

Alan Palmer

The Penguin Dictionary of

**TWENTIETH CENTURY
HISTORY** *1900-1978*



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This book is based on similar principles of compilation to my *Penguin Dictionary of Modern History, 1789-1945*. It therefore includes entries on political, diplomatic, military, economic, social and religious affairs but not on the arts, music, sport, literature, pure science or abstract thought. About a third of the subject-headings appear in my earlier book but none of the old entries is reproduced here word for word: I have revised them so as to make them intelligible within a specifically twentieth-century context. At the same time I have tried to keep in mind the gradually widening perspective of our historical consciousness and have therefore included entries on African and Asian topics which are outside the traditionally narrow range of British historical teaching but which intrude more and more into our lives. For some of these events there is no obvious terminal date: many problems in southern Africa and the Middle East remain unresolved. Events, and biographical details, are updated to 8 April 1979.

The following practices have been observed: *cross-references* (shown by 'q.v.') are inserted only where they would help clarify the topic under consideration, not on every occasion when a person, place or event has an entry of its own elsewhere; *personal and place names* are given in the form commonly used in Britain, but I have retained the original version if there is no anglicized equivalent; *dates* follow the Gregorian calendar (unless otherwise stated), since this reckoning was in general use by 1900 and adopted by China in 1912 and Russia and Turkey in 1918. No attempt has been made to summarize the histories of Great Britain, the United States or Russia in single entries: for these lands the reader will find detailed cross-references under the entries on prominent personalities and political parties. Finally, I would like to emphasize that there is no correlation between the length of an entry and its historical importance: some biographies of major figures are short because their achievements may be found in topic narratives by use of cross-references; and, occasionally, less well-known people have longer biographical entries because there is no mention of their activities elsewhere in the book.

I am most grateful to Mrs Mary Cumming and Mrs M.C. Jackson for typing the manuscript, and to my publishers for their editorial guidance. My wife, Veronica, has helped me by giving detailed scrutiny to the entries and saving me from errors, and I much appreciate her assistance.

Alan Palmer

Woodstock, Oxford
9 April 1979

Aaland Islands. See *Åland Islands*.

Abd-el-Krim (1882–1963), Moroccan nationalist leader. Born at Ajdir and accepted by the Arabs of the Rif mountains as the chief organizer of resistance to Spanish and French colonial policies in Morocco. He gained a remarkable victory against a Spanish army at Anual (21 July 1921) in which the Spanish sustained more than 12,000 casualties. Chronic warfare culminated in further pitched battles in 1924 and 1925 but in May 1926 Abd-el-Krim was forced to surrender to a massive Franco-Spanish army, commanded by Marshal Pétain. For more than twenty years Abd-el-Krim was kept under detention on the island of Réunion but, in 1947, he was given permission to live in France. Before reaching Europe, however, he was able to escape to Cairo where he was accorded privileged treatment for the remainder of his life as a founding father of the North African revolution and was held up as an inspiration to young Arabs in their struggle against imperialism.

Abdication Crisis (December 1936). On 16 November 1936 King Edward VIII (q.v.) informed his Prime Minister, Stanley Baldwin, that he wished to marry Mrs Wallis Simpson, an American citizen whose second marriage had been ended by the award of a decree nisi at Ipswich Assizes three weeks previously. Rumours of the King's romance had been current in government circles and in London society for some months but the British Press remained silent, although speculation was widespread in American newspapers. Baldwin believed marriage to a divorcee was inconsistent with the King's titular position as 'Supreme Governor' of the Church of England. The cabinet, the leaders of the Labour and Liberal parties, the Prime Ministers of the overseas dominions and many senior political figures agreed with Baldwin. Amorganatic marriage (a private Act denying the King's wife the status of Queen) was considered, but rejected after consultation with the dominion governments. When the British newspapers broke their self-imposed censorship on 3 December, there was widespread popular support for the King but little in the House of Commons, except from Churchill. Edward VIII, faced with the alternative of giving up 'the woman I love' or the throne, chose to abdicate on 10 December. After broadcasting to the people on the following evening, he went into voluntary exile in France, being created Duke of Windsor by his successor, George VI. The Duke of Windsor married Mrs Simpson at the Château de Candé on 3 June 1937.

Abdul Hamid II (1842–1918; reigned 1876–1909), Sultan of Turkey. Son of Sultan Abdul Majid, succeeded his insane brother Murad V during the great Eastern Crisis which culminated in the Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878. Abdul Hamid's grant of a parliamentary constitution to Turkey in December 1876 was rescinded in May 1877 and he thereafter ruled despotically for more than thirty years. Administrative reforms in certain provinces (notably Syria and

Palestine) improved the efficiency of government but the Sultan's ministers remained, for the most part, reactionary clericalists and he became notorious throughout Europe for his inability to restrain the Kurdish irregular troops who were largely responsible for a series of Armenian massacres in 1895-6. These atrocities alienated most of the Great Powers which had earlier protected Turkey from Russian encroachment, although Kaiser William II of Germany maintained friendly relations with the Sultan. Abdul Hamid was forced to summon a parliament in 1908 by the Young Turks (q.v.). When he attempted a counter-revolution in April 1909 he was deposed and exiled to Salonika (then still within the Ottoman Empire).

