might well result in apathy—and apathy at a time like the present is more dangerous than any Fifth Column. I refer to the psychological affect on men who are keyed up to fight and who perforce belong to a unit which is being repeatedly "milked" while they themselves are left behind.

As an example, let us take the case of a war-time battalion raised, probably, soon after war began and consisting of drafts from its sister regular battalions. In this nucleus, with its proportion of recalled reservists, you had a unit the officers and men in which were all imbued with the natural desire of every good soldier—to fight as a part of his own unit. This keenness resulted in the rapid knitting together of the drafts sent to form the units. How long is this keenness likely to be retained at concert-pitch when officers and men must watch "milked" elements of their unit sent away to other units overseas while they themselves remain behind, month after month, to see their own battalion repeatedly reduced to a skeleton of its former self? This may seem to be an exaggeration, but you can't deny the psychological fact that "hope deferred maketh the heart sick."

Having thus criticised our present system, the writer now makes bold to offer a solution to the problem. Let us revert, for a moment, to the title of this article. There are two types of milk considered as being fit for human consumption at any time in India—pasteurized and/or condensed milk (powdered milk is in the latter category).

Now, supposing you were made responsible for feeding several hundred human beings and/or animals on a milk diet for a period of several months—months during which conditions were likely to be so trying as possibly to necessitate extra issues from

your stock of milk. You must bear in mind that, owing to Dame Nature's ways, the people/animals in your charge are apt to increase and to decrease appreciably, in numbers, at short notice; with resultant changes in the demands on your stock of milk. Supposing also that, at the moment of taking over this responsibility for supply of milk diet, you had to make the choice between holding stocks of pasteurized or condensed milk, at an equal bulk tonnage of either. Which would you choose? (You may assume that the pasteurized milk would not go bad, no matter how long you had to keep it.)

Whatever you may say in favour of pasteurized milk, the correct answer is "condensed" milk. The reason is obvious, but in case you feel argumentative let me tell you why.

At the time when you have to make this momentous decision—a decision upon which the lives and future happiness of your population will depend—you cannot possibly state with any accuracy what your daily demand for milk will be. Some foul disease may suddenly deplete your population and thus cause a decreased demand for weeks; on the other hand, an equally sudden increase in your population, whether human or animal, may almost double the demands on your stock; or again, debility among some of your charges may necessitate an extra issue to these weak folk. The pasteurized milk stock remains constant in capacity—ounce for fluid ounce you can't increase your stock unless you water it, which is a foul.

But your stock of condensed milk is ideal—in name as well as in nature—for issue on an as-required basis. Its concentrated form gives you a very much larger stock from which to draw (if you remember, the bulk tonnage in either case was to be the same). This concentrated characteristic of the condensed milk enables you to meet demands with the greatest possible economy without having to stint supply. Look at it whichever way you like, you *must* be prepared for a constant fluctuation in demand, and the only type of milk suited to meet such conditions is condensed milk. See?

Now then, how can we apply this principle to the problem of providing "milk" (in the shape of *trained* fighting men) to our war-time "population"—the units of our Field Armies?

Firstly, what is the procedure now?

Our recruits receive their basic and initial training at selected training units. If time allows, which is seldom, the recruit is given a measure of advanced training in the handling of some of the many weapons used in Active Battalions overseas.

He may, if he is lucky, even undergo a brief period of section training, *i.e.* he begins to be taught that he is part of a machine and that his individual training has been a means to that end. But his training unit can do no more; it is, very rightly, not designed to teach Company and Battalion training.

Even so, the supply of *trained* soldiers from these training establishments does not meet the demands of our active battalions in an ever-increasing army; so we have to "milk" these active battalions, which should be *receivers* of "milk" rather than the donors if they are to be kept up to a high standard of fitness for war.

In other words the present system is rather "pasteurized"—over a period of months we have a more-or-less fixed quantity of trained men, and we transfer them from one unit to another just to meet the immediate demands of the moment. In actual fact we are watering the pasteurized milk, which does neither the consumer nor the milk any good and can never be a satisfactory answer to our problem.

Have I laboured the point? Well then, "him that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

How can we change over from a "pasteurized" to a "condensed" system? By introducing into each Regiment or Group one or more units whose sole object will be to carry out post-recruit training. They become our tins of condensed milk, and this is how I see the system working:

(*a*) Training battalions should aim only at completing the four-and-a-half months' course necessary to produce the trained rifleman (or his equivalent in other units). On completion of this course the recruits should be consigned to "condensed" battalions only—NOT to Active Battalions in fighting formations.

(*b*) Condensed battalions to carry out the specialist and collective training which the modern unit expects, or hopes, that its drafts have been through. And, as circumstances demand, these highly trained soldiers are sent as reinforcements—in fact as well as in name—to units of fighting formations, and to form new units.

(*c*) Units in fighting formations should never be asked to surrender any of their men, except when they themselves find it necessary for purposes of leave, pension, relief and the like. In this connexion it might be argued that Training Battalions could do this work without having to resort to making other battalions do it. The fact is that they could not. You would have to

increase the number of officers and instructors, the amount of equipment and the extent of the accommodation at each T.B.; you would drive an already over-worked commandant mad; and you would submerge and therefore lose that valuable and indispensible outlook which only life in a battalion of trained men can develop—the experience of being part of an active unit organized and trained to function as such.

That is the broad outline of the "condensed" milk scheme. There are one or two points, however, affecting the "condensed" battalions:

(*a*) Within the equipment of the "condensed" battalion there must be included a proportion of the weapons and vehicles with which the active battalions are armed. To wrap a log of wood in leather and call it a "token" 2-inch mortar will never fit any man who handles it to take his place in a mortar team engaged in active operations. No, these "condensed" battalions *must* have a small proportion of carriers, mortars, trucks, lorries, anti-tank weapons and so on.

(*b*) Men who return from overseas for a much-needed change after months of strenuous fighting must, after their leave, be posted to "condensed" battalions. There they can pass on the valuable knowledge which they have gained from personal experience. Such officers and men should get their leave from their T.B. and then be sent at once to one of their "condensed" battalions.

Now then! What advantages do we obtain from this proposed system?

The advantages which I see can be summarised as follows:

1. The strain on the administrative staff of training units is appreciably reduced. Instead of having to cope with demands and forecasted demands from a large number of active battalions, that staff can concentrate on training recruits and passing them out to the "condensed" battalions.

2. The number of specialist instructors at training units can be reduced to nil. All you want are drill and musketry instructors. Furthermore, as specialists will no longer be required at the T.B., the average age and length of service of the T.B. instructor can be greater without any loss of efficiency—the instructor will not become out of date.

3. Correspondence as regards the supply and movement of reinforcements will be whittled down to letters between G.H.Q. India and one or two battalions per Regiment, as opposed to

the present necessity for having to write to every unit in the army.

4. The regular flow of man-power from recruiter to training unit and from training unit to "condensed" unit must inevitably make things much easier for those who have to forecast and to control intake and output.

5. The "condensed" battalions would still continue to pull their weight in the internal security problems of India. There might be occasions when heavy demands would reduce them to a 30 per cent. or even 25 per cent. shadow of their former selves, but that would not be for long, nor would it detract from their value as potentials in the meeting of internal security commitments.

6. At a pinch the "condensed" battalions could be used for active service against a tribal enemy on the N. W. Frontier. This step is not advocated except as a last resort, because there would be a natural tendency for local formation commanders to expect a higher standard of "mountain warfare" training to the detriment of the many types of more specialized training which modern open warfare demands.

7. Active battalions would be able to retain their high percentage of war-experienced men, no matter how long they might have to spend between bouts of active operations.

8. The supply of "red hot" items of equipment, *i.e.* those which have to be imported, would mostly go to the active battalions in India which need them. A very reduced minimum only need be allotted to condensed battalions for training. And no M.T. need be allotted to Training Battalions. This alone should make for economy. Added to these factors is another—the men drafted to active battalions would have received training in the use of these valuable weapons and vehicles, and so they would not be so liable to damage the equipment of active battalions.

9. It should be possible to earmark certain active battalions for a N. W. Frontier defence role for the duration of the war; thereby economising on this very expensive hired civilian M.T., and also economising in "red hot" items of equipment. Incidentally, were such earmarking at all possible, it should result in a further economy of man-power, because the strength of such battalions could be reduced to a "S.P.P.-level".

10. The psychological factor of disappointment and resultant loss of keenness is overcome once and for all. Each individual in a "condensed" battalion would know that though the

battalion as such would never go overseas, his turn would come sooner or later. The departure of a draft, instead of postponing the great day as it does now, would mean that the chances of being sent overseas had increased—the keen individual would know that his name had neared the top of the roster.

11. Finally, were this system to be adopted, or one very akin to it, we would be able to spill from our military vocabulary this dreadful phraseology about milking—surely a sign of something weak somewhere. I would suggest, in lieu, the following nomenclature:

"Training" battalions, as at present;
"Drafting" battalions, as suggested in this article; and
"Active" battalions, unadulterated as they used to be.

I am sure there is something in this philosophy, dear reader; and were William Shakespeare alive to-day I feel equally sure that he would condone my bowdlerisation as being in a righteous cause when I say—

"Whom to milk and whom *not* to milk, that is the question."

SIDELIGHTS ON GURKHA RECRUITING

By H. R. K. Gibbs

THE PRESENT is no time for giving figures of recruiting, but the future will show what a truly magnificent effort has been made by the small mountain Kingdom of Nepal in providing men for the armed forces of the British Empire. Youngsters who in 1939 were peacefully tending their cattle and sheep in the high pastures of the Himalaya, or tilling the little terraced fields on the hillsides, are to-day driving armoured carriers and manning anti-tank and anti-aircraft weapons in the plains of Egypt, Ceylon, Iraq and Persia, and on the threatened frontiers of India.

Incidentally, it is no mean tribute to the training system of the Indian Army that the same lads who are now fully-trained mechanized soldiers, never saw a motor car, an aircraft or even a railway train before they enlisted. How it is done is best known to those hard-worked officers of the various Gurkha Regimental Training Centres, for whom no praise can be too high.

