



GRADE 11

HISTORY

UNIT MODULE 4

WORLD WAR 2 AND ITS EFFECTS

Sub unit 11.4.1: Changes in Asia

Sub unit 11.4.2: World War 2 (1939-1945)

Sub unit 11.4.3: World War 2 in the Pacific

Sub unit 11.4.4: PNG in the Pacific War (1941 – 1945)

Sub unit 11.4.5: Australia in PNG (1945 -1975)

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DIANA TEIT AKIS

PRINCIPAL



**Flexible Open and Distance Education
Papua New Guinea**

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	Page
Contents.....	3
Secretary's Message.....	4
Module Introduction.....	5
Study Guide.....	6
Sub unit 11.4.1: Changes in Asia.....	7
☐ 11.4.1.1: China in 1900.....	8
☐ 11.4.1.2: The Revolution of 1911.....	12
☐ 11.4.1.3: Warlord China: 1912-1927.....	15
☐ 11.4.1.4: The New Revolutionaries.....	19
☐ 11.4.1.5: The Northern Campaign, 1926-27.....	24
☐ 11.4.1.6: The Unification of China.....	28
☐ 11.4.1.7: Continuing Disunity	32
☐ 11.4.1.8: The Long March of 1934-35.....	36
☐ 11.4.1.9: Unity in the Face of Japanese Imperialism and Aggression.....	41
☐ 11.4.1.10: Japan: Liberalism to Militarism.....	45
☐ 11.4.1.11: Resentment to USA and Europe.....	49
☐ 11.4.1.12: Expansion of Japanese Militarism, 1933 – 1937.....	53
☐ 11.4.1.13: The Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere.....	55
Answers to Activities 11.4.1.....	59
Sub unit 11.4.2: World War 2 (1939- 1945).....	65
☐ 11.4.2.1: Post World War 2.....	66
☐ 11.4.2.2: The Dominance of the Axis.....	72
☐ 11.4.2.3: Expansion of the War.....	77
☐ 11.4.2.4: Turn of the Tide.....	82
☐ 11.4.2.5: Allied Victory.....	86
☐ 11.4.2.6: Cost of the War.....	92
Answers to Activities 11.4.2.....	96
Sub unit 11.4.3: World War 2 in the Pacific	100
☐ 11.4.3.1: Pacific War 1942-1945.....	101
☐ 11.4.3.2: World War 2 comes to the Pacific.....	106
☐ 11.4.3.3: Impacts of World War 2.....	113
Answers to Activities 11.4.3.....	119
Sub unit 11.4.4: PNG in the Pacific War (1942 – 1945).....	117
☐ 11.4.4.1: World War II comes to	117
☐ 11.4.4.2: Post War changes.....	126
☐ 11.4.4.3: Transition to Independence.....	133
☐ 11.4.4.4: Political Paths.....	143
Unit Summary 11.4.....	153
Unit 11.4 Summary.....	154
Glossary.....	152
Reference.....	158

SECRETARY'S MESSAGE

Achieving a better future by individual students and their families, communities or the nation as a whole, depends on the kind of curriculum and the way it is delivered.

This course is a part of the new Flexible, Open and Distance Education curriculum. The learning outcomes are student-centred and allows for them to be demonstrated and assessed.

It maintains the rationale, goals, aims and principles of the national curriculum and identifies the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that students should achieve.

This is a provision by Flexible, Open and Distance Education as an alternative pathway of formal education.

The course promotes Papua New Guinea values and beliefs which are found in our Constitution, Government Policies and Reports. It is developed in line with the National Education Plan (2005 -2014) and addresses an increase in the number of school leavers affected by the lack of access into secondary and higher educational institutions.

Flexible, Open and Distance Education curriculum is guided by the Department of Education's Mission which is fivefold:

- To facilitate and promote the integral development of every individual
- To develop and encourage an education system satisfies the requirements of Papua New Guinea and its people
- To establish, preserve and improve standards of education throughout Papua New Guinea
- To make the benefits of such education available as widely as possible to all of the people
- To make the education accessible to the poor and physically, mentally and socially handicapped as well as to those who are educationally disadvantaged.

The college is enhanced to provide alternative and comparable pathways for students and adults to complete their education through a one system, many pathways and same outcomes.

It is our vision that Papua New Guineans' harness all appropriate and affordable technologies to pursue this program.

I commend all those teachers, curriculum writers, university lecturers and many others who have contributed in developing this course.



UKE KOMBRA, PhD

Secretary for Education

Module 11.4 Introduction

How did World War 2 start? What were the causes, course and effects of WW2? How and why did Papua New Guinea get involved? Was it a Papua New Guinean War? You will be able to answer these questions as you study this unit. As you critique the historical evidence presented you can identify and explain the causes, course and effects of World War 2 (WW2). You will also learn about the different battles and their significance in determining the course of the war. You will discover that WW2 was fought in two different locations: Europe and the Asia –Pacific region. The unit provides you with an awareness of and insight into the forces and processes involved in the historical evolution of the world leaders and the impact of their decisions. The study of World War 2 will help you to relate experiences in Papua New Guinea to world structure. In addition, this study will increase your understanding of the relationship between PNG and Australia that has developed since WW2.



Module Learning Outcomes

Students can:

1. Identify and understand events, issues and forces that have shaped their cultural, social, political and economic heritage
2. Demonstrate an understanding of historical concepts and ideologies
3. Describe and explain the origin, development and impact of change on societies and nations
4. Analyse the role and impact of significant historical themes, events and individuals within their societies and the world at large
5. Identify and critique opinions, values, judgements, bias, contradiction, propaganda and interpret their relevance
6. Apply the historical skills of inquiry, observation, classification, recording and interpreting

Students will be achieving this outcome when they, for example:

- identify and classify the political, economic and social changes in China, Japan and the rest of South-East Asia during the period leading up to World War II
- develop a chronology of the course of World War II in Europe
- identify and describe the causes, course and effects of the war in the Asia-Pacific with emphasis on Papua New Guinean experiences
- use key concepts relevant to the selected historical context, such as culture, nationalism, internationalism, ideology and race
- analyse written (documents) and visual (cartoons) evidence
- synthesise evidence to draw conclusions
- document physical evidence of Papua New Guinea's involvement in World War II through field work and examination of artefacts (war relics)
- debate key issues like anti-Semitism, Aryanism, responsibility for the war
- construct timelines, flow charts and so on to organise significant events throughout the war
- draw or interpret maps illustrating national boundaries before and after the war
- interpret and analyse primary and secondary sources from World War II such as photographs, pictures, paintings, songs, poems and artefacts



STUDY GUIDE

Below are the steps to guide you in your course study.

- Step 1: Carefully read through each module. In most cases, reading through a lesson once is not enough. It helps to read something over several times until you understand it.
- Step 2: There is an instruction below each activity that tells you to check your answers. Turn to the marking guide found at the end of each module, and mark your own written answers against those listed under the **Answers to Activities**. Do each activity and mark your answers before moving on to the next part of the module.
- Step 3: After reading the summary of the unit module, start doing the Practice Exercise. Refer to the module notes. You must do only one practice exercise at a time.
- Step 4: Below each Practice Exercise, there is an instruction that says:

CHECK YOUR WORK. ANSWERS ARE AT THE END OF THE SUB UNIT.

Turn to the marking guide at the end of the topic, and mark your own written answers against those listed under the Answers to Practice Exercises.

- Step 5: When you have completed a practice exercise and marked your answers, go back to the module and correct any mistakes you may have made, before moving on to the next module.
- Step 6: Study the entire module following Steps 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Here is a sample Study Timetable for you to use as a guide. Refer to it as a reminder of your study times.

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00-10:00	FODE STUDY TIME				
10:00-11:00					
1:00-2:00					
2:00-4:00					
6:00-7:00					
7:00-9:00	Listen to or watch current affairs programmes. Write your diary, read a book.				

A timetable will help you to remember when you should be doing your FODE studies each day.



Time

This unit should be completed within 10 weeks.

If you set an average of 3 hours per day, you should be able to complete the unit comfortably by the end of the assigned week.

Try to do all the learning activities and compare your answers with the ones provided at the end of the unit. If you do not get a particular exercise right in the first attempt, you should not get discouraged but instead, go back and attempt it again. If you still do not get it right after several attempts then you should seek help from a friend or your tutor. Do not pass any question without solving it first.



Sub unit 11.4.1: Changes in Asia

Introduction

This sub unit will discuss Changes in Asia in the 1900s, 20th century. Just as there were changes occurring in the Pacific and African countries, Asia too was about to experience Westernisation. But in Asia there was also disunity amongst the different sects according to political and religious or cultural belief. China is an example of such division that saw the revolution of 1911 and finally unification towards mid-20th century.

Japan, similar to China, had its own belief and policies to contend with and ignoring the United States and Europe until its military prowess allowed its expansion during the 1930s at the eve of World War 2 in the Pacific. Japan's need for both military and economic expansion started the Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere for Asian member countries to look out for each other and for economic purposes within Asia.



