

A E W S BACKGROUND BULLETIN

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KORERO



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.



N.Z.E.F. TIMES

A KORERO Report

AT THE end of June *N.Z.E.F. Times*, official newspaper of the Second New Zealand Expeditionary Force and oldest service newspaper of this war in the Middle East and Mediterranean theatres, celebrated the fourth anniversary of its establishment. In those four years *N.Z.E.F. Times* has recorded the part played by 2 N.Z. Div. and 2 N.Z.E.F. in the changing fortunes of war in the Middle East and Italy and the achievements of other New-Zealanders in the air and on the sea throughout the world. Its principal service, however, has been to keep New-Zealanders abroad informed on national developments and Dominion domestic news generally.

2 N.Z.E.F. was the second of the Dominion and United Kingdom formations in the Middle East to produce its own newspaper. Now there are many—*Crusader*, *Eighth Army News*, and *Union Jack* for the U.K. Forces, *Springbok* for the South Africans, *Fauji Akbar* for the Indians, *Stars and Stripes* for the Americans, *Maple Leaf* for the Canadians, *White Eagle* for the Poles, and others. But when *N.Z.E.F. Times* made a rather timorous appearance in June, 1941, soon after the campaigns in Greece and Crete, only one other service newspaper was being published. This was the *A.I.F. News*, weekly of the Australian Forces, which ceased publication in January, 1943.

N.Z.E.F. Times can go further back than June, 1941, for its origins. Its inspiration was that pioneer of service newspapers, the *Crete News*, which brought out its fourth and final issue during the height of the battle for Crete. Two of the men who assisted Captain (now Major) Geoffrey Cox to produce the *Crete News* formed two-thirds of the staff responsible for the first issue of *N.Z.E.F. Times*, the establishment of which was one of the matters discussed by the Prime Minister, Mr. Fraser, during his visit to the Middle East after the campaign in Greece.

The first issue of the paper (June 30, 1941) was of four pages only, of four 5½ x 39 cm. columns. It contained only one advertisement, but after two more issues advertising revenue had so expanded that the size of the paper was increased to eight pages. Newsprint was obtained through arrangement with the British Army Printing and Stationery Service, and this organization, which controlled all stocks of all printing requirements in the Middle East, also made available zinc and chemicals for processing. The printing was done in Cairo at the premises of the S.O.P., owners and publishers of the two English dailies circulated in Cairo, Alexandria, Port Said, and throughout the Delta area. Due to the shortage of reel newsprint, and in the interests of better reproduction, the printing was done on flat-bed machines.

Less than three months after the first issue, *N.Z.E.F. Times* was increased to twelve pages, still retaining the four-column format, and a full illustrations page covering both Middle East and Dominion news was included. After producing a special Christmas number of



Sunday morning scene at the publishing house, Cairo. The N.C.O. i/c distribution (kneeling) and men of the Army Postal Service take delivery of *N.Z.E.F. Times* wrapped ready for mailing.



The staff was cosmopolitan. Compositors shown working on *N.Z.E.F. Times* include a Copt, an Italian, two Arabs, and a Greek.

28 pages, 63,000 copies of which were distributed, it was decided to expand the paper still further, and at the end of January, 1942, the width was increased to five columns. The staff also was increased—to five, listed as editor, business-advertising manager, assistant editor, literary assistant (responsible for sport and other reports), and an advertising-distribution clerk. As the volume of news grew, and as more and more Cairo merchants were persuaded of the excellent advertising field, 16-page issues appeared, frequently with a double-page centre of illustrations.

Production

Production difficulties were great. The technical staff at the S.O.P. included representatives of a dozen or more nations, and language at first was something of a problem. The foreman on the setting floor (there are twenty-three machines) was a Rumanian. The chief compositor for *N.Z.E.F. Times* was an Italian who had lived most of his thirty-two years in Egypt. The other compositors included several Arabs, a Greek, and a Maltese, while an elderly Russian often lent a hand in between efforts at organizing a union. The linotype-operators, who ceaselessly mangled perfectly good copy, included an Italian who was deaf and dumb, two or three Greeks, several Palestinian Jews, a Cypriot, many Arabs (who are good artisans), and several unable to claim any definite ancestry.

The machine-floor manager was an Austrian, and the folding-stapling-cutting department was controlled by an Arab. It may be mentioned that the administrative staff of this publishing firm, with the exception of the editorial sections of the English and French newspapers, was of a similar cosmopolitan character.

As the language used for a common means of communication was Arabic—the colloquial version—the difficulties of production were real, and early issues saw a good deal of vigorous New Zealand profanity wasted on the more or less desert air. Operators setting copy in a language they could not understand had to be forgiven a good deal, but the proof-reading was a reader's nightmare. Record all-time high was a page proof which was read thirteen times before it could be sent away, and this followed three or four readings on galley proofs. On one occasion the last forme was dropped as it was being carried down a flight of stairs. Slugs were retrieved by a hurriedly organized body of operators, compositors, and machinists, each taking a handful to search when the Italian foreman called for a line from the make-up sheet.

Distribution

The *N.Z.E.F. Times* is published primarily for 2 *N.Z.E.F.*, but as far as possible an effort is made to reach New-Zealanders serving with the Royal Air Force, Royal Navy, and U.K. Army Forces throughout the Mediterranean, Middle East, African, and Indian theatres. There is no charge for the paper. Distribution throughout the scores of units comprising 2 *N.Z.E.F.* and to other



A Syrian linotype operator sets copy. Faulty setting was by far the biggest problem.

Dominion service personnel is a complex problem mastered mainly by the co-operation of the New Zealand Army Postal Services. Great assistance was also rendered by the United States Army Air Force for almost three months when the Division was operating in Tripolitania and Tunisia. Despite the fact that main elements of the Division were then 2,000 miles away from their base, with the assistance of U.S.A.A.F. transport sections the paper was carried regularly to them and distributed in the field within two or three days of the publication date. On at least one occasion some New Zealand troops in Tunisia received their copies on the date of publication.

To-day *N.Z.E.F. Times* has as varied a mailing-list as any newspaper in the world, reaching all our Forces in Italy and the Middle East, North Africa, Kenya, Gold Coast, Somaliland, the Sudan, South Africa, Saudi Arabia, Palestine, Syria, Cyprus, Iraq, India—and New Zealand. A number of copies were flown to 3 N.Z. Div. in the Pacific, while at least one copy found its way to Goebbels' propaganda department in Berlin. Until the establishment of the *Southern Cross* late last year, copies were also flown to the High Commissioner's Office, London, and other places in the United Kingdom. All special Christmas issues, each running to over 40,000 copies, saw distribution extend to Iceland, Canada, the United States, and Australia. Postage to the Dominion on these special issues was defrayed by *N.Z.E.F. Times*, a charge of £125 (23,000 copies) being met in one year. The normal weekly issue runs to 11,000 copies and reaches units on a strength-ratio basis.

Finance and News

In the initial stages of establishment support likely to be obtained from Cairo advertisers appeared indefinite, and Lieut-Colonel (now Colonel) Hon. F. Waite, D.S.O., O.B.E., M.L.C., Overseas Commissioner for the National Patriotic Funds Board, assisted by guaranteeing the cost of the first four issues to the extent of £20 an issue. However, the paper established itself so quickly, due mainly to the perseverance of its business



Arabs take readily to mechanics. Here machinists are printing one section of the paper under the supervision of the Austrian floor-manager (right).

manager in impressing Cairo merchants, that this guarantee was not called up. From its third issue *N.Z.E.F. Times* advertising revenue has always been able to show a margin over production costs, gradually accumulating a working reserve fund, which reached a peak of about £4,000 sterling eighteen months ago. Such a reserve would not have been possible had the newspaper required to be entirely self-supporting. Members of the staff, being in the army, are paid by the army, and all news services and photographs to the paper are free of cost, the Government paying for all news cables from the Dominion and London. The board of trustees comprises the Officer i/c Administration, 2 *N.Z.E.F.*, the Overseas Commissioner for the National Patriotic Funds Board, the Assistant Chief Paymaster, 2 *N.Z.E.F.*, the Public Relations Officer, and the editor.

N.Z.E.F. Times receives its New Zealand news by cable from the Director of Publicity in Wellington, and a service covering the activities of New-Zealanders in the European theatre through the High Commissioner's office in London. These services are supplemented by newspaper clippings and photographs by air-mail. Carbons of New Zealand Official War Correspondents' despatches are

dropped to *N.Z.E.F. Times*. The system in reverse (without cost) sees *N.Z.E.F. Times* administering the Official News Service to the Dominion and supplying copy and photographs to that very junior of service publications, the *Southern Cross*.

Apart from news, space is given to original contributions, payment is generous, and a sum approximating £1,000 has been paid to members of 2 *N.Z.E.F.* for prose, verse, photographs, and black-and-white work. It has been demonstrated that there is a great deal of potential literary and artistic talent in 2 *N.Z.E.F.*, and more will undoubtedly be heard of several names familiar in the pages of *N.Z.E.F. Times*. "Johnny Enzed," a weekly column chronicling the sights, and thoughts of the Division, written by Captain E. G. Webber (former editor) was a popular feature from 1941 until the author's return to New Zealand this year. Illustrations for a long time have been done by a brilliant young artist, Neville Colvin, of Dunedin.



At a desert airfield on the Cairo-Alexandria road, *N.Z.E.F. Times* are being loaded into an R.A.F. transport plane for delivery to the Division in Italy.

Transfer to Italy

In October, 1943, the Division moved to Italy, and it was soon obvious that there would be difficulties, particularly in distribution, if publication continued from Cairo. Transport by sea was out of the question, as delays in conveying and re-routing of ships were inevitable, and there remained the hazard of enemy air and underwater strength in the Mediterranean. The only issue despatched by sea, when conditions for rapid transport appeared particularly favourable, took almost three months to reach the Division! Delivery by air also proved uncertain, being dependent entirely on R.A.F. Transport Command's priorities.

