

Vol. 2, No. 3.

### KORERO

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### About Korero

Since the background bulletin began to appear in its new form and with a name on the cover, we have had several requests to explain the meaning of the name chosen and its pronunciation. Korero is, of course, a Maori word and is therefore pronounced with an equal accent on each syllable, *Ko-re-ro*, the o's and the *e* being short as in collar and in met. The meaning of the word is to communicate, to tell, to talk, to speak, or to say, and that explains why we chose it as a name for the background bulletin.

We remind you again that we are looking for articles, sketches, photographs, or black-and-white drawings from all members of the Forces. If you have ideas for articles, if you would like to see articles on particular subjects, tell us and we will do our best to produce them. The address is : D.A.E.W.S., Army H.O., Wellington. Mark your envelopes "Korero" in one corner.

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Party in the Middle East, as told to Korero by Private N. Habgood, one of the members of the party recently in New Zealand on furlough.

WHEN GENERAL Freyberg decided that the 2 N.Z.E.F. in the Middle East should have an entertainment unit of its own it was not with any thought of pampering his men with a luxury. He knew that a few months in the Western Desert would probably be enough to take the edge off the keenest sense of humour. And he knew, too, that when men forget how to laugh something must be done about it.

It was in January, 1941, when the unit first began to take shape. With money from the Patriotic Fund, costumes, musical instruments, and all the other necessary accessories were acquired wherever they could be found. The unit's Q.M., S/Sgt. Colin McBryde, investigated every likely source, including, of course, the Cairo bazaars, and after many months of laborious work nearly  $\pounds_{1,000}$  worth of equipment had been assembled.

The unit started off with three or four shows in Egypt. And then came Crete. The party went to Canea and took over the Olympia Theatre, the owner of which had been taken into custody as a fifth columnist. The theatre had first to be cleaned of its filth, and when performances did start mainly before audiences of Royal Marines —there was always the possibility of being interrupted by an air raid. In one performance the conductor of the orchestra worked in a tin hat. On another occasion conditions were such that one member of the party stood at the door trying to reflect light on to the stage with a mirror.

When the German invasion came, bombs demolished the Olympia Theatre. All the party's equipment was there, and the whole of it was lost. The members of the unit were then attached to an infantry battalion and carried mortar ammunition to the front lines until the battalion evacuated the area. For a time they were left as front-line troops ; they held a thinly-defended line from Galatos Hill to the coast. They were strafed from daylight to dusk, but suffered only several minor casualties.

Then came the historic march across the island to Sphakia, where the troops were embarking for evacuation. They threw away their blankets and all other gear except their rifles; but, even so, a number of men in the battalion the party was with had to drop out of the march from sheer exhaustion. One member of the concert party went off to find an R.A.P. and was not seen again. With four others who had to drop out of the march, he is now a prisoner of war.



The Kiwi Concert Party playing at the Fleet Club in Alexandria.

On the way across the island food was very scarce, and as their boots had given out and they had discarded all their equipment the troops were in a sorry plight at the end of the march. The concert party members were among the last men to leave the island, and as they did so mortar shells were falling in Sphakia from the German troops advancing along the coast.

After a spell in Egypt, the party re-formed and obtained new equipment, again with money provided by the Patriotic Fund. The original producer, Sergeant-Major Tom Kirk-Burnand, returned to New Zealand for health reasons, and Terry Vaughan, who had been pianist, became producer. The party entertained British as well as New Zealand troops, and sometimes went to Alexandria to play to the Fleet, and it soon became known throughout the Middle East. In the desert it worked in very difficult conditions, giving outdoor shows with sandstorms and rainstorms to contend with, but its members realized that it was in the desert that entertainment was needed most.

In the spring of 1942, the party went to Syria. It travelled as far north as Aleppo, not far from the Turkish border, where it did much to help good relationships between the people and the New Zealand troops by giving several charity performances. This tour lasted for four months, during which the party gave a command performance for the Duke of Gloucester, made several broadcasts from Radio Levant in Beirut, and visited some out-of-the-way places. It once played to some isolated units 5,000 ft. up in the Lebanon Mountains.

After a brief interval in Palestine the party returned to Egypt. It went into the desert six weeks before the battle of El Alamein commenced. This was a strenuous season. The party had to play in daylight because of the black-out, and although the heat was intense there were sometimes two shows a day. At most of the performances on this tour Bofors A.A. guns and machine guns were placed at intervals round the area to look out for enemy aircraft, and on one occasion the defences were reinforced with tanks. General Montgomery, then Commander of the Eighth Army, and Lieutenant-General Leese, the new Commander, were among those the party entertained.

In the middle of one afternoon performance on this tour a young tornado hit the area. Anything that was not anchored went sailing across the desert, and the party's gear was scattered far and wide. The audience scattered in all directions, too, some, including a brigadier, taking shelter under the stage. Hailstones, which were great jagged lumps of ice, fell. The personal bivvies of the performers were torn up and their blankets and other gear soaked. When the storm ended half an hour later the performance could not be resumed, but when it was put on again next day the audience of the previous day turned out to a man.

The party returned to Cairo when the battle of El Alamein began and made a quick dash to Palestine and Syria again to play to isolated units there. The day after Tripoli fell, however, the unit was on its way across the desert. The 1,500-mile journey to Tripoli took thirteen days, and immediately after its arrival the party took over the Union Club Theatre and gave performances for six days. A larger theatre, the Opera House, then became available, and the Kiwis played there for a fortnight to audiences which were a mixture of British and New Zealand Army and Navy personnel. Before the change-over from the Union Club Theatre the concert party was on the point of taking another theatre, the Alhambra, instead of the Opera House, and two days after the change a German bomb fell on the Alhambra and demolished it.

Tripoli was still seriously disorganized by the effects of British bombing raids. Although most of the finest buildings had not been damaged, few shops were open. The harbour was full of the hulks of sunken German vessels. As British vessels quickly began to use the port to bring supplies to the Eighth Army



Behind the El Alamein front, the members of the Kiwi Concert Party rehearse for the performance they gave New Zealand divisional units just before the opening of the Eighth Army's successful offensive.

the Luftwaffe attempted to bomb it every night, but so fierce was the A.A. barrage—for the area covered it was said to be the fiercest barrage in the world few planes got through and little damage was caused. The only inconvenience the raiders caused the party was some loss of sleep.

From Tripoli the Kiwis moved out some miles to the Castel Benito area, where the New Zealand troops were resting. They intended to give outdoor shows for those who had been unable to get into Tripoli, but the night they arrived the whole division moved out and up to the Mareth Line. So the concert party had a spell in Suani village, which later became the New Zealand advanced base.

They were moving again in a few days, however, this time to Malta, where they were told they would be playing for ten days. But so much were their performances appreciated that they stayed on the island for a month. In the first twenty days they gave twentyone shows—to the Army, Navy, and Air Force. They also gave a show for the civilian population, as well as one for 1,200 school-children. Two days after the show for the children a little silver model of the Gozo boat—the ship which takes supplies to the Island of Gozo near Malta — arrived at the party's quarters with a card inscribed : "To the Kiwis, From the Children of Malta." The mode is now in a glass case in the New Zealand Club in Cairo.

Back in North Africa, the party settled down for six weeks in a deserted Italian fort near Suani and rehearsed a new show with the idea of setting out for Tunisia ; but the show was just ready when the Tunisian campaign finished. So the Kiwis stayed in the Tripoli area and played to the Kiwis on their way back across the desert. It was among some eucalyptus trees beside the Suani-Tripoli road that the party had its largest audience, between 6,000 and 7,000 men. It returned to Cairo several days after the Division and joined the men leaving for New Zealand on furlough.



The Kiwi Concert Party at Fort Parma, near Homs, in Libya.

# WHAT SHALL BE DONE ABOUT COMMANY

### From the Christian Science Monitor

O<sup>NE</sup> of the most arresting questions before the world—daily becoming less premature—is, "What Shall Be Done With Germany After the War?" In conversation, one already hears the question dismissed in a phrase, ranging all the way from "no punishment" to "complete annihilation." But these answers leave the complications unconsidered, untouched.

The Council of Democracy has sent to national leaders a questionnaire on the subject of Germany. At a later date collated returns will be available.

