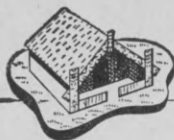




WORLD

A NEW BACKGROUND BULLETIN VOL 3 NO 7
ARROWTOWN PAGE 3



KORERO

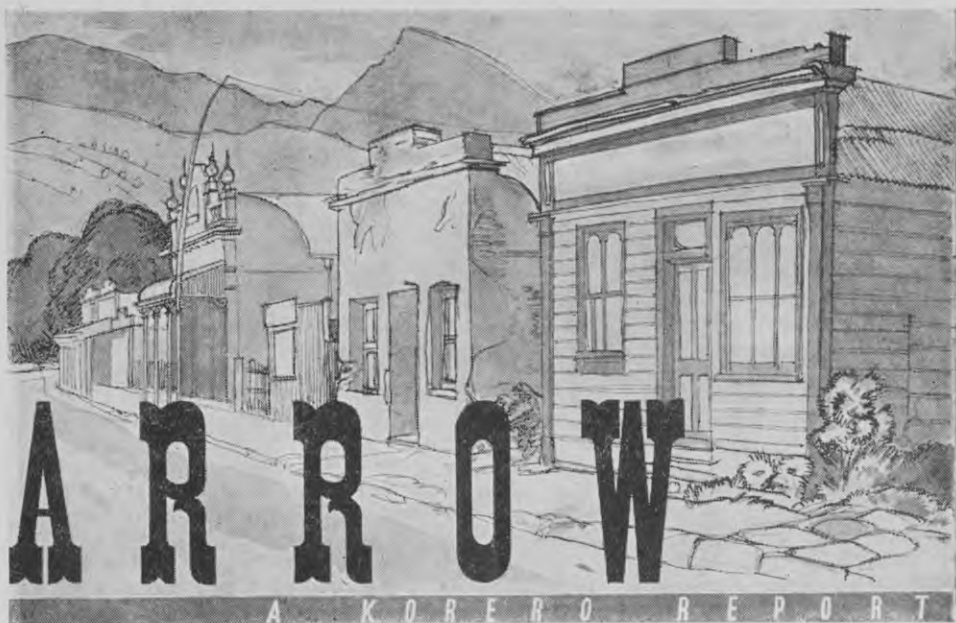
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Contributions to Korero

You are reminded that a maximum sum of £3, payable in canteen orders where there are canteens under New Zealand control and in cash where there are not, will be divided among contributors in each issue. It is necessary, therefore, that all contributors should send us number, name, and full address. Remember, too, that articles are not the only contributions we are looking for. We would like to see also short paragraphs, black and white drawings, and verse. There is space, too, for your comments and inquiries, provided you keep them short. The address is: "D.A.E.W.S., Army H.Q., Wellington." Mark your envelopes *Korero* in the corner.





TO THE casual visitor, at any rate, Arrowtown is a more pleasant township than most of the other once-flourishing gold-mining settlements of Otago. The others have about them a touch of decay; their best days are behind them. But Arrowtown is like a beginning; true, a beginning which has come to little beyond the grassy streets lined with small houses—houses which are all of wood and local stone and of one story, except for the higher-pitched roofs of three churches and the pink-washed front of the Bank of New Zealand.

Once there was a way of building in that district that would turn our architects' eyes homeward from American colonial and Spanish mission if they knew it was there. Stables, shepherds' huts, farm houses, accommodation houses fit their purposes and the landscape perfectly. The thick walls are built with slabs of stone bound with a cement of clay and lime. The panes of the sash-windows are delicately divided by thin moulded wood. The joiners took time to consider the proportions and placing of doors and windows and the grouping of farmhouse, stable and barn. This lends to

the scattered homesteads and most of the houses in the township an unself-conscious charm that can be found elsewhere only in early water colours and prints of New Zealand settlements.

Along the main street, Buckingham Street, are the shops (many of them empty): the bootmaker's shop, the general store which is so well stocked that there is no need to go to Cromwell or Queenstown for anything at all, the barber's shop, the builder's shop, the Royal Oak Hotel, the post-office; on the river-side stand the Central Hotel, the Athenæum hall, the garage, a house or two, Tom Johnson's confectionery shop, Mr. Roman's butcher's shop, and the Bank of New Zealand, open for business once a week. The bank and the post-office stand on opposite corners. Then, through an avenue of elms that meets to shut out the sky and branches over the small houses, Buckingham Street continues its magnificent way to Cromwell and the Crown Range. Only the footpath separates the houses from the tree-trunks so that their roots, finding a way up the inner walls, emerge through the guttering, leafing the edge of the roofs in pale green like a second spring.



The Mayor of Macetown packs saddle-bags outside Mr. Romans' butcher shop.

From the main street, away from the Arrow River, the land rises in gentle terraces to a small plateau, from which you can see a civilized landscape divided by hawthorne hedges, already in February heavy with red berries. Rows of straight poplars that have once been fencing-posts, silver poplars, walnuts, elms protecting the stone farmhouses, the surprising greenness of the downlands, the white roads, are like that slightly misconceived idea of English countryside



Mr. Romans is aged 102. He has lived more than half his life in the Arrow district.

which you see on American films. For encircling this tender scene rise the rocky spines and ribs of high arid brown hills and pointed blue mountains.

From here, too, you can see, half-hidden in a clump of trees and blackberry, the disused gaol, which is approached from the avenue through a gap in the trees. The white-washed front with its high barred windows and pad-locked door does not look particularly forbidding in the scorching Otago sun. But the walls are 2 ft. thick. So

that inside even on the hottest day the chill air of the cooler is calculated to strike the correct emotion from the guilty heart.

Inside the door to the left is the office and in the office is the early history of Arrowtown. This is written in flowing Victorian handwriting on the folio pages of eight leather-bound books that lie on an iron bedstead below a pair of ankle shackles—the Occurrence books which show a daily record from August 8, 1863, the Warden's letter books, the Gold-receipt books. But the books take up the story after the rush had begun. The beginning of the story is hectic and exciting and all that even the most romantic could wish it to be.

The township of Arrow huddles haphazardly up to the mouth of the Arrow Gorge. The river and the gorge are hidden from the scrutinizing eye by the folds of the hills and the terrace on which the town now stands. Into the gorge some seventy-three years ago came a half-caste Maori boy. He did not know gold when he saw it, but something he said later put Low and MacGregor, two squatters looking for pasture land, on the track of the hidden valley. There they found "gold in the hills, gold in the rocks, gold in the gravel, gold as yellow as Chinamen in the bottom of the shovel."

It was not long before they were followed by two other parties—Fox's and West's. Fox took charge, and the men

agreed to keep the find a dead secret. A fourth party arrived, and they, too, were forced to join the agreement. Everything went happily for the thirty men for four and a half weeks when they ran out of food. During those weeks one man took 110 lb. of gold out of his claim. Fox went over to Dunstan to get stores. But on his way back he was followed by some of the Dunstan miners. He had a long and difficult track to climb back to the Arrow. That night he pitched his tent next to his pursuers. When they woke next morning Fox had gone, leaving his tent and everything in it behind. There was no doubt now that Fox had struck it rich. It seems that the miners were just as keen to find Fox as they were to find gold. But food and tobacco ran short once more, and some of the party went again to Dunstan. They were tracked, and one October morning a crowd of men poured over the ridge and down into the gorge. The rush had begun.

And so did the entries in the leather-bound volumes. So, too, not long afterwards did the building of the gaol. By December, 1862, there were 1,500 men and six policemen at Arrow; and what with horse-stealing, dog-stealing, watch-stealing, drunkenness, theft, threatening behaviour, administering deleterious drugs to a race horse and deaths by violence, some of the diggers kept the police busy. One brief entry tells the story of the goldfields in a sentence: "This day a complaint was laid that an opossum rug was stolen from the tent of Madam Linel." Another entry gives permission to the Royal Oak Hotel to keep open for a party until five in the morning. Two days later we note that the proprietor is charged with swindling "by means of an unlawful game." One, Hayes, was charged with drunkenness on January 17, 1864. He was owner of a hotel. More than that, the story goes that he was Bully Hayes, the blackbird of the South Seas. However, the Diggers Rest, the Golden Age, and the Caffé de Paris (no doubt Mme. Linel's place of employment) were no better. "Disorderly conduct" is entered against their names.

The small library in the stone Council Chambers under the elms holds intact

another and different packet of the past for our inspection. There is Dickens, of course, Charles Reade, Miss Braddon, the best-seller of her day, Charlotte M. Yonge, Charles Kingsley, Cook's Voyages, Ouida, Mrs. Humphrey Ward, and Mrs. Henry Wood; Tennyson, Browning, and Hardy. This collection has been added to and is probably not very much read now, as the taste for improving literature has gone. It strikes us to-day as strange that the diggers could read the high-life sentimentalities of Miss Yonge and Miss Braddon, but no doubt they would be as much surprised to learn that we find entertainment in reading about the high adventures of their times and their doings.

The Gold-receipt book tells its tale, too. Between March 2-7, 1863, 7,329 oz. of gold were deposited in the bank, the highest amount recorded. As the months went by the town quietened down. And we see in the letter book on August 6, 1864, applications for "Agricultural areas," the original quest, you may remember, of Low and MacGregor. The applications were granted, and descendants of three of the original pioneers still hold the land.

Still there, too are some of the sons and daughters of the first gold-miners. Little wonder, then, that the people of Arrow-town to-day are, like the magnificent elms, rooted in their romantic past. You watch the elderly fingers turning a bottle half-filled with heavy grains of lifeless gold, but as stories of the past are told the golden grains come very much alive. The young people, too,



The Gaol.

have a very living sense of the past, and the tales are repeated without a word misplaced.

It might be supposed, now the gold that pollinated the town has for the most part gone that Arrowtown is dying as its pioneers die, for in a sense the pioneers are Arrowtown. And that is partly true.

The district high school and the convent school have long been closed; there is nowhere for the young men to learn a trade (the war has taken ninety-three of them from the small district, eight have been killed); the flour-mill is shut down; the irrigation scheme, the general store, the carrier, and the rabbit board employ among them only twenty-six persons, and they are the largest employers. Electricity waits one mile away from the borough for Australian hardwood power-poles.

