

The War in Maps



**THE
WAR
IN MAPS**

1939/40

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Geography and the War

Politics and policies are largely dictated by geography. It is impossible to understand the moves of the great powers in peace and in war without a study of the map. The configuration of the earth, the waters that connect, the mountain ranges that bar, play an important part in shaping the destiny of nations. They determine to a large extent the migrations of peoples, the flux and flow of commerce, the interrelations of states. These facts are obvious, but they are often neglected, not only by laymen but also by statesmen foregathering at conference tables. The recognition of their importance has brought a new science into being, which is called "Geopolitics."

The present volume illustrates the course of the war from September 1939 to 1940 in multicolored maps, prepared by expert geopoliticians. The editor, Dr. Giselher Wirsing, is one of Germany's most eminent authorities on international affairs. He is the author of valuable books on economy and current history and is Editor-in-Chief of the *Münchner Neueste Nachrichten*.

The accompanying text interprets both the causes and the strategy of the present conflict. Together the text and the maps solve many problems difficult to under-

stand from official communiques and newspaper dispatches. Certain formerly incomprehensible phases of the war are suddenly revealed as simple problems in geopolitics.

In studying the maps and the texts presented in the following pages, the reader must remember the time-limit set. They are confined solely to a period ending in 1940 and cannot, therefore, take subsequent developments into consideration. Within its chronological limitations *The War in Maps, 1939/40* is an invaluable adjunct to any study of the War; in fact it is almost impossible to assay correctly the motives leading to the conflict and the ensuing events, without a study of this brilliant monograph, edited by Dr. Wirsing in collaboration with Albrecht Haushofer, Wolfgang Höpker, Horst Michael and Ulrich Link.

The editor calls his book an *Atlas of Victory*, because it portrays the practical expulsion of Great Britain from the European Continent, where she is an unwanted intruder (*raumfremd*). This book is to be followed eventually by an *Atlas of Peace*, portraying the battles now raging in the Atlantic and in the Mediterranean and the hope for final emergence of a New Order in Europe.

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Dr. Matthias Schmitz

Introduction

THIS atlas originated in the days when, first in Holland and then in Belgium and France, the German armies were winning victory upon victory. Originally conceived as an *Atlas of War*, the momentous events of that period transformed it into an *Atlas of Victory*. The birth of the New Europe, and the far-reaching changes that are bound to take place, not merely on the Continent but beyond its boundaries, are an inevitable result of the new ideas and the shifts in power that have determined this war from both a military and a political point of view. It is the purpose of this work to record these conditions comprehensively. As soon as the victory is finally won this atlas will be followed by a second, the *Atlas of Peace*, which will also depict the events of the past history from which present conditions have logically developed.

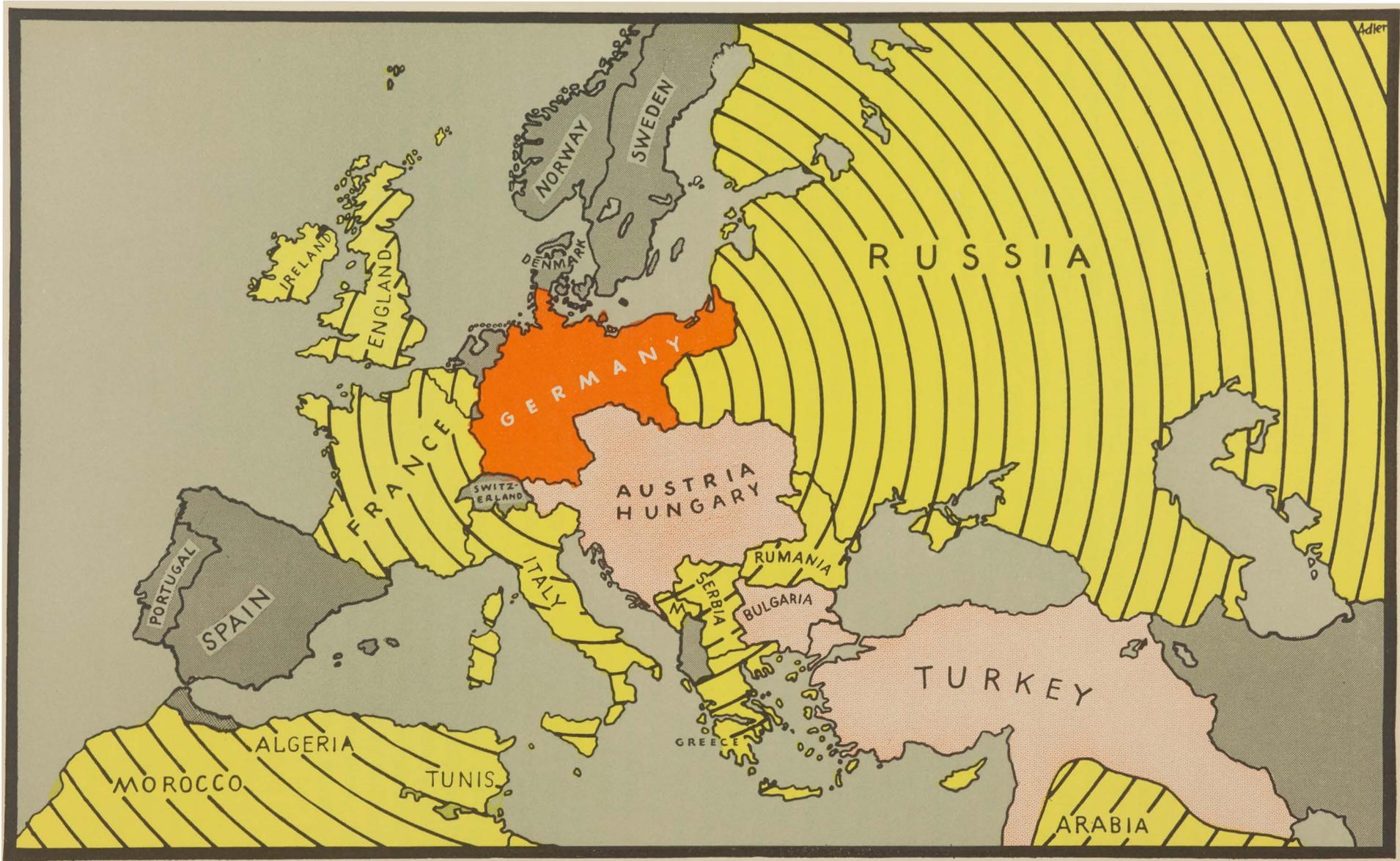
In the present volume our main purpose has been to show once more, and comprehensively, why a German victory was inevitable from the beginning, and how the Führer created the political bases upon which each of the great military undertakings was completed with well-nigh mathematical precision.

The first maps make perfectly clear the sharp contrast between the conditions under which Germany entered the World War and those of 1939. They emphasize the abortive attempt at encirclement, and the hopeless endeavors to maintain or rebuild outmoded alliances, that plagued Europe up to the summer of 1939. The one and all-important thing that decided the outcome of the World War was the stark fact that Germany had to fight, first on two fronts and then on three. The Germany of 1940, had it been forced to carry on such a war, would have been in far better position to withstand such a multilateral attack. That this did not have to happen,

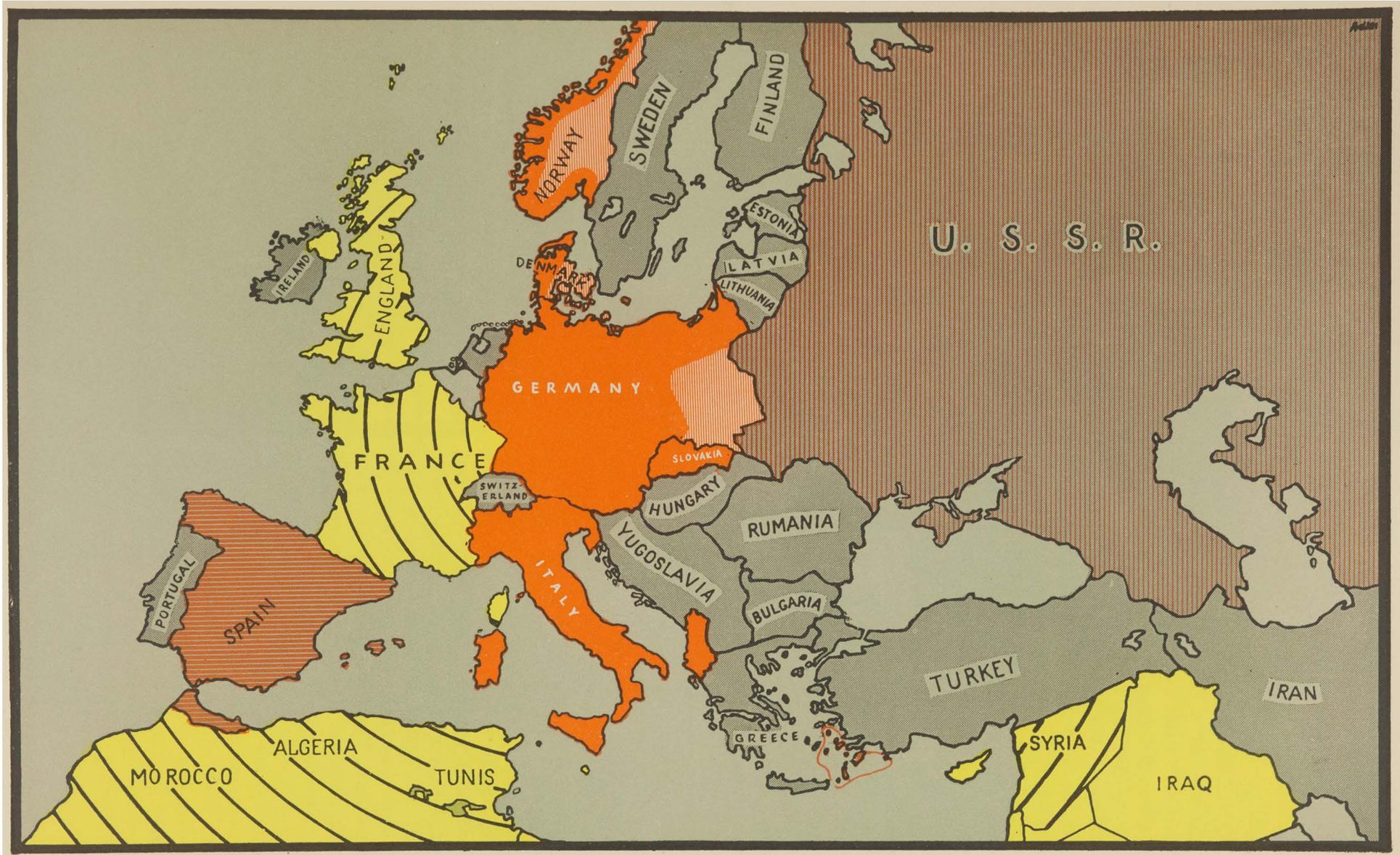
that Germany on the contrary, after the Polish campaign that lasted only eighteen days (pp. 22-23), could hurl the entire bulk of her military strength against France and England, was the result of a foreign policy full of enterprise and inspiration, the cornerstones of which were the military and ideological alliance with Italy, the friendly relations with Spain, and, in the Far East, with Japan, as well as the Russo-German understanding of August, 1939 (pp. 4-11).

At the start England intended to carry on this war as a *Sitzkrieg*. Immediately after the outbreak of the war, Chamberlain announced that it would last at least three years. In other words, England wanted to win the war by a blockade, and all that was planned for 1940 was the creation of secondary theatres of war, in the Near East and in Scandinavia. The dismal failure of the blockade stands out in vivid contrast to the predicament created in the World War (p. 4). Then there were only three or four countries that could be considered as routes through which foreign goods could be imported into Germany, whereas in this war the British blockade has been from the very start piecemeal and incomplete (pp. 5-7). By the spring of 1940, England herself had become aware of this. The immediate result was her threat against, first Norway, then Holland and Belgium, a threat destined incidentally to provide the opening notes to the ensuing song of German victory (pp. 14-15). From month to month, not Germany's, but England's dependence on imports became a more crucial factor. London, the main harbor of the British Isle, has been almost entirely blockaded since the end of May, 1940.

While England's blockade against Germany collapsed, Germany's blockade against England became a weapon of ever



1914: Central Powers Encircled by Entente



1940: No Manacles This Time

The Encirclement has Failed

ENCIRCLEMENT is the old, reliable tool of the West in its efforts to keep Central Europe in a state of political impotence. If Germany cannot again be completely disintegrated, as she was by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, it was planned to keep her firmly caught in the pincers of a system of pacts and alliances made by France and England with the states of East and Southeast Europe. If she could not be crushed, she must be hemmed in on all sides.

In 1904, the Entente between England and France forged the first links. In 1907, Czarist Russia joined the alliance, and the chain was complete. In 1914, the mechanism was set in motion to do the job for which it was built. At the end of the World War, Germany was defeated, powerless. Prostrate, amputated, she was yet not moribund. Hence the same old game was begun once more.

Policemen and watchdogs were stationed on Germany's eastern and southeastern flanks; in various forms and devious ways the system was developed that is clearly pictured in the map below. But when, in 1933, the National Socialists came into power, this cunningly devised net speedily showed its weak meshes. The Reich had again become a European factor, a Power which had so much to offer that the states of Eastern and Southeastern Europe could no longer deny its attraction. The West saw itself forced to cast about for new partners or new arrangements.

For a while it looked as though the attempt would succeed. In 1935, Paris was able to announce the completion of a military pact with Soviet Russia, a union at the disposal of which Eduard Beneš gladly placed Czechoslovakia, which was to serve at once as a convenient go-between and a buttressing pillar. There was wide re-

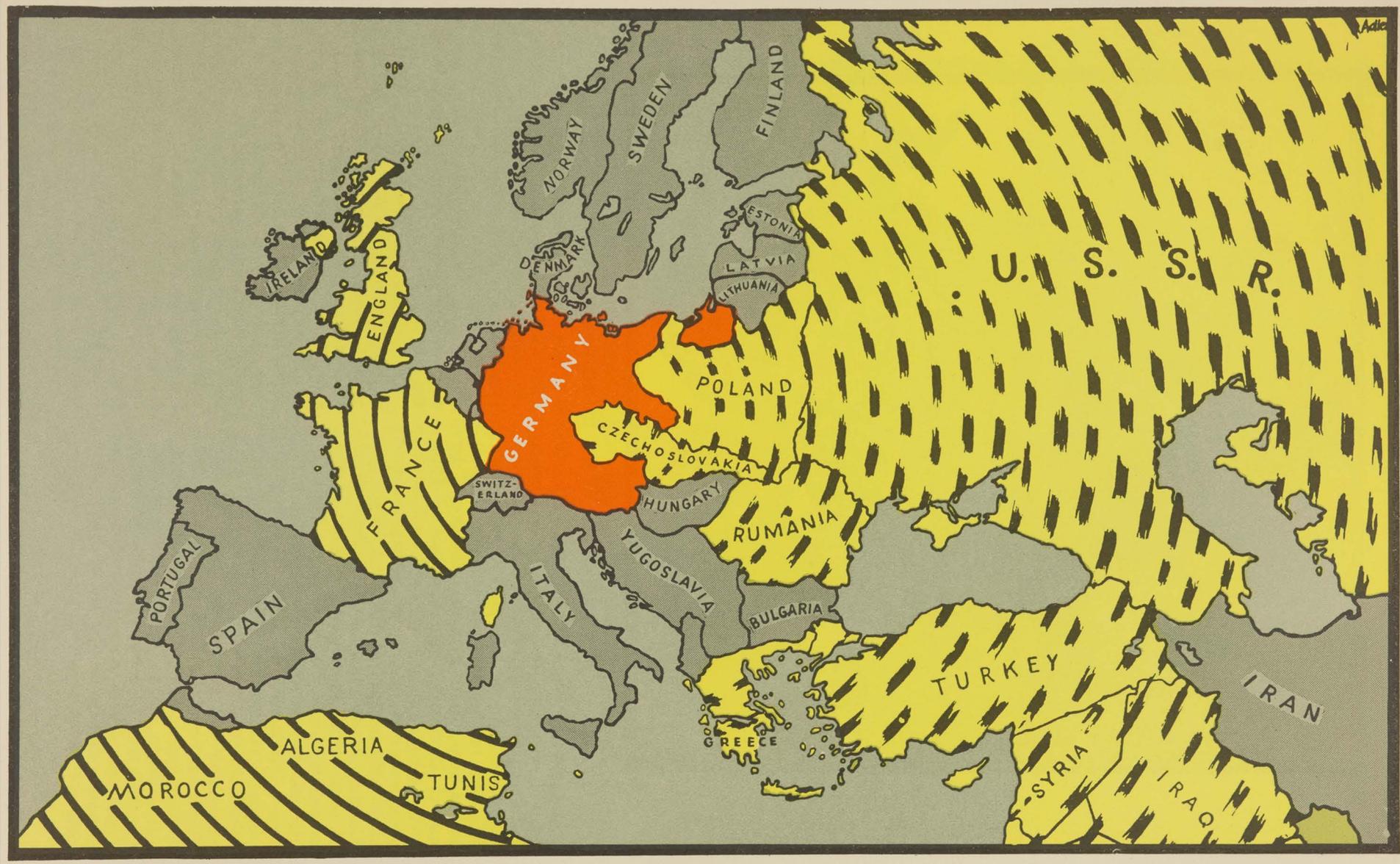
joicing. Another triumph was to be recorded, for the encirclement policies of Versailles were now tied in with those of 1914. The barbed wire entanglements on Germany's eastern flank were now doubly strong.

The road was clear, a second war of encirclement against Germany was in the making. The preparations were feverish; great hopes were pinned to the Polish question; properly managed, it would lead to war. Poland was a trusted partner; Rumania and Greece were given "guarantees"; and as for Turkey, who would doubt her readiness to fight?

London now proceeded to take the final step, to add the last link in the chain, the Soviet Union. The successive phases in the surprising turn of affairs that ensued are known. On August 23, 1939, the Russo-German Non-Aggression Pact was signed in Moscow. This was followed on September 28, by a Russo-German Friendship and Boundary Agreement. All southeastern countries but Turkey hastened to announce their neutrality. The ring was broken; one jaw of the pincers was gone; the waves that were supposed to roll in from the East against Germany subsided, dissolved, disappeared.



France's System of Pacts Until 1935





The World War Blockade Worked

DURING the World War, England's blockade succeeded in reducing the German Reich to domestic starvation and economic impotence; for the Germany of 1914 was largely dependent for her very existence upon importations from foreign countries. She needed, by way of illustration, huge quantities of foodstuffs for both man and beast, and wool, cotton, hides, leather, nickel, copper, rubber, raw materials without which a modern economy is unthinkable. From 1914 to 1918, England barred all such commodities from Germany in unscrupulous fashion, and in flat contradiction of international agreements. For according to the London Declaration of 1909, the sole goods subject to confiscation in naval warfare were articles of "absolute contraband," namely, arms, ammunition and general implements of war. "Conditional contraband," such as food and feed, clothing, fuel, rubber, ore, if shipped to an enemy port, could be seized only if it was certain that the goods would be used by the enemy forces. If on their way to a neutral country, even if ultimately destined to the enemy, such goods could not be seized at all.

Despite this, England soon brought neutral ships destined for neutral ports, and carrying only foodstuffs, into her own ports, and later threatened with confiscation ships sailing under a neutral flag and carrying only "conditional contraband" on the threadbare pretext that the cargoes might somehow reach military forces of the enemy.

The political encirclement of the Reich was so complete during the World War that the only neutrals among her immediate neighbors were four small countries: Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, Sweden. These four countries, of some aid as sources and routes of transshipment, are shown in *black* on the map. The amount of imports shipped by way of these countries grew smaller from month to month, for the neutrals were badgered more and more into submission to British regulations. And Germany's ally, Austria-Hungary, itself blockaded, did not have sufficient surplus to make up for this ever increasing deficit. Thus England left the field in 1918 the victor, not because of the superiority of her military forces but through the effectiveness of her illegal economic blockade.



The Blockade of Greater Germany is Futile

THE World War experience has been a lesson from which National Socialist Germany drew the proper conclusion while there was yet time. The accompanying map shows how goods from all over Europe are now available to Germany. The supplier countries are shown in *black*. Politically, the fetters of encirclement were broken; economically, the principles of self-sufficiency, and of exchanges on a basis of mutuality, replaced the British principle of free trade.

From 1933 on, Germany saw beyond a shadow of doubt that free trade such as England had proclaimed was the surest guarantee of England's influence on the Continent; for if all countries neglected their individual abilities to create, and bought wherever prices were lowest, London's role as a middleman and banker would gradually make her position impregnable. Germany, realizing the dangers of such a development, bent every energy to increase her own production of food and raw materials, and to promote exchanges with her neighbors. The success was extraordinary.

Taking a broad average through recent years,

Germany's own soil has come happily close to producing all essential food requirements. Under the Four-Year Plan, the industries, by the substitution of one material for another, and by the creation of new products, ended Germany's dependence on imports of many materials and reduced it in respect to others, such as iron, light metals, textile fibers, motor fuels, oil, rubber, and so forth. Furthermore, Germany's ability to offer her trade partners a steady market for their leading exports, usually at much better than world market prices, proved an invaluable asset to her friends as well as herself.

When the Western Powers, again relying on the blockade, declared war on Germany, September 3, 1939, the situation was fundamentally different from what it had been in 1914. Only a single neighbor state, France, was at war with Germany. Across all other borders, particularly those in the East and Southeast, the flow of goods continued as in peace time. Events have shown that, contrary to all of England's expectations, Greater Germany is immune to blockade.

The Blockaded Blockader

NOT so long ago Britain arrogantly boasted that Germany was cut off from the raw materials of the world through a blockade that closed the gates at a distance, and was as bloodless as it was inglorious. The map on page 9 of this atlas shows the amount of truth that attaches to this fairy tale. The map on the opposite page shows how the tables have been turned against England. The width of the shafts is in proportion to the amount of imports. The total value of imports of Great Britain in the year before she began to stock up for the war, 1937, was £1,130,000,000 sterling.

Of this gigantic sum, 9 per cent went for grain and flour, 9.2 per cent for cattle and meat, 7.3 per cent for dairy products, 5 per cent for fruits and other foods and feeds, and 3 per cent for vegetable fats. In other words, one-third of the amount was spent on the food requirements of the 46,000,000 people of the British Isle.

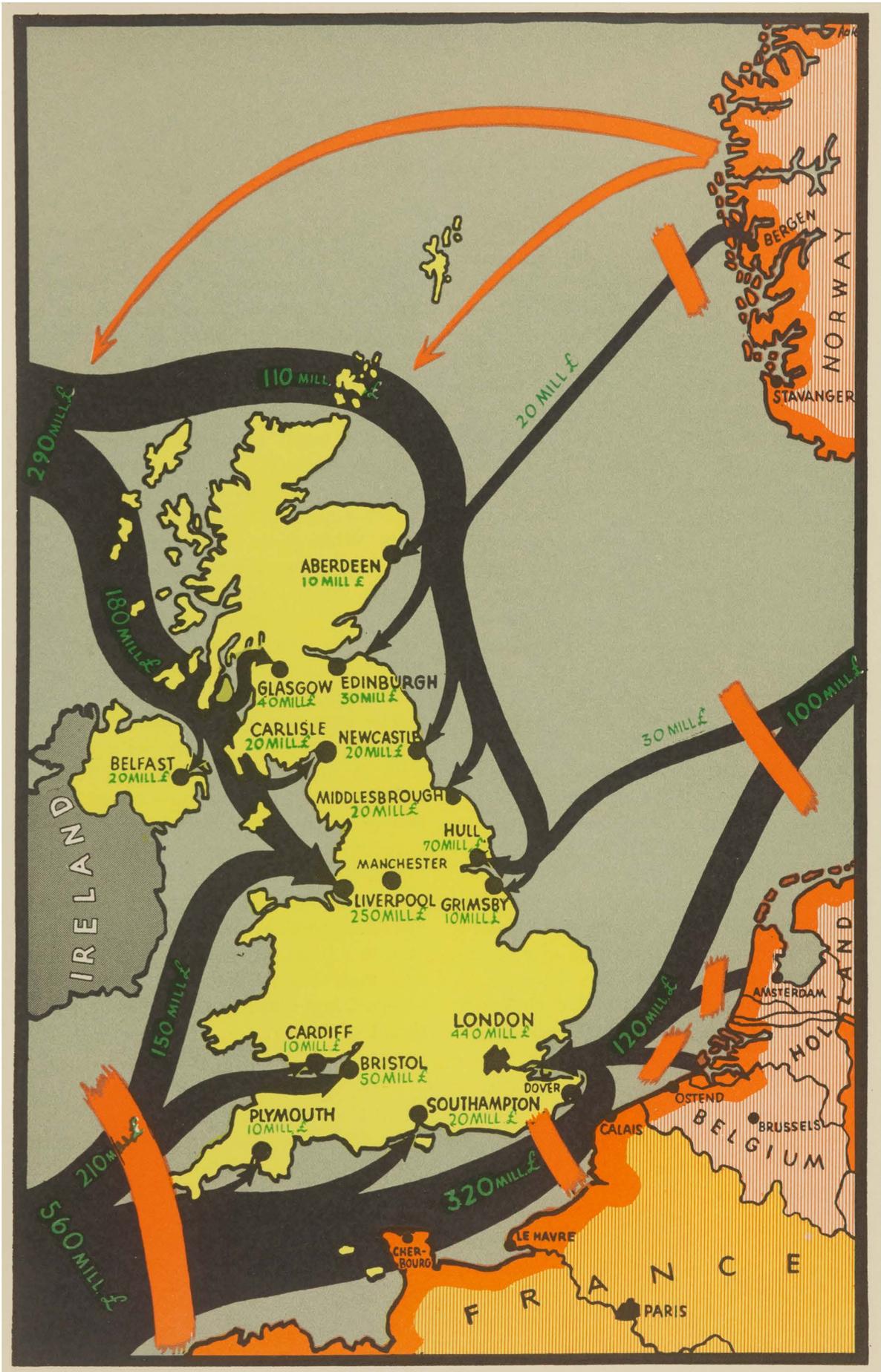
The full significance of these figures becomes apparent when they are compared to the total amount of foodstuffs consumed on the island. England imports 80 per cent of her grain from overseas, 70 per cent of her meats and fats, and 70 per cent of her feed. In the case of other raw materials, her ability to supply her own needs is even less favorable, except in the case of coal, of which England has enough (though she lacks wood for props), and iron ores, 50 per cent of which are mined in the country. But almost the entire needs of wood, rubber, oil, and textile materials, except wool, have to be brought in across the sea.