But meanwhile the reader can see, by trying to answer for himself the following carefully contrived questions, that the problem will require the most earnest study of statesmen and citizens alike. We present these questions, with a prefatory note, as a sort of intellectual exercise to illustrate the difficulties of post-war planning.

In order to keep the discussion within bounds and to confine it to the one question, "What shall be done with Germany after the War?" various related problems, important though they may be, have been eliminated, viz.:—

(a) The effect of public discussion of the peace terms on the actual military conduct of the war. Such discussion necessarily enters the sphere of strategy in so far as it provides propaganda for use by us, or by the Germans, to weaken or strengthen their will to resist.

(b) How large a share the United States will actually have in determining the conditions imposed on Germany, in view of possible conflicting desires of Russia, Great Britain, &c.

(c) Questions of World Federation, treatment of other countries, &c.

#### FOREWORD

For practical purposes the question, "What Shall Be Done With Germany After the War?" has been subdivided into the following specific topics:—

- I, Punishment.
- 2. Reparations.
- 3. Form of government.
- 4. Disarmament.
- 5. Re-education.
- 6. Relationship to rest of world.

It is urged that these questions be considered from a purely objective, unemotional point of view. The problem is—not what we might like to do to Germans, or what the Germans deserve. It is—What treatment of Germany is most likely to produce the kind of world we want—ten, twenty, fifty years after the war?

#### I. PUNISHMENT

(Considered always from the objective viewpoint)

#### A. Why Punishment?

1. Effect on Punishers :---

(a) Would quick blood-letting relieve pent-up emotions in invaded countries, thus permitting a calmer approach to the main problem of the Peace?

(b) Would harsh punishment of Germany give us a guilt complex later on ? Namely, Anglo-Saxon conscience after the last war, which through sympathy for Germany contributed to permitting Germany to re-arm.

(2) Effect on Punished :--

(a) Will punishment act as an example—deterrent—cure ?

(b) Will it convince Germans (and others) that Nazi philosophy of aggression and race hatred does not pay, or

(c) Will it root permanently in the German soul the desire for revenge?

B. Punishment-For Whom?

1. The whole German people ?

2. Army officers?

3. Junker class?

4. Government officials ?

5. Members of the Nazi Party?

6. Leaders of the Nazi Party?

7. Gestapo ?

C. Guilt-How defined ?

1. General responsibility?

2. Personal responsibility for particular crimes ?

3. Determined by what judicial codes ?

4. By whom tried ?

(a) Anti-Nazi Germans?

(b) Allied Powers?

(c) Courts of invaded countries?

(d) Neutrals ?

D. Form of Punishment?

I. Death?

2. Imprisonment?

(a) Where ?

(b) How long?

3. Forced labor? (See also "Reparations.")

4. Fines, deprivation of property, of civil rights, &c. ?

5. Withhold food or other supplies from Germany at end of war?

6. Any diminution or cancellation of punishment for those who aid us between now and the end of the war?

### II. REPARATIONS

A. Desirable, in any respect?

B. Amount.

I. Fixed ?

2. Indefinite ?

C. Method.

I. In cash?

2. In kind?

3. By furnishing labour and materials for reconstruction in—Holland? Belgium? France? Russia? Great Britain? Norway?

#### III. GOVERNMENT

A. Divide ("Balkanize") Germany into pre-Bismarckian States ?

B. Do not divide, but-

I. Stipulate form of government?

2. Let the Germans decide without interference ?

3. Let the Germans decide but by referendum with voting supervised by the Allies ?

4. If a strong Communist movement develops in Germany, what shall we do?

#### IV. DISARMAMENT

A. Military-guns, planes, tanks, &c.

I. Total?

2. Partial?

3. How supervised and enforced ?

B. Economic.

1. Eliminate heavy industry from Germany ?

2. Control the use of certain strategic materials, such as alloy metals, which are necessary for armanents?

C. Political.

I. Shall we or shall we not allow Germany to contribute its share by hypothetical international police force?

### V. RE-EDUCATION

A. Can the spirit of Nazism be wiped out (broadly speaking)?

I. From all Germans?

2. Only from Germans over thirtyfive years of age ?

3. Only from the young under twelve or fifteen ?

B. Methods.

1. Leave "Re-education" entirely to Germans?

2. Leave to proven anti-Nazi Germans?

3. Take it over ourselves ?

4. Leave it to Germans, under our supervision and control?

5. If under our supervision and control, do we—

(a) Select teachers?

(b) Specify courses and contents of textbooks?

(c) Control the censor—press—radio publishing ?

VI. RELATIONSHIP TO THE REST OF THE WORLD

A. Economic.

1. Equal access to raw materials?

2. Control of rates of foreign exchange ?

3. Loans to Germany for food, rehabilitation?

B. Political.

I. Shall Germany be admitted to the Society of Nations?

(a) At once ?

(b) After qualifying for membership?

(c) If so, what qualifications ?

### **REPORT ON RUSSIA**

• What is the explanation of Russia's amazing military successes in the past year ?

• How is Russia tackling the reconstruction problem in the areas she has reconquered ?

• What is the mood of the Russian people after the ordeal of the last three years ?

This article condensed from "The Economist," answers these questions as authoritatively as they can be answered on the information available.

T THE beginning of July last year the front line in Russia ran east of Orel, skirted Kursk from the west, then turned to the south-east, beyond Bielgorod and Kharkov, and formed a large bulge covering roughly the Donetz and ending close to the west of Rostov. The German line had been shortened by the retreat from the Caucasus and the Volga, and it seemed that the four months' lull after the winter campaign had allowed the German High Command to replenish its reserves, regroup its armies, and complete the fortification of a defence zone built up during more than twenty months.

At the beginning of August, however, the Russians took Orel. The first break in the "eastern wall" was made. Violent fighting soon flared up all along the front from Smolensk southward. Then Kharkov fell, and after that the pace of the Russian offensive quickened.

By the middle of January the Russians on the central sector, round the Pripet area, were well inside the 1939 Polish border. In the north there were signs of the Russians' offensive power round Leningrad; and in the south the western Ukraine was being bitterly contested in attack and counter-attack in the area round Vinnitsa and the northern part of the River Bug.

What are the factors that have made this tremendous Russian offensive possible? First there is the fact of Russian superiority in man-power. Not fewer than 300 divisions—4,000,000 men—have been thrown into the battle.

The number of German divisions engaged on the eastern front has amounted, according to official Russian statements, to 212 divisions; and the number of satellite divisions has fallen from 60 in 1942 to 25. Of the 16 Rumanian divisions (of very low fighting value) some were engaged in the Kuban and the rest in police duties behind the lines.

The Finnish divisions were almost inactive last year. The loss of the other satellite forces—Italian and Hungarian was again, according to Russian claims, made more than good by the addition of 33 German divisions to the 179 divisions used in the offensive of 1942.

Last year, however, the German corps and divisions were very often merely nominal units; and Russian reports have frequently spoken of "detachments whipped together from auxiliary forces."

Even on the basis of nominal figures the Russian margin of superiority in man-power has been of the order of 50 per cent.; actually it has been substantially larger.

The other factor which has contributed to the continuous Russian attack has been a change in the technique of fighting. Reports have repeatedly suggested a considerable "demodernization" in the weapons employed by the enemy. Fewer tanks and fewer aeroplanes have been employed by the Germans than at any time before.

On the Russian side the latest victories have been the triumph of the gun. The concentration of artillery fire on some sectors of the front has been described by Russian Commanders as ten times stronger than the concentration at Verdun in the last war. This is not to say that the tank and aeroplane have been absent from the battle. The Russians seem, in fact, to have attained at least equality in these weapons. But tanks and aircraft have been much less conspicuous than the gun. For the conquest of open steppe the Russian Command relied on the tank; for the reduction of strong points and fortresses, on the gun; and for the forcing of swamps and forests round Bryansk, on cavalry.

On August 22 last year the Council of People's Commissars issued a decree on "immediate measures for the restoration of national economy in the districts liberated from German occupation." The decree, which filled several closely-printed pages in the newspapers *Pravda* and *Izvestya*, is in many respects a unique document. It marks the beginning of the "journey back" of the civilian population to the liberated areas.

