HOW THE WORLD FARED IN 1922

Prosperity, Discontent and Two Big Strikes Among Notable Developments in America.

REVERSE FOR REPUBLICANS

Europe Still Is in Economic and Financial Turmoil—Downfall of Lloyd George—Turks Defeat Greeks and Recover Lost Territory —Fascisti Gain Control of Italy.

By EDWARD W. PICKARD

Momentous events and developments marked the year 1922, both at home and abroad. In America these included the great strikes of coal miners and railroad shopmen; the passage by congress of a new tariff bill, and the general defeat of the Republican party in the November elections. Among the most noteworthy events elsewhere were the establishment of the Irish Free State; the election of a new pope; the rout of the Greeks in Asia Minor and the regeneration of the Turkish state, followed by the Near East peace conference at Lausanne; the downfall of Prime Minister Lloyd George, and the triumph of the Fascisti in Italy.

Although the people of the United States enjoyed a fair amount of prosperity throughout the year, they were discontented and dissatisfied, and showed it when they went to the polls in November. Seemingly they did not like the new tariff law, and the big strikes and the matter of prohibition enforcement also had their effect then. Economic and financial conditions in some of the European countries showed little or no improvement, due in part to the continued state of unsettlement concerning the German reparations and to the renewed turmoil in the Near East. Other countries, notably Italy and Czechoslovakia, moved definitely toward stabilization and prosperity. Communism and socialism suffered a tremendous setback in Italy when the Fascisti rebelled against those doctrines and took over the control of the government.

As in 1921, December was marked by an international conference in Washington, for President Harding had invited the Central American republics to send delegates there to discuss limitation of armaments and other questions. They met on December 4.

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

January found the great powers still engaged in formulating treaties and agreements in the Washington conference on armaments and Pacific ocean problems, and on February 1 the delegates, in plenary session, adopted the five-power naval limitation treaty with an agreement on Pacific fortifications; passed resolutions declaring the open door in China, and approved a treaty for the restriction of the use of poison gas and submarines in warfare. At the same time, Mr. Balfour announced that Great Britain would restore Wei-Hai-Wei to China. Three days later the conference approved a number of treaties designed to restore to China some of her lost liberties and passed a resolution for the creation of an international commission to revise the rules of warfare. On February 6 the delegates signed all the treaties and the conference adjourned sine die, and in four days President Harding submitted the treaties to the senate.

By the end of March the senate had ratified all these treaties, as well as one with Japan, by which the troublesome question of American rights on the island of Yap was settled. Great Britain and Japan also, in the course of time, ratified the conference pacts, and, like the United States, took steps toward putting into effect the terms of the treaty on naval limitation. But France, more interested in her own troubles connected with the German reparations and with the developments in the Near East, delayed action, and her example was followed by several smaller nations. Thus the full effect of some of the treaties was lost for the time being.

Rehabilitation of Europe, economic and financial, was the great problem that confronted the world and, of course, its solution depended to a considerable extent on a settlement of the German reparations matter. This had not been reached when the year came to a close. The allied commission, an international bankers' committee and various individuals struggled with the question throughout the twelve months, but it would be tedious to tell in detail of their efforts. The Germans steadily maintained that complete enforcement of the treaty of Versailles would ruin Germany and be disastrous for the rest of Europe, although Doctor Wirth, the chancellor, held that Germany must and would ultimately pay the reparations bill. Berlin insisted that a long moratorium be granted on all the payments and that an international loan to Germany be arranged. France, depending on the reparations money for reconstruction and continually on the verge of bankruptcy, would not listen to propositions for the reduction of the war bill, and from time to time made preparations to put into effect sanctions against Germany, such as occupying the Ruhr district and the national forests in the Rhineland. Always Great Britain objected to this until late in the year, when Bonar Law had succeeded Lloyd George as prime minister. Then, at a conference of the allied premiers in London, Bonar Law gave the French to understand that, though Britain could not approve of military measures against Germany, she would not actively oppose them if the Germans defaulted in the reparations payments due in January. The conference adjourned to meet in Paris on January 2 and Premier Poincare intimated that he might be satisfied with milder measures. About this time it was stated in Washington that the United States was looking for a way to help out Europe without entangling herself in alliances, but nothing definite was suggested and Europe was skeptical.

