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ANGLO-AMERICAN TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION

THE broadsheet, "America and Britain", which has recently been issued by Political and Economic Planning (P E P) directs attention to some of those technical aspects of co-operation between Great Britain and the United States, which are as important for the implementing of common policy and the achievement of common purposes as the great traditions and ideals on which Anglo-American co-operation is ultimately based.

Although the vivid realization of common danger and the need for joint measures against it has provided a stimulus to Anglo-American co-operation, it is not the only one. Already the question of dealing with food surpluses and their relation to European needs after the War has been responsible for joint planning and co-operation. The United States is vitally interested in the work of both the Leith-Ross Committee and the Willingdon Commission, and the agreements with the Governments of Australia and New Zealand on the disposal of their surplus food production recently announced by Mr. Arthur Greenwood are part of a great scheme of international reconstruction, the success of which depends on common action with the United States and with the Latin American republics.

Developments in this sphere providing the means by which the United States can, in accordance with President Roosevelt's pledge of March 15, play its great part in the period of world reconstruction for the good of humanity, cannot but have a profound bearing on the problem of the formal organization of Anglo-American co-operation which is the theme of Mr. Streit's "Union with Britain Now". Indeed they may well provide the experience upon which any federation proposals can be most securely based, and seen from one angle represent experiments in keeping with the traditions of both democracies from which new methods can be most surely developed.

There are other fields also in which this experience is being gained. A notable article by Prof. A. V. Hill in *The Times* has described the way in which organization is being developed for an effective Anglo-American partnership in research. Already last summer, as a result of an approach by Lord Lothian, President Roosevelt invited the British Government to send a mission to the United States to consider ways and means of sharing scientific and technical information between the United States Services and the National Defense Research Committee on one side and the British Services and scientific organizations on the other.

The very satisfactory arrangements ultimately made as the outcome of Sir Henry Tizard's mission have played an important part in creating good will and enlisting the co-operation of American men of science, and the liaison now established will become increasingly important as the Lease-Lend Act operates.

The possibilities of co-operation in this way are as yet barely realized by the majority of scientific workers, and whether in research or the supply of skilled personnel, collaboration between British and American men of science offers immense advantages to both countries, in peace as well as in time of war. The advantage to the United States of British experience in war research and in operations against the enemy should be as obvious as is that of the vast scientific and technical resources of the United States to Great Britain. What is less apparent is that the increasing dependence on American supplies to which the Lease-Lend Act commits us implies in the long run the acceptance of United States patterns, often adapted from Allied types, or in the light of Allied experience, as the basis of the army and air force equipment of all the forces using American supplies.

An understanding between the United States and the British Commonwealth on the standardization of equipment is accordingly essential, with agreement as to the best form of mechanisms and devices of warfare. This, with the establishment of rapid transport both ways for essential information, experimental equipment and key personnel is one of the most important immediate objectives on the scientific and technical side. Following this might come some agreement as to the location of research on different types of problem, the more immediate problems being tackled in Great Britain, the longer-range problems in the United States, for example.

The many able men and women attracted to Washington by the New Deal provide the United States with an invaluable source of staff for the war-time organizations, and the strengthening of the United States Civil Service in the last ten years has also been a major factor in enabling the administration to deal with its new tasks. As is increasingly recognized in Great Britain, even more important than the new powers and new machinery of government is the way in which they are used. This is primarily a question of personnel, and there is little doubt that both countries could profit by use of the other's experience in such fields as labour policy, the handling of man-power, and all questions of priority, both in respect of man-power and materials. Co-operation indeed in this field offers the only prospect of obtaining the full efficiency involved in maintaining the proper balance between the British armed forces and the overseas

workers. The former can only be maintained at its level of nearly four millions because the United States and the Dominions provide its supplies. The establishment in London and Washington of a common research organization to consider the economics of the British Empire and the United States in this way might be a useful practical recognition of such unity and powerfully assist the elimination of bottle-necks.

Even in a country as wealthy as the United States, some shortages are bound to occur—probably with non-ferrous metals such as manganese and chromium and the special steels—and some rationing of raw materials on the British model may be required, with a thorough discard of the idea that monetary means can secure smooth and rapid production for war. Already it is recognized that some restriction of consumption so as to divert output from the non-essential industries to war production is necessary in the United States as in Great Britain, and the whole field of war economy offers possibilities of pooling experience that should promote co-operation and understanding for peace purposes as well as for those of war.