But on Saturday night the narrow main street springs to life. The shop lamps are lit, motor-cars arrive, musterers come in to town on horseback, the weekly picture show begins at 8.30. Groups of well-to-do looking people (they seem all to be related) exchange gossip and greetings in the long southern twilight. This weekly animation shows that the district is substantially progressing even if the town stands still.

And the reason partly is that in 1931 the river was used for irrigating the dry lands round the town. Since then pipes and water-courses have been extended until about 7,000 acres are fed from the golden Arrow. Fat lamb pasture, lucerne, red clover, grass-seed, are grown where before the land held only sparse tussock grass. A farmer who at one time kept only one house cow now runs forty cows. It has always been the best barley land in New Zealand, and the crop brings 3d. a bushel more than the top price elsewhere. Clover-seed growing, oats, garden peas, turnips, have been remarkably profitable since the war.

The recent revival of Arrowtown and its district, compared with its early spectacular boom, is unexciting and matter-of-fact. And perhaps we shouldn't make too much of it, as the district is circumscribed and the farms are small. All the same it is hard to find elsewhere such landscape enclosing such a compact and genial sort of life.

One of our poets has written an epitaph for Arrowtown, and this is what he says—

Gold in the hills, gold in the rocks,
Gold in the river gravel,
Gold as yellow as Chinamen
In the bottom of the shovel.

(Continued at foot of page 7.)



Buckingham Street from The Avenue. The hills behind enclose the secret valley where the first gold discovery was made.

SIR JULIUS VOGEL

APOSTLE OF HIGH FINANCE

By R. M. BURDON

SPEAKING OF Sir Julius Vogel, a well-known newspaper once said: "The Treasury to him is the Tattersall of finance. He must give and take odds. Official ledgers are betting-books on a large scale, and balances represent what the State stands to win or lose."

This was undoubtedly a case where the writer was so pleased with his analogy that he allowed himself to be led astray by it into a somewhat unjust exaggeration. It was true that Vogel always believed the millenium, or something very like it, could be attained by bold, carefully-planned financial enterprises and Government-guaranteed loans at cheap rates of interest—a creed which, though not exactly one of moral elevation, had a great deal to be said for it in an empty country with few roads and railways—but he was not a true gambler in the real meaning of the word, because he always saw to it that the chances of fortune were enlisted in his favour by careful planning.

Unhappily for him, this rule only applied to public transactions. In private life he really was a gambler—a reckless, injudicious one, too, in consequence of which he died penniless. He was always ready to speculate with his own money, but when investing State funds he always wagered on what he believed were certainties.

His first attempt to guide the country's financial policy was not exactly a fortunate one—at least it sounded unfortunate, especially coming from him. Even in those days there were new and old

colonists. Vogel, a brilliant Jewish journalist, having only lately arrived on the heels of the Otago gold rush, was decidedly new, and an object of suspicion for the old. In 1865 he wrote to Edward Stafford, the Premier, explaining a scheme he had for settling the lands confiscated from the Maoris after the Waikato War. A million acres of this land was to be disposed of by lottery in sections of from 50 to 100,000 acres. Every section disposed of was to carry with it the grant of a certain number of free passages for immigrants from England—nearly 2,000 in all. The winner of a 100,000-acre section would be given eight free cabin passages; the winner of 10,000 acres, four cabin passages; the winner of 500 acres, five steerage passages; and so on. Free grants of land were to be made to 1,000 volunteers, who would be expected, if necessary, to defend the settlement. According to Vogel's calculations, the lottery would bring in a sum of £2,000,000 to the New Zealand Government.

The proposal would surely have carried greater weight, the aim and object of the proposer have sounded more altruistic, had not Vogel gone on to add:—

"I have the honour to offer, as a condition of trying my plan, that its negotiation be left to me in conjunction with any one named for the purpose by the Government or Provincial Governments.

"In respect to the cost of negotiation, the expenses will be large. There will have to be a vast number of agencies and sub-agencies for the disposal of tickets, and an allowance of 2½ to 7½ per

(Continued from page 6.)

Gold built the bank its sham façade;
Behind that studded door
Gold dribbled over the counter
Into the cracks of the floor.

Gold pollinated the whole town;
But the golden bees are gone—
Now round a country butcher's shop
The sullen blowflies drone.

Now paved with common clay
Are the roads of Arrowtown;
And the silt of the river is grey,
In the golden sun.

Arrowtown doesn't need an epitaph,
and if the poet had stayed a little longer
he would have found that the grave had
never been occupied.

cent. will have to be made to them. The advertising will be very costly and the correspondence costly. Taking these into consideration, I think that an allowance of 10 per cent. to cover all charges will have to be made to the negotiators."

Stafford made no objection to Vogel's proposal. As the scheme, if undertaken, would have to be carried out by the provinces, he forwarded copies of Vogel's letter to Wellington, Auckland, and Taranaki, the three provinces which contained confiscated Maori lands. Wellington thought it a good idea, but had no land which could be disposed of in the manner suggested. Auckland would have been very glad to consider the plan, but unfortunately had no land available. Taranaki flatly disapproved, and thought the scheme undesirable. There is little doubt that many other people thought it undesirable, too. The scheme was allowed to drop, and Vogel got little credit for having proposed it. Henceforward, the term gambler was used more freely than ever in connection with his name.

Five years later, with judgment developed and ideas matured, Vogel made a more statesmanlike gesture. The Stafford Government had fallen; William Fox was in power with Vogel as his Minister of Finance. The long drawn-out Maori War had left the whole country in a state of exhaustion and stagnation in spite of its potential wealth. Seeing that the answer to the problem lay in improved communications, Vogel offered to wager £10,000,000 against fate that the making of roads and railways would bring prosperity to New Zealand. The borrowed millions need not be allowed to hang like a millstone round the necks of future generations. In its unoccupied waste lands the country possessed an asset by means of which the debt might soon be liquidated. Three and a half million acres might be set aside as a national estate to offset expenditure. Some of this land could be sold for cash, and some of it let until in course of time it acquired positional value. Vogel calculated that the returns from it, beginning at £5,000 for the first year, would rise to £130,000 in the tenth year. Apart from this, the railways themselves might be expected to pay handsomely, until at

the end of a decade the whole of the interest on the borrowed money would be paid by the national landed estate and the new railways. "We shall be told," Vogel concluded, "that these proposals will entail on posterity an enormous burden. Granted—but they will give to posterity enormous means out of which to meet it."

Vogel's scheme, known as the Public Works and Immigration Policy, was accepted as regards its proposals for borrowing money but the setting-aside of a national landed estate was never carried out. The Provincial Governments had always a wealth of excuses at their disposal but no land. Like a man who licks the sugar coating from a pill but finds the pill itself too bitter to swallow, the politicians accepted what money could be borrowed but refused to effect measures for its repayment. After twice vainly attempting to get reserves of land set aside, Vogel tried other means of providing financial safeguards. By reckless burning the forests of New Zealand had been reduced from an area of 20,000,000 acres in 1840 to 12,000,000 acres in 1873. It was high time that something was done to check this wastage, but if the forests could be conserved and at the same time made to pay for the railways, then two objects of supreme importance would have been attained simultaneously. To accomplish this Vogel proposed to take over 3 per cent. of all provincial lands, and in return to forgo the sinking fund of 1 per cent. which the Provincial Governments had to pay the Central Government for the cost of their railways. The lands so taken were to be used for planting and conserving State forests, the value and profits of which would offset the money borrowed to construct railways. "I am sure," said Vogel at the end of his speech in the House of Representatives, "that it would be a pleasing thing for us to be able to say to those who come after us: 'We have borrowed money by which to cover the country with railways; we have taken care not to injure its climate; and we now hand to you, in these forests, a magnificent property which will more than pay the liabilities we have devolved upon you.'"

Persuasive as were his words, the House of Representatives rejected his suggestion. It was indeed hard to be described as a gambler and yet not allowed to make gambling safe for democracy, to be continually prevented from ensuring that when the State made a bet it was betting on a certainty. The provinces were at the root of all opposition; it was always the Provincial Governments which prevented him from hedging or laying off for the sake of safety and security. Nothing satisfactory would ever be accomplished as long as they existed, so he brought their existence to an end by abolishing them altogether.

Wearied by frustration and with his health failing, Vogel retired from active politics and went to England for a term as High Commissioner. While there he explained to the English in a letter to *The Times* how the famine problem in India might be solved; and in another letter to the *Standard*, how the British Empire should be federated; but all this while his thoughts were continually returning to the country of his adoption. New Zealand, meanwhile, had fallen upon

evil days. An economic depression, which the succeeding Governments had failed to cope with, had settled on the land. When, by a curious coincidence, Vogel returned in 1884 on what he announced as a short visit, just when the political turmoil was at its height, he was acclaimed as a saviour by the people of New Zealand, who had forgotten that he was a gambler but who remembered only too well those glorious pictures of future prosperity he had been wont to paint for them. Vogel was very infirm in these days but his mind was still full of plans. Forming a Government in collaboration with Robert Stout, he began the task of raising the country from its despondency and inertia.

In some respects Vogel's plan for the regeneration of New Zealand in 1884 was very like the Public Works and Immigration Policy of 1870—minus the immigration. The trunk railway, still in a sadly disjointed condition, was to be completed, and another line constructed to connect Canterbury with the west coast. With the export of gold greatly decreased, the price of wheat fallen to an unprofitable level, and the frozen-meat trade still in its infancy, the country's prosperity was dependent to an extraordinary degree on the price of wool. To trust so entirely to the fortune of a single product seemed to Vogel not only dangerous but unenterprising. He proposed, therefore, that the Government should lend its support to the initiation of other enterprises, and its prestige to the finding of markets for them. Why should not the teeming millions of India be persuaded to become carnivorous and live upon frozen meat? Why should not the rapidly growing dairy industry be stimulated by the manufacture of ghee, or clarified butter, for export to the same country? Brazil might be induced to take woollen fabrics produced in newly created local factories, and the islands of Oceania should be taught to look upon New Zealand as the workshop of the Pacific. Vogel made inquiries about the production of tobacco and silk, and renewed his interest in the preservation of State forests. An iron furnace was already working, with but little success, on the black iron-sand of Manukau Heads,



Sir Julius Vogel.

but now a Government bonus was to be given for the production of pig and wrought iron, and a New Zealand iron company organized to take advantage of the offer. The New Zealand seas teemed with all kinds of edible fish, and Vogel determined to establish fishing villages on the southern coasts to cure and tin fish for export to the old world. Stewart Island, he believed, was the most suitable of all places for the purpose. It commanded the best fishing-grounds in the colony, and had abundant timber from which a supply of sawdust could be procured for smoking the fish. Even at that comparatively early time the people of New Zealand had begun to lay the foundations that have made their country a paradise for dentists and deprived their children of teeth at an early age. The consumption of sugar was 74 lb. per head, while in Great Britain it was 38, and in the United States 27. As the soil and climate of New Zealand were suitable for growing sugar beet, it would be possible to grow locally all sugar that was required, and thus save the sum of £600,000 spent annually on importing the commodity. Never were the potential resources of any country more fully explored than were those of New Zealand by Julius Vogel during his last term of office.