Sub topic 11.4.1.1: China in 1900

Welcome. This is sub topic 1 of the Grade 11 Module 4 on World War II and its Effects. You will look at the events and changes in Asia in the 1900 leading up to World War II. You start by studying China around the 1900s.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- describe the background of China in the 1900s – Pre-communist China
- identify the foreign interference in China
- explain the causes and effects of opposition to Manchus and foreigners
- explain the motives of the reforms

By 1900, China's glory days were over. China was a nation in decline. In 1900, China was heavily controlled by foreign nations who dominated important ports such as Shanghai. At this time, China was ruled by the **Qing family**, also known as the Manchus.

The Nineteenth Century has seen a marked involvement in China by European powers. The "Opium Wars" between China, Britain and France led to defeats for China. China also handed over to Britain the strategically important port of Hong Kong. In 1894-95, in the first Sino-Japanese war, Japan attacked China. This also led to defeat and Japan took from China; Korea, Formosa (Taiwan) and Port Arthur.

A consequence of these wars was that China lost effective control of her profitable sea ports. Fifty of China's most successful ports were seen as "treaty ports" which meant that they were open to foreign trade and residence. European nations also divided up China between themselves. The wishes of the Chinese were ignored and understandably created a great deal of resentment amongst the Chinese.

The Manchu dynasty was blamed for the European takeover of China. Though their position was unaffected by the European 'take-over' consequently there were rebellions against the rule of the Manchus. The most infamous was the **Taiping Rebellion** that lasted from 1850 to 1864. It was one of the bloodiest civil wars in history between the Qing Dynasty and the Chinese 'Christian' rebels, led by Hong Xiuquan. Hong Xiuquan believed he was the younger brother of Jesus Christ, chosen by God to establish a heavenly kingdom upon earth and replace the corrupt Manchu dynasty. In this civil war 600 cities were ruined and as many as 20 million people were killed. Vast areas of fertile land were destroyed which China could not afford to lose. The Manchu's restored their power with the help of the European nations. Though this was successful, it made the Manchu's even more hated by the Chinese people.

The Manchus could not allow this hatred to continue. In 1898, the Emperor Guangxu introduced a batch of reforms during the so-called 'Hundred Days of Reform'. New schools and colleges were introduced to improve education.

Around 1900, China remained a nation dominated by European powers who were led by a highly conservative court. This court believed these reforms would weaken the Manchu's power. It would only be natural to expect a movement to grow to fight against those who ruled China. This was the Yi-Ho Tuan movement - the Boxers. In 1900, The Boxer Revolution broke out.

The Boxer Rebellion (1899 to 1900)

Secret societies began to grow as economic and social problems increased. Droughts in the north caused a lot of hardships on the people and lawlessness increased. Large bands of men and women swept across the country looting and destroying property. The Manchus was losing control and the Chinese people wanted someone to be responsible for their misery. The Chinese people took out their anger and frustration on the Christians and the European traders.

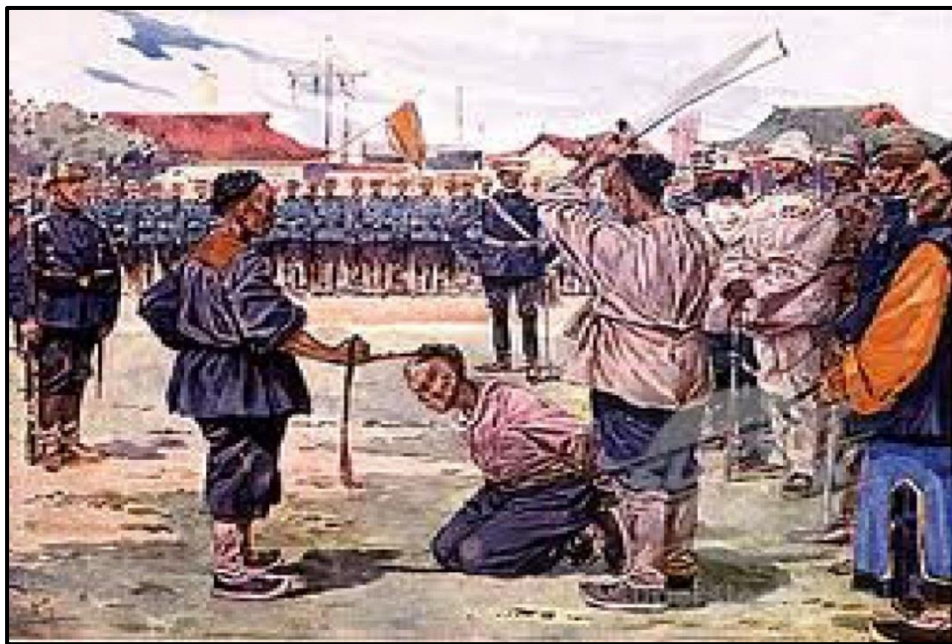


Figure 1: Beheading of Chinese Christians and Foreigners during the Boxer Rebellion

These secret societies trained thousands of young men in combat technique and in special martial arts. This group of highly trained guerilla soldiers became known as 'Boxers' because of their title 'Fists of Righteous Harmony'. At first the Boxers fought against the Manchus, but gradually they changed and their war cry became 'Support the Qing! Exterminate the foreigners!'

The Boxer Rebellion targeted both the Manchu dynasty in China and the influence of European powers within China. Though the Boxer Rebellion failed, it stirred up feelings of national pride within China itself. Between 1894 and 1895, China was defeated by Japan during the Sino-Japanese War. The defeat was humiliating for the Chinese as Japan had always been considered a less powerful nation than China. As a result, China lost control of Korea and Formosa to Japan.

Within the elite of the Chinese society, it was believed that the defeat in the Sino-Japanese war was entirely the blame of the Europeans who were dominant in China and who were



responsible for China's defeat. Many Chinese believed that the Europeans were driving China's domestic and foreign policy and that the situation was getting out of control. By the end of the Nineteenth Century, a strong sense of nationalism swept over China and wanted to reclaim China for the Chinese. In 1898, these nationalistic feelings boiled over into rebellion.

The rebellion began in north China in the Shantung Province. The Boxers raged through the countryside, burning churches, cutting down telegraph posts, tearing up railway lines and killing both foreign and Chinese Christians. In fact anything that suggested foreign influence was destroyed. Eventually in 1900, they entered Beijing, where they were given the support of **Empress Cixi**. She hoped that the Boxers would drive out the foreigners from the city, embassies, factories and finally rid China of the 'foreign devil'. However, the Boxers were joined by local criminals and soldiers and they became an uncontrollable mob killing both Chinese and foreigners who were Christians. Refer to Figure 1 for illustration of this rebellion in China.

Results of the Boxer Rebellion

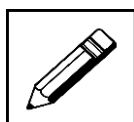
At the end of the rebellion, Beijing was looted by foreign troops. The terms of the treaty imposed upon China by the West were:

The terms:

- China pays large reparations (compensations for losses) to the West.
- More foreign troops in Beijing
- China not allowed to import weapons
- Civil examinations cancelled for five years.
- Chinese leaders under the watchful eyes of the West.
- Cixi tried to save the Manchu face by introducing reforms like having a Parliament, no opium trade, and discourage **foot binding**.

The dynasty was becoming unpopular and the Chinese people blamed the Manchus for the presence of more foreigners in Beijing. The Manchus was losing control of parts of China and strong leaders (warlords) were taking control of the country side. A group of **discontent** Chinese drew up policies for change, and called themselves Nationalists.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.1

1. Which dynasty was in power in China around the 1900?



2. Who was the leader of the dynasty?

3. What brought the Europeans to China? *Hint: Opium war*

4. Fill in the table.

Event	Date	Who was involved?	Consequences
(a) Taiping Rebellion			
(b) Boxers Rebellion			

5. List some of the reforms introduced by Emperor Guangxu during the so-called Hundred Days of Reform.

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

Sub topic 11.4.1.2: The Chinese Revolution of 1911

In this sub topic, you learn about the Chinese Revolution in 1911.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain the role of Sun Yatsen in the Chinese revolution of 1911
- describe the background to the revolution of 1911
- describe the political birth of China

In October of 1911, a group of revolutionaries in southern China led a successful revolt against the Manchu Dynasty, establishing in its place the Republic of China and ending the imperial system. The 1911 Revolution was a spontaneous and widely supported uprising that ended the long reign of the Manchu dynasty.

There were many protests and uprisings before 1911 and during that year as well. The main causes were the increasing population and the need for an increase in food production. The ordinary people became more poor and discontented. The national pride of the educated people was hurt by the foreign influence in the country. Some Chinese men went abroad for their education. They picked up ideas about democracy and reform. Secret organisations were set up in China to plot the overthrow of the imperial government. The Empress Cixi was blamed for the chaos in the country and for failing to prevent the increasing foreign influence. The 1911 uprising began with disputes and protests over railway ownership in Sichuan and surrounding provinces.



