

Social and Spiritual Development Strand
Social Science

Unit 3: Transition and Change

Module 3.2 Independence



Lecturer Support Material

Acknowledgements

Materials written and compiled by Helen Walangu (PNGEI) and Aloisia Maradangoi (Balob Teachers' College) and Sue Lauer (PASTEP adviser)

Layout and diagrams supported by Nick Lauer.

Date: 28 March 2002



Primary and Secondary Teacher Education Project

Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID)
GRM International

Papua New Guinea-Australia Development Cooperation Program

Unit outline

Unit 3 Transition and Change	3.1 Skills for Investigating Change (Core)
	3.2 Independence (Core)
	3.3 PNG History – an Overview (Optional)
	3.4 Power, Control and Change (Optional)
	3.5 PNG at War (Optional)
	3.6 Technological Change (Optional)
	3.7 Pre-history and Archaeology (Optional)

Icons



Read or research



Write or summarise



Activity or discussion



Suggestion for lecturers

Table of contents

Module 3.2 – Independence	1
<i>Objectives.....</i>	<i>1</i>
Teaching Module 3.2: Independence	1
Module 3.2: Content.....	3
Topic 1: Australian Administration.....	3
<i>Australian military occupation 1914 – 1921</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>The Australian mandate 1921 – 1942</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>A wind of change 1947 – 1960.....</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Political change - Local Government Councils</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>The Legislative Council and House of Assembly</i>	<i>6</i>
Topic 2: Self-government.....	7
Topic 3: Post Independence.....	11
<i>The first national elections, 1977.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>Post-Independence</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>United Nations involvement</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>Personalities</i>	<i>17</i>
References	18

Module 3.2 – Independence

The module encourages students to value national events and to appreciate the processes of establishing democratic rule. It also encourages a sense of belonging to one nation.

Objectives

By the end of this module students will

1. Understand and be able to participate fully in independence celebrations
2. Develop a sense of responsibility in nation-building
3. Be aware of the value of democratic social structures
4. Recognise the cause, effect and consequences of decision-making by leaders
5. Understand the contexts in which change occurs

Teaching Module 3.2: Independence

- It is important to read through the module first, to decide what materials you will use, and what tasks and activities you will set for the students. It is also important to see how this module fits within the complete unit.
- The material is written as a resource for the teaching of this module.
- Do not expect students to work through the total module alone. There may be too much material and they will need assistance in determining the tasks required.
- Many of the activities have a number of questions to discuss and tasks to do. They are included to provide some ideas and stimulus, not necessarily to complete every part of each activity.
- The activities provide a focus for learning, and some may be suitable for developing into assessment tasks, but the activities are not written to be used as the assessment program.
- The Lecturer Support Material is the same as the Student Support Material, with additional notes included in the text boxes.
- Materials included as an appendix are included as additional information for lecturers. These may be photocopied for students where appropriate.
- Assessment tasks should be developed at unit level, recognising the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes across this module and others which make up the unit.


i Often history is only recorded from a male perspective, with stories of male achievement in war, exploration, government and development. The role of women is ignored or forgotten. This module provides an opportunity to examine gender roles in class discussions and research activities in each of the sections. It is important also that participants selected for interviews, surveys and as guest speakers are both male and female so that students are aware of different perspectives.

The strategies and activities outlined below may be substituted for any included in the module. The main emphasis in the teaching of each topic is to include a range of activities and to develop skills which will be useful for beginning teachers in their own classrooms.

- Library research e.g., stages in obtaining independence, first government
- Time lines e.g., developments since independence
- Media studies e.g., newspaper clippings documenting actions of particular leaders and governments
- Debate e.g., “PNG was not ready for independence”
- Commentaries e.g., critique of different players in the movement
- Discussion eg problems since independence
- Learn and discuss the significance of the words of the national anthem and national pledge
- Interview local people about what independence means to them
- Research /discuss independence movements in other countries

Module 3.2: Content

Topic 1: Australian Administration

 Topic 1 provides a brief overview of the lead-up to Independence. Students should be able to identify key dates, events and persons involved.

The type of government which we have in Papua New Guinea now was started by Europeans and Australia. In 1883 Queensland tried to take control of Papua by asking Britain to make Papua a British Protectorate. This meant that Britain agreed to help Papua without making Papua a part of Britain. Papua Became a British Protectorate in 1884. In 1906 Britain gave the newly Independent country of Australia the work of governing Papua, which Australia did until 1975.