It also reveals something of the desolation and impoverishment which those areas have suffered through war and the German occupation. Their economic restoration has been centrally planned, and though the instructions say very little about the general principles on which the work of reconstruction is to be based, they provide an enormous amount of the most detailed and meticulous information about the first steps which are now to be taken.

Strikingly the decree contains no hint about the restoration of the industrial life in the liberated towns. It deals almost exclusively with the rehabilitation of agriculture and railway transport, and with elementary tasks of housing and sanitation, without which no start can be made with reconstruction.

The first chapter of the decree provided for the return of evacuated cattle to the collective farms in the provinces of Kalinin, Smolensk, Kursk, Orel, Voronezh, Rostov, Stalingrad, and Stavropol.

The total number of cattle, horses, sheep, and goats to be re-evacuated was about 600,000; and in the last days of August an extraordinary and dramatic trek started from the remote interior of Russia, and even from Asia. Throughout September droves of cattle were moving steadily westward, and the trek was due to end on October 15. Shortage of transport accounted for the fact that the animals could not be carried by rail; they had to be driven on foot for hundreds of miles, sometimes for more than a thousand miles, as, for instance, from Kazakhstan to the district of Voronezh.

The extent to which the returned animals will meet the needs of agriculture in the liberated areas can only be properly judged by comparing their total numbers with the pre-war numbers of cattle in the districts. The Orel district possessed 857,000 horned cattle in 1938; under the decree it received 21,000. The Smolensk district had 889,000 horned cattle and received 48,000; it had 394,000 horses and received 7,000.



THE WAR IN RUSSIA

The continuous black line marks the farthest German advance in Russia and the broken line marks the front at December 31, 1943. This year the Russians have developed their offensive all along the line but have made most progress in the centre, where they are well inside the 1939 Polish frontier.

The small numbers of cattle returned are probably due to the fact that the original evacuation from west to east was much less successful in agriculture than in industry. Most of the cattle remained in the west in 1941–42, only to be requisitioned by the Germans or to perish in the fighting.

What is perhaps more surprising is the relatively small number of tractors (5 to 10 per cent. of the pre-war stock in some districts) to be returned and the great emphasis played on supplying the farmers with horse-drawn ploughs. These other agricultural implements must be delivered by the People's Commissariat for Armaments, which at the beginning of the war took over the factories producing agricultural implements, and converted them to production for war.

Similarly, the supply administration of the Red Army has been ordered to allocate from booty specified quantities of equipment to the reconstructed machine tractor stations in every liberated area—and thus to turn German swords into Russian ploughs.

There is no evidence so far that any policy on the ways and means of reconstruction has crystallized in Russia. The new decree is hardly more than a short-term, though amazingly thorough, measure to meet the most urgent needs of the moment.

As the victory draws nearer, however, the pressure of economic facts calls for a broader formulation of Russia's programme of reconstruction. This, in its turn, involves the linking-up of domestic economic issues with international problems. Russia will unavoidably need the aid of foreign economic resources in the rebuilding of its agriculture, and in the switching-over of its industries from peace to war. Indications so far suggest that two parallel lines of action are being contemplated in Moscow. One is directed toward economic co-operation with the Allies. This line of action has found its most distinct expression in the attitude of the Soviet delegation at the Food Conference at Hot Springs. The other is to shift at least a part of the burden of reconstruction on to the shoulders of the defeated enemy, by compelling him to pay reparations and indemnities for the damage done to Russia.

It is highly significant that Moscow has so far been the only Allied capital in which the demand for reparations has been firmly and unequivocally stated. An official Commissariat has for some time been preparing the list of Russia's material losses and assessing their size in terms of finance. Ideological considerations, which in the past caused Russia to take a hostile attitude towards reparations under the Versailles Treaty, have now been discarded.

The case for reparations was recently stated by Professor Varga, the former chief economist of the Communist International, who bitterly criticized the Versailles reparations for more than twenty years.

Professor Varga now declares that Germany could easily have met its financial obligations after the last war and that the burden of reparations was a myth. At the same time, the Russian economic spokesman has raised the problem of reparations not only for Russia, but also for all the occupied nations. The question is still open whether Russia will ultimately put the stronger emphasis, in its reconstruction programme, on economic co-operation with the Allies or on reparations from Germany.





A KORERO Report

IN PRE-WAR days of plenty New Zealand imported her salmon and sardines from abroad. America, Britain, and Norway supplied the easy-to-open, easier-to-eat tins of fish which were the second string to every housewife's bow and the first to every bachelor's.

But the war found other uses for the precious tin and other markets for the fish, and before long both these varieties became as rare as hens' teeth. To-day the civilian has only dim memories of the flavour of a pink salmon steak or the taste of sardine sandwiches (unless, of course, his wife provided against the famine). But the serviceman has the compensation of being able occasionally to tickle his palate with herrings in tomato sauce or pilchards caught and canned in New Zealand.

In messes in the Middle East, on South Pacific Islands, and on Air Force stations at home and overseas, servicemen have been able to enjoy a luxury that has long been denied civilians. Only eighteen months ago it was discovered that fine-quality sardines could be caught in quantity in the Marlborough Sounds. And there are more fish in the Sounds than ever came out of them. At present the Picton cannery can handle only a limited quantity of fish, and every can produced is destined for consumption in the Services, but after the war, when additional equipment can be purchased, the owners hope to can sufficient fish to meet peacetime needs.

The manager of the Picton cannery will hotly deny that sardines are luxuries. He considers that these fish are an essential item in the diet of any healthy people. The oils in the sardines help to prevent colds and guard against influenza and tuberculosis. The fish bones as edible chalk are a good source of organic calcium necessary in the building of sound bones and teeth.

Moreover, the natural fish-oil is far more valuable than the substitute vegetable-oils in which the fish are ordinarily packed. That is why Picton pilchards are not packed in olive-oil, but are left to produce their own natural oil. Fish packed in olive-oil have usually had their own oil extracted to be sold to chemists as a medicinal oil or as a commercial oil to be used in some paints.



Filling the cans with cleaned fish. Empty tins are stacked above the girls. The filled cans pass down a travelling belt to the "crimping" machine, whose operator can be seen at the end of the table.

The present industry at Picton was m oved to the Sounds soon after the "Niagara" was sunk in Auckland waters. Previously pilchards had been caught in the Hauraki Gulf, but the mines which had destroyed the "Niagara" made trawling dangerous and the arc light used to attract the fish disturbed both local residents and neighbouring police-stations. It was found that suitable fish had their spawning-grounds in the Sounds, so the factory and fleet moved south.

The labour problem was easily solved. Handy to Picton is the Waikawa Pa, and no one is more skilled in handling fish than the Maori. So Maori boys and girls were employed in descaling, cleaning, and canning the fish—congenial work handy to their home and valuable to the war effort. In the first year alone  $\pounds 6,500$  was paid in wages, and the firm is encouraging social activities and the traditional Maori art and crafts amongst the employees. The manager, who is himself partly Maori, is most interested in the welfare of his staff.

The fishermen trawl for the fish in the deep waters of Pelorus and Queen Charlotte Sounds. Five to six tons have been taken in one net from Picton Wharf. The work is done on moonless nights, and a huge net of  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. mesh is used. Unlike the usual trawling net, which may have 6 ft. to 8 ft. of net between deadline and corkline, the pilchard net is 140 ft. deep, has 4,000 corks, and forms a 400-yard circle. It costs over  $\frac{4}{5}$ 500. It must be strong.

The fishermen estimate that at times there have been 80 tons of fish in the net, though, of course, the excess over the quantity that the factory can handle is allowed to escape by temporarily sinking the cork line. Neither is it possible to drag the net aboard the ships. The living mass of fish is shovelled aboard, and when after the war the full catch is used a mechanical grab will be necessary to remove the fish from the net.

In the Hauraki an arc lamp was used to encourage the fish to shoal, but this is not necessary in the Sounds. The phosphorus in the water indicates the location of the shoals of fish to the lookout man in the trawler's crow's nest, and the net is spread in a huge circle to enmesh them. As the net closes, a solid mass of silver fish threshes the surface of the water.

The method of communication between the trawlers and the factory is unusual. Carrier pigeons are taken out on the boats and bring back to the factory the news of the size of the catch and the time the trawlers expect to arrive in Picton.