Figure 2: Chinese peasants protesting during the Chinese Revolution

The peak for the revolution came in October, when a republican-minded army unit **mutinied** in Wuchang, Hubei province. This rebellious spirit quickly spread to surrounding regions, spreading revolutionary sentiments. By the end of 1911 republican nationalists began assembling to form a new government. But these men, led by the father of Chinese republicanism Sun Yat-sen, still had means of forcing the Manchu to abandon the monarchy. In

the end, Sun Yet-sen reached a compromise with the powerful military leader Yuan Shikai, who forced the abdication of the infant Emperor Puyi

The revolution began suddenly, rather than on order from Sun Yet-sen. The **catalyst** for revolution was a Manchu decision to nationalise two privately-owned railways in central China, to help fund the government's Boxer Protocol reparations. When this nationalization was announced in May 1911 it created a huge protest, particularly in Sichuan province, where a large number of businessmen had invested their own money in the railway. Facing considerable losses, these investors created the Railway Protection Movement, which organised strikes and protests in Chengdu, the Sichuan capital.

By September 1911, the business societies had more than 2, 000 members; they had also connected with radical student and workers' groups in Wuchang and other Hubei towns. This revolutionary coalition had always planned some kind of action against the Qing and had been stockpiling weapons and munitions since early 1911. However, the accidental explosion of a bomb on October 9th forced their next cause of action. The bomb detonated in a Hankou building being used by soldiers, leading to an investigation and exposure of their rebellious activities. With their arrest forthcoming, the Wuchang regiment mutinied the following day – October 10th or **'Double-Ten Day'** – storming government buildings, arresting loyalist soldiers and seizing control of the city. On October 11th the rebels declared a republican government in Hubei province and hoisted a flag containing 18 connected stars, representing the unification of China's 18 provinces. The successful uprising in Wuchang kick-started a wave of similar rebellions around China.

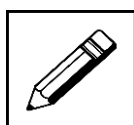


Figure 3: Map of places rebellions took place at.



The new government in Nanjing still needed to **depose** the ailing Manchu dynasty – but without a military force it was hard. By December Yuan Shikai, a military commander, was negotiating with nationalist agents about the creation of a unified republican government, with himself as president. Meanwhile, on December 29th, the first assembly of the provisional republican government in Nanjing elected Sun Yet-Sen as its president. The struggle between Sun Yet-Sen and Yuan Shikai would shape and define the first years of the new Chinese republic. Sun Yat-sen led the forces calling for a republican government and established the Kuomintang (KMT) or Nationalist Party in 1912. The collapse of the dynastic system ushered in the turbulent "warlord period," however, with regional power centers competing for control. The country was partially reunited under the army of Chiang Kai-shek and the Nationalist Party in 1928. However, China was invaded by Japan in 1937 and affected by World War 2.

Now do the Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.2

1. What were the causes for the revolution?

2. What was the Double Ten Day about?

3. What were the consequences of these revolutions?

- (a) Revolution 1911

- (b) Double Ten Day

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

Sub topic 11.4.1.3: Warlord China 1912-1927

In this sub topic, you look at the period of Warlords in China between 1912 and 1927.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- describe the presidency of Yuan Shikai
- identify and discuss the warlords of China

The Warlord Era

The warlord era was a decade-long period when the country broke apart into regions, controlled by powerful local leaders. Warlordism reflected the internal divisions that had emerged in late Manchu China. This devolution of political power continued during Yuan Shikai's mishandling of the transition from monarchy to republic. When Shikai attempted to revive the Manchu monarchy and set himself up as emperor, provincial leaders lost faith in the future of a republican national government. As a result, warlords became the powerful leaders of regions. The country was briefly reunified by Chiang Kai-shek and his National Revolutionary Army around 1927. The Warlord Era was a period of uncertainty, disorder and conflict that prevented effective national government and produced very few benefits for ordinary people.

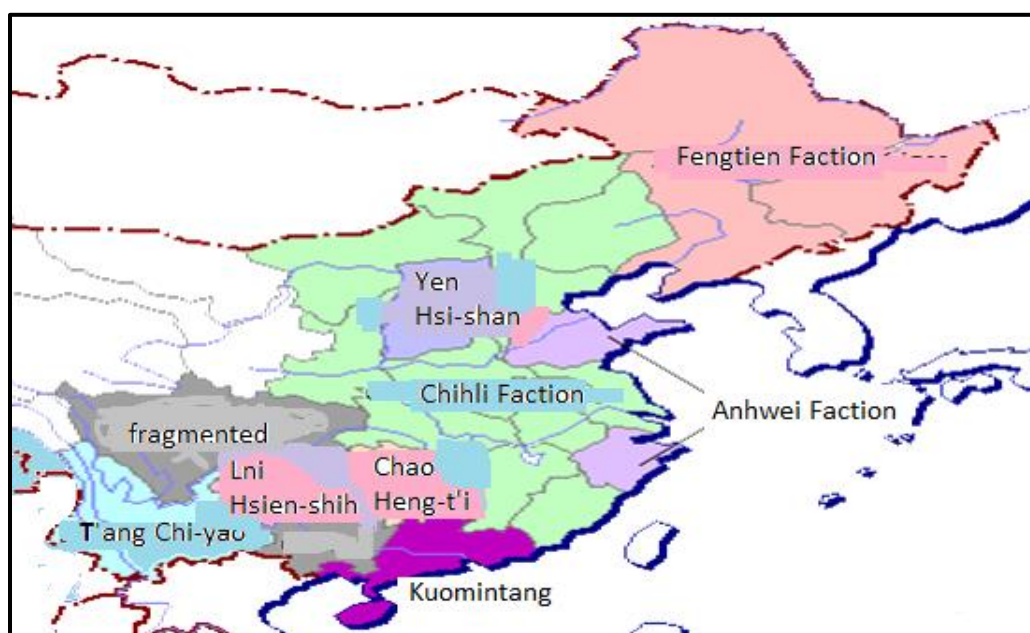


Figure 4: A map showing the fragmentation of China during the Warlord Era - 1924

The collapse into warlordism was not surprising given China's long history, especially under Qing rule. The country's great size, population, geographical differences and diversity made centralised national government difficult. Local leaders and groups, often encouraged by foreign imperialists, began to increase their influence or control over their regions. The Manchu dynasty, **Confucian** teachings and the imperial examination system all continued to provide a national government and a level of unity in China, however these were not consistent across the country. Manchu authority and culture was strong around Beijing and in the north-east of China.



– but in British-influenced Guangdong, local leaders had become equal to or of greater importance than the national government.

The Xinhai or 1911 Revolution had weakened the Manchus and resulted in the rise of two competing governments.

- In the north, Beiyang Army commander Yuan Shikai emerged as the strongman of the revolution, the only individual with enough **clout** to force the removal of the Qing.
- In the south, nationalists led by Sun Yat-sen formed a temporary government with some **legitimacy** but no means of enforcing it.

Shikai's control of the military made him the national president, though he had little interest in uniting China. Shikai's presence held China together and allowed for the continuation of the national government. While he sat in the president's chair provincial warlords did little to challenge his government, fearing retribution from Shikai's modernised army. Shikai's leadership was based on personal power derived from military leadership and thus he was known as 'father of the warlords' or the 'first warlord'.

When Yuan Shikai died in June 1916, it created a national power vacuum that was immediately filled by local leaders. Now leaderless, the national army itself broke apart, its divisions under the control of powerful men, who claimed them as private or provincial armies. In northern China, Yuan Shikai's Beiyang Army split and its personnel were claimed by three competing warlord factions:

- I. the Chichli clique (led by Feng Guozhang)
- II. the Anhwei clique (Duan Qirui) and
- III. the Fengtien clique (Zhang Zuolin)

The warlords sought to increase their power by increasing the size of their armies. Army recruitment was done by conscription, force or enticement. Warlords usually paid their soldiers well or allowed them to retain a share of their loot. Thus in rural areas ravaged by poverty, 'taking up with the bandits' became an attractive option, particularly for young single men. According to historian Hsi-Sheng Chi, this militarism and economic desperation fuelled a rapid growth in the size of warlord armies: from around 500, 000 in late 1916 to more than one million in 1918 and two million in 1928.

It is difficult to generalise about China's warlords: they were a diverse group with different methods, attitudes and objectives. Several warlords were former officers in the Manchu military; others were outsiders who had never belonged to the Manchu establishment. Some were traditionalists who held on to dynastic and Confucian ideals. Some of the stronger warlords fancied themselves as potential 'unifiers', hoping to conquer enough territory to restore a national government with themselves as either emperor or president.

Aside from their use of military force, the most commonly shared goal of warlords was to make themselves rich. These goals are:

- The exploitation, corruption and banditry that flourished under warlordism had terrible effects on the ordinary people.

- Warlords printed excessive amounts of paper money to fund their armies, leading to high inflation.
- They seized control of government infrastructure and privately-owned businesses. They enforced new taxes and raised existing ones; in one province land tax increased fivefold. Aware of its profitability, many warlords also revived the trade in opium, compelling Chinese farmers to grow it and encouraging its open sale.
- The private armies of some warlords also became a law unto themselves, behaving recklessly, harassing and assaulting locals and stealing or destroying their property.