The story of Vogel's numerous schemes for restoring prosperity resolves itself into a long list of failures. Progress on the North Island trunk line was so slow as to be almost invisible. Fruitless negotiations with a contracting company for the building of the west coast railway were still dragging on when the Stout-Vogel Government fell from power. The new industries were never started.

Perhaps it was Vogel's fault. Perhaps he was an unpractical visionary with power to conceive but no ability to organize. However that may be, it must have been a bitter disappointment for him to recognize so many possibilities and yet be unable to put his schemes into practice. Did he never feel that he was being denied even a gambler's chance? Did he never compare himself to a man playing poker, holding marvellous hands but yet having insufficient money to back his bids, or finding that

his opponents threw in their hands, refusing to bet against him? Whatever the answers to these questions may be one thing is certain. Never in the darkest hour of economic depression did he lose courage or confidence. Before retiring to England, a beaten man, to spend the remainder of his years in extreme poverty and ill health, he tried hard in his public utterances to rouse the fainting spirits of his fellow-countrymen, to show them what a safe bet their country still was, what a strong favourite in the race of nations. An extract from one of these speeches may serve as an epilogue to his political career.

"For thirty-four years I have closely watched the progress of the Australasian colonies. There have been times when it seemed to me that terrible reverses must infallibly overtake them, and again and again has the weakness of my judgment been rebuked, until I have learned to think that the logic of facts is in favour of recovery rather than decline. The growth of these colonies has been so marvellously rapid that the mind is unable to retain the memory of the halting periods. As in the past, so in the future, and in all humbleness of spirit I dare to predict that many generations will pass away before the colonies beneath the Southern Cross reach the culminating greatness of their destiny."

We have received the following note from Mr. Burdon about his article on William Webster, published in *Korero*, Vol. 3, No. 4:—

"I have to apologize for a mistake made, or at least implied, in my article on William Webster. My thanks are due to Mrs. R. M. Burnard, of the Historical Branch, Department of Internal Affairs, for pointing out that the Webster claims did not expire in 1895, but were revived in 1909 and only finally settled in 1926."

works of art in the **FIRING LINE**

By Sir LEONARD WOOLLEY, in *The Listener* (England), March 1, 1945

A GREAT MANY people have been anxious about the fate of works of art in the battle areas of Europe. It may be the Parthenon, dominating Athens, the pictures in some Tuscan gallery; a Calvary in a Breton churchyard, a chateau in Normandy, Chartres Cathedral—or a row of old houses in Bruges. They are disturbed to think of the ruin that war may have brought to such beauty. In the midst of war the fighting men have not neglected these things. The Monuments, Fine Arts, and Archives branch of the allied armies was planned long in advance and began its work in the early days of the occupation of Sicily. The reason for its creation was given in a general order issued later to all commanders by the Supreme Commander-in-Chief. "To-day," wrote General Eisenhower, "we are fighting in a country which has contributed a great deal to our cultural inheritance, a country rich in monuments which by their creation helped, and now in their old age illustrate the growth of the civilization which is ours. We are bound to respect these monuments in so far as war allows."

That is essentially a task for the army. Our soldiers know that they are fighting to maintain the ideals which have been evolved slowly through the ages, ideals whose evolution is illustrated by the monuments of the past. They are not going to be called the vandals of the modern world. They are anxious to protect their own good name, and that, in practice, involves the protection of our common heritage of art.

Of course, there are limits to the protection that can be given. We have to win the war, and nothing must stand in

the way of that. General Eisenhower makes this perfectly clear in the order issued to all his commanders. "If we have to choose," he goes on to say, "between destroying a famous building and sacrificing our own men, then our men's lives count infinitely more, and the building must go."

There are four dangers that threaten the monuments of art. A building may be destroyed in the course of fighting, by bombing or by gun fire, ours or the enemy's. A building may be not destroyed, but so damaged that unless prompt first-aid measures are applied the damage will in the end prove fatal to it, or to its contents. Buildings which have fallen into our hands, whether damaged or intact, may suffer from being used for military purposes; ignorance or carelessness may do irreparable harm. Lastly, there is the danger of wanton damage to monuments and of the looting of the objects of art. To meet these dangers we have the Monuments, Fine Arts, and Archives Branch, British and American officers selected from the ranks of architects, museum and picture-gallery officials, art historians, and archivists. They are primarily advisers; they are there not to give orders, but to assist in carrying out orders. In every theatre of war the Commander-in-Chief, British or American, has issued a general order laying upon every officer and man of the allied forces the responsibility of respecting historic buildings. The protection of these is therefore a matter of military discipline.

But orders to be effective must be explicit. The soldier, bidden to do something, must be told what he has to



do. What is required in this case is an official list of protected monuments. It cannot include every building that lays claim to beauty or interest; so general a rule would tie the soldier's hands and jeopardize military operations. When everything is at stake we must be content to save the best. So for every region of Italy there is a little book which lists the monuments of paramount importance in that region; the same is true of France and Belgium, Holland and Greece, of Germany, Burma, and Malaya; in fact, of every theatre of war. This book, which is issued to all officers of the fighting forces down to battalion commanders, is the monuments officer's charter. For the safeguarding of the listed monuments he has the authority of the general order and instructions which serve as the book's preface. "I therefore direct," writes Field Marshal Alexander, "that every officer brings continually to the notice of those serving under him our responsibility and obligation to preserve and protect these objects to the greatest extent that is possible."

Against the first of the dangers to which a building is exposed there may be nothing that one can do. If the enemy occupy and defend a building, and it has to be captured, its destruction may be necessary to its capture; if they use it for military purposes—and the Germans have no hesitation in using a

church tower as an observation post—then, too, it must become a target for our guns. "Military necessity," writes Field Marshal Alexander, "remains in all cases the overriding consideration. However," he goes on, "it is the personal desire of the Supreme Allied Commander that, subject to the limitations imposed by military necessity . . . historical and cultural monuments should be spared from bombardment or attack by our land, sea and air forces."

I will give you one or two illustrations of what this goodwill can do. In Normandy, Caen had to be laid waste before our troops could fight their way in; but the two great minsters founded by William the Conqueror which were the chief glory of Caen are still there, standing miraculously among the ruins, one of them scarcely damaged and the other absolutely untouched. In Italy, Ravenna was a key-point in the German line of defence, and when the news came of the fighting there, instinctively one thought of the Ravenna churches with their priceless mosaics, the most glorious relic in all Italy of early Christian art; but in that sorely battered town all but one of the churches are intact, and not one of the mosaics has suffered any hurt. Even in German Aachen, bombed and shelled into a heap of rubble, Charlemagne's great cathedral survives relatively unharmed. By design, not by accident: the cathedral is one of the buildings listed in the army book for this area.

Again, as the Allies fought their way forward towards Arceno, in the middle of the battle a battery commander was hailed by an elderly Italian civilian who told him that in a villa hard by, actually in the firing-line, there were stored pictures from the galleries of Siena and Grosseto. At once the officer detailed men to guard the treasure-house, and when at night a party of Germans attacked it with a view to stealing or burning the treasures there, the guards drove them off and saved some of the greatest paintings in the world.

In this first phase, while monuments are still in enemy hands or in the battle-line, the monument and fine arts officer's main function is to advise. His more

active work begins when a place has passed into our possession. His first task, then, is to examine the listed monuments there and check their condition. We can then know whether any damage subsequently noticed results from the unavoidable accident of war or from mis-handling by our own men. Next he must decide whether, for example, a wall still standing but shaken by blast can be dismantled; whether, if the roof has been damaged, internal decorations, frescoes, or sculpture will suffer from exposure to the weather. He must decide whether first-aid measures are necessary, and if so what, and how much they will cost. For this he will call in local help—the town surveyor, for instance, or the city architect; and, incidentally, it is quite astonishing how much such a call for help and initiative does to build up the morale of a people shaken by oppression and by war.

The money spent on such work is, of course, not allied money. In the case of a French or Belgian building we make suggestions, but it is for the French and Belgian authorities to decide the issue and put the plans into effect. In Italy, under military government, the monuments and fine arts officer presents his project, with the estimate of costs, to the senior civil affairs officer of the area, and it is for him to decide. Sometimes the money may come from private resources: a church may be repaired at the cost of the religious order to which it belongs, the Bridge of Santa Trinita at Florence is to be rebuilt by popular subscription; but in most cases the charge is debited against the Italian Government. In this way a vast amount of good work has been done. In the city of Naples alone, where forty-five churches were destroyed or damaged, the emergency repairs have been completed for twenty-one of them and are in progress on many more. In Sicily, at Palermo, where damage in the harbour area was very serious, over forty churches have been mended.

One case of emergency repairs already reported in the press calls for special notice. At Pisa, in July, 1944, a bomb set fire to the wooden roof of the Campo Santo, the great cloistered enclosure whose walls are decorated with frescoes by famous painters of the Renaissance.

For two months during the German occupation the ruin stood neglected, the colour gradually falling from the blistered walls. Then we took Pisa. Without waiting for a monuments officer to advise them, the Army drew up plans for a temporary roof, produced building material and special plaster, sent for Italian experts in fresco mending, and within two days had pioneer troops at work clearing and re-roofing the building. That the glorious painting by Benozzo Gozzoli, Piero di Puccio, Francesco Traini, and others survive at all is due to the enthusiasm of the allied forces.