This is notably true in certain special fields such as those of food policy and social security, to which particular attention is directed in the P E P broadsheet. It was increasingly recognized before the War, on both sides of the Atlantic, that the provision of a minimum diet and standard of life ought to be a first charge upon the national income. The supply of milk to all children in schools and junior instruction centres in Great Britain under the Milk Act of 1934 has been followed by war-time measures designed to prevent the fall in food standards from affecting the diets of poorer people. The American Food Stamp plan was an ambitious experiment with the same end in view of increasing the consumption of the protective foods, dairy products and fruit, of which the poor consume so much less than the richer classes.

Wide adoption of certain of the measures, such as school feeding, introduced in Great Britain, might effectively raise the low dietary standards in some parts of, and among certain classes in, the United States. Moreover, as Mr. Winant emphasized in his valedictory report to the International Labour Organisation, war increases the need for social services to cushion the shock of reductions in consumption and drastic changes in popular modes of life. The creation in peace-time of a comprehensive system of social security services is a great asset both to Great Britain and the United States, and one of the really solid achievements of the New Deal has been the application of the principles of British social legislation in a thorough and promising way.

The importance of developments in this field, notwithstanding the controversy persisting on both sides of the Atlantic on the administrative and financial problems involved, should not be overlooked. The extension of the unemployment and health insurance schemes in Britain, for example, removes one of the causes of lower middle-class insecurity which in Germany contributed to the rise to power of the Nazis, and may also facilitate a new social and political solidarity apart from its contribution to the establishment of the third freedom of President Roosevelt's speeches. Beyond this, the compromises which have been reached at different points reflecting the different balance of forces in the two communities cannot disguise the common pattern leading up to and flowing from every new social measure in Great Britain and the United States.

Many of the developments which have taken place on both sides of the Atlantic are scarcely more than improvisations to deal with urgent needs. This is notably true of education, where neither of the two great democracies has an entirely satisfactory record. In both countries, however, there have been developments, such as the country schools established as a result of evacuation in Great Britain, and the Civilian Conservation Corps in the United States, which hold great promise for the future integration of town and country and afford opportunities for pooling experience and for the growth of mutual understanding.

These wide fields over which Anglo-American co-operation is already proceeding, and the immense range of common experience, are a powerful reason against hastily forcing the organization of formal co-operation into any set mould or union. That effort should be deliberately directed to the examination of the possibilities and the testing of alternatives is all to the good, but the utmost care should be taken to avoid any step which might impede rather than promote effective collaboration. For this reason with such investigation a nationwide campaign of education should proceed even in the stress of war, supplementing the brilliant efforts of leaders on both sides of the Atlantic, to interpret and understand the differing interests and points of view of the two peoples as well as their common ideals, traditions and heritage. Even the domestic post-war reconstruction plans in Great Britain under the Ministry of Works and Buildings and the Cabinet Committee on Reconstruction and War Aims are being followed with keen interest in the United States, where the resolution before the Senate proposing the establishment of a "Post-Emergency Economic Advisory Commission" to plan for full employment indicates that people in the United States are also beginning to think and plan in response to the same challenge.

If there is interest in questions of domestic reconstruction, this is even more true in international planning, where many thorny questions will require much thought and careful consideration. The visits of leading British citizens to the United States and the dispatch of American missions to Britain on such varied questions as economic mobilization, scientific co-operation, health services, A.R.P. and fire-watching may help to cross-fertilize opinion and prepare the ground for what must be comprehensive plans. The presence of many European refugees in both countries and such developments as the transference of the headquarters of certain international trade unions to Britain, and the recent conference of representatives of Allied Governments in London should also assist in the formulation of sound proposals for European reconstruction.

The Eighth American Science Congress in May 1940 favoured an inventory of world natural resources and the formulation of a general policy and specific programme of action to promote mutual conservation and prudent utilization of natural resources for the welfare of all nations in the interest of permanent peace. The report of a round-table conference in February at Princeton, New Jersey, under the auspices of *Fortune*, indicates that influential American opinion already recognizes that American help is essential to eliminate the growing burdens of an armament economy. The majority favoured the acceptance of commitments on behalf of a New Order of Free Peoples resting on recognition by the State of the unique value of human personality, restriction of national sovereignty, and creation of effective international institutions.

