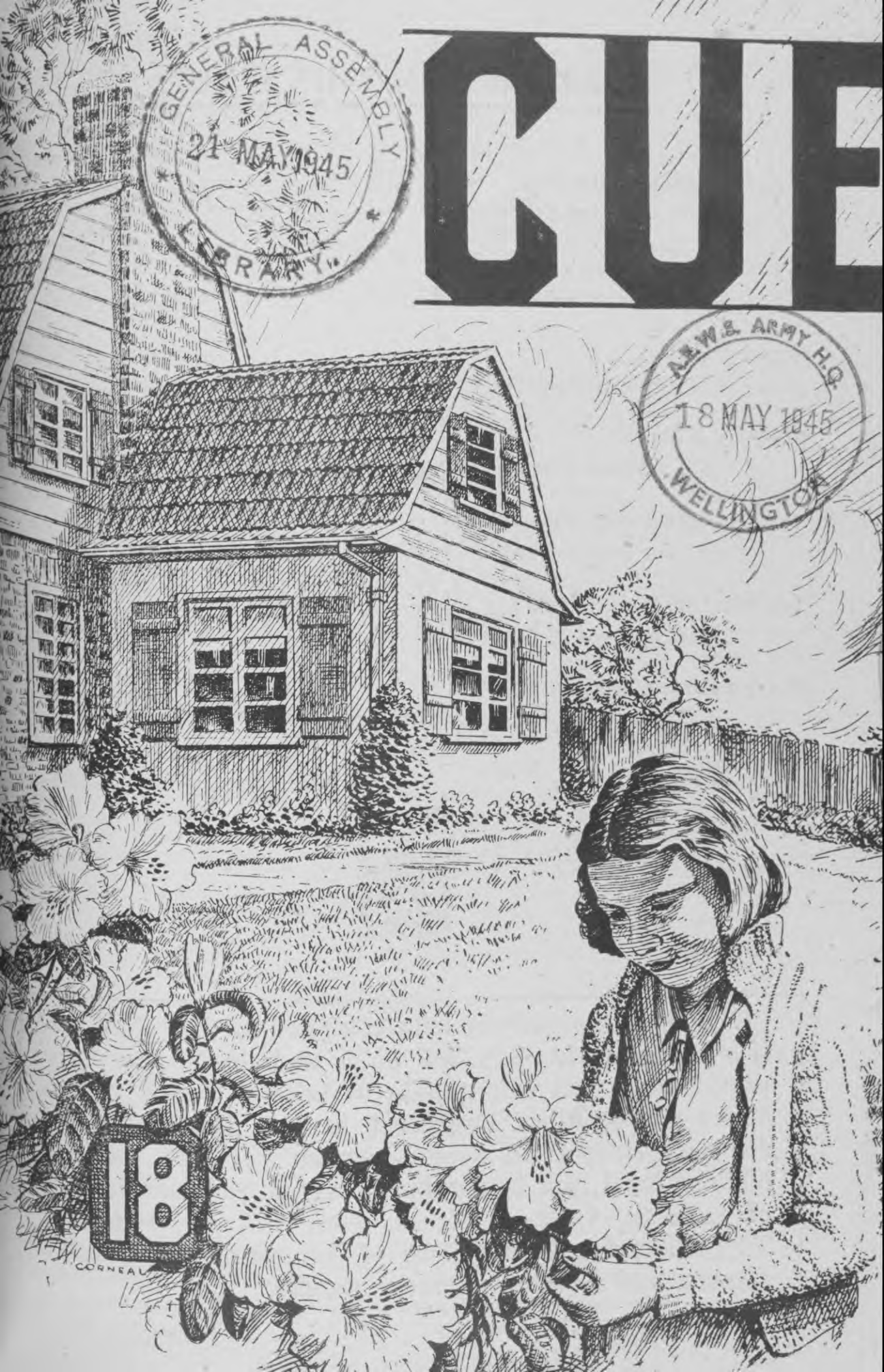
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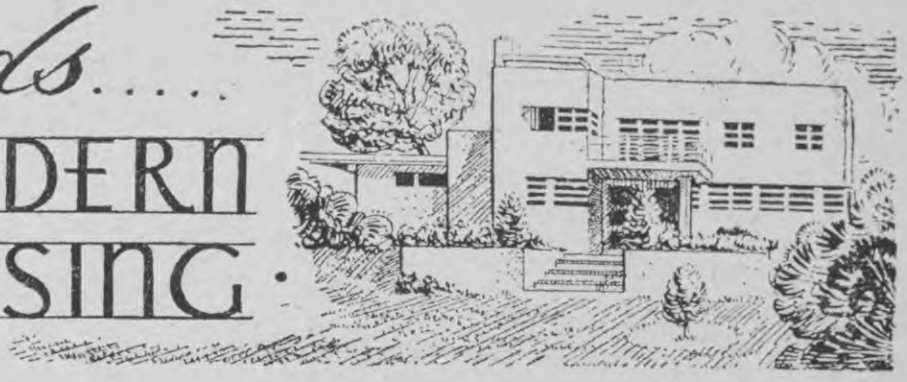
CUE is a fortnightly bulletin compiled by HQ NZERS. It is for use within 2 NZEF only, and its purpose is to provide data and information of interest to NZ troops. Views and opinions expressed in this publication are not necessarily from official sources. Topical subjects, NZ and local, will be regularly covered, and contributions of articles, verse, sketches, etc., will be welcomed. Suggestions for the inclusion of information in popular demand will be met wherever possible.

Trends..... in MODERN HOUSING



IN the tremendous task of post-war reconstruction in Europe a new architectural and building epoch is certain to be ushered into a world highly receptive to change. Even in the past ten years there have been distinct trends in architecture as applied to modern housing. In coming years it seems likely that these trends in design and construction will become increasingly apparent in New Zealand homes, especially in those built by private enterprise.

Modern architecture is realistic and functional. In an age of speed and efficiency, the home cannot be allowed to lag behind the machinery of the day. A considerable portion of a person's life is spent within the four walls of a house. Especially for a woman the need for an efficient, well-planned home is obvious. Consequently, the trends in housing have largely been towards utility and efficiency. But while the modern house has been evolved largely by such influences, it has achieved a characteristic beauty which is a happy augury for post-war architecture and building.

The modern home has dropped most of the pretence and artificiality which characterised most of the house designs of the earlier years of this century. In the 18th century, houses were comparatively well-planned and constructed, but from the days of the Industrial Revolution architecture deteriorated considerably. Just before the last war, a few architects tried to halt its descent to a mere frowsy imitation of period designs or, worse still, of a combination of the less attractive but more obvious features of various periods.

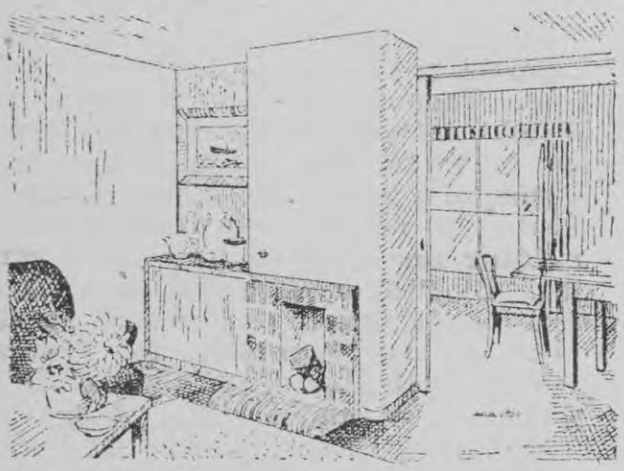
One of the first "modern houses" was designed in 1910 by an Austrian, Adolf Loos. Then an American, Frank Lloyd Wright, introduced new housing ideas, one of which was the open-air conception of a home. He designed houses so that there was the least possible dividing line between house and garden. By 1926, modern ideas had taken firm root in Europe, where such architects as Le Corbusier in France, Gropius in Germany, and Thomas Tait, Maxwell Fry, and the firm of Connell (a New Zealander), Ward, and Lucas in Britain led the field.

These men felt that architecture, especially in housing, had reached such a low ebb, that they had to go back to first principles of design—and chief of these is function. They planned their houses for the purpose for which they were required—for living in—and stripped them of unnecessary and unsightly trimmings. They had their copyists who introduced many jazzy ideas which far from enhanced the new style of design and construction. In fact, the contribution of these flashy imitators was not welcomed by either architect, home-owner or aesthete.

The general trend in recent years has certainly been towards efficient and simple planning, but there have been other marked developments. They include structural changes such as the support of the roof on columns rather than on the exterior walls, the employment of new building materials, the increased use of glass, and new stress on orientation, central heating, and labour-saving devices, especially in the kitchen. Gone are the narrow passages, dark rooms, dusty mouldings, ornate doors, heavy floral wall-papers, and

dingy, inconvenient kitchens. Comfortable and healthy, attractive and efficient modern homes offer much to the post-war owner.

A likely development in building in New Zealand is the wider use of concrete for houses, for timber is becoming increasingly scarce, and bricks do not lend themselves to all types of design. The trend on the Continent when using concrete is that the roof and floors are supported on independent columns. Thus there are no weight-carrying outside walls and partitions may be placed as best suits the plan and not the construction. This permits of whole walls of glass or glass bricks and internal partitions, such as in the dining-recess, often semi-circular in shape.



The implications of the transfer of the weight of the roof to columns divorced from exterior walls are important. For centuries man sought to achieve his own cellular unit—the house—and he has obtained his desire. And it is understandable that in this age of speed and noise he should desire a refuge. But having acquired such privacy, there appears to be no great reason why he should divide his house into rigid cells, with strong walls and doors. A trend in the house today is to get away from this rigidity of design by a fluid arrangement of living rooms whereby folding or sliding doors alone can be used to divide living and dining rooms. Thus rooms may be used singly or conjointly as the occasion demands. Such an arrangement also permits halls and passages to be reduced to a minimum.

The flat roof has been a feature of many modern houses in New Zealand, but it has not always been entirely successful where used with wood. It has one great advantage in that it gives freedom of planning. Lay-outs of rooms can be adopted that would not normally be possible with the pitched roof. Used with concrete, it is probable that there will be a wider use of the flat roof in coming years.

Correct orientation and the wider use of glass go hand in hand. The health value of being able to introduce a generous supply of sunshine into the house is being increasingly realised. Houses are being designed so that the important rooms receive plenty of sun, and window space is becoming larger all the time. It is now possible to have windows of any size, to the extent of complete glass walls, if desired, so long as the necessary lateral support is provided.

If timber is available in New Zealand in large supplies after the war it is probable that new uses will be made of it. In recent years revolutionary methods of building in wood have been introduced, and after the war waterproof plywoods and similar materials will probably play a big part in construction. Especially will this be so in the pre-fabricated house. It will be interesting to see the part pre-fabrication will play in postwar housing. It is likely to be used extensively by the State, but whether or not private enterprise will adopt it remains to be seen. Internally, new wall finishes and plastic materials will be used extensively, and should enhance the home generally.

Already great strides have been made in improving the kitchen, which, after all, is really the workshop of the housewife. More and more women in countries affected by the war have been forced to do all their own cooking and housework, and they have gained a new realisation of what an efficient kitchen can mean in the life of those who have to run a house. Consequently, many improvements have been effected, not only in lay-out, but in labour-saving devices. Refrigerators, electric dish-washers, and even automatic washers and ironers are making their appearance at prices within reach of the average home-builder.

One big change that may be expected in New Zealand after the war—especially in the colder regions—is an increased use of air conditioning and central heating. It seems a rational outlook that houses should be so heated in winter that movement throughout the home is not like a venture into the Arctic regions. As it is now, in most houses the family huddles round the fire in the living-room, and there is a reluctance to move from the room even to get things that are wanted. The getting of supper is a chilly task, and at bed-times there is a reluctance to go to the cold bedroom.

It seems desirable that a house should be evenly heated throughout at a comfortable, but not enervating temperature. Hot water radiators may be used, but an air conditioning plant is at present the more healthy method. By means of this plant, air is drawn in, washed, warmed, humidified to the correct degree, and pumped to all parts of the house. Probably such a plant will be completely electric. There is another method by which all the walls of the house contain hot-water pipes. In certain districts of Russia and the United States, hot water is laid on to the house like gas, the water coming from central boilers. This system seems ideal in certain urban areas, but the expense involved in piping spread-out residential areas in New Zealand would be too great to warrant its adoption.

Every day new plans for housing after the war are being put forward, and new methods of construction and fitting are being introduced. It behoves the soldier who intends building a house on his return to civilian life to keep abreast of modern trends in housing.