The Eighth Army's advance, however, had cleared the city of Bari, a sizable port on the Adriatic coast, and the many and varied printing facilities had been requisitioned by British Military Printing and Stationery Services. Enlisting the co-operation of this organization, arrangements were made for printing *N.Z.E.F. Times* in Bari. It was desired to avoid a break in continuity of publication, if possible, so an advance party of the literary staff left Egypt on January 1, 1944, to prepare the first edition in Italy, while the editor and remaining staff produced the last issues in Cairo and wound up advertising contracts and other matters of finance and administration. The last Middle East edition was published on January 31, and the first Italian number appeared on February 7.

Problems of distribution gave way to difficulties in supply, 50 tons of newsprint assured by M.E. headquarters of B.M.P.S.S. failing to reach Italy. On the strength of its expected arrival, however, requisitioned Italian newsprint was made available for purchase, and later small quantities of Canadian paper were imported. In anticipation of a shortage such processing materials as zinc and silver nitrate had been acquired in Egypt, and these later proved of extreme value in bargaining for other services.

For various reasons, such as the shortage of newsprint, the size of the paper was reduced to eight pages, each of five 11-em columns, and this continued until early in June, 1944, when the full 12-page

issue was restored. Paradoxically, though, when the paper was reduced in size the staff was increased, H.Q., 2 N.Z.E.F., posting graded linotype operators and compositors for duty. Thus, after three years, *N.Z.E.F. Times* had a complete literary, typographical, and publishing staff.

Loss of Middle East advertising was largely offset by lower costs of production and sufficient revenue to cover costs is obtained from N.A.A.F.I. and E.N.S.A. advertisements. News cables at first took a little longer to reach the paper, re-routing through Malta being necessary, and, difficulties having arisen in the establishment of suitable photographic developing and printing facilities, there was a delay in photographs. Distribution to the Division was simplified, and the majority of Divisional units generally have received their quotas within forty-eight hours of publication. With the exception of three or four weeks in the

Volturmo Valley, that position obtained until the break-through in the Po Valley last April. Our troops in Egypt have still to be supplied, but with air transport proving more reliable as the battle line advanced, copies reach N.Z. Maadi Camp in reasonable time.

The Future

The oldest of service newspapers of this war, at least in the Middle East and Mediterranean theatres, *N.Z.E.F. Times* commenced its fifth year of publication with the first edition in July. In May it had carried its largest headlines—VICTORY IN EUROPE—to climax its record of the Division's achievements over four years of hard campaigning. The journal carries on, and will continue until the last contingent of Second New Zealand Expeditionary Force boards ship for home. On board the last ship will be *N.Z.E.F. Times*.



Perspex Released to Civilian Industry.—Perspex, the famous British plastic with a great war record, has now been released for the production of civilian goods. The post-war performance of this revolutionary new material is expected to excel even its wartime achievements. Perspex, developed and manufactured by Imperial Chemical Industries, England, is a clear, transparent sheet of methyl methacrylate. It has been used on every battlefield in the world and has successfully survived extremes of climate, hot and cold, wet and dry. One important wartime application of perspex was as aircraft glazing material. It stood the test of outdoor exposure for five years without distortion, cracking, or deterioration. In addition to its amazing toughness, the new plastic has other outstanding qualities which will make it immensely popular both among manufacturers and purchasers of civilian goods of all types. It can be formed by simple shaping processes or it can be cut, drilled, and worked with ordinary wood-working tools. Perspex has already been used for the manufacture of new types of domestic goods. General release of this plastic will enable United Kingdom manufacturers to extend its use to an immense range of consumer goods for both home and overseas markets.



HIGH COUNTRY RUN

JUST OVER 12 per cent. of New Zealand is high-country tussock land in the South Island. Between the eastern plains and the perpetual snows of the Southern Alps it sprawls southwards, from Marlborough to Southland. It is a land of glacier-gnawed valleys scoured by fierce mountain-torrents. It is a land of hills and gorges, spurs and shingle slopes, hanging valleys and river flats, across which sweep the north-west winds.

To these tussock grasslands came early immigrant farmers. With English matches, they set ablaze the age-old tussocks, the tangled beech forests. They brought Australian Merinos, with Scots shepherds and sheep-dogs to tend them.

To-day, almost 2,000,000 sheep graze upon these 7,700,000 mountainous acres. The Crown, the largest owner of all, leases 545 runs, each one averaging over 14,000 acres. Of the flocks (mostly crossbreeds, including the Merino strain) at least nine contain more than 20,000 sheep.

But as far back as 1920 a Government Commission gave warning that these mountain farms, far from progressing, had "gone backward . . . a state of affairs not at all creditable to the Dominion."

What's the reason for this? Why is the future doubtful for tussock grasslands? A detailed survey, covering grazing and farm economy at one high country run, endeavours to answer these questions.

Rough roads, often mere tracks, wind laboriously to most high-country farms, but the Grasmere - Cora Lynn run, set in the Waimakariri Basin, is linked to Canterbury and Westland both by trans-alpine railroad and main highway. Cora Lynn, administered by the Lands Department, and Grasmere, an educational grant controlled by the Canterbury University Council, total almost 54,000 acres. The two stations are worked as one enormous unit. Over 90 per cent. of the unit is divided into fifteen grazing blocks, nine of which range from 700 to 10,000 acres.

Four distinct types of country are found in this area—river-bed shingle, alluvial fans, steep slopes worn by glaciers, and, lastly, mountain tops with shingle slides and bare rock. The weather and climate varies widely, depending on slope, aspect, height above sea-level, and the amount of bare rock.

Frequent frosts, temperatures as erratic as the nor-west rains, a late spring, hot dry winds, fierce, sudden summer rains

and winter snow from the west or south-west, all have their varied effects upon the plant-life and pastures. At the western boundary of Cora Lynn, rainfall averages 62.09 in., but on the eastern margin of the run it amounts to only 35.81 in.

It's not surprising that such unusual conditions produce unusual series of vegetation: tussock steppe, southern beech forest, scrubland, and alpine herb fields. Ninety years ago the tussocks and other bunched grasses spread from riverbeds to slopes at least 3,000 ft. high. Sheep found few of the tussocks tasty, and searched for the less conspicuous grasses. The settlers did not understand that tussocks not only preserved, but enriched the topsoil, so they set fire, ruthlessly, to the matted grassy growth of centuries. These burnings, repeated again and again, produced a fresh new growth, but simultaneously they weakened seriously the plant-life and vegetable mould.

Also (as has happened in most tussock grasslands) the natural pastures of Grasmere and Cora Lynn were seriously overstocked. The close-cropping Merino added to the destruction of the more tasty herbs and grasses. Deer, rabbits (fortunately not serious in the Upper Waimakariri), and weeds assisted the deterioration.

*

To-day on the Grasmere - Cora Lynn run, work is directed from the old limestone home at Grasmere. The unit is well situated towards the sun, with few slopes snow-bound all winter. The foundation of the flock of half-breds—Merino-Romney and Merino-Leicester—



is some 5,000 ewes, while 3,000 heavy hardy wethers and several hundred dry ewes graze on the poorer, more broken country. In the summer months the run accommodates more than 3,500 lambs. The flock, both ewes and wethers, is renewed from the 3,000 hoggets carried annually, and yields each year a clip of 200 bales (80,000 lb.), worth £4,000.

Although the 300 acres of cultivated land are well fenced, many of the blocks have only natural boundaries, such as rocky bluffs, rivers, and the bush. But these serve pretty well. High-country sheep don't often stray from the property on which they're bred.

An October spring, bringing lambs with the new grass, keeps all hands busy, and the tempo of work steadily increases, until it reaches its peak in December. Then hired men aid in shearing, wool-classing, and baling. Closely-shorn sheep will die in cold, unseasonable weather, so the machines are used only for crutching. Hand blades clip the fleeces, and the shorn wethers and dry ewes are driven to the "summer country"—rugged, scrubby highlands. Ewes and lambs go to the blocks, while the "winter country" is given a brief rest.

In March and April the whole run is mustered. The lambs are weaned, the ewes and wethers culled, and surplus stock is sent to the plains, either for fattening or direct to the freezing-works. The rest of the sheep are dipped, and the rams are put to the ewes in May. Now the cold season is approaching, so most of the sheep go on to "winter country" and "the farm."



"The farm" is a feature of the Grasmere-Cora Lynn run. On most high-country tussock runs, the plough isn't used extensively for preparing winter-feed areas. Either the land is too rough, or short-term leases discourage such attempts at improvement. "The farm," however, produces turnips, grasses, and white clover for winter feed. A strict rotation is applied to the ten paddocks making up the 300 cultivated acres. One paddock of 24 acres produces two 35-ton hay crops annually. This, together with liming and top-dressing with superphosphate, has raised the carrying-capacity of "the farm" from 150 to over 1,000. Cull ewes and wethers are fattened in the late summer, and through the winter over 1,000 hoggets graze with a much lower death-rate than those on the ranges. Their fleeces, too, are 2 lb. heavier.

But, in spite of "the farm," Grasmere-Cora Lynn carries fewer sheep than in the past. Over a period of sixty-five years the sheep population has dwindled from 16,200 in 1879 to 11,900 in 1919, and to approximately 10,000 in 1944. This can be explained partly from a change-over from Merino to a half-bred flock, and a policy, since 1930, of controlled grazing. Tussock burning (and with it the destruction of small, tender feed) is almost completely banned. Yet overstocking, indiscriminate tussock burning, and

erosion continue steadily on most other high-country runs. They continue to deteriorate, seriously.

What of the future of our high country, which at present produces wool, and relatively little food? New Zealand is now committed to a maximum production of food. In the years just ahead synthetic substitutes yet may compete successfully with fine wools.