It is, however, concerning the side issues of the great expansion that this article is written. A longish period of work as an Assistant Recruiting Officer has shown the writer some things which may be of general interest.

Next to the actual work of recruiting, dealing with the Gurkha's family affairs is undoubtedly the most important part of the Recruiting staff's work. There is no District Soldiers' Board to deal with these affairs, and all such work falls to the lot of the Recruiting Officer for Gurkhas and his officers. The Gurkha woman, untrammelled by any system of purdah or seclusion, plays a very big part in the management of the family's affairs.

Each year many thousands come into the Recruiting Depots at Kunraghat, Ghoom and Laheria Serai. When the pensioners come to draw their pensions, as often as not their wives come too. During the last cold weather some eleven and a half thousand pensions were paid between December and mid-March in Kunraghat alone. Over and above these, many more thousands come to collect family allotments, receive sums of money sent by serving soldiers or get news of relatives. A very large number of family pension claims are also dealt with each

year. Some of the hill folk come just for the fun of the thing, and the Gurkha Brigade War Memorial Dharamsalas at Kunraghat and Ghoom are always full of family parties, complete with the baby.

Investigation of claims for family pensions and estates of deceased soldiers takes up many hours. Great patience is called for in unravelling the often-complicated family relationships, and when a Gurkha woman is hot on the trail she is not to be put off; she has her say in no uncertain manner. The worried A.R.O. will often find one baby parked in his letter-tray while mother produces lunch for one even smaller, what time an old gentleman who has been brought as a witness insists on telling you how he helped to defend Wana in 1894.

Perhaps the most trying cases are those in which the claim to a family pension is suddenly complicated by the arrival of a hitherto unknown widow. The retired Gurkha Officer especially is prone to take unto himself a young junior wife when he retires in comparative affluence. When in the fullness of time he is gathered to his fathers it is often found that the younger wife has been nominated as his heiress. Thereupon the elder wife comes down to the Recruiting Depot to press her claim and enlist the help of the Recruiting Officer, who, of course, needs the wisdom of Solomon.

In present circumstances disbursing family allotments is a major task. The Gurkha is as a rule very generous in such matters, and his confidence in the ability of his wife to run the home farm during his absence is seldom misplaced, although cases do occur which disprove the adage that absence makes the heart grow fonder.

When the wives, fathers or mothers come to collect the family allotments identification is an important business, and it is often amusing. A hot and bothered Assistant Recruiting Officer must see that moles, scars or other beauty spots are in the places stated in the payment registers. It is not always realized that little girls grow up, and birthmarks and the like should therefore be selected which will cause the minimum of embarrassment to all concerned in the years to come.

Another point often overlooked is that in a country where the people are entirely pastoral and agricultural, cutting grass or corn with a sickle or wood with a kukri is bound to result in a cut finger sometimes or other. A scar on the little finger of the left hand is, therefore, not a reliable means of identification, as fully 90 per cent. of adults have it.

At the other end of the scale is the case of the man who appeared recently to get a new wooden leg. Besides this souvenir of France in 1914 he had the gash of a bullet wound the whole way across his cheek, yet the identification marks officially recognized in his pension papers were still the two small moles on his chest recorded on the day he enlisted in 1909.

Mention has been made of the part played by women in the Gurkha's family life. Anyone who is fortunate enough to travel in Nepal will have ample confirmation of this fact. Some years ago I was able to make a short trip beyond the frontier at Nautanwa to the ridge above Batoli, the first Nepalese town beyond the Terai. The bridge over the Tinu Khola river provided an obvious excuse to rest awhile. Here beside an ancient temple of Siva an enterprising little Gurkha lady had her *bati*, a sort of teashop-*cum*-pub, which served as a good observation point. Other women carrying firewood, grass or freshly-cut sheaves of corn paused for a rest. Men, too, were similarly engaged, but the majority were women and girls.

All were only too ready to chat to the sahib, while the sight of the camera invariably caused laughter and a thinly-disguised readiness to be photographed. Further up the hill-path were the snug little houses, reminiscent of the crofters cottages of Scotland. All the household work was being done by the women, and many of them were busy hoeing and weeding the inevitable cabbage patch, then full of chillies, beans, spinach and turnips. Here and there an old woman would be spinning or weaving rough homespun cloth, while others chopped firewood for cooking the evening meal.

On the return journey, by one of those unexpected strokes of luck, I was spotted by a little girl of about twelve, who remembered me in the Regiment. She had seen me pass earlier in the day, and had awaited my return. As I approached she jumped from the boulder where she had been looking out for me and seized my arm. Before I had time to think, her name came to my tongue. "Dhannu! What are you doing here?" I asked. "I live with my mother just along the road, where we have a teashop," she replied. "Please come and sit down. I saw you pass this morning, and so I waited for you to come back."

The teashop was just a temporary shed of bamboo and thatch put up for the winter season, when the road is thronged with recruiters and their recruits and the thousands going to and from India for pensions, trade and pilgrimages. Here presided the dumpy but pleasant-looking little Gurkha woman

whom I had so often seen knitting in the verandah of the orderlies' quarters behind the Mess. Her husband had not lived to enjoy his pension for long, and so his widow eked out her savings with the profits of her small catering business. We were soon exchanging news, and I learnt that her only son had joined another Gurkha Regiment. Hot tea, well spiced with pepper, helped our conversation till I regretfully left to begin my return to India through the Terai.

Although Gurkhas are as a whole backward from an educational point of view, except those who live in the British districts near Darjeeling, army service does much to change that. Practically all recruits are illiterate on arrival, but soon pick up a smattering of Hindustani before tackling Roman-Urdu. Many only learn the Devanagri script in later life. Their womenfolk, too, are becoming literate during their residence in India.

Darjeeling, of course, abounds in schools, and many thousands of little Gurkha boys and girls work their way through to the glory of the matriculation. Whether we will in due course see little Gurkha ladies employed as clerks and secretaries remains to be seen, but the recruiting staff has already had two girl applicants. Both were apparently extremely well qualified but they could not be accepted. One has since married a Havildar and settled down to domestic bliss, while the other has returned to her desk as a school mistress. Perhaps their younger sisters or daughters may have better luck in the future.

Of recent years I have twice had the luck to visit Kathmandu, the capital of Nepal. Here, again, the fact is forced on one's attention that women play a big part in the affairs of Nepal. These visits were made during the present war, and news soon got round that a sahib from the Recruiting Depot was present. The Chancery of the British Legation there deals with many thousands of pensioners and Family Allottees whose homes are nearer to the capital than to the Recruiting Depots in India. News of regiments on active service, and of relations now serving with them, is eagerly sought. However, it is not in Kathmandu that one meets with typical Gurkhas in any great numbers, although a week-end some distance along the road to the district of Gorkha, did enable me to see a fair number.

The valley is unique in its sanctity, and as a historic centre of ancient Buddhist and Hindu culture. Kathmandu is no more typical of the country than London is, say, of the rest of England. The vast majority of the local population is made up of the Newars, an aboriginal race. Although in normal times few

Newars are enlisted in our Gurkha regiments, many fine soldiers have come from them in the past. A perusal of old regimental histories and photograph albums will reveal how many of them have distinguished themselves in past campaigns. As in 1914—1918, so now in this Great War, many Newars are coming forward to enlist and are serving wherever Gurkha units go. The Newars are extremely capable artisans, and the glorious carvings which adorn the windows, doorways and gables of old Kathmandu are their handiwork. Modern developments have tended to do away with much of this craftmanship, but there are signs that the present Prime Minister, Maharaja Sir Joodha Shamsher Jang Bahadur Rana, is awake to the need of keeping such artistic skill alive.

The Valley of Nepal has, however, one great characteristic in common with the rest of the country. Agriculture is intensive and of a very high order of efficiency. Wherever the Gurkha soldier has the chance he soon starts a vegetable patch, and they are skilful gardeners. They grow a great variety of crops, but naturally the staple crops are food crops such as wheat, soya beans, maize and, above all, rice. Allied with agriculture goes animal husbandry, and the breeding of cattle. These pursuits occupy the lives of fully 90 per cent. of the population of Nepal, and form the background against which the character of the people must be studied.

Dealing as he does with the facts of nature, the Gurkha is a realist and philosophically takes things as they come. Naturally truthful, he is straightforward and outspoken even to the point of rudeness. Like all hillmen, he is cheerful and has a greatly developed sense of fun, even if at times it is somewhat crude. Many generations of military ancestors have made him turn to soldiering as a normal part of his life. A system of universal liability for military service obtains in Nepal; indeed the whole system of government is of a military character and all high officials bear military titles.

Pressure of population on the comparatively small area of land in the hill districts means that in normal times of peace many younger sons enlist in the regular Gurkha regiments of the Indian Army, Burma Military Police, Burma Frontier Force, Assam Rifles and Kashmir State Forces. For many years, too, this pressure has caused a steady flow of immigrants into Sikhim, Bhutan and Assam, as well as into the hill districts of the United Provinces. These areas, more particularly those to the east of

Nepal, are now proving valuable reservoirs of recruits for the greatly expanded army of to-day.

Many tribes not represented in the army during peacetime are now furnishing large numbers of excellent recruits, and though the Magar and Gurung of the older regiments together with the Limbu and Rai will always be the *beau ideal* of the recruiting staff, these newcomers are already proving their value as soldiers.

Buddhism was once a great force in Nepal, and though to-day it still lingers on, mainly in the north and east of the country, it has been almost entirely supplanted by Hinduism. The ruling classes are invariably staunchly orthodox in their lives, and Hinduism provides the mainspring of the national culture. As has been noted before, the Valley of Nepal is a centre of intense sanctity and religious custom, and probably no place away from Benares contains so many temples and shrines. You cannot move a yard without encountering some object or building of piety. Every phase of life is affected by religion, and much of the daily life of Kathmandu is centred on religious observance.