Say it with Pictures

— *By B.I.F.* —

TO say it with pictures, we are not dependent on photos, drawings, paintings, or the cinema; those are only other ways of doing what we constantly do in speech and writing. We tell lies every hour of the day, and the truths we wish to express are all the clearer because of it; in half our conversation we do not mean what we say or say what we mean, but we are not misunderstood or accused of lying.

On the contrary, our language is all the richer and more vivid because we add colour and illustration to emphasise our meaning. Thus, when we "hit the nail on the head, make a big splash, bring home the bacon, strike out, shoot a line, ride for a fall, hit the high spots, are put on the mat, turn up trumps, go for a skate, take the lid off, or drop a brick," and so on in hundreds of similar expressions, we seldom mean these things literally, but are using more vivid ways of conveying ideas to other people's minds. We all use this picture-language, whether we learnt about Figures of Speech at school or not—for figures of speech they are.

Picturesque language may be of three kinds—that which calls up mental pictures by ordinary words (one Kiwi thinks that Michelangelo's "Last Judgment" in the Sistine Chapel is too crowded with figures; he said it looks "like a basket of eels"); that which consists of picturesque words ("Shufti", "prang" and "battle-bowler" are good modern examples, not forgetting "ambopeep" for a peep converted into an ambulance for jungle conditions); and language which is picturesque by vivid and varied profanity. It is unnecessary to give examples of this third type, and so we regretfully leave it, pausing only to wish that its exponents whom we hear most often would give it the spice of variety, for the four-letter words are greatly over-worked and the time-dishonoured adjectives grow painfully monotonous. Too many oaths are dull, outworn and ineffective compared with those that are off the beaten verbal track; there is vigour and originality in such expressions as Maurice Walsh's "Thundering red-hot flagstones of hell-!"

In passing, a word on slang. Some slang results from mental laziness—the ubiquitous "bloody" is little more now than lazy slang. Some slang comes from a desire for variety, which has that to commend it; for example, to "hit the silk" instead of "bale out". Some slang expressions are pearls of humour which help to enliven dull routine, as in "armoured cow" for tinned milk or "Mae West" for life-jacket. Language is frequently enriched by slang words which are so apt or so colourful that, despite protests from pedants, they soon become accepted standard speech.

Journalese seldom has anything to commend it, but for its unconscious humour one recalls the New Zealand provincial paper which, in reporting a rugby match, spoke of a player who "piloted the oval sphere between the uprights", and which, in a rhapsody on Spring, declared that the trees were "now decked in their green garbage". While on the subject of unconscious humour—the Tommy officer wondered why the Kiwis laughed when he spoke of 2 NZEF'S General Fraserberg.

What follows is chiefly concerned with language which throws vivid pictures on the mental screen. This

article is not concerned with descriptive writing as such; that may be found in the great literary works. Where, for example, could one find a lovelier description than the passage which tells of the "miracle of the Irish June" in Don Byrne's "Hangman's House", a clearer picture of storm at sea than in Joseph Conrad's "Typhoon", a better summary of the sight and the sound than in Masefield's magnificent line, "The long line of running surf goes booming down the beach", or a tenser account of man's despair than in John Steinbeck's account of the dust-storms in "Grapes of Wrath". However, the theme of this article is not the gems that delight only the lovers of books, but the picturesque in what one hears and reads from day to day.

The most commonly-used method of giving point to what we say is that of introducing a telling comparison (Metaphor and Simile to us when we were at school). Here are a few, culled from various sources:—"Hula-hula dancers with ball-bearing hips" (Roy Houser seems to speak from close observation here). "Fighter planes spitting like alley-cats" (Time). "He dresses like an unmade bed" (Life) "Cloud sculpture in the evening sky" (Olive Kean). "She barged in with her six children, like a bomber escorted by fighters" (H. Mynning). "Stars like diamonds on a canopy of velvet" (W. J. Locke). "The wind marcelling the grasses" (Kipling).

Those who make language live use various other means as well, which depend on keen observation, imagination and a gift for the right word. Thus "He is a short man who walks tall" (Driscoll) exactly sums up the situation, as does also "A woman solidly barnacled with jewellery" (Time). It would be difficult to improve on "The dogs ignored each other watchfully" (E. Bebb), or "One of those women who go through life demanding to see the manager" (G. Patrick).

Our minds sit up and take notice when a new twist is given to some well-known expression or when some challenging paradox is thrown to the intellectual lions. In our own day, G. K. Chesterton and G. B. Shaw have usually succeeded in these ways in stimulating thought. Thus, Chesterton: "Christianity has not been tried and found wanting: Christianity has been found difficult and not tried". And thus, Shaw: "All great truths begin as blasphemies". "Assassination is the extreme form of censorship." Some of the best wise-cracks, too, are based on this twist of the normal. It was Charlie McCarthy who said, "I'll give you a thumb-nose sketch of him," and Matt Weinstock who spoke of "John L. Lewis eye-browbeating the public". Its author must have been mightily discouraged when his book suffered this review. "It's the kind of book you can put down". And what fellow overseas would not rejoice to have coined this compliment as the beginning to his letter, "Dearest Chin-up Girl"?

A sidelight on war on the home front appears in the definition of rationing as "Less and less of more

and more oftener and oftener." (Arcadia Newsletter.)

Humour frequently gets its kick from the picturesque, the incongruous,

and the apt. Hats off to Bob Hope for such contributions as, "Willkie has his eye on the presidential chair, but look what Roosevelt has on it!" and "The rumba is a dance where the front of you goes along nice and smooth like a Cadillac and the back of you makes like a jeep." Red Skelton evokes our amused sympathy with his far-fetched, "My tires aren't so good. The air has begun to show through."

It is a hypocritical fashion of many people to groan at the pun, which some long-dead sobersides described as the lowest form of wit. Such groans are usually the sour grapes of those who would really like to have been first in with the jest. This writer humbly takes his stand with Shakespeare and Lamb in the matter. Of course, there are puns AND puns; a couple worth mentioning are "multiplying rabbitly" and "The father of eleven—gone stork mad." When Jimmy Fidler says, "She is far from her old sylph," one feels that "She's got something there." The pun and parody add to the gaiety of nations, and war becomes less grim when one can think of "base wallahs" as "Paragraph Troopers of the Chairborne Command."

As war affects the whole of life, it cannot fail to enrich and add variety to language. Whole books could be written about war-time vocabulary and slang. "Had it" has, fortunately, almost had it, but there are many expressions from this war which deserve to live on. Some which spring to mind, either for the pictures they conjure up, for their humour or for effectiveness in various ways, are:—"Blitz, stonk, wiped, emu parade, hedge-hopping, walkie-talkie, latrinogram, bludge, air-strip, Chicago piano, bellyaching, maleesh, natter, and bowler hat." These and others such as the old friends, "Come and get it" and "Feet on the floor" will always arouse memories wheresoever two or three Grim Digs are gathered together.

Up-to-date descriptions of happenings in this war are sometimes couched in terms that would have been unintelligible ten years ago. For example, here is a concise account of an aerial dog-fight. "We ran into a flock of FWs. After potting a couple ourselves, we caught a packet and found ourselves in the drink." Those who speak of Sweet Fanny Adams, and those who enjoy Spam, may be interested to know that the original Fanny Adams was murdered in England in 1812, and cut up by her murderer. At that time, lower ratings in the Navy adopted her name for any form of preserved meat rations.

Invective adds its contribution to picturesque language. We joyfully remember the Hon. Robert Semple's "running shoes" and "spittoon philosophers." But to the Rt. Hon. Winston Churchill go not only admiration for his superb statesmanship, but also enthusiasm for his oratory and delighted chuckles at his descriptions of Hitler and Mussolini. In the midst of the world's grim struggles he finds time to make us laugh with apt description. Thus he speaks of Mussolini as "The bull-frog of the Pontine Marshes" and "Hitler's tattered lackey."

Let this article conclude with a choice example of what we mean by picturesque language, a jewel from the Churchill treasure-chest, which sparkled even in the darkness gathering round a then lonely Britain. "Herr Hitler . . . has managed to subjugate for the time being most of the finest races in Europe, and his little Italian accomplice is trotting along, hopefully and hungrily, but rather wearily and very timidly, at his side."

MICHAELANGELO

FEW who have had the good fortune to see the Moses Statue in the church of San Pietro in Vincoli, the frescoes of the Sistine Chapel and the plans of St. Peter's, or indeed any one of these three masterpieces, have remained unimpressed by the mind of the man who conceived them. Some may have thought of this great sculptor-painter-architect as a man whose works could have been accomplished only unhindered by time, money, and the minor worries of political and domestic life.

But the story of Michaelangelo is that of a man of boundless energy and tremendous imaginative power, whose designs were continually thwarted and brought to nothing by political upheaval the intrigues of his enemies, and the ill-timed deaths of his patrons. During the ninety years of his ceaselessly active life he was commissioned to design and execute vast projects to commemorate the dead and to glorify the living. But comparatively few of these survive, even as memorials to his own genius. Some were destroyed by riot during his lifetime. Others were misplaced or never completed. Many others, blighted by misfortune of one kind or another, did not develop beyond the stage of sketches. So that the perfect examples of this master's work which exist and impress us to-day are but a fragment of his mind's capacity, and of the genius of his hand and eye.

Michaelangelo, the son of impoverished landed gentry, was born in Florence in 1475. He was put to nurse with a marble-worker's wife, and it was to her rather than to his parents, that he looked later as the origin of his passionate urge for the creative life of the artist. His father's pride was over come, and at 13 he was articled, as a paid assistant to a prominent Florentine painter, Domenico Ghirlandaio.

Though his earliest studies were devoted to painting, Michaelangelo was essentially a sculptor, and it was not long before he received encouragement and praise in a school of sculpture established by Lorenzo dei Medici. Less than three years had passed, however, before the young student sensed the first pressure of politics on his life.

Lorenzo died. Florence soon chafed under the authority of his son, and before the popular revolution broke, Michaelangelo fled to Bologna. Here he was kindly received, and in the course of a year he executed several pieces of sculpture for the shrine of St. Dominic in the church of Petronius.

At the age of 21 Michaelangelo paid his first visit to Rome. Careful plans for his reception were made by a new Florentine patron, but these collapsed, and those to whom he had gone with introductions failed to help him. During these years the young man's aim was not solely the expansion of his talent nor yet "art for art's sake." Already he was the mainstay of his family. Their fortunes had not prospered through a period of continued political distraction in Florence and his first consideration therefore was for them. Throughout the best working years of his life he submitted without a murmur to pinching hard ships and almost superhuman labour for the sake of his father and brothers.

His early misfortune in Rome was, however, not long unrewarded and there began for him a series of commissions from noblemen, cardinals, wealthy merchants and a long line of Popes. So desperate was the young artist's necessity to create, that during this period most of his work, which was now involving painting as well as sculpture, was unfinished before a further commission challenged his imagination with greater opportunities of expression. The most perfect of these works, the colossal David Statue in Florence, he completed at the age of 29.

In 1505, he was entrusted by Pope Julius II with the task of executing a sepulchral monument. This was to Michaelangelo one of his unhappiest commissions. The design was repeatedly altered and the work continually postponed over a long period of years. The original designs were, however, approved and he travelled from Rome to Carrara to supervise the excavation of the marbles. In his absence the interest of the Pope in his sepulchral project had been diverted. A new project, the redesigning of St. Peter's which was to house the monument, was given to Bramante. On Michaelangelo's return he was surprised and annoyed at the request to interrupt the great work of sculpture for the decoration of the Sistine Chapel, and the execution of a colossal likeness of the Pope in bronze, to be set up over the principal entrance of the Church of St. Petronius in Bologna. Further enraged by the scant courtesy with which his application for payments due were received, Michaelangelo took horse to Florence.

It was with difficulty and only after many promises of renewed favour that he was lured back to his patron. Had the noble nature of Michaelangelo stooped to such petty feelings, he may have considered only as just the fate of the colossal bronze. After standing for three years it was hurled from its place, dragged through the streets in derision, and finally broken into fragments by the people of Bologna, in their wrath under the authority of its original—the same Pope Julius.

The decoration of the Sistine Chapel was the only work which Michaelangelo was able to complete in the full realisation of his original conception. He worked alone save for purely manual and subordinate help. The four and a half years which he spent in the execution of this mighty task were interrupted once only. Harassed by further intrigues by Bramante and others, whose hope it was that he would fail in this colossal undertaking, and in absolute necessity for funds for furtherance of the great project, he pursued his inconsiderate patron to Bologna. In the year 1512 the work was completed and the scaffolding removed. What was then revealed to an

amazed public remains to-day as the greatest masterpiece in terms of the human form ever created by man.

Michaelangelo at once resumed work on the marbles for the monument of Julius. The Pope died. His heir revised the contract and the design was curtailed. Michaelangelo was persuaded by the new Pope, Leo X to undertake the redesigning of the facade of the church of San Lorenzo at Florence. This project offered greater possibilities for him than did the now reduced monument. He devised a magnificent scheme of combined architecture and sculpture which was approved but came to nothing. He returned to Florence.