New Guinea was a colony of Germany for thirty years. From 1885 to 1899 the colony was controlled by a business called the "New Guinea Company". In 1899 the German government took power to control New Guinea away from the New Guinea Company. The German government continued to govern New Guinea until 1914. During the First World War, Germany lost control of New Guinea. From 1914 until 1921 New Guinea was governed by Australian soldiers. In 1921 the League of Nations (now called the United Nations) asked Australia to continue to govern New Guinea.

Australian military occupation 1914 – 1921

In 1914, the direction of the history of Papua New Guinea was determined by events thousands of kilometres away in Europe. The dominant European industrial powers, Germany and Britain, clashed over the expansion of their colonial empires through which they acquired the raw materials which supported their factories. When this happened, their Pacific colonies, including Australian-held Papua and German-New Guinea, were inevitably affected. When the conflict erupted into a major European war, which came to be known as the First World, one tactic was to get Australia to despatch 2000 troops to take over German New Guinea.

The Australian force which arrived on 11th September, 1914 met little resistance. They occupied Rabaul, captured the radio station and within twenty-four hours proclaimed Australian military rule. The only serious losses were suffered by the native constabulary, some of whom fought bravely for the Germans although they did not understand the cause for which they were fighting. From Rabaul the Australians moved rapidly to occupy the entire German colony.

The change of masters, from Germans to the Australians, probably did not matter much to the local population. If there were any reactions at all there must have been based on how well or badly the Germans or the Australians treated the people. In places where Germans were kind to individual communities, the people may have resented the Australian takeover. In regions where the Germans had grabbed extensive tracts of land, such as around Madang and the

Gazelle Peninsula, the people most likely welcomed the Australians, at least during the early stages before they realised that the Australians had no intention of returning the land the Germans had taken.

The Australian military administrators, Colonel W. Holmes, Commander S.A. Pethebridge, Colonel S. S. Mackenzie, Acting Brigadier G. J. Johnston and Brigadier R. Griffiths were confronted by problems new to Australian colonial administrators. As well as controlling the resident German population, the administrators were expected to take responsibility for local people over whom the Germans had established only partial control. One major concern was the attempt to reconcile Australian military law with established German law. German businesses and plantation were left intact. Unco-operative Germans were deported to prison camps in Australia and those who undertook not to help the Germany, mostly officials and a few planters and missionaries were allowed to stay. Profits from German enterprises could not be sent back to Germany and some Germans invested in local Australian- controlled enterprises such as Burns Philip and W.R. Carpenter.

While the German administration had acted as a restraining influence on the planters, the planters managed to convince the Australian administration that they should enforce harsher labour laws. Hence, the people suffered more under this military administration than they had under the Germans. It is not too much to say that whatever attempts Albert Hahl, the last German administrator had made towards promoting the welfare and progress of the people of New Guinea disappeared under the Australians. The German official stations near Lae and Angoram were closed, patrolling was reduced, projects to develop local educational and medical facilities were shelved, roads, jetties and buildings fell in disuse and qualifications earned in German times were often ignored. The head tax continued to be collected, but whereas the Germans had at least felt that the head tax was a means of encouraging local participation in the cash economy, to the Australians it was often simply a means of raising revenue. At the same time ordinances which favoured plantation interests made villagers' participation in the cash economy more difficult and the most thriving local industry, copra, suffered especially from this practice.

The Australian mandate 1921 – 1942

After the 1914 to 1918 war, the League of Nations gave Australia a mandate or permission to govern the former German colony, and from 1921 to 1942 the area was known as the mandated territory of New Guinea.

Under Australian policy, established following another Royal Commission in 1919, it was decided against the wishes of administrator Murray in Papua, that the two territories Papua and New Guinea would continue to be administered separately. One of the effects of this decision was that in Papua, under Murray's administration, native rights such as land and labour were to some extent protected at the expense of European economic development, while in the Mandated Territory the administrators encouraged economic development in the interests of the Europeans at the expense of the rights of the local people.

A wind of change 1947 – 1960

Under the Trusteeship Agreement which Australia had made with the United Nations it had agreed to:

1. Give the people a greater share in the government of New Guinea.

2. Safeguard the freedom of the people.

The post-war administration had followed these rulings, but by 1951 it was time to give more details of just how Australia would complete the task it had accepted from the United Nations.