The Gurkha soldiers from the mountainous districts away from the valley are more casual and perfunctionary in their religious observances, but nevertheless they are strict about essentials, although they are tolerant of other creeds. They observe the rules of castes, and members of the higher castes enjoy considerable social prestige. Their military traditions have an effect on this matter of caste customs, and tend to put them into a proper perspective; for instance, field service and the exigencies of war conditions override the necessity of practically all restrictive caste rules, and no harm results, provided always that the purification ceremonies of Pani-Patya are properly carried out on return from service overseas.

Brahmins and menials are precluded from active military service and are never enlisted as combatants. So great is the desire for service, however, that each year many of these classes try to enlist under false colours. Normally they are detected and rejected by the Recruiting Staff, but occasionally one slips through the net owing to his appearance being exactly similar to that of the class to which he claims to belong. He is invariably found out later on, as in so small a country he cannot get away from his neighbours for long. Should he have shared food with other men of the higher castes, they become *pani band, i.e.* outcasted, and elaborate ceremonies have to be performed to restore them to caste.

No article dealing with Nepal would be complete without a reference to the enormous assistance given by His Highness the Maharaja Sir Joodha Shamsher Jang Bahadur Rana. His position is unique. As Prime Minister and Supreme Marshal of Nepal he is the actual ruler of the country, since His Majesty the King of Nepal takes no part in the actual government. The office of Prime Minister is hereditary. The Roll of Succession includes the brothers of the Prime Minister in power according to age, and thereafter his own and his brothers' sons according to age, not necessarily the son of the Prime Minister himself. All departments of the Government come directly under the Maharaja, or *Tin Sirkar* as he is called. He is assisted by the other members of the Rana family.

Sir Joodha has done much to earn the gratitude of the British Government; he is ever ready to facilitate recruiting and he has taken a lively interest in the great expansion of the Gurkha Brigade. A large contingent of Nepalese troops have been assisting in the defence of India since the outbreak of war, and recently a force of Pioneer Battalions has been lent for service in India.

In Nepal itself His Highness has enacted a law to safeguard the rights of the families of Gurkhas now serving in the British forces. He has also had lists called for from all Gurkha units giving the names and addresses of all next-of-kin, in order that his officials may carry out his orders to see that no family shall suffer owing to the absence of their menfolk. This interest and sympathy does not end there, and practical help is extended to the many old pensioners who visit the Recruiting Depots. The Maharaja Joodha Hospital at Kunraghat was his gift, and is maintained by him for their benefit. He has always appreciated that recruiting and welfare are closely inter-connected, and that the Recruiting Staff is indeed more occupied over the twelve months with welfare and records work than with straightforward recruiting.

COMMANDOS AND WAZIRISTAN

By "Watch and Ward"

SINCE ABOUT 1924 Waziristan has been controlled mainly through a Resident, assisted by Political Agents backed up by the Civil Armed Forces and the Army. The Civil Armed Forces are generally employed in rounding up villages, laying ambushes, and showing the Union Jack in the form of large-scale patrolling. The Army in Waziristan, on the other hand, spends most of its time living in Frontier Posts carrying out routine post duties, rather monotonous road protection work combined with the occasional column.

Life for the majority of Army personnel in Waziristan, when every officer and man is genuinely a hundred per cent. keen to see active service in Libya or on the Burma Frontier, tends to be tedious and uninteresting. Admittedly, much theoretical training in extensive warfare tactics is given to both officers and men, but unfortunately there is little or no opportunity for putting this training into actual practice, as specialised Frontier warfare tactics must take priority when operating on the Frontier.

With a view to relieving this monotony and in order to train Army personnel in Waziristan in modern Commando tactics, a scheme ought to be introduced whereby a large number of Commando troops could be trained on the Frontier before being sent to a major theatre of operations. By employing Commando tactics on the Frontier there is an excellent chance of completely surprising the Pathan and giving him a good hard knock which, incidentally, is the only thing he understands!

For years the tribesman has been inwardly ridiculing our somewhat stereotyped military Frontier columns, and he is extremely well acquainted with the tactical drill of such. This, combined with his own detailed knowledge of the Frontier, enables him to adopt the initiative on many occasions, with the result that it is comparatively easy for him to ambush and to snipe troops both on road protection duty and on columns.

Commando troops would have to be selected and trained on lines similar to those in England, with modifications for Frontier conditions. Troops would be specially picked tough men given a liberal danger allowance, and led and trained by

young but experienced Frontier officers. Ex-Scout officers would be invaluable for this work. Officers who have completed a three-year tour of duty with Scouts have automatically developed a keen eye for ground, and they know practically every village, goat track, and nullah in the particular area in which they have served. They speak Pushtu fluently, and having completed three years in a Pathan unit, understand the Pathan mentality.

Such officers, the majority of whom have seen active service, would make excellent Commando leaders, both on the Frontier and in any other theatre of war, and as everyone knows, the Indian Army provides excellent material for the selection of Commando N.C.O.'s and men—Pathans, Punjabi Musalman, Sikhs, and Gurkhas, to mention only a few of the many classes enlisted.

Specialised Commando equipment, essentially light, would have to be used. The main armaments which would have to be issued on a suitable scale might consist of all or any of the following:

(*a*) The Service rifle; (*b*) the Tommy Gun; (*c*) the Revolver; (*d*) hand grenades; (*e*) bandoliers of S.A.A.; (*f*) 2-inch mortar in lieu of the infantry gun and artillery support.

The 2-inch mortar would have to be either manhandled or carried on an improvised light vehicle on the few occasions where the terrain allows of such a vehicle being used. With regard to improvisation, useful lessons can be learned from a study of Japanese methods which have proved so valuable to them in this present war.

Communications within the Commando raiding party might be maintained with small man-pack wireless sets. Such wireless sets as the Marconi H.9A worked off an accumulator are extremely light and give talking communication up to approximately five miles. In mountainous country, such as Waziristan, communication up to a distance of twelve miles has been successfully obtained.

The training of specialised Commando demolition troops to accompany raiding parties would be essential in order to carry out efficient and rapid demolition work destroying towers, etc.

In a country such as Waziristan, Commando detachments would have to be stationed strategically so that each detachment would be able to cover its own allotted area of operation. Plans would have to be prepared whereby the whole of Waziristan

would be covered by a network of Commando troops. A Commando raiding party would not be ordered out on a major operation, except under the authority of the Military Commander in Waziristan, and with the previous concurrence of the Political authorities. Such troops would be invaluable for the rounding-up of villages, carrying out certain demolitions and showing the tribesman that two can play at his own game, *i.e.* laying ambushes, and carrying out raids.

For example, if it were reliably reported that a gang responsible for the killing or wounding of either a Political or Army officer was being harboured in the village of X—provided it was politically advisable to demolish certain towers in that village as well as to round-up this particular gang—Commando troops could be ordered out for this work.

With a view to secrecy, which is so difficult to maintain not only on the Frontier but anywhere in the East, it would be important that locally only the minimum number of people concerned should know about the proposed plan, namely the Resident, the Political Agent concerned, the Military Commander, one senior Staff Officer, and the Commando Officer selected for the operation.

Should the selected Commando officer and his troops be stationed some distance from where the actual planning had taken place, and personal discussions with him were not possible, then his orders would have to be sent to him in the briefest form possible in cipher, being despatched as late as possible in the form of instructions rather than cut and dried orders. He in turn should issue his own orders to his men just before moving off on the raid. It is thought that only the more vital points in the orders need be confirmed in writing for Commando personnel.

At the appointed time Commando troops would move off from camp, normally under cover of darkness, moving to their objectives silently and quickly. On approaching the village in question, suitable dispositions would be adopted to surround it, the village would be systematically searched, all male villagers rounded-up and the necessary demolitions as ordered by the Political authorities carried out. Separate arrangements would have to be made for the Air Force to give the necessary air support from first light or as required.

On occasions Army regular troops could assist in the withdrawal in the form of a layback, but this would be dependent on the time-factor and would only be possible if orders could be given to regular troops after, and not before, the village had been

surrounded by Commando troops. This would be necessary in order to maintain secrecy.

Pathan women would be unmolested and only male villagers collected, but the tendency of the Pathan, when cornered, to disguise himself as a woman must not be forgotten. In the event of any shooting or Pathan trickery, then all male villagers would have to be suitably dealt with by Commandos on the spot. The knowledge that the Army is capable of giving the tribesmen a good hard knock when and where it pleases, might tend to bring about more peaceful conditions in Waziristan.

By employing the above tactics and being extremely mobile, the old Frontier principle of never leaving out a wounded man would have to go by the board. Commando troops would have to accept as normal the fact that casualties unable to make the pace during a withdrawal from a village must be left behind; they must take their chance of being captured, mutilated, and/or killed by tribesmen.

Money, it is said, talks all languages, and it is thought that if the Government were to give each Commando troop a written guarantee that a definite reward would be paid to the individual or individuals returning him alive, it is possible that captured or wounded Commandos would be brought back to camp alive. This "blood money" chit system has been successfully used in the case of R.A.F. pilots operating against the tribesmen in Waziristan.

The main advantages for the employment of Commando troops on the Frontier can be briefly summarised as follows:

(*a*) The chance of surprising the tribesmen is extremely good.

(*b*) A successful Commando show would give the tribesman a good hard knock—the only thing a Pathan understands.

(*c*) Commando raids would tend to abolish long, slow-moving Army columns, and might even, if necessary, be responsible for releasing a fair number of troops, animals, and transport from Waziristan for more important theatres of war.

(*d*) Much money could be saved.

(*e*) Commando training which, up to date, has proved invaluable in this present war, will give practical active service training to troops who in all probability might be carrying out similar tactics against the Japanese in the near future.

There are many experienced officers serving in the Army at the present time who have seen considerably more active service in the various theatres of war than the majority of Frontier experts, and it would be interesting to know their ideas on the possibility of employing Commando troops on the Frontier. From the pessimistic point of view, even if the employment of Commando troops on the Frontier were not a success then no serious loss to British prestige would have been involved. So why not give a number of both British and Indian troops practice in Commando training under more or less active service conditions?