Abdullah Ibn Hussein (1882-1951), King of Jordan. Second son of Emir Hussein, King of the Hijaz 1916-24, and brother of King Feisal I (q.v.) of Iraq. Abdullah, a vice-president of the Turkish Parliament in 1914, was one of the leaders of the Arab Revolt against Turkey, generally associated with T. E. Lawrence (q.v.). He was largely responsible for guerrilla raids on the southern sector of the Hijaz railway, near its terminus at Medina, where he kept the Turkish garrison isolated. In 1921 Abdullah was recognized by the British as Emir of Transjordan, a section of eastern Palestine which had passed under British mandate on the fall of the Ottoman Empire. Abdullah remained on good terms with the British, receiving a knighthood from George V in 1927 and being made an air commodore in the R.A.F. When the British mandate expired, Transjordan was created a kingdom under Abdullah's rule (May 1946). In December 1948 he was proclaimed king of Palestine by a Pan-Arab congress meeting in Jerusalem but this action did not receive international recognition and in June 1949 he accepted, instead, the sovereignty of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, which included territory west of the Jordan river which had been reckoned as within Palestine during the mandate. Abdullah's primacy among the Arab leaders aroused resentment in Cairo and he was assassinated in Jerusalem on 20 July 1951, in the presence of his grandson, Hussein, who succeeded to the Jordanian throne a year later.

Abu Dhabi. See *United Arab Emirates*.

Abyssinia. See *Ethiopia*.

Abyssinian War (1935-6). Had its origin in the desire of Mussolini to establish an East African Italian Empire (Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia) and to avenge the Italian defeat by the Ethiopian Emperor, Menelek, at Adowa in March 1896. The immediate cause of the war was a clash at the oasis of Walwal (5 December 1934) in which 100 Ethiopians were killed while an Italian colonial expeditionary force, which had penetrated fifty miles beyond the frontier of Italian Somaliland, suffered some fifty casualties. Attempts by the League of Nations to settle the dispute were rejected by Mussolini, whose troops invaded Ethiopia, without a declaration of war, on 2 October 1935. The primitive equipment of the Ethiopians was of little use against aircraft, tanks and poison gas. The Italians were undeterred by a declaration by the League condemning Mussolini's act of aggression and imposing limited sanctions (q.v.) on Italy. The Ethiopian Army was defeated at a pitched battle near Marchew early in April 1936 and the capture of Addis

Ababa by **✱** *shal* Badoglio on 5 May 1936 marked the virtual end of Ethiopian resistance. The historical importance of the Abyssinian War lies in the failure of the League of Nations to deter aggression and make sanctions effective.

Acheson, Dean Gooderham (1893–1971), U.S. Secretary of State. Born in Connecticut; educated at Yale and Harvard Law School, practising law in New York before becoming Assistant Secretary of State to the ailing Cordell Hull in 1941. From 1945 to 1947 Dean Acheson served as Under-Secretary of State. He was largely responsible for the Acheson-Lilienthal Plan of March 1946, which proposed the establishment of an International Atomic Authority to control fissionable material and check the spread of nuclear weapons. In February 1947 he outlined the Truman Doctrine (q.v.) to check communist seizures of power and on 8 May 1947 he made the first major American speech advocating an aid programme to Europe (cf. *Marshall Plan*). He was Secretary of State from 7 January 1949 until the establishment of Eisenhower's Republican Administration four years later but was under constant attack in Congress both for his alleged liberalism and for failing to forestall communist aggression by emphasizing American determination to defend the Republic of Korea (q.v.).

Action Française. French right-wing political movement, active from 1899 to 1944 and founded by the poet and political journalist Charles Maurras (1868–1952). The movement rallied the defeated opponents of Dreyfus: it was royalist, anti-Semitic and nationalistic, attacking the democratic institutions of the Third French Republic as corrupt and decadent. From 1908 onwards it attracted support through its newspaper (of the same name) which Maurras edited jointly with the gifted pamphleteer and essayist, Léon Daudet (1867–1942). Although Maurras was a free-thinker, he regarded the French Catholic tradition as a valuable antidote to the republicanism which he deplored. Some members of the hierarchy in France welcomed the activities of the Action Française but, from 1926 onwards, Pope Pius XI cold-shouldered the movement, which became increasingly indistinguishable from fascism. From 1940 to 1944 the movement and its newspaper warmly supported the Vichy Government (cf. *Vichy France*). The Action Française was broken up when France was liberated, and Maurras was sentenced to penal servitude for life as a collaborator, but the basic teachings of the movement continued to appeal to those who favoured a conservative paternalism rather than the uncertain changes of the Fourth Republic.

Addams, Jane (1860–1935), American social reformer. Born at Cedarville, Illinois; established Hull House, Chicago, in 1889 as a prototype for social settlements in America, helping immigrants and coloured workers, in particular. Jane Addams sponsored educational projects for foreign-born adults, child-labour laws and separate juvenile courts. In 1909 she became one of the founders of the N.A.A.C.P. (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People). She was politically a progressive Republican and an ardent Christian pacifist. Her vigorous leadership of the 'Women's International League for Peace and Freedom' won her a Nobel Peace Prize in 1931, sharing the award with another American worker for peace, the sociologist N. M. Butler (1862–1947). Jane Addams was the first woman recipient of a Nobel Peace Prize.