On April 10 an economic and financial conference, called by the allied supreme council, opened in Genoa. Germany and Russia were invited to participate, under certain restrictions, but soon after the sessions began the delegates of those two nations concluded a treaty canceling their war debts and the treaty of Brest-Litovsk and establishing full diplomatic relations. Surprised and angered, the great powers, despite the protests of the neutrals, barred the Germans from further participation in the discussion of Russian affairs, which was the most important subject before the conference then. The allied nations offered to give financial aid to Russia under certain conditions, but Belgium refused to agree to this and a day or two later the French withdrew their assent, charging that Lloyd George was practicing trickery to gain control of the Russian oil fields. Meanwhile the soviet delegates were making such excessive demands that the uselessness of further negotiations became evident and the conference adjourned after adopting an eight months' truce with Russia.

Mustapha Kemal Pasha and the Turkish nationalists, who had disavowed all the doings of the Turkish government at Constantinople, spent the summer in secretly preparing for a great offensive against the Greeks in Anatolia. They opened the attack on August 23 and took the enemy completely by surprise. Within one week the Greek armies had been routed and driven back to Smyrna and other coast positions and Athens was asking for an armistice and agreeing to get out of Asia Minor. Kemal occupied Smyrna on September 9 and five days later a large part of the city was destroyed by flames. At first the Turkish troops were blamed for this, but later developments indicated the conflagration was started by the fleeing Greeks and by looters. Great Britain, which had been sponsor for the Greek venture in Asia Minor, was alarmed by the expressed intention of the nationalists to take possession of Constantinople and the rest of the old Turkish empire, and she called on her dominions and France, Italy, Serbia, Rumania and Greece to join her in the defense of the Dardanelles. France, which had been giving aid and comfort to the Turks, and Italy objected to military operations against the Kemalists, and some of the British dominions were noticeably cool. However, Britain hurried reinforcements to her land and naval forces in the Near East and let the Turk and the world know that she would act alone if necessary. The allies on September 23 invited the nationalists to a peace conference, agreeing to return to them Constantinople, Adrianople and eastern Thrace in return for the guaranteed freedom of the straits. Kemal insisted that Russia must be included, and the allies agreed that the soviet government should participate in settlement of the question of the Dardanelles. After several trying days, when war seemed almost unavoidable, the allies and nationalists met at Mudania on October 3 to arrange an armistice. A week later a protocol was signed providing for the evacuation of eastern Thrace by Greece within 15 days and its delivery to Turkey within 45 days, and, yielding to the Kemalists the civil control of Constantinople pending a peace conference. This conference opened in Lausanne, Switzerland, November 20, with the prospect of being long in session. The United States declined full participation, but sent Ambassador Child, Minister Grew and Admiral Bristol to guard the interests of America and Americans, these being especially in connection with the oil fields of Mosul. The conference had to deal with the frontiers of the Turkish state, both in Europe and in Mesopotamia, where the oil fields are located, and with the control of the straits and the safeguarding of the Christian minorities in Turkey. By the middle of December the conferees were well on the way to agreement, Turkey had promised to join the League of Nations as soon as peace was signed, and the treaty was in process of being drafted.

On May 15 the conference to settle the old Tacna-Arica dispute between Chile and Peru opened in Washington, and in due time came to a successful conclusion, adopting a compromise plan suggested by Secretary Hughes. Colombia and Venezuela settled their boundary dispute on April 9. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Albania were recognized by the United States as sovereign states on July 27.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS

With Michael Collins as its head, the provisional government of the Irish Free State was established in January, after Dail Eireann had accepted the treaty with England and De Valera had refused to accede. Immediately the republicans, now rebels, started a warfare that lasted throughout the year and was marked by innumerable assassinations and other outrages. The Free State forces gradually gained possession of most of the territory where the rebels were strong and the fighting degenerated into bushwhack-

[illegible] On August 22 Gen. Collins was killed in an ambush and Liam Lynch succeeded to the leadership of the rebels, but they declined to "come to the table." Lynch was killed April 10, 1923, and De Valera, who surrendered and renounced, as were all the Irish Free state leaders, including Collins, was released from jail December 6, 1923, shortly after Timothy Healy as governor general.