The high-country farmer depends on wool. The wool depends on the sheep, the sheep depend on the grass, the grass depends on the soil. The tussock grasslands and the thin mountain soils are deteriorating rapidly, and partial re-afforestation, giving shelter for stock and grasses, is needed. New grasses could be tried which have been developed and stood the test of stock on similar country in other parts of the world. Not only would they provide food, but protect the soil.

Perhaps another solution is bringing to the ranges more beef cattle to live on rank tussock and scrub growth hitherto burned. This would require an extensive fencing-off of precipitous areas and a reduction in the number of sheep. Should the raising of wool, sheep and beef cattle prove uneconomic, the only significant alternative would be afforestation to combat floods and erosion, and to guarantee the supply of hydro-electric power, the last remaining use for our high country.—A report based on an article by KENNETH B. CUMBERLAND.





By TOM BURNS, in *The Fortnightly*, April, 1945

IT is just over a year since I came back from Germany. I suppose that should mean that the years of prison life there should now be visible in perspective. But perspective, in this as in all else, contributes no meaning. Forgetfulness and emphasis, anecdote-derived, have contrived to refashion that existence according to the patterns that literature and the traditions of behaviour admit. I can see now, a process of liberation that began with the final search outside the main gate on a wet autumn afternoon and ended with the cheering crowds and the pipe bands in Leith Harbour. The men I knew, and all the thousands within the barbed wire, can easily show themselves, now, as cheerful, irrepressible squaddies. And what marks of that time are on me for good are indistinguishable from old habits.

The spectacles remain, of course. The spectacle of Kalamata—the long, silent queues along the quayside at night, waiting for the destroyers; the Stuka attack by the bridge; the ten-thousand herd of prisoners shuffling and trotting through the centre square; the New Zealand Major storming and cursing at the German Town Commandant; the old, rotten, chewed corpses at the sea's edge. The spectacle of Dulag Korinth—the cooking fires in the dusk; the market at the gate; the crocodiles of men spoking out from the cookhouse; the ordure-smeard scraps of paper fluttering everlastingly

about the camp; the machine-gun fire along the wire at night; the undiminishing queue at the two condemned wells; the sleeping pits dug in the firm sand. The spectacle of Frontstalag Salonika—the two-hour check-parades on the centre square; the bed bugs and the lice; Olympus across the bay; the dysentery patients with shreds of flesh between their skin and bones; Feldwebel Keminade; beri-beri: such things are easy to remember, and they have been easy capital for conversation. And at first they were just that, fixed and dead like old photographs. The months, though, have given them increased meaning, whenever I can think of them in sum: the images have a vividness still which can set going a consciousness of what it was like to be alive at those times.

Liberation was not a process of weeks: it was a moment. It was when I boarded a Bakerloo train and started the last stage of the journey home from Stalag VIIIB. Instantly, and with bewildering completeness, the forty-five months of my absence dropped clean away. Here it was, Forhan's for the Gums, Diagrams of Stations, I am the Phonotas Girl, the salmon-coloured paint on the doors and fittings, the double, dental row of lights: a pattern so familiar that it must signify the real and normal world, a recognition so immediate that it must signify the utter unreality and insignificance of all that had happened since I had last seen it. I was glad of this, for I should be

able to take up where I had left off, perhaps a little better at doing some things, certainly slower and clumsier at others; there would be all those wartime regulations to find out about.

Since that moment, I have had to acknowledge an increasing awareness that the business of returning, of beginning where I had left off, of catching up, is not so simple. Quite largely, I think, this feeling of discrepancy, of incompatibility between myself and people at home was initiated by the weeks of answering questions which insisted on the peculiarities of my experience. I had continually to cast unformed judgments into words and say what it felt like to be back, what sort of life we led in prison camps, what I thought of the Germans. There were lectures and articles which I read, on the psychological abnormalities of prisoners of war and refugees which I have not been able to assure myself were incorrect or exaggerated. I would catch myself being grotesquely hearty or fatuously dumb.

Perhaps this is becoming a little too personal, a little over-dramatized. What I want to convey, however, is necessarily derived from personal experience, although I believe that it is shared by other men who have returned from prison camps, and, I believe too, by refugees and "liberated" people. There is the ballooning emotion that comes when freedom is sensed as an actual experience, and with it the feeling that the return to familiar surroundings is all that is necessary for return to normal life; there is an increasing consciousness of estrangement and abnormality.

What happens when a man becomes a prisoner of war, what happens, conceivably, when people have their country occupied by an army of enemies, is a revolutionary change in his make-up as a social being. He does not leave his friends, the people he knows, and go into prison, where he, uniquely, is thrust into a hostile environment and where he must fight an essential battle to maintain his selfhood, where he can, defending it, regard himself as cut off from normal society, from real life. He has with him instead the society that he knew as normal and real, and it is towards this

society, towards his friends and acquaintances themselves, that he has to reorder his attitude.

It is difficult to think back to our state of mind during the first days of captivity in Corinth. We all, I suppose, based our ideas of German prison camps on press versions of Dachau horrors; we envisaged lives flattened out under relentless discipline and omniscient organization. We expected the worst, and prepared for it. There would be a time of tough and bitter experience, and we had to get through it as best we could. So, when we departed—as most of the ten thousand of us did—from customary ethical standards, we did not feel that we had jettisoned decency for good and all, but that we had pocketed such things until the time came for employing them again.

In fact, conditions were extremely bad just at the beginning: no food was issued for the first three or four days at Corinth. Wounded and sick were segregated and cared for, after a fashion, so that there were no obvious claimants for sympathy or generosity. The job was to keep oneself alive, and nobody had anything to spare for anybody else. There were exceptions, of course, as there always are; close friends remained together, and food that had been saved or scrounged might be shared with the man one "mucked in" with; but, apart from the existence of such cobbles and muckers, society around each prisoner would be regarded by him as a cunning enemy: people you had liked and trusted for years, and with whom you had shared a number of dangers and excitements would be watched suspiciously while they divided up the rations; fights over this occasionally took place.

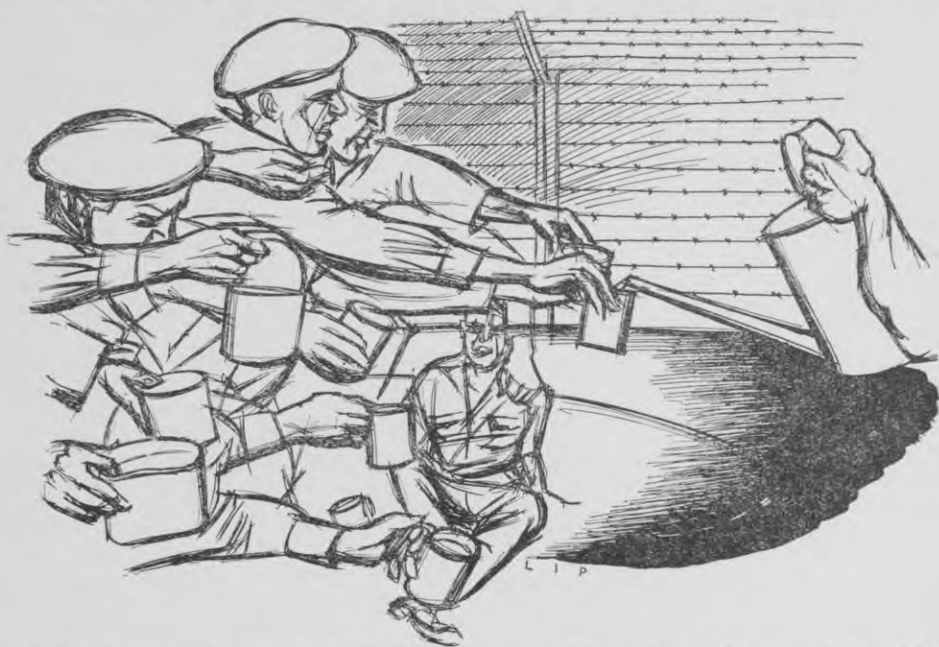
On the positive side, this meant that life resolved itself into a perpetual intrigue for food. Even when things were a little easier, fear of future shortages, fear of jealousy, or of importunate begging hardened each man's selfishness and cunning into permanent features of P.O.W. life. The campaigns and humiliating shifts directed in the Dulags towards cadging food from men who went outside the camps to work or who had other means of getting extra food were resorted to later in the Stalags for

privileged jobs, better quarters, fuel, or protection by a "racket-king," as well as for potatoes and sugar. For most people, this business of scrounging, wangling, and ingratiation was the really serious business of life; it is possibly the aspect of prison life in which most danger for the future life of the prisoner of war lies.

The other notable break with normal standards of living which occurs at the start of captivity and which tends to be better adjusted as time goes on and conditions improve, rather than to become more definite, is the almost conscious and deliberate rejection of common decency

privacy was absolute, of course, and latrines were a stretch of sand pitted with shallow trenches; but most men neglected the most elementary principles of hygiene even to the extent of only kicking sand, and one was liable to come across excreta in the most surprising places. Flies, and dysentery, were thick in the air.

At Salonika there were inside latrines and running water, and this side of things improved. But the problem of barrack cleanliness remained, and of the primary chores that any community necessitates, and which were not done. N.C.O.s placed "in command" of a barrack by the Ger-



and cleanliness. This is perhaps an inevitable consequence of bad living conditions—although for most of us they were no worse than those of the retreat through Greece, when almost everyone managed to keep clean and tidy—but it went beyond the mere negatives of not washing or shaving, not keeping one's clothes clean; within a few days, the crowded barracks at Corinth camp swarmed with lice, to compete with the bed bugs that infested them already; a curious index of this deterioration was observable in the enormous increase in spitting. Lack of

mans, uncertain of the extent to which they could exert authority in any case, quickly became, or were made, aware of the anomalies of their position, and were usually afraid to issue orders. Certainly nobody was fool enough to volunteer for such jobs. All arrangements affecting order and cleanliness, therefore, were deferred until an outraged and contemptuous guard imposed them as orders.