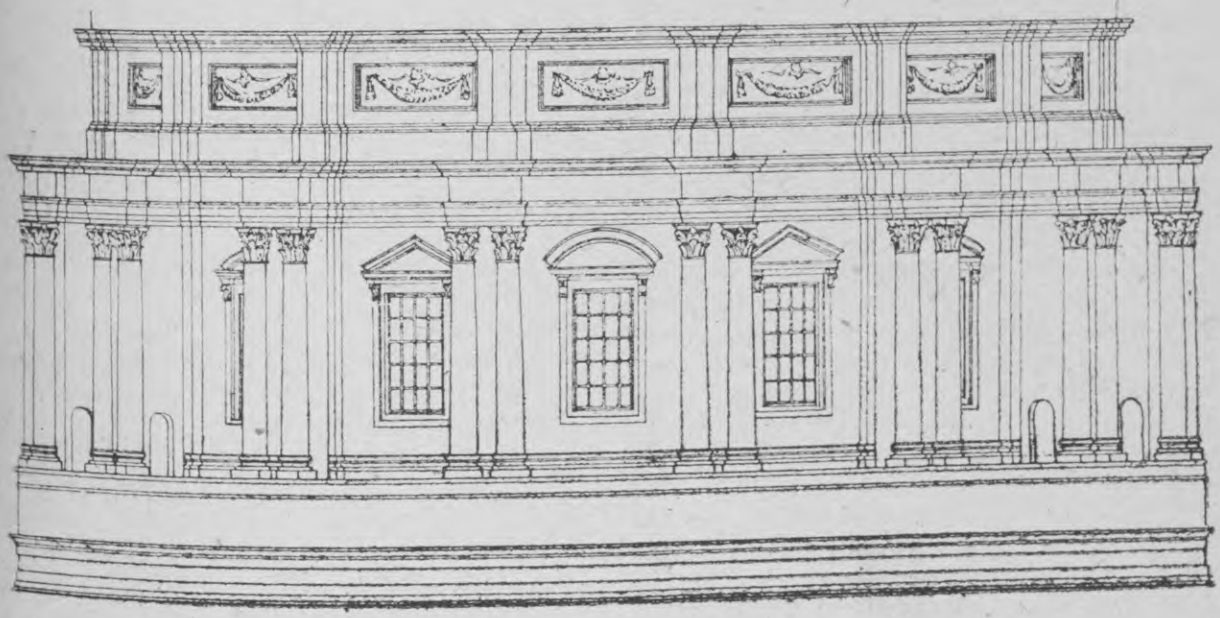
The Medici now provided a series of commissions which occupied him for the following twelve years, years which were disturbed by political upheaval, his own severe illness, and war. The greatest of these works, the chapel of the Medici, was left in the hands of his pupils, when in his 60th year he abandoned Florence and settled for the remainder of his life in Rome.

He prepared to commence work on the now further shrunken monument of Julius but was ordered by the then Pope, Clement VII, to paint the great end wall of the Sistine Chapel and the walls of another. During the years which followed, Michaelangelo's time was mainly taken up with executing the great painting of the Last Judgment. Although much deteriorated by time it remains the most famous single picture in the world.

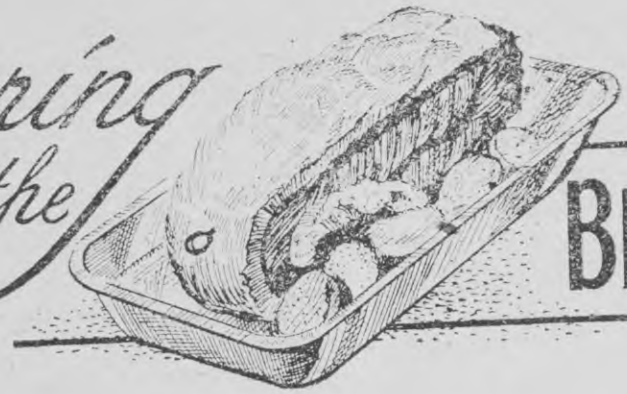
At the same time he was able to dismiss the haunting obligation of the Julian monument, but in a manner which could have been satisfactory to no one concerned, himself least of all. The monument was now reduced to the great single figure of Moses—but a detail of the original design. This the sculptor hastily flanked with statues of Leah and Rachael which were completed by students, who were also responsible for the incongruous architectural setting and the subordinate figures. Finally the monument was set up in San Pietro in Vincoli—not in St. Peter's as originally had been planned.

Among many other architectural projects the redesigning of St. Peter's occupied Michaelangelo in his later years. He remodelled the entire design and lived to see some of the main features, including the supports and lower portion of the great dome, take shape, in spite of all obstacles, according to his plans. But as a final example of man's ingratitude to his genius, the main body of the church was completed in a manner differing entirely from his intention.

Although many of Michaelangelo's works were uncompleted, a great number remain in Italy and elsewhere, as memorials to his genius.



Catering for the BEEF EATERS



DUE perhaps to the fact that sheep are the most conspicuous animals in the Dominion, New Zealanders have come to regard themselves as a mutton-eating race—a belief that was heightened during the recent "invasion" of beef-eating Americans. Actually, it is an incorrect impression, because a considerably greater weight of beef than mutton finds its way on to the New Zealander's dining table.

Strangely enough, in view of these circumstances, considerably less attention is paid to the beef producing animals than to sheep, and yet hill cattle on the farm have a value apart from their actual cash returns. They are a valuable implement for pasture control. At present there is a need for improving the animal so that a better beef carcass is produced while, at the same time, the general usefulness of the beast is preserved. Hand in hand with this problem of improving the quality of the beef animal goes the need for extending overseas markets—a problem, of course, that is not confined to beef export.

New Zealand practically holds the record for meat consumption, and is well ahead of other countries in the amount of butter it eats. As is usual with exporting countries, she consumes the maximum second-grade products while exporting the higher quality goods. The reasons for this are understandable. A product graded on the spot may and does compare favourably with the high-grade product which has been transported thousands of miles in cold store. Before the war New Zealand was on a quota. This quota was on a weight basis, and it is therefore obvious that to get the maximum exchange for her products she must obtain the highest value per pound for her meat.

What will happen in the future cannot be predicted. Will the world go back to the fallacy of over production in some countries while millions starve in others? Will New Zealand be on a quota in the post-war world?

The United Kingdom farmer, always the Dominion's greatest competitor, has obtained a recognition and encouragement during the war years which he had never had before. Now he is prosperous and has a market for more than he can produce—and a profitable market too. Looking towards the future, he is doing his best to prevent a return to the doldrums of the years between the two wars. How far he will succeed is of great importance to New Zealand farmers, and it behoves them both to think of improving their products and of looking for other profitable markets for their exports.

New Zealand has never regarded herself as a high-class beef country. For years she has looked at the Argentine and suffered from an inferiority complex. In very truth, New Zealand's production of high-class beef has been low—a possible explanation for the high consumption of beef in the Dominion. What can be done to improve matters? Why is it that her quality beef has lagged so far behind her quality mutton, wool, and butter?

First of all, by specialisation in dairy products, New Zealand has produced an animal whose only reason for being born is to produce butter-fat. Like all living things, these dairy cows grow old. Some fall by the wayside through low butter-fat production, and thus come on the market as beef cattle. From this specialisation, they are angular, the

meat and fat appear in layers and are not closely interwoven as good meat should be, and the fat, instead of being white, is coloured. Here then is a source of second-class beef.

Is it then possible to produce a good dual-purpose animal — one that is capable of producing a high quality and quantity of butter-fat throughout its life-time, and is able to develop into a highclass beef carcass? This may be possible, but it is very difficult to achieve. The whole of the body resources of the high-class dairy cow are directed to dairy production, and thus body size and build must suffer. Up till now a choice has been made, and breeding for the butter-fat cheque has been the paying proposition.

But this does not mean that the beef breeds cannot be improved. The question is how can that improvement be effected. Here the farmer encounters managemental problems which tie in very closely with sheep production. Sheep are New Zealand's most important hill farm animals, and it is largely on them that the hill farmer depends for his livelihood. It is a standard practice to regard one cattle beast as being equivalent in food requirements to five or six sheep. This, on the face of it, puts the beef animal in an impossible position. For it must produce from its carcass alone at least six times as much as a sheep will return with its carcass plus its fleece. And yet beef cattle are still carried in large numbers, and on what are predominantly sheep farms.

The reason for this is not sufficiently realised. On the hill country where ordinary implement control is impossible these beef animals take the place of the mower, the harrows, and of crop rotation. They eat off the rough herbage and the weeds; they consolidate the soil and thus help to prevent erosion; and, by keeping the soil compacted, permit the water from underneath to come to the surface and nourish the pasture during the periods of dry weather. Their presence is all for the good of the farm, and they are as essential to the hill property as the plough is to the crop farm.

No one expects the plough to be saleable at a profit after use. Its cost is well covered by the crop it enables the farmer to produce. Similarly with the hill cattle. Primarily, they must be well suited to their jobs as pasture-control implements; secondarily, they may be counted as assets for the beef they produce.

The high-class beef animal is small, blocky and young. It is an animal with a high nutrient-requirement, and thus is unsuitable as a hill country implement. Its direct value is great, but its real value on the farm can be very much less than the large, oldish beef animal which makes possible the farming of areas which otherwise would be well on their way back to bush. Is it possible to improve New Zealand's hill stock so that they will provide high-class beef while still being efficient implements?

The answer to such a question may be found along a number of lines which are worth considering. It may be advantageous to mate a beef cow from the hill country to a high-class meat sire which has the ability to pass on his meat quality. It would be similar to the practice which produces the Southdown cross lamb. To make this possible, the turnover would have to

be quick to cut down capital costs which are always high on good class land. The production of veal might assist in this direction.

Another answer to the question may be the introduction of a new breed which, by growing slowly and maturing late in life, would not be so susceptible to a low standard of nutrition and thus produce a good quality carcass. Perhaps if this course were adopted, such an animal could be produced by selection from the breeds already in New Zealand.

Finally, apart from effecting improvements in the Dominion's beef cattle, could not the markets for beef be enlarged or new ones found? Have all the possibilities of exporting second-grade beef been fully probed? It is probable that countries could be found with a low standard of living which would be able and willing to take large quantities of second-grade beef at a figure sufficiently remunerative to make its production worthwhile.

Certainly, the improvement of New Zealand's beef cattle and the extension of its export of beef are questions that have not received the attention and consideration their importance merits.

Opening Bids: The opening bid is the foundation on which the whole of your partner's subsequent arguments and inferences are built. It follows that it must be absolutely sound. Later bids may be unconventional, psychic or even neurotic, conditioned by the score, by the way your opponents are bidding, or by anything else. But the opening bid must be right. Curiously enough, if your partner's hand is weak, a doubtful opening bid does little harm. But the stronger his hand the worse for you, as banking on what you have indicated he will go to game or slam with a confidence which will only be matched by your horror.

The requirements for an opening bid of one in a suit vary according to the nature of the suit bid. It must be biddable (see CUE 17), but the longer the suit, the fewer the Honour Tricks required. A four-card suit requires nearly 3 H T somewhere in the hand, a five-card suit or a six-card minor suit requires 2½ H T, and a six-card major suit 2 H T plus. In each the partner knows you may have more but won't have less and he should only presume the minimum possible until the opening bidder by later bidding shows he has more. One No Trump indicates a much stronger hand with 3½ to 4 H T and a 4-3-3-3 or similar distribution. If there is a doubleton in the hand it should be headed by the K or A.

If you have more than one biddable suit, you should usually bid the longer. The four-card suit bid is perfectly safe properly used, but five cards or more give a great deal more scope, and such a suit should always be given preference except in certain cases. In the following hand S. AKxx H AJxxx D xx C Qx, bid one spade. If you bid one, and your opponents or partner go one No Trump, you cannot bid two spades on a four-card suit. But you can bid two hearts. And yet, spades may be the best suit on the two hands. If not mentioned at once, it may never be discovered.

Where suits are of equal length, bid the higher ranking first. If overbid you can bid the lower-ranking one next, and your partner then has the choice of leaving the bid in that suit or returning to your first bid without raising any higher the number of tricks bid.

In all bidding the principle should be observed of giving the maximum information while keeping the bidding as low as possible. Shut-out bids are the only exceptions and they require exceptional distribution of cards.