The report went on to outline a programme of war-time co-ordination, including the formation of an Anglo-American Technical Board to work out common specifications, the creation of a United States Department of Economic Defense, and joint purchase and storage of raw materials by the two Governments, the gradual creation of an Anglo-American Economic Council, and the appointment of an official commission to prepare a programme of post-war demobilization. The problems of the latter period are considered at length, and suggestions advanced for American contributions to the restoration of a world economy include the continuance of the low tariff policy and the resumption of foreign lending on behalf of a general reconstruction policy.

Whatever form the organization of the new order of free peoples may take, this report suggests that the United States should at least participate in machinery for the settlement of international disputes and in a system of effective sanctions against aggressors, accept the responsibilities of a creditor

nation, conclude agreements regulating domestic policies that might injure other peoples, and participate in agreements for the reduction of armaments. This is weighty evidence of American support for the Atlantic Charter.

Both in Britain and in the United States scientific workers were among the first to realize the true nature of the Nazi menace and its attack on freedom of thought and investigation. They will appreciate the enduring values which community of tradition and doctrine give to the Anglo-

American co-operation now so rapidly developing. They will not be the less zealous in their efforts to evolve in scientific and technical matters the machinery of effective co-operation, and to assist in the educational work which makes for understanding between the two communities for this growing evidence of some greater and more enduring co-operation after the War, in the tremendous task of establishing a world order to serve more abundantly man's noblest heritage and highest aspirations as well as his material needs.

A JERSEYMAN AT OXFORD

A Jerseyman at Oxford

By Robert Ranulph Marett. Pp. xi+346+4 plates. (London, New York and Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1941.) 15s. net.

TO-DAY it is increasingly the custom among men and women, if they count themselves to have done or seen something, to write their autobiographies, and honesty compels the critic to own that they are seldom successful. But this book is an outstanding exception. Here is a man who has "warmed both hands beside the fire of life", and in his seventy-fifth year that fire has not yet shrunk. He writes with zest and gusto *currente calamo* out of the fullness of a mind produced not only by reading and disciplined study, but also by knowledge of many friends and many countries, together with many and varied experiences such as come to a man who prefers the struggle to the prize, and can throw himself wholly into what he happens to be doing.

Dr. Marett in comparison with the vast majority of his fellow-countrymen, as he would himself be first to confess, has been a fortunate man from the start. Born of good family, reaching back through many generations of service in Jersey, he was brought up in a good home with wise and cultured parents in a beautiful place set fair in the freedom of sky and sea. Nature in her kindness endowed him with good brains, good memory, lively imagination and abounding physical vigour. He has been excellent in games which have interested him, particularly golf: he has been, and is, a good shot. Eyesight, strength and nerve have not failed him in more than seventy years. When as a young man just down from Oxford he was free to travel abroad, he enjoyed long spells in France, Germany and Italy. If Paris and an aristocratic home, poor but proud, bored him, in Germany he was able to move in the Junker set, to dine once in the Kaiser's presence, to frequent the

universities, and to be adopted by the American colony. In Italy he was under the patronage of Lord and Lady Dufferin, and all doors were open to him. Antiquities, pictures, the best company, rides over the Campagna, Rome, Naples, Sorrento—"a rapturous year" he rightly calls it. And what a mixture of interesting people for a young man to meet—Lord Dufferin and Lord Hartington, Lanciani and Dr. Axel Munthe, Buffalo Bill and Prince Napoleon Bonaparte, even King Umberto and the Pope himself—the last in compromising circumstances. Some will pretend to look down on this sort of thing, but these advantages are very real for a young man who knows how to mix, and does not allow his head to be turned.

Not only has he been fortunate, but also lucky: in the lottery of life luck counts too. Lucky, when as a child of eight he was rescued from his burning house, lucky when on the Riffel Alp he fell off a cliff into a dead pine-tree which held, and on the Langdale Pikes off a crag forty feet into soft snow; lucky again when, feeling ill in Oxford, he pulled by chance the door-bell of a doctor who could diagnose meningitis at sight, lucky in the last war when in a black-out he fell between a moving train and the platform, and escaped hurt, but not maimed, and twice when he came very near to German bombs; lucky when but the other day he received thirty-seven pellets at close range in his leg, and did not lose it. In all these cases the dice might so easily have fallen otherwise.

This book begins rightly with his island, his ancestors and his home: there emerges the picture of a boy with sport in his blood, but sport going along with natural history. A good preparatory school, and Victoria College in a good period follow, the picture now of a boy picking up classics without taking too much trouble. A Balliol Exhibition is won, Benjamin Jowett enters his life, he becomes in his own words a "smug", or "a natural extrovert imposing upon himself an