And this aspect certainly does have its long-term effect. The resentment aroused by such scenes with guards, and the connotation that all work, inside as well

as outside the camp, comes to have as "work for Jerry" introduces a positive and obstinate element into a previously apathetic or a social rejection of cleanliness and order. Also, the bludger, the *debrouillard*, can invoke right feeling and military duty on his side, and does so, frequently.

Throughout the period of the Greek Dulags, the great herd of men which had been driven through the streets of Kalamata on the morning of April 30, 1941, remained, for the most part, a herd. Dirty, unshaved, undisciplined, shiftless, grubbing continually for bits of food and cigarette ends, indecent, selfish, we must have provoked by our appearance the bullying and occasional irresponsible shootings that stirred wretchedness into a fierce misery.

In Germany, in the permanent camps, the Stalags, conditions are very different. The camps are planned and organized for their purpose. The German rations themselves are slightly better, and are regular. Camp administration and guards are recruited from older men and from those unfit for active service—apart from the few Party men. But most important of all, the International Red Cross services come into full action, B.R.C.S. parcels of food, undreamed of in transit camps, arrive, correspondence is permitted, parcels of clothing, books and tobacco can be sent from home. In response to specific needs, and following the forms set down by the Geneva Convention, organizations have to be arranged between prisoners and camp authorities for distributing Red Cross supplies, for corresponding with Red Cross authorities at home and in Geneva and with the Protecting Power in Berlin; football leagues are started; the inevitable classes in German grow into established schools with enormous curricula; makeshift concerts and entertainments grow into dance bands and a permanent theatre.

However, the prevailing mood is still to "see it through," and not to "make the best of things." The organic community life that emerges is short term: the recurrent and arbitrary suspension of all social functions, standstill orders, the complete vacuum around the community, the impossibility of imposing more than

fractional alterations on a rigid environment—all these hedged social existence with provisos, regulations, taboos, and fears. They provoked, too, defensive attitudes of cynicism or of "sense of humour," and a blank inability to think of workable improvements.

For individuals, routine was a vitally necessary protective device. The disposition of our food into the constant proportions of the daily meals—the bread ration made three thin half-slices for supper, five for breakfast, and two for lunch—the turnabout at cleaning our quarters and washing up after meals, and all the other minutiae of daily existence were ordered not so much for efficiency's sake as for the sense they created of living in a normal, familiar world. Similarly, the perspective of the barrack-room from one's own bunk, the crackpot shelving nailed up around it, the location of one's friends and enemies about the camp, the character of the compound guards, the time for the issue of Red Cross parcels, the stains and graffiti on the walls and neighbouring bunks were all familiar constellations whose removal or disturbance affected the foundations of existence. Consequently, to have to change quarters involved a tremendous emotional upheaval. Such an order was issued not infrequently, and entailed merely our removal, much at our own pace, from one barrack to another, perhaps in the same compound. All barracks were identical in design, variations in the physical conditions of different parts of the camp were for the most part trivial, and the time and labour needed for removing and settling down might well have been regarded as the welcome occupation of a day or two. But no; for days and weeks after a move—and before, if we suspected it—we would be consumed with savage resentment of the German authorities; crises *de nerfs* would alternate with long spells of melancholy brooding; we would avoid people on whom we relied normally for half an hour's conversation; the vistas of the war would prolong themselves interminably.

We acquired, in this reaction to our environment, a special set of psychological modes according to which we lived. These modes determined our ways of

thinking and the matters which occupied our thoughts, the orientation being always away from what would disturb or worry us. For example, my own reactions towards the war became entirely technical and impersonal. The reading of the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, the winnowing of rumours, the endless discussion and prognostication of events, absorbed a great part of each day, but the devastation of towns in the West and the slaughterous battles in Russia, Rommel's advance and Stalingrad, affected me only in terms of their historical significance—an attitude impossibly abstract now. Dejection and pessimism came, but not from allied reverses, or from the impact of German propaganda; they were consequences of periods of military inactivity.

Again, we talked enormously, but we avoided that perpetual discussion of common acquaintances which can become the dominant topic among a group of people; incompatibilities and dissatisfactions in personal relationships cannot be faced when those relationships are indissoluble and close, so that the only protection was not to acknowledge the existence of such difficulties. Talk was the one great amenity, and filled a great part of each day; in such a huge, leisured, and stable community, the opportunities for social intercourse and for getting acquainted with scales and categories of living other than one's own were illimitable; there can be few prisoners whose horizons have not been considerably extended in these directions. Inherent in this conversational traffic, though, are the same dangers as there are in too close a confinement within the bounds of any social class. Everybody in a P.O.W. camp has a contemporary background and a recent experience practically identical with everybody else's. Back in normal society, the repatriated prisoner can often find himself rather lost in talking to people without that background and experience, much as products of the worst public schools find themselves lost when they have to do with a working man.

In permanent camps, racketeering and bludging, although they persist as whole-time pursuits, tend to become less obtrusive, an inevitable consequence of the

greater stability the community has, and of the respectability such stability affords. In the long run—and this counts in the years of Stalag life—most men adopt an habitually ingratiating manner towards those in useful positions, and will do far less for other people in general than they did before they were captured. The occasional memory—and the occasional consciousness of their continued existence—of these developments in oneself is one of the more disturbing legacies of P.O.W. life. Perversions, sexual or criminal, were not, I think, widespread, but they were practised fairly openly and without challenge. A curious and revealing circumstance was the existence, for most of my two years in Germany, of a Stalag razor gang which intimidated British W.O.s in charge of certain camp affairs, who engaged in one or two quite bloody exploits, among minor bullying and rough-housing, without, so far as I know, any counter move being made by the thousands of us who knew of them. This is perhaps the extreme case to which was applied a governing principle of social relationships in prison camp—the right of the private individual to make himself a public nuisance.

Apart from the qualifications which I am trusting any reader to make for himself, this account, besides reflecting the incoherence of unassimilated experience, would be absurdly grim. Of course men, even when they become prisoners of war, do not cease to be rational beings; I do not mean to suggest that virtue and right conduct are expensive luxuries; I certainly do not think of myself or of other returned prisoners as fit subjects for psychiatric treatment. Most of us—I certainly—have had extremely valuable experience in prison camps; I met a large number of interesting people; many very funny things happened; there were many enjoyable times; a pleasant sort of easy friendliness existed; I had time to read; I had time to think. What I have been trying to record are the reasons I can find for a feeling; a feeling of our lives as having been lived according to modes utterly different from those I had felt, thought and behaved in before, and from those I am still working myself into now, after a year.



ITALY IN RUINS

by

LIEUT. G. D. L. WHITE

An account of some
of the troubles
facing the Italian
peasant.

IF, IN these pages, I appear sympathetic towards the Italians, it is not because I approve of Italy's Fascist war, nor because I love Italy in any way. It is because I spent last year in Italy with the N.Z. Artillery, and saw something of the *real* Italian people, the peasant people. In pre-Fascist times, almost half the Italian people were employed in agriculture. In spite of fascism and war, both of which caused vast upheavals, Italy is still agricultural and the peasant is the backbone of the country.

To some people the word "Italy" conjures up cultural associations—memories of painting, music, architecture, sculpture, literature, science. To me it means (apart from the war) a country of villages and peasants, of impoverished and unfortunate people. Living with them at times, I found them simple, ignorant people who did not understand the war and did not wish it. They were at the mercy of forces beyond their control.

Now, and in the post-war years, these forces will be mainly economic. I mean that the Italian is not so much in need of political liberty as of something to eat, some means of livelihood. The following is a discussion of the forces at work, and of the future prospects for Italy.

Feudalism

The first fact about Italy is that she is a nation overpopulated and short of raw materials. The country which we passed

through in central and southern Italy could not be called rich. It is too mountainous. Official estimates class about one-third of the land as either absolutely sterile or extremely poor. Even in normal times Italy cannot produce enough food for her population, and must import wheat, maize, and meat.

The second important fact about Italy's economics is that this land, mediocre though it is, is not owned by the peasants. Figures for pre-Fascist times (there has been no great agrarian revolution yet) show that 24,000 large landed proprietors owned among them about one-third of Italian land. Another third was owned by about 200,000 middling proprietors. The remaining third was divided among several millions of small proprietors, possessing very small portions of land—portions by no means large enough to make a living for themselves and their families. These were the people we lived amongst. They did all the work and suffered all the injustice.

The differences in income under such a system are astounding. In an article in *Kovero* of September 25, 1944, the writer estimates the income of the Marquis of a "masseria" 940 acres in size as £20,000 a year. About 150 girls working as casual labourers would get not more than 2s. a day at pre-war rates. Nine workmen employed permanently would get not more than 30s. a week. The great majority of these people would be

miserably poor and illiterate. I have seen similar farms, and consider the wages quoted here to be typical.

But travelling through Italy we very rarely came into contact with the landowner himself. If we asked the peasants where he was, the reply would be a frown of hatred and some remark that he had gone "up north" with the Germans and the Fascists. The fact was that most of the big land owners were high up in the Fascist party, and had departed leaving a manager on the premises. It would be a blessing to Italy if these proprietors never returned from "up north." The peasant loves his land, and is part of it. If he could own it and the produce of it, he would be happy. On numerous occasions we met men who had been to America and succeeded in accumulating enough savings to return home and buy a small holding. They had realized their ambition in life—a fortunate few of them.