Any serious disturbance of this overseas trade must result only in catastrophe for the homeland. How great a disturbance had been created even before the beginning of the actual attack on the island is revealed on the adjoining map. Imported

goods cannot be unloaded at any port at will; they must reach those harbors which are equipped for the handling of bulk. Over 60 per cent of all British imports are normally consigned to the harbors on the east and south coasts, fully 40 per cent go to London and the other Thames harbors. England's transportation system is not designed to carry mass cargoes overland or along inland waterways. The main means of distribution is coastal navigation. Moreover, these imported commodities make appropriate sheds necessary.

It is, therefore, impossible to reroute, say to Liverpool, the two-fifths of all the imports that hitherto found their way into the Thames harbors and served in the main to keep the 14,000,000 people in and around London alive. The British supply system received its first major shock when the German forces won control of the entire Channel coast, long before the main attacks on England started. All imports from Eastern and Central Europe, and from France, are cut off. Nor is this by any means all. Traffic from India, Africa, Central America, and South America, passing south of Ireland, is easily throttled on the line from Brest to the Irish coast, which is no longer than 250 miles.

And why is this possible? Because the German submarines need no longer sail all the way from their home bases, losing priceless time on the northern route around England, a good 1,500 miles; the mine blockade at Dover has been eliminated, and German attack can be based on the French Atlantic coast. The English island is the victim of its own methods of warfare, with this difference that the German blockaders are not cowardly enough to follow the English example of long-distance blockading. They boldly carry their attacks to the very shores of the besieged island.



From Arctic to Africa

The Territory under Military Control of the Axis in 1940

THE "Steel Axis" of allied Germany and Italy extends today from the North Cape of the European Continent down to the very heart of Africa. Parallel to its southern section is a chain of French possessions; these, in conformity with the program of European co-operation, will be a harmonious factor in the system promoted by the Powers of the New Order. While the major decisions of the war will occur in Europe, the geography of the south part of the Axis is not without significance. It cuts in two the most important connecting lines of the English homeland with its Asiatic colonies. Perhaps, in the not too distant future, its political implications tracing the life line of twentieth-century Europe, will reach as far as the Cape of Good Hope.

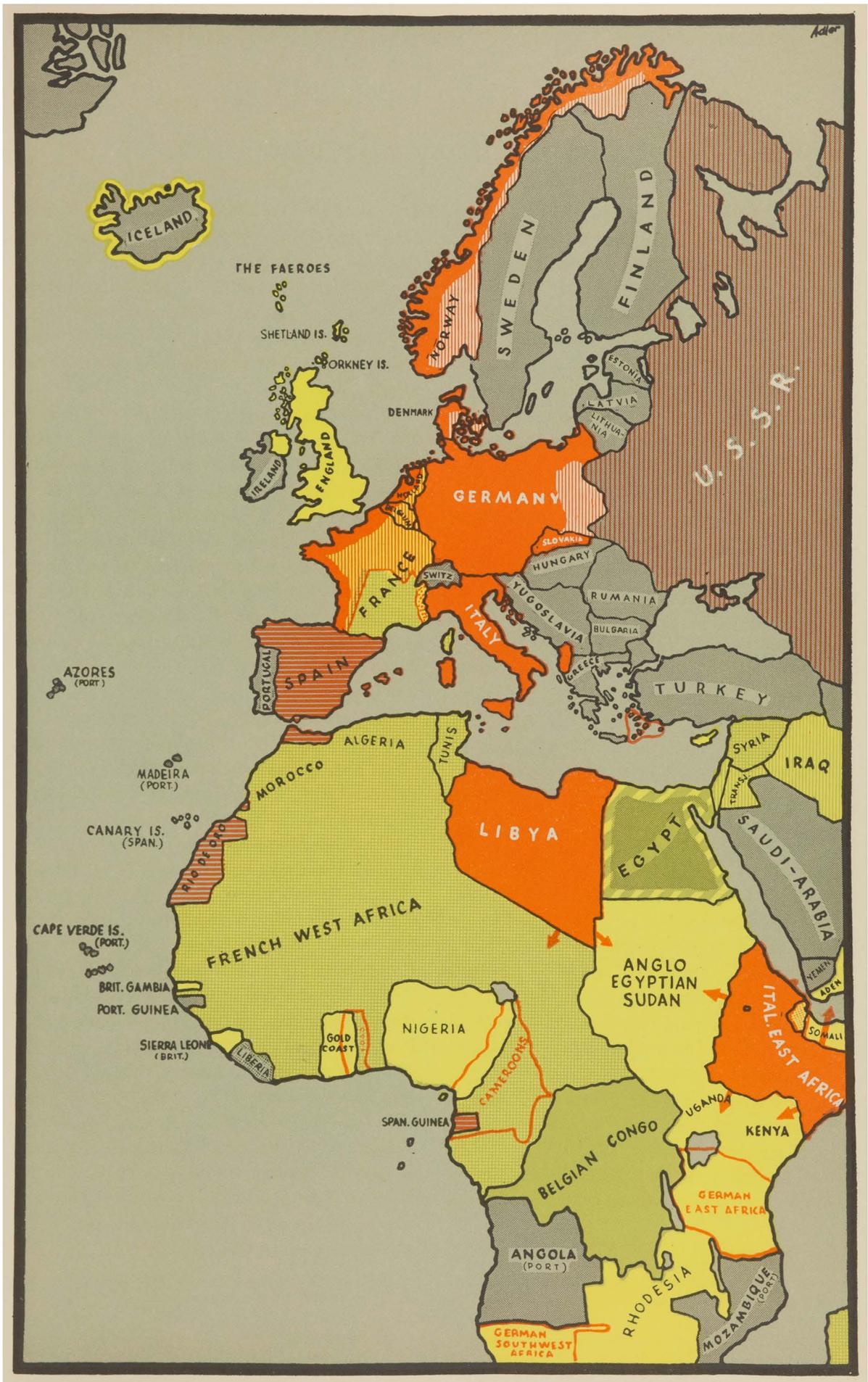
The victory in the West has brought to the sides of the Axis, in addition to its own 130,000,000 Germans and Italians, huge numbers of productive populations who recognize the necessity of the reorganization of Europe. The Reich's position for the final struggle against the British Empire has thus been greatly improved. The British long-distance blockade, designed to cut Germany off from vital raw materials, has dismally failed. The rich ores of Sweden, Lorraine, Spain, and French North Africa are pouring into the German arma-

ment factories, undisturbed by the British fleet.

The loss, to him, of the French army of Syria, and the Rumanian reorientation, thwarted adventuresome Mr. Churchill's hopes of carrying the war to the Balkans, or of breaking into the Black Sea in 1940. The raw materials of Southeastern Europe flow freely to the Axis manufacturing centers. England's influence on the European Continent has collapsed.

Her strongholds in the Near East remain. While these points, designed to protect England's possessions in Asia, do not signify control of Southeastern Europe, they are nevertheless a threat to that flank. The struggle between Europe and England will, therefore, decide the fate of these English holdings.

The extension of the Axis far into the dark Continent is fraught with a multitude of dynamic possibilities. The more energetic the blows at the heart of British power, at the English island, the more speedily can the peaceful tasks be undertaken. The aim is to create a Free Europe; and to make available to that Continent liberated from the British yoke, peacefully and on a basis of exchange, the numerous raw materials of the huge, as yet undeveloped, and sparsely populated dark Continent of Africa.



Norway: Boldest Invasion by Sea in Military History

THE German operations in Norway constitute the greatest and boldest landing operation in military history. The German attack on April 9, 1940, stole the march by no more than ten hours on the Anglo-French invasion in the North. This invasion would have been an exceedingly dangerous assault against the Reich's north flank, under the euphemistic motto of "Aid to Finland."¹ The operation was carried out under the very eyes of the British fleet, vastly superior in numbers. The entire German Navy was staked and the landing successfully carried out along a coast line of some 1,200 miles extending as far north as Narvik, the ore port in the Arctic.

By the evening of April 9, the German landing, with the effective co-operation of parachutists and air infantry, and with fullest support of fighting planes, had been successfully completed in Oslo, Arendal, Christiansund, Egersund, Stavanger, Bergen, Trondhjem and Narvik. Resistance offered, contrary to all the precepts of reason, by the Norwegian King and his pro-English government, proved of no avail.

Of the German forces, largely made up of Austrian units, many gallant feats of daring remain to be told. Outstanding are the heroic struggle of Captain Bonte's destroyer squadron, the loss of the cruiser "Blücher," and the valiant fight of General Dietl's isolated group at Narvik. Overcoming the resistance of the Norwegian troops who, here and there, put up a brave fight, the German soldiers made their way through the difficult terrain of the south and central Norwegian valleys to establish

contact with the landing detachments. The entire force of English submarines was used in an attempt to block the German supply route across the dangerous waters of the Skagerrak. The German ships nevertheless succeeded in carrying out their task, transporting a total of 1,300,000 gross tons.

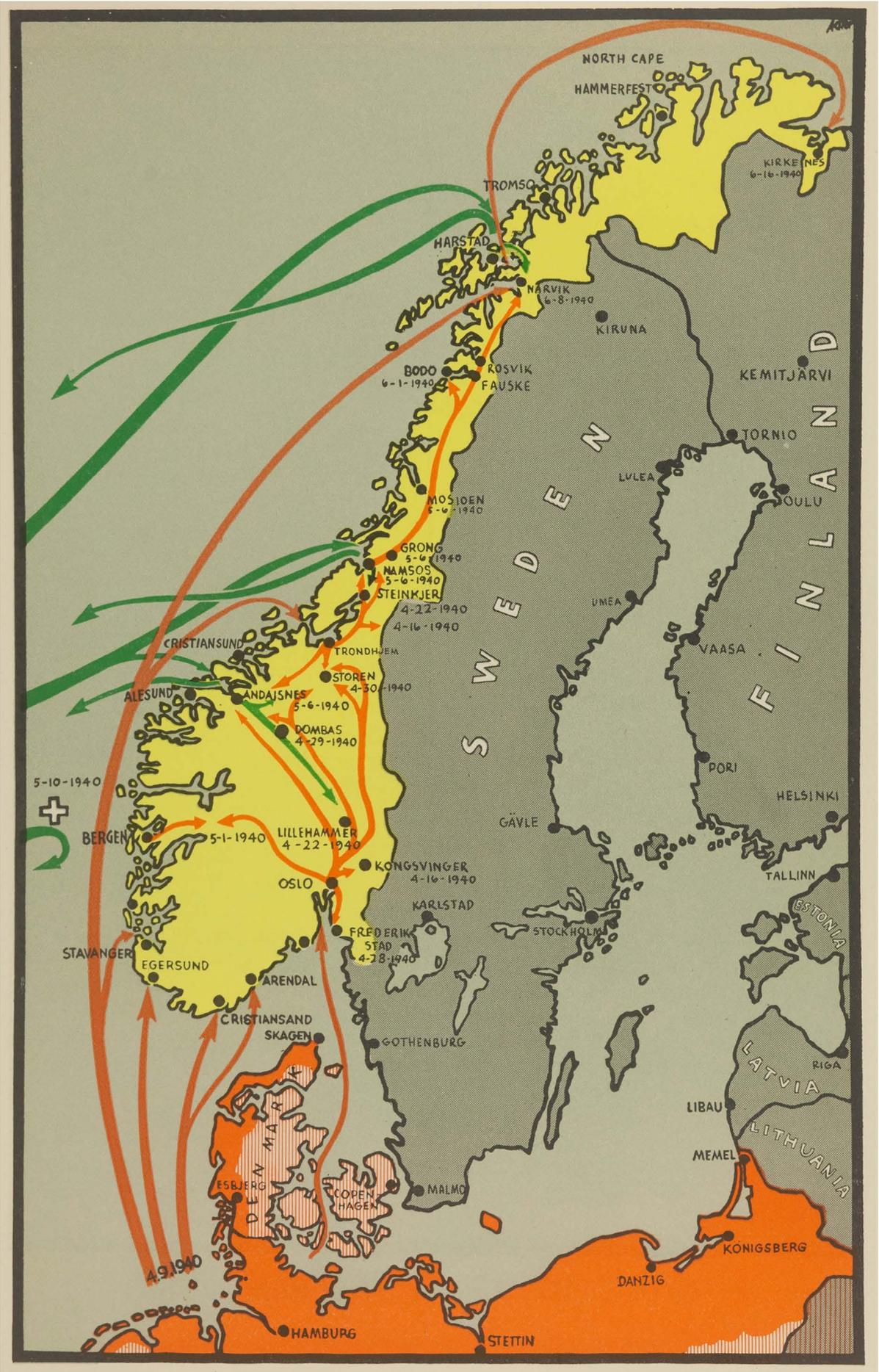
A large-scale counterattack by the British fleet on the evening of April 9 was crushed by German bombing squadrons some 100 miles off Bergen. Later, the English succeeded in landing² a number of large units in the almost unpatrollable, deep-cut fiords near Andalsnes and Namsos. Near Narvik, after the heroic sacrifice of our destroyers, the English, strongly protected by fighting ships, landed a force in the West Fiord six times superior to our own.

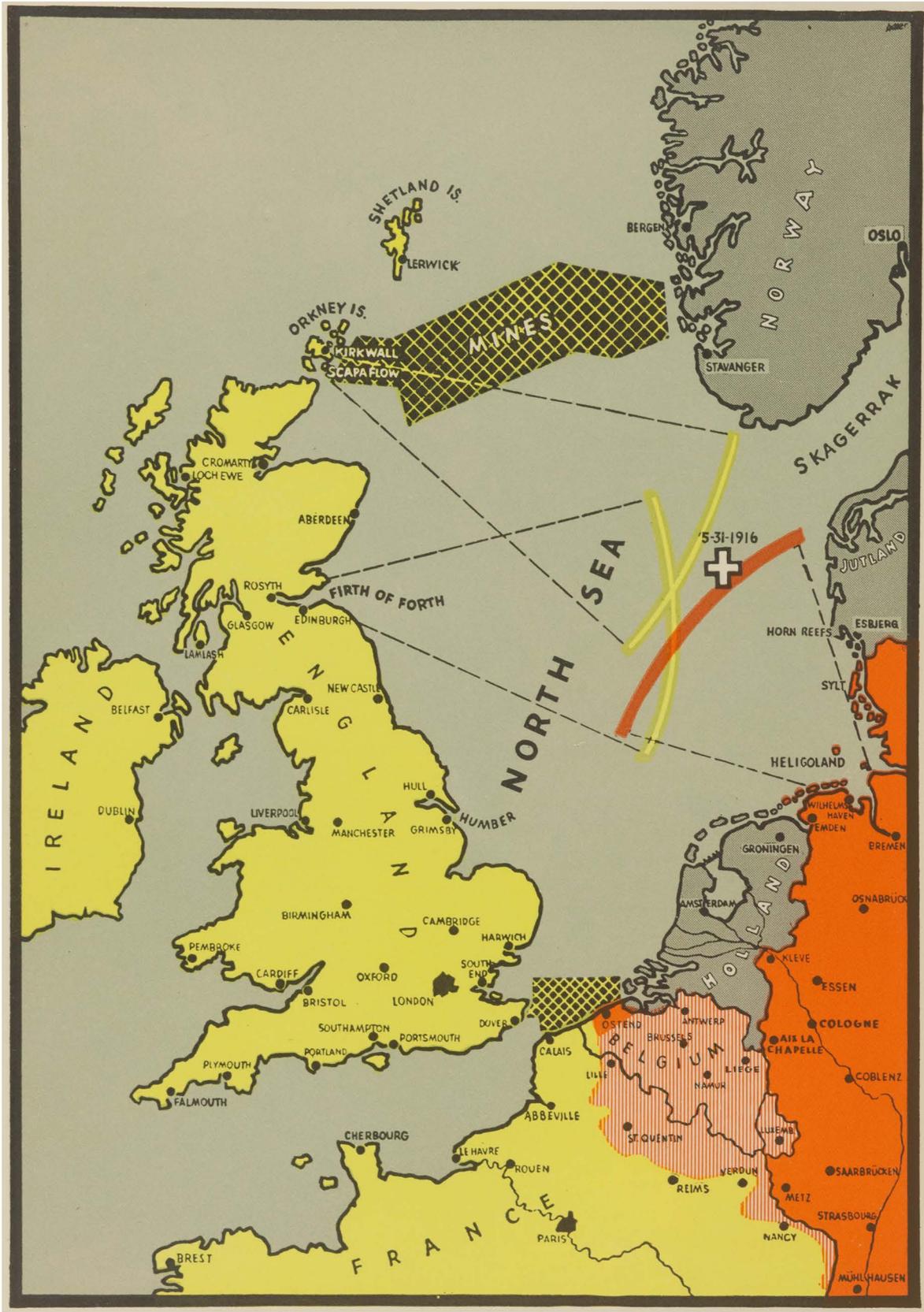
The enemy multiplied his endeavors to wrest control from our air forces, but pursuits and anti-aircraft defenses effectively repulsed him, and inflicted heavy losses.

Now young German regiments, brilliantly supported by the Air Force, hurled themselves upon the Norwegians and the British. In no more than a few days' advance, with unique, annihilating elan, they drove the English back through the valleys to their points of debarkation, and literally threw them into the sea. On May 2, the German flag was hoisted at Andalsnes; it was soon to fly over Namsos as well. On June 10, the last English foothold at Narvik, bitterly defended for reasons of prestige, had to be evacuated. The British invasion of Norway had proved worse than a failure. Instead of being a threat to the Reich *via* Scandinavia, it resulted, through quick, decisive German counteraction, in grave danger to the British Isle.

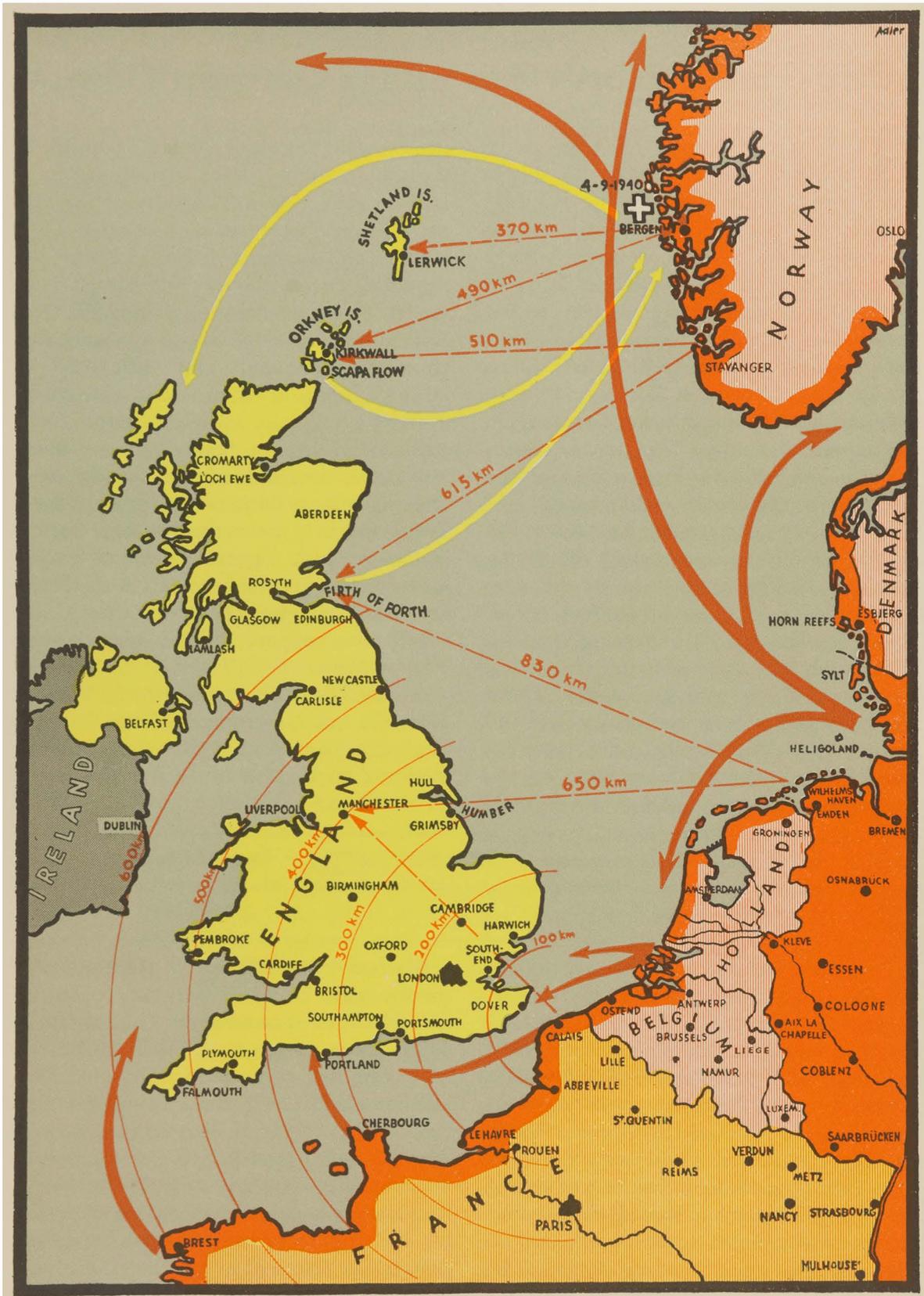
¹ A more detailed account of the German operations, from the Polish campaign to the fall of France, will be found in the final communiqués of the German High Command, printed at the end of the atlas.

² The English lines of attack and retreat are pictured in *green* on the map on the opposite page.





1914-1918: German Fleet Bottled Up



1940: Germany Breaks Through to Atlantic

1939-1940: North Sea under German Control

HOW tremendously the times have changed could scarcely be shown more convincingly than by the contrast between the two North Sea maps on the preceding pages. In 1914, Germany's Navy was a prisoner in the North Sea. In 1940, German arms have won their way to the ocean. The master of the waves has himself become a prisoner in his island. Since the German victories in Norway, Holland, Belgium, and France, it is not Germany, in the center of Europe, that is blockaded, but the English Isle. It is a case of the biter bitten, the blockader blockaded.

Admiral von Tirpitz, the founder of the old German Navy, nicknamed the North Sea, not without anguish at its unfavorable location, the *nasse Dreieck* (Wet Triangle). Germany's increasing share in world trade had made adequate protection by a navy of her own a necessity. There was no notion of ever competing with the British Navy. Von Tirpitz's naval program was based on the *Risikogedanke*; on the conception that the German Navy need

not be equal to that of England, but merely strong enough to make it risky for England to seek battle. The Germany of imperial days never even questioned England's naval supremacy. England was not regarded as an enemy, but rather as a model, to be emulated and idolized. The English war of 1914, waged against hard-working Germany, was primarily a struggle born of commercial considerations and fought to maintain British trade superiority. But in both countries there was at that time none of that revolutionary impetus which decides the great issues. This impetus is present in National Socialist Germany; it inspires the nation's fight against the world dictatorship of the Hundred Families who rule Great Britain, and enlists the support and co-operation of other nations.

At the outbreak of the World War in 1914, the relative strength of the German High Seas Fleet and of the "Grand Fleet" stationed in English home waters was as follows:

	Dreadnoughts	Battleships	Battle Cruisers	Light Cruisers	Destroyers
German	13	16	3	15	88
English	20	8	4	12	42

This situation was more favorable than Germany had a right to expect. It could be speedily shifted in favor of England by the recall of units scattered over the seven seas. Ships then building would further improve England's position. Nevertheless, the head of the German Navy, obeying the Emperor's orders, refrained from seeking a decision. By the autumn of 1915, England had increased the number of her dreadnoughts to 25 as opposed to Germany's 17, and had as many as 10 battle cruisers to Germany's 4; her light cruisers now numbered 25 to Germany's 15, her destroyers 66 to Germany's 88.

Matters were different in the new submarine arm. In 1917, Germany's submarine strength was so great that Admiral Jellicoe was forced to admit it had for a time won sea supremacy. However, this did not affect the general strategic situation. As the battle of Skagerrak (Jutland, May 31, 1916) showed, the German Navy, while strong enough to inflict heavy losses upon its opponent, was incapable of breaking the English fetters. The British dreadnoughts in Scapa Flow, the battle cruisers and scouting forces in the Firth of Forth, could dash out at a moment's notice, and nip in the bud any attempt to win a path-

way through to the Atlantic. Powerless, locked up in the North Sea, Germany's ships sat out the war.

Once only, in October, 1917, the cruisers "Brummer" and "Bremse" saw action off Bergen. But brilliant individual operations could not be turned to decisive advantage; England's blockade, carried on from a distance, remained intact. In the summer of 1918, the barrier of 100,000 mines, laid

with American aid between the Orkney Islands and Bergen, together with the long-existing barrier across the Dover Straits, converted the North Sea into a veritable dungeon. Save for U-boat sallies, the German Navy was a prisoner.