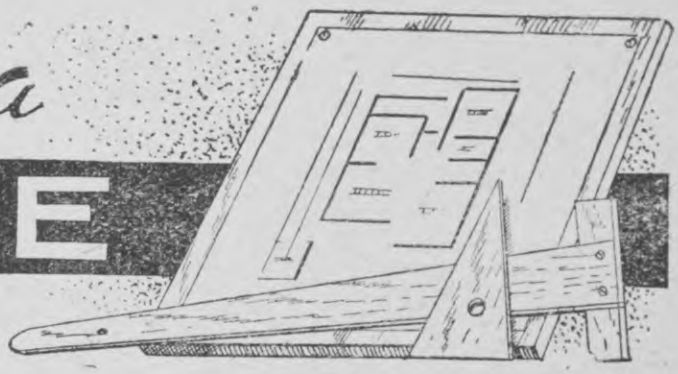
Note.—Copies of a convenient summary of the 1935 International Laws of Contract Bridge and a scoring table are available on application to H Q E R S, C M F.

Examples.—What would you bid on:—

1. S.AQxx	2. S.KJ10xxx	3. S.xx
H.Qxxx	H.Qxx	H.QJxxx
D.Kxx	D.KQx	D.KQxxx
C.10x	C.x	C.A

Answers on page 24.

Planning a HOUSE



THE achievement of the ideal house, wartime or post-war model, is exercising the minds of many governments, architects, builders, and the people who have to live in them. No doubt, there are large numbers of soldiers of many nationalities thinking of the house they are going to build, buy, or rent when the war is over. To assist readers who wish to design their ideal home, hints on house-planning are given in this article, together with a plan of a compact, simply-designed house.

After reading this issue of CUE, members of 2 NZEF are invited to submit plans of their conception of what the post-war house should be like. These plans will be submitted to a judging committee comprising an architect, a builder, a woman, and a layman, and what is considered the most suitable plan for a post-war house within the reach of the average ex-serviceman will be published in a future issue of CUE.

No hard and fast rules can be laid down in planning a house, but there are many aspects that should be carefully considered before the house begins to take shape on paper. First of all, every care should be taken in selecting a section, and, when a building site lying well to the sun, easy of access, and well-drained is chosen, the plan should be drawn to suit.

* * * *

By good luck as well as by good judgment, you have managed to choose a section facing north and lying well to the sun. Paper and pencil are at hand and you are ready to sort out all the ideas you have had over the past years in planning a house. Just before you put pencil to paper remember that the person who is going to spend the most time in the home is the housewife and imagine that she will be jogging your elbow if you place the dining room at the opposite end of the house to the kitchen.

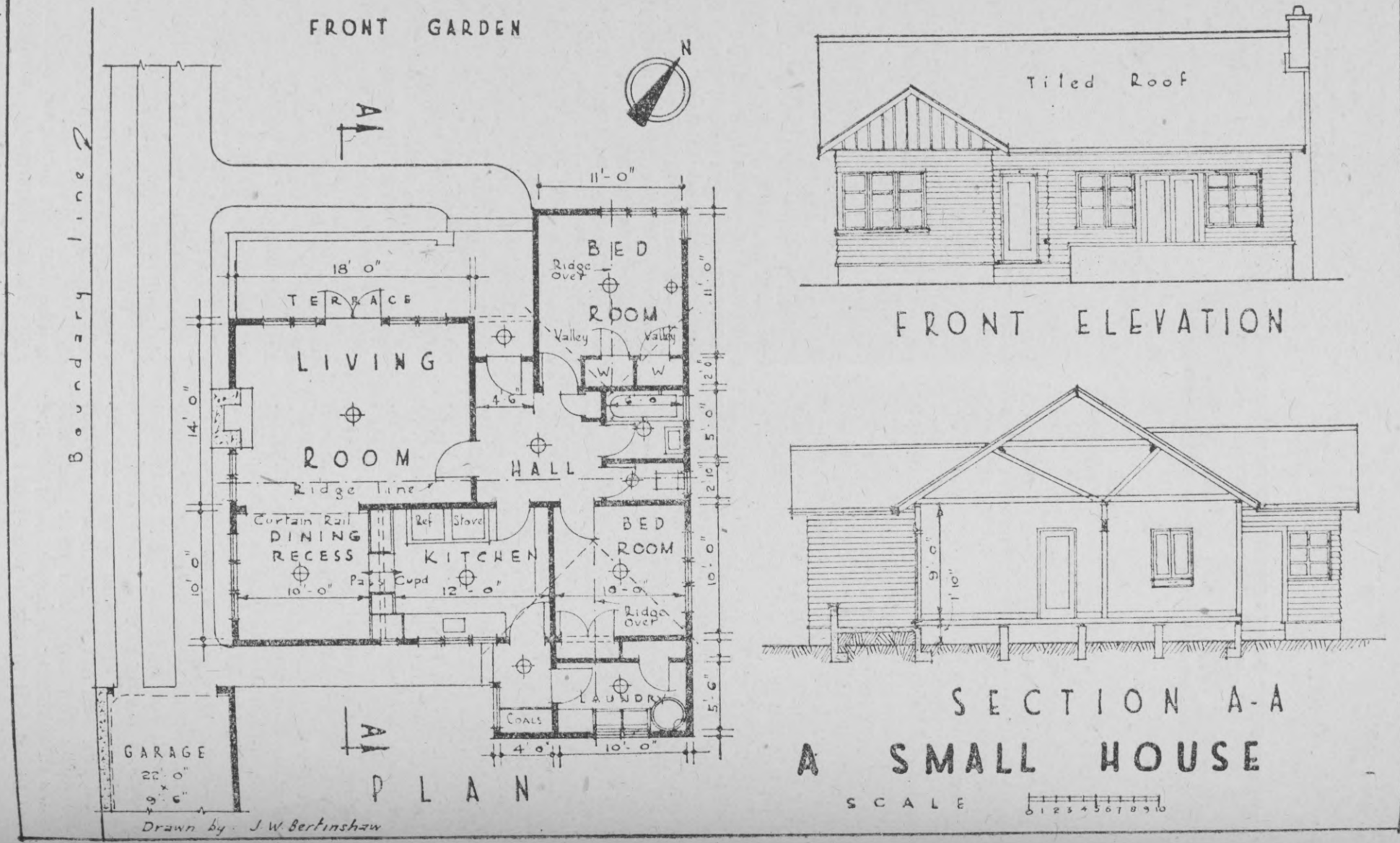
Write down first of all the main requirements—number of rooms, size of rooms, ideas for the living room, dining room or recess, whether you will entertain much, and whether you will be able to prevent all those distant relatives spending their holidays with you.

Think of the sun and how it can brighten the living room. Generally, living rooms should have sun from 11 a.m. till sunset in winter, and must always have plenty of natural light. Through traffic should be avoided if possible in the living room, and the fireplace should be kept away from all doors. Do not forget built-in furniture when you plan your rooms.

The age of the dining room in the small house has more or less passed, and the dining recess or alcove has come into favour instead. A dining recess off the living room makes it possible to open up a large area for entertaining, and it takes up much less space than a dining room. Its position in the plan will naturally be governed by the places allotted to the kitchen and living room.

Bed rooms should be away from the rest of the rooms, if possible, so that noise of entertaining will not disturb those resting. The east side, getting the morning sun, is usually considered the best side for bed rooms. Plenty of light and ventilation are essential. Built-in wardrobes are an asset.

The kitchen has now become one of the most important rooms of the house. Apart from the fact that the


FRONT GARDEN
N
A1
Boundary line
11'-0"
BED ROOM
Ridge over
18' 0"
TERRACE
LIVING ROOM
Valley
Valley
W
W
4'6"
HALL
14' 0"
Ridge Line
Curtain Rail
DINING RECESS
10'-0"
Ref
Stove
KITCHEN
Pantry
Cupd
12'-0"
BED ROOM
10'-0"
Ridge over
10' 0"
LAUNDRY
COALS
4'0"
10'-0"
GARAGE
22' 0"
9' 6"
A1
PLAN
Drawn by J.W. Bertinshaw
Tiled Roof
FRONT ELEVATION
9'0"
1'0"
SECTION A-A
A SMALL HOUSE
SCALE
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

housewife spends a lot of her time in it, a good kitchen enhances the selling value of a house. There are varying opinions as to orientation, but either morning or afternoon sun should shine into the room, preferably the former. Try to reduce the doors to a minimum and to avoid cross-traffic.

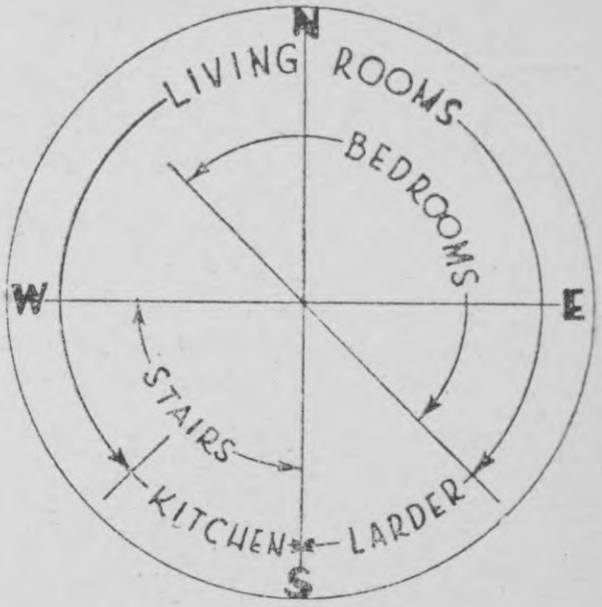
Halls and passage-ways are often waste space which has to be paid for, so that they should be reduced to an absolute minimum. Do not always think of a "front door" as being in the front of the house; a side entrance may be more convenient.

For the sake of plumbing, the bath-room should be as near as possible to the kitchen. Try to avoid having the lavatory in the bath-room. A separate room is preferable. Under the existing by-laws both rooms have to be on an outside wall.

Garages are best attached to the house so that the car is easily reached in wet weather. In this case the common wall between garage and house must be, by law, of fire-proof material, concrete or brick. If separate, the garage in some districts is not allowed to be built on the street and always if placed on the boundary must have a fire-proof wall. The consent of the owner next door must be obtained before such a garage may be erected.

So much for the main features of the house. You are now ready to start drawing. The usual scale adopted for house plans in New Zealand is that one-eighth of an inch on the plan represents one foot on the actual job. First of all tabulate the rooms and their sizes. Living rooms should be approximately 16ft by 14ft or 18ft by 14ft In the State houses the average living room is 17ft by 12ft. Bed rooms should be 14ft by 12ft or 12ft by 10ft according to the furniture required; built-in wardrobes being a saving in space. Bed rooms in State houses range from 12ft by 11ft to 13ft by 12ft for main bed rooms, and 12ft by 9ft or 11ft by 10ft for secondary bed rooms.

Dining recesses need to be about 10 feet square. In State houses they vary from 12ft by 8ft 6in to 9ft by 10ft. The size of the kitchen will vary with the number of doors and the types of fittings required. The sink bench



is usually 1ft 10in wide and 6ft long, and an electric range may be estimated at being two feet square.

Having decided on the number and approximate sizes of the rooms try thumb-nail sketches, placing the rooms in relative positions, and correctly orientated (that is correct according to the sun). Try as many different arrangements as you can, and then build up the best to a scale of 16ft to 1in. Some rooms will probably have to be altered in shape. Bear in mind that walls should not be too broken, and the roof should be as simple as possible.

When satisfied with this preliminary plan build it up to a scale of one-eighth in. to a ft. At this scale remember that partitions, walls, etc., are 4in. wide, passages not less than 3ft 6in, internal doors 6ft 8in x 2ft 8in, and external doors 6ft 10in x 2ft 10in. Living room fireplaces are usually about 4ft 6ins wide. There are two schools of thought with regard to windows, one maintaining that the glass should be in even sizes, 1ft 6in, 1ft 8in, etc—and the other that the sash should be in even sizes. However, on the plan allow 2ft for a sash.

Most small houses are estimated for cost at so much per square foot, and in 1939 this was approximately 20/-. Now-a-days, due to shortages of labour and materials, this cost is much higher. This should be borne in mind when the plan is being drawn, for wasted space means wasted money.

The SPRINGBOKS ... and their Worries

THERE is no doubt that most New Zealanders were brought up with the firmly established illusion that it was only right and proper that New Zealand should be the first in the world to greet the dawn of each new day—and that in other ways as well the Dominion was ahead of the rest of the world. If it is true that island-peoples always tend to become parochial, then we were a shining example. Most of us know that now.

In consequence, it was always a refreshing interlude, in more ways than one, when the Springboks periodically arrived just to remind us that we were not alone in being able to handle a Rugby ball. Apart from these regular visits, their three-four-one scrum, and their knack of flicking that ball from their scrum-half to their outside-centre, we did not learn much about our guests or their manner of life back in South Africa. Some of them did not even speak our language—which somehow did not seem quite right considering how similar they were to ourselves in other respects—and their unconscious reaction to certain aspects of New Zealand social life occasionally puzzled us a little.