The Fascist War

Clearly, Italy has in no way benefited from Mussolini's war. Admittedly the Italians started a war of conquest. But not the Italian peasant. He did not start it, and, indeed, he declined to fight it. In Greece and in Egypt he much preferred to surrender than to fight for Mussolini—a fact which was fortunate for General Wavell at a critical stage of operations in the Middle East.

At the same time, man-power and materials were drained from the Italian economy to support her faltering armies in the field. At a later stage, a further and deeper draining took place for the



A village in ruins.

benefit of the German war machine. Foodstuffs and supplies were simply commandeered by the German Army, and worthless paper chits given in payment for them. As the situation grew more serious, the hated Todt Organization commandeered labour-power to work on German production and on military defence projects. This meant not only a great reduction in civil and political liberty (which was small, anyhow), but a further disorganization in Italy's economic strength.

Any trade within the Axis countries naturally benefited Germany alone. Within Italy itself, scarcity and rationing was accompanied by the inevitable black market. Commercial men, however, made the profits from this—not the peasants. The peasant was the loser in every case.

At the time of the Allied invasion of Italy, reactionary forces held the power in the land—the monarchy, some sections of the Catholic Church, the great capitalists, and the German command. Under their sway, Italy was economically crumbling to ruins.

The Allied Campaign

From the above short description of the set-up, it might seem that a successful Allied campaign in Italy would liberate the Italian people from a tyranny and give them the opportunity to remodel their country. But the latter aim is not so easy as it sounds. Many factors have combined to prevent Italy from effectively re-planning her future as yet.



A mined bridge in the forward area.

In the first place, the armies have been campaigning through the land sowing further destruction and disorganization. Admittedly some areas have escaped attention. Last year the Fabriano-Martelica Valley was a pleasant surprise to most New-Zealanders, after coming from a war-scarred area. But most of Italy has been in some way disrupted. It is a familiar story—ruined villages, ruined farmhouses, broken bridges, railways, factories, electrical installations; livestock dead or deported; minefields, refugees.

Secondly, the army had not the time or capacity to repair all these things. It tried to reorganize rapidly its own ports, railways, and supply roads in order to keep up pressure against a tenacious enemy. The average soldier had no time to worry about civilians at all.

Thirdly, the Allied Control Commission, AMGOT, and UNRRA organizations, which follow in the wake of our armies, had too heavy a job on their hands. To the Italian citizen, the remodelling of Italy might seem the most urgent job in the world. But, to these international allied organizations, Italy is only one of many war-torn countries, and unlimited resources cannot be placed in reserve for her rehabilitation.

Last year, food was the commodity in shortest supply to the Italian people. The peasant communities could barely produce enough for their own requirements. They were not willing to sell food for consumption in the cities. Even had they been willing, transport was not available to take it there. Because of the urgent needs of shipping and supplies elsewhere, the Allies were not able to import food into Italy on a scale sufficient to meet the subsistence requirements of everybody. There was no easy or immediate solution to such difficulties—and in the meantime the black market flourished.

In short, Italy was struggling to keep alive. She was war-weary and disillusioned. The peasant talked about liberation, rehabilitation, and "risorgimento" with a sigh, a sigh of despair and apathy. He was not politically alive. He would talk about the good old times, or about what ought to be done in future (by some one else)—but for the moment he

had enough worries. He hated the Fascists and the Germans; but now that they were gone he was sick of the English and Americans, not to mention the Greeks, Poles, Indians, French, Africans, and negroes whom he found fighting for his "liberation."

Future Prospects for Italy

The most urgent problem in Italy is the economic one. Italy's future is entirely bound up with the prosperity and collaboration of other nations. She can never be self-supporting. In order to get her daily bread in the form of food imports, Italy must be able to export to overseas markets a surplus of luxury goods (such as wines, silks, fruits) and manufactured goods. She must obtain capital from abroad to rebuild her dissipated industries. Even then, she may have to continue emigration and colonization to solve her population problem.

And what is to happen to the "backbone" of the country, the peasant? I would say that until all who cultivate the land by their own labour and that of their families are given the chance to own the land and the produce of the land, the peasant is destined to misery and poverty. If the war and disruption in Italy have managed to bring home this essential fact to the people, and to inspire them to work for their liberation themselves, it will have been of some use. Mussolini gave Italy some economic benefits in the early stages—benefits which were later lost—but any permanent improvement will have to be in the form of progress in which the people themselves co-operate.

This is a political task. An economic reconstruction plan could be blue-printed for Italy including all manner of agrarian and industrial reforms. But it would only be a paper ornament unless the people are interested in it and given the opportunity to work for it.

Only then, when the daily life of the people is settled, can our memory of Italy as a land of misery and war be forgotten, and Italy recapture her rightful place in the world as a land of music, art, and beauty.



A KORERO Report

“**T**O CARVE a violin, go to the Black Forest of Germany where human sacrifices were offered, and cut out the heart of a tree 300 years old.

“Then carry that wood to Greece and leave it there for 100 years to season in the dry air of Attica. Let it absorb the eloquence of the Athenian orators, witness the tragedy of the Grecian masters, and let it season in the drowning hum of greatness that sounds from the field of Marathon.

“Then take it to Italy for another 100 years. Let it be saturated with the greatness of ancient Rome, and the fluttering of the wings of the Roman Eagle.

“Then take it to the white cliffs of Dover for another 100 years. Let it take in the sweep of the tide, the flash of the lightning, the rumble of the heavy thunder, and the rhythmic beat of the waves.

“Then take it for another 100 years to the newly built Palace of Versailles. Let it absorb the gaiety of its night life, the dignity of its court performance and the majesty of its architecture.

“Then take it for another 100 years to the rugged mountains of Norway. Let it gather into its heart the clash of the avalanche, the splutter of the waterfalls, the steady pulse of peasants . . .

“For the bow, take the hair of a woman who has lived, loved, and sinned, and been to the foot of the Cross for deliver-

ance. Then you will have the violin and the bow. But only God can make the violinist.”

This eloquent admission that the perfect violin cannot be shaped by human hands came from Antonio Stradivari (1649-1737), one of the world's best violin-makers. Antonio and his brother Geronimo improved and remodelled the old Brescian (1580-1630) violin, and created a graceful, artistic pattern which has been followed generally to the present day.

The violin was not invented, but came from changes made to the viola, a six or seven-stringed instrument with square or blunt corners and a soft, penetrating tone. The viola dates from the fifteenth century, and was a descendant from the lute, an adaptation of the classical lyre. The earliest violin is believed to have been made in Venice in 1563.

For two and a quarter centuries, then, the violin has remained unchanged. This frankly puzzled a violin-maker *Korero* visited the other day.



"It's high time we did better," said he. "Stradivari, tucked away in his Italian province, had only about forty to fifty woods to select from, while here in New Zealand we've more timbers than he ever had in Italy. And when you think of the whole world at our disposal, why, any man could get hold of four hundred timbers without much trouble. We've spent millions on forestry, timber, and research work. We've delved deeply into science and found out a lot about sound. Yet with all our knowledge and resources, we're prepared to admit ourselves licked by a comparatively — *comparatively*, mark you — ignorant man.

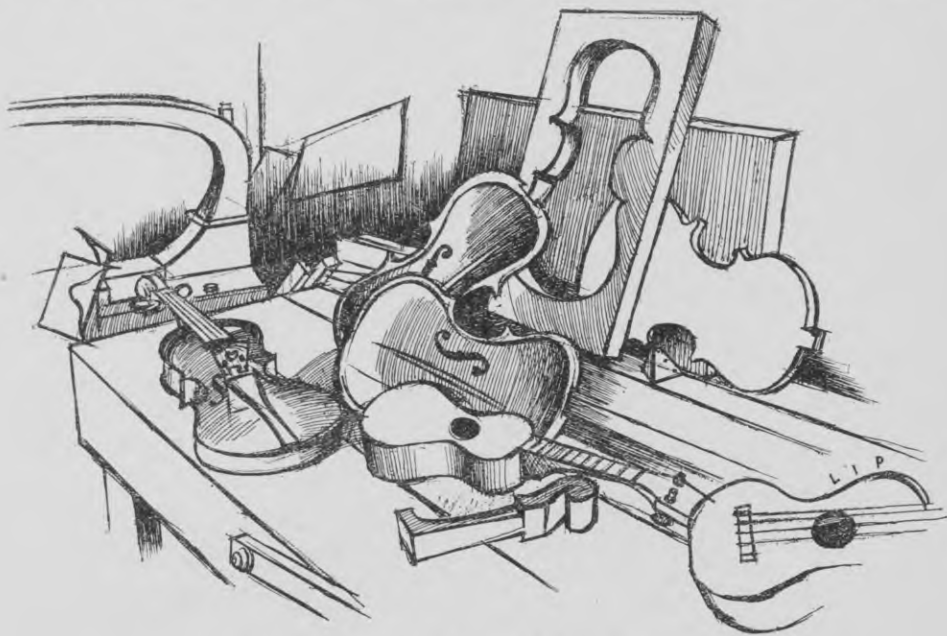
"No," said the violin-maker, "the perfect violin has never been made, my friend. The tone of the perfect violin must be a far closer approach to the human voice than that of any Strad."

This craftsman doesn't imagine for a moment that he will make as good a fiddle as Stradivari, but he's a man who won't take anything for granted. ("I'm never afraid to tackle something new.") Born in Edinburgh, and a soldier in the

1914-18 war, he cleared out from Scotland in disgust after his war pension was reduced. Off to Australia he went, but when a drought ruined his soldier-settlement farm he came across the Tasman to New Zealand. Now, aged fifty, he lives behind his workshop, in Wellington.

A visiting violinist, in heated debate, declared it was utterly impossible to make good violins from woods grown in New Zealand. "Nonsense," said our friend, and set about then and there to make a fiddle. In the past eighteen months he's made seventeen violins from matai, rimu, Southland beech, and honeysuckle. The violinist tried them all. When he came to the one made from honeysuckle he fell in love with its mellow tone. Now he wants to exchange his 200-year-old Parisian violin for the New Zealand fiddle fashioned out of honeysuckle.