At the outbreak of the war on September 3, 1939, the relative strength of the German Navy and the British Home Fleet (not the total Fleet) was as follows:

	Battle-ships	Battle Cruisers	Armored Cruisers	Heavy Cruisers	Light Cruisers	Destroyers and Torpedo Boats	Submarines
German	2 (11-inch guns)	3	2	6	42	43
British	6	3 (15-inch guns)	..	4	14	68	31

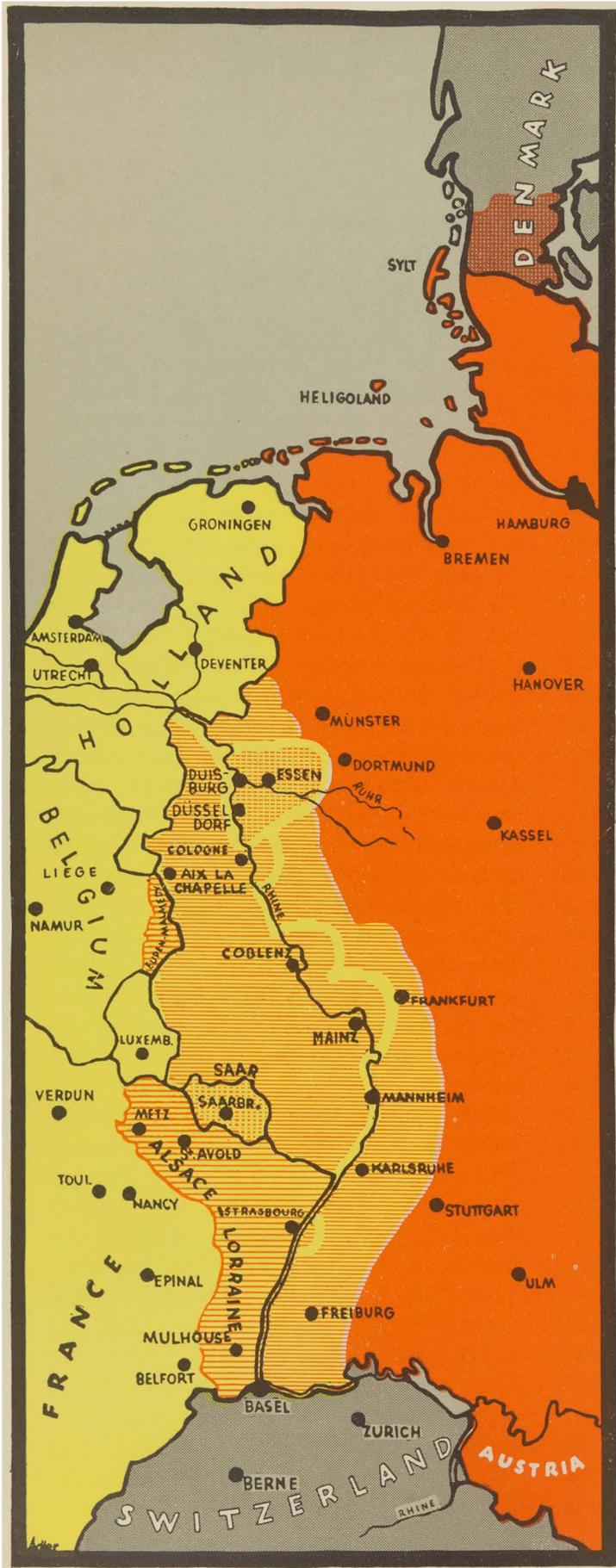
In spite of this great disproportion, the German forces were able to gain control of the North Sea as early as autumn, 1939. The new weapons, the long-range bomber and the dive bomber, were largely instrumental in achieving this success. After the first attacks by German submarines and planes, the British Admiralty had to give up its naval bases on the East coast and in Scapa Flow, perhaps not for the duration of the war, but at least until better protection by anti-aircraft batteries and newly built flying fields could be offered in the spring. German armored cruisers were raiding in the North and South Atlantic. In a naval engagement off Iceland, which during the World War was never even reached, the British auxiliary cruiser "Rawalpindi" was defeated. The giant "Bremen" and many smaller ships sailed past England into German ports. But 1939 was merely a beginning.

The real break through the blockade was brought about by the German counter-move against the impending invasion of Norway by the Western Powers, an operation which the British Battle Fleet, again stationed at strategic Scapa Flow, was unable to stop.

In spite of the proximity of this base, the small German Navy successfully landed its men in Norway. When the Home Fleet launched its attack on April

9, it was scattered to the four winds, off Bergen, by *Stuka* squadrons. The Home Fleet was nowhere able to prevent the landing of German troops; it could not even force its way into the Kattegat to cut off the supply routes and isolate the German forces in Norway. The belated landings effected by the British at Andalsnes, Namsos and Narvik led to catastrophic retreats, after valuable units of their fleet had been destroyed or damaged by German bombs. The occupation of Norway won for our forces a new position of attack against England's east coast. The flight distances from base to the British naval stations were halved. The North Sea has become a German Sea. Access to the Atlantic is unhindered. The blockade is broken.

After the successful offensive in the West, the Atlantic could be reached south of England as well. The entire English south coast lies now within the range of the new German weapons. Not even the approaches to the harbors on the west coast of England are safe. Germany stands at the shores of the open ocean. England on the contrary has become an island beleaguered on all sides. A reorganization in the European system of states has begun that is as momentous as the creation of England's supremacy on the seas in the days of Queen Elizabeth.



France Covets the Rhine

THE Treaty of Versailles was to make France's old dream come true: the Rhine would be her border. The Armistice compelled Germany to submit to the occupation of the left bank of the Rhine, and of the bridgeheads of Cologne, Coblenz and Mainz on the right bank. On December 1, 1918, French, English, Belgian and American forces, totalling 600,000 men, including a large contingent of colored troops, marched into the Rhineland. France's ensuing fight at the conference table failed, and instead of annexing the Rhineland outright she compromised on "occupation" for a period of fifteen years "only."

But she was determined to achieve her object in other ways. At the last Versailles session, when the peace terms were being debated, Clemenceau turned to Poincaré and spoke these memorable words: "Monsieur le Président, you are a much younger man than I. In fifteen years I shall no longer be here. But if, in fifteen years, you sit where I am sitting now you will be able to say: 'We are on the Rhine, and that is where we are going to stay.'" The insane war indemnities exacted from Germany and the unscrupulous support given to inspired Separatist putches were used as means to achieve this end. On April 6, 1920, when Germany found herself constrained to send troops into the "demilitarized" Ruhr valley to stamp out communist uprisings, France, in reprisal, occupied additional German territory.

On January 1, 1923, as a result of "partial failure" to meet all the requirements in the payment of tribute, the Ruhr region was occupied by an army of five French divisions and one Belgian division, armed to the teeth. The German people rose. Unable to offer active opposition, they proclaimed "passive resistance." They patiently endured untold misery. Their heroism was the first sign that the German spirit had not been broken. The penalty was frightful: total disruption of economic life, and an inflation which reduced Germany to penury.

Locarno, and the Dawes and Young Plans, were to substitute "voluntary" enslavement for military occupation. On June 30, 1930, the French evacuated the third, or Mainz zone, but the demilitarization clause, forbidding Germany to keep troops in the Rhineland, remained in force. It was not until the German Army was strong once more that the Führer has finally put an end to this disgraceful condition, and claimed full rights of sovereignty for Germany. On March 7, 1936, greeted by tumultuous cheers from the people, German troops re-entered the Rhineland.

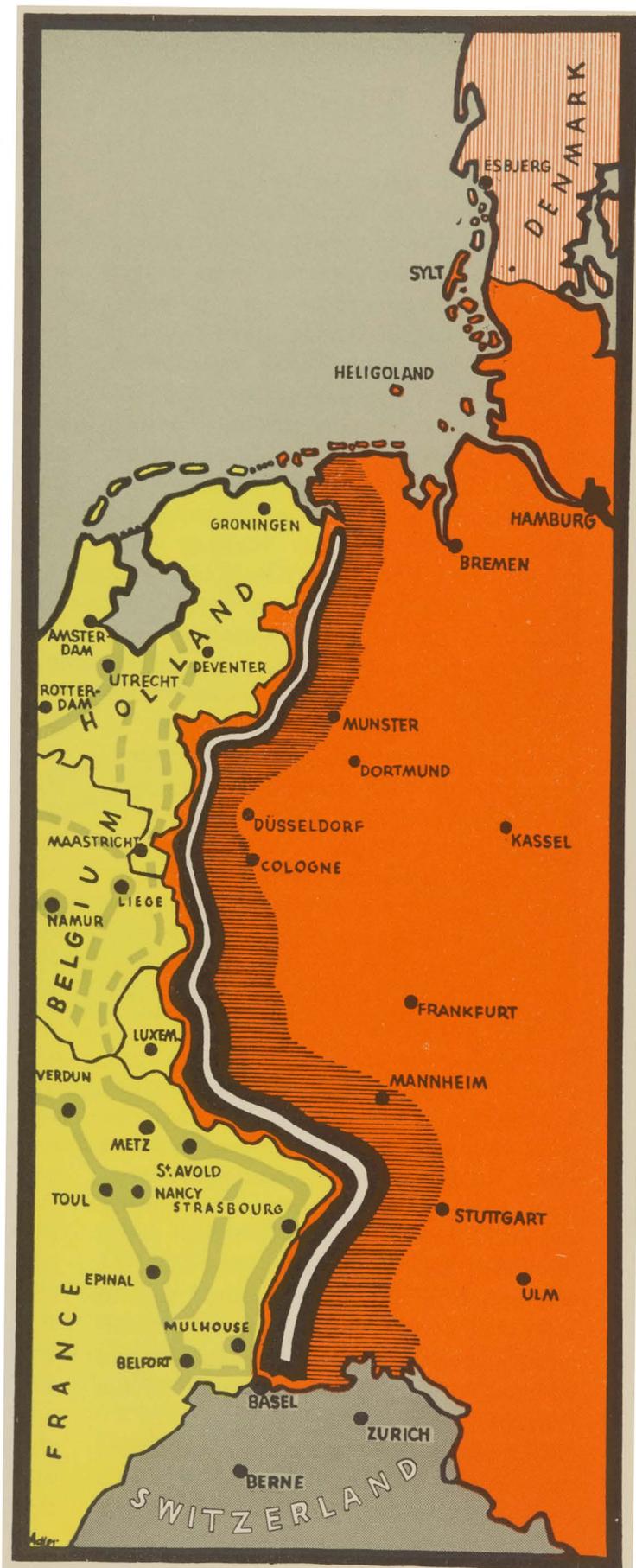
The Siegfried Line

WHILE Germany was breaking the chain of the Versailles Dictate, link by link, the call for a *preventive war* against the Reich on the part of the Western Powers became louder and louder. General Weygand was one of its most vigorous champions. The Führer decided, in May, 1938, to put a stop to this incessant threat, and to build the Westwall. The resources of the German people and of German economic life were pooled and in no more than a few months a wall of steel and concrete, impregnable and invincible, guarded the Fatherland from the Swiss border to Aix-la-Chapelle.

The building of the Westwall will always remain a memorable feat. It was a supreme achievement of organization and constructive energy, and a tribute to completely new methods of fortification. Without the Westwall Greater Germany could not have emerged. The Sudeten Germans could not have returned home, the removal of the Czech threat through the formation of the Protectorate would have been impossible, the speedy victory over Poland unthinkable. Last but not least, the Westwall enabled the Reich, from the end of the Polish campaign to the great offensive on May 10, 1940, to increase its military might without interference.

The Western Powers did not dare attack Germany's defense position, for they knew it was unconquerable. The Westwall creates a deep well co-ordinated defense zone consisting of armored works of all sizes, field positions, tank traps, water moats and flooding areas, all of which are so arranged as to complement each other and offer total protection through weapons of every calibre. Back of the Westwall is the Air Defense Zone West, of great depth, and with powerful artillery, eliminating the remotest possibility of a vertical outflanking attack on the main fortification, or of a serious invasion of the Reich by hostile planes.

When, at the beginning of the war, the preparations of the Western Powers to carry out an attack on Germany through neutral Holland and Belgium became evident, the Westwall was extended from Aix-la-Chapelle to the coast. Superhuman work was done, and the fortifications facing Holland were made as strong as the rest of the Line. An impenetrable system now extended from the Swiss border to the North Sea. This gigantic fortification has saved Germany rivers of blood, and afforded the homeland full protection. The advanced line of bases which Foch and Clemenceau intended to hold for all time, became Germany's most formidable defense against France twenty years later.



The Eighteen Days of Poland

AT various times during the winter of 1938 and spring of 1939, the Reich, seeking a basis of durable understanding with Poland, made generous offers to that country. Asking no more than the return of the Free City of Danzig, and a road and railway through the Polish Corridor in exchange for a road and railway connecting Poland and Gdynia through German territory, Germany was ready to guarantee the Polish boundaries for twenty-five years. Germany's hope of reaching an amicable settlement was blighted when England gave Poland the notorious "blank check." From that moment on, Poland abandoned herself to unrestrained anti-German agitation. As the summer advanced, the German-baiting became worse and worse; finally, Polish insolence in Danzig, and incursions into German territory, grew to such proportions that Germany could no longer submit in silence or acquiesce with honor.

A German warning, amicable in form and content, was answered in Poland by general mobilization. On September 1, 1939, Germany was forced to take drastic steps. Two days later England and France declared war on Germany. Foreseeing this, Germany's campaign plans in the East sought the speediest defeat and complete annihilation of the enemy. The plan met with full success; in eighteen days an army, on which Poland had spent more than half of her revenue, was utterly routed. When mobilized the Polish Army numbered two million men, not counting one and one-half million trained men in such bodies as the ill-famed Rebel Organizations sponsored by the Government and devoted to the ruthless uprooting of the German element in Poland.

In a succession of battles of annihilation, the greatest and most decisive of which took place in the famous bend of the

Vistula, the Polish millions were defeated, captured, or routed. The *Luftwaffe* achieved complete control of the air on the evening of the very first day, and from then on devoted all its efforts to the support of the troops that were advancing with unbelievable speed. Scarcely had the Polish Army in the Corridor been destroyed when the forces retreating before the onslaught of General von Reichenau's army were trapped near Radom. Before the very gates of Warsaw von Reichenau's vanguard blocked the retreat of the Polish masses that had been concentrated in Posen and were endeavoring to escape across the Vistula. The armies of Generals Blaskowitz and von Reichenau outflanked this strong foe and closed the crushing ring near Kutno, in the Vistula bend. The trapped Polish armies were almost completely destroyed. (The map depicting these events is based on the reports published in the Army's periodical *Die Wehrmacht*.) The total number of prisoners from the three actions, each ending in a Polish surrender, exceeded 300,000.

The splendor of the victory, however, was darkened by the sufferings which the opening of hostilities brought to the German element in Poland. More than 58,000 Germans were slaughtered by the Poles with unspeakable cruelty. This slaughter is without parallel in the history of the civilized world. Though the individual Polish soldier fought with commendable bravery, the Polish command was totally inadequate. Even before the fight was decided, the Polish Commander in Chief, Rydz-Smigly, fled with the Government across the Rumanian border. With the Polish armies of the Vistula annihilated, and with German General List's Army of the South at the gates of Lemberg (Lwow) after a lightning-like advance, Polish authorities declared Warsaw a fortified city.



This declaration compelled the Germans to take the city by force. It was an unbelievable decision. Warsaw had not been evacuated; it was Poland's capital; it was not in any way prepared for defense against modern arms, yet the Polish rulers sentenced it to destruction.

The day after the fall of Warsaw, Poland's last fortress, Modlin, was captured. With every vestige of Polish Government

gone, every treaty became null and void. The Reich and Soviet Russia reached an agreement by which the Soviets assumed responsibility for the White Russian and Ukrainian areas. On September 17, Soviet troops occupied Eastern Poland. A line of demarcation between the German and Russian spheres of interest was agreed upon forthwith. The fate of Poland had been decided in eighteen days.

Germany and Southeast Europe, Natural Partners

THE war has again confirmed the natural partnership between Germany and Southeastern Europe. Even a cursory glance at the map on the opposite page shows the close geographic connection between the Reich block and the countries of the Southeast. The intensive economic collaboration of recent days reaffirms this partnership. Since the economic cohesion of the Danube Monarchy was smashed in 1919, the Western Powers have stopped at nothing to destroy that organism of commercial co-operation which is founded on the interdependence of highly industrialized Germany and the agrarian countries of the Southeast. However, the logical growth of the new economic body could not be arrested by unnatural alliances, by absurd schemes and nonsensical blocks. Equally futile was the mirage of gold, the indiscriminate granting of political loans which their generous providers fondly believed would buy faithful adherence to the system of Versailles and Geneva.

Every one of these attempts failed completely when confronted by actual problems that called for an intelligent solution. Neither France nor England was capable of absorbing the agricultural surplus or the raw materials of Southeastern Europe. Germany alone was its logical partner. The return of Austria to the fold, the reincorporation of the Sudetenland, the creation of the Bohemian-Moravian protectorate brought about ever closer contacts between Germany and the Southeast; and the importance of Southeastern Europe's great river, with its sources and

much of its course in German territory, made the Reich the leading power in the Danube basin. Before long Germany's share in the exports and imports of the southeastern states exceeded 50 per cent.

The map on the opposite page shows the negligible part played by France and England in the trade of Southeastern Europe. While Germany takes half the exports, the two Western Powers absorb a niggardly ten or fifteen per cent. This situation of pre-war days (figures charted are those for the first half of 1939) has shifted even more in Germany's favor. The British blockade is a boomerang turning against its creator.

The Western Powers made every effort to close this hole in the blockade. Financial inducements were offered. A purchasing commission provided with unlimited funds offered to buy up the products of the Southeast, and to divert trade from its natural course.

When all these devices failed Germany's foes unblushingly resorted to sabotage. The most spectacular instance was the British attempt to blast the Iron Gate. The plot, designed to paralyze Danube traffic, was thwarted in the nick of time. The object of intensified economic warfare was to make a military explosion in the Southeast inevitable. The vigilance of Germany and Italy foiled this plan, and saved the nations in the Southeast from a horrible fate. These trials have cemented the partnership between Germany and the Southeast; it will be one of the strongest pillars in the system of co-operative Continental Europe.



The Europe of Hapsburg's Dreams

ARCHDUKE OTTO, of Hapsburg-Bourbon-Parma, while on a trip through the United States in the spring of 1940, disclosed to the public an ingenious plan for the partition of Europe. This young man, the puppet of powerful interests, may not be very interesting; however, the same cannot be said of the wire-pullers in the Foreign Offices of Paris and London.

The joyous emotion of setting foot on American soil was too much for Otto. He let out the secret of Allied war aims that had not been discussed except behind soundproof doors. The accompanying map is not the product of a demented mind, but a faithful rendering of the plans entertained in Paris and London official quarters. Otto's new Danube Monarchy¹—in reality a Franco-British dependency—extends from Mannheim, the Rhine port, to the region of the Greek Mediterranean port of Salonika. The central harbor on the Adriatic in this fantastic realm is Trieste, to be taken from Italy together with the Istrian peninsula. A thorough job has been done on Hungary and Yugoslavia, which are annexed in toto; the incorporation of the Transylvanian section of Rumania, on the other hand, seems to have been looked upon as a hot iron.

The same appears to be true in the case of Greater Czechoslovakia, which extends to the very gates of Dresden. "Kaiser" Otto and Eduard Beneš obviously had not reached an understanding concerning the inclusion of Czechoslovakia in the Danube Monarchy when the plan was disclosed by the last of the Hapsburgs. All of Germany south of the river Main is to become part of the realm of the House of Hapsburg. Otto generously donates the territory on the left bank of the Rhine to France, and Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark. To

Greater Poland he grants huge slices of the German provinces of Silesia and Brandenburg. All this is not as revealing as the fate held in store by London and Paris for the states of Europe's Southeast.

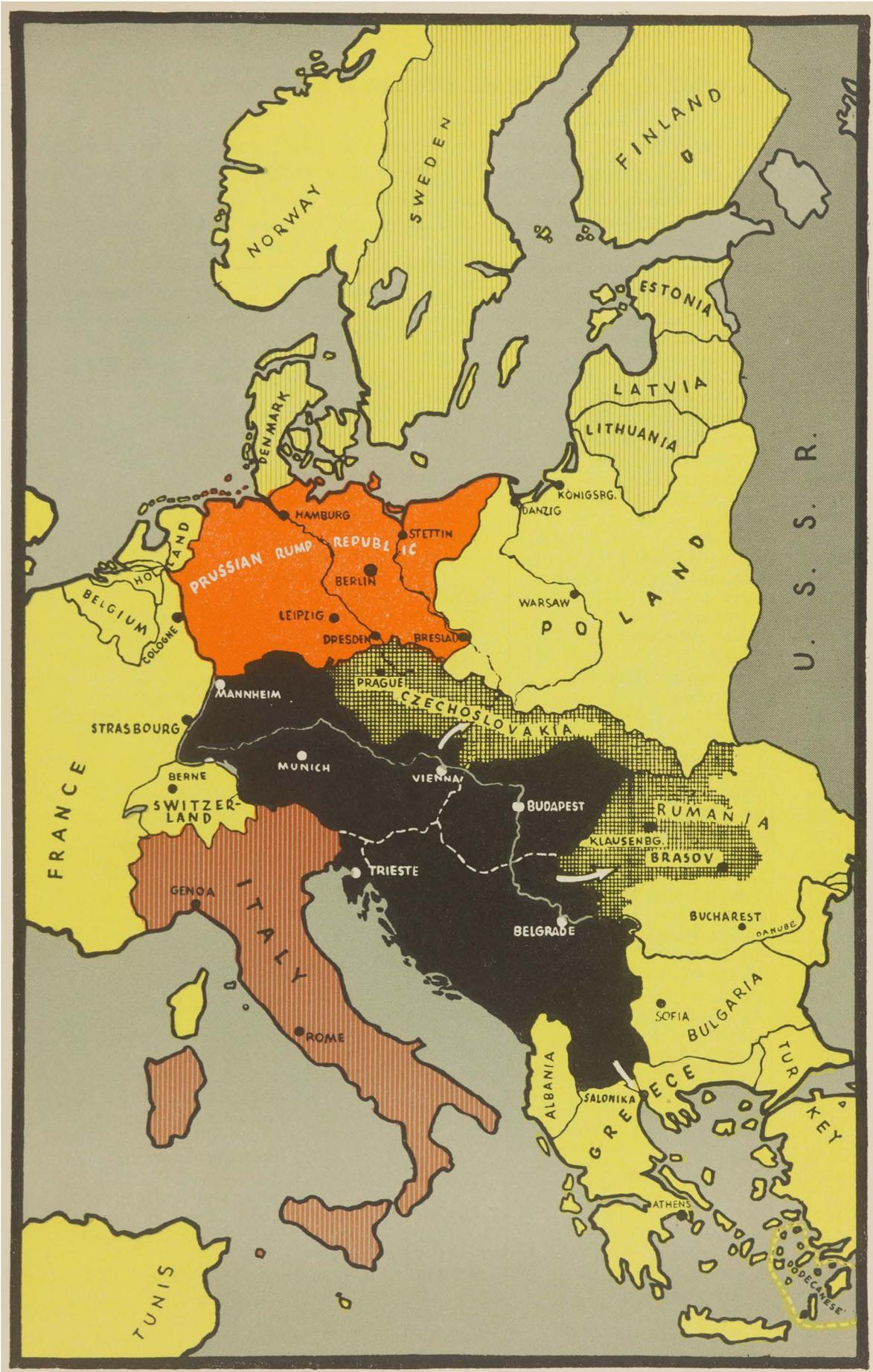
One of the Anglo-French slogans during the World War was the "Liberation of the Southeast from the Yoke of Hapsburg Imperialism." The contrast between that aim, and the projected restoration of the polyglot monarchy in the present conflict, is not without humor. The demolition of the Dual Monarchy was one of the great Allied triumphs in the World War.

Otto, not unnaturally, is perfectly willing to co-operate. The nations in the Danube basin "liberated" in 1919, understood their newly won independence to mean that their fate is now in their own hands. They would scarcely be willing to be incarcerated in a new Danube Monarchy. To hold them, that prison would need walls of steel. The warden to be placed on the throne obviously has given his masters in London and Paris ample assurances that none of his charges-to-be will escape. This proposed barter of nations is among the most disgusting spectacles in the annals of modern history.



The Former Danube Monarchy

¹ Pictured in *black* on the adjacent map.



England's Aggression in Five Continents

THE map on pages 30 and 31 gives an idea of the extent reached by British expansion during the past three centuries. The British Empire has spread

over the world, ruthlessly grabbing strategic strongholds and rich, lootable lands. The table below lists the British possessions and the year of their acquisition.

Year acquired	Possession	Area ¹ (in sq. km.)	Population	Wealth or Purpose
1583	Newfoundland	110,677	289,588	Naval route; whalery
1588	Gambia	10,536	199,520	Gold
1605	Barbados	430	190,939	Sugar, rum
1605-1762	Windward Islands	1,348	207,600	
1629	Turks and Caicos Is.	11,760	73,242	Pineapple; sugar
1632	Leeward Islands	1,884	143,343	
1638	Honduras	21,535	56,893	Bananas; sugar
1639	Madras	368,438	46,740,107	Copra
1650	St. Helena	420	4,826	Pineapple; sugar
1655	Jamaica	12,225	1,150,658	Naval base; sugar
1668	Bombay	320,165	21,879,123	
1684	Bermuda Islands	49	30,800	Naval base
1704	Gibraltar	5	23,046	Naval fortress
1759	Canada	9,559,289	10,376,786	Grain; meat
1759	Labrador	291,000	4,716	
1764	Behar and Orissa	215,378	37,677,576	} Indian Provinces
1765	Bengal	199,015	50,114,002	
1770	New South Wales	803,831	2,609,974	Ores; sugar
1770	Queensland	1,737,524	947,534	Cattle; fish; copper
1774	Bhutan	46,600	250,000	Rice; silk; horses; elephants
1780	Baroda	21,048	2,443,007	
1788	Tasmania	67,894	227,599	Diamonds; ores
1788	Sierra Leone	72,362	1,768,422	Palm oil
1788	Norfolk	39	1,085	Bananas; oranges
1788	South Australia	984,341	580,949	Wool; copper; wine; naval base
1788	Victoria	272,610	1,820,261	Naval base
1794	Seychelles Islands	404	30,940	Coconuts; cotton
1796	Ceylon	65,607	5,312,548	Precious stones; cotton; coconuts
1797	Trinidad and Tobago	5,122	456,006	Oil; cocoa; sugar; copra
1800	Malta	316	269,663	Naval base
Since 1800	Indian Principalities	886,684	38,163,485	Indian products
1800	Haiderabad	214,179	14,436,148	Indian Province
1802	Maldiv Islands	298	79,281	Coconuts; fish
1803	Delhi	1,536	636,246	} Indian Provinces
1803	Agra	212,727	35,613,784	
1810	Mauritius	2,096	424,501	Sugar; hemp; cable station
1814	British Guiana	231,744	337,039	Sugar; diamonds; rice
1814	Cape Colony	717,839	3,529,900	Gold; diamonds; copper
1815	Ascension	88	154	Coaling station; cable station
1816	Tristan da Cunha	117	198	Naval base
1817	Sikkim	7,298	109,808	} Indian products
1818	Rajputana	334,062	11,225,712	
1818	Ajmer-Merwara	7,021	560,292	
1819	Singapore	728	710,037	Coaling station; fortress
1821	Gold Coast	203,700	3,700,267	Richest colony in the world
1826	Assam	137,303	8,622,251	Coal; cotton; teak wood
1826	Malay States	2,694	623,486	
1827	West Australia	2,527,530	438,852	Gold; coal; sheep
1827	North Australia	1,356,120	6,704	Coal; sheep
1831	Mysore	76,337	6,557,302	
1833	Falkland Islands	11,960	2,391	Wool
1834	Coorg	4,097	163,327	Indian Province
1835	Socotra	3,579	12,000	Dates

¹ One square kilometer is 0.386 square miles. A square mile equals 2.59 square kilometers.