However, since those distant days, the war has done much to bring Springboks and Kiwis toward a more intimate understanding of each other.

For it is not easy either to arrive at conclusions or to pass opinions about South Africa. Since the middle of last century visitors from Great Britain and elsewhere have been attempting this, until today South Africa has possibly been more written about than any other country in the world, but there are still as many divergent opinions as there are problems in the country. High-veldt Boers (Afrikaans for "farmer"), East London sheep-farmers, Durban business-men, Cape wine-producers, members of Parliament, and a host of others, all have separate and distinct viewpoints to be considered. Because of the complexity of South Africa's problems, any article written about it must always be tinged with personal opinion, but there can be no doubt that the best way to achieve full and friendly understanding of the Springbok is to try to appreciate the difficulties which he faces.

Any map shows the size of the Union of South Africa clearly enough, but what maps do not show is the amount of useless desert and waste land included in that vast area. Only recently a South African Minister stated that five per cent. of the Union was under agriculture out of a possibly arable fifteen per cent. Fifteen per cent. is not much either, and the various problem of wholesale soil-erosion, which no one has yet succeeded in handling effectively, is reducing this percentage yearly. It is asserted that the Transkei, hitherto one of the most fertile parts of the Union, will be a desert within seven years unless drastic action is taken. And this applies generally.

The Union consists of four States—the Cape Province, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal, and the Natal, with a total white population of about two million people, of which sixty per-cent. are of Afrikaans, and the remainder of British descent. Incidentally, in the army this same ratio applies. Apart from the whites, there are at least eight million natives in South Africa, not including the coloured population of the Cape or the Indian population of Natal (who are referred to later). The

native population of Bantu stock, is steadily increasing and, naturally enough, the two million whites see in their own minority a social, industrial and economic problem which is yearly becoming more desperate, and has so far shown no signs of solution. Viewed from this angle it is easier to discern the fundamental reasons for the "colour-consciousness" of the Springboks and, in truth, to sympathise with their position.

But less easy it is, at the outset, to understand the reasons for a lively friction which still persists between certain elements of the Afrikaans population (certain elements only) and South Africans of British descent, a friction which, at the outbreak of this war, threatened to cause domestic trouble on the lines of what occurred during the last war. Unnecessarily bitter feelings were aroused in the Orange Free State and Transvaal, while in Johannesburg enlisted troops were "beaten up" in front of the City Hall.

However, underlying reasons begin to emerge when we take a glimpse at South African history which, until litlte more than one hundred years ago, was a history of the birth and growth of the Afrikaans people, an independent sturdy folk, not Dutch, not Huguenot-French, not German, but a welding together of these and other European races on a Dutch foundation, carefully moulded and developed over three centuries of South African environment into a new race of people, justifiably proud of their distinctive history, language and culture. The South African of British descent, with little more than one hundred years at most of South African association behind him, has sometimes been inclined to disregard or to ride rough-shod over this almost patriarchal culture of his Afrikaans neighbour, with unfortunate results.

To provide but one example, since 1910, under the new constitution, South Africa has been bilingual, Afrikaans and English holding equal importance as official languages throughout the country. But, notwithstanding this, today many Afrikaaners allege that they are in danger of losing their valued cultural heritage, for though most Afrikaaners learn English at an early age, far too few South Africans of British descent attempt to learn Afrikaans. Be this as it may, the result has been a sort of Afrikaans cultural-revival in the universities of Stellenbosch, Pretoria, and elsewehere, with an all-out attempt to establish a place for Afrikaans culture at least as prominent in South African life as the more recently introduced, though better known British culture.

As might be expected, this effort on the part of the universities and other organisations to check the encroachment of the English language

A rickshaw boy of Durban.

and Anglicized way-of-life at the expense of Afrikaans, has led not only to an antipathy towards anything culturally British but in more extreme cases has tended to establish a revival of anti-British feeling, which some of the teachers produced by these universities would appear, perhaps quite unintentionally, to be fostering.

It is true that, for the most part, a visitor finds nothing but the warmest hospitality when he stays on any Boer farm out on the veldt. These were the Afrikaaners who fought against the British during the Boer War, whose wives were placed in concentration camps and whose homes and holdings were burned and

destroyed by our troops. Today, these "old originals" have long forgotten any grudge they may well have harboured against the British "uitlanders," and, with typically canny realism, are among the first to appreciate the honoured position which the Union holds in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Some fought alongside our fathers in the last war, and a great many of their sons are over here with us now.

Some old Boers there are who still envisage an Independent Republic. Afrikaans history has been dotted with small republics from time to time, due to the Afrikaaner's inherent dislike of any form of control, and his ceaseless striving for isolation and complete independence. Such old-timers as these have given their support to the Ossewer Brandwag, an anti-British, and in effect pro-Nazi, organisation which seeks to uproot anything and everything non-Afrikaans from South Africa. But most of the support which this organisation enjoys comes from a more recent generation, one which knew little, if anything, of the Great War, and nothing about the Boer War, and the cause of this can be located in the culture-revival already referred to and the influence of ardent, if misguided, teachers in many Afrikaans-speaking schools, where English is taught as a foreign tongue.

Some writers, such as the South African, John Calpin, have alleged that inside the Union there are no South Africans; that only outside the country does one find South Africans, while inside everyone is either an Afrikaaner or a Britisher. But now-a-days in South Africa a visitor finds this statement far from true. Today he soon learns that the Union's war effort is a truly national — South African—undertaking, with Afrikaaners contributing toward it just as much as those of British descent. Irrespective of race, people in South Africa are learning to understand each other as never before, and one soon gathers the impression that the Ossewer Brandwag as a disturbing influence is, perhaps, over-estimated. Certainly South Africans are at last coming to realise that the world in general regards them all as one people, indivisibly forged together by circumstance, as heir to some of the greatest possibilities—and problems—which confront any country in the world today.

Their army in the field is, in truth, a South African army in the full sense of the term, and its members will ever have just pride in remembering themselves, not as Afrikaaners or anything else, but as real South Africans.

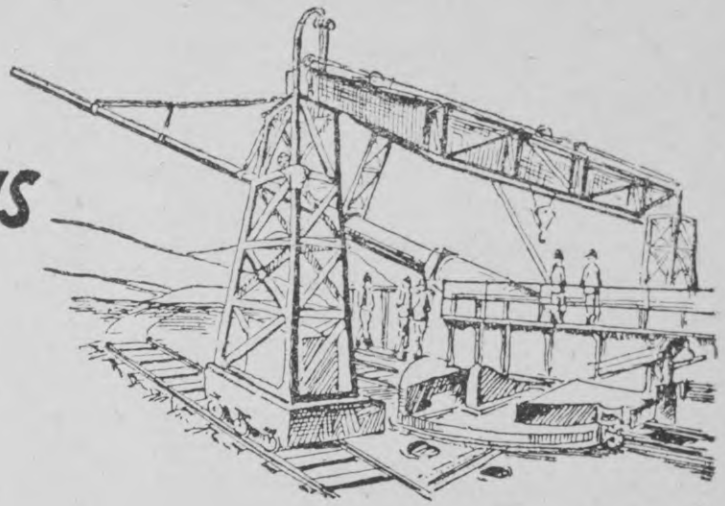
Some there are, perhaps, who, like ourselves can stand back and watch, who detect in this needless toe-treading between two sections of the white population, an attempt by both sides to divert their own attention from the overshadowing spectre of the real racial problem, that of the natives and coloureds and Indians, to which no one yet knows the answer. Certain it is that when this more serious matter, which threatens the whole future of South Africa, reaches a climax, as it probably will within the next ten or fifteen years, the white population there will dissolve its little differences overnight, and united it will be compelled to provide the solution for an occurrence without precedent in world history.

To be Concluded.

Clothing Prices at Home

For some time past a Government subsidy to be paid on certain lines of materials with a view to reducing prices to the level existing at the end of 1942 has been under discussion. Some factories now have subsidy-carrying lines ready for delivery to retailers. They all embrace garments made from low-grade to medium-grade materials, and it seems unlikely that higher grades will be affected. Both wholesale and retail prices are understood to have been fixed by the Price Tribunal. Pyjamas and shirts will probably be cheaper, although due to production for military purposes, quantities available for civilian consumption will remain small for some time to come.

BERTHA CALLS ON PARIS



THE introduction of the flying bomb and other devastating projectiles takes one back to a spring day nearly twenty-seven years ago when Paris witnessed a scientific "miracle"—one which everyone, including the best scientists, said could not happen. On March 23, 1918, explosive shells from a mysterious source fell in the heart of the city.

To believe that they were fired from behind the German lines, 70 miles away, seemed almost as fantastic as to assume they had come from the moon. But the incredible soon had to be accepted as fact.

Almost as astounding as the mysterious bombardment itself was the speed with which the French discovered the exact source of the shells. Within three hours after the first explosion French General Headquarters knew the approximate location of the guns (there were three carriages and seven guns) and within 30 hours French artillerymen were retaliating so accurately that the position of gun number one, which had fired the first shell, had to be abandoned.

When the first explosion occurred near the Quai de Seine no one was injured; but 20 minutes later, a mile and a half away, a second explosion killed eight people and wounded thirteen.

News of this disaster quickly spread to all parts of the city, together with the wildest rumours. A common theory was that the bombs had come from a new type of plane flying too high to be discovered. Others believed that German spies had captured pieces of French artillery and were firing from within the French lines.

Explosions continued during the day at intervals of about 15 minutes, and planes of the Paris Defence Service searched the sky for raiders. Soon military experts had rejected the idea of air bombs because when the projectiles struck buildings it was always on the north-east side. Presently, the theory of gun-fire was confirmed. A shell had passed completely through the wall of a building without exploding. It had also made a hole in the floor. These two holes gave the exact direction from which the shell had come, as well as the angle of its descent. Mathematicians could now plot the path of the projectile and determine approximately its starting point. The evidence pointed to a little corner section of the German front, about 75 miles from Paris, near the city of Laon.

Next, the investigators turned to their maps. Particularly good aerial photographs had recently been made of the Laon area and these showed a little spur leading off from the railroad at a wooded spot near the place the calculation had indicated.

The French had reason to think they were "getting warm." Two heavy railway guns were ordered to Vailly where they began firing toward the

point where the big gun ought to be. Although they made no direct hit, one French shell hit a tree near the number one gun, killing an officer and injuring six of the gun crew.

If a French spy could have wandered into that area he would have seen a giant gun, long enough to reach to the top of a 10-storey building, mounted on a huge steel frame-work 25 feet high. This and two others, built in the forest with the utmost secrecy, represented the culmination of two years' work.

Early in 1916 Dr. Von Eberhardt, one of Germany's leading physicists, had convinced Director Rausenberger at the Krupp works that it would be possible to build a gun capable of sending an eight-inch projectile 60 miles. The seven guns finally constructed had a range of 80 miles. Though weighing hundreds of tons, each gun was made with the precision of a watch.

Almost as much care as went into the designing of the guns was devoted to concealing them. To begin with they were placed in St. Gobain Wood, the densest forest available. Each of the three gun emplacements was reached by rail-road; but to mislead aerial observers a fake spur was built with the ties laid as conspicuously as possible. It was this spur which showed on the photographic maps and it was possibly reponsible for the failure of the French gunners to score direct hits.

The railway spurs actually used were painstakingly hidden. Only those trees directly in the path were cut and then the tops of the taller trees were drawn together with wire. Small trees and saplings were placed between the ties, and the rails were covered with grass and brush.

In firing a gun of such proportions, ordinary artillery calculations were not nearly enough. Even astronomers were called upon for aid. Since the shell would be in the air three minutes, there had to be corrections for the rotation of the earth. Moreover, curvature of the earth had to be considered in computing the exact distance of the target. Then there had to be the precise allowances for the density and temperature of the air, for the direction and velocity of the wind, and for the temperature of the powder. And because of the rapid deterioration from heat and erosion, each gun had to be sent back to the Krupp works for reboring after 50 or 60 rounds.

The 265 lb. shell left the gun under nearly a million pounds pressure at a speed of nearly 3,600 miles an hour. As it mounted into the rarefied atmosphere where air resistance was less, it lost speed because of the pull of gravity until at 24 miles above the earth it was travelling at less than half its original speed. Then in its downward course it picked up speed once again until it struck the heavier atmosphere near the earth, when it actually slowed down.

When the number one gun was firing its first shots into Paris, the designers and the Kaiser were present as spectators. If they had been there a day or two later to see the opening shots of number three gun the course of history might have been modified, for the gun blew up and killed 15 men.

Apart from 256 lives lost and 620 persons wounded the material damage inflicted by the big guns was less than the three million pounds that they cost.