This craftsman believes the secret of violin-making is not in the varnish, but in the wood. He has found short-grained timbers with short fibres give out short vibrations, which always re-



The secret is not in the varnish, but in the wood.



"Never afraid to tackle something new."

main under the control of the violinist. (If you want to experiment yourself, get a strip of wood, hold one end on top of a piece of cork, tip the other end with a finger, and listen.) Some European violin-makers declare a violin can be made only from maple and Swedish pine. Our friend likens this to a person

talking with two tongues. He maintains a violin should have only one set of vibrations, so he sticks to just one wood. And New Zealand woods seem to vibrate just as sweetly as the European ones.

"How do you set about making a violin?" we asked.

We were shown a standard piece of wood, the shape of the body of the violin. He uses this pattern piece to cut out two duplicates, one for the front (or "belly") and one for the back of the violin. Honeysuckle, of course, isn't large enough to work in one piece, so three sections have to be gummed together to make up the required size. The belly piece is shaved down to $\frac{3}{16}$ in. in thickness, and carefully moulded and shaped. The back piece is similarly scooped out and reduced.

The ribs (which fit around the outside edges of the back and the belly) consist of twenty-four shaped pieces. These are glued into position and held in a press for forty-eight hours to make sure they stick together with uniform firmness. Then the neck and the scroll, carved in one piece, is fitted at the top, the fingerboard and tailpiece go on, air-holes (those two squiggles you see on the belly of a violin) are cut equidistant from the centre of the instrument, the wood is given a clear varnish, the four gut strings go into position, and there, after three weeks of making and fitting forty pieces, is the violin, price around £20.



A Harbour goes to France.—An article, *Synthetic Harbours*, printed in a recent *Korero*, described how the initial problem of landing supplies for the invading forces in France was solved by the building in England of two great harbours that were towed in sections across the channel and set up ready for use. Twelve days after "D" day, the worst gale for forty years blew in from the North-east at 70 m.p.h. and completely wrecked one of the ports; the other, which was protected from the gale, enabled armies and millions of tons of supplies and heavy equipment to be landed.

A Harbour goes to France is the film record of how this tremendous project was worked out, and what it meant to the success of the Allied invasion. Districts may have this film made available by making application to film sections, A.E.W.S., Army H.Q., Wellington.

PROSPECTS for TELEVISION

A KORERO Report

TELEVISION HAS been peeping over the horizon for many years. By 1939 it had shown that it worked and had a great future; it had also shown its inadequacies. Several years of war, with intensive research in the science of radio, have achieved technical advances which will bring, undoubtedly, clearer, larger, more reliable, more interesting pictures. The place of television in the post-war world, however, is impossible to predict; as one writer says, "it has been subject (at least in the United States) to enough high-powered prose and woozy prognostication to sink a lesser invention." But it is both here to stay and ready to go. Many times it has been described as a certain billion-dollar industry. The many difficult problems of its re-establishment, in Great Britain and in the United States, are less often stressed. However great is its ultimate success, it is certain that widespread broadcast television will come neither quickly nor easily. But with the end of the war it will have the chance to start again, to plan its future soundly. That future is at present causing such a hullabaloo as has never been heard before in the radio industry.

Implementing recommendations made (in 1935 by the first Television Committee) for the establishment and development of a public television service in Great Britain, the first such service in the world was begun at the B.B.C.'s television station at Alexandra Palace in November, 1936. By 1939 (according to the report, published early this year, of the second Television Committee) the service had reached high standard: programme technique had made great progress, entertainment value was good. Television receivers in use by the public, however, were not many more than twenty thousand. Reasons for this were the high cost of sets (£20 to £75), belief that the price would soon fall, fear of

obsolescence, and the impression the service was still in the experimental stage. Shortly before the outbreak of war, when the Alexandra Palace television station was shut down for military reasons, a demand for the extension of television service to the provinces had become insistent; it was urged in Parliament, in the press, and by the radio industry. Plans for operation on a semi-national scale, bringing television within reach of the majority of the densely populated areas of Great Britain, of course had to be shelved until after the war.

Research since the War

Increasing demands of war made organized research impossible, and, apart from important developments in radio location (which will have a direct bearing on television when military security allows), little progress has been made in Great Britain in broadcast television. In other countries—principally the United States, possibly France—research and investigation have not been brought to such a standstill: it is doubtful whether first place in a science in which she once led the world is still held by Great Britain. The committee advised strongly that the London service should be reinstated as soon as possible, and should not be deferred for the uncertain period needed to give an opportunity of incorporating any fundamental improvement in the system. Furthermore extension of television to the more populous provincial centres should be made as soon as possible after the opening of the service in London. The issue, the committee stated, was not merely of providing entertainment for a limited number of persons, or even of laying the foundation of a national service, but of building an important new industry in the manufacture of television apparatus into what could be a valuable export trade.

Difficulties are many ; the committee's recommendations could not have been made easily. Before the war the quality of picture given by the television receiver was a standard of 405 lines. This gave (according to the official report ; opinions of similar services overseas are varied) a satisfactory picture (size 8 in. by 10 in.) in the home, but one which was not adequate for the large cinema screen which needs (to equal the clarity and detail of cinema films) a definition of about 1,000 lines. Increasing the size of the screen and of the picture merely spaces the lines farther apart, making the image coarser-grained, and reducing detail. Greater clarity, greater detail, and a larger picture—which can be seen comfortably by more than about three persons—are obtained only by increasing the number of lines.

Present Limitations

With even the small screen, television, because of its lack of definition, must rely heavily on close-ups. It can show you a figure, but not much of the background ; in a group the individual becomes nearly indistinguishable. This limitation seriously restricts television's entertainment value ; transmission of sports, for instance at present has to be confined as far as possible to close-ups of single figures, such as the batsman at the wicket or the man with the football, with as many as possible " long " shots to give a general impression of the game as a whole and the relationship among players. All programmes (presentation of plays, for instance) involving more than one or perhaps two persons are—with 405 line definition—of course, similarly affected.

Only by adoption of higher line definition can this limitation be overcome completely. Eventually, the Television Committee reported, television transmission should be of a standard of 1,000 lines. The question—perhaps the most important affecting the future of the industry—to be decided is whether the 405-line slate should be wiped clean now and a higher line standard adopted, or whether the change should be delayed.

Reasons for its recommendation—advising the resumption of the pre-war

system of television as soon as possible—were given by the committee as follows :—

(a) Transmissions, which were of " a high degree of reliability and afforded consistently good entertainment value in the home " by 1939, could be expected to be even more efficient ; the receivers of better design and quality—without any basic change.

(b) Much research, as well as new buildings and studios, would be needed before a markedly improved service could be operated. Such a lapse of time (probably several years) with no television service would dampen interest and—more important—seriously retard commercial development in Great Britain.

(c) An immediate re-establishment of a television service would stop the loss of highly specialized staffs previously employed in the industry before they began work for the war effort. Work could be given, too, to the men and women who during the war have gained valuable experience in different types of radio research.

(d) Further research and experience with the 405-line system would give those in control more chance to lessen the problems—both technical and programme—which will inevitably arise with the introduction of a new and improved system.

(e) It is most important that there should be no avoidable delay in restarting a service if Great Britain is to hold a leading position in the television field.

Equipment may be Outmoded

Disadvantages of continuing with the old system are that customers will be asked to buy equipment which before many years will almost certainly be obsolete. If the change was made now, present receivers would have to be scrapped (much transmission equipment, too) ; but later the cost to the public and the television authorities would be immeasurably greater—it has even been suggested in the United States that a later change might go by default, for fear of jeopardizing too large a public investment. To overcome this potential waste, the Television Committee suggested that when the time comes it may be possible to make two transmissions of the same

programme—one for old-time receivers, the other for the new. But when a similar suggestion was made in the United States, experts replied that the new line definition would introduce programme technique that could not be received by the outmoded apparatus.

While the Television Committee of Great Britain considered the advisability of standardizing British television with the definition (525-line) used in the United States since 1941, interested organizations in the United States were hotly arguing about retention of the present system or a change to either 735-line standard or a 1000-line standard. They are still arguing. Reasons for the controversy are more complex than in Great Britain.

Crowded Spectrum

The line standard is determined by the region in the radio spectrum to which television is assigned. The present assigned region lies between 50 and 300 megacycles. With all the services now in operation this region is already overcrowded—added to which is the almost immediate prospect of having to reserve greater space in radio services to aviation and navigation (among other things). Television broadcasters are restricted to channels 6 megacycles wide. In such channels a 525-line picture is the maximum, but the upper reaches of the spectrum are as yet untenanted; there is space for no one knows how many services. Here, it has been proposed, television could be allocated some 30-odd channels, each 16 megacycles wide, in the region between 500 and 1,000 megacycles, giving wider bands for better pictures and more bands for competition.

This change and the resultant technical differences would entirely outmode present television equipment—both receivers and transmitters—in the United States an investment estimated at about \$22,000,000 by both public and manu-

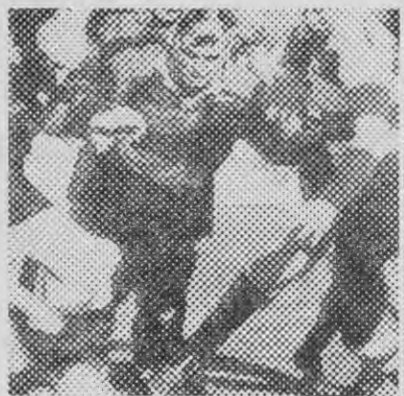
facturers. But, the exponents of the plan say (a company interested only in the programme side of television, not the manufacturing of equipment), it is wiser to scrap this pre-war investment rather than let it grow in time to perhaps \$250,000,000. The objections (from the groups concerned with the manufacturing, not the programme side of television) have been no less vigorously put forward than the plan. Experts from the groups went to France, where it had been reported that French television, developed during the German occupation, with a 1,015-line definition, was a marked improvement on pre-war services from either Great Britain or the United States. The reports from these experts varied: 1,015-line high-frequency television, it was found, was (a) as yet not practicable; (b) perhaps feasible; (c) completely out of the laboratory stage, working perfectly, ready for commercial development. It seemed it all depended which stable they came from. Sooner or later the Federal Communications Commission will have to clear the air and decide the definition standard.