After the war, some communities and individual leaders in the country advocated massive economic, social, and political changes. These advocates of rapid changes were isolated by moves by the Australian government to centralise power and authority in Canberra. However, in practice, considerable power still resided with the Australian administrators in Port Moresby, Colonel J.K. Murray and Sir Donald Cleland, who helped shape as well as implement post-war policies. They laid a formal structure of government and made a significant contribution towards the goal of independence.

In July 1945, after the Japanese have been driven out of Papua New Guinea, the Australian government passed the Papua and New Guinea Provisional Act under which Papua and New Guinea were to be administered as a single territory known as Papua New Guinea. The Act was “provisional” because of the uncertain status of the mandated Territory after the collapse of the League of Nations. The situation was formalised with the passing of the Papua New Guinea Act in July 1949. Legislating for the single administration was in fact legitimising the situation which has existed during the war with the formation in 1942 of the Australian New Administrative Unit (ANGAU) to provide civil administration of all areas in Papua and New Guinea not under military occupation.

After the war, the Australian Labour Government made a commitment to a “New Deal” for Papua New Guinea. The Australia grant-in-aid was to be increased greatly. The aim was to provide facilities so that with better health and education, the Papua New Guineans could take part in the exploitation of their own resources and eventually manage their own affairs. The intention was that the interests of the local population were of major consideration and priority be given to the educational, economic and political progress of the people.

Policies to be implemented included:

- Abolition of the indentured system
- Repatriation of labourers to their villages
- Payment of some compensation for war damage
- Better facilities for education, health and welfare.

Under the Minister for External Territories, E.J. Ward, Australia began to fulfil these goals by increasing financial aid and moved to dismantle the legal and administrative barriers between Canberra and Port Moresby. The “New Deal” was in fact an expression of a “debt of gratitude”- a form of compensation for the contribution that Papua New Guineans had rendered during the war. However, the “New Deal” clouded an “Old Deal”. From 1884, both Australians and the Germans plundered the local resources and alienated land. From 1914, when the Australians acquired German plantations and gold was discovered, the wealth flowed into Australia. Thus while the Australians saw the “New Deal” as compensation for services provided by the people during the war, many Papua New Guineans felt that the “New Deal” should compensate for services provided and losses incurred in the previous fifty years.

Political change - Local Government Councils

An avenue in which some Papua New Guineans achieved a measure of political awareness was the local government councils. Some local government councils were established following the enactment of the Native Village Council Ordinance at the end of 1949. The main role of local government councils was to provide a link between the villagers and the administration in Port Moresby and to attempt to enforce European law. In Hasluck's view, an expansion of the system of local level government would help the village people to understand basic Western democratic processes. The implementation of this policy was hampered by the fact that the majority of the population was illiterate.

It would appear that the failure to make progress in establishing effective local government councils before 1960 was due partly to lack of funds and opposition amongst the coastal and island people, particularly the Tolais who distrusted earlier administration attempts to establish multi-racial local government bodies. The expansion of local government councils after 1960 was associated with the opening up of the highlands.

The Legislative Council and House of Assembly

From 1951 to 1961, the contribution of Papua New Guinean members to the Legislative council debates was very limited because they lacked Western education and skill in speaking the English language and the debates were conducted only in English. By the end of the decade, however, changes began to appear. A very good example is that the administration was forced in the early 1960s, by the minority local members, to shelve a Land Bill, although the official members had the numbers to pass it without any difficulty. At the end of 1962, a Select Committee under John Guise recommended the establishment of a national House of Assembly of sixty-four members, the majority of who were to be elected representatives of the indigenous people. A United Nations Visiting Mission led by Sir Hugh Foot also recommended the establishment of an elected national legislature with substantial indigenous representation and pressured the Australian government to bring about this proposal.

In Australia there was mixed reaction to these proposals. Prime Minister Menzies believed that it was better for Australia to get out sooner than later. The Ministers External Territories, in particular Paul Hasluck and Charles Barnes, believed that the people of the Territory had the right to choose self-government or independence at any time; while others, particularly those with strong economic interests in the Territory, argued that change should occur very slowly. Because of this debate and in response to international and internal pressure, Australia gradually loosened political control until, in 1975, the Territory became the independent state of Papua New Guinea.