What became of the big guns? The Germans managed to get them back to the homeland during the last retreat. No Allied officer or soldier ever laid eyes on them, though one railway gun carriage was captured The Versailles Treaty provided that the Germans should open all their war archives to the Allied intelligence services. But before the Treaty was signed the guns were all taken to the Krupp Works and melted and a special law was hastily passed making it an act of treason, punishable by death, to disclose any data about them.

Not until 1925, by the devious methods of espionage, did information about them fall into non-German hands. The information, when finally obtained, was fairly complete.

You want to Buy a Home?

NOT money, but the lack of it is the curse of this life. Particularly is this so when it comes to buying or building a home, a step which many a soldier will be contemplating on his return to New Zealand. Here are some observations on this rather awkward problem of financing the purchase of a house.

The first steps to take are to choose the locality in which you wish to reside, and the type of house which you want to buy or build. The next thing which is going to exercise your mind is the question of price. If you want something really out of the ordinary you are going to pay for it—and this is true whether you buy a ready-built home or build a new one. By the Servicemen's Settlement and Land Sales Act, 1943, you have been protected against the "land shark" and the profiteer in that the price of the land (including the buildings on it) has been established at the level ruling on 15th December, 1942; and the operation of the Land Sales Committee will assure you a fair deal on that basic value.

Even so, the figure will be considerably in advance of that ruling when you left home, say in 1940, and you will have to be prepared for the rise. You will be well advised to watch the operation of the Land Sales Committee for a time, and observe for yourself just what the increase in values is going to mean in terms of cash to be found. Thus you will be able to estimate more accurately how much you will need and whether the project which you have in mind is capable of fulfilment.

Suppose now that you have watched the market and that you are contemplating the purchase of a home worth L2,000. The first thing of which you must be careful is that you will be able to obtain possession of the place when you have bought it. Some of you who have been away for a long time will perhaps not know that it is sometimes very difficult to evict a tenant from a house. The Fair Rents Act has quite a lot to say on the subject, and it all boils down to the section that says that unless the tenant has somewhere else to go, you cannot turn him out. Thus, it can happen, and, indeed has already happened that a returning serviceman takes all the necessary steps, has the transaction approved by the Land Sales Committee, and actually pays over the cash only to find that there is a tenant in possession, and that he cannot get him out.

This point having been satisfactorily settled, what legal provisions have been made for your assistance? You as a returning serviceman, are entitled to a 100 per cent. loan up to the maximum sum of L1,500, and the rate of interest is 3 per cent. In other words, for the purchase of a property whose value, as determined by the Land Sales Committee does not exceed L1,500, you are entitled to borrow the full amount without providing any security, and without suffering any deductions such as have in the past operated on certain State Advances Mortgages.

Money at 3 per cent. is cheap money —and you will be well advised to accept it provided that you can see

your way clear to pay it back within the maximum period which you feel that you can allow yourself. The Government has provided for repayment over a period of 35 years. If you are young, say in your twenties, you can look forward with equanimity, if not exactly with complacency, to the prospect of purchasing your home over the full period. If you are older, say nearing the age of 40, you will probably feel that you must complete payments in a much shorter period, in 20 years for example.

In any case you will be well advised to think long and hard over the whole question, and to take into account your probable future earnings. Consider for the moment the following figures:—

If you borrow the full amount of L1,500 and pay it off over a period of 30 years, you will have to find L38 8s every six months; and over the entire period you will have paid L2,304, which means that you have paid L804 in interest. That is to say that, out of your weekly earnings you will have to put aside at least L1 10s, plus, say 8s for rates and insurance, quite apart from any other savings you may feel obliged to make, or any other commitments (such as life insurance) into which you may have entered. Against this 38s of course, can be offset the fact that you are not paying any rent.

The thought of paying L804 in interest may not appeal to you. Obviously the shorter the term of the loan the less interest you will pay, but the higher the sum you will have to find every six months. To give you some idea of the differences involved, consider these figures. If you borrow the full amount of L1,500 at 3 per cent. for 20 years, you will have to find L50 10s 6d every six months, and will pay L521 in interest over the entire period. This, you will observe, means that you must set aside L1 19s every week towards your instalments. Every married man who has struggled along on a small income knows that the saving of a further 9s per week requires considerable effort.

There is another method by which the amount paid in interest can be reduced, and that is by what is known as "refinancing." Consider again the example of L1,500 at 3 per cent. for 30 years. As has been seen the six-monthly instalment is L38 8s, and the total interest comes to L804. Suppose that after the mortgage has been running for 10 years, you have accumulated L500 in spare cash, and feel that you would like to shorten the term of the mortgage. Provision has been made for the payment of a lump sum off the capital of the mortgage and for a recalculation of the instalments over the balance of the period or over such shorter period as the mortgagor—that is *YOU*—may elect. Should you avail yourself of this provision and refinance for the full period of 20 years, the six monthly instalment will drop from L38 8s to L22 16s 3d and, over the entire 30 years, you will have paid out L123 10s less in interest.

This does not mean that you have saved L123, for, by leaving the money in say a Savings Bank Account, instead of applying it to the reduction of the mortgage, you can earn at least 3 per cent. interest on it. You will thus have to weigh in your own mind the desirability of reducing the burden of fixed instalments against the earning power of your money in some alternative form of investment.

So far only Rehabilitation Mortgages have been dealt with, and you will recall that we started off by imagining the purchase of a home costing L2,000. The maximum that you can obtain from the State is L1,500. In a later issue of C U E other methods of raising money will be dealt with and compared briefly with the scheme we have just outlined.

The Royal and Ancient

MANY a soldier eating a hasty meal of greasy bully beef and concrete-like biscuits, sprinkled with the sand of the Western Desert, vowed that he would never be found picnicking at the beach when he returned to New Zealand. Many an infanteer struggling up the green hills of Italy has similarly vowed that he will never go walking for pleasure when he returns home. But time and circumstance will change both vows for most. Out of khaki, both ways of filling in leisure hours will have their attractions—and when a little white ball is being pursued over the green hills of home the latter, especially, will be an irresistible attraction.

For there is something about the Royal and Ancient game of golf that makes it more than a sport. There are many who regard it as a disease—and long-suffering wives have been known to use even stronger terms in describing it. But call it what one may, it is a game that is growing in popularity all the time, and is certain to make big strides forward in the post-war period. Soldiers who have grown past the more strenuous sports during their tour abroad will find in golf a game admirably suitable for their exercise, enjoyment, and the use of much colourful language learned in the army. Eighteen holes of golf on a Saturday afternoon or on a Sunday will offer many attractions—and so will the nineteenth hole in the club-house where the round is played again, and where "old Digs" will trade stories of how they stymied Heinie or got in the rough at Cassino.

To the uninitiated, it may appear a little infantile for grown men to spend several hours hitting a little white ball over green paddocks, and to become exasperated almost to the point of tears when a short putt curls tantalisingly round the hole. It might also seem a little *magnoon* of a normal person to spend hours during the week clipping out little pieces of turf from the front lawn or endangering carpet and light fittings in the living room merely for the sake of swinging a club in a certain manner. But it does not pay to scoff, for golf is a contagious disease and may strike without warning. And there is no known cure. Sulphur drugs, penicillin, even the straight-jacket are useless.

In spite of the fact that it can be an expensive game, golf is of Scottish descent. The Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St. Andrew's is the national club of Scotland, whose rules are the foundation for the modern international rules of golf. The club was formed in 1754, so that it has some right to use the word ancient in its title. Since those days, the game has spread to all parts of the world, and there must be millions who have swung a club for better or for worse.

In New Zealand, there has been a rapid expansion in the number of links in the past ten or fifteen years, and municipal bodies have come to realise its advantages as a pastime for town-dwellers, and have provided public courses. Short supplies of clubs and balls have affected the game in the war years. War service has reduced memberships with the result that the upkeep of courses has suffered and in at least one case military needs have destroyed links entirely. But when the war is over, there is certain to be a boom in golf.

The attractions of golf are many. It is a game that is fascinating, tantalising, exasperating, and adjectivally annoying. It looks so easy and is probably one of the most difficult of

games to master. It calls for many and varied qualities in the player—patience and self-control being two of many—and it has that interesting feature that one is really playing against oneself, trying to break a certain score irrespective of what one's opponent might be doing. For this reason, golf is a game that can be thoroughly enjoyed by "rabbit" and "tiger" alike. To the beginner one of the proudest days of his life is when he breaks a hundred for the first time. To the "tiger" it is a red-letter day when he breaks the course record or has his handicap reduced a stroke.

"Blast it out, Major."

Not only can the game provide enjoyment and satisfaction, but it is difficult to surpass for healthy exercise. It is a game that calls for the use of most muscles and for perfect co-ordination between mind and body. From the player who takes it seriously, it demands a high state of physical fitness, as anyone who has taken part in match play over some of New Zealand's more rugged and hilly courses well knows. For the ex-serviceman it is a first-class game for rehabilitation physically, mentally, and socially, and consequently is bound to be popular.

The benefits to be derived from the game are outlined by R. A. Whitcombe, winner of the British Open Championship in 1938, in his book, "Golf's No Mystery." He devotes a chapter to physical fitness under the title, "Breathe Your Way to Scratch." His record is proof of his statements. He enlisted during the last war at the age of sixteen, and was invalided out of the army in 1916 with a weak heart. At 39, he was runner-up to Cotton in the Open, and in the following year was the winner.

Pre-war golf enthusiasts will no doubt ask themselves if they will ever be able to regain their form after four or five years off the course. Henry Longhurst, one of England's leading amateurs, offers them fresh hope. In an up-to-date reprint of his book, "Golf," he emphatically answers "yes". He does so from practical experience, because he was recently posted close to a golf course after an absence of over five years from the game. He devotes a whole section of his book to hints and suggestions for the "vast army of returning golfers."

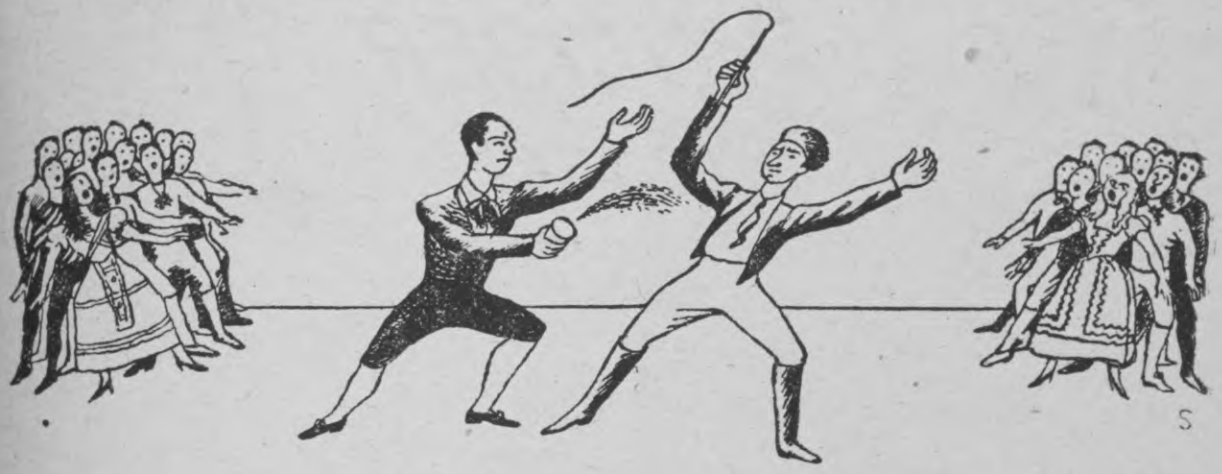
Incidentally, he affirms that there is no one correct way of hitting a ball. Charles Whitcombe went round Crews Hill in 59 in one way, Aubrey Boomer holed St. Cloud in 61 in another, Henry Cotton set a new standard of scoring with a 65 at Sandwich in a third way, and Bobby Jones won practically all the championships of world importance in his own way. All were correct, but no one could have confused one style with another. But the average golfer is never satisfied with his style or his play—and in that, too, lies part of the charm of a game that has such a vast following.

The battles of the desert, of Greece, of Italy will one day give way to the battles of Titirangi, Miramar, Shirley, or Balmacewen, but in the club-house over a good fire struggles grim and not so grim will fill in many pleasant post-war hours. Yes, golf will be the same after the war and for many years to come.

ANSWERS TO BRIDGE EXAMPLES

1. No bid. Only 2½ HT with a four-card suit.
2. 1 Spade. Six-card major suit although less than 2½ HT. Too good to pass.
3. 1 Heart (higher-ranking of two suits).

A GUIDE TO OPERA



CONFRONTED by an opera poster which advertises the bare name of an unfamiliar commodity, the prospective opera-goer may say to himself "Well, I'll try anything once." Doing so, without any knowledge of what is in store for him, may give him the impression that all opera is like the one he has just seen and heard. He may say, "If that's opera, I've had it."