Aden

Aden. A volcanic peninsula in Arabia at the southern entrance to the Red Sea, annexed by the British in 1839 and administered by the British Government in India until 1 April 1937, when Aden became a crown colony, together with the islands of Perim and Kamaran in the Red Sea and Sokotra in the Indian Ocean. The British also assumed a protectorate over more than 100,000 square miles of the Arabian hinterland. The port of Aden was valuable to the British as a coaling station on the route to India and an oil refinery was developed there, but the importance of Aden declined with the lessening of British seaborne trade in the Indian Ocean during the 1950s. At the same time Aden responded to a growth in Arab nationalist sentiment. In 1959 the British set up a South Arabian Federation of Arab Emirates for the hinterland protectorate, to which Aden colony acceded in January 1963, with a suggestion that the Federation might achieve independence within the British Commonwealth in 1968. The establishment of this Federation coincided, however, with the triumph in the neighbouring Yemen (q.v.) of a republican movement, backed by Nasser's Egypt, and from September 1965 onwards there was a state of civil war in the port of Aden and its vicinity. In two years of unrest 129 British servicemen were killed. The British gave up sponsorship of the Federation and withdrew from Aden in November 1967. The former colony and protectorate was then established as the independent People's Republic of South Yemen. On 30 November 1970 the name was changed to the People's Democratic Republic of the Yemen. A five-year plan in 1974 anticipated substantial economic aid from both China and the Soviet Union.

Adenauer, Konrad (1876–1967), West German Chancellor. Born in Cologne; studied at the universities of Freiburg, Munich and Bonn, practised law in Cologne and was Chief Burgomaster of the city from 1917 to 1933. Under the Weimar Republic he was a prominent member of the Centre Party (q.v.) and presided over the Prussian State Council (1920–33). He was dismissed from office by the Nazis in 1933, briefly imprisoned in 1934 and again in 1944, but reinstated as Burgomaster in 1945, until sacked by the British military administration for alleged inefficiency. Adenauer accepted the division of Germany into East and West and sought to build up a Christian Democrat Party, wider in scope than the discredited Centre Party and appealing to the former western allies as a barrier against communism. He was elected first Federal Chancellor in September 1949 and re-elected in 1957, also serving as Foreign Minister from 1951 to 1955. His old-fashioned dexterity in political manoeuvres enabled him to offer the British and the Americans a stable and prosperous western Germany provided they complied with his demands that Germany should be treated as a partner rather than as a former enemy. Federal Germany became a member of N.A.T.O. and was integrated on a position of equality within a European union long before Adenauer's final retirement in October 1963. He was less committed to the idea of a 'cold war' with the Russians than were some of his domestic critics: he visited Moscow in 1955 in order to establish diplomatic links with the Soviet Union and he showed restraint during the crisis over the Berlin Wall of 1961–2. Above all, he created a sense of Franco-German friendship, rare in modern history.

Afghanistan. Historically for more than a century Afghanistan served as a buffer state between the British Indian Empire and Russia and on three occasions

(1838-42, 1878-9 and 1879-80) there were wars between the British and the Afghans. The independence of Afghanistan was confirmed by the British in 1919 after further fighting along the north-west frontier of India. The British intervened in 1929 to establish General Nadir Shah on the throne after brigands had seized control of Kabul. Nadir's reforms alienated the Moslem clergy and he was assassinated in 1933. Nadir's son, Mohammed Zahir, reigned from 1933 until the monarchy was abolished after a *coup* by the King's cousin, General Mohammad Daoud on 17 July 1973. Daoud's republican regime was itself overthrown, on 27 April 1978, by a left-wing 'Armed Forces Revolutionary Council', headed by Colonel Caboul Qadir. Afghan ambitions to control the Pathan areas of Baluchistan, and thereby acquire an outlet to the Arabian Sea, have caused moments of tension in the relations between Afghanistan and its southern neighbour, Pakistan.

African National Congress. Formed at Bloemfontein in 1912 as the principal body protecting the interests of the coloured peoples in South Africa. The Congress grew out of a Native Education Association established in Cape Colony in 1882. In 1926 the Congress established a joint Front with representatives of the Indian community in South Africa at a conference in Kimberley, and thereafter sought the creation of a unified and racially integrated democratic southern Africa. The Congress inclined towards the non-violent tactics of passive resistance, originally practised by Gandhi (q.v.) in India, especially under the leadership of the Natal chieftain, Albert Luthuli (q.v.) from 1952 until his death in 1967. Although many younger Africans left the A.N.C. because it seemed to them insufficiently militant, it was condemned as dangerously revolutionary by the South African Government and declared illegal in 1961.