To save time this activity could be done on the chalkboard as a full class activity.



3.2 Activity 1

Construct a time line to cover events from 1880-1975.

Topic 2: Self-government



First sitting of parliament

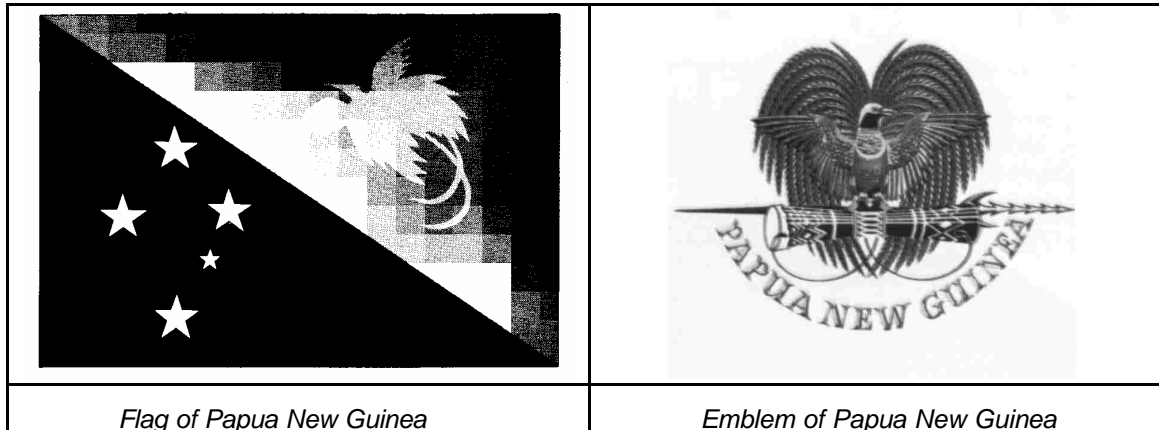
i Time should be taken to make sure students understand concepts such as self-government, independence, election, and the Westminster system

Self-government meant the transfer from Australia to an elected Papua New Guinean government of all powers except those concerning foreign affairs, defence and the legal system which were to be handed over when Papua New Guinea achieved complete independence.

There was controversy both in Papua New Guinea and in Australia on the timing of each of these stages. The most immediate issue in 1970 was the timing of self-government. Amongst the lowlanders, views ranged from demands for immediate self-government to independence by 1980. However, many highlanders, represented by the United Party which also included expatriates with plantation interests, advocated postponing self-government indefinitely. One reason many highlanders opposed self-government was their fear that following self-government the country would be dominated by better educated lowland elite. In spite of highlands opposition the move towards self-government gathered momentum. Following a 1971 report of a Select Committee on Constitutional Development, the name Territory of Papua and New Guinea changed to Papua New Guinea and the House adopted a national flag and emblem and proclaimed a national day.

2.3 Activity 2

Research either the flag, national emblem or parliament house. Briefly describe the item and state who was responsible for the design, when and under what circumstances.



In Australia, Gough Whitlam, leader of the Labor Party, championed the cause of self-government and independence. Realising that he needed up-to-date political, social, and economic information, he visited the Territory in December 1969, as part of a fact-finding mission. He exploited both the Australian Liberal-Country Party Coalition government's conservative attitudes and the growing Papua New Guinean nationalism with perceptive skill to his utmost advantage. On arrival, Whitlam announced his target dates: self-government in 1972 and independence in 1976. Outlining Labor's policy, Whitlam declared:

An Australian election must be held by the end of 1972 at the latest ...It is our belief that a Labor Government will emerge from those elections ... Papua New Guinea will have (self-government) as soon as the Labor Government can make the necessary arrangement with the House of Assembly which will also be elected in 1972.

... (Papua New Guinea) is not unique in its economy, in the difference of economic standards between sections of the country, its educational or social standards, its needs for economic aid from abroad, its needs for advisers, the diversity of local customs or even the multiplicity of its languages.

... None of these problems require colonial rule for their solution or easing. In fact many of them will worsen if foreign techniques, methods, laws and customs continue to exclude local custom, knowledge and experience. An outside administration cannot teach or impose unity. It can by its errors unite a people against it. This is the very situation which Australians at home will not permit.