Not all warlords were driven entirely by greed. A handful behaved kindly and with generosity towards the people they ruled. For example, Yan Xishan, who ruled Shanxi province, was well educated with a career in the Qing military. Unlike other warlords he focused on improving and modernising Shanxi, rather than expanding territory or increasing his personal fortune. Yan entered into alliances to keep Shanxi out of conflict with other warlords, while introducing some social reforms, like the abolition of foot binding and improvements to girls' education.

During the warlord era a national government continued in Beijing, however it neither represented the nation nor exerted any control over it. The majority of Chinese, particularly the rural peasants, suffered more under the warlords than they had under the Manchu. Large numbers of peasants were driven from their lands. By 1925 the number of unemployed in China was estimated at more than 168 million, more than half of whom were peasants and farm labourers. At this time, Sun Yet-sen's nationalists and their allies, the Comintern and the Chinese Communist Party, were planning the end of warlordism. From their stronghold in the southern province of Guangdong, the Kuomintang and its military arm, the National Revolutionary Army, were preparing to move against the warlords and reunite China by force.



5^{key} points

- 1) The Warlord Era was a period of political division and regional militarism in China.
- 2) Warlordism was the result of growing provincial power under the Qing and the failure and decline of republican government.
- 3) The warlords and warlord factions used private or provincial armies to seize control and exert their authority.
- 4) Most warlords were motivated by greed and self-interest: the acquisition of land, resources and people.
- 5) A national government operated in Beijing during the Warlord Era. In general the Warlord Era made life worse for the majority of Chinese people, particularly the rural peasants who were taxed highly, had no land, and suffered from natural disasters like floods.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.4.1.3**

1. Who were the three competing warlord factions in northern China?

2. Which part of China did the Kuomintang control?

3. What was the main shared goal of the warlords?

4. Give an example of a good warlord and what he did?

5. How did the peasants suffer under the warlords?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1.

**Sub topic 11.4.1.4: The New Revolutionaries**

In this sub topic, you look at the New Revolutionaries in China where the Kuomintang comes into existence.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- describe the May Fourth Movement
- describe the leadership and the principles of the Kuomintang
- interpret timeline

When World War 1 broke out in 1914, China refused to take sides. They felt no loyalty to any foreign country and were quite prepared to see the European nations destroy one another. The Western powers were fighting the war in Europe and were not concerned about China. China was also militarily weak during this time. Japan wanted China to be part of this empire and therefore presented “The Twenty –one Demands” to China in 1915. The demands aimed at making China part of the Japanese Empire. China had no choice but to accept the demands. However, at the end of the war in 1919, the victorious western powers again turned their attention to China. They allowed the Japanese to keep control of Shandong Peninsula because it was an ally in the war. The Chinese who did not want foreign control in China were furious and a national protest called the May Fourth Movement began.

The May Fourth Intellectual Movement (1919)

The whole of China was united in anger for a brief period. Shops were closed, Japanese goods were destroyed, students demonstrated and newspapers wrote fierce articles about foreign actions. The students took on themselves to show the world that they were not ready to be branded as a worthless race of the twentieth century. The May fourth movement was largely a student movement; it reflected the growth of nationalistic feeling in China.

The Kuomintang

While Sun Yat-Sun and his nationalists were preoccupied with the problems inside China, many Chinese were observing events outside China. They had watched the Russian revolution and communist takeover of Russia Empire. Some Chinese leaders decided that a communist China may solve the problems and so they established the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1921. Many Chinese turned to communism as an answer to China’s main problem – the poverty of the Chinese peasants. With the increase in population, it was difficult for the peasants to produce from the very small blocks of land enough food to feed the family and at the same time pay land rents to landlords. They wanted land to be equally distributed among the whole population. At first CCP was small but soon the number started increasing and for the next 29 years it would become the ruling party.

The Kuomintang Reorganises

In 1921, when CCP was being formed, Sun Yat sen faced many problems;

- The country was still divided, though the KMT controlled the south of China, the north was still controlled by the Warlords.



- Throughout China, the peasants were suffering from the effects of the breakdown of the Qing dynasty. The warlords had failed to keep up the repairs of **dykes** and irrigation systems in repair. This had led to flooding and poor harvest.
- Poverty and hunger developed into outright famine.

Sun Yet-Sun realised that he needed to help China. He knew that China needed a strong and well organized government to deal with its enormous problems. He was ready to work with CCP. In 1924, with Soviet help, Sun reorganised the KMT to include more interest groups like scholars, students, merchants, factory owners, landowners and peasants and to form an army. The GMD and the CCP planned to work together, but in 1925, Sun Yetsen died of cancer. Sun had been loved by many and praised as the father of modern China and his policies had been accepted. However, under the new leader, Chiang Kaishek, divisions amongst the Chinese deepened.

Sun Yat-sen

Sun Yat-sen was a major politician and a Chinese revolutionary who co-founded the Kuomintang and served as its first leader. Known as the Father of Modern China, Sun Yat-Sen played a key role in abolishing the Qing Dynasty in China and was the first provisional president of the Republic of China when it was first set up in 1912. This leader had spent much of his life living in exile. Unification of China was one of his dreams. His ideology, famously known as The Three Principles of the People, the political philosophy of **nationalism, democracy** and **socialism** is one of his legacies to the people of China and Taiwan where he is venerated for his revolutionary efforts.

Sun Yat-sen stepped into revolutionary activities when the Qing government started promoting advanced techniques and education in China. He gave up his medical practice to contribute to the transformation of China into a western style constitutional power. Sun established the Revive China Society in 1894 as his first step towards a full-fledged revolutionary activity in order to establish a Republic China. Sun was exiled for nineteen years for his 1895 failed coup. During exile, he traveled to Europe, the United States, Japan and Canada raising funds for his revolutionary activities. He joined a rebellious Chinese group in Japan, where he spent most of his years in exile. After spending almost ten years in Japan, he went to the United States.

On 10 October 1911, a military rebellion at Wunchang ended over thousand years of monarchy in China. Sun Yat-sen returned to China and was elected as the provisional President of the Republic of China in a meeting of representatives from provinces on 29 December 1911. January 1, 1912 became the first day of the first Year of the Republic; thus making a calendar system that is still used in many parts of China. Sun's revolution had seen a series of defeats before the establishment of the Republic of China and with the new found success of the revolution, Sun became known as the National Father of modern China.

Republic of China

After assuming the power, Sun Yat-sen called for the leaders of all provinces to elect new senators in order to establish the National Assembly of the Republic of China. Once the Assembly was formed, the provisional law of the Republic became the basic law of the nation. In 1913 Sun led a futile coup against Yuan, the head of the Beiyang Army, whom he had promised the presidency of the New Republic if he helped him abolish the Qing Emperor.

Failing his promise, Yuan had declared himself the new emperor to Sun's disdain. However, Yuan's dictatorship came to an end in 1916 and he was forced to step down from the throne. After the failed coup of 1913, Sun escaped to Japan where he reorganized the Kuomintang. On 25 October, 1915 Sun married to Soong ching-ling without divorcing his first wife Lu Muzhen, despite furious resistance from the Chinese community.

Sun Yat-sen was re-elected as the president of the Kuomintang on 10 October 1919 and remained in his position until 12 March 1925. Having failed in his initial efforts, Sun embarked on consolidating alliance with Chinese communists and adopted a policy of Active Corporation. He viewed the Military forces as the only weapon to unify China and establish a democracy in the country.

In his later life, Sun actively participated in organising seminars and gave extensive speeches calling upon Chinese people to discuss the future of the country despite his worsening health. After delivering a speech in North on 10 November 1924 Sun gave another famous speech in Japan on 28th of the month and initiated peace talks with the Northern leaders on the unification of China. He did not live to see his country unified because he died of liver cancer on 12 March 1925 in a hospital in Beijing.