Agadir. A small port on the Atlantic coast of Morocco and the centre of the second Moroccan Crisis (July-November 1911). A German gunboat, the *Panther*, was sent to Agadir on 1 July, allegedly to protect German commercial interests threatened by French expansion in Morocco. Kiderlen-Wächter, the German Foreign Minister, maintained that France had ignored the Moroccan agreement reached at Algeciras (q.v.) in 1906 and that a show of strength would gain Germany compensation either in Morocco or in central Africa. The '*Panther's* leap' alarmed the British rather than the French, since the British Government was already concerned over German naval activity and thought Germany wished to establish a naval base at Agadir, close to Gibraltar and vital British trade routes. On 21 July the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lloyd George, gave a strong warning to Germany in a speech at the Mansion House, London. The Germans denied any desire to annex Moroccan territory and, for some months, negotiated directly with the French. These negotiations nearly broke down in September and war seemed probable, but Germany gave way and, by agreements signed on 3-4 November, recognized French rights in Morocco in return for the cession of territory in the French Congo. The Agadir Crisis confirmed British suspicions of Germany, and prompted for the first time close cooperation between the Admiralty and the War Office in facing a possible war. On 29 February 1960 Agadir was devastated by the worst earthquake recorded on the African continent.

Airlines. The rapid development of aeronautics in the early twentieth century enabled civil aircraft to revolutionize world transport much as had railways and steamships in the nineteenth. The first airline using aeroplanes rather than Zeppelins (q.v.) was a British company, Aircraft Transport and Travel Limited, founded in 1916 and operating a London-Paris service by 1919. A.T.T. assisted the newly founded K.L.M. (Royal Dutch Airlines) to set up a London-to-Amsterdam route in the winter of 1919-20. In 1924 A.T.T. merged with four smaller companies to establish Imperial Airways, which developed routes to Egypt and the Persian Gulf in 1927, India (1929), Cape Town (1932), Singapore (1933) and Brisbane (1935), as well as routes to six European capitals. In 1932-3 Imperial Airways opened up an airmail route to Australia, in collaboration with Qantas Empire Airways and in fierce competition with K.L.M., who opened their regular and fast service to Java in 1930. Imperial Airways was always government-subsidized since it was held to be a valuable link within the Empire. In 1935 several small British companies combined to establish British Airways, which offered better European services than Imperial Airways; and in 1936 British Airways, too, received a state subsidy. Such administrative anomalies led the government to establish the state-owned British Overseas Airways Corporation (B.O.A.C.) on the eve of the Second World War, the Corporation assuming responsibility for the aircraft of both Imperial and British Airways on 1 April 1940. In 1946 the European network of B.O.A.C. was assigned to British European Airways: B.O.A.C. and B.E.A. were reunited under the familiar name 'British Airways' in 1972. Most European nations developed state-subsidized or completely nationalized companies during the 1920s or early 1930s, among them Belgian Sabena (1923), German Lufthansa (1926) and Air France (1933). The Soviet Aeroflot was established in 1932 but did not expand internationally until the late 1940s. The largest American company, United Air Lines, was set up in 1933: it remained a domestic service. Pan American Airways (1927) began by flights from Florida to Cuba, opening South American routes in 1928 and a prestigious 'Clipper' service of flying-boats across the Pacific in 1935. In June 1939 Pan American inaugurated regular passenger flying-boat services from New York to Southampton and to Marseilles: Imperial Airways opened their weekly transatlantic service on 5 August 1939. Wartime necessities made transatlantic passenger flights commoner and safer: as early as January 1942 the British Prime Minister flew from Washington to Plymouth by way of Bermuda in a Boeing flying-boat. Regular commercial services between Europe and North America were resumed early in 1946, jets being used by B.O.A.C. and by Pan American for the first time in 1958. B.O.A.C. established a weekly service to Australia, with Qantas collaboration, on 31 May 1945: by the end of the year there were three flights a week to Australia and B.O.A.C. claimed that, by flying 12,000 miles in 63 hours, they were operating 'the longest and fastest service in the world'.

Before 1939 airline travel had been expensive, and few people took advantage of it. It was only in the 1950s and 1960s that the aeroplane became accepted as the commonest form of international passenger transport. Technical improvements to airliners increased the speed of flight and cut distances by making it possible for aircraft to fly considerably longer 'hops' without refuelling. Passenger capacity, too, increased rapidly: in 1947 the Boeing 377 Stratocruiser (the first post-war transatlantic airliner) carried fifty passengers in comfort or 100 if the

seating was densely packed; but the Boeing 747 Jumbo Jet, operated by many airlines from 1969 onwards, carried 350 to 500 passengers as a normal load. This increased capacity, together with the speed and frequency of flights, enabled the airlines to put most of the great ocean liners out of business by 1972. Within the U.S.A. airline competition virtually destroyed long-distance railway passenger services between 1950 and 1970, and the railway express services of Europe and Australia were almost as badly hit. In 1976-7 the introduction by British Airways and Air France of the supersonic Concorde (q.v.) offered yet another challenge to rival airlines in the constant search for speedier and more comfortable passenger transport.