WHAT SHALL WE TALK?

By "Nimis"

DISCUSSIONS, sometimes heated, have been going on ever since the writer first saw India, regarding a common language, both for the Indian Army, and for the country as a whole. What has been the result so far? India supplied its own answer in the shape of Hindustani, which caters for large parts of the north, while English has to a smaller extent filled the need for much of the south.

The Army has adopted what is described as Roman Urdu, but only to a very limited extent. It is a sealed book to the English and English-speaking arrivals, and remains so to the great majority; it is no less a foreign language to many of the newer elements, while even to those who speak Urdu as their mother-tongue the Roman script and the large number of English words make it almost a new language to be learnt. In some cases they have to water down the Urdu side of their mother-tongue; in most cases they have to raise its standard.

It might be the place here to put in a plea for ceasing to apply the word Urdu to our present rather debased Hindustani as it is spoken and written. It is a rather bombastic claim to a standard which only the "Urdu" interpreter can really pretend to attain.

The call of the Army for a common language has been expounded too often before in this Journal for it to be gone into here, but it is claimed that the Roman Urdu which has been evolved does not meet our needs, and a better alternative is well worth looking for.

The drawback which seems greatest is the comparative difficulty of Hindustani as a language after the first steps have been taken; a very low standard indeed gets past the compulsory examinations, after which much greater efforts are necessary to raise the students to a level where he can really converse intelligently and freely; and, rightly or wrongly, the number who do so raise themselves is small enough in peace and probably negligible in war. In passing, we might glance at the squabbles which have from time to time arisen in the academic world of India through the Urdu-Hindi controversy.

There is a perfectly good alternative, which no self-respecting Englishman has ever regarded with much favour, though in many bilingual parts of the world it has come into fairly general use. Esperanto is a genuinely used second language in many parts of Europe which are mixed in their languages: Switzerland, the Flemish-Walloon parts of Belgium, Poland; while before the war it was taught quite a lot in Germany.

Poland was its home, and the Russian-Polish-Yiddish-German district of Bielostok was the inspiration of Dr. Zamenhof. The language has now been a living organism for 55 years, and, that it is practically unknown in England, or, at best, looked on as a fad, is not the fault of the language. The time seems ripe for a small-scale experiment in the back areas of India, to see how it would work. It is now proposed to give some idea of the nature of the language; to arrive at a rough estimate of the effort needed to learn it, by comparison with Urdu; of its effectiveness to the Army and to India at large, possibly; and to outline a possible experiment.

The grammar, having been devised *ab initio* and *ad hoc* (if one may quote the other new language we have been recently introduced to), the grammar is naturally regular throughout, and Dr. Zamenhof put the whole thing in 16 rules and into 750 words. There are no "odd" letters in the alphabet of 28: there are some accented ones, to differentiate, for instance G (hard) and G (soft); C is pronounced "TS," while C is as CH in "church;" H is as the Welsh or Scottish "CH." J has the value of Y (consonant), while Ĵ is as in French. There is an S, pronounced "SH." No letter, vowel or consonant, ever has more than one sound; and, except for two diphthongs, no sound needs more than one letter. Q, W, X and Y drop out, as being more nuisance than they are worth. The remaining letter is U, which appears only as the second component of the dipthongs AU and EU. While the accents shewn are the official ones, any other distinguishing mark is acceptable, such as a dot over the letters, so printing is not difficult.

The structure of the language is not unlike Basic English, but in a more developed form, in that the whole thing is built on quite a small number of "roots." The uses to which these can be put are far more numerous than in Basic; a single root, for example, by the use of some half-dozen prefixes and 25 suffixes, forms innumerable words: again, by altering the termination one can make a substantive, a verb, a number of adjectives and an adverb at least from every root.

These roots are taken, where they are in general use in European languages, from the Latin; some are English, German or Dutch; and knowledge of a couple of European languages or of Latin gives one the meaning of practically all of them, at sight.

To take a random example of a few of the uses to which such a root can be put:

Doni	...	*To give.*
Donas	...	*Give (s).*
		(No change for person).
Donis	...	*Gave.*
Dono	...	*Gift.*
Doninda	...	*Worth giving.*
Donulega	...	*Munificent.*
Donanto	...	*Giver (with present sense).*
Doninto	...	*Giver (with past sense).*
Done	...	*In Giving.*

Added to these roots there is of course a complete system of prepositions, conjunctions and pronouns, as minor means of "making the wheels go round:" the correlative pronouns are all formed on a comprehensive but simple framework, and most of the prepositions and conjunctions come straight from Latin, such as *Apud, Dum, Sed, Ekster, Adiau, Hodiau,* and so on.

To give an idea of what the language looks like, the reader may care to run his eye over the following, and see how much of it he knows already. It is a passage from a normal leading article in an Esperanto newspaper, and has not in any way been "simplified." It expresses the writer's mind, without suppression. How many British Officers can say as much for their Urdu?

Kiam la lernanto de Esperanto—post la kurso—farigis kapabla uzi nian lingvon, starigas al li la demando—"Por kio utilas al mi Esperanto?" Se li ne ricevas tujaŭ respondon al tiu demando, eble lia fervoro malvarmigos; iom post iom li forlasos niajn vicojn; car lia scio estas sencala.

An often-heard criticism is of the somewhat monotonous tone of the language; that, however, seems to be a defect of its qualities, and the alternative would presumably be many hours of drudging at irregularities.

Which brings us to the probable time it would take to learn. The really good linguist, it is estimated, with a background of Latin and one or two other languages known, would read Esperanto books fluently after two or three hours' study, and speak and understand it quite well after ten.

The average British Officer, who now devotes anything over 120 hours to acquiring a villainous brand of dog Hindustani, could certainly learn Esperanto to perfection for practical purposes in that time, and would be well past his present so-called "Urdu" standard in less than half. And so, probably would the brighter 50 per cent. of British soldiers. Other ranks, British and Indian, would not need to learn 100 per cent., but it should be a *sine qua non* for promotion in all branches in the services in India. An hour a day for three months would bring any potential N.C.O. up to such a standard that he could study a text-book and carry on a reasonable conversation with anyone. The real studying of a text-book in Roman Urdu is a standard that few N.C.O.'s have yet attained, even of the classes which claim it as their mother-tongue, in the writer's experience. The reading takes all their attention, and the digestion of the matter read is too much of an effort.

To sum up, therefore, there is this to be said for Esperanto for India:

It is far easier, for those who have to learn a new language, than any of the possible alternatives—English, Basic English or Urdu, Roman or otherwise.

For those with Urdu as their mother-tongue, it is probably as easy to learn as Roman Urdu, which, as written in the Army with a third English words, is to all intents a new language.

Esperanto has all the machinery for putting across any kind of matter, however technical, and to assimilate it into itself. Any technical term not in the dictionary can be readily arrived at by common sense.

It is a neutral language, and thus cannot ever raise any racial repercussions.

Against all this there is, of course, besides dead conservatism, the reluctance to change horses in midstream, and a number of transition problems, but there seems to be nothing particularly fatal here.

It is now desired to outline an initial experiment on a very small scale to ascertain what might be the prospects of success. It is presumed there must be quite a number of officers surplus to immediate requirements in the country at the moment, with the formation of Pools, stragglers arriving, and convalescents. Probably there are, too, a number of British Ranks, V.C.O.'s and I.O.R.'s in the same boat, who would be available to make up a small class from each category, so that it could be really established whether it was a practicable thing to teach or not.

Should the estimate which was given above prove correct—60 hours for an English speaker and 120 hours for an Indian—the experiment should go on, and we may have found our cultural and training medium for the future without interfering very much with our other activities more directly war-winning.

In conclusion, it may be said that the writer has been out of touch with Esperanto affairs these twenty years or more: but at that time there was a very active British Esperanto Association, besides many international and foreign ones, and ample expert assistance would have been available. Whether this is still so or not, an organization could be built up quite easily; there must be a number serving in India who have enough knowledge to pass on. Acquiring a knowledge of the language in the days referred to was quite worth while, in view of the interesting people it was possible to meet on Esperanto Conferences and so on; the writer has never unfortunately been to one, but he has found quite a fair amount of Esperanto conversation in practice—particularly aboard an Italian ship with Shanghai passengers, almost all of whom were quite fluent.

Should any members of the institute be interested, the writer would be delighted to hear from them.

EDITORIAL NOTE

[The subject of Urdu study is one exercising the minds of so many British Officers in India at the present time that we felt it would be helpful to obtain the views of an authority on the subject of languages. The above article was accordingly shown to Lieutenant-Colonel F. R. Gifford, O.B.E., Secretary to the Board of Examiners, who comments as follows :

"The principle which strikes me after reading this article is that the author bases his arguments on two premises: (*i*) that Urdu is difficult, and (*ii*) that Esperanto is easy. Let us take each in turn, and apply to each the query : "Difficult for whom—British or Indian?"

" 'Urdu is difficult'. Urdu of the standard required for everyday use in the Indian Army is not really a difficult language for any foreigner to learn. The basic rules of grammar are few and not irregular; the vocabulary required in the Indian Army is not enormous, being eked out by an ever-increasing importation of English words for technicalities. Once the newly-arrived student has mastered the elementary grammar and has disabused himself of the only too common idea that Urdu study is a schoolroom subject to be loathed and avoided in the true British schoolboy fashion, he will find that his progress in fluency will surprise even himself. For the Indian of any race, Urdu as spoken in the Indian Army is in structure and spirit much more easily acquired than any foreign importation can hope to be. Methods of thought and forms of expression are the same in all truly Indian languages, and experience and experiment have shown that it is the only practical solution of the problem as to what is the best *lingua franca* for the Indian Army.