Modern China

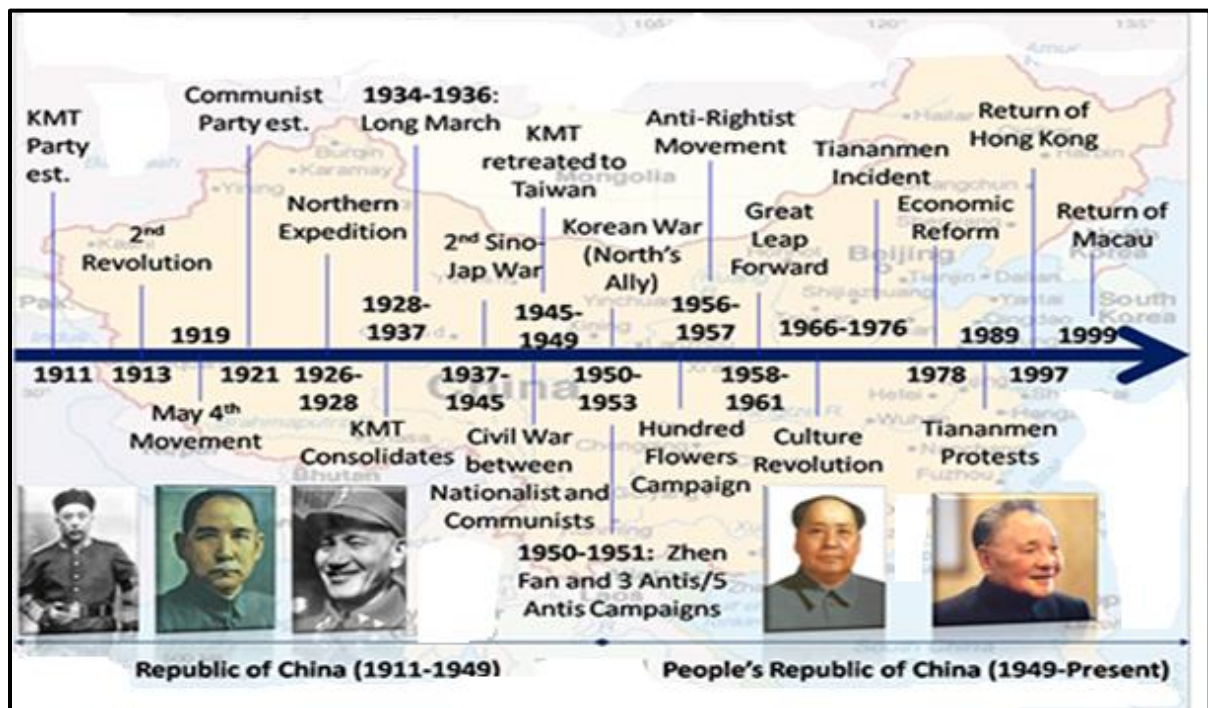


Figure 5: Modern China Timeline

Now do Activity.



-
4. What ideologies do the KMT and CCP promote?

5. Refer to Timeline in Figure 5 to answer these questions. Write the dates for the events in the space provided.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|
| (a) KMT retreat to Taiwan | <hr/> |
| (b) Northern Expedition | <hr/> |
| (c) Civil war | <hr/> |
| (d) CCP formed | <hr/> |
| (e) 2 nd Sino- Japan War | <hr/> |

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

**Sub topic 11.4.1.5: The Northern campaign 1926-1927**

In this sub topic, you look at the Northern Campaigns by the Kuomintang from 1926 to 1927.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- describe the leadership of Chiang Kaishek and the Northern Campaign
 - explain the reason(s) for the split between the Communist and the Kuomintang
 - discuss the defeat of the Kuomintang and the role of Mao Tse-tung
-

The **Northern Expedition** was a KMT military campaign, led by Chiang Kai-shek, from 1926 to 1928. Its main objective was to unify China under its own control, by ending the rule of the Beiyang government and the local warlords. The Northern Expedition ended of the warlord era, reunited China in 1928, and established the Nanjing government. Chiang Kai-shek, Commander-in-Chief of the National Revolutionary Army (NRA), emerged from the Northern Expedition as the leader of China.

Chiang Kaishek

Sun Yat-sen had tried to deal with China's problems, and when Chiang Kai-shek took over the leadership, the problems were still unresolved:

- China was still divided.
- The KMT was too large a party to satisfy all its different member groups
- The KMT had not developed economic programs to address poverty issues.
- China needed to unite to solve poverty.
- The Warlords were still very strong.
- The famine of 1928-30 caused great suffering and misery.

Chiang Kai-shek decided to unite China. With the support of CCP, Chiang led KMT troops into northern China attacking the warlords as they went. The warlords and their forces were soon defeated by this assault. In fact, many of the warlords joined the KMT forces, hoping that by doing so they can keep their land and power.

The Northern Expedition also known as the Northern March began from the KMT's power base in Guangdong province. In 1925 the May 30th Movement announced plans for strike and protest against western imperialism and its warlord agents in China. At the same time, the First United Front between KMT and Communist Party of China (CPC) was questioned after the Zhongshan Warship Incident in March 1926. Chiang Kai-shek became the paramount military leader of the KMT. The success of The Northern Expedition largely attributed to the united military strenght of both the KMT and CPC. This unison was strongly encouraged by the Soviet Union who wanted to see a unified China.

The main targets of this expedition were three notorious and powerful warlords:

- i. Zhang Zuolin who governed Manchuria,
- ii. Wu Peifu in the Central Plain region and
- iii. Sun Chuanfang on the east coast

On advice of a famous Russian general the Head Quarters of the expedition decided to use all its power to defeat these warlords one by one: first Wu, then Sun, and finally Zhang.

First Expedition

On July 9, 1926, Chiang gave a lecture to 100, 000 soldiers of the NRA, in a ceremony which marked the official commencement of the Northern Expedition. The NRA which was set up by the cadets trained in the Whampoa Military Academy; its soldiers were far better organised than the warlord armies. They were equipped with Russian and German weapons. In addition, the NRA was regarded as a force fighting on behalf of ordinary people persecuted by warlords and for this it received warm welcome and strong support from peasants and workers. It was no surprise the NRA could march from Zhu River area to Yangtze River in less than half a year and defeat the main force of Wu and Sun, and strengthen its force from 100, 000 to 250, 000 soldiers.

The Purge

Following the defeat, Chiang decided to get rid of all Communists from the Kuomintang. In the Shanghai massacre, thousands of Communists were executed or went missing, while others were arrested and imprisoned. Thousands of communist soldiers who had helped the KMT gain Shanghai were ruthlessly killed by the KMT troops in the massacre known as the 'Great Betrayal' of 1927. The purge caused a split between the KMT's left and right wings. Chiang, however, subsequently established his own capital in Nanjing.

Warlord Counteroffensive

The purge gave the warlords an opportunity to rebuild their armies and counter the now weakened Kuomintang. Sun Chuanfang began to organize his forces with his ally Xu Kun, one of China's best generals. The warlords were able to mobilize and start to attack the Kuomintang.

Opposing the revived warlord armies were three Kuomintang Armies, referred to as the "Route Armies". The First Route Army, north of Nanking in Jiangsu Province; the Second Route, to the west of the First and centered around the city of Xuzhou, and the Third on the west of Xuzhou closer to Wuhan in the South, protecting against any interference by the Leftist Wuhan forces. The Nationalists were able to muster the same amount of manpower but were very divided by political tensions and leadership conflicts. Finally, the Nationalists had posted many of their troops north of the Yangtze in order to hold Xuzhou, leaving them exposed to the warlord armies and their coming counteroffensive. Thus, many of Chiang's troops were in exposed and isolated positions which they could not defend properly. The stage was set for the last great struggle of the Warlord Era.



Figure 6: Chiang Kai-Chek



Chiang Kai-shek in 1930

Chiang Kai-shek was born in 1887 and died in 1975. Chiang Kai-shek was the natural successor to Sun Yat-sen and, alongside Mao he was to play a fundamental role in China's history in the Twentieth Century.

Chiang Kai-shek came from humble beginnings; however he received an education that led him to attending a Japanese military college and serving in the Japanese Imperial Army for several years. A keen supporter of Sun Yat-sen, he returned to the newly created republic of China in 1911. His task was to create an army for the Nationalists. Chiang Kai-shek was chosen by Sun Yat-sen to lead the Kuomintang's military academy at Whampoa which was set up in Canton. Chiang was sent to Moscow for six months in 1923 studying how the Red Army was organised.

In later years and once he was the leader of Kuomintang, Chiang tended to favour those who had worked at Whampoa and appointed them to important jobs within the Kuomintang.

When Sun Yat-sen died in 1925, there was a power struggle for his successor. Chiang had two advantages over his rivals. Firstly, he was seen by most as the leader of the Kuomintang army which was considered a loyal and disciplined army likely to fight for Chiang. Secondly, he was in a politically central position in China.

In 1926, Chiang consolidated his position in the Kuomintang by successfully embarking on a campaign against the warlords. By June 1928, he had control of Canton, Beijing and Nanking - three of the most important cities in China. He was also the party's chairman and commander-in-chief of the army.

In September 1928, the Organic Law gave Chiang what amounted to dictatorial powers over China. Chiang was appointed president but his authority over the whole nation was never secure simply because of the vast size of the country and the fact that his army could not be in all parts of the nation at all times. This is why the Communists selected Yen-an as a safe place at the end of the Long March. The Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931 and their eventual attack on China in 1937 also meant vast areas of China were not under Chiang's control.

The army had already rebelled against his leadership in 1930 and 1933 and in December 1936, some rebellious army officers kidnapped Chiang. Angered that he was not using the full force of the army against the Japanese, these dissident officers were in contact with the Chinese communists and it was the communists who persuaded these officers to release Chiang after 13 days in captivity. Chiang had to agree to end his military campaign against the communists and to use his military resources against the Japanese. A united front against the Japanese made for a more deadly foe and as a result the Japanese launched a full-scale invasion against Chiang's strongest military bases in July 1937. Such was the Japanese success that Chiang had to move his capital to Chungking.

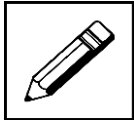
After the war, he organised resistance to the Japanese and was seen to be an ally of the forces fighting the Japanese in the Far East. This further strengthened his position as the legitimate leader of China. In 1943, Chiang was invited to attend the Cairo Conference where he met with Churchill and Roosevelt. Chiang was clearly seen as the post-war leader of China.