Alamein. El Alamein, a small Egyptian town sixty miles west of Alexandria, formed the central feature of a defensive position, thirty-five miles long, established by General Sir Claude Auchinleck (q.v.) in midsummer 1942 to check the advance of the combined German and Italian armies of Marshal Erwin Rommel (q.v.). In the first battle of El Alamein (30 June to 25 July 1942) Auchinleck prevented a breakthrough to Cairo, Alexandria and the Nile delta and prepared the Eighth Army for the allied counter-offensive which began, under the direction of General Montgomery (q.v.), with the second battle of El Alamein (23 October to 4 November 1942). This formed the prelude to an advance of over 1,400 miles which in six months ejected German and Italian forces from northern Africa.

Aland Islands (Ahvenanmaa). An archipelago at the entrance of the Gulf of Bothnia, midway between Sweden and Finland. The islands were Swedish until 1809 when (together with Finland) they passed under Russian rule. On the fall of the Tsarist Empire in 1917 the Swedes sought to recover the islands but Swedish troops were ejected by German units which supported the Finnish independence movement. After the Peace Settlement of 1919, the future of the islands was referred to the League of Nations which, in 1921, declared that the islands should remain under Finnish sovereignty but should be demilitarized and granted a semi-autonomous status. A ten-nation convention put the League's decision into practice. The islands' assembly voted for union with Sweden in September 1945, but no action was taken although it was confirmed that Swedish was the official language. The terms of the 1921 convention remain valid today.

Alaska. The first settlements in the vast Alaskan peninsula were Russian, but the territory was formally purchased from Tsar Alexander II by the U.S. Secretary of State, W. H. Seward, in 1867 and was organized as an American judicial district in 1884. The Klondike Gold Rush of 1896 began to open up the territory but its strategic importance was not appreciated until 1942 when the international 'Alaska Highway', a route of 1,500 miles, was constructed (in nine months) in order to allow men and material to be transported rapidly to America's northern bases. In 1957 Alaska became the forty-ninth U.S. state, being both the largest in area and the smallest in population. The most severe earthquake ever recorded occurred in southern Alaska on 28 March 1964 but, as the area was sparsely populated, only 300 lives were lost. In 1969 a valuable oil strike was discovered and a trans-Alaska pipeline was constructed to the ice-free port of Valdez on the Gulf of Alaska.

Albania. Remained under Turkish suzerainty until after the Balkan wars of 1912-13 when it was constituted as an independent Moslem principality. Political conditions remained anarchic throughout the First World War, with six regimes each claiming to be the legitimate government, and Albania's future was finally settled in November 1921 after a long dispute between Italy, Greece and Yugoslavia. A regency council ruled the country until 1924, in 1925 a republic was proclaimed following a rebellion by the large landowner, Ahmed Bey Zogu, who became President, assuming the title King Zog I in September 1928. Zog's Albania was economically dependent on Italy, with the 'National Bank of Albania' operating from Rome. On Good Friday 1939 Mussolini formally occupied Albania, chasing Zog into exile, and the King of Italy assumed the Albanian crown. Mussolini used Albania as a stepping-stone to the Italian dominance which he sought in south-eastern Europe. The Italian attack on Greece from Albania in 1940 failed disastrously but, with the German occupation of the Balkans in 1941, the Axis Powers were able to maintain a hold on the country until 1944. Vigorous guerrilla resistance was led by the communist Enver Hoxha (q.v.), who established a republican government recognized by the British, Americans and Russians on 10 November 1945. Hoxha had difficulty in asserting Albania's independence from Yugoslavia until the split between Tito (q.v.) and Stalin in 1948. From 1948 until 1955 the Albanians were favoured clients of the Russians, but Hoxha declined to accept the denunciation of Stalinism made by Khrushchev (q.v.) at the Twentieth Party Congress of February 1956 and was subsequently condemned by the Russians as a deviationist. Albania was excluded from Comecon and the Warsaw Pact (q.v.) in 1961 and from 1968 onwards became economically and ideologically associated with China. This link was abruptly broken by Chairman Hua (q.v.) early in 1978.

Albert I (born 1875; reigned 1909-34), King of the Belgians. Succeeded his uncle, Leopold II, at a time when the Belgian royal house was discredited by scandals arising from Leopold's methods of acquiring a fortune in his enterprises in the Congo. Albert restored the prestige and dignity of the monarchy both by his courageous leadership during the First World War and by his willingness to modernize the electoral system. He accepted the need for recognizing the status of the Flemish language, while in international questions he favoured close collaboration with France, especially over military matters. He was killed in a mountaineering accident in the Ardennes, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold III.

Alexander (born 1888; reigned 1921-34), King of Yugoslavia. Born in Cetinje, the son of Prince Peter Karadjordjević (1844-1921) who became King of Serbia in June 1903. Alexander was educated in Switzerland and at St Petersburg. He commanded an army in the Balkan Wars and in July 1914 became Prince Regent owing to his father's ill-health. He was titular commander-in-chief of the Serbian Army throughout the First World War, participating in its retreat over the Albanian mountains in 1915 and in the victorious advance from Salonika to Belgrade in 1918. He ruled the newly unified kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes as Regent from 1 December 1918, succeeding as King in August 1921. Bitter disputes between Serbs and Croats, culminating in a shooting affray in parliament, led Alexander to establish a royal dictatorship (6 January 1929). In

foreign affairs he warmly supported the Little Entente (q.v.) and, at the end of his life, was improving relations between the Balkan states. But, although he changed the name of the kingdom to 'Yugoslavia' in the interests of greater unity, he tended to favour the Serbs at the expense of his other nationalities. A terrorist in the pay of the extreme Croatian Ustaše (q.v.) movement assassinated Alexander in Marseilles on 9 October 1934 at the start of a state visit to France. He was succeeded by his eleven-year-old son, Peter II (1923-70), for whom Alexander's cousin, Prince Paul (1893-1976), acted as chief Regent until March 1941.