All operas are, however, not alike, and even among the most popular ones there is a wide variety in theme and setting, as well, of course, as in the music. As a guide to those who are sufficiently intrepid to enter an opera house for the first time, the following condensed summary may be of some use.

AIDA.—Dramatic spectacle composed for the opening of the Suez Canal. Setting, ancient Egypt. Rousing music and stupendous staging.

IL TROVATORE. — Intricate but very dramatic plot of blue blood and gypsies. Many spectacular scenes and entertaining music.

CAVALLERIA RUSTICANA.—One-act opera of contemporary Italian vendetta. Light and popular music. One scene which, however, may be a very beautiful one.

RIGOLETTO.—Dramatic and easily followed story and tuneful music. One of the most popular of operas, and deservedly so.

I PAGLIACCI.—Opera in two acts. The original story of the clown with the broken heart. Well-known and popular music in a simple setting.

MANON.—Intrigue in the gambling hells of eighteenth century Paris. A tragically romantic plot with varied and interesting music.

FAUST.—The aged scholar barters his soul for a final fling of youth. Interesting story and well-known varied music.

LUCIA DI LAMMERMOOR.—Walter Scott's baronial halls. Story of intrigue ending in madness and violent death. Haunting and very beautiful music.

BARBER OF SEVILLE.—The most popular comic-opera in the Italian repertory. Light and gay music and an almost incomprehensible story.

LA TOSCA.—Stark but spectacular drama. Settings in well-known buildings in Rome, ending in Castel S. Angelo. Intrigue, assassination, execution, and suicide. Musically memorable.

MADAME BUTTERFLY—Tragically simple story of East meets West. Beautiful rather than spectacular staging. Familiar and touchingly melodious music.

CARMEN.—Eternal triangle with a turbulent Spanish gypsy as its focal point. Dramatic and satisfying musical spectacle.

LA BOHEME.—Artist's quarter of early nineteenth century Paris. A simple and plausible story with tunefully varied music.

LA TRAVIATA.—The Lady of the Camellias. Rich boy pursues lady of uncertain character in Paris as it used to be. Tuneful music throughout.

PLUMBERS, like whisky, have been very hard to find in New Zealand of late years, and building is often held up until one can be secured and a fence run round him to keep off the eager builders who would snatch him off in luxurious limousines to their own projects.

The shortage is not entirely a war-created one, and even when all the plumbers now in the forces get back to work there will still be good prospects for those who want to take up this trade. The release of more building materials will greatly increase the demand for plumbers for new construction, quite apart from the arrears of work that have accumulated during the war years.

The work is highly skilled and covers an immense variety of jobs, from inserting the simple washer in a tap up to installing a complicated drainage or hot water system in a big institution. In consequence, it has not been possible to shorten the training period and the man who wants to take up the trade must face a six-year apprenticeship. He will start at L5 5s a week under the rehabilitation scheme for subsidised trade training. Government Trade Training Centres are in the process of organisation, but until they are established, or for married men in other centres the "B" Class training (i.e., subsidised apprenticeship with an approved private employer, Harbour Board, Hospital Board, or similar body) is available to returned servicemen who have been approved for such training by their Rehabilitation Committee.

Such a highly technical trade cannot, of course, be mastered only by practical work, and during the training period attendance at a technical school in the evening is compulsory. At two-yearly intervals, in the candidate's second, fourth, and sixth years, the Education Department conducts examinations. In addition, the Plumbers' Board conducts a qualifying examination which candidates may sit after five years' apprenticeship. It consists of an eight-hours' practical and a three hours' theoretical test. If successful, the candidate on completion of his six years can be registered as a plumber, and is then permitted, if he wishes, to set up in business on his own account.

It is clear from this rather formidable list that the plumber must do quite a lot more study than most tradesmen. His reward is that as a qualified tradesman he usually commands a higher wage than the general run, that he has at his fingertips a trade for which there is a permanent and inevitable demand, and that if he sets up in business on his own he can, with good management, make a better living than many professional men.

But before deciding on this trade, as always, a man must ask himself if he has the necessary qualities. What are they?

The work can be quite heavy at times. Some of it is indoors, but most out-of-doors, while some jobs call for heavy lifting and a good deal of digging. A plumber must be conscientious and honest in his work, for, though liable to inspection by Sanitary Inspectors, most of it is not exposed to view. He needs to be good with his hands and mechanically-minded, for he may have to tackle anything from making some small object at the bench up to the handling of large installations. He must be prepared to acquire a good knowledge of workshop practice, and to learn something of elementary inorganic chemistry and hygiene. This is especially the case for the country plumber who is often called on to be the general handy-man of the district. He has little outside help he can call on, and must be able to do all sorts of jobs about which the town plumber need not worry.

No plumber's education is finished when he registers. For instance, it takes a good tradesman of long experience to make a really good job of "wiping a joint" (i.e., joining two lead pipes). Lead work is both important and difficult. What a good plumber can do with a sheet of lead has to be seen to be believed.

Last warning of all: the man who sets up as a plumber on his own needs rather more capital than the average run of tradesmen, if he is to make more than his wages. Most of his profit will come from the articles he manufactures, such as tanks, cisterns and so on. For that he needs a well-equipped workshop, and machinery is expensive. In fact, at the moment it is probably not even obtainable, though post-war years will see that situation remedied.

The Game of Chess

The RUY LOPEZ is a very popular opening for the good reason that it gives a strong and lasting attack, cramping Black's development considerably. Here Black attempts a more energetic defence, but the World Champion convincingly demonstrates the strength of the opening.

RUY LOPEZ
Game 4
Glasgow, 1929.

	White Dr. A. Alekhine	Black Dr. Forrester
1.	P—K4	P—K4
2.	Kt—KB3	Kt—QB3
3.	B—Kt5	Kt—B3
4.	Kt—B3 (a)	B—B4 (b)
5.	Kt x P	Kt x Kt
6.	P—Q4	B—Kt5
7.	P x Kt	Kt x P
8.	Q—Q4	Kt x Kt
9.	P x Kt	B—R4
10.	B—R3 (c)	P—QKt3 (d)
11.	P—K6	Q—B3 (e)
12.	B x P ch.	K—Q1
13.	B—B6 dis. ch.	Q x Q
14.	P—K7 mate (f)	

(a) The Berlin Defence. 4 0-0 is more usual. Alekhine no doubt wished to get his opponent off the book.

(b) This move turns the game into a sort of Classical Defence, an unfavourable line for Black as it is too enterprising. 4 . . . . . P—Q3; was safer.

(c) White has fully exploited Black's blunder. The last move stops Black from getting into comparative safety.

(d) Black is paying the penalty of a premature effort to attack and now tries to secure safety on the Q side.

(e) Black thinks he is safe as the White Q is undefended.

(f) A sparkling finish typical of the world champion's style

* * * *

THE MINIMUM MOVES.—What is the minimum number of moves to mate from the beginning of the game?

(Answer in next issue of CUE.)

It's a Quaint Language

IT is a quaint language, Chinese, but it loses a lot of its charm for two types of people—the learner and the telegraphist. There are *only* about 40,000 different words in the language, and each has its own baffling character. But this is not the only obstacle in mastering it. Each one of these words is really a single syllable, and, as the average Chinese can pronounce only six or seven hundred separate sounds, there are innumerable words that are said exactly the same way.

How then can two Chinese understand one another? Take a word like *shi* as an example. It may mean to swear, a lion, a corpse, a house, poetry, to pass away, or the numeral ten. But it may mean 55 other things. The Chinese have learned to recognise the meaning of the word by the context, and they also have a system of tones in their speech which enables them to differentiate the meanings of the words. That is how the sing-song intonation of the Chinese has come about. These tones were not deliberately invented in order to fit each written character with a separate sound. A tone is as much an integral part of the word to which it belongs as the sound itself. These regular modulations of the voice by means of which different inflections can be imparted to the same sound present, however, added difficulties for the learner.

The deficiency of sounds to interpret the various words is also overcome by the use of couplets. For example, there is a word *ko*, which means elder brother. But in speaking, the sound *ko* would not always be understood in this sense. One must either reduplicate it and say *ko-ko* or prefix *ta*, which means great, and say *ta-ko*. But more usual is the class of pairs in which each of the two components has the same meaning. *Shu-mu* is a tree; *man-ying*, full; and *ku-tu*, solitary. Sometimes, the two parts are not altogether synonymous, but together make up the sense required. In another class the first word serves to limit and determine the special meaning of the second—such as *milk-skin* used to mean cream, and *lamp-cage* to mean lantern.

When it comes to writing Chinese, however, the words are differentiated. Few Chinese have succeeded in momorising the 40,000 different characters, which is a tremendous task even for the man with a super-memory. A Chinese child attending school learns about 2,000 characters by the time he is ten, and the average newspaper uses about 7,000 characters every day. Chinese is a language of pictures—ideographs, pictograms, and phonograms, to be more technical. For example, the word sun in ancient Chinese was simply a circle with a dot in the centre, modified in modern Chinese to a character resembling an upright rectangle with a horizontal stroke through the centre. This character with a horizontal line under it means the dawn—the sun just above the horizon.

Words are thus created by pictures or a combination of pictures in a most fascinating manner. For instance, "gossip" is a symbol portraying three women, and "plunder" is a man chasing a man. A "prisoner" is a man in a box, "home" is a pig under the roof (an idea similar to that of the Irish peasant), and "rain" is merely drops of water. The introduction of Western ideas to China called for considerable imagination and straight thinking. By a combination of old symbols the new terms were introduced into the language. "Capitalism" was interpreted as *money-as-basis-policy*, "parliament" as *discuss-govern-country-assembly*, "election" as *lift-hand-for-choice*, and "telephone" as *lightning-language*. Thus their words indicated

their conception of the new arrivals to Chinese life.

To the telegraphist, the sending of Chinese has been in the past a most complicated and exasperating undertaking. Morse and teletype are out of the question for telegraphing Chinese, because of the great number of characters in the language. Approximately 9,000 characters are involved in sending messages over the wire, and it would be a hopeless task to construct a typewriter with 9,000 keys or to evolve a Morse code with separate combinations of dots and dashes for so many characters.

The only way it was possible to send telegrams in Chinese was by assigning a code number to each character, sending these numbers in sequence, and then translating them back into the original message by means of a code book. This was a very cumbersome method, but it is about to be superseded.

The complexity of the language is overcome by a new system which is about to be installed in six Chinese cities. This new method embraces the principle used for sending beam wireless pictures, and makes possible the transmission and reception of an exact reproduction of any Chinese character.

The Lighter Side of Rugby

Rugby is not only "organised murder," as an American pressman in New Zealand so aptly described it. It can be a great source of entertainment. These are but a few of the lighter stories of the game—bait for further anecdotes which CUE will publish. Send them in.

* * *

During the curtain-raiser to the match, Britain v Victoria, played at Melbourne Cricket Ground in 1930 a military guard of honour for the Governor-General who was later to meet the teams was marched into the arena and stood at ease. Late in the second half a ball was punted well and high into touch.

One of the Diggers in the front rank watched the ball closely and moved his rifle with bayonet fixed just far enough to impale the ball—and all the time he was still trying to look as though it was accidental. No doubt he was an Australian Rules follower!

In a representative game between Victoria and New South Wales in 1932 the talkative wise-cracking "Cocky" Mayne, a referee well-known to some New Zealand players, was providing the accompaniment. He had reason to reprimand the Victorian half-back for not putting the ball in straight. After several sharp warnings, he finally awarded New South Wales a penalty, saying as he did so: "My lad, you are making it too hot. Mrs Kelly would n't let Ned and Dan play with you."

During a club match, the referee had cause to warn frequently the forwards of one side for swearing loudly and oft in the scrums and loose rucks. After several warnings he finally selected one lively forward and threatened to send him off. This had no effect, as the player merely grinned, shook his head and got on with the game. The cursing continued unabated. The referee finally tapped the same forward on the shoulder, and, pointing to the side line, ordered him off.

It took a lot of explanation to convince the referee that this player was deaf and dumb, and for a while the play was certainly in the referee's twenty-five.

Our Russian Ally

IN the days when Russia was still regarded as a mysterious political experiment everybody felt that it was necessary to take sides for or against. People tended to range themselves fanatically on the side of the fence that suited them best. Russia seemed to be the target of all the conflicting outlooks and opinions which played such a great part in the troubled world of the '30's.

But people were interested, and, as it was difficult for the ordinary man, even if he had the money, to travel in Russia and find out for himself, he had to read about it. Because the whole world was taking sides, writers had to take sides too. Writers and publishers knew very well that books about Russia would find plenty of readers if they helped to bolster up the already formed prejudices of the people who shouted that Russia was a Communistic paradise or that it was a Bolshevik slaughter-house. The books that were written about Russia in those days—indeed, right up to the entry of Russia into the War in June, 1941—were highly coloured political tracts, and not very useful for the person who was interested in finding out the truth.