Year acquired	Possession	Area (in sq. km.)	Population	Wealth or Purpose
1839	Aden	194	46,638	Naval fortress; coaling station
1840	New Zealand	269,189	1,622,012	Coal; ore; gold; sheep
1842	Hongkong	1,013	1,006,982	Harbor; fortress
1842	Sarawak	129,500	442,900	Gasoline; palm oil; rubber
1843	Natal	91,382	1,946,468	Iron; copper; coal; wool
1846	Kashmir and Jammu	218,219	3,646,243	Wool; fruit; rice
1849	Panjab and North Province	293,345	26,005,928	Wheat; tea; cattle
1853	Berar	46,015	3,441,883	Indian Province
1853	Pirate Island	15,600	80,000	Pearl fishery
1854	Kuria Muria Island	75	100	Cable station; guano
1856	Oudh	62,565	12,794,979	Indian Province
1857	Perim (Bab el Mandeb)	13	1,700	Coaling station; fortress between Aden and Red Sea
1857	Kamaran	118	2,200	Quarantine station; Mecca pilgrims
1857	Cocos Islands	3	1,142	Cable station
1858	Andaman	6,495	18,646	Penal Colony
1861	Central Indian Provinces	212,564	12,065,885	Indian products
1861	Nigeria	964,990	20,476,759	Palm oil; cocoa; cotton; mines
1869	Nicobar Islands	1,645	9,481	Fishery; coconuts
1871	Basutoland	30,343	562,311	Wool; grain
1874	Fiji Islands	18,274	205,397	Sugarcane; bananas; copra
1874-1905	Hinterland of Aden	1,369,600	1,000,000	Cotton; coffee; rubber; hides; sugar
1875	Laccadive Islands	1,927	16,000	Copra; coconuts
1878	Cyprus	9,251	372,810	Fish; copper; cotton
1879	Baluchistan	140,445	463,508	Zone of influence
1880	Bahrein Islands	552	120,000	Pearl fishery (Persian Gulf)
1880	Koweit	5,000	80,000	Pearl fishery
1882	Catar	22,100	26,000	Pearl fishery
1882	Egypt	35,168	15,904,525	Now an "Ally"
1884	Somaliland	176,000	347,383	Cattle; hides
1884	New Guinea (Papua)	234,489	276,223	Gold; pearls; copra; rubber
1885	Bechuanaland	712,200	265,756	Steppes
1886	Burma	604,719	14,667,146	Rice; forts; mines; petroleum
1886	Gwalior	68,262	3,523,070	Indian Province
1886-1895	British East Africa			
	Kenya	582,622	3,334,191	Cotton; coffee
	Zanzibar	2,642	235,428	Naval base; (Exchanged for Heligoland)
1886	Solomon Islands	28,500	94,105	Ebony
1888	North Borneo (with Labuan)	76,097	278,780	Platinum; diamonds; gold; coal; rubies; iron; pearls
1888	Brunei	5,750	35,963	Rubber
1888	Christmas Islands	155	1,313	Phosphates
1889	Phoenix Islands	41	59	Guano
1889	Nyasaland	97,795	1,639,329	Tobacco; tea; cotton
1891	Muscat	150,900	500,000	Dates; wool; hides
1891-1895	Rhodesia	1,141,246	2,751,865	Gold; coal; lead; copper
1892	Gilbert and Ellis	1,128	35,658	Phosphorus; cotton; copra
1894	Swaziland	17,365	156,715	Tin; tobacco; cattle
1894-1896	Uganda	243,400	3,711,494	Coffee; cotton; sesame
1898	Pitcairn Islands	5	209	
1899	Tonga Islands	997	32,861	Cloth; flour; copra
1899	Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	2,462,680	6,186,529	Rubber; cotton
1902	Transvaal	286,053	3,341,470	Gold; wool; grain; diamonds
1902	Orange Free State	128,580	772,060	Diamonds; gold; wool; hides
1920	Togo	33,775	359,754	Slave trade
1920	Cameroons	88,266	831,103	Rubber; oil; tobacco
1920	Tanganyika	932,000	5,182,289	Rubber; cotton
1920	German Southwest Africa	822,875	283,784	Diamonds; copper
1920	New Guinea	240,860	587,625	Naval base
1920	Samoa	2,934	57,759	Naval station
1920	Nauru	22	3,400	Tin
1920	Palestine	26,305	1,418,618	Oranges; nuts; oil
1920	Trans-Jordan	86,300	300,000	Oil pipe lines
1937	Hadramaut	151,500	120,000	Dates; rubber

England a Threat to the Monroe Doctrine

THE doctrine which has become famous under the name of the fifth President of the United States was proclaimed some years after the Anglo-American War of 1812, and after the difficulties encountered by South America in its fight for independence. The Monroe Doctrine is the cornerstone of America's foreign policy. It is recognized by non-American powers, at least in theory. The Monroe Doctrine insists that there be no interference, no meddling on the part of European powers in the affairs of the two Americas.

This suggests a question that is now over a hundred years old, and which in spite of its importance has never been satisfactorily answered: It is the problem of the European possessions in America, which date back to the eighteenth century. The Danish West Indies, having been purchased by the United States in 1917, all the territories in question, with the sole exception of Dutch-owned Guiana, Curaçao and Aruba, are English or French possessions. Those of France, infinitesimal remains of that nation's once huge American empire, are of minor importance.

All the more important are the British possessions. The largest, both in area and population, is the Dominion of Canada, the northern neighbor of the United States. Canada's new function as a center of military training and armaments production, and its possibilities as an abode for British power no longer safe in England, cannot but accentuate the difficulties of a situation which, under the Monroe Doctrine, has always been anomalous. In the West, the land connection between the United States and her northwestern possession, Alaska, is cut by Canada. In the East, Newfoundland (to which a large part of Labrador belongs) occupies a dominant position on the shipping lines across the North Atlantic. From the point of view of both naval and air strategy, this stronghold is invaluable.

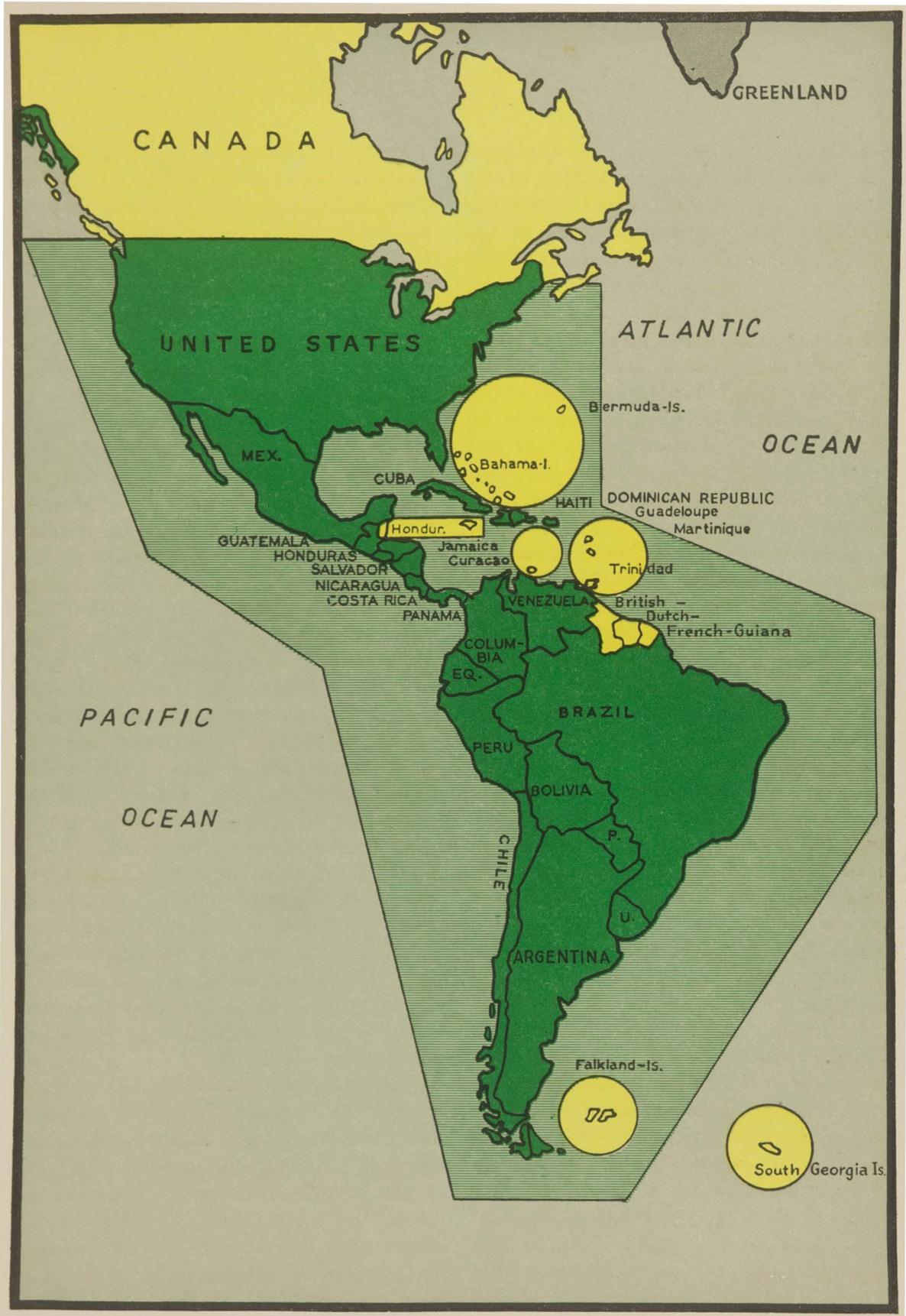
In the Middle Atlantic, a similarly im-

portant position is that of Bermuda. Forces stationed at this base control the sea; and its value in the new system of transatlantic airlines has already been effectively turned to advantage by England. In the heart of the zone that saw, in colonial days, piracy at its peak, England has held fast to insular possessions that are priceless holdings, both as bases and as colonies: the Bahamas, Trinidad, several islands in the lesser Antilles, Jamaica. In addition, British Honduras and Guiana are valuable territories on the mainland of America.

These possessions lie in the very heart of that zone which the United States regards as the center of her own sphere of vital interests. They are well within the confines of the 300-mile Safety Zone created by the Panama Conference. This zone, unanimously proclaimed by all the nations of the Americas, has been brazenly disregarded by England. British naval forces occupied the Dutch West Indies. British warships chased, and in some instances sank, German merchant ships almost within sight of the American coast. Even the mail between the United States and South America is subjected to British control at Jamaica.

In the extreme South, the Falkland Islands are a base on the way to England's Antarctic holdings. Up to the middle of the last century, the Falkland Islands—under the Spanish name of "Malvinas"—belonged to Argentina. There can be no doubt as to Argentina's continued right to these islands, whose name became more generally known after the naval battle fought in that area in 1914. Another American country, Guatemala, feels that its rights were violated when British Honduras was seized, but all demands for the return of the loot have been disregarded.

All of these facts, and our map, are sufficient evidence that only one country is a potential threat to the Monroe Doctrine. That country is England.



England, Parasite of Asia

THE crazy quilt map of Southeast Asia was given its pattern in the course of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The powerful empires of the Moguls in India and the Manchus in China were on the decline when the seafaring powers of Europe began to establish themselves along the coasts of Asia. In India, the initial English settlements on the coast gradually were extended until the entire country was subjected to foreign rule. In China, however, matters did not take this course, although the plan to partition that huge nation among European powers was entertained even in 1900. The peak of Anglo-French power in China was reached and passed during the World War. The positions still held in China by the Western Powers are nevertheless a stumbling block which seriously hinders East Asia's exercise of her right of self-determination.

China, even though the foreign settlements may be temporarily useful to her nationalists, resents these settlements and European influence and regards both as an obstacle to the realization of her own cultural leadership. Japan, convinced that it is her task to organize East Asia on a new, logical basis of co-operation, objects even more strongly.

The English and French settlements in the important centers of Tientsin and Shanghai are a powerful, uncontrollable and to some extent occult influence in China's commercial and financial affairs and intellectual life. Farther south, Hongkong, leased by England and strongly fortified, is an outpost whose location on the entrance to Canton, the great port of South China, makes it an invaluable strategic and commercial stronghold. French-held Kwangchow, farther west, is less important; as for Hainan, French rights to that island virtually lapsed when it was occupied by Japan.

The disintegration of the great Manchu Empire, revealed by conditions on the Chinese coast, is made even more evident by conditions in Indo-China. Burma, as well as parts of French Indo-China, formerly recognized China's suzerainty. It was not until about 1880 that Tonkin, Annam, Cochin, and Cambodia were annexed by France, and that England took away the independence of the peaceful Buddhist kingdom of Burma. Siam, caught between the two, was forced to cede much territory to both her neighbors. England further obtained control of large slices of the Malay Peninsula. She was already firmly entrenched on the Straits of Malacca. Successor by force to valuable Portuguese and Dutch holdings, she controlled the important bases of Penang and Malacca and erected the master naval fortress of Singapore on an island. The surrounding districts, composed of native sultanates, being rich in rubber and tin, were placed under British control and invested with the title, "Federated Malay States."

In Borneo, great Sunda island, rich in oil, England holds the North. In addition, the island is graced with a "white Maharaja"; the ruler of Sarawak enjoys the tolerance, and does the bidding, of England. In the equatorial area, a chain of Dutch and American possessions projects into the sphere of British power which extends to the Southeast, through New Guinea and Australia to New Zealand, and farther out to the multitude of islands in the Southern Pacific, most of which are ruled by England and some by France.

The contrast between the sparsely settled great open spaces of Australia and the overpopulated coastal regions of Asia's monsoon lands constitutes one of the most significant problems in world politics today and in the immediate future.



India: "Divide and Rule"

INDIA is the greatest prize in the English imperialist system. English possession of India rests on the domination of the land itself, on the control of such important neighbor areas as Burma and Baluchistan, and on absolute naval mastery in the Indian Ocean and the adjacent seas. Of these latter seas England has assured herself by the acquisition of strongholds on all important straits and passages. The South African points of Cape Town and Simon's Town; Zanzibar and Mombasa in East Africa; Aden and Perim on the entrance to the Red Sea; Bahrein, Maskat and Oman on the Persian Gulf; Ceylon, the Straits Settlements of Penang, Malacca and Singapore; Port Darwin in North Australia and Mauritius—all these points are a veritable circle of English bases surrounding the Indian Ocean. They all serve to protect English rule in India.

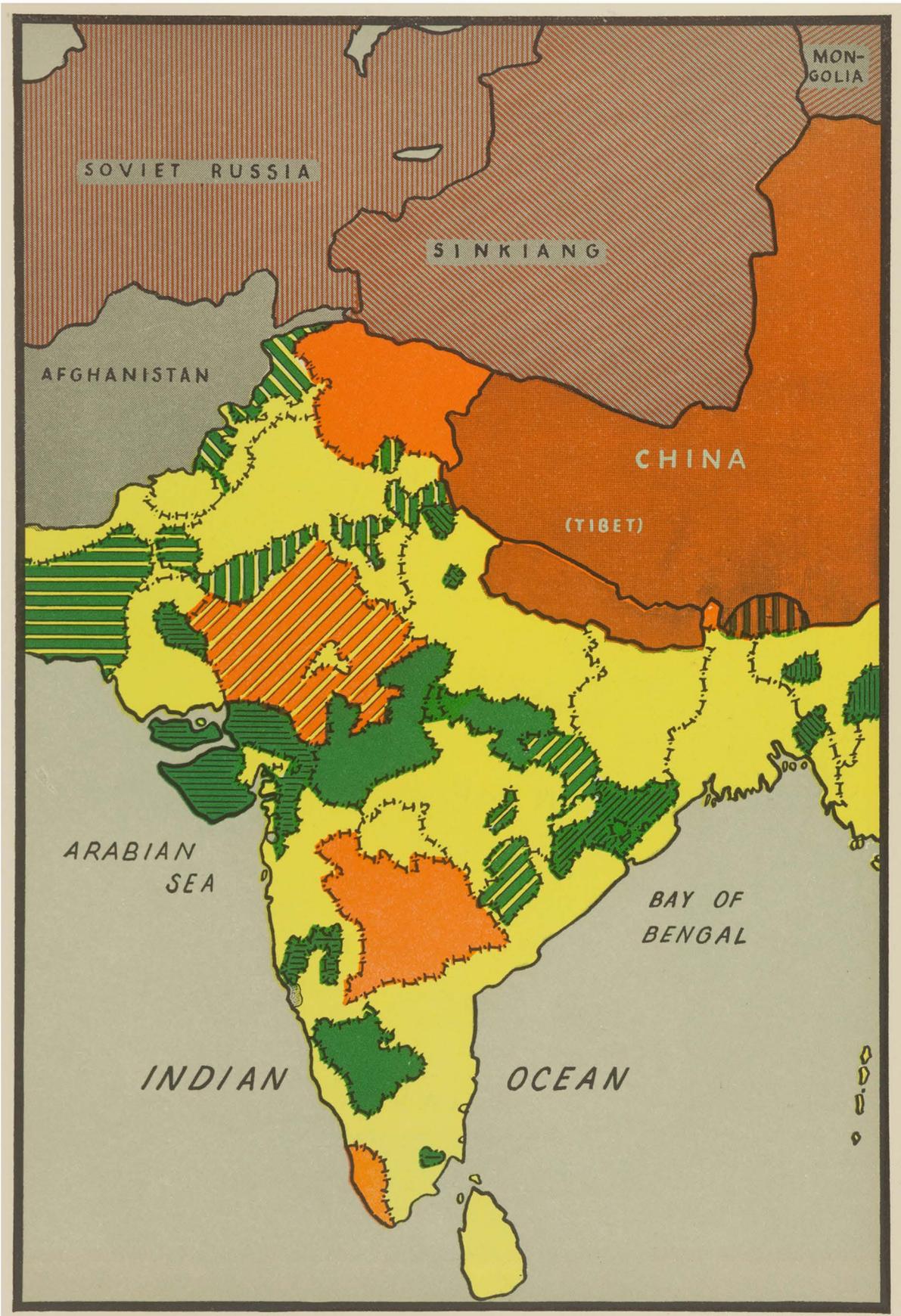
By stressing linguistic and ethnical divisions, by using social and religious differences, and especially by exploiting the antagonism between Hindoos and Mohammedans, England manages to keep alive and to increase internal strife. This policy enables her to rule over the three hundred and fifty millions of India with the aid of no more than a few hundred thousand Englishmen.

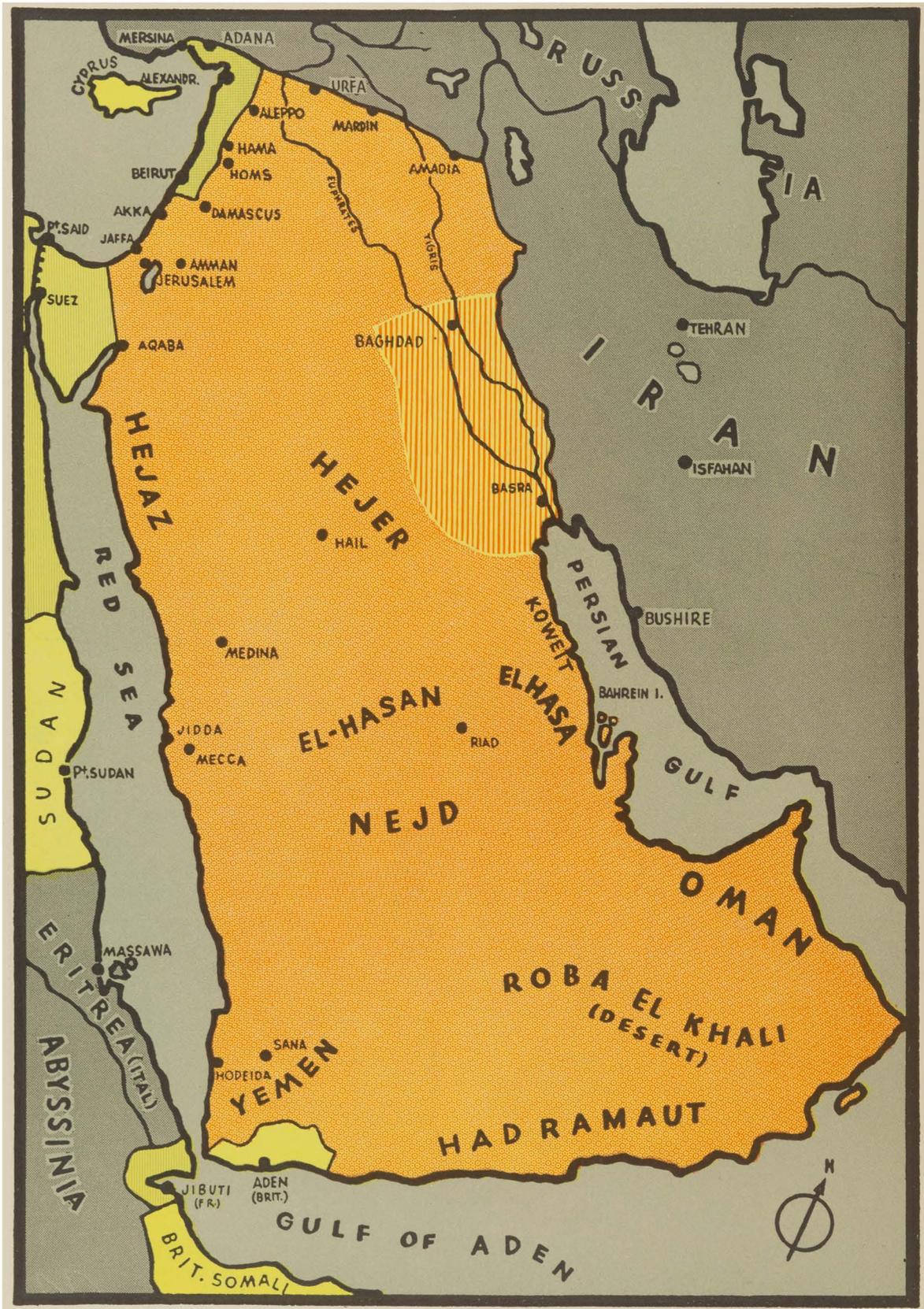
The map of India reflects the principle of "Divide and Rule." Under direct British rule are the eleven Provinces, the largest and most valuable districts, the west coast (Bombay) and the east coast (Madras), Hindustan proper with the Ganges and Brahmaputra lowlands (Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Agra and Oudh), the border land of the Northwest (Panjab), and the territory at the mouth of the Indus (Sindh). While the population has been given some pretense of limited self-government, any provincial Governor has the right, frequently exercised, to veto

acts of parliament and of individual governments. Moreover, the principal means of rule—control of foreign affairs, finances, and the army—are the privilege, not of the government, but of the English Viceroy.

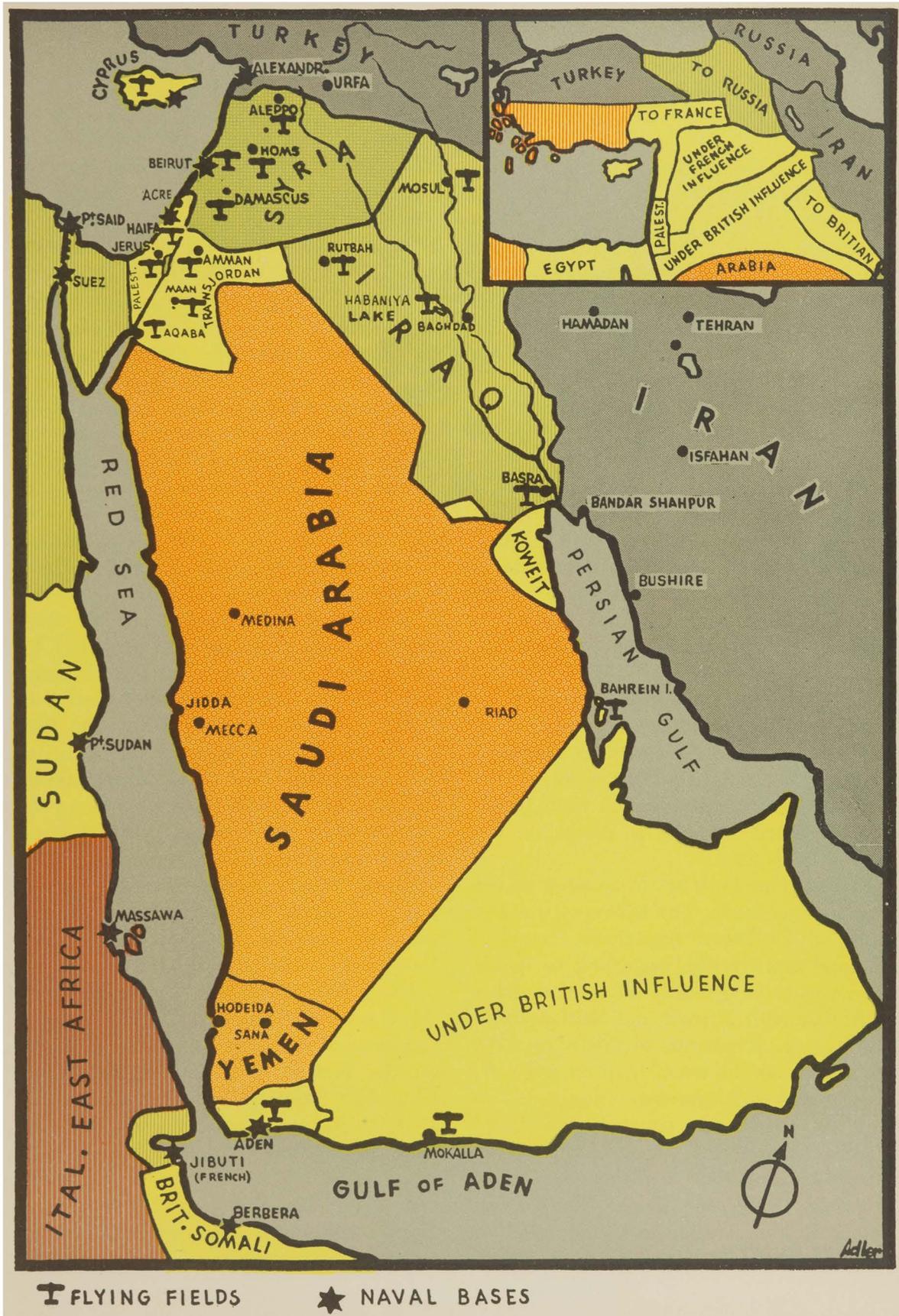
The Viceroy has charge of the Indian principalities, large numbers of which England allows to survive. These principalities are a motley lot. While some of the "states" consist of a few villages, others cover large areas and number several million subjects. Such valuable vassals of the English Crown are, among others, Travancore and Mysore in the South, Hyderabad in Central Deccan, Baroda and Udaipore in Rajputana, and Kashmir in the North.