This declaration, together with the resignation of the Australian administrator Johnson, whose efforts to promote the devolution of power from Canberra to Port Moresby had been constantly frustrated by the Canberra bureaucracy, greatly embarrassed the Australian Government. In order to save face, Prime Minister J. G. Gorton had to reshuffle the Canberra-based bureaucrats associated with devolution of powers to Papua New Guinea.

The final report of the Select Committee on Constitutional Development, accepted by the House of Assembly, recommended a centralised single –house Westminster system rather than a presidential system advocated by John Guise at the time. Other Select Committee recommendation included:

- Provision for an expansion of regional electorates from fifteen to eighteen
- Provision for an expansion of open constituencies from sixty-nine to eight-two;
- Reduction of the number official members from ten to four
- Addition of three nominated members

In February 1972, the election for the House of Assembly attracted a very large field of candidates. There were 553 candidates for the open constituencies and 58 contestants for regional seats. Of the three major parties, the United Party represented the highlands conservative elements, the People Progress Party was committed to supporting business,



Josephine Abaija

mainly lowland business enterprise, and Pangu Party claimed to represent the interest of the people as a whole. Josephine Abaijah, the only woman elected in 1972, did not belong to any of these three parties but represented the interest of Papua Besena, a pressure group based in the Central district. As a visiting United Mission noted, the dominant issue in the election was the timing of self-government.

The 1972 elections were fought on political party lines but no one party had an absolute majority and a coalition government was eventually formed with Mr Michael Somare as leader and Chief Minister- virtually Prime Minister. He formed a ministry of 17, later increased to 20, all of whom formed the Executive Council which by 1974 was equivalent to a Cabinet. As the national coalition was in favour of early self-government, one of its first tasks was to establish a timetable for self-government.

2.3 Activity 3

In groups, identify the main political parties contesting the 1972 election. Who were the party leaders and what did each party stand for?

In June 1972, Chief Minister Michael Somare gave notice in the House of Assembly that constitutional change was necessary if the country was to have full internal self-government by 1st December 1973 or as soon as possible thereafter. The United Party continued to prefer to delay self-government and proposed December 1975 as a target date. When Somare put a motion on self-government to September 1972 sitting of the House of Assembly, Anton Parao, a young highlander, led the United Party attack on the proposed earlier date of self-government:

"I do not want to see the white colonial government handed back a colonial government just for the sake of a minority group such as Michael Somare's government."

Somare's reply was direct and simple:

"It is high time that the people of this country held their heads high ... and have pride in their country. If not now, when?"



Michael Somare

When the motion was put, fifty-two members voted in favour of early self-government and thirty-four voted against it. The three coastal regions were for it while the highlands region was against the motion. The House then agreed to a target date of December 1973 for self-government.

Topic 3: Post Independence

The first national elections, 1977

During the first half of 1977, the parliament was preoccupied with the first national election since independence. A coalition government consisting of the Pangu and People's Progress parties was returned to power with an increased majority. The United Party became the opposition, with its organization in considerable disarray. Somare claimed victory, announcing that the people had given his coalition the mandate to govern again. However, by this time, the majority of Pangu Party branches were no longer active. As one commentator put it:

Elections in Papua New Guinea are not about "mandates" in the sense that they are tests of public opinion on government performances and policy issues. Elections remain essentially electorate level contests between competing clan candidates and personalities, with the government being pulled together in the legislative arena.

The 1977 election had 879 candidates fighting for 109 seats compared with 611 candidates competing for 100 seats in 1972. Candidates now needed to have both money and organization for success and a core of leaders and officials had already invested in real estate and other business interests to generate funds. Before the second election, all parties produced platforms which amounted to a bland mass of documents promised all things to all people. Pangu had an advantage over other parties in that party's campaign was based on the popularity of Prime Minister Somare.