Protection does not stop there. In general orders it is laid down that "no building on the official list of monuments will be used for military purposes when alternative accommodation is available or without the express authority in writing of the divisional commander." Troops must not be billeted in a listed building. The monuments officer can have "out of bounds" notices posted. If necessary, he can get guards set upon a building. Suppose, for instance, that a museum has not been emptied of its contents and, owing to war damage, lies open to the public; guards are needed then. They are needed most of all for the deposits of pictures and art objects which had been organized by the Italians in the neighbourhood of Florence and other great centres.

The story is well known how, during one of the bitter fights in the country south of Florence, a B.B.C. correspondent, going into an apparently deserted villa, found himself face to face with Botticelli's "Primavera" and other al-



most equally well-known paintings from the Florentine galleries. Such a discovery—and it was one of many—involved an immense amount of work for the specialist officers. They had not only to check the contents of these extemporized treasure houses, some of which had been wholly or partly plundered by the enemy. They had also to make sure that the treasures were in conditions suitable for their conservation. That was not always the case, as when priceless canvases were found stacked against the wine-casks in a damp cellar.

Many of our soldiers had looked forward to seeing the beauties of Italy and had been disappointed. They found buildings and sculptures masked by sand-bags or anti-air-raid walls. They found picture galleries stripped of their contents. Now, with the discovery of these hiding-places, the Monuments and Fine Arts Branch was able to organize picture exhibitions for the army. In Rome forty-eight of the finest canvases of the Italian Renaissance, which had been brought from all over Italy and stored for safety in the Vatican City, were exhibited in the Palazzo Venezia, Mussolini's old office, and for months on end attracted from eight hundred to a thousand visitors a day.

Exhibitions of Siense art at Siena, of Tuscan art at Florence, have given the allied troops an opportunity of seeing such collections of beautiful paintings as have never before been brought together under one roof, and of that opportunity the troops have taken full advantage. Admirable catalogues of the exhibitions, and guide-books to Rome and Florence. Siena, Naples, &c., prepared by the Army, have helped our men to realize the truth of what General Eisenhower said about Italy's contribution to our common inheritance.

Lastly, the monuments and fine arts officers are concerned with the looting of works of art. On the one side their task has been made very easy for them, for the behaviour of our own troops in this respect has been exemplary. But the German State and the gangster leaders of the Nazi party have set out to enrich themselves by the systematic looting of works of art from the conquered countries.

Some they acquired by forced or fraudulent sales; some they simply stole. In one case they failed badly. Near Strasbourg we found the repositories of pictures from Strasbourg and Colmar, including Grunewald's Isenheim alter-piece, one of the most celebrated pictures in the world. The Germans had meant to loot the lot. Some were already packed; in other rooms the empty packing-cases stood beside the paintings: but the allied armies were too quick for them, and the thieves fled empty-handed. But in one way or another great numbers of precious things, including works by the greatest artists, have been carried off into Germany. It is the avowed intention of the Allies that these ill-gotten gains should be disgorged and the pictures and other art treasures restored to their owners. The monuments and fine arts branch collect and substantiate the evidence for these thefts; it is a slow and difficult task, but the charge-sheet already grows long.

I have tried to explain the aims and activities of this new branch of the army. How far has it succeeded in its object? To what extent have the great monuments of the past escaped the ravages of war? Well, there has been, inevitably, a great



deal of destruction. Very many buildings possessed of beauty or historic interest have been damaged, not a few have perished altogether. Yet, if one takes only the "protected" monuments, that is the best, the loss has been surprisingly light. Normandy, as was to be expected in view of the bitter and prolonged fighting that followed the allied landings, suffered much. Detailed reports have been received dealing with a hundred and fifty-five monuments on the official list; of these, twenty-four are described as destroyed, gutted by fire or seriously damaged, and the number of those that have suffered some harm but can be made good is considerably greater. In Brittany, only four "listed" monuments have been seriously damaged. The total for France is relatively very small. In Belgium, until recently at least, not one of the major monuments had perished altogether.

In Athens the weeks of recent fighting have done virtually no harm to the monuments of classical Greece. There are two superficial scars on the Parthenon and a few scratches on the Theseum. The treasures of the Museum are intact. In Italy there are large areas that have suffered no loss at all. Where German resistance has been obstinate, war has

brought destruction to only too many treasures of art, destruction often deliberately wrought by the Germans, who mined the church towers and the major buildings so as to block roads and deny to us possible points of vantage. There has been much damage; but a lot of this has been made good.

Some of the greatest art centres have escaped altogether, as Rome itself, Siena, Assisi, Perugia, Orvieto, Aquila, Spoleto and others. In Florence, Pisa, Rimini, and Ravenna, cities which have suffered, the outstanding buildings are either intact or but slightly damaged and not beyond repair. The cathedral at Benevento and the church at Santa Chiara at Naples are the most important buildings that have been written off as a total loss, but even so in the ruins of Santa Chiara some of the best sculptures survive. That so little has been altogether lost is due primarily not to the efforts of the small band of officers charged with the task of protecting works of art, but to the army as a whole. That army has not behaved as a mob of "brutal and licentious soldiery"; from commander-in-chief to private, it has respected those things of beauty. By so doing it has won the good will of the peoples whose treasured belongings they are, and the gratitude of the world.

EYE-WITNESS STORY COMPETITIONS

RESULTS HAVE been announced of the two Eye-witness Story Competitions, organized by the Army Education Welfare Service in conjunction with the New Zealand National Broadcasting Service, for servicemen and service-women in New Zealand and overseas. Here are the judges' awards:—

Competition No. 1

(First £15, second £10)

1. "Smoke-laying at Cassino," by 17858 Tpr. D. G. Buchanan, 2 N.Z.E.F., C.M.F.

2. "The Blitz on Ismailia," by 28076, C./Sister E. M. Somers-Cocks, N.Z.A.N.S.

Commended: "The Breakthrough," by B. M. Robson, 2 N.Z.E.F.; "The Treasuries," by L./Cpl. S. H. Knowles, N.Z.E.F.I.P.; "St. Georges' Day, April 23, 1941," by Sister Ailsa C. Fleming, N.Z.A.N.S.

Competition No. 2

(First £15, second £10)

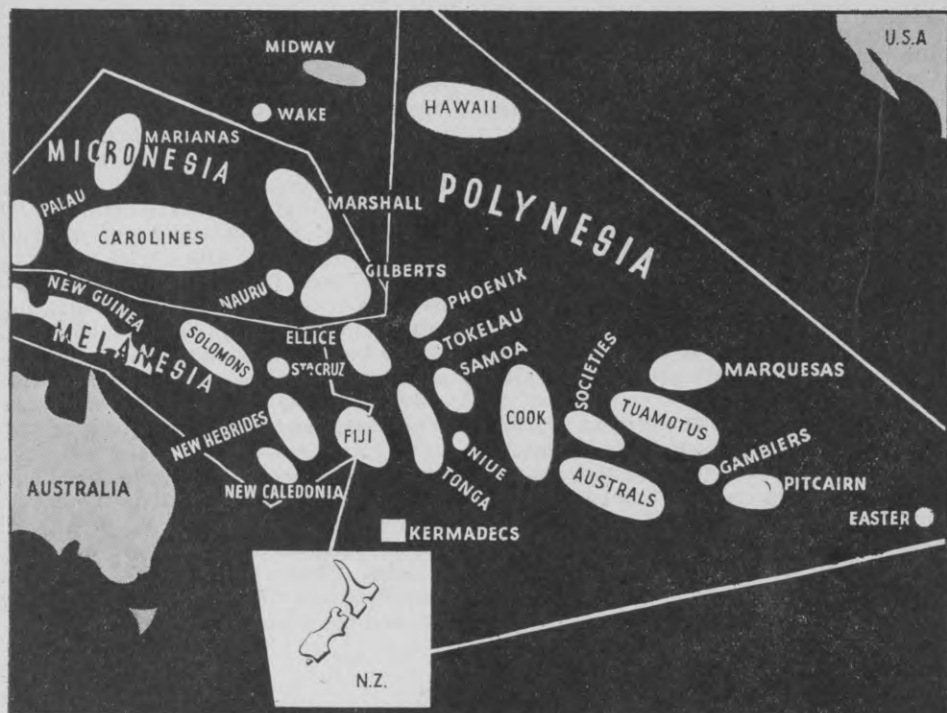
1. "One He Didn't Get," by 83028 Pte. H. Brennan, 2 N.Z.E.F.

2. "The Breakthrough at Minquar Quaim," by 63722 Gnr. A. E. Burns, 2 N.Z.E.F.

Commended: "Spartan Interlude," by W.O. II Vernon Parkinson, Trentham, "Action in Kolombangara Gulf," by D. F. Ackerley, H.M.S. "Philomel."

JAPAN AND THE PACIFIC— RISE A

A KORERO Survey



The Pacific Island Groups, Micronesia, Melanesia, and Polynesia.

WHEN JAPAN attacked the United States Pacific naval base at Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941, she risked the loss of all that she had gained during her existence as a great Power. She involved twelve other nations in the struggle, and turned the European war, two years and three months after it had begun, into a world war. More than this, she gave the great Powers fighting the Axis an opportunity to plan for a world peace and not merely a European peace. These Powers have decided that when victory is won Japan must be so dealt with that she will no longer be in a position to threaten the peace. For New Zealand as a Pacific nation the manner in which Japan built

up the power that enabled her to strike that treacherous blow and the methods by which it is proposed to make her harmless in the future have both a particular interest.

Eighteen months ago, two years after Japan had struck at Pearl Harbour, President Roosevelt, Mr. Churchill, and Marshall Chiang Kai-Shek, at a conference in Cairo, agreed on the terms to be imposed on Japan after her defeat. In the pact of North Africa they declared that—

- (1) Japan must be crushed as a military Power :
- (2) Japan must give up all territory gained since 1894 :
- (3) Korea must be freed :



- These decisions, published in the Cairo declaration on December 1, 1943, mean the wiping-out of the Japanese Empire. All the lands mentioned in the pronouncement are stripped away. Japan will be left with 148,000 square miles of the 3,000,000 square miles which she held when the Allied declaration was signed. Instead of ruling over 500,000,000 people, the Emperor will rule over 75,000,000—1 Japanese. Japan will consist of four main islands and the Archipelagos drifting off to the north and the south—the islands of Honshu, where Tokyo, Kobe,

Thus, as it seems now, one hundred years will have covered the rise and fall of Japan—her growth from a weak feudal State to a mighty military and industrial empire, and her decline again to the insignificant island country on which that empire was founded.

rapid gains the Japanese made until the battle of Midway Island on June 4, 1942, are now history. These were the last gains Japan made in almost half a century of expansion.