"Now to (*ii*). Esperanto is of European origin. It represents the efforts of a very ingenious European to evolve the simplest form of speech possible from European languages. For the British student who has a smattering of French and a nodding acquaintance with Latin it offers few difficulties, except that for technicalities he must turn to European rather than to English sources; but to the ordinary British soldier I would say that it offered many difficulties, and to the Indian soldier it would mean the acquisition of a form of speech foreign to him in construction and vocabulary, pronunciation and script."]

MUSINGS ON SEA-TROUT FISHING

By Lt.-Colonel R. B. Phayre, m.c.

IT SEEMS AN odd time, and an odd country, in which to muse on the habits of the sea-trout (*Salmo trutta*). There are moments when a diversion from vital interests creates a peaceful atmosphere; and there are few more restful subjects that I can think of, for the mind of many a keen angler wanders to some particular favourite water, be it in England, Wales, Scotland or Ireland, which he longs to visit again at the first opportunity. It is for such as these that I make no apology for venturing to jot down a few notes—the outcome of personal experience.

Fishing for sea-trout in the United Kingdom has a great appeal to many anglers. Not only is he a great sporting fish, fighting to the last with leap after leap, but he is excellent for the table, many gourmets preferring him to the salmon.

He has many idiosyncracies and, consequently, is well worthy of study. For a good few years, after going on pension, I had the leisure to attempt a little very elementary research work on his habits in the South-Western counties of England. I fished for him at night, at dawn, and spent hours by a salmon ladder near my house watching him overcome the spates on his journey up to the gravel bottoms of brooks and leats where he breeds; but I must confess, at once, that I have very little indeed to show for my efforts, though I scrutinized his lies through polarized glasses.

A good deal of scientific research work has now been carried out by means of marked fish, so more information is coming in; even so, there is still a great deal that we should like to learn. The textbook on the subject is "Life of the Sea-trout," by G. H. Nall, and other writers have devoted chapters or paragraphs which are of interest.

Perhaps the most curious point about sea-trout is that, in parts of the United Kingdom, he can be caught with comparative ease in daylight on fly or minnow, whereas in the South-West counties of England it is the rarest thing to get him to rise before the half-light in the evening. Then he begins to move, and will take freely all night up to the half-light at dawn on the next morning. All sorts of theories have been evolved, and it has become quite a controversial subject. You may take a peal in

Devon and Cornwall by day on a small dry-fly, but most anglers will agree that it is very exceptional in those waters.

Various experiments were carried out with the aid of a submerged telescope. Gut casts of varying thickness were moved among a shoal of salmon, and it obviously frightened them, even down to the fineness of 4x. A black thread was then experimented with and they took no notice, although the thread moved among a shoal of them; further experiments are being made with *Trutta.*

Sea-trout, like salmon, return to the same river, and even to the same side-stream, in which their ova hatched out. Such information is, of course, obtained from marked fish. Further details are available from catches in trawls. They have been captured off the coasts of Holland and Denmark, but evidence shows that they do not, as a rule, travel anything like the same distances as salmon, but are often taken in the estuaries.

Life History of Sea-trout Ova.—Ova hatches out quickly in warm water and slowly in cold water (some 30 to 90 days). Warm water and good feed affects the fry and parr stage, consequently their stay in fresh water before their first migration to the sea averages three years (from 1 to 5 years). In appearance they are very similar to brown trout, but they keep in shoals more than brown trout do.

Smolts.—Conditions being favourable, they move to the sea usually from March to May when they change their colour to silver. At this stage they closely resemble salmon smolts, but are usually a trifle longer as they have been a greater time in fresh water. Although they may migrate for the first time, their age may vary by a year or two, the older fish putting on weight much more speedily when it reaches the sea. Size depends mainly on the amount of food procurable.

Records show that Scottish fish are taken off the coasts of Denmark and Holland; one from N. E. Scotland was caught in Ireland.

As a general rule they return to spawn much more quickly than salmon, the time varying from six months to even four years. All these facts can be obtained by scale reading; this is an art in itself, and is better left to the expert: for in this case "a little knowledge" may prove misleading.

Some experts consider that the farther the sea-trout travel, the more feed they get, which accounts for the larger fish. Other migrants seem to hybernate in the brackish waters of the

estuaries, which is said to account for the smaller run of fish. Unlike the salmon, they certainly feed in fresh water, but not to the same extent as brown trout.

My personal experience, in South-Western rivers, has led me to expect a run of heavy fish in the early summer, starting usually in May, and a later run in the late summer and early autumn. These latter are commonly known as school peal, and vary between $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Both types spawn about October and November. Some sea-trout remain in fresh water, and, after a time, closely resemble brown trout, although their colour changes to silver for a short period during the spring of each year.

Trutta avoids rivers which have muddy bottoms. It is especially marked in certain rivers where the estuaries are close together or, in rare cases, where a common estuary is shared. In the muddy rivers the catches are negligible, whereas the season's bag in the adjoining, non-muddy river, runs into four figures.

In Welsh rivers, such as the Dovey and Towey, the sizes of the *Sewin*, as they call them, run to fantastic weights, and it takes an expert to distinguish them from salmon. Sea-trout up to 18 lbs. have been taken on rod and line, and records show that one of $23\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. was taken in the nets. This weight was beaten in the Orkneys, where a sea-trout of 29 lbs. was killed on a line baited for sea fish. The age of this fish is not recorded. As a rule *trutta* does not live beyond 13 years. Major Kenneth Dawson mentions a Dovey fish of 16 lbs. which had spawned three times and which was only six-and-a-half years old.

On the South-Western rivers I have heard of sea-trout up to 10 lbs. and have observed fish of approximately this size in the pools. My best sport has been with maiden, fresh-run fish from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 lbs. Their stream-lined bodies are very beautiful; pure silver, with very few spots.

Observation in the pools will show a blank on one day, when the next will disclose a shoal of heavy fish lying in the shady spots, usually after a run following a spate.

As *trutta* is such a shy fish he will generally take best in coloured water. By day it is advisable to fish as fine as one dare, but at night it is courting disaster to fish too fine, and a cast not lighter than 1 x is considered essential. One yard in length is quite sufficient; its short length helps to obviate the difficulties of knotting up the cast in the dark, which so often happens, unseen

by the angler. I am afraid it gives me a sinister satisfaction when I see the acknowledged expert making mistakes, for I make so many myself.

This night fishing is a difficult business. Some skilled anglers use a dropper. There is a good deal to be said for this in theory, for a dark fly at the tail and a light one on the dropper can be used. Against this, there is the multiplied danger of a tangle or a knotted cast, which is so fatal, should a heavy fish take; it also adds to the extreme difficulty of landing a useful fish at night, when the dropper may sometimes catch up in the net or undergrowth, and consequently a valuable prize is lost. After bitter experience, I decided to discard the dropper and my results were definitely more successful.

Very useful baskets can also be obtained with the thread-line. The baits should be small, not over 1½ inches, the trace should be of gut or fine Alasticum wire of about 5 lbs. breaking strain, used in conjunction with a thread-line having a breaking strain of about 6 lbs. A celluloid scarab cover is very effective in places where a natural bait is permitted. Baits should be fished near the surface at night.

All minows, or fly, should be presented as delicately as possible, so as not to disturb feeding fish which are very easily put down. As a general rule it adds to the angler's difficulties if he indulges in long casting. To prevent a "drowned" line it is advisable to grease the line, with the exception of the last five yards. *Trutta* often moves down to the tail of the pool at night, possibly just above a dam where there is a fall. It is, frequently, very shallow water, well oxigenated.

When he takes, the fun begins. Unlike the salmon, the initial rush is often a very long one, when this is over he often comes back a beaten fish. His mouth is very tender; consequently it is inadvisable to hold him too hard; it is better to let him run, exerting only very light pressure. Any sudden check may lose him, so it is advisable to ensure that the reel runs smoothly, and that it is set only with sufficient tension to prevent the line over-running. I was driven to this expedient by my inexperience in holding a fish too hard; consequently, at first, I lost many through bad fishing. With a lighter touch, many more fish were landed.

When the bank is lined with over-hanging bushes, the sea-trout will often rush for them. At night it is very hard to see your fish, and, if the rod is very short, it is not at all easy to steer him clear of trouble.

Landing in the dark always presents a problem. The fish should be played out completely; the landing net should not be too shallow and have a wide mouth. I have found an electric torch to be essential, never forgetting a spare bulb, for many are the tosses taken at night, and there is always the cross-country walk home, or to the car, to be considered.

My experience has been that it is advisable to make a careful reconnaissance beforehand in order to see not only where the fish are lying, but also the ground you may have to traverse in the dark. Where night fishing is concerned, never attempt to cast until the fish are beginning to move, and the half-light has well set in. Concealment is essential; avoid any vibration on the bank. A great deal can be done beforehand to see that the selected landing place is free from snags, and that the background is cleared as much as possible. This can sometimes be effected a day or two before it is decided to fish the pool.

Once the fish are taking well, it usually pays to "stay put." A number of fish can often be killed from one stance; besides, it is often difficult to move about at night, especially when encumbered with gear. If the fish go off completely, it is time to think about moving; they will sometimes be found to be taking well in another pool, perhaps a hundred yards away. A rest at the original pool may be effective. I recollect on one occasion I relinquished my ground, prematurely, after taking a number of fish. A friend came along, so I warned him that the pool seemed to be fished out. Undeterred, he was into a fish at his first cast, which I helped to land for him, and a very nice seven-pounder at that.

Fishing by moonlight is rather a controversial point on which many anglers hold very firm theories, often diametrically opposed to each other. On bright moonlight nights, bottom food is on the move, and fish are inclined to feed on the bottom freely; consequently, after a bright moonlight night, many fish appear to be gorged and will not rise. My own view is that moonlight nights are favourable to sea-trout, but care must be taken, as in sunlight, not to cast a shadow on the water.

Low mist has been found to be not unfavourable, but mist, rising in wisps from the water, is generally most adverse to making a good basket. Thundery weather I find most deleterious to good results; on the other hand some of the largest fish have been killed during thunderstorms. My favourite water is when the river is fining down after a spate.