The fish are transported to the factory in cases. They are first put into a descaling machine, which is a cylinder of fine mesh netting about 5 ft. long and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  ft. in diameter. As the cylinder revolves, blades act as a gentle abrasive removing the scales. A jet of water washes the scales out of the machine.

The work on the cleaning-table is done by about a dozen Maori boys and girls. Grasping a fish in one hand, with a single deft motion they pass the knife blade over the fish's gills and flick off rather than cut the head, drawing with it the Then they cut off the tail entrails. and drop the fish into a water-flume, down which it is washed into wire baskets at the end of the table. The heads and tails are dropped into a bin in the centre of the table. One of the more expert girls can handle two fish at a time, and it is rare for a worker to cut a finger. The foreman expressed the opinion that less adept workers would probably be minus most of their's after a week.

The wire baskets are then placed in a measured solution of brine for a predetermined time.

At the canning-table the fish are packed tail first into the cans by hand. An average of ten to twelve fish go into each can, though with small fish as many as seventeen are packed. The full tins are placed on a travelling belt and conveyed to a machine, known as the "crimper," which lightly fixes a lid to each can. The inside rim of the lid is sealed with a rubber gasket. Thus the tin is known as the solderless can.

The tins then spend seventeen minutes in a miniature steam oven, known as an "exhauster," which, as its name implies, exhausts the can of air and produces the required vacuum. Emerging hot from the exhauster the cans must be handled with gloves and are put on a double seamer, which finally hermetically seals the tin. The tins are next washed in a bath of soda and hot water and packed into wire trollies before being cooked for ninety minutes at 220° F. in a retort holding 1,500 cans. Then they are suddenly cooled in cold water.

This process kills any bacteria in the fish and leaves the can ready for consumption. The cans are stored (or incubated) for at least ten days in order to give any faults in the canning time to appear. Labelled and packed four or five dozen to a case, they are ready for the mess tables of the Services.

The fish are about 6 to 7 in. long with a silver belly and a blue and green mottled back. The fish heads, guts, and tail are now dumped, though some are used by fishermen for bait. With proper machinery fish-oils could be extracted from them and the residue dehydrated into stock meals or valuable manures. In other parts of the world car paints of a highly lustrous quality are made from the scales. Secotine, or fish glue, is another by-product extracted from bone and scale waste.

The usual catch is about 200 cases, but since the cannery can use only roo cases at present and the catch of one night must be canned next day, the surplus is used in the making of anchovy.

The fish are transferred into casks, the operators taking care that there is one layer of salt to each layer of fish. After some days juices which might ferment are spilled off and replaced by brine solutions of specific strength.

Every day for six months the casks are inspected and the fish pressed down by weighted lids. The rate of "cure" is carefully observed and the brine manipulated accordingly. A remarkable feature of this process is that the usually termed "white meat" of the fish is seen to turn a distinct red colour typical of anchovies.

The kegs are then ready for shipment to manufacturers overseas, where the contents are mashed and sieved, the bones and excess salt removed, and the meat finely milled into sandwich pastes and flavouring sauces.

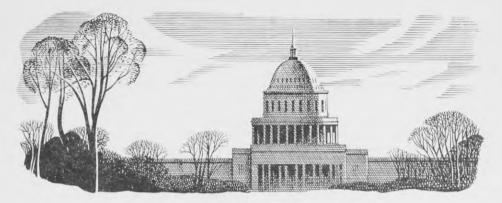
The casks, with their galvanized hoops, are made in Christchurch. Holes are plugged with ranpo—a trick which seems of Maori origin. The cans are made in Wellington.

The whole factory is being improved and large freezing chambers are almost completed. These will help to keep the cannery staff regularly occupied because on stormy days when the trawlers cannot put to sea the workers can draw supplies from the freezer. Elsewhere in the world the vagaries of fish-catching mean much idle time. The catching season lasts only six months of the year, but so far the work of labelling has kept the staff busy during the off season. Last year during a rush period the ladies' patriotic committee of Picton provided voluntary labour for labelling the cans.

One of the happiest features of this infant industry is the act that it provides congenial work for the Maori population of Picton, and provides it close to their own homes. And if the best test of whether a Maori is "happy in his work" is whether you can hear him singing, then the employees of this factory must be more than satisfied. Maori harmony echoes through the old building all day long, and the smiles on the workers' faces do not seem to be reserved only for pay-day.



"Topping and tailing" the pilchards. The fish are taken from the mass in the middle of the table and, after being cleaned, are dropped into a water flume, which carries them down to wire baskets.



### **BACK TO ISOLATION?**

### By CARROLL BINDER, in Transatlantic

Will the United States continue to collaborate with the other United Nations after the war or will it revert to a policy of isolationism as it did after the last war?

ANSWER to that momentous question is a secret locked in the minds of 48,000,000 men and women of diverse cultural levels, racial origins, and social aspirations scattered over 3,000,000 square miles of territory. They are the adult citizens who every two years elect all of the members of the Lower House of Congress and one-third of the ninety-six members of the Senate and every four years elect the President of the United States. They exercise ultimate control over the foreign relations as well as the domestic policies of the republic. Neither the chief executive nor the legislators can long disregard the will of this great sovereignty. Not even a war for survival suspends or adjourns the biennial holding of this decisive national referendum, which will next occur in the first week of November, 1944.

The most that one can do, therefore, to help the citizens of another nation assess the prospects of continued American collaboration is to describe as faithfully as possible the present temper of his countrymen and point out factors likely to influence their voting.

That is not an easy task in any country. It is particularly difficult in the case of the United States because a very large part of the electorate ordinarily is more influenced by domestic considerations than by foreign relations in choosing a President and members of Congress.

What a member of Congress does or attempts to do for the people of his constituency in the way of direct benefits —such as agricultural subsidies, public works, tariff or other measures visibly affecting the prosperity of a local industry or some considerable element in the community—ordinarily exercises a larger influence on his political fortunes than his stand on international questions.

That explains the re-election in 1942 of many members of Congress whose extreme isolationism prior to Pearl Harbour might have been expected to lead to their retirement from public life by a disillusioned and reproving citizenry.

In some constituencies the sentiments of a large and coherent national, racial, or sectarian bloc such as Poles, Irish, Jews, or Mormons may be decisive in the election of a Congressman or, in fewer instances, even a Senator. The Irish voters may be three generations removed from Ireland and thoroughly American in all other respects, but the Congressman from a predominantly Irish district cannot overlook the surviving anti-English sentiments of his electors in voting on matters where American relations with Great Britain are prominently concerned.

These elements, however, are too small a minority in the nation as a whole to dictate national policy. Happily the prejudices and aspirations brought from the old world to the new are a diminishing factor in American political life.

Domestic issues usually influence the American voter's choice of a President no less than his choice of a legislator. To the typical American voter, Franklin D. Roosevelt is not the great world leader perceived by people of other lands, but a politician whose efforts to reshape the political, social, and economic structure of the United States during the past decade have aroused the warm admiration of some sections of the electorate and the bitterest hostility of other sections.

Not even the President's role of Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the United States in the greatest of all wars and embodiment of the Government in relations with other nations influences the foes of the New Deal to modify their opposition to "that man in the White House." These people are as determined to prevent Mr. Roosevelt from returning to the Presidency in 1944 as his admirers are willing to have him break precedent by taking office for a fourth term. (By tradition no other President has ever held office for more than two terms.)

The very fact that Mr. Roosevelt stands for a policy of collaboration with other nations prejudices the bitterer anti-New-Dealers against the policy of collaboration which, under other circumstances, some of them might view more favourably.

Likewise some ardent New-Dealers who otherwise might be isolationists will support a policy of collaboration because their cherished leader favours it.

Such is the broad framework in which the American people will choose the men who will determine the character and the degree of the collaboration of the United States with other nations after 1944. What do these electors think about their country's relations with other nations—insofar as they think about such matters at all ?

The thoughts of many of the voters are too vague and confused to be reduced to simple clear-cut expression, but one aspiration underlies nearly everyone's thinking. They want this war to be won as quickly as possible in order that their sons, husbands, and brothers may return to their homes, never again to engage in foreign wars. The overwhelming majority of Americans take no delight in war and the military life. They expect no individual or collective benefits from the war except an opportunity to revert to the kind of lives they led before rampant Japanese, German, and Italian militarism forced them to take up arms.