Within their states, the Princes have a certain amount of freedom of action. English rule keeps in the background, or appears at their sides in the person of "permanent advisers." In more recent times, the Princes have acted as willing tools of England in her fight to prevent the unification of India by her national leaders. The Himalaya States of Nepal and Bhutan occupy a special position; they enjoy full independence in respect to home affairs, but have no foreign policy of their own. Nepal, which supplies the famous Gurkha soldiers, is of some importance to England's military rule of India. Among the Provinces under direct English rule, the Northwest boundary occupies a unique position. Since there is always some trouble going on in these restless mountainous regions facing Afghanistan, the area is ruled under emergency laws most of the time. England has tried to conquer Afghanistan, and the southeastern part of Iran as well. Today the territorial buffers of India are Baluchistan in the West, Burma in the East, and Tibet, which grants certain privileges to Great Britain.





1915: England's Promise; Sherif Hussein's Greater Arabia



1919: How England Kept Her Word
The Sykes-Picot Plan (Top, right)

Arabs Duped by England

SHORTLY after the beginning of the World War, the English did all they could to make sure of the help of the Arabs and to goad their princes into open rebellion against Turkish suzerainty. In 1915, Sir Henry McMahon, British High Commissioner in Cairo, began negotiations to this end with Sherif Hussein who, from his seat in Mecca, ruled Hejaz. On October 24, 1915, these conversations were concluded by a letter, from McMahon to the Arab ruler, which has since become famous.

This letter exactly defined the boundaries of the proposed great Arab Empire. England would keep its small possession at Aden, and have a limited zone of influence in Mesopotamia. France was to get nothing but a coastal strip in Syria extending slightly south of Beirut. On the basis of these binding assurances, the Arabs entered the World War in the fall of 1915 and began their famous campaign together with Colonel Lawrence. The great Arab Empire that had been promised to Sherif Hussein is shown on the map on page 38.

English treachery set in as soon as the promise was made. The first step was the secret Sykes-Picot Agreement between England and France, according to which there was to be a totally different division of Arabia with French and British zones of influence. The terms of this agreement are shown on the small map on page 39. The Sykes-Picot Agreement, concluded on May 16, 1916, rode roughshod over all promises made the Arabs in the letter written by McMahon. But this was not all. In the following year, England, in the notorious Balfour Declaration, undertook to give the Jews a National Home in Pales-

tine. The territory thus promised the Jews had been unconditionally promised to the Arabs in 1915.

At the end of the World War, few of the promises made to the Arabs were redeemed. During the Peace Conference, King Feisal, the son of Sherif Hussein, and Colonel Lawrence dashed from one Paris hotel to the next, hoping against hope to save the wreckage. Scorn and derision were their only reward.

The final division of the Near East between France and England did not occur without violent struggles. The map on page 39 shows the grotesque contrast between the original promise and its later "fulfilment." In the north of Arabia, Syria was sliced off and converted into a French mandate (see text and map on pages 42-43). Palestine was made an English mandate. To the east, the artificial state of Trans-Jordan was created; Emir Abdallah, a brother of Feisal, was put on its throne and forthwith placed the "country" under English control. Still farther eastward the Iraq mandate was created. While this territory was granted independence in 1932, its newly won statehood remained entirely academic, since English military occupation, in Iraq as in Trans-Jordan and Palestine, continued.

Large English flying fields were established on the shores of Lake Habaniya to the west of the Euphrates, and at Basra on the Persian Gulf. In Arabia proper, King Ibn Saud of Riyadh managed, in 1924 to 1925, to conquer Hejaz. But even here, British power politics had its way. Small but important Aqaba, on the north end of the Red Sea, and the big area of Hadramaut in the south of Arabia, were withheld.

The Partition Plan of Palestine

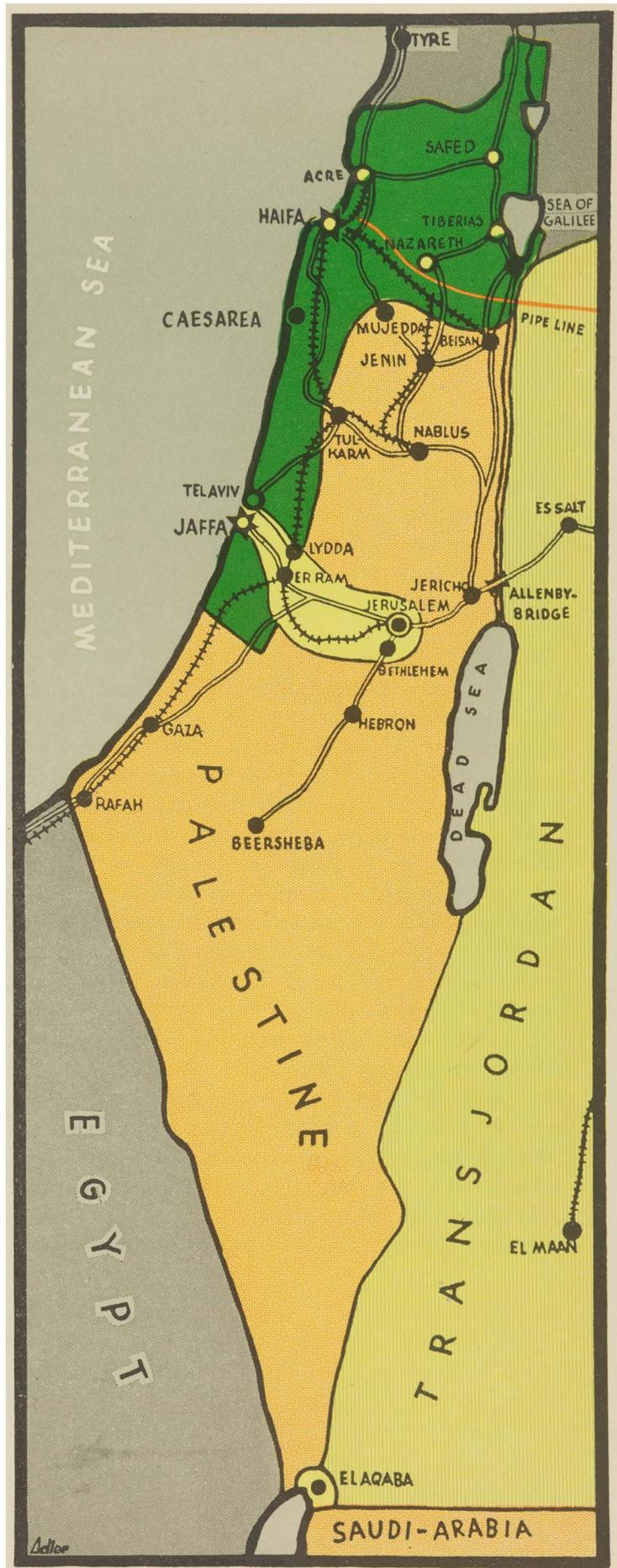
THE traditional British principle of "Divide and Rule" was brought to a grotesque climax in the plan to divide Palestine into three parts. Lord Peel, Chairman of a Committee of Investigation, laid the plan before the House of Commons in June, 1937. Since April, 1936, the Arabs of Palestine had demonstrated by a general strike and a fanatical uprising their violent opposition to further Jewish immigration which was likely to force them gradually out of their country. Lord Peel thereupon proposed to divide this tiny country, about the size of Connecticut, into three units: one for the Arabs, one for the British, one for the Jews. The proposed Jewish state is pictured in *green* on the accompanying map, the British mandate in *yellow*, the remnant for the Arabs in *brown*.

It becomes clear at once that the three areas projected would be unable to survive, and that there would have been a splendid opportunity for the English to use the Jews against the Arabs, and the Arabs against the Jews. No better plan was offered at the London Palestine Conference in 1939.

Lord Peel's "Divide and Rule" bill will go down in history as another proof of England's unwillingness to give serious consideration to problems of nationalities and racial issues. Had the Peel plan been adopted, the proposed Jewish state would have contained 300,000 Arabs.

On June 22, 1940, the British government entered into a new compact with the Zionist organization. This agreement, which again reveals total disregard of Arab rights, goes far beyond the "National Home" promised in 1917 (and never granted). The whole of Palestine, except the desert in the south, and, in addition, valuable parts of Syria belonging, or rather "mandated" to France (at that time an active ally of England), constituted the proposed new Zionist state. The barter of Syria is typical of that traditional English generosity which gladly gives away lands that do not belong to Great Britain. Additional evidence of this spirit is the promise of Abyssinian districts to the Zionists.

The plan to partition Palestine is a typical attempt to split up a large space into small, helpless parts. Such plans are fostered by people who, like the originators of England's war aims against Germany, are less interested in the growth of nationalities than in their destruction. These are the ideas of a world that is no more and never will be again.



Syria Split by France

AT the close of the World War, France, an able pupil of Great Britain, took over the principle of dismembering organic entities and applied it to Syria. The adjacent map shows the Syrian mandate and its dismemberment by French politics into a number of pigmy states to be set against one another. The Lebanon State was formed around Beirut, capital of the mandate, and along the ridge of the Lebanon; it was given a government of its own. Its separation from the Syrian hinterland was justified by the wish to protect the Christian Arabs, the so-called Maronites, of that area against the Mohammedans.

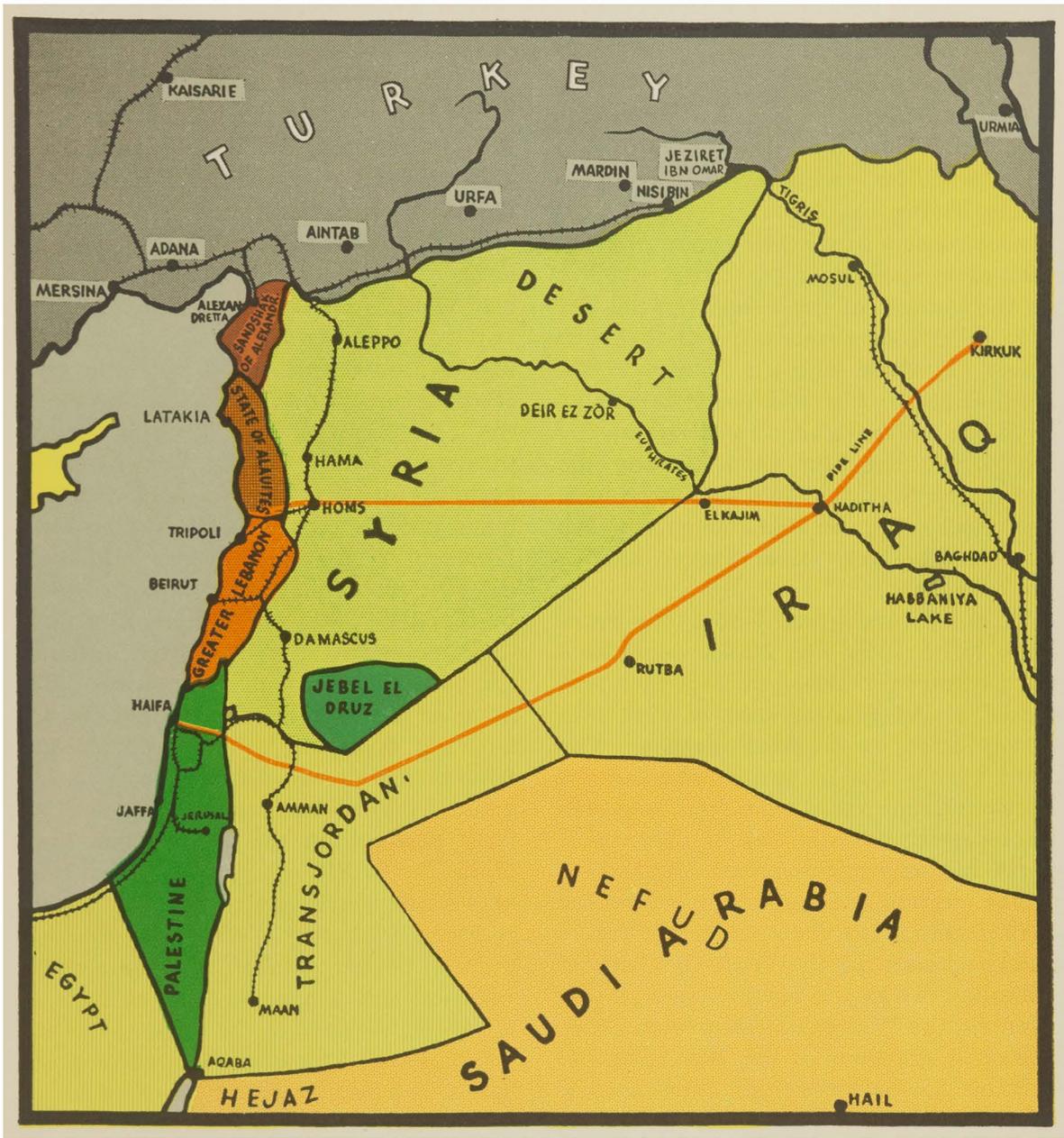
North of the Lebanon, the Aluite Territory became another section independent of Central Syria. Alexandrette, a district adjoining the Aluite Territory, was bartered away to Turkey in 1938. The Sanjak of Alexandrette lived through a peculiar chain of vicissitudes: it was first transformed into the "independent" State of Hatay; then a mixed commission from the League of Nations came and covered itself with ridicule; finally, the deal with Turkey was completed by formal annexation, on June 23, 1939. A further territory provided with independent status was that of the Druses, in Southeastern Syria. Another was Djesireh. The purpose behind this mice-like breeding of midget states was to reduce Syria, and its nationalist element in Damascus, the seat of government of Syria proper, to incompetence.

In November, 1936, the Popular Front

Government in Paris promised the Syrians independence within three years from the signing of the Franco-Syrian Treaty. The treaty was actually drawn up at that time in Paris, but it has never been formally signed by any French government, with the result that the Arabs of Syria have been cheated out of their freedom. The irony of the matter is that the Syrians are the most civilized people of Arabia.

In 1939, Syria was made a base of concentration for the French Army. Under the command of General Weygand, Senegalese, Moroccans, Arabs from Algeria and Tunis, Indo-Chinese and white troops were assembled. The sixth German White Book, published early in July, 1940, has given proof that the object of this army and of its air force was to attack the Russian oil fields around Baku. France's main base of operations was to be the Djesireh sector in East Syria. But events moved too swiftly. In May, 1940, General Weygand was appointed Generalissimo in France. His successor in Syria, General Mittelhauser, after a moment of hesitation, gave his allegiance to the Petain government and placed himself under its orders. Hostilities in Syria were ended before they began.

Britain's intention to bring Syria under her control persists. It was openly voiced after the British assault on the French Fleet at Oran. Britain's plan to incorporate Syria into her Near Eastern system will not die while her piratical imperialism survives.



England, Intruder in the Mediterranean

THE peoples who have possessions on the shores of the Mediterranean may be divided into three groups: (1) those who live exclusively in the region of the Mediterranean and are entirely dependent upon it for connections by sea with other countries; (2) those who live on the borders of the Mediterranean but have other coastal territories at their disposal; (3) those who are foreign to the Mediterranean, but who use it as a thoroughfare and have acquired bases in this region. To the first group belong the Turks, the Slavic peoples in the Balkans (and, indirectly, the Rumanians), and the Greeks. The only great Power in this group is Italy.

To the second group belong the Spaniards and French. The Arabs would be a third member of this group—if they possessed an independent state of their own at any point on the Mediterranean. The third group, that of nations alien to the Mediterranean basin, who, from imperialist motives, have lorded it over those parts, has only one member: England.

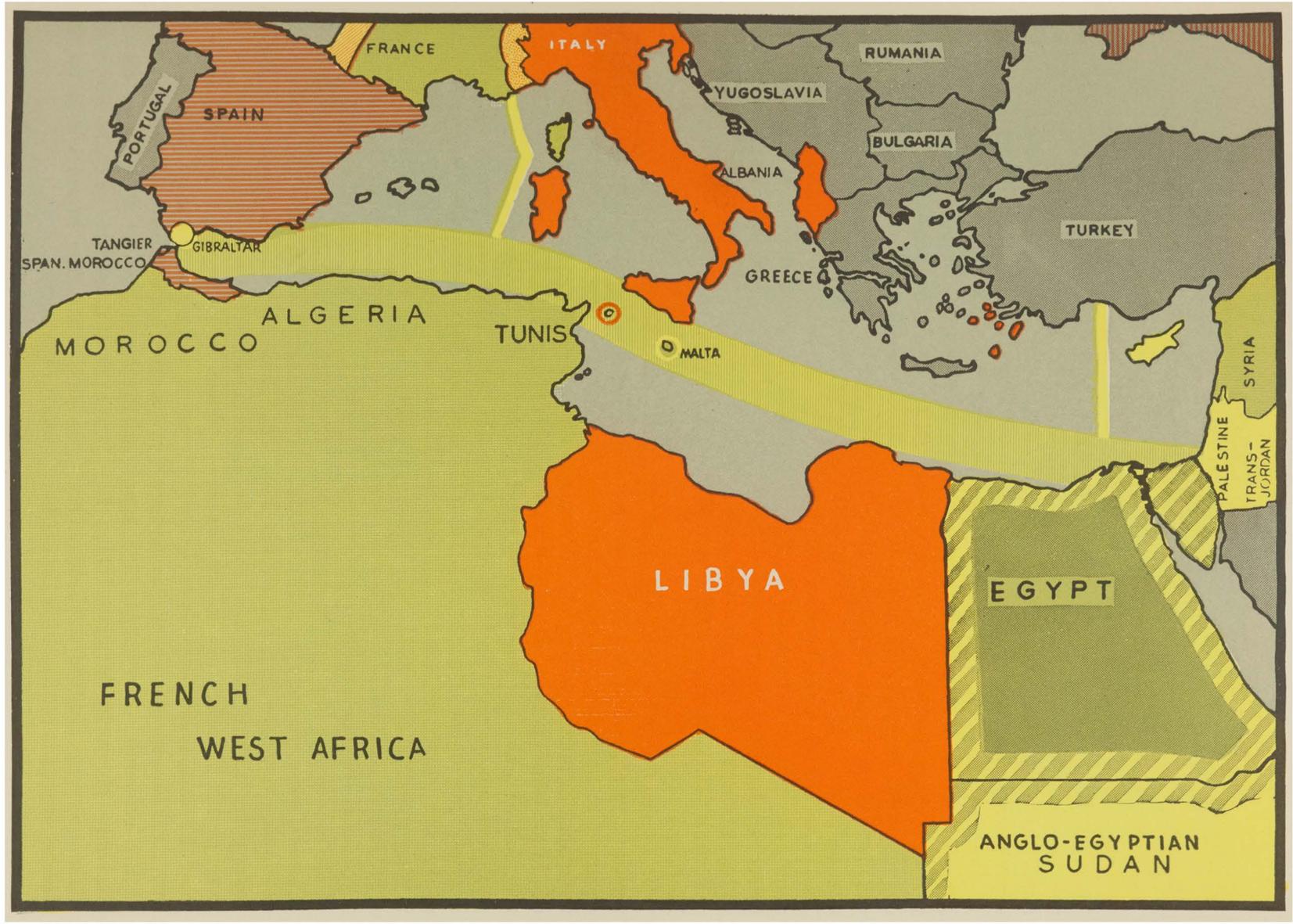
The western and eastern gates from the Mediterranean to the open ocean are in English hands. In the West the Rock of Gibraltar blocks the narrow passage that connects the Western Mediterranean with the open Atlantic. In the East, England controls not only the Suez Canal but the important lands that lie on both sides. For sixty years Egypt has been an English zone of influence and supremacy. To be sure, Egypt has been left the outer shells of independence, but on land, on the sea, and in the air England sees to it that no movement within Egypt can jeopardize English supremacy over the Suez Canal in any way. Not far off is Alexandria,

Britain's powerful naval base west of the Canal. Its counterparts to the North are Haifa, terminal of the Mosul pipe line, and Cyprus, taken from the Turks in 1878 and inhabited mostly by Greeks.

But the British controls of the Mediterranean are not confined to the East and the West. In the passage between the two great basins is the island group of Malta, a powerful control over the main Mediterranean route. In the eastern basin, the French stronghold of Syria supplements the British position. In the western basin France has appropriated an enormous stretch of the south shores from Morocco *via* Algeria to Tunis, with land of great economic value and such important fortified bases as Oran and Bizerta.

The population of the Atlas areas is composed of Berbers and Arabs. The number of European immigrants is not large; of these the Italians in Tunis outnumber the French. Corsica, with its impetuous inhabitants, occupies a controlling flank position on the French line from Marseilles to Algiers. The island has been in French hands since the end of the eighteenth century. With its strategic position between Italian Sardinia and the Ligurian and Tuscany coasts of Italy, it is a threat directed at the vitals of Italy.

Clearly, an uncommon degree of domination has been won and practiced in the Mediterranean by two Powers, one an alien to that region, the other with numerous other exits to the ocean. This state of things worked to the disadvantage of the countries to which these shores belong. Cramped by the intruder, they have a common interest in the elimination of English control from the historic Mediterranean Sea.



Paul Reynaud's Second Versailles

ON March 16, 1940, the Paris periodical, *L'Illustration*, appeared with a title page that would not ordinarily attract much comment. It furnished the reader a peep into the office of Paul Reynaud, then Minister of Finance, but already training for the jump into the chair of Premier of France. Sumner Welles, President Roosevelt's special envoy on a tour of investigation through Europe, was calling on M. Reynaud. He hoped to hear the views of government circles regarding Anglo-French war aims. The map of Europe mounted in the back of M. Reynaud's office must have made the hermeneutics of these aims a great deal simpler. (The gentleman seated near the map is the American Chargé d'Affaires, Mr. Murphy.)

The journal and its title page were on the brink of slipping into oblivion when it occurred to someone in Italy to enlarge the map. The result was sensational. Some slip in the censor's office had let out a picture full of jealously guarded secrets; it was the map of the "New Europe" of London and Paris. The innermost secret of the alliance was revealed in its embarrassing splendor.

M. Reynaud's map, in brief, reveals the following: The contemplated annexation of the entire left bank of the Rhine by France. Poland appears as a giant state, swallowing not only East Prussia but extending far to the west, with the Oder river as its boundary up to the Baltic coast. Czechoslovakia extends to Leipzig. Bavaria is amputated. The Reich consists of the remnants of Prussia. The new Hapsburg Monarchy includes Italian Istria and Venetia. Holland and Belgium are merged. Russia is pushed back behind her

pre-1939 boundaries. A more striking revelation of the plans which led to the outbreak of this war would be difficult to imagine. What a job of chopping up and parceling out! Italy was to be mutilated, the German nation was to be mangled beyond the faintest possibility of ever again becoming a political factor.