In her swift thrusts at the vital Pacific bases Japan was following a policy which had served her well in the past, a policy of carefully calculated aggression. In 1895 her first moves under this policy brought the defeat of the crumbling Chinese Empire, and with it Formosa, the Pescadores Islands, and Southern Manchuria; in 1905 the defeat of Russia brought the southern half of Sakhalin Island, Port Arthur, and Dairen. In 1910 Japan annexed Korea, whose independence from China had been recognized in 1895; in 1914 she seized the German possessions in the North-west Pacific; and in 1931 Northern Manchuria, where she set up the puppet State of Manchukuo. July of 1937 saw the beginning of the present war with China, in which Japan acquired large areas along the railways and around the Chinese coasts. In 1940 Japan virtually took over French Indo-China. And so, in December, 1941, she was ready to make the calculated thrusts which brought her for a time the Philippines, Burma, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies, and a foothold in the islands of Melanesia.

To prevent Japan from again attaining what the Japanese leaders called "such a favourable situation" will be the task of the victorious Allied Powers. And in their plans for this the disposition of the Japanese-held islands in the South Seas will have much importance. Already it has been suggested in Australia that in the hands of the United States they would form valuable bases for keeping the peace.

The term "South Seas" is usually applied to the islands scattered from New Guinea and the Carolines in the west to Hawaii, the French Establishments and Easter Island in the east. The area includes New Guinea and New Caledonia, but not the Dutch East Indies, the Philippines, or Borneo. The Dutch possessions form a great girdle 4,000 miles long, half a million square miles in area, and with nearly 60,000,000 people; the Philippines are 114,000 square miles in

area and have a population of 16,000,000; The Island of Borneo, most of which is also Dutch, has an area of 284,000 square miles and a population of 2,500,000. Even with these great island masses excluded the South Seas take in about one-eighth of the world's surface, and the islands within have a total area of about 391,000 square miles and a population of 2,500,000 people. The Archipelagos and islands of the South Seas may be likened to the exposed ridges and peaks of immense mountain ranges running along the floor of the Pacific Ocean from east to west.

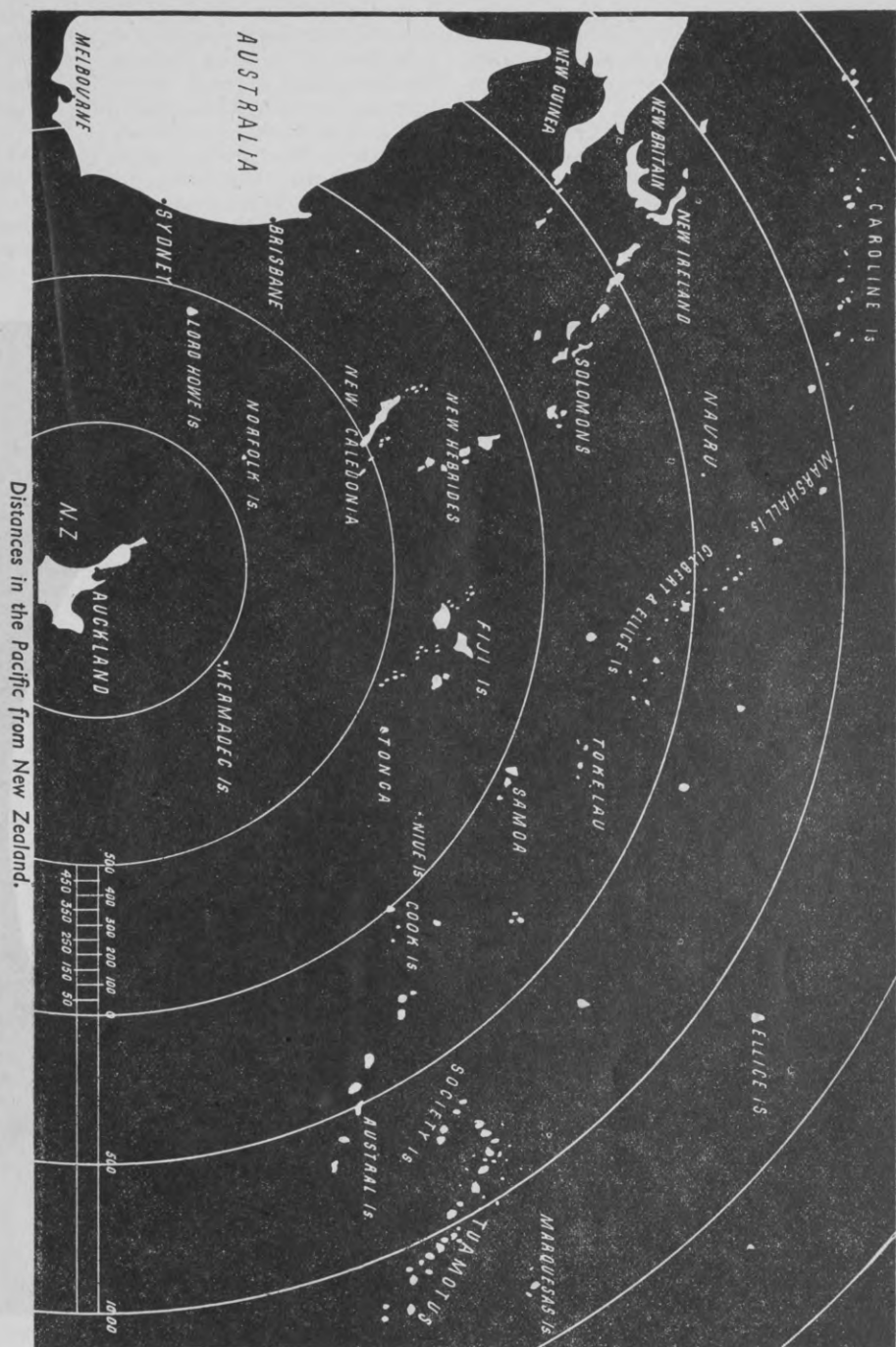
These islands lie in three groups:

Melanesia, to the south-west, contains the main land areas. New Guinea alone covers 315,000 square miles, over three times the size of New Zealand; New Britain, next largest, contains 14,600 square miles; and other islands in this group are also large. Melanesia includes, in addition to New Guinea and New Britain, the Solomons, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and Fiji.

Micronesia, lying above Melanesia to the north-west of the South Seas group, contains only 1,200 square miles of land, and its islands are very small. It includes the Carolines, the Marianas, and the Palaus, all Japanese-held mandates seized from Germany during the last war, the United States island of Guam, and the Gilberts and Nauru Island.

Polynesia forms the whole of the eastern half of the South Seas. The land area of this far-flung group is but 10,000 square miles, and of this Hawaii accounts for over 6,000 square miles. Polynesia holds Hawaii, Niue, Tonga, Wallis, Ellice, Samoa, Pitcairn, Easter and Tokelau Islands, and the Cooks, Australs, Societies, Gambiers, Tuamotus, Marquesas, and Phoenixes.

All these islands were before the outbreak of this war controlled by eight nations—Australia, Chile, France, Great Britain, Holland, Japan, New Zealand and the United States. Various systems of government were in use, eighteen in all. Some islands were held as mandates, some where protectorates, some were Crown colonies, some had a certain share in their own Government. In the New Hebrides Britain shared control with



France in what is known as a "condominium," and in Canton Island shared a similar condominium with the United States. In fact, politically, the islands of the South Seas formed a crazy quilt.

The situation in the thirty-odd years from 1900, when the importance of the islands as ports of call and coaling stations had begun to appear, had not changed greatly except in the redistribution of the German-held territories following the last war. By the turn of

the century Germany had taken over the stake already established by large German merchant companies in New Guinea, Western Samoa, and the Micronesian islands. France had established herself in New Caledonia, in the Society Islands, and other eastern groups—the Marquesas, the Tuamotus, Gambiers, and Australs. The United States had acquired Guam and the Philippines from Spain, and had annexed Hawaii and Eastern Samoa. Chile had taken over Easter Island, the



The expansion of the Japanese Empire. Occupied areas in black with the years of occupation shown.

oceanic outpost nearest South America, 2,000 miles west of the Chilean coast. Britain had taken over Fiji and the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, and had established protectorates over south-east New Guinea, the southern Solomons, and the little kingdom of Tonga, and shared with France the rule of the New Hebrides. New Zealand had acquired the Cook Group and Niue.

With the end of the last war Germany disappeared from the South Pacific, and Japan came on the scene with her occupation of the German Micronesian islands—the Carolines, Marshall, and Mariana groups, in the midst of which there remained tucked away the United States outpost of Guam. Australia occupied New Guinea and Nauru, and New Zealand took over German Samoa. Throughout the period of the last war changes continued to be made not so much in ownership as in administration. For instance, in 1916 the Gilbert and Ellice Group became part of the British Dominions. These changes continued right up until almost the outbreak of this war; Ocean, Fanning, and Washington Islands, for example, came under New Zealand in 1926.

Through the years of this century modern methods of transport have gradually brought to these islands a greater importance. Their harbours, used in the early days by the sailing-ships in the China trade, were by 1900 vital as coaling stations to the growing steamer fleets passing through their waters. To that value the advance of aviation was in the next forty years to add greatly; air strips were to become as valuable as harbours. This led to other changes. The Phoenix Group, previously uninhabited, became suddenly important through its position on the Fiji-Honolulu air-mail line, and was brought into the Gilbert and Ellice Island Colony by Order in Council in March, 1937. In 1938 American officials were placed on Canton and Enderbury islands to sustain America's claim that she had as much right there as Britain. The argument was settled amicably in 1939, when Canton Island was placed under Anglo-

American condominium and became an important station on the Pan-American Airways' southern route.