Chiang expected help from his 'friends' in America. This never materialised simply because President Truman had been advised that Chiang's cause was a lost one and that the Chinese



Communists would win the civil war. In January 1949, Beijing fell to the Communists and Chiang resigned as president of China. His followers left for Taiwan (Formosa) and on March 1st 1950, Chiang resumed his presidency of the Chinese Republic until his death in 1975.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.5

1. What was the Northern Expedition about and what was its main objective?

2. What were some of the main problems in China when Chiang Kai shek came into power?

3. Which three warlords became the main targets for the expedition?

4. What was the Great Betrayal of 1927 about?

5. When China fell to the Red army, where did Chiang escape to?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit

**Sub topic 11.4.1.6: Unification of China**

In this sub topic, you look at the Unification of China and Mao Tse Tung who was the leader of the Communist Party.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Describe the unification of China
 - Find out and discuss about Mao Tse Tung and his rise to communism
 - Discuss the impact of China's unification
-

Despite the national unification of 1928, the KMT government in Nanking had incomplete control over the country at large, where former warlords continued to rule. Within the KMT party, **factional** disunity was serious. Chiang Kaishek depended on the army for power. In other words, his foundation of rule was built on sheer force, not on an ideology. Because of these factors, the internal reforms attempted by the Nanking government generally failed to solve the serious socio-economic problems in the countryside. In 1931, Chiang faced two threats – the communist takeover of the southern part of China and Japanese invasion of Manchuria to the north. In the eyes of the people, the KMT became corrupt and unreasonable.

The CCP, on the other hand, experimented with different policies of expansion after its break with the KMT. First, it attempted violent uprisings, but all ended in failure. The attempted promotion of labour movements in the cities was equally unsuccessful, and the backing of continued alliance with the middle-class like the KMT was unrealistic and hopeless. Only Mao's policy of organizing the peasants and establishing Communist territorial bases was workable. In so doing Mao was not following Communist doctrines strictly; he was changing them to suit China's particular conditions effectively.

Such realistic policies were successful at first. However, after 1931, a group of Soviet-trained young Communists challenged Mao's leadership, and many of his policies were reversed. Violent land confiscation was practised. This explained why social support for the CCP decreased and the Kiangsi base was consequently lost.

The war with Japan, 1937-45

Six years later the Japanese again attacked and immediately captured the Chinese capital of Peking. Chiang moved the government to Chungking. Fighting continued until, after 1941, when the war between Japan and China became part of the Second World War. Despite help from America, the Kuomintang armies were not very successful.

The Chinese Communist Party

The Kuomintang was eventually defeated and replaced by the Communists. How this happened is a very important story. At first the two Communist parties in Russia and China kept in close touch and the Chinese tried to organise uprisings in big towns like Shanghai but Chiang's army was too strong. One of the first members of the Communist Party was Mao Tse-tung. He believed that the Communist revolution was more likely to succeed in China by organising the peasants. After all, they had not really benefitted from the Kuomintang government. Mao Tse Tung and Zhou Enlai, two of the communist leaders escaped the massacre by jumping over a

wall and hiding in the rice paddies. After the massacre Chiang continued the lead the KMT troops north and captured Beijing in 1928. He allowed the warlords who had supported him to keep their lands and become leaders of their local areas.

Mao organised his own Red Army in a part of south-east China. He introduced land reforms there. He called this area the Kiangsi Soviet almost a little independent country within China. In 1934 Chiang decided to destroy it and sent an army to surround the area.

Guerrilla warfare

In the war with Japan, the Communists fought more successfully than the Kuomintang. Why do you think was so? Mao taught his soldiers the importance of the guerrilla tactics that he had perfected on the Long March:

The enemy attacks, we retreat
The enemy camps, we harass
The enemy tires, we attack
The enemy retreats we pursue.

Mao Tse-tung: Leader of Communist Party

Mao Tse Tung was born in 1893 and he died in 1976. Mao Zedong is considered to be the father of Communist China and alongside Sun Yat-sen and Chiang Kai-shek played an important role in China's recent history.



Figure 7: Mao Tse-tung

Mao

Mao was born in Chaochan in Hunan province. He came from a peasant family. As with all peasants living in Nineteenth Century China, his upbringing was hard. He first encountered Marxism while working as a library assistant at Peking University. In 1921, he co-founded the Chinese Communist Party.



From 1937 to 1945, the hostility between the KMT and the Communists (Red Army) was put to one side as both concentrated their resources on the Japanese who had launched a full-scale invasion of China in 1937. It was during this time that Mao developed his knowledge about guerrilla warfare that he was to use with great effect in the civil war against the KMT once the war with Japan had ended in 1945.

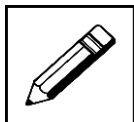
By the spring of 1948, Mao switched from guerrilla attacks to full-scale battles. The KMT had been effectively broken by the skill of Mao's guerrilla tactics. In October 1949, Mao was appointed Chairman of the People's Republic of China.

From 1950, Mao introduced land reforms with the first Five Year Plan starting in 1953. Peasant co-operatives were set up. In 1958, the Great Leap Forward was introduced as were the first land communes. Though he used the term "Five Year Plan", Mao did not accept the theory that all ideas had to start with Russia and China would have to follow. In fact, Mao remained very independent of Russia and publicly criticised the rule of Khrushchev, the leader of Russia.

The clash with Russia formed the background to the Cultural Revolution of 1966 when Mao openly and successfully sided with the peasants. Mao had great support as China was still an agricultural nation despite exploding an atomic bomb in 1964. From 1966 onwards, some essays by Mao entitled "Thoughts" became compulsory reading for Chinese people – especially the young who Mao actively courted. This became Mao's famous "Little Red Book".

Mao continually proved to the Chinese that he was fit to lead them by swimming miles down the Yangste River each year. He remained leader of China in the later years of his life though Zhou Enlai did much of the foreign policy work. Mao died in 1976 and the whole nation mourned.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.6

-
1. Explain why the KMT party failed to control China?



2. Write the dates for the events listed.

- a) Mao's date of birth _____
- b) Co- founded CCP _____
- c) Mao becomes leader of CCP _____
- d) Mao set up a Chinese Soviet republic in Kiangsi _____
- e) Mao becomes president of China _____
- f) Great Leap Forward policy _____
- g) Five Year Plan _____
- h) Cultural Revolution _____
- i) Mao dies _____

3. What is the name of Mao's

- a) Ideology _____
- b) Army _____
- c) Essays _____
- d) Book _____

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

Sub topic 11.4.1.7: The Long March of 1934-1935

In this sub topic, you look at the Long March taken by the CCP in 1934 – 1935 to escape from the Kuomintangs.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain the fifth campaign and the Long March
- describe the motive of the fifth campaign of 1933 by Chiang Kai-shek
- describe the course and achievements of the Long March of 1934-35
- explain the reasons for the completion of the Long March

The Long March came about when the Chinese Communists had to flee a rigorous Kuomintang attack that had been ordered by Chiang Kai-shek.

In the autumn of 1933, the Kuomintang leader Chiang Kai-shek launched a huge attack against the Communists who were then based in the Jiangxi and Fujian provinces in south-east China. The Kuomintang's military advisor was the German general, Hans von Seeckt. He advised Chiang Kai-shek not to launch a full frontal attack on Jiangxi. Five hundred thousand Kuomintang troops surrounded Jiangxi in an attempt to crush the Communists. The Kuomintang had a policy of making a slow advance building trenches and blockhouses as they went to give the Kuomintang troops places of protection. Seeckt wanted a war of **attrition** but with minimal contact with the Communists Seeckt wanted to starve them out rather engage in combat with them.



Figure 8: The Long March – 1934-1935

Seeckt was a skilled soldier and his strategy worked very well. His 'slow-but-sure' process led to the area controlled by the Communists shrinking quite rapidly. The Kuomintang had the ability to destroy the Communists.

Then the Communists changed tactics. Against the advice of Mao, the Communists used full-scale attacks against the Kuomintang. They were advised by Russian agents lead by Otto Braun. It was Braun who advised full-frontal attacks and he convinced the Communist hierarchy that Mao was wrong. He also branded Mao as being politically wrong because peasants in Jiangxi were being killed by the Kuomintang and the Red Army did nothing to assist them. Mao was expelled from the Chinese Communist Party's Central Committee.

Mao tried to win back support by pushing for a breakout by the Red Army followed an attack on the Kuomintang in their rear. This was rejected in favour of Braun's idea for a full-scale retreat from Jiangxi with a push for a communist base in Hunan where the Chinese Communist's Party Second Army was based. The retreat – which was to be called the Long March – started in October 1934.



Figure 9: Map showing the Long March 1934-1935

The Red Army started to Long March carrying whatever it could. Eighty seven thousand soldiers started the retreat carrying items such as typewriters, furniture, and printing presses. They also took with them 33, 000 guns and nearly 2 million ammunition cartridges. It took the Red Army 40 days to get through the blockhouses surrounding Jiangxi but no sooner had they done this than they were attacked at Xiang by the Kuomintang. In the Battle of Xiang, the Red Army lost 45, 000 men – over 50 percent of their fighting force. The march continued for one whole year starting at Kiangsi. These peasants-soldiers marched 9, 600 kilometres to the other end of China – Yan'an in the province of Shensi. They travelled through 11 provinces. They fought desperate battles with KMT forces, warlords and local bandits; they climb rugged mountains; they crossed raging rivers and treacherous marshland; they starved, froze in bitter cold and sweltered in intense heat.