Prime Minister Lloyd George held power through all the vicissitudes of the year until October 19, 1922, when the conservatives in parliament decided to abandon the coalition and act in future as a separate party. The premier was thus deprived of his real support and promptly resigned, with his cabinet. A. Bonar Law, chosen leader of the conservatives, succeeded him, formed a new ministry and called an election for November 15. At the polls he won control of parliament. The labelites made great gains and became the "opposition party."

Under the leadership of Benito Mussolini, the Fascisti of Italy, organized primarily to protect the country against the communists, fought a long and successful battle, growing steadily in strength, notably by the recession of many thousands of working men, they saved the industries of Italy from the Reds, and finally, dissatisfied with the weak policies of Premier Facta, compelled his resignation on October 26. Mussolini was made premier and at once set to work to restore the prosperity of the country. The king and chamber of deputies gave him full power to put into effect his contemplated reforms and economic measures, and as he had the support of most of the people, the prospects for Italy were bright.

Greece's disaster in Asia Minor resulted in the second abdication of King Constantine on September 26, in the face of a revolt by the returning troops. Next day the crown prince, George, was sworn in as king and a new government installed. The revolutionists in control caused the arrest of various former cabinet officers and generals on the charge of high treason in connection with the debacle in Anatolia, and six of them, including three former premiers, were condemned to death. Great Britain tried vainly to prevent the execution and then broke relations with Greece, probably glad to get rid of an embarrassing alliance. Prince Andrew, uncle of the king, also was tried and condemned, but escaped with exile.

M. Briand resigned as premier of France on January 12 because his policies at the Cannes conference were opposed. He was succeeded by M. Poincare, whose policies included strict enforcement of the treaty of Versailles.

Pope Benedict XV died on January 22, and on February 2 the Sacred College met in Rome to choose his successor. Four days later Cardinal Achille Ratti, archbishop of Milan, was elected, and on February 12 he was crowned pope as Pius XI.

To the account of affairs in Turkey related above is to be added the downfall of the sultan. Considered by the Angora government to be a tool of the British, and consequently a traitor, he was deposed on November 1. The sovereignty of the nation was declared to be in the hands of the people and the name changed from Ottoman empire to State of Turkey. The dethroned ruler took refuge on Malta. On November 18 his nephew, Abdul Medjid Effendi, was elected caliph of the Moslem church.

Germany devoted herself through the year largely to efforts to evade the payment of reparations, to determined work to regain her foreign trade, and to the printing of innumerable billions of paper marks. The value of the mark fluctuated widely, reaching a low level of more than eight thousand for a dollar. On June 24 Dr. Walter Rathenau, foreign minister, was assassinated in Berlin by reactionaries. Chancellor Wirth and his cabinet were forced out of office November 14 and Wilhelm Cuno became chancellor with a ministry in which the socialists and communists were not included.

On December 9 Gabriel Narutowicz was elected president of Poland to succeed General Pilsudski. He was duly inaugurated, amid scenes of great disorder and on December 16 was assassinated by an artist.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS

As has been said above, the people of the United States, despite the fact that they were relatively prosperous, were not contented. Taxes, rentals and the prices of the necessities of life remained too high, and the farmer especially complained because he did not receive enough for the products of his toil. As usual, the unrest expressed itself at the polls. What many considered the conservatism of the Harding administration was blamed, with or without reason. As the primary elections in various states came along the voters saw red, rolled their sleeves, and respectfully the more conservative candidates were beaten by so-called progressives. Albert J. Beveridge defeated Senator New in Indiana; Lynn J. Frazier defeated Senator McCumber in North Dakota; Senators Johnson of California and La Follette of Wisconsin were triumphantly renominated—and there were parts after such instances. In typical cases the predicted that the Democrats would win the election of November 7, and the people justified the forecast. In both houses and among the Republicans [illegible] progressive [illegible] Democratic [illegible] Democratic [illegible] Democratic