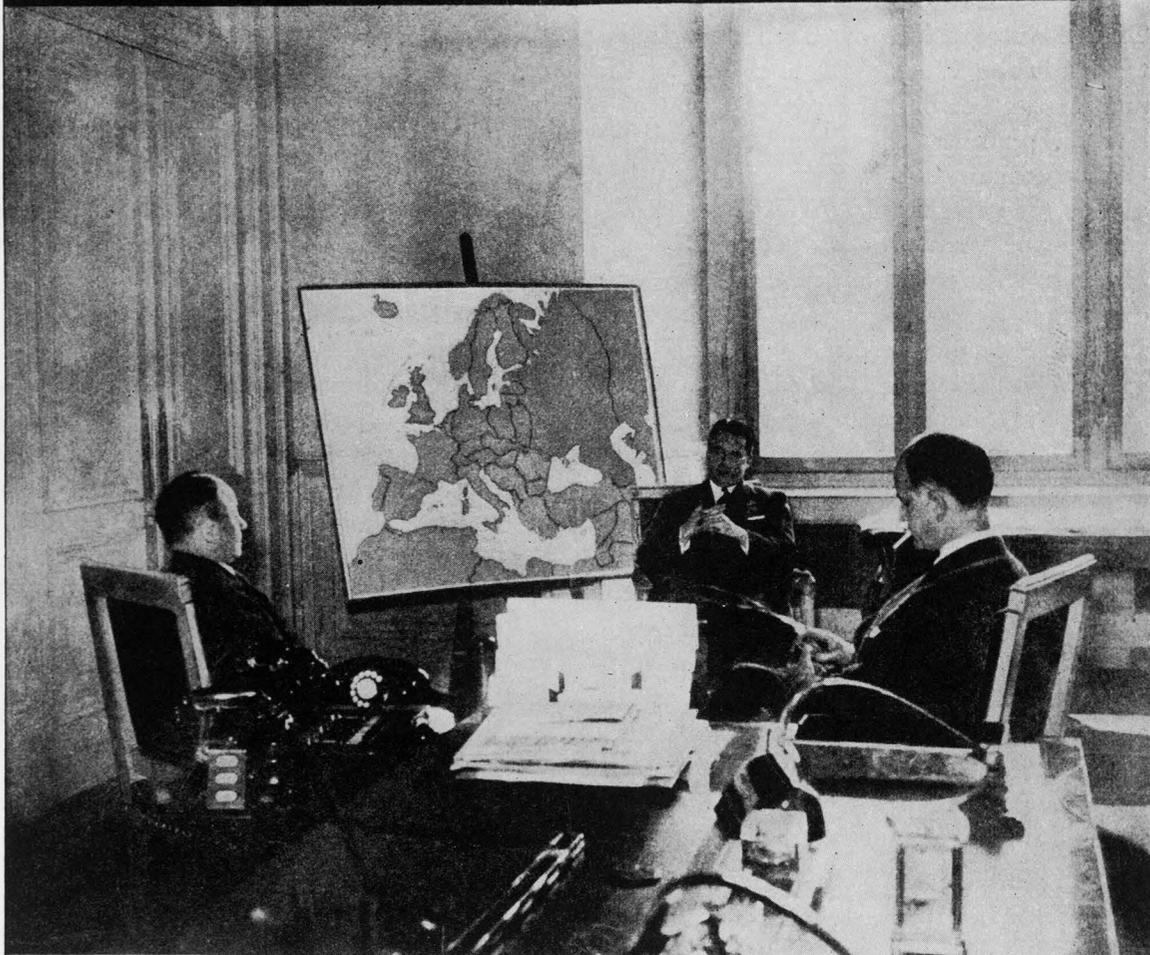
And Reynaud? He had enjoyed a somewhat ambiguous chiaroscuro. Suddenly, the spotlight was turned on him. His embarrassment was that of a thief caught in the act. In his predicament, pitiful to behold, he began to splutter denials. The more he talked the more thoroughly he enmeshed himself. His first version was that it was all "the photographer's fault." To give his shot "more relief," the artist had dashed a few dozen fantastic boundaries into the picture of the map.

Now this denial was really such an incompetent job that people everywhere shook with laughter. Reynaud had to call in the foreign press and swear to them, himself, that he was a much maligned man and that all that was the matter with the map was that it was old—"before the Austrian *Anschluss*, you know."

Now, now! M. Reynaud, that able, up-to-date executive, with an old map on his easel for his war aims talk with President Roosevelt's personal envoy! And on the map, Austria with a coast line on the Adriatic Sea! And East Prussia as a Polish province!

Poor Paul Reynaud should have invented a more plausible fib. Nevertheless, we forgive his blunder, and render a vote of thanks to him for showing so clearly the work of those strange cooks who were brewing what they hoped would be the second Versailles.

L'ILLUSTRATION



CONVERSATION DE M. PAUL REYNAUD AVEC M. SUMNER WELLES AU MINISTÈRE DES FINANCES
(au fond, de face, M. Murphy, chargé d'affaires des États-Unis)

Voix les pages 251 et 264.

**The Famous Title Page of *L'Illustration* of March 16, 1940,
with Reynaud's Map of Europe**

Where Reynaud got his "Plan for Europe"

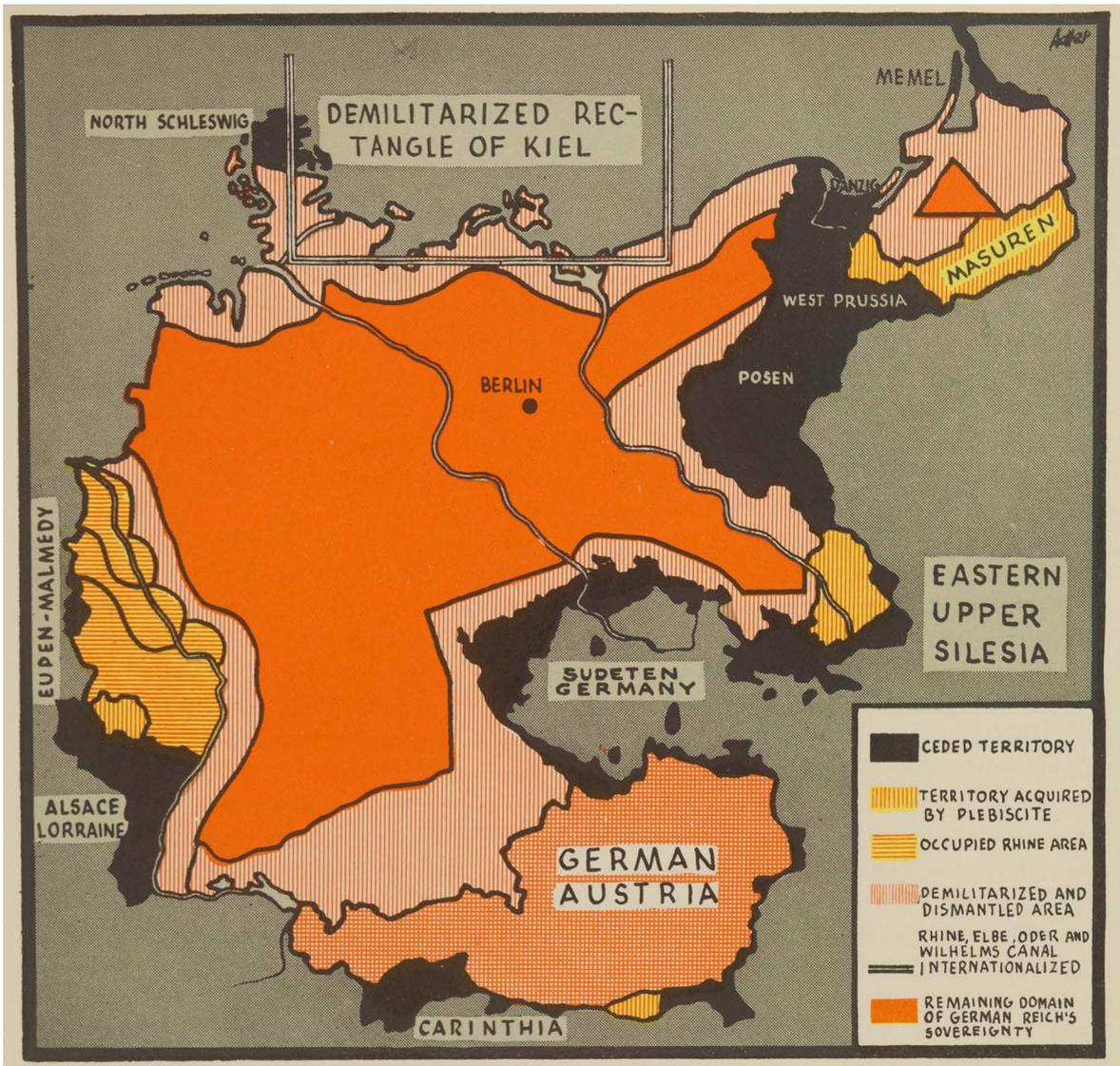
THERE is not much that is new in Paul Reynaud's "New Europe." It reflects the old aim of French politics that triumphed with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648: the smashing of Central Europe into a number of impotent little states. The disintegration of Germany as intended in the World War is shown by the map at the bottom, the reproduction of a French plan for the dismemberment of Germany and Austria-Hungary. The title of this map reads: *L'Europe future de demain: demembrement des empires Allemand et Austro-Hongrois, decheance du royaume de Prusse.*

The Peace dictated in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles on June 28, 1919, was to afford the opportunity for reaching this goal. Germany was to be kept forever as powerless as she was in the hour of her greatest humiliation. Fourteen million Germans were placed under foreign domination. The incomplete German Reich, founded in 1871, lost thirteen per cent of its area. And 6,300,000 citizens, about one-tenth of its population. Germany was not only robbed of territory, but rendered defenceless as well. They were forced to destroy their arms, to submit to the control of foreign states, and to dismantle their fortifications. They were forbidden to fortify their boundaries, or to garrison troops near them. German sovereignty did not extend beyond the *red* area in the map at the top of page 49.

But even this devilish job did not satisfy French chauvinism. France's classical policy, which was still that of its master, Richelieu, was to re-introduce the "solution" of 1648. In his *pro memoria* of November 11, 1918,—the notorious *Mem-*

oire I—the well-known French historian, Gabriel Hanotaux, outlines the program in these words: "The ideal thing for world peace would be a Prussia reduced to its simplest expression, with a Germany consisting of six or eight states having a population of five to ten million each, and having among themselves no other political bond than a common parliament with exceedingly limited authority." Hanotaux continues: "The true boundary of Germany is not the Rhine but the Elbe. If you want to make a French peace, occupy the Rhine; if you want to make a peace of universal significance, occupy the Elbe." In his colleague, the historian Jacques Bainville, Hanotaux found a warm supporter. In his works—they went through many editions—there is always this basic theme: "The work of 1919 is incomplete, bad, illogical. Although it cuts off the rim, it leaves a German Reich in the center."

Frenchmen and Englishmen who provoked the war of 1940 were obviously determined to take this criticism to heart, and not repeat the mistake of Versailles. The half measures of 1919 would then be replaced by a permanent solution. The rescue of civilization, the safety of all nations on earth, the liberation of the world from imperialism and militarism, and all the other noble aims of their much advertised crusade were nothing but the usual hypocritical incantations of Western propaganda, a mask behind which hides, in England, the jingo lust for further enlargement of the Empire; and in France, the wish to *empêcher le bloc germanique*—to prevent German unity at any price whatever.



The Versailles "Solution"



The Division of Spoils Planned in 1915

The Battle of Flanders

THE first phase of the offensive in the West has already passed into history as the greatest battle of annihilation of all times. In twenty-five days the German Army forced Holland and Belgium to capitulate and destroyed the picked armies of France and the British Expeditionary Force in Flanders and Artois. Victory was complete in the fullest sense of the term. The achievement of the German armed forces is all the more miraculous since before the battle of annihilation could begin, fortifications had to be taken which seemed to be endowed with the halo of invincibility.

During the first two days of the offensive, the German Army in a gigantic thrust broke the chain of border fortifications of Holland and Belgium, crossed the Albert Canal, and cut through Luxemburg. The unparalleled force of the attack, and the direction of the advance, led the enemy to do precisely what the German High Command wanted: He rushed the majority of his best troops, especially his motorized units which had long been held in readiness for the planned invasion of the Ruhr valley, into Central Belgium in order to halt the German advance at the Dyle and Scheldt position. While in the North the battle for this position was already raging, there occurred a flash of lightning from the clouds of battle, the decisive crossing of the Meuse, all the way from Namur to Charleville, and the smashing of the Maginot extension. These attacks were made in co-operation between formidable airforce units and armored divisions. Before the enemy had fully realized his danger, the armored divisions, closely followed by infantry, plunged through the breach and forced their

way to the sea. At the peak of the battle, in a manner characteristic of military genius, the Führer threw more and more divisions into the breach, protected the south flank, met the threatening danger of a break in the line, and after the iron ring was closed, tightened it into a steel clamp.

Holland had surrendered on the fifth day of the offensive. On the eighteenth day the King of Belgium saw the senselessness of trying to fight on, and capitulated. The deathly ring closed on the French and English. Sharp thrusts split up the surrounded units and destroyed organized resistance.

In the narrow ring around Dunkirk the curtain was raised on the last act of this great drama. The English were the first to give up; true to their traditions, they left to the French the task of protecting their retreat and began to flee across the Channel. But it now became evident that the Air Force had closed the ring from the sea. Sixty-six transport ships were destroyed by German bombs, 117 damaged or partly destroyed. The gray waters of the Channel were a scene of death. On June 4, the twenty-fifth day of the offensive, victory was complete.

Dauntless gallantry, and masterly control of the most modern material, was shown by all troops. The achievement of the command approached genius. The victory in Flanders separated the two Allies, England and France. It allowed the complete defeat of France, which was accomplished in the following battle. And with the Channel coast in German hands, a formidable base for the fight against England was won. It was a victory that may prove decisive.

The Battle of France

THE battle of final decision in France followed the Battle of Flanders without a moment's delay. It ended with the crushing defeat of all the armies of France. While the armies trapped in the ring around Dunkirk were being annihilated, General Weygand had built up a deep line of field fortifications and conceived new tactics against the dreaded break-through of German mechanized units. The German High Command adapted itself to this new method of defense and speedily overcame it. The German goal of operations—to conquer the “Weygand Zone,” to push the broken French forces back to the Southwest and Southeast, then to annihilate them—was achieved.

The right wing, soon after it had broken through the Somme sector, converted the battle into a pursuit, reached the Seine, captured Rouen, and encircled a strong enemy force at St. Valéry and Dieppe. Moving along the coast toward Le Havre, Cherbourg and Brest, the German right wing pushed past Paris toward the Loire; by the time the Armistice was concluded, it had reached the mouth of the Gironde.

The main operations of the center began on June 9 in Champagne and on the west bank of the Meuse. Here too the infantry divisions, by taking the Aisne position after bitter fighting, opened the way for the tanks. The German troops crossed the Marne. Simultaneously, with well-nigh incredible speed, the motorized divisions thrust through the breach, tore through the Champagne, reached the plateau of Langres, and laid down a line clear across France to the Swiss border at Pontarlier. The entire Maginot sector was cut off, and

a final, tremendous battle of encirclement was made possible. The lightning-like operation is one of the most daring exploits in military history. In the meantime, the army facing Paris broke down one obstacle after another. On June 14, German troops entered the French capital.

On this date, the assault against the “invincible Maginot Line” was launched along the entire front of the left wing. That miracle crumbled. In no more than a few days, France's great bastion was broken by the German Army and Air Force. The days from June 15 to 20 further saw the storming of the powerful stronghold on the Upper Rhine, the entrance into the Vosges Mountains, and the occupation of Colmar, Mülhausen and Belfort. On the evening before the “cease firing” of the Armistice, the fate of the French armies in the Maginot area, which had been cut into a number of sections, was sealed by unconditional surrender. Not one of the armies of France escaped complete defeat.

On June 17, Marshal Pétain asked for the Reich's armistice terms. In the Forest of Compiègne, where in 1918 Marshal Foch had so shamefully humiliated the unbeaten German Army, a solemn ceremony in the presence of the Führer blotted out the mortal insult of 1918. The Armistice took military and political necessities into account, but its terms left the honor of the defeated opponent intact. The Armistice was signed on June 22 at 6:50 P.M. Hostilities ceased on June 25 at 1:35 A.M. What remained of the French armies was eliminated from further participation in the war.



Advance of German Army from June 5, 1940, to Armistice at Compiègne

The Long-Distance Blockade: A Boomerang

INGLORIOUS hunger blockades, and cowardly assaults on weaker opponents, are the traditional war policy of Britain. The England of 1940 runs true to form, though it is now itself caught in the iron ring of a blockade. The sole remaining hope, to which English statesmen cling with remarkable tenacity, is the belief that after the loss of the mother country through German invasion the war can be fought on from Canada, and that the collective strength of Britain's world-wide Empire can be concentrated into a blockade against the European Continent. That such a hope could be entertained, after British naval supremacy succeeded neither in carrying out the smaller blockade against Germany nor in protecting the Island of England, is one of the astonishing features of this war.

To make the blockade of Germany effective, it was only necessary for England to gain full control of the Dover Straits, scarcely more than 20 miles across, and of the North Sea exit between the Shetland Islands and Bergen, a distance of about 250 miles. If Germany tried to transport overseas goods *via* Italy, England's strongholds at Gibraltar and the Suez could effectively block such an attempt. The only blockade which might have been dangerous to Germany would have been that of the Black Sea, threatening needed lines of raw material supplies, particularly oil; however, England's repeated efforts to extend her blockade to that Sea have met with failure; and the end of the war in France has made so many German armies available that an English attempt to carry the war into the Balkans seems futile.

The blockade in the North Sea is broken. In Scandinavia and in France, the German armed forces stand directly on the open Atlantic. Instead of the short blockade line of 250 miles of the winter of 1939-

1940, there is now, even before the beginning of the offensive against the island of England, a line that reaches from Iceland to Gibraltar, a distance of some 2,200 miles. Strictly speaking, England would now have to extend her blockade all the way from Greenland to Morocco, or over nearly 2,800 miles. Now, if the English Fleet was unable to hold a blockade front of 250 miles, precisely how is it going to protect one ten times as long? All the more since it does not now enjoy the co-operation of the French Navy; a number of its units are engaged in the Mediterranean; and the Home Fleet must hold not only its battleships, but especially its smaller craft, such as destroyers, in readiness against the possibility of a German landing, so that these vessels cannot even be spared for much-needed patrol and convoy service on the Atlantic. As early as June, 1940, the demands on destroyers for the protection of the homeland were so great that the German submarines, with their bases on the French coast close to the British shipping lines, increased the sinking of enemy tonnage to such an extent that the successes of that arm during the spring of 1917 were dwarfed. In 1917, Admiral Jellicoe admitted that the supremacy of the sea had passed from the British Navy to the German submarines, at a time when Germany was still bottled up in the so-called "Wet Triangle" of the North Sea. At this writing, in 1940, with the European Continent almost entirely free of enemy forces, Germany and Italy have excellent chances of gaining mastery of the Eastern Atlantic.

With this situation, anything but rosy from their point of view, a small clique of British adventurers headed by Mr. Churchill, nevertheless, holds fast to its faith in the prospects of a long-distance blockade conducted from the Empire

against the entire European Continent, including England in case the island is conquered. In that event, the British Fleet would abandon its arsenals, docks and shipyards and withdraw to its overseas bases. It does not take much perspicacity to see that such a plan is impracticable. For these bases are not numerous. Leaving threatened Gibraltar out of the count, they comprise Halifax in Canada (Nova Scotia), Bermuda, Freetown in West Africa, Simonstown and Capetown in South Africa, and the Falkland Islands in the South Atlantic. Not a single one of these six bases has docks adequate for the use of battleships.

The British bases in the Atlantic have been used thus far exclusively for smaller ships. They would be insufficient even if a floating dock or two were established in South Africa or Canada. For England alone has eleven bases, not counting numerous shipyards and arsenals.

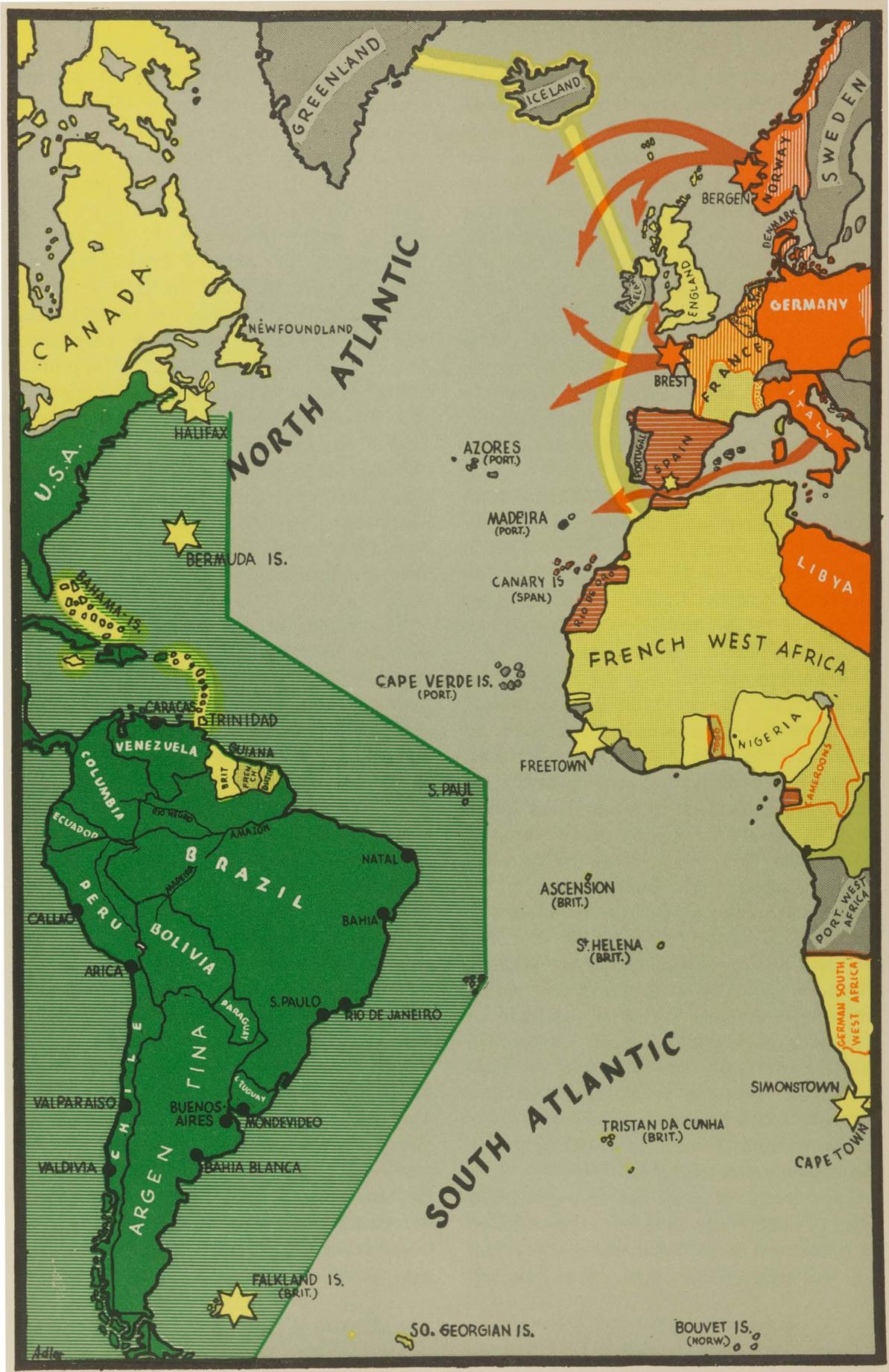
Nor is the painful shortage of bases the only difficulty; there would be, in addition, the necessity of spreading out over an enormous blockade line, extending at least from Newfoundland to the western tip of Africa, a distance of some 3,400 miles. If land connections are made through Africa, the line would have to be even longer, and it might be necessary to include the Indian Ocean in the blockade. Since it is utterly impossible for the British Fleet to maintain such an extended blockade line, the experiment would simply be tantamount to a blockade of American harbors in violation of the 300-mile security zone established by the Pan-American Conference. Not that such a venture would be incompatible with England's traditional methods in her fights for the "Freedom of Nations."

Considerations as to the strategic feasibility of such a blockade are supplemented by reflections as to its economic effects on the American Continent. An English

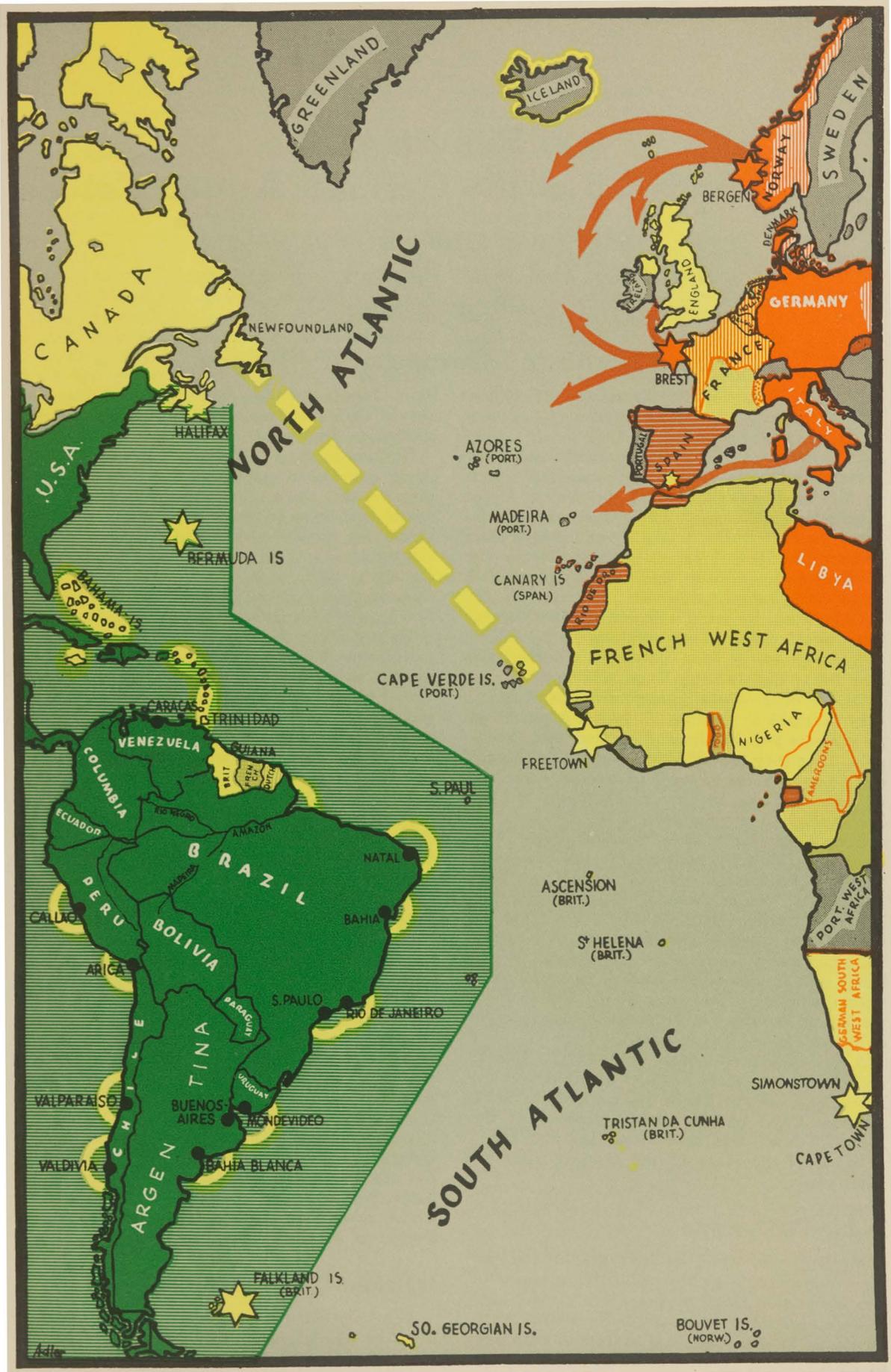
blockade against the whole of Europe would be equivalent to a blockade of America. For the American nations are dependent upon the European market in general and that of England in particular. Before the war, 65 per cent of Argentina's exports went to Europe, 27 per cent to England; 48 per cent of Brazil's exports, 37 per cent of those of the United States, 27 per cent from Mexico were destined for Europe. Countries in other continents would be similarly affected. India, half of whose exports normally go to Europe, or the Union of South Africa, with 87 per cent of its exports going to England and the Continent, would be faced with ruin. The City merchants have been saying, somewhat grandiloquently, that they would buy up all her commodities. But let the Island be lost, and they may be bankrupt.