Alexander, Harold Robert Leofric George (1891-1969, created viscount 1946 and Earl Alexander of Tunis, 1952). The third son of the fourth Earl of Caledon, born in the family home in County Tyrone. He was educated at Harrow and Sandhurst and commissioned in the Irish Guards, serving with distinction as a battalion commander in France in 1915. Between the wars he saw active service as a brigadier-general on the north-west frontier of India. He commanded the First Division of the B.E.F. in 1939-40 and was the last officer evacuated from the Dunkirk beaches. In 1942 he was flown hurriedly to Burma to command the final withdrawal from Rangoon to Assam in the face of overwhelmingly superior Japanese air power. Churchill appointed him commander-in-chief Middle East in August 1942 and he was responsible for directing the advance to Tunis across North Africa. He commanded the allied armies which landed in Sicily and Calabria, but thereafter suffered from loss of men and material diverted to other fronts. Although the Anzio landing (q.v.) was not the success for which he had hoped, his forces penetrated to Rome by the first week of June 1944 and he maintained a vigorous offensive from the Po valley northwards until the end of the war in Europe. He was appointed field marshal in December 1944. From 1946 to 1952 Alexander served as Governor-General of Canada, returning to London as Minister of Defence in Churchill's cabinet (1952-4). Earl Alexander was a military commander with little taste for panache but distinguished by imperturbable confidence. He possessed remarkable gifts for utilizing and reconciling opposing points of view.

Alfonso XIII (1886-1941; reigned 1902-31), King of Spain, a posthumous son of Alfonso XII. Until his sixteenth birthday the royal prerogative was exercised through the regency of his mother, Queen Maria Christina of Habsburg (1858-1929) and she remained a powerful influence on the early years of his reign. Anarchist outrages occurred frequently, and in May 1906 several onlookers were killed by a bomb thrown at the nuptial coach when Alfonso and his bride, Eugenia (Ena) of Battenberg (1887-1969), were returning from their wedding in Madrid. A bitter labour dispute in Barcelona led to a general strike and anti-clerical rioting. In this *Semana Tragica* ('Tragic Week', 26 July to 1 August 1909) over a hundred civilians perished and fifty religious buildings were destroyed. The subsequent wave of repression discredited Alfonso's standing abroad while, at home, he became distrusted by the parliamentary leaders because of his alleged liking for intrigue. He survived, in all, five assassination attempts. The prestige of the monarchy declined rapidly in the early 1920s, partly because of the King's failure to make concessions to Catalan regional feeling, but even more because of the defeat of his army by Abd-el-Krim (q.v.) in Morocco. Alfonso's attempt to bolster his authority through the establishment of a right-wing dictatorship under

Algeciras, Conference of

Primo de Rivera (q.v.) proved a failure. Primo's resignation in January 1930 encouraged the political leaders to blame the King for having attempted to impose 'a Mussolini' on the nation. When republicans gained overwhelming successes in the municipal elections of 1931, Alfonso left the country (14 April 1931) and settled in Rome, where he died ten years later. No king ruled in Spain between the flight of Alfonso and the accession of his grandson, Juan Carlos, in November 1975.

Algeciras, Conference of. An international Conference of the Great Powers to settle the first Moroccan Crisis (q.v.) was held at Algeciras, southern Spain, from January to April 1906. German diplomats had hoped the Conference would condemn the forward policy of the French and destroy the growing friendship between Britain and France, but the British delegate, Sir Arthur Nicolson, succeeded in isolating and outvoting the Germans, who regarded the Conference as a major diplomatic defeat. The 'Act of Algeciras' pledged France and Spain to respect the Sultan of Morocco's independence but authorized the two countries to police Morocco jointly, under a Swiss Inspector-General. The terms of the actual settlement are historically of less importance than the evidence of close Anglo-French collaboration. By strengthening the Entente Cordiale (q.v.), Algeciras emphasized to France's ally, Russia, the advantages to be gained from a similar understanding with the British.