A small minority of Americans may dream dreams of dominating the rest of the world. Another small minority may dream dreams of emancipating the rest of the world and leading it into the larger life. The great majority is not at all interested in either minority's dreams and will do nothing to implement either dream. The majority of Americans found it hard to believe, prior to Pearl Harbour, that the Germans or Japanese actually cared so much about world dominion that they would deliberately fight the United States to achieve it. Once attacked, Americans of every viewpoint threw all that they cherish into the struggle to defeat those who would subjugate them.

American opinion is united in the aspiration to avoid involvement in future wars, but seriously divided as to how to realize that aspiration.

One section believes that only through continued collaboration of the United Nations after the armistice can Japan and Germany be prevented from making fresh attempts to conquer the free peoples.

This school is prepared to make a considerable American military, economic, and political contribution to the policing and reconstruction of the world. Some holding this view are willing to subordinate American sovereignty so far as necessary to create an effective world order, while others believe peace can be preserved by teamwork in a new Holy Alliance of powers such as the United States, Great Britain, and Russia without modification of national sovereignty.

Another section of American opinion still believes that we became involved in the war only because we "meddled in other people's business" and that our sole hope of avoiding future wars is reversion to a policy of isolation as quickly as possible after the armistice.

Between these two quite distinct views are ranged the great body of the people who have very hazy and somewhat contradictory ideas as to how to keep out of future wars and best safeguard the security and well-being of the nation.

The reader will be greatly mistaken if he assumes this middle group is uninformed and indifferent about events outside the United States. No people in the world, not excepting the English, reads and listens to so many reports and discussions of foreign affairs as the Americans. The newspapers and the radio give an immense amount of attention to foreign news and opinion about foreign affairs. Organizations of women, small-town business and professional men, as well as metropolitan bankers and industrialists, gladly pay fees of from £20 to £200 (it takes a pre-primeministership Churchill or an H. G. Wells to command the latter fee !) for addresses on foreign affairs. They pay visiting lesser-known English, Indian, Chinese, French, and other lecturers generously for addresses for which in almost any other country the speaker would have to hire his own hall, if a hearing could be obtained at all.

It is much easier to get a large audience to listen to a lecture about Russia, Gandhi, or the future of the British Empire than it is to get attendance at a meeting discussing ways of improving municipal government or reducing taxes.

Millions of Americans have been abroad, and other millions prior to the war maintained contact with the lands from which they or their forebears came. The reluctance of this great middle body of Americans, whose attitude will largely determine the role played by their country in post-war affairs, to decide to join with other nations in measures designed to prevent future wars and create a stable world order thus arises out of other factors than parochialism and ignorance.

One of those factors is an intense nationalistic independence, which cannot brook the thought of even severely limited subordination to other nations. This should not be difficult to comprehend by any one familiar with the long struggle to achieve national authority over the united individual American States. Even in war it is exceedingly difficult for Americans to accept military command by non-Americans, however superior the foreigners may appear to be in experience.

This objection to foreign authority may make politically difficult any arrangement for post-war policing which involves service for a considerable period by American naval or military units under other than their own commanders. An arrangement which gave the American units responsibility for a given sphere perhaps would be more readily accepted than a proposal involving joint participation. Englishmen who willingly accepted the supreme command of General Eisenhower may resent such a non-reciprocal American mood, but the existence of the mood should not be overlooked.

The histories studied by many Americans have fostered widely prevalent misconceptions as to the United States' ability to keep out of foreign wars involving naval operations in the Atlantic and the security afforded by its geographical position. Few Americans realize that the numerous wars in which they have participated for the past 250 years were phases of struggles between the European powers rather than isolated conflicts.

Whether Colonel Lindberg and other pre Pearl Harbour isolationists will succeed in reconvincing any large section of the public that our geographical position will enable the United States to keep out of future conflicts in the light of contemporary air and sea warfare only time will tell. Already the isolationists are attempting to use the airplane to sustain their thesis of a selfsufficient non-collaborationist America as the surest path to peace and security in the post-war world.

The more moderate pre Pearl Harbour isolationists are devoting all their efforts to the furthering of the war effort. Some of them have admitted a change of heart. Others, notably the McCormick-Patterson families, which control newspapers with large circulations in Chicago, New York, and Washington, and William Randolph Hearst, who at eighty still directs the policies of a number of widely circulated newspapers, vigorously strive to restore the United States to a policy of isolationism at the earliest possible moment

The press in the United States, as in Great Britain, is free. The majority of American newspapers exercise this prerogative with the greatest discernment. There are many editorial advocates of post-war collaboration. The McCormick-Patterson-Hearst and other strongly isolationist newspapers, on the other hand, do not consider it unpatriotic to foster in the minds of their readers suspicions as to the good faith and future lovalty of our present British and Russian allies. They exploit the antipathy of a large section of the American electorate to Russian communism and atheism and delight in attacking what they consider to be the evils of the British Empire.

Civilians experiencing shortages of meat, sugar, shoes, gasoline, and other rationed articles for the first time in their lives are given the impression by conspicuously featured news articles and editorials in the isolationist press that the allies are being lavishly supplied with what American Armed Forces and civilians otherwise might be enjoying. This propaganda, the unfairness and shortsightedness of which is understood and resented by the more thoughtful citizens, undoubtedly will be intensified if rationing is continued during the post-war period to assist the liberated peoples.

The controversies between the Polish Government in exile and Russia over post-war boundaries, execution of the Polish labour leaders and treatment of Polish subjects in Russia, are exploited with an obvious view to embarrassing present prospective collaboration between the United States and Russia.

Another isolationist tactic is to argue that Japan, not Germany, is America's real enemy, and that the grand strategy of devoting most of America's military effort at this stage of the war to fighting Germany serves British and Russian rather than American interests. Americans are warned that eventually they may be obliged to fight Japan without assistance from either Britain or Russia and that the failure to concentrate our strength against Japan now is highly perilous.

The *Chicago Tribune* is the most vehement exponent of this view, but isolationist members of Congress also espouse it.

It should be understood in reading these disagreeable passages that more enlightened and accurate views of the relations between the Allies and of the long-term best interests of the United States are constantly being voiced by a majority of the newspapers, radio commentators, and members of Congress. Such extreme isolationists definitely are a minority to-day. There is no reason to assume that they may become a majority.

Their arguments, however, are being persistently placed before the voters, who have not thus far made up their minds as to how the United States can best safeguard itself after the war, and they cannot be disregarded in evaluating American trends.

The isolationists are endeavouring to capture the leadership of the Republican party and to win control of national policy in the 1944 elections or some subsequent election. Their efforts to date have made little apparent headway, but it is much too early to gauge their prospects.

It would be a mistake, however, to assume that the Republicans to-day are the party of isolation and the Democrats the party of collaboration with other nations. Senators Wheeler, of Montana, Clark, of Missouri, and Walsh, of Massachusetts, for example, are Democratic isolationists. The New York Herald Tribune, at least as consistent a supporter of the Republican party as the Chicago Tribune, ably and vigorously supports a policy of collaboration. Wendell Willkie remains the titular head of the Republican party until someone else is nominated for the presidency. Willkie is a militant champion of collaboration.

Willkie's views are strongly supported by such Republican office holders as Governor Harold E. Stassen, of Minnesota (now Lieutenant-Commander on active duty with the U.S. Navy), who said recently " the walls of isolation are down for ever," and Senators Ball, of Minnesota, and Burton, of Ohio, who, in collaboration with two Democratic senators, have introduced in the Senate a resolution calling for the establishment now of a United Nations organization for post-war action.

The favourite candidate of the isolationists for the Republican nomina-



moment appears to be Governor John W. Bricker, of Ohio, who has been characterized as "an honest Harding." Harding was the Ohio Senator who succeeded Woodrow Wilson in the presidency in 1920 by run-

tion at the

Governor J. W. Bricker,

platform which some eminent Republicans commended to the electors as advocating American participation in a modified League of Nations while other eminent Republicans construed it as rejecting American membership in the League. After he had been elected by an enormous majority, Harding declared his election to be a repudiation of American participation in any form of international organization.

In trying to estimate what the United States will do after the armistice it may be well to remember that in 1920 a substantial majority of the Senators (two-thirds of whom must approve a treaty to make it effective) favoured ratification of the League of Nations project. A switch of seven negative votes on March 19, 1920, would have provided the necessary two-thirds majority and possibly would have profoundly modified the course of American and world history during the succeeding two decades.