1975:	On 16 September, PNG became an independent sovereign state within the British Commonwealth. Michael Somare's title of Chief Minister was changed to Prime Minister, John Guise was appointed Governor-General to represent Queen Elizabeth as Head of State. The House of Assembly became the National Parliament. Australia's responsibility for PNG ended after independence. The PNG Commissioner in Canberra and the Australian representative in PNG became High Commissioners, as is the case with every other Commonwealth country.
1976:	The Constitution was amended so there could be provincial governments, after the example of the North Solomons (Bougainville) provincial government. PNG sent its first team to compete in the
1977:	General elections were held for the national parliament. Membership was enlarged to 109 members, all of whom must be PNG citizens. Michael Somare became Prime Minister. Sir Tore Lokoloko became Governor General.
1980:	Michael Somare and the ruling government voted out of office in a parliamentary 'vote of no confidence'. Julius Chan became Prime Minister. Sir Buri Kidu became the first Papua New Guinean to serve as Chief Justice.
1982:	Second general elections held. Michael Somare became Prime Minister.
1983:	Sir Kingsford Dibela became Governor-General.
1984:	On 7 August, his Royal Highness Prince Charles opened Parliament Haus at

	Waigani.
1985:	Michael Somare and the ruling party voted out of office in a parliamentary 'vote of no confidence'. Paias Wingti became Prime Minister.
1987:	Elections were held for the third National Parliament. Paias Wingti became Prime Minister.
1988:	Paias Wingti and the ruling party voted out of office in a parliamentary 'vote of no confidence'. Rabbie Narnaliti became Prime Minister.
1989:	Sir Ignatius Kilage became Governor General and died while in office.
1990:	After fierce fighting in NSP, the Bougainville Copper mine closed down. Sir Serei Eri became Governor -General.
1991:	Due to a conflict with the government, Sir Serei Eri resigned as Governor General. Sir Wiwa Korowi G. became Governor -General
1992:	Elections were held for the fourth national parliament. Paias Wingti became Prime Minister
1993:	In September, Paias Wingti resigned as Prime Minister, giving his resignation to the Governor-General.
	He was re-elected in Parliament the next day. This was proven in the court not to be against the Constitution was to stop the Opposition from proposing a 'vote of no confidence' for 18 months. Justice Amet became the second Papua New Guinean Chief Justice, replacing Sir Buri Kidu.
1994:	Sir Buri Kidu died. In August 1994, the court ruled that the re-election of the Paias Wingti was invalid in 1993 because other members were not given 24 hours to nominate for prime minister. Sir Julius Chan was elected as Prime Minister of PNG. Paias Wingti did not nominate for the position.

2.3 Activity 4

Complete the time chart above from 1995 to the present. Make sure you include elections, changes of Prime Minister and significant political events.



Identify the Prime Ministers pictured and provide dated for their times in office.

Post-Independence

The most significant issues to confront PNG in recent years have been:

- Bougainville Crises
- Border problems involving the OPM (Free West Papua Movement)
- Major macroeconomic problems involving government overspending and requiring international debt rescheduling
- Environmental concerns, particularly with respect to the overexploitation of forest resources
- A crises in health care, with malaria, tuberculosis, malnutrition and most recently HIV/AIDS cases reaching worrying proportions
- Problems with law and order
- The volcanic destruction of Rabaul in 1994

People's Charter by Prof. John Nonggorr

"We, the People of Papua New Guinea ... by authority of our inherent right as ancient, free and independent peoples ... Do now establish this sovereign nation and declare ourselves, under the guiding hand of God, to be Independent State of Papua New Guinea. And acting through our Constituent Assembly on 15th August, 1975 hereby establish, adopt and give to ourselves this Constitution to come into effect on Independence Day, that is 16th September, 1975".

That was done on September 16, 1975. Twenty-five years on, how has the people's constitution performed? The short answer is – very well. As many have acknowledged, the Constitution has withstood pressures and continues to be, if not the greatest pillar of the independent nation, it is one of the important ones. In the 25 years, the constitution may have been stretched at times but it still remains robust as well as being responsive to the changing needs and circumstances of the nation. The instances when the Constitution has come under pressure have assisted in strengthening it.

The first real challenge to the Constitution and the sovereign Papua New Guinea occurred even before it was independent, when Bougainville declared independence a couple of weeks before PNG's independence. The final form of the Constitution agreed to by the Constituent Assembly, which debated and approved the Constitution, did not include provisions on provincial governments. Bougainvilleans were unhappy and some declared independence for Bougainville. Similar sentiments were expressed by a number of people in Papua, led by Papua Besena. The Bougainville demand brought about the first change to the Constitution. The provisions on provincial governments were inserted into the Constitution.