Methods of Financing

Finance, too, necessarily must take an important place in the future of post-war television. The British Television Committee in its report stated that arrangements for financing the television service must depend on the methods chosen to finance the B.B.C.'s sound broadcasting services after the war. The aim should be to make television self-supporting as soon as possible, although that would clearly not be possible in the early stages of development. Television licenses of £1 a year, and cinema television licenses (the amount of the fee and the date of its introduction to be decided later), were suggested. No recommendation was made about sponsored programmes.

For financial support television in the United States will have to rely heavily

An approximate equivalent of the image of 525-line television, standard in the United States since 1941, is the 45-screen half-tone block on the upper half of the opposite page. Inset is a 25-screen half-tone block, equivalent of a 525-line television image enlarged from standard size to 18 in. by 24 in. The lower picture is an 85-screen half-tone block, the equivalent of an image of 735-line definition that will be possible in the television of the future.



on its advertisers. And television's inability to transmit detail is a serious drawback from the advertiser's point of view. A dress designer, for instance, cannot show the subtleties of cut, cloth, and colour; a furniture-manufacturer has difficulty showing the difference between his products and those of the opposition. To compare it with other media, the best that television can do to-day with its small image is the equivalent of a 45-to-48-line half-tone block; when the picture is enlarged to 18 in. by 24 in. it is no better than a 24-line half-tone. Any newspaper can print half-tones of 65 to 85 lines. And television's present rudimentary colour processes allow a picture of no more than about 35 lines, while a magazine with good paper has no trouble reproducing colour photographs of 125 lines. To attract advertisers, television authorities in the United States so far have charged small rates and sometimes nothing at all. Faithful colour television with detailed reproduction will come only with higher line definition; and until that standard is adopted television is not likely to be given the financial support from advertisers so indispensable to its success.

Future Programmes

But, in spite of all these difficulties, the question seems to be not whether there will be television, but what programmes will be televised. All the cheapness and ease of production which is the advantage of present-day radio fly out of the window when television is introduced. All the crowd scenes, the shipwrecks, the train smashes, the earthquakes, and the fires of the radio play, with television have to be more than imagination stimulated by the dialogue; they have to be

seen. At once the question of expense rises. When it is remembered the huge amounts of money spent by Hollywood on even the poorest-grade films it is obvious that television could not afford to spend similar amounts for perhaps an hour's entertainment. Drama, grand opera, musical comedy would need elaborate stage settings, expensive costumes, careful lighting, trained orchestras and perhaps weeks of rehearsals—all to produce a programme that can be repeated once or twice at the most. Nor is the showing of films likely to help solve the problem. Here again the question of finance rises. Immense profits from films are made because only a limited number of people can see them at a sitting. No person will go to a theatre to see a film he has already seen on his television receiver—and it will be possible for a whole country to see the latest film success (costing perhaps £3,000,000 to make) with just one television showing. Where would the film producers' profits come from?

Programmes, it seems, will not be able to advance far beyond the dual or solo turns, the comedians, the tap dancers, and the singers; the politician making a speech; the personalities in the news; sports events; and some news shots. These are simple to televise. But their entertainment value is limited, and, unless programme matter can be extended, it is difficult to know what will happen when the novelty has worn off. As other problems have been solved by science, so, no doubt, will the problems of television be solved—sooner or later. Then, but not until then, a new art form will have been established.



RUN RABBIT RUN

A KORERO REPORT

GENERALLY RABBITS are well thought of and often loved. No one could doubt the popularity of White Rabbit, Brer Rabbit (smarter than Brer Fox), Walt Disney's Thumper, Peter Rabbit, or the dipsomaniac's imaginary (six feet one inch and a half long) rabbit, one of the main characters in the current New York stage success, *Harvey*. Rabbits in hutches are kept, fondly, by children. Rabbits (coupon free—fixed prices from 5½d. to 8½d. a lb.) stewed, roasted, stuffed, and in pies are eaten by adults and children.

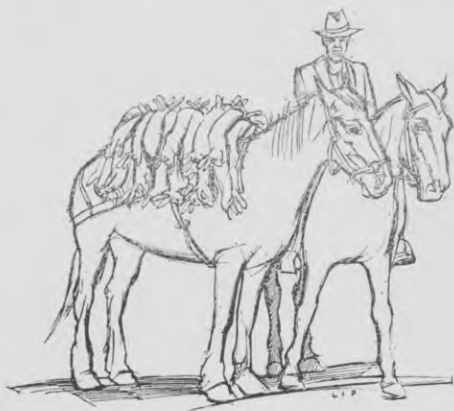
In some hotels people have eaten roast chicken which never laid eggs, but which used once to have long floppy ears and a fast moving lollop; and doubtless some of the diners have been among those who wear the fifty imitation furs, ranging from mink to sable, which once kept rabbits warm.

But rabbits, like the New Deal, are not always popular. With Otago Central landholders, who have more opportunity of knowing them than any other section of New Zealand's population, they are most unpopular—wolves, they say, just could not be worse.

Rabbits were introduced into Otago Central about 1870 for the sport of shooting. They outlived, or outbred, their welcome in short time; they have been shot at ever since, but it has been machine-gun breeding against rifle-fire shooting—and the rabbits have had the sport. Luxuriant pasture land, first-class for stock, was nibbled as bare as dry bones, and corkscrewed full of holes. Rabbits and floods switched early pros-

perity into ruin for the runholders. Snares, traps, packs of dogs, and poison were used, but it was not until hundreds of miles of rabbit-proof fencing had been erected that there was any promise of control. Unfenced areas, however, remained a breeding-ground that menaced the land held by more enterprising farmers.

After the last war when the bottom dropped out of the rabbit-skin market, when there was no longer a demand for the tinned carcasses which had been exported in large quantities for several years, rabbiters would not pay for trapping rights, and land holders could not afford to employ them. Again the pest increased and became even more out of control. Gone were the days when in a hard winter rabbits would follow close behind the man laying the poison, snatching at the bait, when two or three men could earn more than



£1,000 for a season's work. Gradually Rabbit Boards were set up; landowners were rated, and with the money collected rabbiters were encouraged, poison was sold at bedrock price, regular inspections were made, and owners who let their properties become overrun were prosecuted.

More than 10,000,000 rabbit and hare skins (13,500,000 in 1941; value, £1,000,000) are exported each year from New Zealand, mostly to the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia. Last year, too, 1,750,000 frozen carcasses were sent overseas; this year the number is expected to be 3,000,000. Numbers of these skins and carcasses came from the rabbit freezing factory at Alexandra, Otago Central.

Skins which are stretched on wires take three or four days to dry. The factory has about 60,000 wires, and 35,000 skins can be dried at once in one shed. In a summer bale, skins number about 4,000 (rabbits are born in the spring, and about January, when trapping begins, are only medium size); in the winter only about 2,500 are needed to make up a bale. From the

higher prices paid for winter skins a levy is deducted to increase the return to rabbiters in summer for the skins of milky does and kittens (baby rabbits) which, ordinarily, have little commercial value—in this way rabbiters are encouraged to reduce the pest. Winter skins are of much higher quality, and the average price is more than 1s. a skin; some bring 2s. and more each; and at the last sales one lot of 100 skins brought £18 10s. Fur coats and furs of every type are made from these skins; and although a few years ago it was not difficult to pick the imitation from the genuine, to-day it can be done only by the most expert of experts.

The rabbitier, whose main difficulty is to pack the carcasses to the roadline to be picked up by trucks, has to gut and bleed the rabbits without bruising them while they are still warm, to avoid rejects. Horses can carry up to 100 rabbits, depending on the country and the horse; loaded trucks carry 3,000. At the factory heads are chopped off, the rabbits skinned, cleaned, washed, graded into three sizes, and packed.

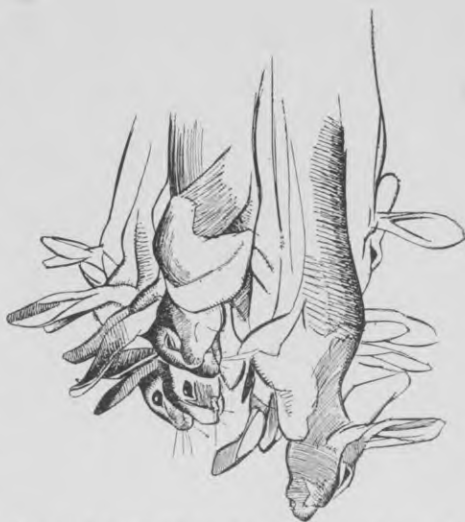


Heads and legs are chopped off and the carcasses skinned, cleaned, washed, and graded.

Otago Central rabbits, because of the rigorous winter climate and high country are remarkably free from disease; the manager of the factory said he had seen only one rabbit in a year with anything worse than an unhealthy back which the bucks sometimes develop from fighting each other. Close inspection is always made, however, for hydatids, a disease which is found more often in Southland, parts of which are also thickly infested with rabbits.