In a speech on April 7 Governor Bricker revealed reluctance to commit himself to either the isolationist or the collaborationist view. "America," he said. " is not, never has been, and never will be an isolationist nation. The term defines nothing. America must deal with the other nations of the world, and America must assume leadership. The term 'internationalist' is just as absurd. No sane man would think of national lines out OT wiping subordinating his own Government to a foreign authority. Isn't that what the United Nations are fighting to prevent ? "

Bricker and candidates like him probably will try to straddle until they sense clearly to what extent, if any, the majority of the American people, after the armistice, desire to contribute their military, economic, and political resources to joint efforts to police and rehabilitate the world. If the war has ended or victory appears assured in November, 1944, the candidates most likely to win electoral favour, are those who come nearest to convincing the majority of the electorate that what they do will involve the minimum risk of America getting into another war and won't involve excessive personal hardships in the way of rationing or increased taxes.

Meantime organizations such as the newly-formed Non-Partisan Council to Win the Peace, which is a federation of groups advocating bold American collaboration, and newspapers and publicists sharing this view, are doing their best to convince the voters who have not thus far made up their minds that collaboration is the only course of enlightened selfinterest for the citizen and the nation.



"INCLUDE ME IN "

This cartoon shows Governor J. W. Bricker, of Ohio, hopefully astride the Republican elephant, the elephant being the traditional cartoonist's symbol for the Republican Party and the donkey for the Democratic Party. The ball and chain are supposed to represent Governor Bricker's main liability: the belief that he has only been astraddle the issues of the day.

There is no reason to assume that the United States will cease to collaborate after the war, although it would be a mistake to assume that such collaboration is inevitable. Continuance by the Government and people of Great Britain of their able and effective efforts to achieve the fullest measure of cooperation with the United States is certain to strengthen the tendencies to collaboration in the United States. Weakening or abandonment of those British efforts would play into the hands of those elements in the United States bent upon recommitting the United States to a policy of isolation, which, in the writer's opinion, would be suicidal.

### POLAND

### A KORERO Report

Within the last few weeks the Governments of Russia and Poland have ventilated in public those grave differences which have long been implicit between them. There has been talk of a Polish problem, of frontier disputes about former boundaries, and reference to the Curzon Line. What is the meaning and origin of this trouble ?

**T**<sup>N</sup> BRIEF, it may be said that the Polish problem exists because the Poles are a highly destinctive racial group who have few clearly defined natural boundaries. The south is the exception. There the Carpathians form a sort of natural frontier which elsewhere in Poland can scarcely be said to exist.

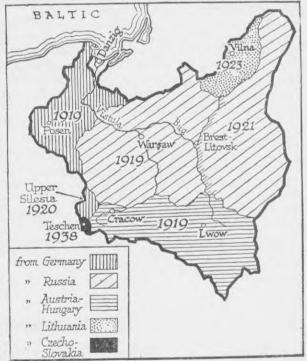
Over a thousand years ago the Polish state began to take shape between the Oder and Vistula rivers. Poles have generally tended to expand to the east

and on the west to entrench themselves against their Teutonic foes behind the Oder. Up in the north the Germans have usually managed to maintain their supremacy in the Baltic, for the Poles have rarely been a sea-going people. The very name "Poland" means a field or flat land, and there, in the absence of geographical boundaries, lies the source of Poland's ills.

In the east frontiers have been very vague and have shifted much over the last eight centuries. The Polish kingdom at one time extended to within a few hundred miles of Moscow. The only real dividing-line between Poland and Russia is that of culture and religion. Poland received the Christian faith not from Constantinople, as one might have expected, but from Rome. As a result she has continually looked to the west as the source of her culture, the model of her way of life. Historically she has always been the last bastion of western influence, the buffer between Europe and the east.

In the past her Catholicism divided her from Protestant Prussia on the one hand and from Russia's Greek Orthodox tradition on the other. To-day it cuts her off just as much from the Nazism of her western foe as from the Communism of her neighbour in the East.

For over a hundred years before the last war Poland as an independent nation had ceased to exist. In 1772 her three powerful neighbours—Russia, Prussia, and Austria—began to lop off bits. A



Map A, showing how Poland was reconstructed after the last war.

further partition came in 1792; the end was three years later. By that time four-fifths of the country was in the hands of the Czar, the rest divided between Prussia and Austria.

During the Great War each of her masters promised her liberty. But so did the Allies, and by 1917 the majority of the Poles had staked everything on an Allied victory.

Look at Map A and you will see how on her western front Poland was reconstructed after the last war. Austria gave up the province of Galicia : Germany had to hand over West Prussia and Posen. A plebiscite was ordered in East Prussia. It was carried out in 1920, the result being favourable to Germany. The rich industrial triangle of Upper Silesia, with its hopelessly mixed population, returned seven to five in favour of Germany. The frontier, therefore, had to be drawn on a proportional basis, with results far more satisfactory than could have been hoped. Danzig became a free city and the port of Poland.

On map B you will find the famous Curzon Line, a provisional administrative line fixed in 1920. However, the Poles fought on. winning from the Soviet Union in 1921 an important stretch of country to the east of the Bug River. These gains were consolidated by the capture of Vilna two years later. Poland was now a satisfied power with strategic frontiers behind which alone she could feel secure. These gains are marked in Map A. The new boundaries were acknowledged by Britain, France, and the United States in 1923.

However, the Sudeten crisis developed a new threat from the west, so Poland occupied the small but economically important area of Teschen, which had long been matter for dispute with Czechoslovakia.

The total population of Poland was 32,000,000 in 1931, an increase of onequarter since the last war. About twothirds of her population before the present war were Polish. Less than 3 per cent. were Germans; 9 per cent. were Jews, now greatly reduced by Nazi methods of extermination. White Russian and Ukrainians together totalled 17 per cent.; they inhabit the eastern districts now annexed by the U.S.S.R.

In 1939, as you will see in Map B, Poland was again partitioned by Russia and Germany. The new Eastern Frontier, the so-called Ribbentrop Line, agrees in part with the Curzon Line of 1920. Notice, however, the significant acquisition by Russia of the important bulge of which Bialystok is the centre. There the population is almost purely Polish.

To-day Poland has no boundaries except such as are hastily established and as quickly abandoned by her enemies. The true face of Poland is for the moment obscured by the ebb and flood of battle, wave upon wave of her historic foes clashing together on Polish soil.

### Korero Illustrations

The cover for this issue of *Korero* is a reproduction of Russell Clark's "Conversation," which will be seen in the Artists In Uniform Exhibition. The other illustrations, except the photographs and the cartoon on page 22 are by *Korero* staff artists.



Map B, showing by a light dotted line the famous Curzon Line, a provisional administrative line fixed in 1920. The black broken line shows the frontier fixed by Russia and Germany in September, 1939, and the continuous black line shows Poland's boundaries before September, 1939.



### FLEET BATTLE TACTICS

### Basic Ideas Survive New Air-Sea Factors

From Salt, Australian Army Education Journal

NAVAL ACTION in the Gilberts and Solomons has led to much speculation—will the Jap. Navy fight?

The Nips have been using their fleet mostly for convoy work, and have lost more ships to Allied planes and subs. than in battle. But, with the everincreasing strength of the United States Navy and the prospect of victory in Europe eventually freeing the British Fleet, the enemy will have to join battle sooner or later. Though air power has changed the face of sea warfare (such points as nearness to land-based planes can decide battles), basic fleet battle tactics remain the same.

It is possible, of course, only to discuss "ideal" conditions, "ideal" circumstances—the bases upon which a naval commander would work, although such circumstances would rarely be experienced under war conditions.

How would an "ideal" fleet make ready for battle—what would be its tactics? Strangely, despite steel and armour, oil and speed, Nelson's eye would light with understanding of today's naval fights. He would recognize their tactics, though destrovers, cruisers, submarines, aircraft-carriers have replaced his canvassed sloops, corvettes, and frigates.

First let us look at a perfect battle disposition. Most highly prized, most potent ships of destruction are the battleships. They, together with their big new sisters, the aircraft-carriers, are the targets for most vicious attack. If a battle fleet should lose its big ships (and the enemy retain his), it loses any edge it may have had and most chances of winning.