The second incident that put pressure on the Constitution was between the executive and the judicial arms of government. Nahau Rooney, the Minister for Justice in the first government of Prime Minister Michael Somare, was charged with contempt of court. She was found guilty and was sentenced to imprisonment for eight months. Prime Minister Michael Somare used mercy powers and released her a few days later. Most of the judges of the National and Supreme Courts, including the Chief Justice, resigned from the bench

following Mrs Rooney's release. This was the first serious challenge to fundamental institutions of the government and the Constitution. This incident, which took place four years after independence, was a serious set back for a newly independent country. A government minister had attempted to interfere in the work of the judiciary, a separate arm of government. The Rooney incident made a positive contribution. It defined the most fundamental principals in the constitution and constitutional democracy – the separation of powers, the independence of the judicial arm of government, and the supremacy of the Constitution.

Another important case in constitutional development was in 1994 involving the resignation and appointment of Pias Wingti as Prime Minister. The Supreme Court declared Mr. Wingti's re-appointment as Prime Minister unconstitutional following his snap resignation.

There is at present a proposal by the Morauta government to amend the Constitution that will authorise the enactment of an Organic Law, aimed at

strengthening and regulating political parties and to bring stability to governance. It is hoped that these constitutional reforms to bring discipline in the political process and stable government can be passed by Parliament and will allow the country to advance in all other areas.

In spite of the problems we have faced and that we continue to face, the gains that the country has made in 25 years, especially in the work of the

constitutional institutions (discipline forces, the Ombudsman Commission, the Auditor General's Office, the Public Prosecutor and many other institutions) structures and constitutional democracy in general can only make Papua New Guineans proud.



2.3 Activity 5

Interview several older people (men and women) about what it was like before and after independence.

Conduct a class survey about attitudes to PNG's independence. How do your views compare to those of the older people interviewed?


For Papua New Guinea, the decade after independence was one of profound significance. Relationships with other countries in this period were mainly peaceful and mostly concerned with establishing diplomatic relations, aid, trade and investment. Papua New Guinea's policy during this period can be seen as operating in five zones: Australia, neighbouring island states in the South-Western Pacific, Indonesia, other countries in East Asia and the rest of the world.

Unlike most Asian countries, where independence has provided a fillip to national development, the reverse has been true for Papua New Guinea.

During the 1960s, PNG economy grew at an average rate of 6.5% annually, well ahead of other middle income (5.9%) and low income developing countries (4.4%). However, in the 1970s per capita incomes stagnated. They declined by 1.5% from 1980-86 after adjustments for the terms of trade.

The situation has improved in the 1990s with average growth of about 3.8% a year because of strongly rising revenues from mining and oil. However, the dualistic nature of the economy remains a stark reality with income distribution being more unequal than in the neighbouring countries, according to AusAID. The richest 10% account for 36% of total consumption while the poorest 50% account for 19%.

Institutional reforms that are designed to underpin long-term development were introduced by the Morauta government in 2000. These include legislation giving the Bank of Papua New Guinea greater autonomy while virtually ending the tendency of government of the day to use central bank as a licence to print money. If the reforms are successful, real benefits should flow to the poorest people and help further cement the nation's democratic foundations. To achieve real prosperity special efforts will need to be undertaken to ensure that there is adequate job creation in the private sector and that concurrent efforts are made to bring under control issues involving law and order.

 Make sure students provide examples from other countries to make this a valid debate. Examples could include east Timor, Fiji, African states

3.2 Activity 6

Collect newspaper articles (or use ones provided) on the latest constitutional developments for example, integrity of political parties. Discuss the significance of the proposed legislation.

Debate the topic – “PNG went through an easy time towards independence”.

United Nations involvement

The United Nations (UN) is an international council or assembly of nations which aims to:

- Keep international peace and security
- Develop friendly relations among countries
- Develop co-operation among countries in solving problems
- Encourage respect for human rights

In 1920, after World War 1, the first international association (League of Nations) was formed by all the leading countries except the USA, Germany and USSR. The League Nations never wanted to have another war. They wanted to settle their arguments by talking instead of fighting.

Often, the great powers fought wars over the possession of colonies. To help prevent this, the League created a system of mandates, whereby countries which acquired colonies undertook to govern them in the interests of their indigenous people. On 17 December 1920, the council of the League of Nations gave Australia a C-class mandate to govern former German New Guinea, which then became known as the Australian Mandated Territory of New Guinea.