The strongest objections to the long-distance blockade plan of the English plutocracy will be raised by the English people themselves. The war has already proved that Germany is not in danger of starving. Germany has become almost self-sufficient with respect to food. The situation has further improved since Southeast Europe can no longer be forced to export to England. But the English people must buy 80 per cent of their grain and 70 per cent of their meat and fats overseas. After an exodus of the Hundred Families and of the Fleet, the people would perish from starvation, a fate England imposed on the Boers in South Africa, and hoped to impose on the German people.

The curious project of the long-distance blockade will only speed up Germany's economic measures. Her goal is to make of Europe, with its African hinterland, a self-contained organism capable of withstanding any blockade. Future blockades will not harm Europe; but they will continue to inflict ruinous losses on overseas nations who need to export their surpluses.



The Blocking of the English Blockade



The Hopeless Long-Distance Blockade of Europe

Final Reports of the High Command of the German Armed Forces

On the German Campaigns in Poland,
Norway, Holland, Belgium, Flanders
and in France

The Lightning Campaign in Poland

Berlin, September 24, 1939

The High Command announces: The campaign in Poland is ended.

In a succession of battles of annihilation, the greatest and most decisive of which took place in the bend of the Vistula, the Polish Army numbering millions of men, was beaten, captured, or routed. Not a single one of the Polish divisions, active or reserve, and not a single one of their independently operating brigades and other units, escaped this fate.

Only fractions from a few individual formations avoided immediate annihilation by fleeing to the swamps of East Poland, where they are now being dissolved by Russian troops.

Of the entire Polish Army, only an insignificant remnant is fighting, in hopeless positions, at Warsaw and Modlin and on the Hela Peninsula. That they are still able to resist is entirely due to our resolve to avoid unnecessary sacrifice of our men and to our consideration for the Polish civilian population.

Since the spring of 1939, it became increasingly clear that Poland, banking on the assistance promised by foreign countries, would not even balk at the idea of pursuing its ambitious aims by armed conflict with Germany. We therefore carried out careful investigations to ascertain the probable military plans of Poland. Polish books and articles on the subject, in conjunction with the military measures of the Polish High Command, afforded a reasonably clear picture of the strategic plans involved.

A series of conferences between the Führer and the Commanders in Chief of the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force, their Chiefs of Staff, and the Chief of the High Command of the Armed Forces, was held to discuss and determine the basic ideas of the German counter-measures.

Poland's Designs

Merely by following Poland's general and military literature, a picture could be obtained of the chauvinist ideas of her citizens and high officials regarding the future of the Polish State. Demands in the press, and oratorical outbursts of high ranking officers, confirmed this impres-

sion. The deployment of the armed forces observed during Poland's mobilization may be regarded as final proof of her plans.

Underestimating Germany's powers of defense, the Polish command was under the impression that since a considerable German force would be needed in the West, Poland would be able to assume the offensive to some extent. Her central idea was to occupy the Free State of Danzig at once, to wage an attack from three sides on East Prussia, an island cut off from the Reich, and to conquer that province.

To this effect, the Polish forces were disposed as follows: North of Warsaw, an army strong enough either to check a German advance from East Prussia toward Warsaw or to wage an advance of its own. This Polish group was to be supported on the right flank by considerable forces capable of threatening East Prussia from the East, and on the left wing by a very strong army in the Corridor.

The purpose of this Corridor army was to occupy the Danzig Free State, and to proceed against East Prussia. In order to provide this operation with the necessary support in the rear, Poland's most powerful army was drawn up around Posen. In the event of a German attack against the Corridor, this army, with its superior forces, was to threaten the German flank. If necessary, it could also rush to the support of the weaker army deploying south of it. Because of its strength and of its central position around Posen, it could threaten by its mere presence the flank of any attack Germany might launch from middle Upper Silesia or Pomerania. The Polish Army of the South, in the Cracow-Lemberg (Lwow) area, was strong enough in the opinion of the Polish command to protect the important industrial districts. Depending on the course of the campaign, this army could be thrown into battle for such tasks as support of the other Polish armies or attack of the vital industrial district of German Upper Silesia.

German Plan of Operations

The objective of the German operations was to carry out an outflanking attack against the huge Polish Army concentrated in the great

bend of the Vistula, to compel this force to accept battle, and to annihilate it. To this effect, the Commander in Chief of the Army, Colonel General von Brauchitsch (Chief of the General Staff, General of Artillery Halder) formed two army groups: (1) the South Group under Colonel General von Rundstedt, with Lieutenant General von Manstein as Chief of Staff; (2) the North Group under Colonel General von Bock, with Lieutenant General von Salmuth as Chief of Staff. The South Group consisted of three armies, commanded by Colonel General List, General of Artillery von Reichenau, and General of Infantry Blaskowitz. The two armies of the North Group were headed by General of Artillery von Kluge and General of Artillery von Küchler.

The orders of the South Group instructed the Center Army of General von Reichenau to force a thrust from the Kreuzburg sector northeast to the Vistula. To protect the right flank of this army, the Army of Colonel General List was to advance east from Upper Silesia along the north fringe of the West Beskide mountains. Its task was to compel the Polish forces there to accept battle, then to outflank them with the assistance of the divisions pushing northward from Slovakia and, if possible, to cut off their retreat to the east. To protect the left flank of the Army of General von Reichenau, the Army of General Blaskowitz was to advance in echelon formation from the zone east of Breslau, likewise taking the general direction of Warsaw, so as to be ready to meet and defeat the flank attack expected from the Polish Army Group of the Posen area.

The orders of the North Group commanded the army of General of Artillery von Kluge to restore the connection with East Prussia as speedily as possible, to force a crossing of the Vistula between Bromberg and Graudenz, and, with a group from East Prussia driving toward Graudenz, to advance east in order to establish contact with the north wing of the South Group. Colonel General von Bock's Second Army, headed by General of Artillery Küchler, had orders to proceed from East Prussia across the Narew and Bug rivers and to establish connections with the Army of General von Reichenau east of the Vistula so as to cut off Warsaw from the East.

As the operations proceeded, attempts were also to be made to capture such Polish forces as might manage to retreat across the Vistula, by carrying out a large-scale outflanking movement below the Bug and San rivers.

Completeness Unique in Military History

All the operations resulting from this plan were solved with conspicuous skill by the commanders, and brilliantly carried out by the troops. The first great objective, which was to force as large enemy forces as possible to accept battle west of the Vistula, and to annihilate them, was

achieved with a completeness unique in military annals. In a succession of battles, the fate of the Polish Army, and consequently of the entire Polish campaign, was practically decided within eight days. The annihilation of the Army in the Corridor was followed a few days later by the trapping, near Radom, of the Polish troops retreating before the Reichenau Army. The Polish armies in Posen and the Corridor found their retreat across the Vistula blocked at the gates of Warsaw by advance forces of the Reichenau Army. Later, the Blaskowitz Army and the main Reichenau Army wheeled against these strong Polish forces.

The Poles, wedged in more and more by successive attacks, made desperate counter-thrusts in various places to break the ring that had closed around them. But the power of attack of German divisions was equalled by their steadfastness. The result of this series of battles was the *almost complete annihilation* of the Polish armies west of the Vistula. The prisoners taken in the three capitulations brought about by this great operation numbered over 300,000 men. The total number of prisoners is already in excess of 450,000. The number of artillery guns captured has reached about 1,200; as for other implements of war, it is not possible as yet to give even an approximate idea of the enormous booty. The speed with which these operations were carried out, and the greatness of the success, are unique in military history.

The Prowess of the Men

German infantry renewed its claim to imperishable glory. The way it carried out its long marches and accepted all hardships was no less commendable than its fighting performance. Its courage was supplemented by an unshakable, stubborn perseverance that is equal to every crisis. Its buoyancy in attack was supported by the other arms. Artillery, light and heavy, contributed its share to the great success. Thanks to that arm and to the pioneers, the fortified border works of the Poles were speedily smashed, taken by assault, or overrun, whereupon relentless pursuit annihilated the enemy.

Acting in splendid co-operation, the armored and motorized units, cavalry, anti-tank artillery and scouting forces came up to every expectation. Shoulder to shoulder with them fought the SS troops, placed under the command of the Army.

By order of Field Marshal General Göring (Major General Jeschennek, Chief of Staff), two strong air fleets under Flight Generals Kesselring and Löhr were formed for the air war against Poland. These two fleets completely smashed the Polish Air Force and rapidly gained full control of the air. Continuous attacks of fighters and dive bombers against earthworks, batteries, troop concentrations, marching units, troop trains and other objectives were carried out in closest collaboration with the Army. The

contempt of danger shown by the fliers spared the Army many losses and contributed in no small degree to the successful outcome of the campaign. The anti-aircraft artillery protected the air above Germany; in the first stages of the campaign it helped destroy the Polish Air Force. A total of some 800 Polish planes was destroyed or captured; a small number of surviving craft fled abroad and were interned.

On sea, a fleet under Admiral General Albrecht blocked the Danzig bay from the beginning of hostilities, cutting off all traffic from and to Polish harbors. With the exception of one submarine, all Polish naval units remaining in the Baltic on September 1, were destroyed or interned in neutral harbors. The Air Force has had a glorious share in this success.

The excellent work of the signal corps and of the units not in the fighting lines, especially the speedy repair of highways, bridges and railroads with the valuable help of the Labor Service, greatly simplified the task of the command.

The frontier guard, which has for years unostentatiously done its duty, occupied the areas in the rear of the fighting front, thus enabling the command to use all troops of the field army in actual fighting.

All arms have thus contributed their share. Success would not have been possible had not the West Army and a powerful part of the Air Force been resolutely and confidently prepared to deal with the enemy in the West, no matter how great his numerical superiority, and had not the Navy guaranteed the safety of the North Sea and the German coastline.

Polish soldiers fought bravely on many occasions; what broke them was the inadequacy of the command and lack of organization.

The German Army, thanks to its excellent command and to the thorough training and modern equipment of its forces, suffered casualties which, compared with those of the enemy, can only be described as uncommonly slight.

The exact casualty figures will be made known within a few days. (See the excerpt from the Führer's address to the German Reichstag on October 6, 1939.)

Both arms and material of the new army measured up to the highest expectations. Ammunitions and fuel used in the Polish campaign were only a fraction of the monthly output.

The German nation can again look with pride upon its armed forces. The forces confidently look forward to their coming tasks.

Excerpts from the Führer's Account of the Polish Campaign before the German Reichstag delivered on October 6, 1939

Members of the German Reichstag:

It was a fateful hour, on the first of September of this year, when you met here as representatives of the German people. I had to inform you then of serious decisions which had been forced upon us as a result of the intransigent and provocative action of a certain State. Since then five weeks have gone by. I have asked you to come here today in order to give you an account of what has passed, the necessary insight into what is happening at present and—so far as that is possible—into the future as well.

For the past two days our towns and villages have been decorated with flags and symbols of the new Reich. Bells are ringing to celebrate a great victory, which of its kind, is unique in history. A State of no less than 36,000,000 inhabitants, with an Army of almost fifty infantry and cavalry divisions, took up arms against us. Their aims were far-reaching, their confidence in their ability to crush Germany knew no bounds.

After one week of fighting there could no longer be any doubt as to the outcome. Whenever Polish troops met German units, they were driven back or dispersed. Poland's ambitious strategy for a great offensive against the territory of the Reich collapsed within the first forty-eight hours of the campaign. Death-defying in attack, advancing at an unconquerable rate of progress, infantry, armored detachments, Air

Force and units of the Navy were soon dictating the course of events. They were masters of the situation throughout the campaign. In a fortnight's time the major part of the Polish Army was either scattered, captured or surrounded. In the meantime, however, the German Army had covered distances and occupied regions which twenty-five years ago took over fourteen months to conquer.

Even though a number of peculiarly gifted newspaper strategists in other parts of the world attempted to describe the pace at which this campaign progressed as not coming up to Germany's expectations, we, ourselves, all know that in all history there has scarcely been a comparable military achievement. That the last remnants of the Polish Army were able to hold out in Warsaw, Modlin and on Hela Peninsula until October 1 was not due to their prowess in arms, but only to our cool thinking and our sense of responsibility.

Forbade Needless Sacrifice of Human Life

I forbade the sacrifice of more human lives than was absolutely necessary.

That is to say, I deliberately released the German supreme command from adherence to a principle still observed in the Great War de-

manding that for the sake of prestige certain objectives must under all circumstances be reached within a certain time limit. Everything which it is imperative to do will be done regardless of sacrifice, but what can be avoided will not be done. There would have been no difficulty for us in breaking the resistance of Warsaw between the tenth and twelfth of September, just as we finally broke it September 25-27, only that in the first place I wanted to spare German lives and in the second place I still clung to the hope, misdirected though it was, that the Polish side might for once be guided by responsible common sense instead of by irresponsible lunacy.

But in this instance we were once more confronted with the spectacle which we had witnessed before on the largest possible scale. The attempt to convince the responsible Polish command—in so far as it existed—that it was futile and in fact insane to attempt resistance, especially in a city of more than a million inhabitants, proved entirely fruitless. A "generalissimo" who himself took to inglorious flight, forced upon the capital of his country a resistance which could never lead to anything but its destruction.

Since it was realized that Warsaw's fortifications alone were not likely to withstand the German attack, the entire city was converted into a fortress and barricaded in every direction. Batteries were mounted in every square, in streets and courtyards, houses became machine gun posts and the whole population was called up to take part in the fighting. Sheer sympathy for women and children caused me to make an offer to those in command of Warsaw at least to let civilian inhabitants leave the city. I declared a temporary armistice and safeguards necessary for evacuation, with the result that we all waited for emissaries just as fruitlessly as we had waited at the end of August for a Polish negotiator. The proud Polish commander of the city did not even condescend to reply.

To make sure I extended the time limit and ordered bombers and heavy artillery to attack only military objectives, repeating my proposals in vain. I thereupon made an offer that the whole suburb of Praga would not be bombarded at all, but should be reserved for the civilian population in order to make it possible for them to take refuge there. This proposal too was treated with contempt on the part of the Poles. Twice I attempted to evacuate at least the international colony from the city. In this I finally succeeded after great difficulties, in the case of the Russian colony, actually at the last moment. I then ordered a general attack on the city for September 25. The same defenders who at first considered it beneath their dignity even to reply to my humane proposals then very rapidly changed face. The German attack opened on September 25, and Warsaw capitulated on the 27th. With 120,000 men the defenders did not even attempt to break through as our German

General Litzmann once did at Brzesiny with a vastly inferior force, but, on the contrary, preferred to lay down arms. Any comparison with the Alcazar is entirely out of place. There for weeks on end Spanish heroes defied the bitterest attacks and earned a right to lasting fame. Here, on the other hand, a great city was unscrupulously exposed to destruction, only to capitulate after a forty-eight hour assault. The Polish soldiers as individuals fought bravely on many occasions, but their officers, beginning with the Command, can only be described as irresponsible, unconscientious and inefficient. Before the bombardment of Hela, I had also given orders that not a single man should be sacrificed until the most careful preparation for action had been made. There, too, surrender came at the very moment when the Germans had at length announced their intention of attacking and had begun to do so.

German Soldiers Praised

I have made these statements, gentlemen, with the object of forestalling the invention of historical legends, for if legend is to be woven it should be woven around German soldiers who, during the attack and on the march, added yet another page to their immortal glorious record. Legends could be woven, too, around the heavy artillery which performed untold feats of endurance in rushing to the assistance of the infantry. Men of our armored mechanized units who, with dauntless courage and heedless of counterattacks and numerical superiority of the enemy, attacked again and again are worthy of this legend. Such a legend should also immortalize the airmen who, fearless of death and knowing that if anti-aircraft fire did not kill them in the air, they would, if forced to make a parachute landing, inevitably suffer frightful deaths, continued with steadfast courage to carry out reconnaissance flights and attacks with bombs or machine gun fire whenever they were commanded to do so and whenever they found objectives. The same is true of the brave men of our submarine fleet. If, within four weeks, we totally annihilated a State with a population of 36,000,000 and corresponding military strength, and if during this whole period our victorious armies have not suffered a single setback, this cannot be ascribed simply to good luck, but constituted certain proof of fine training, excellent leadership and indomitable courage.

German soldiers have once more firmly established the right to wear the laurel wreath of which they were meanly deprived in 1918. We all owe a debt of deep, solemn gratitude to many unknown, unnamed heroes of our people. For the first time they came from every province of Germany to serve with the colors. But the blood which they shed in a common cause will form a closer bond of union than could be forged by the mere structure of State.

Our knowledge of the strength of our fight-

ing forces inspires us all with quiet confidence, for they have not only proved that they are strong in attack, but also that they are strong in retaining what they have won. The excellent training received by the individual officers and men has been amply justified. It is this training which is responsible for the extremely few casualties which—hard as they are for the individual to bear—are on the whole far less than we ventured to expect. Admittedly the total number of casualties gives no idea of the severity of the various encounters, for certain regiments and divisions suffered very heavy losses when they were attacked by Polish forces which were numerically superior or came into conflict with such forces when they themselves were attacking. I believe I need refer to only two episodes which serve as examples for many in the long series of battles and encounters which followed each other in such rapid succession.

Two Episodes

When, in order to cover the advance of Colonel General von Reichenau's Armies toward the Vistula, divisions of Colonel General Blaskowitz's Armies were moving in formation in the direction of Warsaw, with the objective of turning an attack launched by the Polish Central Army against General von Reichenau's flank, General Blaskowitz's Army was suddenly attacked on the march by the Polish Army, the main section of which had been assumed to be retreating toward the Vistula. This was a desperate attempt on the part of the Polish Army to break the ring which threatened to inclose them. Four Polish divisions and several cavalry contingents hurled themselves against one single German regular division, which being in extended formation had to defend a line nearly nineteen miles in length. Despite the fact that the enemy outnumbered them by five or six to one and that the men were overfatigued, having been fighting or on the march for several days, this division bore the brunt of the attack, which it repulsed, partly fighting at close quarters, neither retreating nor wavering, until the necessary reinforcements were brought up. And while the enemy was triumphantly broadcasting the news that they had got through to Lodz, the general of the division, his wounded arm in splints, was reporting to me on the details of the attack, the failure of the attempt to break through our lines and the courageous behavior of his men. Of course, the losses on this occasion were heavy.

A German division composed of older ranks, along with other small contingents, had been instructed to drive the Poles into the northern part of the Polish Corridor, to take Gdynia and then advance in the direction of the Hela Peninsula. This division was opposed by Polish picked troops, marines, ensigns and noncommissioned officers, the Cadet Corps, naval artillery and mounted troops. With calm assurance, the Ger-

man division set about its appointed task, the performance of which brought it into conflict with that enemy far superior in numbers. Within the space of a few days, however, the Poles were driven back from one position to another, 12,600 prisoners were taken, Gdynia was freed, Oxhoeft captured, and another 4,700 men driven out onto the peninsula of Hela and surrounded. The scene when the prisoners were marched off was an impressive one. A majority of the victorious troops were middle-aged men, many of them wearing decorations won during the Great War, while past them marched columns of prisoners, young men between the ages of twenty and twenty-eight.

A Tribute to the Dead

As I am now about to make known to you the number of our dead and wounded, I request that you rise from your seats. Though owing to the training given our troops, the effectiveness of our weapons and the command of our forces the figures do not amount to even one-twentieth of what our apprehensions had been at the outset of the campaign, we will never forget that every soldier who fell fighting brought for his people and our Reich the greatest sacrifice that man can bring.

According to the casualty list up to the thirtieth of September, 1939, which will not change materially, the total losses for the Army, Navy and Air Force, including officers, are as follows: 10,572 killed; 30,322 wounded; 3,409 missing. Unfortunately, of those missing a certain number who fell into Polish hands will probably be found to have been massacred and killed.

All our gratitude is due to the victims of the campaign in Poland, while the wounded may be assured of our best attention and care, and the families of those killed of our sympathy and help.

By the capitulation of the fortresses of Warsaw and Modlin and the surrender of Hela, the Polish campaign has come to an end. The task of safeguarding the country against vagabonding marauders, gangs of robbers and individual groups of terrorists will be carried through with all energy. The outcome of the war was the annihilation of all Polish armies, followed by the dissolution of the Polish State.

Six hundred and ninety-four thousand prisoners have set out on their march to Berlin. The amount of war material captured cannot yet be estimated.

Since the outbreak of the war, the German forces have at the same time in calm preparedness taken up positions in the west ready to meet the enemy. The naval forces of the Reich have fulfilled their duty in the attack on the Westerplatte, Gdynia, Oxhoeft and Hela, and in protecting the Baltic Sea and the German North Sea coast. Our submarines are fighting in a spirit worthy of the memory of our heroes in the last war.

The Campaign in Norway

Führer's Headquarters, June 13, 1940

Fighting at Narvik having been brought to a victorious close, the High Command of the Armed Forces makes the following announcement on the operations in Denmark and Norway:

The plan of the Allied Powers to turn the tide of war in their favor by attacking Germany *via* Scandinavia was long known to the German High Command, and forced it to prepare for a lightning counterattack. Parts of the Army and the Air Force, and the entire Navy were therefore drawn together for a concerted action under the direct command of the Führer. After the neutrality of Norway had been flagrantly violated a number of times by British naval forces, an immediately impending *coup de main* of the British Fleet brought about the start of our operations on April 9 at dawn. Operations were begun by the crossing of the German-Danish border and by landings in numerous harbors and flying fields of Denmark and Norway. The objective was to prevent the enemy once and for all from seizing these two countries as a base for a strategic outflanking maneuver from the north and for the economic strangulation of Germany. In consequence of the understanding attitude of the King and his Government, the safeguarding of Denmark was completed without difficulty on April 9, after short skirmishes on the border.

In Norway, German troops were landed on April 9, from ships and from planes, some of the units passing right by British naval forces. Narvik, Trondhjem, Bergen, Stavanger, Egersund, Christiansund, Arendal and Oslo were occupied. In Narvik resistance of naval forces, and in Trondhjem, Christiansund and, especially, Oslo coastal defense, had to be put down through the combined efforts of the Navy, the Air Force and landed army shock troops. The gallant deeds accomplished by German officers and their commands and by individual soldiers will be reported at a future date. Greatest among them is the heroic fight and loss of the cruiser "Blücher."

Conquest and Development of Bases

By April 21, the conquered bases had been developed, protected and extended in every direction; the Oslo area was pacified; the fortified zone Frederikstadt-Askim was in German hands; Kongswinger was taken; and land connection from Oslo *via* Christiansund to Stavanger was made. Farther north the railroad from Trondhjem to the Swedish border, and the greater part of the ore railroad east of Narvik, were in German control.

After the English had succeeded in sinking the coastal batteries brought up for the defense of

the harbor of Narvik, the invasion of the Ofoten Fjord by numerically superior British naval forces could not be prevented. Our destroyers were sunk after dogged resistance, during which they fired every shell on board and inflicted heavy losses upon the enemy. The crews then proved a welcome reinforcement to our gallant band of mountain chasseurs, who intrenched themselves along the rocky, snowbound coast and offered superb defiance for weeks on end to the heavy fire from enemy ships and to all attempted landings.

While fighting with parts of some Norwegian divisions was still going on in the Alpine valleys between Oslo and Bergen, and the German reinforcements needed for the attack on the Oslo area towards Trondhjem were still on their way, the Allies staged a counterattack. They used all available naval craft and merchant ships to land troops in Andalsnes, Namsos and Harstad. Their object was to revitalize fading Norwegian resistance; to recapture Trondhjem by a concentric attack from the north and south; to annihilate the small German force at Narvik; and, as is proved beyond the possibility of doubt by written English orders found by our men, to advance against the Swedish ore region at Gällivare as soon as a favorable opportunity offered. Everywhere the attempt came to a dismal end.

The English Defeat

All the efforts of the enemy to wrest control over Norway from our Air Force were thwarted by our pursuit squadrons and anti-aircraft batteries, which inflicted heavy losses. Then young German regiments, with excellent support from the Air Force, hurled themselves upon the Norwegian and English forces endeavoring to prevent the junction of German forces marching north from Oslo and south from Trondhjem. Forcing their way over all but impassable terrain, conquering all obstacles such as blastings of roads and bridges, our forces drove the enemy through the valleys, from one narrow cut to the next. On April 30, the troops from Oslo and those from Trondhjem joined at Stoeren, about 30 miles south of Trondhjem.

The British plans had failed. The British made a forced retreat to Andalsnes where they re-embarked under heavy, effective fire from the German Air Force, leaving huge quantities of supplies behind. On May 2, the German flag was hoisted in Andalsnes.

The Heroes of Narvik

As early as April 25, a German detachment based at Trondhjem and supported by light naval units took the narrow passage at Steinkjer and checked the enemy advance from Namsos. They were then joined by re-enforcements and

forthwith resumed their advance northward. But the French and British troops that had landed in Namsos refused to accept battle. They disgracefully left the Norwegians in the lurch and re-embarked. Only then did the Norwegians, full of bitterness at their allies, lay down their own arms. On May 6, our troops took Grong, Namsos and Mosjoen.

The further advance was made by Alpine troops which, throwing back Norwegian and English battalions, forged their way through very difficult terrain to Fauske and Bodo. The latter point, over 300 miles from Trondhjem, was reached on June 1.