From the chiller, where the temperature is kept about 40 degrees Fahrenheit, the cases of carcasses (about 35 to a case in summer, 30 in winter) go to the "snowbox" or freezing-chamber, where they stay for four days, the temperature varying from about 12 degrees to zero. (That room would freeze more than rabbits if the door jammed with one of the employees inside.) After the freezing processes, cases are packed into railway vans, specially insulated to stop deterioration for at least three days, for transport to Dunedin. Eight thousand rabbits can be dealt with a day if necessary; and during the four busiest months more than 80,000 are handled.

In the skinning-room rabbits are everywhere. French greys and black and whites predominate, there is an occasional black and a few hares. All have big, even at this stage, bright eyes. Some are minus a leg from an earlier encounter with a trap. Rolls of scrim, with which the hauls are protected from



flies, lie waiting to be distributed to the trappers. Chirping flocks of birds, mostly sparrows, hop and flutter about (Alexandra birds must be the best fed in New Zealand; as soon as the fruit season is past its best they leave the orchards to come for the pickings of fat at the rabbit-factory). So these are the rabbits which, in addition to their other (and acknowledged) uses, sometimes are served as chicken, used in some salmon and shrimp pastes, the skins manufactured into expensive and rare fur coats. Exactly how, you wonder, did human beings come to use the expression "as silly as a rabbit."



Twelve Miles of Ink.—A fountain pen which needs to be filled only once a year is now produced in Britain. The pen has no nib, but a stylographic point—a wire enclosed in a tube which releases ink when pressed. Its barrel, which holds twelve miles of ink, is only the size of an ordinary fountain pen. The pen, invented during the war, was designed for pilots to write at heights where air pressure is so low that an ordinary fountain pen will explode. Overseas customers will be the first to use this novel invention, reports the *London Daily Mail*. Only 1 per cent. of the pens now being manufactured will be retained for the British home market.

HOW PARLIAMENT WORKS

A KORERO Report

YOU TURN the tuning dial on your radio and a clear determined voice is heard saying: "The question is that . . . As many as are of that opinion say 'Aye'—As many as are of the contrary opinion say 'No'—I think the Ayes have it. . . ." The House of Representatives is in session in Wellington, and the voice is that of Mr. Speaker, a gentleman in whom is vested all authority in the control of the House. But why does he deliver this series of formal questions which amount to a monologue? What are Members doing? What is the House of Representatives doing? How does Parliament work?

The House of Representatives comprises eighty Members, representing the electoral districts of New Zealand, and meets under the control of the Speaker, a quorum of twenty being sufficient for a session. The House meets as such, but also is formed into several committees, each with its own important function. For instance, a Committee of the Whole House is the House itself presided over by the Chairman of Committees instead of the Speaker. The Committee of Supply and the Committee of Ways and Means, governed by the Chairman, are also formed by the House itself, principally to consider the details of Bills and resolutions as a preparation for legislation involving finance. The Committee of Supply votes the annual public expenditure as presented by the Minister of Finance, and the Committee of Ways and Means hears proposals for finding the money by taxation as contained in the financial statement, or Budget.

When the House forms itself into a committee it means that a good deal of the formality is lost and Members have a much freer rein; any one Member may speak four times on the one subject, though the time limit for each speech is reduced to five minutes. When debating in the House itself a Member is entitled to speak for half an hour, and provision is made for extensions. There

are many conditions attached to such speeches, however, and it is not permissible to read from a newspaper report on the same session; nor must reference be made to a matter where a judicial decision is pending; nor may a Member use "offensive or unbecoming" words in reference to any other Member. A debate, incidentally, may be interrupted for a variety of reasons, including "words of heat between Members." Almost the same rules for regulating debate, dealing with amendments, taking divisions, and the general conduct of business as those observed in the House apply in committee. The committee becomes the House again when Mr. Speaker resumes the Chair.

Every proceeding in Parliament is based on a motion made by a Member (and seconded, if required), which is put from the Chair and decided by the House; if necessary, on a division. The practice is that after a question has been proposed from the Chair and any ensuing debate is closed, the Speaker rises and reads the question to the House. The Speaker then declares that Ayes or Noes have it, and if that statement is challenged a division follows. When a division is called for, bells are rung, and doors to the Chamber are locked after three minutes, an interval in which Party Whips are very busy assembling Members. Two "tellers" are appointed for each of the Ayes and Noes doors, and they list the names of Members passing through. The numbers are reported to Mr. Speaker, who in turn declares them to the House. In the event of an equality in votes—a circumstance that cannot arise where one party has a really clear majority—the Speaker records a casting vote.

In addition to the committees as outlined above, there are Select Committees appointed from time to time to report on special matters or consider Bills. These Select Committees, consisting of from five to ten Members (the number may be increased by special leave of the House)

have only the power to report their opinions to the House, and if they desire that any action be taken in any matter connected with their proceedings the Chairmen move to that effect in the House. Such committees have wide power in calling for witnesses or reports.

Lastly, one of the most important committees is that known as the Joint Committee on Bills, this body comprising five Members of the House of Representatives and five Members of the Legislative Council.



What, then, is a Bill?

A Bill is the draft of a statute; the object of a public Bill is to alter the general law, while a private Bill is designed to alter the law relating to some particular locality.

There are three methods of introducing Bills:—

(1) *By Order of the House.*—A “money” Bill—that is to say, a Bill the main object of which is the expenditure of money or the levying of taxation—has to be preceded by a resolution passed in a Committee of the Whole House, and on the report stage of any such resolution the Bill is ordered to be brought in. Some important Government measures not being money Bills have been founded on resolutions.

(2) *Presentation Without Previous Order.*—The more common method of presenting a Bill requires that only notice of the Bill’s title is given for a specified day.

(3) *Brought from the Legislative Council.*—The formalities observed in presenting a Bill are many, but the result is that the Bill is “read” for the first

time simply by the Clerk reading the short title. An order is then given for printing, and the date is fixed for the second reading; the second reading is taken after the Bill has been published and furnished to every Member. The question is proposed, “That the Bill be now read a second time,” and it is then open to any member opposed to the Bill to move an amendment for the deletion of the word “now” and add “on this day six months,” or any other date likely to be later than the session is expected to last. This is the polite way of attempting the rejection of a Bill. A member can also move an amendment advancing reasons for not considering a second reading. In practice in New Zealand, of course, any member endeavouring by either of these means to delay the passage of a Bill is briefed by and acting for the party in opposition at the time.

When a Bill has had its second reading it is referred to a Committee of the Whole House, where it is considered clause by clause, and sometimes largely remodelled. The Bill is then reported to the House, and, if no amendments have been made, it is ordered to be read a third time. On this report stage amendments to meet points raised in committee and reserved for consideration are then proposed, and other changes may be made. Then comes the third reading, when it is judged by the House. A division on the second reading and on the third reading offers a direct challenge to the principle of the Bill, while the committee and report stages present many opportunities of dividing on details; this, of course, depends upon the constitution of the House, and is unlikely on a Government Bill where the Government holds a clear majority. If divisions are called by the Opposition in an effort to stall progress it is within the power of the Speaker to declare the obvious majority feeling of the House. Although it is unusual, Bills have been passed through all their stages at the same sitting.

When a Bill is passed by the House of Representatives the Clerk takes it to the Legislative Council with a message requesting the Council’s concurrence.

If no amendments are made by the Legislative Council, or amendments made to which the House agrees, the Bill then awaits the Royal Assent. If, however, there is a disagreement between the two Houses which cannot be resolved, the Bill is lost. The same proceedings are adopted when a Bill originates in the Upper House. The assent of the Crown, through the signature and seal of the Governor-General, is the final proceeding which converts a Bill into an Act of Parliament.

Relation between House and Council

The House of Representatives does not in itself constitute Parliament. The parliamentary system in this country is exactly the same as that of the United Kingdom. Similar Standing Orders apply and the same procedure is observed. Dod's definition of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, then, is applicable to the legislature of this country:—

"The two Houses convened by Royal authority, and acting jointly with the Crown, constitute the Legislature of Parliament; and its Acts are called indifferently 'Statutes,' or 'Acts of Parliament'; they have the full force and effect of law . . . Taken together they are the Parliament . . . The power of Parliament is held to be transcendent and subject to no limitation whatever."

Although Bills are referred to the Legislative Council, the right of granting money in Parliament belongs exclusively to the House of Representatives. The Standing Order governing this right says:—

"All aids and supplies, and aids to His Majesty in Parliament, are the sole gift of the House of Representatives; and all Bills for the granting of such aids and supplies are to begin with the House of Representatives, and it is the undoubted and sole right of the House of Representatives to direct, limit, and

appoint in such Bills the ends, purposes, considerations, conditions, limitations, and qualifications of such grants, which may not be changed by the Legislative Council."

With "Commons" for "Representatives," and "House of Lords" for "Legislative Council," that text also forms a Standing Order in the United Kingdom Parliament. It is provided that in the event of opposition from the Upper House *all* money Bills may be presented directly by the House of Representatives for the Royal Assent.

Communication between the House of Representatives and the Legislative Council is by message carried by the Clerk, or Assistant Clerk, of either House. There is provision, however, for negotiation by conference, this being conducted by Managers (up to three Members) on both sides for the purpose of producing concurrence in cases where mutual consent is necessary, or reconciling differences. This is seldom necessary.

In general there are no differences between the House of Representatives and the Legislative Council. Though the term "Parliament" means both Houses, the all-important authority on matters involving finance—levying of taxation and the control of expenditure—supports the popular conception of the House of Representatives as Parliament.

The Consolidated Fund is the fund formed of proceeds of taxation and other sums received by the Treasury in order that a fund may be provided "into which shall flow every stream of the public revenue and from whence shall issue the supply for every public service."

Every Member of the House of Representatives is obliged to attend sittings, and if absent for more than seven consecutive sitting days without leave of absence is held to be guilty of contempt. Apart from possible censure or suspension, any such member is liable to a fine up to £50.