At one time I began to feel that I was really beginning to learn something about sea-trout, but what a disillusionment! Ideal days came when conditions seemed perfect, but there was never a touch. On other days, when the portents seemed to be most unfavourable, every fish in the river seemed to be taking. Many anglers for *trutta* come to this stage, when their previous experience melts into mediocrity, and they own themselves to be completely baffled. Nevertheless, they sally forth again, and would sooner win this battle of wits than land any other fish.

The selection of flies and lures for sea-trout is rather a vexed question. Anglers will tell you, after their fourth quick one, in the strictest confidence of course, of some infallible tip. I have made notes of these and have tried them out, but not, unfortunately, with the devastating success predicted by the exponent.

One day, when fishing on some famous private water in Devon, I came across a local fisherman of repute who was allowed one day each year on this particular beat. It was a brilliant summer's day, and I had been doing little good. He told me that he, invariably, used a "pheasant's tail", fished dry, both for brown and sea-trout. He had taken two peal on dry fly, which he showed me, and I should have been proud to emulate this feat.

Another angler, who was reputed to have killed more *trutta* than most on these waters, said he always fished with one fly, of which he kindly gave me a specimen. It resembled a Logie more than any other type, and I killed a number of fish with it.

Major Kenneth Dawson, a well-known authority on the subject, gives a list of useful universal favourites which will kill anywhere: Mallard and Claret, Teal and Red, Teal and Silver, Zulu, Butcher, Mallard and Yellow, Peter Ross and Blae and Black. He is right when he says, "It pays best to use the flies in which one has the most confidence." Mr. Eyde, another authority, however, pins his faith to one particular fly. Jungle cock wing, silver body, black hackle and a red tail; and he adds, "Substitute a yellow tail, as fly-dressers sometimes do, and I condemn the fly as useless." That, of course, is that!

Others prefer 3 ins. lures (with 3 hooks like the "Terror"), sand eels (fresh and artificial) spoons (1½ inch gold and silver), pearl spoons, and worm on Pennell tackle fished under the bank (when permitted); these are all recommended. A strip, cut from

the belly of a fresh-run sea-trout, gurnet, or mackerel, is also popular, especially in some parts of Scotland. In the Shetlands, a red fly of the Cardinal type is reputed to be a great killer.

* * * *

In the quiet evening hours of relaxation after a heavy day, the mind of the angler may conjure up a picture of his favourite stretch of water.

My favourite bit of country is one of the lesser rivers of the South-West counties. The car purrs down the narrow lanes with their high banks, and is parked behind one of the farm gates. There follows a trek down a side lane which, in wet weather, is intersected with watercourses. A locked gate with barbed wire has to be surmounted. The sloping fields show specks of white, the scuts of startled rabbits as they dash for their burrows. A labourer passes with a curt "good-evening". He lives in the solitary thatched cottage by the river, and is suspected of being a poacher, but has never been caught red-handed.

Some partridges are calling from the meadow above, and a buzzard wheels, mewing in the sky. There is the bass croak of the raven as he makes his way to his rocky heights, and the impertinent, tenor yap of some belated jackdaws.

Two more barbed wire gates to be passed, and then comes the faint rustle of the river as it dances over its rocky bed. The hush of the evening begins to set in, with a whisper of wind through the spruces, oaks and silver birches which lie below the ancient camps on the heights. A wary old cock pheasant crows from his roosting place.

The river is a deep, peaty brown after the recent spate, and there are signs that it has fallen at least a couple of feet. An old red salmon leaps in the pool, but it is too early to commence operations for one could easily observe a fly if cast from the bank. There is time for a pipe under the old oak tree.

The water bailiff passes along the far bank on his formidable walk along the beat. He tells of successes of the day, and wishes a cheery good night, and good luck.

The dusk creeps on. The thrush and the blackbird have concluded their evening chant, but there is still a faint twitter of the birds in the trees, and the croak of the frogs in the marshy borders is beginning. A heron, with leaden wings, neck and wings outstretched, sails rather low over the water.

A few moths are fluttering over the river, and there are two dimples as the brown trout rise. Soon, there is a wedge of water across the pool; then another. Later there is a silvery flash as the sea-trout leaps with a peculiar whirring noise of its tail, as if some wild-fowl were rising.

It is time to get to work. There is the thermos flask in the car, and sandwiches and a bottle of beer handy in the bag. If *trutta* is taking well, it will, probably, be a case of staying all night till the morning half light. Time is no object; the first cast is made and accepted straightaway. The reel sings as the gallant fish makes his rush upstream. It is now quite dark, and all around is the infinite peace of the English countryside.

SHORT STORY

THE HUNTED

BY "BEVIS"

IT WAS RAINING as the train crawled up the Nilgiris. Quite like home, I had been told. And it was, even down to the cold drizzle that is so characteristic of the Highlands in summer. The clouds through which we were passing allowed us to see just a few yards on either side of the track, revealing thick woods: occasionally a sudden gap showed a clear drop down to the plains below. Then the rain and mist closed the white barrier round us again.

Gradually the woods thinned out. Wellington had been passed. Stretches of green turf appeared between the trees. Still the drizzling rain beat down, blowing in the unglassed windows of the carriages. Yet the clouds seemed to have thinned out as Ootacamund station loomed ahead. I could see faintly the houses lining the semi-circle of hills.

I took a taxi to the house where I was going to stay. It lay along a sunken green lake, and the fir trees that surrounded it made it even more difficult to believe that one was in India. The lady in charge must have had to deal with a large number of officers recently, as she showed me round in military terms, calling the dining room the mess, and so on: finally she introduced me to such of the guests as happened to be in at the moment.

"Lieutenant Davies. He's in the Lancers".

"Mechanised, I presume."

"Lieutenant Potson, Artillery. I'm sorry, I've forgotten your name".

"Captain Mallory, usually known as Paddy".

"Whell, and how d'ye do"?

He had tow-coloured hair and an exuberant moustache. His thick-set body and red round face exuded geniality; only his clear, grey eyes seemed somehow out of place. What you might call the buffoon type, I thought: he gets on in the world by letting other people laugh at him.

He took one hand out of his thick grey corduroy trousers and thrust it at me.

"You'll find it as weth as the Shannon here, my bhoy."

With a kind of mental jerk I found myself suddenly back at the small south German town of Deggendorf on the Danube. It was the summer just before the war, and we were drifting down

the swift-flowing river from Ulm to Vienna in fold-boats. We stopped usually at "Jugendherbergen", and at this particular one we had found a party of Austrian medical students. One of them, I remembered, had clowned particularly well, and amused us especially with his imitation in the vernacular of an Irish peasant.

For a moment I hesitated and started to blush, as if caught thinking something that I shouldn't: I glanced sideways; but Captain Mallory evidently hadn't noticed. He was in the middle of giving me full particulars about the amusements here: what the golf was like and the riding and shooting.

I had wondered at the time how he managed to speak Irish so well. Now I came to think of it, he hadn't said whether he was Irish or German: I had just assumed the latter because all his friends were. If it was possibly the same man, he had no moustache then, and had looked much thinner and younger. It seemed fantastic that I could associate someone I'd just met with a medical student that I had once known for a few hours, but every gesture of his seemed to strengthen the impression in my mind.

I suppose I should have mentioned my suspicions straight away and left the matter in other hands. But I was on leave and somehow wanted to test the correctness of my theory myself. I saw a lot of Paddy the next few days: we played golf together and walked together, when the weather allowed, but more often sat indoors and groused together at the rain. All the time I was watching for the slightest clue to justify my suspicions. I argued to myself that a broad Irish brogue was probably the best way of concealing any trace of a German accent: and the last person people would tend to suspect is the cheerful clown who takes nothing seriously.

At last one morning he announced after breakfast: "Faith, and to-morrow I shall be leaving for a few days' shooting."

"Coming back here, Paddy?"

"No, I'll take the bus the way to Mysore."

"Sorry about that." There was general regret.

The next morning I tried my last test. In the midst of the general fluster of his departure I stretched out my hand.

"Good-bye", I said, and bowed slightly and clicked my heels. I believe this is one of the most instinctive actions of a German. I watched his feet: for a moment I thought I had caught him off his guard— his legs jerked and he began a stiff, formal bow. Then suddenly he seemed to regain some control of himself.

"Sure", he said quite illogically, and turned away.

Yet I was still uncertain. Had my imagination magnified his action? At any rate, I had shown my hand.

* * * *

A few days later I set off for the neighbourhood of the Mekund River: fishing was really the object of my leave. The first day I tried the reservoir. I had put on some fairly strong gut and a sizeable lake fly in the hope of catching some of the large rainbow trout that are said to abound there: but my success was meagre. The rain began to come through my raincoat: I tried to shelter behind a rock, but without much avail. With rainfall like this, I decided, it was only natural that Ooty downs should be such a brilliant green. The solitude seemed almost uncanny: only a few native cattle showed up as grey spots half way up the side of the hill, and a jackal stood silhouetted on the crest of a ridge.

The light was failing early when I decided to try my luck for the last time, casting long with the wind behind me. The third cast I hooked something, but the steady pull immediately told me it wasn't a fish. I struck right and left to try and free the hook; it seemed to have caught fairly fast, but I found I could reel in slowly. It felt as though I had caught a waterlogged piece of timber: I could feel it bumping over the rocky bed as I reeled in. In the grey light I saw a dark shape in the shallows, with a white splodge at one end.

With a sudden shock I realized what I had caught. I jerked frantically at the line, and as it swished free, I turned and stumbled off. The fly still swung on the end of the gut, and caught in it was a piece of watersoaked grey corduroy.

BACKGROUND NEWS AND VIEWS

How Long Will the War Last?

"President Roosevelt has said that 'we are going to have a couple of years, perhaps three years, before we can make sure that our type of civilization is going to survive.' As this time-table is interpreted by Washington, the most reasonable estimate is as follows:

"*In 1942*: Try to halt Hitler. Here the vital point is to bring all possible aid to Russia, while carrying out all practicable diversions, and keeping the Middle East as well defended as possible. If Hitler is stopped throughout this year, it is generally concluded that his jig is up. If he gets to oil and other resources in 1942, the prospect is for a very long war.