This was the base farthest north for much needed relief by land, through Alpine country without roads, to the hard-pressed Narvik group, which had in the meantime been attacked on both flanks and in the rear by a force six times as strong in numbers. English troops, French Alpine chasseurs, Polish mountain riflemen, and strong units from the sixth Norwegian division were endeavoring to close in on the small German force and to annihilate it. While the coastal positions—and on May 28, Narvik itself—had to be abandoned, resistance of these hardened troops in the mountains on both sides of the Rombakken Fjord, and along the ore railroad, could not be broken; nor could the iron will of their leader. With support only from the Air Force, with provisions scant, with no other reinforcements than a few parachutists and Alpine chasseurs brought by plane, this small force, making continuous sorties to gain elbowroom, withstood the siege until German planes, based on the flying fields which had meanwhile been established in the Far North, increased enemy losses of warships and merchant craft to unbearable proportions.

It was not until then that the enemy abandoned his last foothold on Norwegian soil. As his ships retreated from Narvik, they were met by German naval forces on June 8, and the aircraft carrier "Glorious" was sunk together with her two convoy destroyers and several transports and merchant ships, with a total tonnage of nearly 30,000. Narvik and Elvegardsmoen were again occupied. On June 10, the Norwegian High Command signed the capitulation to the German Command. What remained of the Norwegian forces laid down arms.

The Norwegian campaign was ended.

The special feature of this campaign has been an entirely novel extent of tactical co-operation of land and air forces with the Navy under unified command.

Under the Nose of the British Fleet

The Navy performed a task which up to that time had been considered impossible. Gallantly risking its ships and crews, far from its bases and almost in sight of the numerically superior British Navy, it made landings in harbors guarded by a profusion of heavy coastal batteries. At

some ports it had to fight its way in, others were entered by surprise. The mass of the German naval forces, and their re-enforcements and supplies, were carried to Norway by ships keeping up uninterrupted, systematic traffic. The transports carried out under the constant threat of attack by the huge forces of the British Fleet and numerous submarines amounted to the tremendous total of 1,300,000 tons.

The success of this gigantic job of transportation was due especially to our torpedo boats, mine spotters and sweepers, submarine chasers, speedboats, convoys and outpost boats. The larger naval vessels acting as centers, these craft kept up a system of day and night patrols in close collaboration with the coastal air squadrons. The success of the undertaking is all the more praiseworthy because the enemy knew the ports of destination, some of which are directly opposite the British coast, and because the narrow waters of the Kattogat and Skagerrak had to be passed. The merchant ship crews did their duty in this task of many weeks with the same dauntless courage that was shown by the men of the Navy.

In the Trondhjem and Bergen areas, light naval units took part in the fighting. In a number of places, particularly at Narvik, contingents landed from the Navy had a splendid share in the fighting of the land forces. The vast expanses of the coast were strongly fortified by means of the batteries taken over from the enemy, and of additional batteries brought up for this purpose.

The German Navy inflicted the following losses on the French and English Fleet: 1 aircraft carrier, 1 cruiser, 10 destroyers, 1 submarine chaser and 19 submarines, a total of approximately 65,000 tons; and one transport and one tanker totaling together 29,100 tons.

Eleven Norwegian warships were destroyed, and 2 armored coastal vessels, 3 destroyers, 7 mine layers, 2 mine sweepers, 14 torpedo boats, several submarines and a number of smaller boats were captured.

Revolutionary Success of the Air Force

The Air Force proved to be the deciding factor in the success of the operations in Norway. It bore the brunt of the burden in the struggle against the vastly greater naval strength of the enemy; and up to the successful end on June 10 it alone was able to furnish the group at Narvik, which could not be reached by land or by sea, with supplies, re-enforcements and relief.

The Air Force has demonstrated in a manner *decisive for future developments* that no fleet, however strong, can operate successfully for any length of time in the neighborhood of a superior enemy air force.

The German Air Force succeeded in driving away the enemy ships that were cruising up and

down the Norwegian coast after our landing. It inflicted enormous losses on enemy troop movements near Namsos and Andalsnes and during the evacuation of those points. Its proudest accomplishment was the destruction of an English battleship on June 3 off Namsos. The speedy occupation of Oslo and Stavanger on April 9 was due solely to the use of parachutists and air infantry. Fighting planes and dive bombers unnerved the crews of the enemy coastal batteries at Oslo Fiord and Christiansund and hastened their surrender.

Wherever land battles were going on, especially between Oslo and Bergen, and between Oslo and Trondhjem, the Air Force took an important part, interrupting rear communications and upsetting the supply system. Before Trondhjem could be reached from Oslo by land, many thousands of men were ferried to Trondhjem by plane. Pursuits and interceptors gained control of the air on the very first day. No difficulty encountered in the establishment of new flying fields was too great to be overcome.

That heroic resistance at Narvik led to a successful outcome is due not only to the repercussions of the victories in the West but to the constant efforts of the Air Force as well. The success of that arm is reflected in the losses suffered by the enemy.

Eighty-seven enemy planes, not counting those on the British aircraft carriers sunk on May 25th, in Ofoten Fiord, and on June 8, in the North Sea, were destroyed; 28 warships and auxiliary warships totaling about 90,000 tons, and 71 merchantmen totaling about 280,000 tons, were sunk, moreover, 80 warships and auxiliary warships and 39 merchantmen were damaged by bomb hits.

Our forces on land, besides defeating the French and British expeditions, vanquished six Norwegian divisions, dispersing or capturing them, or forcing them to capitulate or to flee across the Swedish border. The casualties of officers, noncommissioned officers and men suffered by the German armed forces total 1,317 dead, 1,604 wounded, and 2,375 lost on sea transport or otherwise missing.

The Navy lost 3 cruisers, 10 destroyers, 1 torpedo boat, 6 submarines, and approximately 15 smaller war and auxiliary craft.

The Air Force lost 90 planes by enemy action in the air or in forced landings at sea, and 27 were damaged by forced landings on land or by enemy action while grounded.

The campaign in Norway broke the English blockade. Greater Germany now holds a flank position of great strategic importance opposite England.

The Battle of Flanders

Führer's Headquarters, June 4, 1940

The High Command of the Armed Forces makes the following announcement on the course of operations in the West to date:

The battle in Flanders and Artois is ended. It will be set down in military history as the greatest battle of annihilation ever fought up to the present.

On the morning of May 10, the German armed forces began the fight for the decision in the West. The Führer and Commander in Chief had set the following strategic objectives: To force a break through the border fortifications and south of Namur, as a preliminary step to the annihilation of the English and French armies north of the Aisne and Somme; simultaneously, Holland was to be speedily occupied and thus eliminated as a base for the planned English operations on land and in the air on the north flank of the German Army. On June 4, the armed forces were in a position to report to their Commander in Chief that these tremendous tasks were completed.

Between these two dates, the German soldier displayed a heroism, and the German command a skill, such as is possible only in an army led by one will, inspired by one idea, and backed by the inspiration and willing loyalty of a united people.

More detailed analysis and appreciation of the operations of the Army, the Air Force and the

Navy must be put off until later. The object of the present brief report is merely to explain to the German nation how it was possible for such a tremendous victory to be won in so short a time, and to renew its conviction that final victory will be ours.

The German command had for months been cognizant of the constant danger that the mobile Allied armies might advance against the Ruhr Valley on the pretext of giving assistance to Holland and Belgium. On May 10, this danger had to be anticipated. It was the last moment.

Holland Capitulates after Five Days

The danger could not be met by a laborious struggle of weeks for the fortified border zones and the modern Holland-Belgium fortifications. Sudden attack by the German Air Force, which by its violent assaults on the enemy Air Force gained safety of the air above Germany in the space of a few hours, made possible the success of a large number of painstakingly prepared individual measures of picked army and air force units, resulting in the conquest not only of important bridges before there was time to blow them up, but also of outer forts considered to be impregnable by the enemy.

Overcoming powerful resistance, the German forces further succeeded, through troops landed

on airfields and by parachutes, in establishing themselves inside the fortress of Holland and to keep the entrance from the South across the great bridges at Moerdyk open until armored and motorized units had arrived and, supported by the Air Force, advanced against Rotterdam. The invasion of a great fortified zone from the air—the first attack of its kind—and the swift arrival of the land forces, coupled with the simultaneous break through the Grebbe line southeast of Utrecht, forced the capitulation of Holland on May 14, after a battle of barely five days.

The Breakthrough to the Sea

In North and South Belgium, all the border fortresses and fortified positions were in the meantime speedily broken through and the enemy armored units defeated, a proof of the superiority of the German armored troops, their organization, their leadership and their material. The armored units, rushing ahead of the infantry divisions, reached, on May 13, the Meuse between Dinant and Sedan, and found before them the deep valley and the powerful border fortifications in which the ninth French Army had entrenched itself.

Contrary to all previous conception of tactics and to all the calculations of the enemy command, the armored units on the following day crossed the river Meuse and overcame the strongholds on its banks. Their incredibly bold attack, carried out in co-operation with infantry brought up by forced marches and with perfect support of the Air Force, smashed the enemy's defense and counterattacks and carried our forces to the banks of the Oise.

A breach had been made in the enemy front. Again, the enemy command experienced a surprise it had felt was impossible. The armored and motorized units pushed on to the sea with such speed that at Abbeville they found troops at drill on the barracks grounds. The command had taken care that a series of protective divisions rolled in quick succession from the southern boundary of Luxemburg, the Maginot Line, along the Aisne and Somme, so as to make certain that the "miracle of the Marne" could not repeat itself. As a result of these tactics the mobile units, unconcerned regarding their rear, were in a position to swing northward, their left wing moving along the sea, while on their right flank desperate attempts of enemy armored troops to break through at Cambrai and Arras were shattered and severe losses inflicted.

Already, on May 22, destruction of all enemy forces remaining in Flanders and Artois was discernible. While frontal pressure in North Belgium, constantly increasing, forced the bravely fighting Belgians out of Antwerp and the Dyle and Dendre positions, our army that had won the breakthrough swung North, crushed the first and seventh French Armies, overpowered the fortifications of Maubeuge, took Bou-

logne and Calais on the left wing and, in the middle, Vimy Ridge, so hotly contested during the World War, and Souchez.

On May 28, the ring around the remnants of four enemy armies was closed from Ostend *via* Lille and Armentières to Gravelines. The only remaining task of the Belgian army was to cover the rapidly proceeding embarkation of the English Expeditionary Force and the destruction of all land and water engineering works of their country by the British. The Belgian King decided to surrender.

One of the Greatest Catastrophes in History

However, his action did not cause, and scarcely hastened, the fate of the French and English armies. What took place during the following seven days is not, as English propaganda seeks to present it, the heroic retreat of the English Army, but one of the greatest catastrophes in history. Even though thousands saved their bare lives—their equipment and their material, incapable of being estimated, lie in the streets of Flanders and Northern France. On June 4, after a bitter struggle, Dunkirk fell.

The first chapter of this campaign is ended. The tremendous success was made possible through the unparalleled work of the Air Force; for all the bravery and impact of the Army could only make themselves felt because the area was protected by our Air Force. It gained control of the air from the first day on, smashing the enemy Air Force and its ground organization. Beyond that, in unbroken, death-defying attacks it supported the Army directly and indirectly in its great task, through the crushing effect of its bombs as well as through the fire of its anti-aircraft batteries.

Enemy infantry and tank concentrations for counter-attack were spotted in time by the Air Force which then helped to destroy them. By reconnaissance flights carried out in defiance of death, it gave the German command a running picture of the situation of the enemy. It inflicted heavy losses on the Allied forces at sea. It deserves credit for breaking down the flying morale of the enemy units, and for crippling the enemy command.

The Scope of the Victory

The tremendous scope of the victory in Holland, Belgium, and Northern France may be appreciated from the losses of the enemy and the quantities of war materials captured.

French, English, Belgian and Dutch prisoners number over 1,200,000 men. To this must be added the number of enemy fallen, drowned, or wounded, which cannot be estimated. Weapons and equipment for about 75 to 80 divisions, including guns up to the largest caliber, tanks, and motor vehicles of every description were destroyed or captured.

Between May 10 and June 3, the German Air Force shot down 1,841 enemy planes, of which 1,142 were destroyed in air battles and 699 by anti-aircraft guns. In addition, at least 1,600 or 1,700 enemy planes were destroyed on the ground.

The enemy suffered heavy losses at sea in his attempts to rescue the British Expeditionary Army by warships and merchant craft.

Five cruisers, 7 destroyers, 3 submarines, 9 warships of other types, and 66 merchantmen and transports were sunk by bombing attacks.

Moreover, 10 cruisers, 24 destroyers, 3 torpedo boats, 22 warships of other types, and 117 merchantmen and transports were damaged or partly destroyed by bomb hits.

Daring attacks by lighter German naval units accounted for the sinking of 6 destroyers, 2 submarines, 1 auxiliary cruiser, 1 warship of undetermined class and 1 transport.

These losses compare with German casualties that are small in proportion to the magnitude of the victory.

From May 10 to June 1, 10,252 officers, non-commissioned officers, and men were killed; 8,463 are missing; it must be assumed that a small proportion of those missing are dead;

42,523 officers, noncommissioned officers, and men were wounded.

The German Air Force lost between May 10 and June 3 a total of 432 planes, while the German Navy lost not a single ship on the coasts of Holland, Belgium and Northern France.

Competing in courage of attack and in enduring hardships, often in battle against a numerically superior enemy, all units of our forces accomplished an achievement unique in military history.

Examples of heroic bravery, sacrifice in fulfillment of duty and imperturbable will for victory are innumerable. They will go down in our history as proof of the German's soldierly spirit. The German soldier, through faithful trust in his Führer and Commander in Chief, in the best comradeship of arms within and between the various branches of the armed forces, accomplished what seemed impossible.

Holland and Belgium have capitulated, the main armies of France and Great Britain are destroyed, one of the greatest victories of world history has been won. Greater Germany controls the entire east and south shore of the North Sea, and the English Channel.

Since our opponents continue to spurn peace, the battle will be carried on until their complete destruction.

The Battle of France

The battle of annihilation in Flanders and Artois had scarcely ended when a second decisive assault on France was launched by the Air Force and the Army. Many divisions which had not seen previous fighting went into action.

Preluding the new operations was the attack on airports and airplane armament factories near Paris. This was carried out on June 3 by strong units of the German Air Force and resulted in the destruction of the objectives. Three units of the German Army under the command of Colonel General von Brauchitsch were ready for action the next day.

They were headed by Colonel Generals von Rundstedt, von Bock, and Ritter von Loeb. The objective of this new offensive was to break through the northern French front, to throw the enemy forces back to the southwest and southeast, and after splitting them, to accomplish their annihilation.

The divisions under Colonel General von Bock, who advanced for attack across the lower Somme and the Oise-Aisne canal on June 5, were confronted by an enemy who was prepared to defend himself.

The French Command was resolved to stake all its remaining forces for a last-ditch defense of the "Weygand Zone" and of its next position, the Maginot Line. A new method of defense had been devised, of which it was, above all, hoped

that it would succeed in preventing the dreaded, rapid breakthrough of motorized units.

Breakthrough and Pursuit

In four days of heavy fighting, infantry and armored divisions of the armies under Colonel Generals von Kluge and von Reichenau and General of Infantry Strauss forced their way through the enemy front. On June 9, pursuit in the direction of the lower Seine and Paris was in full progress. Rapidly advancing troops commanded by Infantry General Hoth reached Rouen on the same day and began the encirclement of strong enemy forces on the coast near Dieppe and St. Valéry. The enemy's west wing was thus smashed and our west flank protected for the main operations which now ensued.

As in previous fights, the concentrated and energetic direct mass attacks of the Air Force here, too, facilitated the success of the Army, particularly in the quick breakthrough to the Seine. Even as they gathered for the advance, the infantry and armored units which had been assembled there in preparation for the French counterthrust were routed by air bombing. The destruction of railroad tracks and rolling stock deprived the enemy of his means for shifting reserves and moving them up to the breach. With the first sign of impending evacuation at Le

Havre, Cherbourg and Brest, air force units, striking in rapid sequence, made successful attacks upon oil depots, harbor facilities and ships.

France Cut in Two

The main land operations were begun on June 9, when Colonel General von Rundstedt's Army attacked at Champagne and on the west bank of the Meuse. Infantry divisions belonging to the armies of General of Cavalry Baron von Weichs, Colonel General List and General of Infantry Busch attacked with excellent support from the Air Force. During two days of heavy fighting against a desperately resisting enemy, they broke through the Aisne position and cleared the way for the powerful rapid units that had been held in readiness.

As early as June 11, the armored and motorized infantry divisions of Cavalry General von Kleist and General Guderian (armored troops) entered the battle at Champagne, their objectives being points far beyond Troyes and St. Didier. For the third time in a quarter of a century German troops advanced across the Marne. Fighting with enemy rear guards was heavy at first; later, parts of the main army were taken completely by surprise.

In the next few days, the mobile troops poured through the huge breach that had been effected and forced southeast toward the Swiss border. The evolutions carried out in such a small territory by such a large number of infantry divisions and mobile units were a unique accomplishment.

Meanwhile, our troops sped across the lower Seine and broke into the Paris defense positions. The enemy's west wing was thus also compelled to forego further resistance. On June 14, General of Artillery von Kùchler's troops entered Paris. The enemy's northern front had collapsed; a general rout was in progress everywhere. Infantry divisions and mobile units vied with each other in covering vast distances. Symptoms of the dissolution of the opposing armies, which were unable to withstand the terrific pressure, increased by the hour.

The End of the Maginot Line

On June 14, Colonel General Ritter von Loeb's Army was thrown into action. In two days of heavy fighting against powerful fortifications, Colonel General von Witzleben's Army, strongly supported by artillery, broke through the Maginot Line, France's reputedly impenetrable wall. The enemy's northeast line, already threatened from the rear, was thus again split in two, and what little remained of the enemy's belief in his ability to resist was shattered. The eastern French front met a similar fate when, on June 15, General of Artillery Dollman's Army stormed the formidable Upper Rhine fortifications in an attack near Colmar and forced its way into the Vosges Mountains.

Fighting in perfect co-ordination with the

Army, the Air Force helped materially in achieving the quick break through the Maginot Line south of Saarbruecken, and later near Colmar and Mülhausen. Whenever weather permitted, *Stuka* and fighter units attacked and silenced the fortifications with heavy bombs. Anti-aircraft units also gave the attacking infantry highly effective support. Simultaneously, other air force units helped mobile troops force their way ahead to Besançon and the Swiss border.

After June 15, the campaign became a rout such as has never been seen before, from the sea coast to the Meuse. After the fall of Paris, French columns, in retreat to the south and southwest along the whole German front line, were attacked again and again by German fliers. Dogged pursuit on land and from the air frustrated the French plan to take up new positions below the Loire river.

Our divisions—inspired by victory and the reparation, at last, of the wrongs of Versailles—rolled on over the ruins of the defeated French Army. Not even the fortress of Verdun, the symbol of French resistance in the World War, was able to hold out. It fell on June 15. On June 17, mobile units reached the Swiss border southeast of Besançon, closing the circle around the Maginot Line and the French forces in Lorraine and Alsace.

Bold attacks across the Loire revealed that here, as elsewhere, the enemy was no longer able to pull himself together for further resistance. The armies of France had lost their fighting power and were beginning to lay down their arms. This situation forced Marshal Pétain, the French Premier, to apply to the German Government for an armistice.

At Compiègne

On June 21, in the historic Compiègne forest, a solemn act by the Führer and Supreme Commander of the Defense Forces wiped out the iniquity of 1918. The French delegation thereupon received the armistice terms from the Chief of the High Command, and the armistice was signed at 6:50 P.M. on June 22. At 1:35 P.M. on June 25, the German and Italian defense forces ended hostilities against France. The greatest victory of German forces, culminating the greatest campaign of all times, had been concluded within six weeks.

How much the Air Force helped win these exceptionally quick decisions has already been told in the High Command's communiqué on the first phase of the Campaign in the West. Co-operation during the second phase was no less valuable. The Air Force, commanded by Field Marshal Göring, made full use of the supremacy it secured at the beginning of the campaign. These battles were fought in the main by Air Fleets 2 and 3, energetically and ably led by Generals Kesselring and Sperrle (Air Force). An intrepid and indefatigable spirit was demonstrated by the leaders and men of the huge air

force and anti-aircraft units headed by Generals Grauert and Keller (Air Force), General Weise (Anti-Aircraft Artillery), Lieutenant Generals Bogatsch, Ritter von Grein, Loertzer, and Major Generals Coeler, Dessloch, and Baron von Richt-hofen. The Army is wholeheartedly grateful for the unselfish readiness of the Air Force to sacrifice itself in the heaviest of fighting.

With the occupation of the Dutch, Belgian and French Channel coast, the Navy faced new tasks. Following the Army operations, the harbors were developed into bases for light naval forces and equipped for defense. From these harbors, speedboats were brought into action in areas which had not been accessible to them before and which, since they were close to the coast, afforded particularly good opportunities for such craft. In an endless series of attacks, speedboats succeeded in sinking a number of enemy destroyers and transport vessels, thus intensifying and supplementing the effectiveness of the Air Force's assault on the fleet of enemy transports which had been brought up for the evacuation of Dunkerque.

As early as June 6, the coast defense entrusted to naval artillery forces reported its first success, the sinking of a British speedboat. Minesweepers cleared the harbor entrances and ship lanes near the conquered coast. As early as June 8, neutral ships could once more sail from Dutch, Belgian and Northern French harbors to German, Danish, Swedish and other Baltic ports. Meanwhile, the activities of our U-boats near the British isles and the French coast met with considerable success.

How was It Done?

This unparalleled victory of German arms has aroused in some, admiration and astonishment; in others, terror—depending on the individual point of view. But the universal question is: How was such a tremendous success won in so short a time? If the former Allies feel that the reason was German superiority in numbers, their view does not coincide with the facts. It is true that the German Air Force held a considerable numerical superiority over that of the Allies. But the German Army of the West began its attack on May 10 with fewer divisions than there were French, English, Belgian and Dutch divisions opposing it. Furthermore, operations in the West, unlike the Polish campaign, were not begun from favorable strategic positions. Frontal attacks by the German troops against exceedingly strong fortifications, most of which were located behind rivers or canals, had to force the breakthrough preliminary to the surrounding and annihilation of the enemy and to the bringing up of further divisions.

The reason for the German success lies deeper. This reason is what Germany's enemies believed was her weakness: the revolutionary, dynamic character of the Third Reich and National Socialist leadership. This spirit has created the

best of modern fighting machines, with an energetic, centralized supreme command. It has found the synthesis between sober, well-considered and painstaking preparation on the one hand, and, on the other, utmost daring in the carrying out of operations. It raised the German soldier's famous fighting power to a level which could not have been reached through the driving force of patriotism alone. That fighting power can only be explained by the presence of an idea which engaged the entire united nation.

All officers, down to the lowest ranks, in the Army as well as the Air Force, practiced personal leadership to an admirable degree. Fighting in the front lines on the ground, at the head of their formations in the air, they were the inspiration of their troops and squadrons. Boldly, with resolution and presence of mind, they took advantage of every situation without hesitation.

Lieutenant General von Speck died a hero's death at the head of his Army Corps. Between June 5 and 25, 16,822 brave officers, noncommissioned officers and men of the three forces likewise gave their lives for their Führer, their people, and their Reich. Missing are 9,921 officers, noncommissioned officers and men. Undoubtedly some of these also died heroes' deaths. Wounded officers, noncommissioned officers and men number 68,511.

One of the most glorious features of the German victory over France is that it was achieved with such small losses. These losses are felt bitterly and painfully by the individual; but to the German people as a whole they are almost incredibly small.

The figures to date, for the period from May 10 to the Armistice, are as follows:

Killed	27,074	
Missing	18,384	
Wounded	111,034	Officers, noncommissioned officers, and men.
Total Casualties.	156,492	Officers, noncommissioned officers, and men.

Compare this with the following casualties suffered by us during the World War:

In the West in 1914: 85,000 dead; 638,000 total casualties. In the attack on Verdun in 1916: 41,000 and 310,000. In the Somme Battle in 1916: 58,000 and 417,000. In the great Battle of France, March 21 to April 10, 1918: 35,000 and 240,000.

Huge French Losses

There is as yet no exact basis for estimating the enemy's casualties in 1940. The number of French prisoners alone is more than 1,900,000, including five commanders of French armies and 29,000 officers. Besides the material captured before June 5, all the arms and equipment of approximately 55 additional French divisions was taken. This does not include the armament and equipment of the Maginot Line and the other

French fortifications. Furthermore, nearly all of France's heavy artillery and immeasurable quantities of other arms and equipment were captured.

Since June 4, the enemy Air Force suffered the following losses: In air fights, 383 airplanes; by anti-aircraft artillery, 155; destroyed on the ground, 239; lost through undetermined causes (by anti-aircraft fire or in air fights), 15 airplanes; total planes lost, 792. Also destroyed were 26 barrage balloons and one captive balloon. On June 14, an interceptor unit brought down its 101st enemy plane; on June 11, a pursuit unit its fiftieth.

The Navy sank the following auxiliary cruisers and other auxiliary naval vessels, transports and merchant ships: The auxiliary cruiser "Carinthia" of 23,000 gross tons, the auxiliary cruiser "Scotstown" of 17,000 gross tons, the troop transport "Orama" of 21,000 gross tons, the navy oil tanker "Oil Pioneer" of 9,100 gross tons, one

transport ship of 14,000 gross tons, one auxiliary cruiser of 9,000 gross tons. Merchant ships sunk by our U-boats since the middle of May aggregate more than 400,000 gross tons, which, with the ships listed above, bring the total up to 493,100 gross tons.

Since June 5, the Air Force has sunk: one auxiliary naval vessel and one destroyer, with a combined total of 5,100 gross tons, and 40 merchant ships aggregating 299,000 gross tons. The following were damaged: 3 cruisers, 1 destroyer, 25 merchant ships.

Besides these tremendous losses of the enemy, the remnants of the French forces have, through the terms of the Armistice, also been eliminated for the rest of the war. Since this most sensational victory in German history—a victory over an opponent regarded as the world's strongest land power, an enemy who fought skilfully and bravely—the Allies have been non-existent. Only one enemy remains: England.