Algeria. Colonized by French soldiery, for the most part, between 1830 and 1860. In 1882 the three chief departments (Algiers, Oran and Constantine) were 'attached' to metropolitan France, but there remained administrative anomalies and at the start of the twentieth century the Arab population had virtually no political rights. In 1919 especially privileged Arabs were naturalized as French citizens and given the vote, provided they abandoned their Moslem traditions. In November 1942 allied troops landed in French North Africa and on 3 June 1943 a 'Committee of National Liberation' was set up in Algiers under de Gaulle's auspices to free France from Vichy (q.v.) control. In 1947 the Algerians were promised a full share in the political and social life of the country, which would gradually pass under Moslem control. But throughout the Fourth Republic (q.v.) the intransigently right-wing attitude of the French military authorities prevented fulfilment of the 1947 promises and aggravated a growing sense of Arab nationalism. The country was devastated by armed rebellion from 1954 to 1962 (see *Algerian War* below). Algeria's independence was proclaimed on 3 July 1962: Ben Bella (q.v.) was president until June 1965 when he was deposed by his Defence Minister, Colonel Houari Boumedienne (1925-79), who established a left-wing government in which he was himself 'President of the Council of Revolution'. Boumedienne's international socialism at times threatened his neighbours, Tunisia, Morocco and Mauritania: there was heavy fighting between Moroccan and Algerian troops around the fort of Amgala in the former Spanish Sahara during February 1976.

Algerian War (1954-62). A guerrilla war was waged by the Algerian F.L.N. (Front de la Libération Nationale) against the French military and administrative authorities in Algeria from 1 November 1954 until the conclusion of the Évian Agreements (q.v.) of March 1962. The F.L.N. was at first heavily outnumbered:

800 Arabs against a French army in 1954 of 20,000 veterans. Isolated terrorism met a violent French response, which increased rapidly the strength of the F.L.N. and the unity of the Arab resistance. F.L.N. atrocities against Europeans in the Constantine area of eastern Algeria on 20 August 1955 provoked cruelties from the army which the Governor-General, Soustelle, could not control. Fighting was concentrated in eastern Algeria for the first two years of the war but spread to the city of Algiers in the winter of 1956-7. General Massu and the 10th Parachute Division were given police powers in Algiers early in 1957, which they used savagely against alleged terrorists and strikers. As the French generals gained the military advantage in Algeria, they turned against the French Government at home, suspecting it would negotiate with the F.L.N. By insisting on keeping Algeria French ('*Algérie Française*') the settlers and the army helped overthrow the Fourth Republic of France in May 1958. Their subsequent discovery that General de Gaulle (q.v.) favoured a settlement with the Arabs led to two more acts of military insubordination in Algiers (January 1960 and 22 April 1961) and abortive plots by General Salan and his O.A.S. (qq.v.). Militarily the French army remained in control of Algeria throughout the 'Algerian War', but the conflict convulsed France in a moral and intellectual crisis. To de Gaulle it seemed as if the only way to solve the crisis was to offer the Algerians a free choice of complete integration, complete independence or self-government in association with France. The bitterness aroused by the methods of the army ensured that, in the plebiscite proposed for Algeria by de Gaulle, 99 per cent voted for independence.

Allenby, Edmund Henry Hynman (1861-1936; created viscount 1919), British general. Educated at Haileybury and Sandhurst, commissioned in Inniskilling Dragoons and served in South Africa. Commanded cavalry division B.E.F. in 1914 and Third Army in the battle of Arras, 1917. In June 1917 he was appointed commander in Palestine and began a methodically prepared advance against the Turks in October, through Gaza and Jaffa, capturing Jerusalem on 9 December. Although many of his units were withdrawn to France, he was able to mount another major offensive on 18 September 1918, and, by skilful use of cavalry, rolled the Turks back through Syria before they signed an armistice at Mudros (30 October 1918). He served as High Commissioner in Egypt, 1919-25. Allenby was a scholarly field commander of great drive and vitality.

Allende, Salvador (1908-73), President of Chile. Born in Valparaiso, practised medicine and helped found the Chilean Socialist Party, a Marxist organization independent of the orthodox Communist Party. He was a Socialist Deputy from 1937 to 1945, serving briefly as Minister of Health, and a Socialist senator from 1945 to 1970. After unsuccessfully contesting three presidential elections, he became in September 1970 the first Marxist to attain the Presidency by free democratic election. He sought to build a socialist society in Chile while maintaining parliamentary government, but he was faced with mounting opposition from business interests, supported by the C.I.A. (q.v.). Widespread industrial unrest in 1972 and 1973 led to violence, culminating in a crippling strike, summoned by the National Confederation of Lorry Owners. Allende was overthrown by a military junta, led by General Pinochet, on 11 September 1973 and perished in the fighting at the Presidential palace in Santiago.

Alliance for Progress

Alliance for Progress (1961). A conference attended by representatives of all the American States except Cuba was held at Punta del Este, Uruguay, in August 1961 to give form to a plan for economic and social development in the Americas proposed by President Kennedy in March 1961. The conference produced a formal alliance ('charter') which pledged the members to help each other by coordinating the economies of Latin America and by resisting the spread of communism. Funds were received from the U.S. Agency for International Development from 1962 onwards. The Alliance for Progress, which was seen in Washington as a powerful diplomatic weapon against Fidel Castro (q.v.), was at its strongest under the Presidencies of Kennedy and Johnson.