After World War II, many nations again decided to get together to try to keep peace in the world. In 1945, in San Francisco, USA, 46 countries replaced the League with the United Nations (UN). These nations planned to meet and talk, instead of fighting wars. In December 1946, the UN approved Australia's mandate to continue to administer Papua and New Guinea under 'trusteeship', a system which replaced the League of Nations' mandate.

Each member country sends delegates or representatives to regular meetings at the UN headquarters in New York City, USA. All the flags of the member countries, including PNG, fly outside the headquarters. PNG representatives have attended the UN since 10 October 1975.

Members of the UN try to keep peace in the world. There has been fighting between member countries and some civil fighting within countries. Sometimes the UN itself has had to use military forces to keep the peace. Its forces, which are usually units of people from the armed services of member countries, normally act as 'peace-keepers' or observers, but on two occasions the UN has had to fight serious wars, including in Asia against North Korea and in the Middle East against Iraq in 1991.

The Security Council is a committee of the General Assembly of the UN, on which the most powerful members have permanent membership, and lesser members have a rotating (take turns) membership. The Security Council handles the serious issues and can ask member countries for troops to help stop fighting.

The UN has a number of agencies:

- the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which sends advisors to help the PNG Department of Finance and other countries plan the spending of foreign aid;
- the Economic and Social Council, which is responsible for development projects. In PNG, it collects facts and figures on problems in PNG and gives ideas on how to improve conditions;
- the International Court of Justice, which looks at arguments between countries and decides what is right;
- the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), which encourages scientists from all countries to share their ideas so more and better food can be grown. In PNG, it gives advice and training on healthy food and nutrition;
- the World Health Organisation (WHO), which sends doctors, nurses and medicines to countries where there are many diseases. In PNG, it gives advice, training and equipment through the Health Department in such areas as village health care, immunisation programmes, malaria control and healthy water supply;

- the UN Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), which develops projects in each of those areas. It works with the PNG Department of Education to improve agriculture, tourism and the environment;
- the UN Development Programme (UNDP), which gives technical advice and training in social and economic development. In PNG, it has helped agriculture, forestry and fisheries projects;
- the World Bank, which lends money for development projects. In PNG, it gives technical assistance and loans for education, roads, communications and electricity.

Personalities

The name “Somare” is synonymous with politics and independence in Papua New Guinea. “*When I decided to go into politics in early 1967 the one purpose I had in mind was to be instrumental in bringing the country to self-government and eventual independence*”. Michael Somare was sworn in as the first Prime Minister of the Independent State of Papua New Guinea following the declaration of Independence on 16th September, 1975. He is but one of the many who have contributed to the growth and political development of PNG.



3.2 Activity 7

Select three persons, one Prime Minister, one woman and one other person, who have been active in government in PNG. AND

Do a single page profile of each person. Include the following information – name, electorate and region, party membership, key positions held, significant contributions to government, problems experienced, achievements

OR

Choose a person mentioned in this module or a current politician and write them a letter to find out about their work, complain, praise or ask questions about a task they are involved in.

References

- Abaijah, J. (1991). *A Thousand Coloured Dreams*, Dellasta Pacific, Melbourne.
- Biskup, Jinks and Nelson (1968). *A Short History of New Guinea*, Angus & Robertson, Sydney.
- Derndt, R. and Lawrence, P. (1971). *Politics in New Guinea*, University of Western Australia Press, Perth.
- Dorney, S. (1975). *PNG People, Politics and History since 1975*
- Kiki, A. M. (1994). *Ten Thousand Years in a Lifetime; A New Guinea Autography*, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.
- Nelson, H. (1982). *Taim Bilong Masta; The Australian Involvement with PNG*, Griffin Press,
- Rannell, J. (1990). *A Fact Book on Modern PNG*, Oxford, Melbourne.
- Somare, M. (1975). *Sana; An autobiography of Michael Somare*, Niugini Press,
- Stephen, D. (1972). *A Short History of Political Parties in PNG*, Lansdowne Press, Melbourne
- Times of PNG, *Dictionary of Parliamentary Terms of PNG*, Web Books, Port Moresby.
- Waiko, J. (1993). *A Short History of New Guinea*, Oxford, Melbourne.