In trade the value of the islands was substantial, but in the aggregate volume of world trade was scarcely important—even by 1938. The whole trade, export and import, of all the islands in that year was hardly three-quarters of that of New Zealand—£57,000,000 against £80,000,000, and of that £57,000,000 no less than £41,000,000 belonged to Hawaii, leaving only £16,000,000 for all the rest.

Above all this was the strategic value of the islands as bases for naval and air forces. For Britain and France they were links in the chain of empire, and for the nations bordering the Pacific—Japan, the United States, Australia, and New Zealand—they were, in fact, outer zones of defence.

In this respect the Japanese mandates had a value out of all proportion to their size. The six hundred islands of the Caroline, Mariana, and Marshall groups stretch over 2,700 miles from east to west and 1,300 miles north from the Equator, and their 830 square miles of land area contain several large harbours and a number of excellent airfields. Under the terms of the mandate granted to her after the last war Japan was forbidden to fortify these islands, and at the Washington Conference of 1921-22 she agreed with Britain and the United States not to strengthen or extend fortifications in other Pacific Island territories. Japan did not observe the terms of her mandate or abide by the Washington agreement. "For commercial reasons," as at Saipan, she began the construction and improvement of harbours and the development of airfields, the building of dry docks and submarine bases, and other works, which by the early 1930's had already provided her with the bases she used for her southward offensive in 1941.

This was the last step in Japan's creeping advance before her final thrust, a move remote from her larger operations on the Asiatic mainland, but an essential part of her whole attempt to seize world domination, an attempt which she is not to be allowed to repeat.

REVERSE LEND—LEASE

NEW ZEALAND TO UNITED STATES

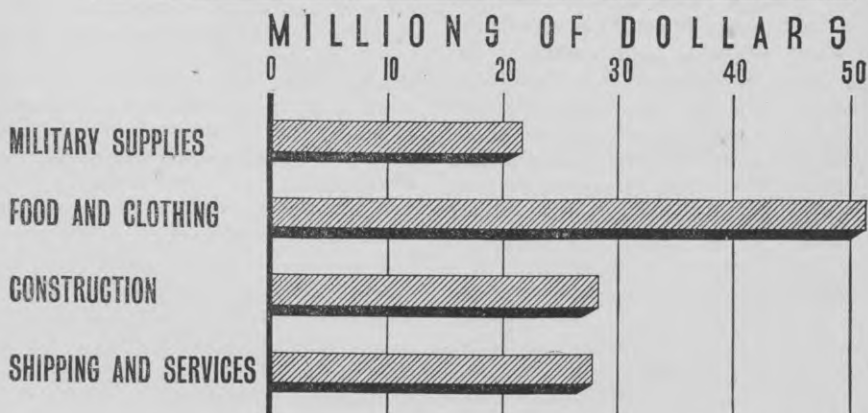
A KORERO Report

SUPPLIES AND services provided by Australia and New Zealand to United States forces in the Pacific theatre in the six months to June 30, 1944, increased materially in quantity and in monetary value over the totals for the preceding six months. This is shown in the 17th Report to Congress on Reverse Lend-Lease operations. This increase was the more remarkable because most of the United States forces previously based in Australia and New Zealand had been moving out of these countries as the battle lines advanced far northward into the Philippines and the islands of the Central Pacific. The increase in reverse lend-lease in this theatre reflects in some measure the very important part played by Australia and New Zealand in supplying the forces under General MacArthur with the tre-

mendous quantities of equipment and other supplies required for the great operations in the Philippines and beyond, which are still under way.

Both Australia and New Zealand are devoting 18 per cent. of their total war budgets to paying the cost of the reverse lend-lease programme for the United States forces. Supplies, equipment, services, and facilities have been provided by Australia and New Zealand to meet many of the needs of all branches of the United States Army in this theatre, including the Quartermaster Corps, Ordnance, the Medical Corps, the Engineers, the Signal Corps, the Transportation Corps, and the Air Corps. One of the most vital supply responsibilities undertaken by Australia and New Zealand for United States forces has been the production of \$36,500,000 worth of landing

REVERSE LEND ★ LEASE AID FROM NEW ZEALAND TO JUNE 30, 1944



craft, barges, tug boats, and other craft essential to the successful prosecution of an amphibious campaign in the Philippines and lesser islands over thousands of miles of ocean. Ship-building, virtually a new enterprise for New Zealand, has, as a result of this activity, already reached the rank of a substantial industry. As a further reverse lend-lease contribution, more than five hundred ships have been repaired and refitted in New Zealand without cost to the United States. By June 30, 1944, well in time to meet General MacArthur's needs for the invasion of the Philippines, 9,500 landing crafts of varying types had already been delivered by Australia and New Zealand under reverse lend-lease.

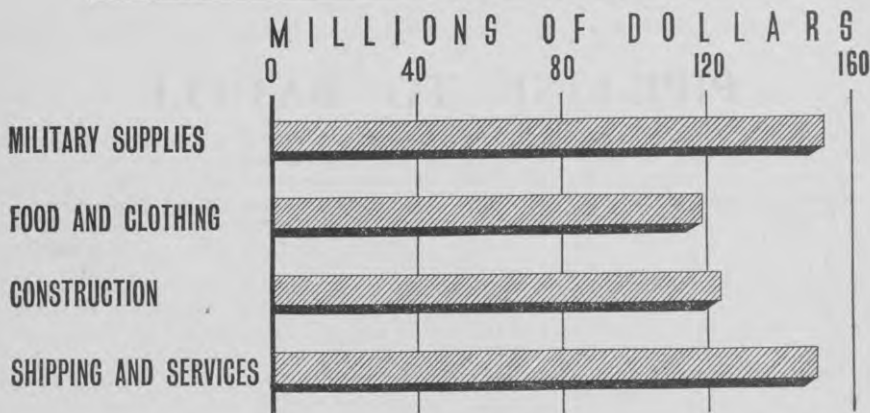
In clothing alone, New Zealand has made a large contribution towards the equipment of United States forces in the Pacific. This includes 240,000 Army blankets, 675,000 pairs of socks, 25,000 leather field jackets, and more than 15,000 pairs of gloves. New Zealand has also provided the United States Army with 6,000 tents and with nearly 50,000 mattresses.

New Zealand has provided hospital beds, mainly in specially constructed and equipped hospitals, for no fewer than 8,000 United States servicemen, at a time when accommodation in the Dominion for civilians in both public and private hospitals totalled only 13,000 beds. Camps, hospitals, warehouses, and other buildings constructed for the United States forces in New Zealand at a cost approximating \$29,000,000 have utilized more than one-half of the annual building-capacity of the Dominion.

New Zealand, like Australia, provides under reverse lend-lease all rail, air, motor, and water transportation costs, including freight, port and harbour charges, stevedoring and wharf handling charges. She also pays the cost of telephone, telegraphic, and cable services under reverse lend-lease.

From the point of view of tonnage, the food provided by Australia and New Zealand has been by far the most important supply item handled by the Quartermaster Corps. To June 30, 1944, Australia and New Zealand have supplied about 1,850,000,000 lb. of food for United

REVERSE LEND-LEASE AID FROM AUSTRALIA TO JUNE 30, 1944



States forces in the Pacific. Of this vast total, 579,290,000 lb. have been supplied by New Zealand.

This includes not only great quantities of fresh foods, but also canned and dehydrated foods locally grown and processed under a programme undertaken especially for United States forces by Australia and New Zealand. To this end, in vegetables alone, New Zealand has provided 63,050,000 lb. of potatoes, 52,240,000 lb. of other fresh vegetables, and 18,260,000 lb. of canned vegetables.

The New Zealand Government has made great efforts to increase the production of vegetables solely for the purpose of meeting United States requirements. More than 5,000 acres of pasture land have been taken over by the Department of Agriculture and transformed into market gardens producing up to 4,500,000 lb. of fresh vegetables a month for the United States, New Zealand, and allied armed forces. Over 1,000 employees are now working on the Government vegetable-growing programme, many of them women who have been specially recruited and trained for this work. Large quantities of these vegetables are dehydrated and canned in special plants constructed since the war began. Virtually the entire output of these plants is going to American and New Zealand forces in the Pacific area.

Of more than 400,000,000 lb. of beef and other meats supplied by Australia and New Zealand to United States forces, New Zealand has provided 81,500,000 lb. of beef and veal, 5,250,000 lb. of lamb and mutton, 21,890,000 lb. of pork, and

31,210,000 lb. of bacon and ham. To this can be added 51,570,000 lb. of canned meat, and 14,560,000 lb. of other fresh and processed meat.

It may be surprising to some New Zealanders to learn that in the period under review the country provided for the United States forces a greater weight of sugar than of butter: 45,590,000 lb. of sugar were supplied, and 30,520,000 lb. of butter. To the butter total, however, may be added the contributions of cheese (9,120,000 lb.) of evaporated milk (19,470,000 lb.), and of other dairy products, (27,160,000 lb.).

To meet these great and increasing United States requirements for foodstuffs while at the same time maintaining the supplies which New Zealand is committed to send to the United Kingdom, the New Zealand Government has imposed strict rationing of butter, cream, milk, sugar, and meat commodities of which there is normally a vast surplus over local consumption. The people of New Zealand accept these minor manifestations of the exigencies of war, as most of them fully appreciate their good fortune in living in a country so far removed from the actual horrors of war. Indeed, now that the demands of starving Europe are increasing, many New Zealanders have voluntarily suggested that their meat ration be further curtailed in order that the people of Britain, so long in the front line, may not be compelled to pull in their belts still further for the purpose of sharing what little they may have with the famine-stricken victims of Nazi Germany.

PIPE-LINE TO BATTLE

We reprinted in *Korero*, Vol. 3, No. 1, an article from *The Listener*, England, called "Pipe-line to Battle," written by Major Peter Rainier. We have since received from Major A. Russell Currie the letter we print below. Major Currie was at the time of the events of which Major Rainier wrote Officer Commanding, 8 (N.Z.) Fd. Coy., N.Z.E. whose connection with these events is explained in the letter.

THE ARTICLE "Pipe-line to Battle," reprinted from *The Listener*, England, in *Korero* Vol. 3, No. 1, of February 12, 1945, makes interesting reading. Having had the opportunity of reading the whole of Major Rainier's excellent book and appreciating his remarks on "Pansy-

pants" and difficult Staff officers, it is a pity that one part, about the pipe-line full of salt water, is spoiled by being far from the facts as I know them.