Alsace-Lorraine. Provinces of northern France, linked in name only after annexation by Germany in 1871. Most of Alsace was French from 1648 onwards, while Lorraine was formally added to the French Kingdom in 1766. Except for a small area of Lorraine around Belfort, the provinces were ceded to Germany by the Treaty of Frankfurt (May 1871) after the defeat of the French in the Franco-Prussian War. The provinces were constituted an 'imperial territory' (*Reichsland*) in June 1871, and not accorded any degree of autonomy until 1911. The industrial output of the provinces increased dramatically between 1878 and 1900 as a result of the Gilchrist-Thomas process of making steel, and this new wealth intensified the German desire to assimilate the provinces. Several incidents showed Alsatian resentment; the most serious of these were the riots which occurred at Zabern (Saverne) in November 1913 after a German lieutenant insulted some young Alsatians. Within France, indignation at the loss to Germany of Alsace-Lorraine effectively prevented any diplomatic collaboration between the two countries: in Paris, the statue representing the city of Strasbourg was permanently veiled from 1871 to 1918. The Treaty of Versailles (1919) restored Alsace-Lorraine to France, although between the two world wars disputes over religious questions led to occasional demands for autonomy from within the provinces. In 1940 Alsace-Lorraine was declared an integral part of Hitler's Germany, but was liberated once more in 1945.

Alto Adige. Italian name for the region of the South Tirol (q.v.) ceded to Italy by the Peace of St Germain in 1919 so as to give the Italians a frontier on the Brenner Pass but creating a German-speaking minority of 200,000 Austrians within Italy. Agreements in 1939 and 1946 failed to safeguard the interests of the Austrian community, but a new settlement providing for considerable autonomy was approved by the Italian Senate in June 1971 and embodied in an Austro-Italian Treaty signed a month later and backed by the International Court of Justice at The Hague.

Amethyst Incident. On 20 April 1949, during the last phase of the Chinese revolution, the frigate H.M.S. *Amethyst* was fired on by communist guns on the Yangtze-Kiang while sailing up river with supplies for the British community in Nanking. Seventeen officers and ratings were killed and thirty wounded. Attempts to rescue the frigate by three other naval vessels failed, with over seventy further casualties. *Amethyst* remained off an island in the river, with her crew suffering considerable privations, for more than fourteen weeks of extremely hot weather. Eventually, on the night of 30-31 July, the *Amethyst*, commanded by

Lt-Comdr J. S. Kerans, successfully sailed 140 miles down river to the sea, maintaining speed of over 22 knots so as to avoid the gunfire from the five lines of forts along the river. The escape of H.M.S. *Amethyst* was greeted with much jubilation in Britain. Although it was not clear why the vessel was attacked and detained by the communists, people assumed the incident was intended as an assertion of exclusively Chinese sovereignty over an international waterway. The courageous escape of the frigate came as a welcome filip to falling national pride.

Amin, Idi (born 1926), Ugandan President. On 25 January 1971 the Ugandan army and police, headed by the commander-in-chief Major-General Idi Amin, seized control of Kampala while President Obote was out of the country. Amin, a former sergeant in the King's African Rifles, proclaimed himself head of state next day and on 2 February dissolved parliament and formed a Defence Council under his own chairmanship. His rule favoured the Moslems of northern Uganda (among whom he had originated) at the expense of other tribes and national groups. Most Uganda Asians were expelled in the autumn of 1972 and many British nationals were also required to leave. Relations between Britain and Uganda were strained on several occasions: in the summer of 1975, over a threat of execution against Mr Denis Hills, the British author of an unpublished book which criticized the President; in July 1976, over the disappearance of Mrs Dora Bloch, an elderly hostage of British and Israeli nationality who was in a Ugandan hospital during the raid on Entebbe (q.v.); and early in 1977 over the sudden death of the Archbishop of Uganda. Amin's relations with his African neighbours were frequently tense and there were armed clashes between Ugandan troops and soldiers from both Kenya and Tanzania, even though Amin served as Chairman of the Organization of African Unity (q.v.) in 1975-6. No other political figure in modern Africa so blatantly championed the interests of a small section of his people against the rest. Thirty-three heads of government at the 1977 Commonwealth Conference condemned his regime.

Amritsar Riots. On 10 April 1919 rioting broke out in the Punjabi town of Amritsar at a time of great agitation for Indian self-government. The local British commander, General Dyer, called out his troops and, without adequate warning, ordered them to fire on an angry but unarmed mob: 379 Indians were killed and 1,200 wounded. Subsequently a government commission of inquiry severely censured Dyer and he was required to resign his commission. The shooting left a bitter legacy in Anglo-Indian relations.

Anarchists. As a political movement anarchism dates from the middle of the nineteenth century. Originally, in theory and practice, it was idealistic and pacifist: 'Government, like the wearing of clothes, is a sign of lost innocence' was a traditional adage. The most famous of the idealists were the Russians, Leo Tolstoy (1828-1910) and Prince Peter Kropotkin (1842-1921), and the archetypal anarchist, believing in the nihilistic virtue of destruction, was Mikhail Bakunin (1814-76), also a Russian but of greatest influence in Spain. The American, Emma Goldman (q.v.) and the Italian, Errico Malatesta (q.v.), originally shared the idealistic rejection of violence, preached by Tolstoy and influencing many writers and artists. In the 1890s and 1900s, however, anarchism became associated with violence and assassination. Anarchists were responsible