One of the results of our alliance with Russia was naturally a spate of literature designed to overcome past prejudices with exaggerated praise; but this stage passed. It gave way before the realisation of writers and publishers that people really wanted to know what was going on, and were getting very tired of "hand-outs."

At last, instead of the judgments of itinerant journalists on the success or otherwise of the Communistic experiment, we are getting some information about the history, geography, economy and everyday life of the Russian people.

The following books, all recently published, are readable sketches of Russian history from the earliest days: *Russia* (Segal), *Russian Cavalcade* (Carter), and *Russia Triumphant* (Sava). The author of this last book is famous for "A Surgeon's Destiny" and other popular books.

Books which deal with the Revolution and Soviet Russia are: *U.S.S.R* (Duranty), *Russian Peasant and Other Studies* (Maynard), and *Russian Revolution* (Chamberlin), 2 Vols.

Some individual impressions can be gathered from such books as: *Key to the Russian Door* (Bigland), *Mother Russia* (Hindus), and *I Am a Woman From Soviet Russia* (Moore-Pataleewa).

There is a more official flavour in: *U.S.S.R. Speaks for Itself* and *Stalin and Eternal Russia* (Kolarz).

The new publications are telling us much about the little known regions of this immense country. A good starting point for the student would be: *U. S. S. R — A Geographical Survey* (Gregory and Shave). Much material is now being published about Siberia and its amazing development in agriculture and industry, *e.g.: Soviet Asia* (Bates), *Dawn in Siberia* (Phillips), *Soviet and Tsarist Siberia* (Borodin), *Conquest of Siberia* by Semyonov (an historical study), *Russia—The Coming Power in the Pacific* (Rhodes). The last-named book was written and published in New Zealand, and deals with Russia's place in the Pacific.

One of the most controversial issues about which there is still much argument and uncertainty is Russian foreign policy, particularly after the war. The following books help with this problem: *Russia and the Peace* (Pares) and *Russia and Her Western Neighbours* (Keeton and Schlesinger).

Those interested in the relations of Russia with Britain should read: *Russia and Britain* (Crankshaw) and *History of Anglo-Soviet Relations* (Coates).

Reliable information is also available concerning branches of Russian life; for instance, industry, legal system, science, religion, literature, art, and the Red Army.

It is not possible in a short sketch to vouch for the complete accuracy all the above books, but they are nearly all published during the last two years, and reflect the trend towards sober judgment of our ally, in response to a real desire for understanding by the armies who are fighting, and the peoples who are working in the same cause.

For information on the ERS book request service see inside back cover.

V. The Rights of Man

EUROPEAN States have a basis of common ideas and practices, inherited from Greece, and later, Rome. But no measure of European unity was attained until the Middle Ages when Christian ideas of faith, morals, and worship established a common understanding which subsequent revolutions never entirely destroyed. Despite a common basis of culture, with church organisation international in aim and character, this did not avail to keep the peace. No civil institution was powerful enough to enforce or encourage such ideas. Nevertheless, feudalism, chivalry, trade organizations, universities, had an international character greater than anything to be found until the nineteenth century.

The passing of the mediaeval world was accompanied by the rise of national feeling, the assertion of the independence of each state. From the beginning of the fifteenth to the end of the eighteenth century only individual thinkers—More, Rabelais, Kant, Rousseau—voiced their belief that the nations should live as a family. Instead, nations faced one another as rivals, and there grew up the system known as the Balance of Power, which is simply a convenient name for the way in which states act towards one another when there is no influence to persuade them to concord, nor any court whose authority they are all prepared to recognize.

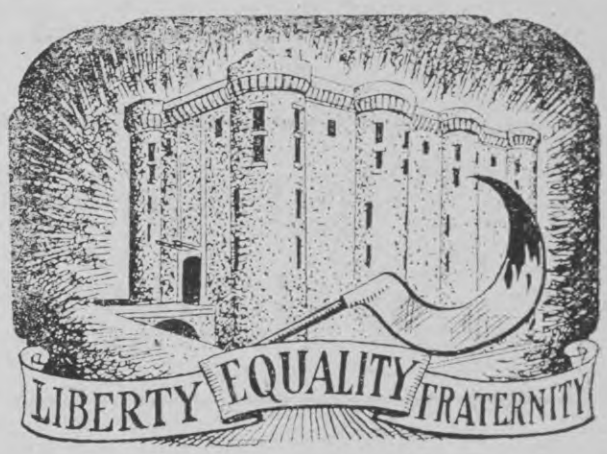
With the French Revolution the era of international effort begins again, and in various forms this has continued until the daring effort of the League of Nations. On the eve of the Revolution, the States of Europe appear before us independent and unrelated, pursuing their own selfish ends; arranging their temporary alliances as the Balance of Power seemed to dictate; repudiating in their public life any control of religion and any obligations to mankind.

The country in which the storm broke was not essentially different in social structure from its neighbours, except that France was bankrupt, largely because her privileged classes paid no taxes.

Failure to solve the financial problem resulted in Louis XVI calling the States-General for the first time in one hundred and fifty years. The Commons were determined to frame a Constitution which should give them greater power. The Declaration of the Rights of Man, adopted on August 1st, 1789, was the basis of the Constitution.

The following are some of its most prominent clauses in which is plainly visible the influence of the most powerful thought of the age:—

"The representatives of the French people, constituted as a National Assembly, believing that ignorance, forgetfulness or contempt of the rights of man are the only causes of public misfortunes and of the corruptions of governments,



have resolved to set forth in a solemn declaration the natural, inalienable and sacred rights of man; in order that this declaration being constantly before all members of the social body may always recall to them their rights and their duties; in order that the acts of the legislative and executive powers being constantly capable of comparison with the objects of all political institutions may on that account be the more respected; in order that the demands of citizens being founded henceforth on simple and incontestable principles may

be always directed to the maintenance of the constitution and the happiness of all.

"Consequently the National Assembly recognises and declares in the presence and under the auspices of the Supreme Being the following rights of the man and the citizen.

i. *"Men are born and remain free and equal in rights. Social distinctions can only be founded on public utility.*

ii. *"The aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.*

iii. *"The principle of all sovereignty resides essentially in the nation. No body and no individual can exercise authority, if it does not take its origin from the nation.*

iv. *"Liberty consists in being allowed to do whatever does not injure other people.*

vi. *"Law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have the right to take a part personally or through their representatives in its formation.*

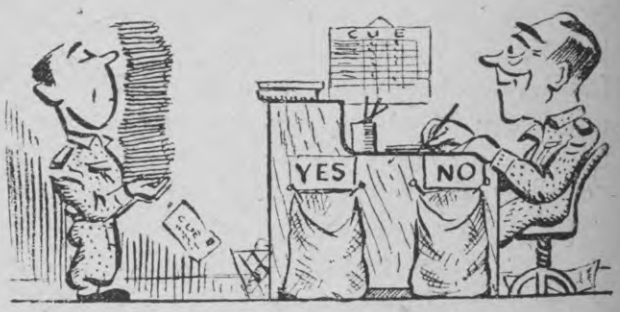
x. *"No one should be molested for his opinions, even for his religious opinions, provided that their manifestation does not disturb the public order established by law.*

xi. *"The free communication of thoughts and opinions is one of the most precious rights of man.*

xvii. *"Property being an inviolable and sacred right, no one can be deprived of it except when public necessity, declared by form of law, makes it clearly necessary."*

It is easy to criticize this famous document, and when constitutional details came to be arranged, some of the principles were decidedly inconvenient. Nevertheless, the Declaration is the most characteristic example of the nobler side of the Revolution.

What do you think?



While the total number of votes received in answer to the six questions put forward in C U E 16 was rather disappointing, it was nevertheless possible to gauge the opinions held by a cross-section of members of 2 NZEF. Here are the questions and the percentage voting.

1. Bar hours based on the Continental system. For, 90.9 per cent.
2. Persons renting State houses being given the right to purchase if they so desire. For, 96.9 per cent.
3. Free university education provided that the student's standard of work is satisfactory. For, 100 per cent.
4. A reduction of 50 per cent. in the number of Members of Parliament, and the doubling of the present salary. For, 60 per cent.
5. State ownership of all air services in the Dominion. For, 18.1 per cent.
6. Returning to the 2-3-2 scrum formation in Rugby, with eight backs. For 3.18 per cent.

Answers to Weather Quiz

1. *True*—The halo around the moon results from the presence of high cirrus clouds, composed of minute snow crystals in the path of the moonlight. These clouds generally presage unsettled weather.
2. *False*—The significant thing is not whether the barometer is high or low, but whether it is rising or falling. A steadily falling barometer even though it shows high pressure, almost invariably means bad weather approaching.
3. *False*—It is sleet that is frozen rain. Snow falls directly as snow from snow clouds, the flakes being formed by the condensation of moisture at temperatures below freezing.
4. *False*—The heavier cold air creeps into the lowlands frequently bringing temperatures 5 to 10 degrees below those on the hilltops.
5. *False*—There is no basis in fact for this belief.
6. *True*—When the humidity is high, the air, already saturated with water, cannot absorb body perspiration.
7. *True*—Hail never forms unless a thunder-storm is going on, and the conditions producing such a storm are rare in winter.
8. *False*—This is one of the commonest of mistaken weather beliefs. All records show that changes in barometric pressure which brings changes in the weather go on regardless of the state of the moon.
9. *True*—Scientists have never found two snowflakes exactly alike.
10. *False*—Dew never falls, but forms where it is found. When moisture from warm air is deposited on something cold enough to condense it, dew is formed.
11. *True*—Statistics indicate that during every instant an average of 1,800 thunder-storms are bellowing over the earth.
12. *False*—The extreme dryness of very cold air renders likelihood of a heavy fall rather remote because of the lack of moisture to form thick snow clouds. But that is all there is to support this common belief. A two inch fall has been recorded while the thermometer registered 24 degrees below zero.
13. *False*—Hot, humid weather—a condition favouring thunder-storms—likewise favours bacterial growth, which causes milk to sour. The thunder-storm is entirely innocent.
14. *True*—Static is caused by weather disturbances. Because thunder-storms are so frequent in summer, the annoying type of static caused by lightning is heard more often then.
15. *True*—The lunar rainbow was observed as far back as Aristotle. Generally speaking rainbows are formed by the passage of light rays through water drops. Moonlight, which is only reflected sunlight, will serve the purpose.
16. *True*—No records indicate anything to the contrary.
17. *True*—When objects upon which dew is deposited are so cold that they freeze the liquid deposit, frost is formed.
18. *True*—Solitary trees are struck by lightning much more often than trees in a group.
19. *False*—A red sunset presages clear dry weather.
20. *True*—On cloudless nights, the earth loses its heat more rapidly and a heavier dew results. Such clear skies, which make for a heavy dew, likewise mean no immediate rain. Similarly, heavy frosts are generally followed by fine, clear weather.

CUE'S GRAVE ERROR?

It has been pointed out to CUE that Big Ben was referred to in a Quiz as a clock, whereas it is not a clock but a bell in its bowels that goes boom. The answer to this is that CUE did not say it was a clock. It asked whether it was the biggest clock in the world, and gave the correct answer—"NO."

P.S.S./B/D1038/3½M/2-45

1. A ring around the moon is a sign of coming rain or snow? True or false?
2. A high barometer is always a sign of fair weather ahead. True or false?
3. Snow is really frozen rain. True or false?
4. Gardens in valleys and hollows generally receive autumn frosts before gardens on hilltops. True or false?
5. Open windows attract lightning. True or false?
6. It isn't the heat, it's the humidity that makes certain days uncomfortable. True or false?
7. Hail rarely falls during the winter. True or false?
8. A change in the phase of the moon brings a change in the weather. True or false?
9. No two snowflakes are identical in pattern. True or false?
10. It is correct to say the "dew falls at night" True or false?
11. The average number of thunder-storms in progress throughout the world at any instant is nearer 2,000 than 200. True or false?
12. It is sometimes too cold to snow. True or false?
13. Thunder-storms sometimes cause milk to sour True or false?
14. Radio static is more pronounced in summer than at any other time. True or false?
15. Rainbows may be seen at night. True or false?
16. Thunder is absolutely harmless. True or false?
17. Frost is frozen dew. True or false?
18. It is especially dangerous to seek shelter from a thunder-storm under a solitary tree. True or false?
19. A red sunset usually means stormy weather next day. True or false?
20. A heavy dew is a portent of clear weather. True or false?

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CHESS QUERY

Answer to Correspondent.—When a pawn reaches the back line, it can be promoted to any piece (except the King) that is desired, irrespective of whether any pieces have been lost, *e.g.*, a player *can* have nine Queens.

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