In 1941 the 5 (N.Z.) Inf. Bde. commenced work on the position called Fortress A, but known to all Kiwis as

Kaponga Box. They came off it to join the Division for the Second Libyan campaign. The next New Zealand connection with it was when the 6 (N.Z.) Inf. Bde. with 8 (N.Z.) Fd. Coy. marched into it as an outpost position of the Alamein Line in June, 1942. The rest of the Division was up at Mersa Matruh and arrived back some days later after the historic battle of Minquar-Quaim and the rearguard action to Alamein, but never took an actual part in the occupation of the Box.

In Fortress A the sappers took over all works, including mine-laying, completion of anti-tank scarps, wire fences, and water-supply.

The water-supply consisted of a pipe-line from Alamein to a central reservoir and pump-house, from which it was distributed to several reservoirs in the area. From the pump-house a further line, just completed, led to Fortress B on the edge of the Qattara Depression.

As up to now the maximum amount of water had been going west to the Egyptian frontier, salt water was pumped to Fortress A to test the line from Alamein and was stored in a reservoir to test the line from A to B, just completed.

The necessity for garrisoning Fortress A having been foreseen, only, and this is the crux of the story, fresh water was being pumped from Alamein when 6 (N.Z.) Inf. Bde. occupied it.

The salt water in stock was being pumped to Fortress B. This line was built by a Wog contractor and leaks developed at nearly every other joint, necessitating much work by the repair gang under my C.S.M. After all the salt water was in the line, it was not all tested, so that fresh water was pumped in behind the salt. Just as the water was emerging in the reservoir at B, orders

were received that B would not be held. So the valves were taken out of the pump and the water allowed to run back to our own reservoirs. When all the fresh water was back, the salt water was run to waste.

A watch at the reservoir into which the fresh water from Alamein was being delivered was kept so that if the pipe-line was cut we would know at once by the cessation of the flow at the outlet.

Between A and the South Africans at Alamein on the coast an Indian Inf. Bde. took up a position with only a few days to prepare it. The Huns overran them and cut our pipe-line. As soon as the inward flow of water ceased a signal was sent to Alamein to cease pumping. It is generally understood that owing to the size of the "flap" and the difficulties of communication it never got anywhere and fresh water, not salt water, was pumped to Rommel's troops for two days.

I did not see any Indian troops in Fortress A. Indian troops, which, as I have already said, were overrun, held an area between A and the coast, also another Indian Inf. Bde. was to have held Fortress B, but because of lack of supplies, lateness in getting water there, and paucity of guns it was never garrisoned.

Fortress A was never overcome by the enemy, as our N.Z. Bde. withdrew because no guns could be spared to help hold it.

It is doubtful if the enemy, as Major Rainier claims, ever got within sight of the spires of Alexandria or that 1,100 men of the 90 Light gave themselves up. I say that the correct story, which should be told in the interests of historical accuracy and the honour of the sappers of 8 (N.Z.) Fd. Coy., who issued fresh water at Fortress A, is as I have written it here.





By HARRY HAWTHORN in the *Far Eastern Survey*, February 26, 1945

[Dr. Hawthorn, who is now teaching in the United States, is a New-Zelander. He taught in Native schools in the North Island before going abroad to continue his studies, and is the author of *The Maori: A Study in Acculturation*.]

THE NINETY thousand Polynesian Natives of New Zealand, brown-skinned though they are, have not slipped into a status of second-class citizenship. They vote on terms of full equality with the European-New-Zealand majority and in the last forty years a number of Cabinet Ministers and an Acting Prime Minister have been chosen from their representatives in Parliament. They were one of the first Native peoples of the Pacific to belie the myth of the "vanishing primitive"; their numbers have doubled in this century. In the two World Wars their soldiers have fought with the general New Zealand forces or in their own battalions, according to their preference, and have won honours as combat troops.

This situation poses a number of questions. The European-New-Zealanders are not an unprejudiced people. Their immigration policies discriminate against Chinese, Japanese, and British Indians. How, then, did this position of the Maori come about? Is it exceptional, or does it have meaning for other situations where peoples and cultures meet?

A brief review shows few basic elements of the situation to be exceptional. To be sure, the position of the Maori is in some ways unique because of his Poly-

nesian cultural heritage, and some distinctively Maori aspects of his personality, but beyond this it reveals elements of social development and of experimentation, the mistakes and successes of which are of wider application.

The bulk of the Maori population today is engaged in small-scale farming or in skilled and unskilled wage-labour. A small minority hold positions in the Civil service and in the professions, and some farm on a larger scale with sheep and cattle. Few are merchants, fewer are owners and executives of business and industry. The income of the majority of farmers and labourers is small, and without Government assistance it would be inadequate for the basic needs of a family. On the whole, the economic changes of the last twenty years have benefited the farmer and labourer; and the present adult generation has been engaged largely in the task of consolidating these gains and in pursuing the immediate improvement of farms, dwellings, and community services. But one of the most important keys to Maori personality and culture is the parents' interest in the child and his future. It needs no higher mathematics for the father than to look at his hundred-acre farm and at his ten children and decide that most of the boys will have to find some other livelihood.

In planning for their children, Maori parents look with greatest interest to the Government service and the professions. This preference reflects in part the

Polynesian appreciation of the specialist with his clear-cut professional field of usefulness, and in part the general New Zealand tendency to attach a special prestige to white-collar and professional work; in addition, it also shows a recognition of the actual security of these positions. There is no present difficulty for the educated Maori who wants to enter the professions or the Government service: there have been more jobs than competent applicants. Increased attention has been given more especially to the preparation of Maori students for teaching, nursing, and other branches of Civil service. The problem of some other choice will be faced by the children who will come to adulthood in twenty years' time. The number of students who continue beyond the elementary school level is increasing; and even in the social-service State which New Zealand is rapidly becoming, a balance will be reached when the professions and the Civil service will no longer be able to support the growing Maori population.

Nor has New Zealand agriculture any more frontiers, other than those of scientific advance; in time the sufficiency of Maori farming resources will become even less adequate in relation to the growth of population and the rise in standards of living.

In order to draw level with the rest of New Zealand in economic standards, the Maori must also enter, more often than hitherto, industry, transport, and the skilled trades. But entry into industry is faced with resistance by some aspects of Maori personality, by varying conditions of New Zealand receptivity, by the low social esteem for industrial work in any but executive positions, by difficulties of technical training for rural students, and by lack of capital. As Maoris themselves often point out, the traditionally high value of co-operation in Maori society, the responsiveness to the demands of kin and to the stimulus of good-fellowship, do not make for efficiency in commerce. Although these qualities would be a new factor in industry, too, they need not there result in lowered efficiency. In the Maori past these same qualities operated to produce a highly efficient neolithic technique—for

volume and quality of output unsurpassed by peoples possessing the same range of industrial inventions.

Education Overemphasizes Competition

The educational system as yet shows little recognition of the potential value of these qualities in the Maori community to-day and could hardly be expected to as long as outlines of New Zealand's economic future are still undefined. Formal schooling encourages the isolating, individualistic competitive aspects of the Maori child's personality, although the adult Maori in the village lives in a community and nation whose major institutions require co-operative habits for their full functioning. Because of the relative poverty of his resources, the immediate future of the Maori can lie only in the Government development of economic institutions—possibly with a basic area of individual ownership and responsibility, as is the case in some schemes of Maori farm development to-day. The co-operative qualities of the Maori community could be developed



further by a school curriculum planned for the purpose; the individualization at present attempted by the schools is therefore not only unnecessary, but harmful.

Positive Role in Co-operative Activity

From this point of view those aspects of Maori personality which are now taken as hindering entry into commerce and industry could be of positive utility for New Zealand's economic future if that country, possessed as it is of a dependent economy of minor world importance solidifies its strength by a further development of co-operative activity in Government and community. The Maori qualities of responsiveness which were behind the tribal genius for organized work could operate with advantage in the growing areas of social security, and in the extending institutions of State enterprise. Individual dairy-farming, which for an indefinite future must be one of the

main bases of New Zealand economy, can rise above drudgery and insecurity just about as far as it utilizes co-operation—at present universally in the manufacture and marketing of butter and cheese, and to a growing extent now in Maori farm-development schemes with the joint use of machines and stud stock.

The Maoris form, a minority with full equality of representation, a position which they have held since 1867. Half-castes exercise an individual option of voting in Maori constituencies or in the general ones, and their representatives are fully voting members of the House of Representatives.

This is essentially the basis of the New Zealand pride in the national relationship to the Maoris. On these facts, of course, the position is exceptional—even compared with United States territories, such as the Territory of Hawaii, whose delegates to Congress have no voting-power.

The Maoris share Polynesian talent for politics with a greater articulateness and diplomacy than the average New-Zealander. Their representatives in Parliament have for the last forty years made a common stand on the necessity of economic and educational rehabilitation of the Rural Maori. Their differences on the direction of this effort have not hindered the development of better educational and health services than possessed by Rural European - New-Zealand, or the launching and operation of several major schemes for farm development that are envied by many European-New-Zealand farmers.

Since the Maori cannot live without Government aid and enterprise, the major political decisions of the individual and his representatives have not lain between socialism and capitalism, but between different forms of political organization and different methods of administration. The majority of the Maoris live in village communities which no longer have any considerable attachment to the vanishing tribal political structure. They come into the national political field as individuals, and their representatives belong to the major national parties—in the 1943 elections all the Maori electorates returned Labour candidates.

Yet some other political aggregations among the Maoris have existed on a different basis. One type of political and economic reorganization is headed by the leaders of a Maori Christian Church—the Ratana Church. With the strong religious attitudes of the Rural Maori, even the satisfactory operation of the Maori diocese of the Anglican Church does not prevent interest in the Maori-founded church. Because of the unsatisfactory nature of local government in the Maori villages, the potential for growth of this type of organization is considerable.