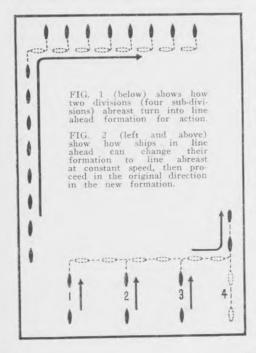
Consequently heavy cruisers, fast light cruisers, and destroyers are deployed around and about the battleships in protective screens. Their task also is to swap punches with any enemy craft within range. In an ideal fleet another cruiser force with its own destroyer protection would be held in reserve.

Perhaps 50 to 60 miles away from the fighting core of the fleet, in this imaginary, "perfect" set-up, would be watchful screens of cruisers and destroyers to prevent enemy attempts to reinforce. The Admiral must decide where to place his carriers—with the battleships or a safe distance away—as much as 100 miles. Sailors still find that the simple formation is the best. Nelson's seamanship would be equal to handling a modern fleet. Ships no longer close with one another for boarding, but they still try to close the range (though the battle may begin without one ship sighting another).

In wartime ships cruise conveniently in divisions—usually a division consists of four ships. Each division is then broken down to two subdivisions (as in Fig. 1) with ships paired according to like speeds.

The "ideal" battle formation of a squadron is single line—each ship following the other. In sailor language, ships sail in "line ahead." This time-honoured tactic is still superior because the Admiral can make the most of his hitting-power by using it. All his heavy guns can fire through an arc of 120 degrees on either beam.

If the enemy Admiral should adopt a roughly similar battle pattern, both fleets will then strike parallel courses, closing the range until they are exchanging shell for shell. The Admiral's



supreme task is to keep his enemy within his arc of fire.

"Line ahead " is the classical deployment used in a surface action, but when battle is not imminent it is usually safer to cruise " line abreast." In this deployment the ships sail beside one another. This is to cut down the menace from submarines. Ships in a long line are a tasty target for smart-shooting subs. Sailing line abreast, our eight ships would probably not sail in a single line, because keeping station is no easy job. It might, rather, sail in its two divisions of four ships (as in Fig. 1).

Ships' speeds vary. A battle squadron sails at equal speed, knots being decided by the Admiral. This helps to make swift manœuvring easy when "action stations" is given.

The Admiral may be cruising in "line abreast" when the enemy is reported. No time can be wasted by switching ships about in intricate patterns to take up battle stations. Equal speed helps him to ring the changes on the two basic formations—"line ahead" and "line abreast."

If the ships change to "line ahead," the movement is somewhat as shown in Fig. 1 (one subdivision steaming straight ahead, the others turning toward it, and turning up behind it). But such a manœuvre is by no means as simple as it may appear on paper.

To change back to "line abreast" the leading ship turns at a right angle— 8 compass points or 90 degrees—and sails on. The others "turn in succession." When they are all in line, all swing their helms and proceed in the original direction in line abreast (Fig. 2).

There are, of course, "unequal speed manœuvres," but they are seldom fast enough to be taken up when the enemy is about.

To put the enemy at the greatest disadvantage, the Admiral will try to throw his fleet across the enemy path. For example, our ships are in line ahead, with the enemy also in line ahead, bearing down at approximately right angles to our line (but farther away from where the two lines meet). As we cross the enemy's path our squadron can concentrate the fire of all ships on the enemy leader (Fig. 3). As the discomforted enemy Admiral switches his fleet to get *his* greatest arc of fire, each of his ships is open to our pummelling as it "turns the corner" (Fig. 4). Do wide-awake Admirals fall into such a simple trap? Well, it happened at Jutland.

Battle joined, the Admiral may wish to take advantage of his superior speed by opening range. Or he may want to open range because he is being worsted at the closer range. To open range each ship turns away a few degrees together to take up the new line of formation. It doesn't greatly affect firing, but only faster fleets can "sidle" in this way.

Battleships and cruisers need destroyer support, almost always. These little chaps are the counter when the enemy destroyers close in to launch torpedoes. Until this happens destroyers on both sides remain close to their respective battleships. This is a case of mutual aid, for not only are the destroyers protected by the heavy guns, but they themselves form a protective screen for the battleships, guarding against possible submarines and adding their gunfire against enemy aircraft. When called,

FIG. 3: Great tactical advan-tage of placing fleet in line ahead across enemy's path. All guns can then bear on leading ship in enemy's line. FIG. 4 (below): The enemy is then heavily punished as he turns in succession into line ahead.

the destroyers rush through the line of the bigger ships to tackle the enemy. In theory, and sometimes in practice, the destroyer flotillas should meet midway between the opposing fleets, our destroyers keeping the enemy at a sufficient distance to prevent their tin-fish doing any harm. They, too, will fight in line ahead if possible.

If the squadron's Admiral is being worsted, he may think it prudent to break off the action. Under cover of a smoke screen, he will order his ships to make a dash for it.

Line ahead and line abreast, then, are the classical tactics of the sea engagement. Naturally, in war at sea, as on land, the unexpected generally happens, upsetting the calculations of even the most far-sighted Admirals. Success or failure in battle is more likely to depend on an Admiral's ability to improvise on his whole experience and seamanship than on his "text-book" moves.

Each battle has its own surprises, its own moves which do not appear in the rules. One major fight in this war, however, came closer to repeating the text-book moves than others—the Battle of the Java Sea.

Four different navies supplied the ships for the Allied fleet in the Java Sea. In addition, several of the Allied ships were not really sea-worthy, having been damaged in the bitter running fight with the swarming Japanese.

Two British destroyers, "Jupiter" and "Electra," led the Allied line. Then followed the Dutch heavy cruiser "De Ruyter," the British cruiser "Exeter," the U.S. "Houston," Australia's "Perth," the Dutch cruiser "Java." There were four Dutch destroyers to port and four Americans astern. All were in line ahead. Jap. opposition was two heavy cruisers, six light cruisers, eight destroyers. Despite damage to "Exeter" and "Houston," Doorman, the Dutch Admiral, closed with the enemy. For a time the Allied battle line held its own with superb gunnery.

The eight Jap. destroyers then turned in for a torpedo attack on the Allied line. But Allied shelling set the two Jap. heavy cruisers afire, and four Nip destroyers were diverted to cover them. But the other four came on under cover of a smoke-screen. "Jupiter" and "Electra," the only Allied destroyers available, dashed in against hopeless odds. They were not seen again. Then " Perth " "Exeter" was badly hit. and "De Ruyter" turned line abreast to cover her, with the result that the Allied battle line was broken up. The four Dutch destroyers, rushing in around the cruisers, clashed with the Jap. destroyers. One blew up, but the four American destroyers, covering the general retreat, sank two of the attackers.

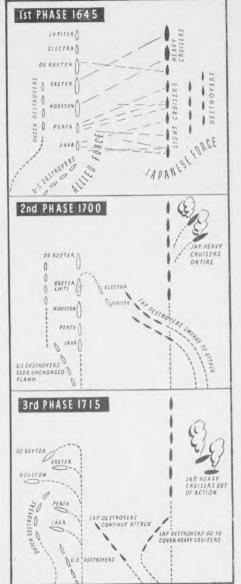
Though scattered, the gallant little Allied fleet had fought an action in the classic manner against heaviest odds. Its seamanship was not wanting. It had closed the range, sailing in line ahead. It brought its greatest fire-power to bear at the right spots at the closest range. By knocking out the Jap. heavies first, the fleet had done the right thing. Chance tipped the balance.

There have been other actions at sea where aircraft from opposing fleets have done all the fighting—notably Midway and the Battle of the Coral Sea. Both were resounding victories for the Air Arm. Yet there have been surface engagements where ships and aircraft have slugged it out.

Of the five tangled sea engagements fought around the Solomons, several were fought at night. In a night fight anything can, and usually does, happen. In the last and most important night clash around Guadalcanal U.S.S. "San Francisco," by running the gauntlet of two Jap. battle lines, did the totally unexpected, as a result, the Jap. ships fired madly, and not unsuccessfully, at one another.

In a night action the element of surprise is all-important. Other things being equal, success will go to the side whose guns speak first.