"*In 1943*: Finish the job on Hitler, if he has been stopped in 1942. It is felt that the Nazi decline in power might come rather swiftly, after another winter—or even sooner, provided Hitler does not get to or flank the Caucasus. Meantime, 1943 should see the war of attrition against Japan intensify, pushing back over ground that has now been lost.

"*In 1944*: Bring the war to a climax against both Germany and Japan, trying hard for a decisive knock-out. If Hitler is held in 1942, it is felt that, though the overthrow of Japan may be even more difficult than the defeat of Germany, it is no less certain."—*The Round Table.*

Post-War Germany

"Advocates of federalism seem to agree that Germany is to be disarmed. But when the central administrative body of the federation is established, shall Germany be represented on it or not? If not, that is to say, if Germany remains outside, the federation will not be a federation at all, but an anti-German alliance. If Germany is to be inside, and therefore to be represented on the central body, she will demand equality of status with the other Powers and either secure it or leave the federation. If she leaves, the federation will become an anti-German alliance from which Germany will try to detach as many Powers as she can by threats or bribes or through the emergence of common interests. The Third World War will be the outcome. If Germany secures equality of status with the other Powers in the federation, she will have, or will insist on having, equality

with respect to national armaments. If her demand is not fulfilled, she will leave the federation. If it is fulfilled, she will again be the greatest military Power in Europe, not only potentially, but in fact. And she will become master of all Europe, through the instrumentality of the federation—that is to say, by working from inside. Or, if not, she will leave it, and make herself master of Europe by working from outside, unless the other Powers combine against her in anticipation of the Third World War—that is to say, unless they revert to the military alliance of the Second World War. This is not new. It happened after the last war. Germany was kept outside the League of Nations, then she was admitted, then she claimed equality and secured it, then, with irrefutable logic, she claimed equality with regard to armaments and secured it 'in principle,' then she translated the principle into practice, and then, finding the League unsuited to her purpose, namely, domination, she left it and is now attempting to achieve that domination by other means."—*The Nineteenth Century.*

Complex Modern Warfare

"It has been said of French generals that they were generally well prepared at the beginning of each new war to fight the one that had gone before—if not the war preceding that. That copyright does not belong to them exclusively. Even German generals have difficulty in learning fast. Not only is there something inherently conservative in the military mind, but strategy and tactics are so fluid that useful military textbooks go out of date faster than millinery. All that can be stated with certainty is that modern warfare is complex in its smallest detail. Purely military problems, as distinguished from the economics and politics of war, have arisen in ever-increasing number to tax the imagination of those in command. As a result there has been a steady drift away from formal rules. While there has been a tendency, notably in Germany, to centralise power in one commander, responsible to the head of the State, this has been accompanied by the delegation of increasing authority to lower-ranking, even N.C.O.'s in the field. Indeed, it is generally agreed that only by giving small units 'their head', allowing them to exercise their own judgment, can the powerful calculus of modern tactics be brought to function. Absolutism as a part of tactics is on the decline. It survives in anachronistic glory on the parade ground. There it persists as a tribute to the misty heroics of the past. That is not to say that heel-clicking and zombie obedience have vanished. The desire to turn each

soldier into a robot still befuddles many military men. But once the fighting begins and staffs are routed from their cosy corners staff officers have sense enough to realize that precision tactics and blind obedience of the Gallant Six Hundred variety fill cemeteries and win few battles, while soldiers who can make up their minds on the spot, who can even change their minds without permission, may live to fight and perhaps win another day".—*From "Men and Tools of War," by James R. Newman, published by Doubleday, Doran & Co., New York.*

Doped German Parachutists

"The dope the Germans use for parachutists neutralises their fear and gives them a feeling of exhilaration. But 60 seconds after you kill one of these men his face changes colour to a duck-egg green. The dope is responsible. Ten thousand German parachutists dropped on Crete: we collected the identity cards of between 8,000 and 9,000 casualties. It was not the parachutists, however, who took Crete but the air-borne troops who followed. They showed sheer disregard of losses. We could not kill them fast enough before we were overwhelmed. On one aerodrome alone I counted one morning 250 crashed Ju. 52's, and there were 40 or 50 nearby. The whole thing was utterly fantastic".—*Lieutenant G. W. Turner-Lashmar, R.A., lecturing to the Forces in England.*

Stream-Crossing Methods

"All fighting units need to know a number of stream-crossing expedients. In its early phase training should be conducted at a quiet pond or lake or at a stream with a slow current . . . . A quarter-ton truck with normal load (including men) can be launched, floated across a stream, and beached, if both banks slope gently. Four men can do the job, using any of the following methods: First wet the bank at the site of the launching in order to make it easy to slide the truck into the stream. Then spread the canvas cover of a 2½-ton truck on the bank at the water's edge and drive the quarter-ton truck on to the centre of the canvas. Raise the edges of the canvas at the front and rear of the truck and fasten the short tie ropes to convenient points on the truck. Next, raise the edges of the canvas at the sides of the truck, tighten the drawropes about the sides, and tie them, being careful that the canvas is not folded sharply at the ends (like a clerk does in wrapping a shoe-box) because the canvas may leak at the creases. There are several ways of getting the vehicle across. If the stream is not too deep the men

can push it across by wading; it can be poled across by three or four men sitting in the vehicle, using saplings, or paddled across by three or four men sitting in the vehicles using shovels as paddles. It can be towed across by using a light towing line (such as a field telephone wire) which is first stretched across by a swimmer; towed across by running the cable of a truck-winch on the near side of the stream through a snatch-block attached to a tree on the far side, thence back to the floating vehicle, or pulled across (hand over hand) by men on the vehicle; or along a rope or cable stretched across the stream and anchored at both ends."—*From an article in the American "Infantry Journal," by Colonel Sterling A. Wood and Colonel Roy N. Hagerty.*

Signal Wire Throwers

"United States Army Signal Corps engineers have developed a wire thrower by which wire can be thrown from a moving vehicle to distances up to 125 feet away and at vehicle speeds up to 35 miles m.p.h. An operator has control of the distance and slack by varying the speed of the thrower. By using the new wire thrower, wire can be laid at greater speeds and placed farther off the road, thus requiring a minimum of servicing."—*"The Journal of the Franklin Institute," U.S.A.*

The School of Hate

"The Commander-in-Chief, Sir Bernard Paget, has done well in banning the use of strong language and other similar methods of instilling blood-lust or hate in the course of battle training. It is not surprising, perhaps, that a revolution against the extremes of pacifism should lead impatient, undisciplined minds to the other extremes of stupid brutality, but every good soldier knows that the brute is as dangerous as the coward, and is, indeed, most likely also to prove one, making up in violence of language and gesture what he lacks in simple courage. Experience has shown that the best soldiers are of finer quality and are revolted by foul language and 'blood-baths'. Natural love of adventure and high-spirit equip young men for the most hazardous enterprises, and older men actuated by patriotism and a sense of duty will, when the moment comes, face the enemy with the utmost staunchness and combative spirit. What both need is a most exact and thorough training in the use of their arms and a detailed knowledge of possible conditions in which they may be placed. The combative spirit is awakened, and should only be awakened, in action. Until then attention should be concentrated on invigorating and hardening the body, train-

ing in arms, the developing of initiative and the instilling of confidence in the leadership. When it comes to a fight nature can then be relied upon to do the rest. It is only when natural vitality has been sapped that recourse is had to such repugnant practices as oaths and blood-baths. These are, indeed, a sign of decadence."—*The Spectator.*

America's Colossal 'Plane Output

"Strangely little notice has been taken of the figures issued concerning Ford aircraft production. The gist of it was that Ford's will employ about 90,000 workers; production will be 24 four-motor bombers per day—one an hour. There is to be a five-and-a-half-day week; this gives 132 aircraft per week. . . . As a sign of America's expanding air interests, we might assess this huge Ford plant as one-tenth of the total U.S.A. potential. On this basis America can hope to put in the field in measurable time some 60,000 large warplanes of formidable attack power. Turn back the clock a moment and review some of the statements of America's production. Carefully shifting the military corn from the civil chaff, the following summarises what the world thought of the true figures: In 1938, not more than 50 modern fighting and bombing aeroplanes per month; in 1939, not more than 300 per month, but increasing to the end of the year. In the following year, as the new factories swung into production mainly on the strength of British money which financed them in the shape of hitherto unheard of contracts, production crossed the 500 mark and neared 1,000 a month. The succeeding year saw a spurt until, at its close, figures in excess of 2,000 a month were being hushed around 'informed' quarters by people who had singularly little claim, if any, to accurate knowledge. To-day the best bazaars believe American production has topped 3,000 and may have exceeded 3,500 per month. For the sake of argument, presume the war over and the need for active aerial combat terminated by December, 1943. At that time America can be expected to have a formidable aircraft industry producing at least 4,000 aircraft a month, and an aggregate of around 100,000 first-class fighting and bombing aeroplanes, many of which will possess maximum ranges of 10,000 miles."—*"Fougueux", writing in The Aeroplane.*

Effect of 1,000 'Plane Raids

"Abetz, the German Ambassador in Paris, has revealed facts about the appalling devastation caused in Cologne by the 1,000 'plane R.A.F. raid. It eclipsed all previous records, he

said. According to information in possession of the Government, the number of deaths amounted to between 11,000 and 15,000 and the number of injured more than twice as many. Nearly all the premises of the great banks, business houses, insurance companies, and administrative concerns and several of the large industrial plants were totally destroyed; railway repair shops were wiped out and shunting yards made unusable. One reason why the number of persons evacuated from Cologne was so high (250,000 were sent away out of a total population of 760,000) was the unrest among the population at the inadequacy of the protection against air raids, as many anti-aircraft units had been sent to Russia only a few days before the raid. The R.A.F. bombs were so powerful that even reinforced concrete air raid shelters 25 ft. to 30 ft. below ground level had been pulverized, and hundreds of persons trapped".—*A Special correspondent of the London "Times."*

REVIEW

CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE, VOLUME II

HERE IS AN excellent and well-indexed reference book for anyone who thinks about or is interested in Britain's present and post-war problems. It traces the growth of our Empire from the Treaty of Versailles of 1783, when Britain showed her ability to recover from a serious defeat, down to 1870. This was the period of our greatest Colonial expansion, and the pages of this book are full of lessons which we might well re-learn and take to heart.