Mao wanted the Red Army to move in a completely unpredictable way. As the Red Army moved away from Xiang, it used twisting movement patterns that made predicting its direction very difficult. Mao also split up the Red Army into smaller units while marching to Shaanxi province towards the north of China. The journey was physically demanding as it crossed very



difficult environment. The Red Army had to cross the Snowy Mountains, some of the highest mountains in the world, and the Chinese Grassland which was an area of deep marshes that claimed hundreds of lives. The Red Army did not only have to contend with the Kuomintang. The land in northern China was very much controlled by warlords. Even the Kuomintang under Chiang had failed to break their power.

By October 1935, what was left of the original 87, 000 Red Army soldiers reached their goal of Yanan. Less than 10, 000 men had survived the march. These survivors had marched over 9, 000 kilometres. The march had taken 368 days. The Long March is considered one of the great physical feats of the twentieth century. However, when those who survived the march reached Yunan, they combined with the communist troops there to form a fighting strength of 80, 000 which still made it a formidable fighting force against the Kuomintang.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.7

1. What was the Long March about?

2.

(a) Who took part in the long march and how many of them?

(b) Who was their leader?

(c) What was the reason for the long march?



(d) How long was the march?

(e) Where did the march start and where did it end?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

**Sub topic 11.4.1.8: Unity in the face of Japanese Imperialism and Aggression**

In this sub topic, you look at Chinese unity in the face of Japanese imperialism and aggression.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain unity of the Kuomintang (KMT) and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP)
- describe the Sian incident and the second KMT-CCP united front, 1936
- explain the effects of the second united front

Chiang Kai-shek tried once more to defeat the communists, but his generals in the north refused to fight them. They felt that they should be fighting the Japanese and not their countrymen. To the GMD generals, the Japanese were the enemy of China. They wished to unite with the communists against the Japanese, who were expanding their territories using military aggression. When Chiang Kai-shek flew to Xian in 1936 to order his armies to fight against the communists; his own officers arrested him. After much discussion a united front of GMD and CCP forces were organised to fight against the Japanese.

A. Strong Chinese nationalism and widespread demand for internal unity against foreign aggression in China

Against the growing Japanese aggression in China in the early 1930s, many Chinese nationalists advocated national resistance. This called for the establishment of internal unity first. Thus, the KMT's policy of destroying the Communists before fighting the Japanese was increasingly viewed with disapproval by many Chinese people, especially students and intellectuals. To them, such a KMT policy, which continued civil war in China, actually encouraged more Japanese aggression. Many patriotic Chinese were hopeful that the KMT and the CCP would unite to defend China.

For example:

- The military revolt of the KMT's 19th Route Army in 1933 showed that the civil war was unpopular.
- A National Salvation Association emerged in 1936, which was composed of famous lawyers and well-known intellectuals, advocating the same policy of a united Chinese front.

B. The CCP's exploitation of Chinese nationalism and advocacy for a united front against Japan

As early as 1932, the Communists had already declared war on Japan. A year later, they announced their willingness to cooperate with the KMT against Japan, on condition that:

- (i) the peasants receive KMT weapons to fight the Japanese,
- (ii) KMT attacks on Communist-held areas stopped immediately, and
- (iii) the KMT give liberal rights to the people.

During the Long March (1934-35), the Communists advocated a "united front from below", calling upon all China to unite against both Japan and Chiang Kai-shek. By the time the Communists reached Shensi in late 1935, however, they changed the advocacy to a "united front from above", advocating a KMT-CCP coalition for national resistance against Japan.

Through these declarations, the CCP hoped to:

- build a good reputation for the Communists and to win social support for the Communist movement,
- seize the leadership of the national resistance movement from the hands of the KMT,
- make the KMT's anti-Communist policy more and more unpopular, and
- force the KMT to fight against the Japanese instead of the Communists.

C. Soviet Russia's encouragement of KMT-CCP coalition

In the early 1930s, Soviet Russia called upon all Communists of the world to ally with their respective capitalist governments so as to defend the "fatherland of Socialism" (i.e. Soviet Russia herself) against German Nazism and Japanese Fascism. In particular, Chiang Kai-shek was considered by Soviet Russia to be the only leader in China who was capable of effective resistance to Japanese imperialism in East Asia.

The SIAN Incident and the second KMT-CCP United Front, 1936

A. Course

In 1936, after the Communists had retreated to Northern Shensi, Chiang Kai-shek decided to carry out the 6th, and the last, extermination campaign against them. He sent the KMT's Northeastern Army under Chang Hsueh-liang, son of Chang Tsolin, on the mission. In doing so, Chiang Kai-shek expected that two purposes would be served at the same time:

- on the one hand, the Communists, already greatly weakened after the Long March, would be totally destroyed by Chang Hsueh-liang;
- on the other hand, the military power of Chang Hsueh-liang would be greatly reduced after fighting with the CCP.

Chang Hsueh-liang was very anti-Japanese in attitude. This explained why he had responded favourably to the CCP's call for a united front against Japan. Thus when Chiang Kai-shek told him to fight against the Communists instead of the Japanese, Chang Hsueh-liang simply did not obey, saying that "Chinese do not fight Chinese". The Northeastern Army even traded with the Communists.

To direct the extermination campaign himself, Chiang Kai-shek personally went to the headquarters of the Northeastern Army in Sian. He was there, however, arrested by Chang Hsueh-liang. Then Chou En-lai, representing the CCP, came over to Sian. He advised Chang Hsueh-liang to release Chiang Kai-shek if Chiang agreed to end the civil war and form a united front. The Communists realised that only Chiang could throw all the KMT forces into an all-out war with Japan. In the end, Chiang Kai-shek agreed to the deal and he was then set



free. In the negotiations between the KMT and the CCP from 1936 to 1937, the following agreements were reached:

- The KMT agreed to cancel the official ban on the CCP.
- The CCP's right to govern the Yen-an areas, which were renamed the Border District Administration, was recognized.
- The Communist Red Army, which was renamed the Eighth Route Army, was in theory included in the KMT's national troops. In practice, of course, it was still owned and controlled by the CCP alone as before.
- The KMT promised to introduce democratic reforms based on Sun Yatsen's *Three Principles of the People*, and the CCP agreed to give up armed uprisings and land confiscation in the countryside.

B. Effects of the Second United Front

Stronger Chinese national unity

The armed struggle between the KMT and the CCP since 1927 was put to an end, at least for the time being. China was thus ready to resist Japan.

Contribution to the Second Sino-Japanese War (1937-45)

Both fearful of and angry at the formation of the anti-Japanese Second United Front between the KMT and the CCP, Japan was more prepared to teach China a lesson. Thus after the China Incident of 1937, the Japanese government decided on war against China. As Communism was most feared in Japan, the Japanese militarists tried to conquer the KMT, on the ground that the KMT had allied with the CCP and was therefore badly affected by the Communist evil.

Weakening of the KMT

With the Second United Front, Chiang Kai-shek regained the leadership of China's nationalist movement to a limited extent. Yet, the KMT government was soon occupied with resisting Japan's aggression, was forced to retreat to Western China after 1937, and was then greatly weakened in the Second Sino-Japanese War (1937-45). Chiang had neither time nor opportunity to destroy the CCP, which grew in power quickly. All these factors contributed to the KMT's eventual downfall in 1949.

Spread of Communism

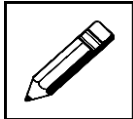
The Communists, however, benefited much from the Second United Front

- No longer hard-pressed by KMT extermination campaigns, the CCP could settle down in Shensi, strengthen its power, extend its influence to villages in North China, work out and test its guerrilla military strategy, organize the peasants, and practise social reforms - all of which were important factors contributing to the Communist victory in 1949.
- The KMT's agreement to cooperate with the CCP raised the national position and reputation of the Communist Movement in China. The Communist Movement became more popular and won more public sympathy, since the CCP was willing to place itself under the KMT in resisting Japan.



Strengthening and politicising of Chinese nationalism - On the whole, the Second United Front strengthened Chinese nationalism. In the May Fourth Intellectual Revolution in 1919, Chinese nationalism was basically cultural and quite passive. During the formation of the Second United Front in the early 1930s, however, Chinese nationalism became more political in nature and increasingly active. Instead of passively boycotting foreign goods, patriotic students and intellectuals actively volunteered to join the war against Japan in and after 1937.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.8

1. Who were the leaders of KMT and CCP?

2. Why did the Kuomintang become unpopular?

3. When did China unite and state 2 reasons for the unification?

4. What were some effects of the unification of China?

5. Arrange these events in chronological order of happening from earliest to latest, and indicate with numbers 1 to 5 for each statement.