Experience of aircraft attack undoubtedly has resulted in some tactical amendments to normal practice. The sailor has to be ready for everything. Training, steadiness, guts, stout ships these still remain the background of real sea power; in these, the timehonoured tactics of handling a fleet in battle still hold their place.



After hitting Jap. heavies at 25,000 yards, Allied cruisers close in for first phase. In second phase, with "Exeter" and Jap. heavy cruisers ailing, English destroyers turn to meet Jap. destroyers' attack. In third phase, Allied cruisers turn away in line abreast (English destroyers have disappeared), while Dutch destroyers and U.S. destroyers move to meet attacking Jap. destroyers.

## BULGARIA

### A KORERO Report

A GLANCE at the map will show quite plainly why the R.A.F. is concentrating such a weight of attack on Bulgaria. In a way she is not likely to forget, Sofia is learning about chickens that come home to roost. Her astute King Boris had survived the perilous game of Balkan politics to become in 1935, the virtual dictator of his country. He would perhaps have preferred to stay out of the war. In 1940 he could still say : "My Ministers are pro-German, my wife pro-Italian, my people pro-Russian—I alone am neutral."

But Bulgaria was necessary to Hitler, and Boris accepted the dangerous honour of the Fuehrer's friend. So, without firing a shot, his Army assumed control over parts of Rumania, Yugoslavia, Macedonia and Greece.

It was one thing to give Germany invaluable bases against weaker neighbours; to enter the lists against Russia was a different matter altogether. The Bulgarian people, peasants especially, have an instinctive and traditional friendship towards Russia. A succession of incidents might create the utmost tension, but the shrewd ruler of Bulgaria dared not go so far.

Indeed, since the end of 1942 Bulgaria has felt much less certain of an Axis victory. Production has fallen to an alarming degree; men want to get back to their farms. Many junior officers are believed to be pro-Russian, while the saner elements throughout the country now realize that Bulgaria cannot hope to keep her shady bargains.

In addition, there is a powerful underground movement, violent and well organized, which has liquidated hundreds of Axis supporters and possibly King Boris himself.

Italy's surrender has made its deepest impression on the Balkans, bringing to our oppressed Allies fresh hope, to Hungary and Bulgaria the gravest fears. Hitler, moreover, has avowed the destruction of the House of Savoy, the Italian Roval House. It is well to remember that the young King of Bulgaria is half-Italian and the widowed Queen a daughter of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy. In Court and Cabinet German influence is probably no longer supreme.

Unfortunately, since the military coup of 1934 the country has been under a dictatorship. Consequently there exists no Opposition to start the break with the Axis.

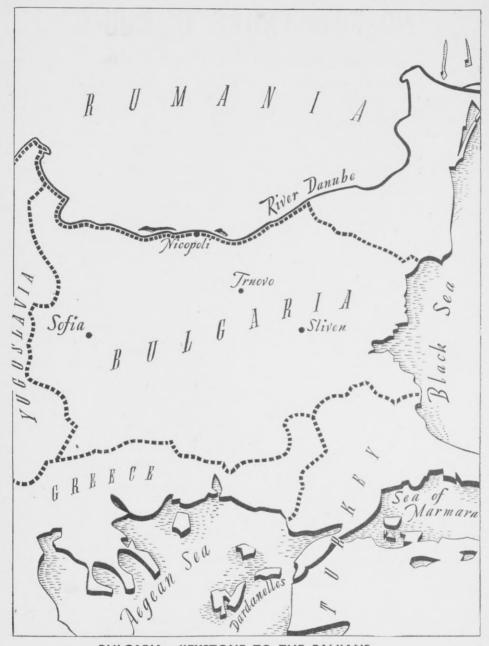
Bulgaria's 40-odd divisions, with their old-fashioned equipment, are thinly strung out over areas once guarded by Italy. In the lands they have occupied Bulgarian troops have surpassed even their record of atrocities in the last war. To-day they have cause to fear the worst as Allied bombers roar overhead from Italian bases bringing swift retribution to gamblers who backed the wrong horse. To south and west Greeks and Yugoslavs wait for the day of revenge, while beyond them looms the imminent fear of Allied invasion.

To-day, more than ever before, Hitler is desperately dependent on Bulgaria's support. He is pouring in troops, determined that Germany shall defend herself on Bulgaria's soil and at her expense.

Meanwhile, the Allied Air Forces continue the grim business of pounding Bulgaria into submission, and Sofia nervously awaits the fate of Hamburg and Berlin. For Bulgaria is the keystone to the Balkans.

Germans recall all too well the collapse of Bulgaria and its consequences in the last war. Two months later they were themselves forced to surrender. Those are bitter memories for the German people. They have been promised there will not be another 1918.

But this time there is Russia also to be considered. The destruction of Hitler's Balkan favourite would wreck his plans for defending his south-eastern fortress; but, more, it would have profound and far-reaching effects on the morale of the German people.



BULGARIA : KEYSTONE TO THE BALKANS This map shows Bulgaria's important position in the Balkans. The loss of Bulgaria would wreck Hitler's plans for defending his south-eastern fortress.

### NO FILM FRILLS IN CHINA

### By CLYDE FARNSWORTH, in the New York Times

 $T_{\rm room \ of \ a}^{\rm HE \ SCENE \ was \ the \ spacious \ living-room \ of \ a \ wealthy \ Chinese \ in \ Burma. \ His \ wife, \ bayoneted \ by$ 

a little bull-necked Japanese, started to sink slowly to the floor, pressing her side with her hands. The body of her son, also bayoneted, lay sprawled face down behind her. The daughter, whose careful coiffure had been enhanced by the addition of yellow flowers over her left ear, stepped to the mother's side, holding her in her arms. The mother went completely limp and the daughter, in this last embrace, cried out, "Mama, mama !"

Then a man in a brown tweed suit yelled "cut!" Another scene of "The Border Front," current production of the China Motion Picture Corporation, had been filmed.

The girl in this scene was Lily Lee, a favorite at the box offices in Free China, who, it seemed to this old neighborhood movie-goer, should rate in any league. As the heroine of "The Border Front" she will join the Chinese forces who fought in Burma, will help bring to book a Japanese spy, who sends messages on a secret radio transmitter hidden in a coffin, and will fall in love with a handsome young Chinese officer, who cannot return her love because of the call of duty.

The movie industry in free China is a weapon of war and conforms to the conditions of a country all but cut off from the rest of the world. The China Motion Picture Corporation is affiliated with the National Military Council and employees are paid on a military scale. Miss Lee's pay, figured between that of lieutenant-colonel and colonel, does not exceed, with subsistence allowanees, two thousand Chinese dollars monthly—one hundred American dollars at the official rate.

Miss Lee and the other players use the same make-up room. They live together in dormitories within the compound occupied by the corporation.

Off the set she wears a sport shirt,

slacks, and sport shoes. She works by night and sleeps by day with no sleepingmask. The municipal electric-power supply is so inadequate that studio shooting commences only around midnight, when most of Chungking has turned out its lights and gone to bed.

The China Motion Picture Corporation's one old model camera is a refugee from the Japanese occupation of Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, and Hongkong. Camera noise is muffled from the microphone with a home-made square of cotton quilting. The mike, when not in use, is swaddled in soft cloth and guarded like the crown jewels of a Manchu emperor.

Directors rarely shoot more than three takes of any scene. With only one camera there is no cross cutting of a scene. There is no printing of "rushes." In editing the best takes are selected directly from the negative. A director may have to work without knowing where his next reel of unexposed film is coming from.

Production was started on "The Border Front" with only 10,000 ft. of fresh film on hand. At a three-to-one ratio in takes at least 20,000 more feet of film will be needed to complete this 10,000-foot feature. Ho Fei-Kwan, the director and author, hopes to get film from India before his stock runs out. Excluding the cost of the film (two Chinese dollars a foot at the old rate), "The Border Front" is expected to cost 1,700,000 Chinese dollars, approximately \$85,000 in American currency.

Technicians and actors work both in front and behind the camera. The Japanese soldier who bayoneted Lily's mother and brother is a cameraman picked for his face and figure. The author-director, who laboriously penned the script, camera directions, and sound specifications is himself an eminent actor. Miss Lee has ambitions to become a director and is looking forward to a Hollywood research trip when the film is completed.

### E. V. PAUL, Government Printer, Wellington