To-day many people declare that the attitude of not a few Englishmen towards the Empire alternates between flag-wagging patriotism and complete lack of interest. There are few who realise its vital importance to our world supremacy and high standard of living. Some think of it as an expensive hobby from which the capitalist draws a large income, and others as an organization which will cause us to be drawn into disputes with our less fortunate neighbours in Europe, but the vast majority of Englishmen are content to sit back and look with pride at a map of the world one quarter of which is coloured red.

To bring home to Englishmen the importance of the Empire it is essential that every one should have an understanding of its background and growth. Trade and the need for new markets sent British seamen to every corner of the world, and in this book it is clearly shown that the British Empire grew up not as a result of an imperialistic urge or political factors, but through the initiative of individuals who were determined that British trade should have its place in the sun of every latitude, and who compelled the government of their day to protect their interests wherever they had been established.

Statesmen down the ages were afraid that this initiative would draw us into disputes with our neighbours. Spain, Portugal, France and Holland were all at one time or another our rivals in different parts of the world, and the wars of Europe invariably led to fighting with them in America, Africa and India. The struggle to keep open our markets, for it was in terms of markets that the Empire was regarded, and to maintain them free from European rivals was long and hard.

The two theories which this book advances, and is bound to advance by the very fact of its tracing the growth of the British Empire, are its economic basis and the necessity of Imperial solidarity. Britain needs the support of the Empire, and the Empire the support of Britain if we are to maintain British world supremacy.

A. G. T.

RECENT ADDITIONS TO THE LIBRARY

"Battle for the World", by Max Werner.—The strategy and diplomacy of the second World War is dealt with at length. The book is well indexed.

"The Last Enemy", by Richard Hillary.—A vivid narrative of war service in the R.A.F. by a writer who, at the outbreak of war, was still up at Oxford.

"The Chinese Army", by Evans Fordyce Carlson.—A well-documented volume containing much information about an Army which has astonished the world.

"The Teak Box", by C. C. R. Murphy.— A collection of short stories by a well-known author, who in the past has contributed a number of articles to this journal.

"Etajima", by Cecil Bullock.—An Englishman's account of life at the Imperial Japanese Naval College during the three years he spent there teaching the cadets English.

"Soviet Economy and the War", by Maurice Dobb.—A treatise on Russia which gives some interesting facts on Soviet industrial plans, collective farms, and Trade Unions.

"Life on the Land", by Fred Kitchen.—Written by an agricultural worker, the author has succeeded in bringing into the book a breath of real country air. The woodcut illustrations are excellently done.

"Tanks" (illustrated), by Professor A. M. Low.—This book contains a general account of tanks, written for the man-in-the-street. The author avoids technical descriptions of these "Martian Monsters" and has condensed a mass of historical and scientific facts into the book.

"Arise to Conquer".—Wing-Commander Gleed has written an exciting account of his experiences with the R.A.F. in France and in the Battle of Britain. His stories of his fellow-pilots, their high spirits, love of ragging, their superstitions, and their courage make the book of real interest.

"The Royal Navy at War".—Profusely illustrated and written by Vice-Admiral J. E. T. Harper, this work is a panorama

in book form of the Royal Navy's varied and ever-changing task of defending Britain's shores and ensuring supplies to the Home Country.

"Khaki and Gown".—This autobiography by Field-Marshal Lord Birdwood is of especial interest to all who serve in the Indian Army. Well indexed, and most interestingly written, it is, as Mr. Winston Churchill says in his Foreword, "the story of an officer who carried a Field-Marshal's baton in his knapsack".

Oxford Pamphlets.—Five further pamphlets on world affairs are now available in the Library. They are entitled: "Greece", by Lieutenant-Colonel Stanley Casson; "Great Britain and China", by Sir John Pratt; "Who Mussolini Is", by Ivor Thomas; "War at Sea To-day", by Admiral Sir Herbert Richmond; and "German Geopolitics", by H. W. Weigert.

"Grand Strategy", by H. A. Sargeaunt and Geoffrey West.—The authors set out to show that wars are not won in the field alone, nor in the sea, nor in the air. "Behind military strategy lies the strategy of politics. Differing methods of warfare are not developed fortuitously; they are the organic outcome of social changes. Only by the successful co-ordination of military policy with the whole social structure can wars be won".

"The German New Order in Poland".—This 570-page book, published by the Polish Ministry of Information, is the second Black Book of Poland. It describes events which have no precedent in history. Massacres, tortures, persecutions, compulsory transfers of vast populations, mass utilization of human beings for war purposes, and wanton brutality are graphically described. The book shows the systematic way in which the Hun is endeavouring to wipe out both the spiritual culture and the leaders of a whole nation.

"Pattern of Conquest", by Joseph C. Harsch.—The author, former Berlin correspondent of the *Christian Science Monitor*, presents a vivid picture of Germany at war. He shows how the country functioned during the first two years of the conflict, the type of military machine Hitler has evolved, and what its elements of strength and weakness are. Mr. Harsch left Germany in 1942 "with a complete conviction that not only can Germany be beaten but

that it could collapse and the whole Nazi structure disintegrate with a speed and completeness which would equal that of the French collapse in 1940".

"Hitler's Reich and Churchill's Britain".—This recorded account of a conversation between two well-known American *Time* journalists, Stephen Laird and Walter Graebner, makes intensely interesting reading. Stephen Laird was in Germany until June, 1941, while his colleague has been in London for three years. To English readers the impressions of the former on war-time Germany will come, in many cases, as a surprise. He reveals much of the everyday life of the German, says that the German people are immensely afraid of losing the war and "believe that if they do lose every Dutchman, Pole, Frenchman, Czech will be after them with a pitchfork or whatever is handy."

"The Art of War", by Arthur Birnie, with maps and battle plans by J. F. Horrabin.—The theme of the book is that in spite of constantly changing conditions there are certain fundamental principles that have revealed themselves in the history of warfare. Neglect of these spells disaster, and by way of proof Mr. Birnie takes the reader through a history of warfare from the days of the Persian attack on Greece to present-day Nazi aggression. Although maintaining that there are these fundamental laws of warfare, the author explains how constant revision in field tactics has been made necessary by successive changes in offensive and defensive weapons.

"Military Operations in East Africa", Volume 1.—This official history of the East African Campaign in the Great War will be of particular interest to many of our readers in view of the gallant work done by the Indian Expeditionary Force which fought and helped to conquer what is now Tanganyika Territory. Indian troops sailed from Bombay on August 19, 1914, and reached Mombasa on September 1, while a further contingent arrived two months later, and took part in the ill-fated attempt to capture Tanga a few days afterwards. The tragic happenings on that occasion are told in detail, and are accompanied by a description of the operations from the German side. The volume, which runs to 600 pages, has a fine index, and the 76 sketch maps are especially helpful.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

MARCHING RECORDS OF THE INDIAN ARMY

To The Editor, U. S. I. "Journal."

SIR,

It would be interesting to know what marching records are being put up by the Indian Army in this war.

My own Battalion marched approximately 1,200 miles during the Burma campaign. We started from Moulmein on January 31 and finally came to rest at Palel on May 25. During the first month of these four months, we had quite heavy fighting. Our record march was from just south of Tharawaddy to Okhpu, a distance of 43 miles, which we did in 16 hours, including a two-hour halt *en route* for food. For the greater part of this march tanks and M.T. were driving through us, with their legacy of dust, fumes and noise, to say nothing of the chagrin of having to see others travel in comfort while we slogged along on foot. For several miles we had to march through a burning teak forest. Not a single man fell out.

Between April 11 and May 25 we marched approximately 700 miles with the rest of the 2nd Brigade. This was mostly over bullock-cart tracks, and was done entirely by night and without a single day's rest. We never knew but when we might be attacked. For the greater part we lived off the country, but this "living" was at times extremely meagre. Chickens were a coveted luxury; atta, eggs and vegetables were practically unknown. It was a typical gypsy life, but should prove an invaluable experience, as before we have the Jap beat, I opine most of us will have to condition ourselves to that life. There was little sickness; our main trouble was feet, as boots completely gave out and there were no replacements. The reaction came with India, when we had to hang about near Imphal with nothing much to do, living under shelters improvised in the jungle with the monsoon on us. The sick were then evacuated daily.

There was frequent controversy as to the best timings for this continual night marching. Our day-time could not be given solely over to rest. There was patrolling, digging, foraging, etc., to be done and the rest problem became acute. Personally, I favoured marching from 1800 to 2200 hours, sleep by the wayside

until 0400 hours, and then on until 0800 hours. This gave us some hours of darkness for sleeping, split up a dreary night march, and was safe from enemy air action. Others favoured mid-night to 0800 hours.

Proud as we were of our marching powers, we had to give way before those of the 12th Mountain Battery. They marched every inch of the way from Moulmein to Imphal. When I last saw their Commander, Major Hume, they were just short of the frontier, and had then done over 1,800 miles in under four months. Goodness knows how many more miles they piled on before they really halted. Often they were left marching along with no other troops between themselves and the enemy, and yet they were magnificently cheerful, with a brew of tea always at hand. Theirs must be a unique record, especially as they added to it the honour of bringing their guns out of Burma.

Yours faithfully,

A. V. PERRY,

Major,

Att. 8th (F.F.) Bn., Burma Rifles.

[*Letters to the Editor on subjects of military topical interest for publication in the Journal are welcome.*]

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