The local units of administration and self-government in Maori villages have not been particularly well conceived and are in a state of undecided change. This does not reflect on the personnel of the Native Department, which is outstanding even in comparison with such an organization as the United States Office of Indian Affairs. The weakness lies essentially in a vague and shifting definition of the nature, power, and responsibility of Maori local organization. A full inquiry into the vitality of the village committees is needed. There is need also for more knowledge of the nature of the Maori church and of the tribal political aggregations. Only on the basis of such knowledge is it possible to decide what aspects of the reintegrative units of Maori political society could be used for the democratic process. In the past, the Government has been wary of all of them.

Although a sound basis of fact and a clear formulation of political intentions is needed for many administrative decisions in the economic and political programmes, Professor Horace Belshaw has pointed out that at least one more problem facing the Maori must be solved immediately and expeditiously: the returning Maori soldier must be provided with a farm or a job of satisfactory status, tenure, and income. The alternative would be a burden of disorder which

would seriously hamper the reintegration of Maori society. The return of Maori soldiers in 1918, fewer in numbers, gave some indication of this problem, and Maori communities have ever since been under the load of its inadequate solution. But far more important at that time were those Maori veterans who obtained jobs in the Civil service, or were in a position to start farming on a satisfactory basis; for these men became one of the most potent sets of leaders in social reintegration which the Maoris have had in a hundred years. The opportunity for using fully the leadership of the seven or eight thousand young men who will return from this war is one the Government must not miss.

No Racial Segregation in Schools

The Maoris so far have had less to do with the direction of their schooling than with that of the economic and health programmes in their behalf. The direction and staffing is predominantly a European - New-Zealand affair, although a comparatively recent start on encouraging more Maoris to enter teaching shows good results.

A dual elementary school system expresses an actual difference in the educational needs between the Rural Maori child and the European - New-Zealand child. There is no intention or element of racial segregation in this system and its operation; no quotas or subterfuges of zoning separate children in the two systems. Where a Native school and an Education Board school are in the same vicinity, European - New-Zealand and Maori children make their own choice. More than half of the Maori school population attend the schools of the national system, but European - New-Zealand children who find it convenient to do so also attend Native schools. Attendance is free and compulsory for all children until a minimum age of fifteen.

An excellent job of teaching gives high standards in the basic techniques of literacy and calculation. The curriculum of the Native school is adjusted to the local environment in a way which efficiently links learning with experience habits, and known facts as to the child's situation; and it also brings the child

into the national culture in some of the more formal areas of thought. Some effectiveness is lost by the failure of the majority of the Native-school teachers to learn the Maori language, but the active interest of the Maori parents in the education of their children stops the school from resembling the culturally isolated institution which it so often is on an American Indian Reservation.



High education for those Maoris who remain culturally distinct from European - New-Zealand is, not in as satisfactory a state. Maori students attend all the secondary schools and the university on an equal basis. They have access to some special scholarship funds which go part way to compensating for the rural seclusion of so many of them. The dual national system stops at the elementary level, but secondary schools for Maori students are run by the various churches. Although many graduates of these schools have become prominent, their operation gives little cause for satisfaction:—their curricula tend to be extremely academic, and mechanically mixed with some vocational courses in agriculture and domestic science.

Many other peoples in contact with Western civilization face the same problem. New Zealand's educational philosophy recognizes little necessity for schooling beyond vocational necessity, but there is a conflict over the choice of vocation. The parents and children have to choose between pre-professional training and industrial-agricultural; and the Maori parents, in harmony with the national majority, refuse to recognize the statistical limitation of opportunity for the pre-professionally trained student. As with the usual American high school, the programme of most New Zealand secondary schools is badly disintegrated and seldom approaches an effective prepara-

tion of the individual for a fuller life in a finer society. The Church Maori secondary schools envision this aim, but do not get there. A plan of the Department of Education to continue the dual system to include Maori secondary education offers a possibility of improvement, but this will not be realized unless the Department also assumes a clearer and more inclusive educational purpose.

The elementary schools of the Native Schools Service in the villages have approached this end. They were led to it largely by a realization that effective teaching practice demands a close contact of school and community. The Maori parents, whose interest in their children is a model of affectionate support without over-determined demands, from the beginnings of Maori education of 1857 have gone more than half-way to meet the school; and, since this was community-centred, it has been of tremendous influence and help in harmonious cultural change.

The pity is that, except for technological changes in village housing, agriculture, and the household arts, and for a turn to calvinistic morality (only partially congenial to the Maori as yet), the direction in which this lively elementary school system works is not clearly envisioned. The problem is not solved by European - New-Zealander either, and it is probable that as in other respects, the Maori village, with its conservatism, would refuse to be out in the vanguard. So, in the meantime the Native schools teach the indispensable techniques of literacy and calculation, a somewhat dis-harmonious morality which does not catch on very well, and the attitudes and habits of an individualistic competitiveness which even to-day work against the only economic and political trend that is open to Maori society as a promising way to greater prosperity.



Lack of Caste Distinctions

Social relations between the Maori and European - New-Zealanders are not a subject of any planned programme, although some groups utter intentions for or against assimilation. The Maori moves in New Zealand social life with a general absence of caste distinctions and disabilities. Refusal of any public services would give him the legal recourse open to all New Zealand citizens.

In spite of this sets of social class evaluation do exist in Maori and European - New-Zealand society. They are somewhat modified in comparison with those current in Europe and the United States by the relatively slight economic differentiation in New Zealand. Since the Maori is on the average lower in the socio-economic scale than the European - New-Zealander, there is a class-colour situation similar to that in Brazil. The lower limits of this economic-status position are marked clearly by the fact that the male Maori is not engaged in menial occupations. A few girls work in other households prior to marriage, but none of the men are domestic servants, doormen, cleaners—in the cities or elsewhere. Correlated with this is the fact that the Maori is likely to hold status evaluations more firmly and distinctly than the average European - New-Zealander. This is more a cultural heritage from the aristocratic past of his society than a compensation for elements of disprivilege in his present position.

Sometimes Maori nationalism includes a sense of racial superiority. In several cases Maori university students have broken off engagements to European New Zealand girls under pressure from the Maori parents. Nevertheless, inter-marriage has been frequent, is continuing, and will probably increase. There are no legal barriers, nor can they arise. New Zealand, which does not readily make ideological formulations, gets as near to one on the position of the Maori as on any other point; and the prevailing pride in the Maori population and its position in New Zealand cannot be frontally attacked.

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RECRUIT to FIGHTING SOLDIER



By Major A. HOLMES, N.Z.P.S, Camp Commandant, Waiouru M.C.

WHAT is the significance of that small party of soldiers who march across the screen title of the National Film Review which is a feature of picture shows throughout New Zealand?

In the early years of this war men had to be trained, and trained quickly, to reinforce the Division overseas; so a plan was evolved to experiment with the training of a limited number of men from various parts of New Zealand. Under this plan each school of instruction was given a platoon of ordinary recruits for exactly one month, each platoon being trained on exactly the same lines according to a syllabus which was drawn up by the G. Staff at Army H.Q. The training in the first instance dispensed with most parade-ground movements. The recruits were taught the main elements of marching and to sling arms, but all rifle exercises and ceremonial were cut out. Discipline did not suffer. In fact, the recruits were brought as their training progressed to a very high standard of discipline, the type of discipline that a front-line soldier needs, such as physical fitness and a good mental outlook and general behaviour in all circumstances.

One day in 1942 I received word as Commandant of C.D.S.I. that a platoon of these recruits was on its way, and I was

to study the experiment very closely and eventually report my observations on the result. The men were just ordinary men in every way: they had not been hand-picked. My first job was to explain to them why they had come to Dannevirke Camp. I emphasized the need for speed in training them. I told them they must pay great attention to keeping fit, learn all they could in the limited time, and as a finale to their efforts they might possibly be called upon to march some considerable distance back to their base. They were then turned over to their instructors.

I chose for their Platoon Commander and Chief Instructor one of my Staff, a young Staff Corps Officer who was exceptionally keen, had a splendid physique, was a keen athlete, and, above all, had a sound knowledge of his job.

The days passed by. There was no time to be lost, and bad weather was ignored. Day and night these men trained, and trained hard, in all the elements of war as near to the real thing as possible. They were brought to the stage where they could stand long hours of exposure, and carry out tactical exercises in any weather day or night. They were taught to read a map, throw a grenade, crash wire entanglements, scale obstacles,

fire all small arms with confidence and accuracy, carry out battle exercises which involved all the elements of battle, and march twenty miles or more with little or no fatigue.

The sickness rate was so low that it is not worth considering.

Finally, they were told they had to march from Dannevirke to Napier. One day was allowed for preparation. The march was organized and commenced in good weather at 0800 hours. At 1600 hours they had reached their first bivouac at Takapau, and the report said "no casualties." Hastings was reached the next day with similar results. Now it was that the National Film Review man appeared, and the picture New Zealand film audiences see each night was taken on the Hatuma Road just outside Wai-pukurau. The cameraman took several shots, but this was considered the best. No special effort was made to put on a

"good show" for this picture; it was just part of the march.

At noon next day these men, still going strong, swung into Napier, where they were given a civic welcome by the Mayor.

What did this experiment prove? Well, it proved what could be done physically and mentally with the normal man. But could this same thing be done with large bodies of men? My candid answer to that is no, my reason being that the sickness rate would be fairly high, and some men would have a different outlook from these.

It was a tough job making men tough, but it was a grand experiment, and the staff of C.D.S.I. were proud of their effort, now recalled at every showing of the National Film Review. When you see that little party of soldiers marching across the screen next time, perhaps you will recall this story of one of New Zealand's war training efforts.



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Social class differences more than others prevent closer contact and assimilation; and these barriers are loosening with the economic changes of Maori and European-New-Zealand society, and with the continued operation of the educational services. A school programme for fuller social democracy, as well as political and economic, would greatly facilitate this. But, in any case, nothing now apparent can stop the trend. Intermarriage, not infrequent now, will increase.

It does not appear that the Maori situation is exceptional because of any innate exceptional qualities of either of

the peoples in contact. Difficulties have arisen from the start and have continued to appear. The planned transition, now showing an encouraging proportion of successful results, grew into effectiveness only in the past generation. Among the most important factors to be noted is the definition of equality given in the Dominion's laws and made effective in all administrative measures and plans. On the Maori side is the ability which they have shown for a fully responsible Government—political ability which always exists where an otherwise primitive people has had experience in directing the common activities of tribe, village, and clan.