- a) Chiang is released because he agrees to end the civil war
- b) The KMT agreed to cancel the official ban on CCP
- c) CCP had retreated to Northern Shensi



- d) Chiang orders the 6th and final extermination on the CCP
- e) Chiang is arrested by Chang Hsueh-liang , his own general

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

**Sub topic 11.4.1.9: Japan: Liberalism to Militarism**

In this sub topic, you look at Japan's change from Liberalism to Militarism.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain Japanese democratic growth in the 1920s and the Taishō Democracy
 - identify reasons for the failure of parliamentary government
 - explain the motive of Japan's expansion into Manchuria
-

The Transformation of Japan

Beginning in 1868, Japan undertook political, economic, and cultural transformations emerging as a unified and **centralised** state, the Empire of Japan (also Imperial Japan or Prewar Japan). This 77 year period, which lasted until 1945, was a time of rapid economic and military growth.

Political Change

One of the first actions of the state was to get the emperor to issue a document that showed the new government's aims. This was called the Charter Oath.

The Charter Oath (1868)

The Charter Oath made several declarations on how to implement them. It declared:

- Councils will be established so that the nation will be ruled according to public opinion.
- Men from all clans will be united without distinction.
- All subjects shall do their best for Japan.
- Justice shall guide all actions.
- Knowledge shall be gained from the nations of the world to help Japan advance.

The last point of the charter was the basis of the oligarchy's approach. They wanted western science and technology to make Japan strong and equal with the west. In this way they could free Japan from western influence. The Oligarchy therefore encouraged Japanese experts to go abroad to study western systems and also brought western advisors to Japan. The idea was to copy the best models for Japan's modernisation.

Strong and efficient government

To emphasise the emperor's power, the oligarchy moved the royal court from Kyoto to Edo, which had become the administrative capital for the Tokugawa. Edo was later renamed Tokyo which means "Eastern Capital". The Oligarchy wanted a central government but Japan was divided into 260 separate **domains**, each controlled by a *Daimyo* with his own private army of *samurais*. The Oligarchy wanted to end this daimyo system. The daimyo's were made to hand over their lands to the emperors, which they did but the oligarchy compensated heavily and the Daimyo became very wealthy. The Oligarchy also had to deal with the samurais. The samurais also received payments for their services to their Daimyo's. The leading samurais were paid more than the lesser samurais to end the samurais as a clan. The Oligarchy made it illegal for



the samurais to wear the curved swords, which had been a symbol of their class and a source of pride.

These changes had major effects for Japan:

- Feudalism had been abolished, ending daiymo and samurai control of Japan
- A rich group developed, consisting of the ex-daiymo, some of the rich ex-samurai and the merchants who had become wealthy under the Tokugawa. This rich group formed the basis of the new nobility and provided capital for Japan's development.
- Some samurais were opposed to the new government, especially the poor ones who sank into poverty and resented the loss of their privileges.

Now that the government had complete control over the country, and having deprived the samurai of their high status, the oligarchy set about to lay the basis for the modern and efficient Japanese military force.

The Japanese Imperial Force

The oligarchy felt that military strength was essential for government control over the nation and for protecting Japan from the west. They therefore set up a strong modern navy and army. The new navy, modelled on British lines and advised by British officers, was made up of ships from the former shogun fleet with officers from the Satsuma clan. The government ordered more ships to be built locally and also purchased ships from abroad.

The Army

The government also needed a centrally controlled army, loyal to the emperor. In 1871, it formed the Japanese Imperial Army of ten thousand men. This army was modelled on the efficient Germany army. But the most important aspect introduced was military conscription. All the men had to serve for seven years: three years as active soldiers and four years as reserve. Conscription was considered a revolutionary step in modernising Japan. For more than three hundred years only samurais had been warriors, but now the peasants formed the backbone of the army and for the first time could bear arms.

Revolt of the Samurais

While many of the former samurais adapted to change and made careers for themselves as officers in the new army and navy or as policemen entitled to wear swords, others found it hard to accept change and revolted. The most serious samurai revolt was in 1877, led by a famous samurai called Saigo. His defeat marked the end of open rebellion from the samurais towards the government.

Taishō period

After the Emperor Meiji's death in 1912, the Japanese Diet passed a resolution to commemorate his role in the Meiji Restoration. Taishō became emperor. The new emperor was kept out of view of the public as much as possible. He suffered from various nervous problems throughout his life, and by the late 1910s, it was impossible for him to carry out public functions. One of the rare occasions he was seen in public, was the 1913 opening of the Diet of Japan. The life of Emperor Taishō was very different to that of Emperor Meiji, which led to the declining imperial power during this period, and the Taishō democracy.

Early Shōwa period

Taishō died of a heart attack on 25 December 1926. His son, Emperor Shōwa, commonly known as "Hirohito", assumed the throne that same day. Hirohito would reign for 63 years, through some of the best moments in Japanese history.

Fascism in Japan

During the 1910s and 1920s, Japan progressed towards democracy through movements known as 'Taishō Democracy'. However, parliamentary government was not strong enough to withstand the economic and political pressures of the late 1920s and 1930s the Depression thus the state became increasingly militarised. This was due to the increasing powers of military leaders and was similar to the actions some European nations were taking leading up to World War II. These shifts in power were made possible by the confusion of the Meiji Constitution, particularly its measure that the legislative body was answerable to the Emperor and not the people. The Kodoha, a militarist faction, even attempted a coup d'état known as the February 26 Incident, which was crushed after three days by Hirohito, the Emperor Shōwa.

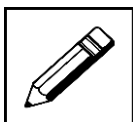
Party politics came under increasing fire because it caused division where unity was needed. As a result, the major parties voted to dissolve themselves and were absorbed into a single party, the Imperial Rule Assistance Association (IRAA).

Japanese militarism and imperialism steadily developed for five principal reasons.

- Japan's desire to be a Western-style imperialist power
- Japan's concerns for its security and safety, were important in the growth of militarism up to the end of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905.
- Japan's belief in its leadership role for Asia
- Japan's frequent **provocations** by Western powers, gave rise to an expansion of militarism and imperialism from 1905 to the 1930s.
- Japan's desire to secure its economic interests.

Western imperialism was an important reason for Japan's aggression toward foreign countries. The stubborn and provocative attitude of the imperialist Western nations toward Japan provided a favourable environment for Japan's advance toward militarism and imperialism, which ultimately led to World War II.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.9

1. What was the Charter Oath?



2. The Oligarchy wanted a central government for Japan. List three impacts of creating a central government.

3. What is 'Taishō Democracy'?

4. What were the five reasons for the development of militarism and imperialism in Japan?

5. Who was Hirohito?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1



Sub topic 11.4.1.10: Resentment to USA and Europe

In this sub topic, you look at the Resentment towards USA and Europe by Japan.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify Japanese actions to counter-attack unfair treatment in trade
- analyse information from a drawing and cartoon depicting Japan's actions.

The potential for conflict between the United States and Japan, especially over China, led the two governments to negotiate yet again. In the Ishii-Lansing Agreement of 1917, Secretary of State Robert Lansing acknowledged that Manchuria was under Japanese control, while Japanese Foreign Minister Ishii Kikujiro agreed not to place limitations on U.S. commercial opportunities elsewhere in China. The two powers also agreed not to take advantage of the war in Europe to seek additional rights and privileges. Ultimately, the two nations agreed to meet after concluding the Nine-Power Treaty, which they signed in 1922 at the Washington Conference. A **Nine-Power** Pact signed by the above five powers plus the Netherlands, Portugal, Belgium, and China affirmed China's sovereignty, independence, and territorial integrity and gave all nations the right to do business with it on equal terms.

Japan and the United States clashed again during the League of Nations negotiations in 1919. The United States refused to accept the Japanese request for a racial equality clause or an admission of the equality of the nations. In addition, the Versailles Treaty granted Japan control over valuable German concessions in Shandong, which led to an outcry in China. This coupled with the growing fear of a militant Japan, contributed to the defeat of the League Covenant in the U.S. Senate. In spite of the many efforts to reach agreements on these points, by the early 1920s Japan and the United States were again at odds.

Tensions were mounting with the U.S. as a result of a public outcry over Japanese aggression and reports of killings in China, such as the infamous Nanjing Massacre. The **Nanking Massacre** or also known as the **Rape of Nanjing**, was an episode during the Second Sino-Japanese War of mass murder and mass rape by Japanese troops against the residents of Nanjing (then spelled *Nanking*), then capital of the Republic of China. The massacre occurred over six weeks starting December 13, 1937, the day that the Japanese captured Nanjing. The U.S. strongly supported China with money, airmen, supplies and ongoing diplomatic and economic threats against Japan. In retaliation to the invasion of French Indochina, the U.S began an embargo on goods such as petroleum and scrap iron products. On July 25, 1941, all Japanese assets in the US were frozen. Because Japan's military strength, especially the mobility of the Navy, was dependent on its now declining oil reserves, this action had the contrary effect of increasing Japan's dependence on and need for new possessions.

The Americans were expecting an attack in the Philippines and sent bombers to deter Japan. On Yamamoto's advice, Japan made the decision to attack the main American fleet at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. American strategists believed that Japan would never be so bold as to attack so close to its home base, and the US was taken completely by surprise.



Figure 10: The U.S. Navy took this photo of the *U.S.S. Arizona* on fire, following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941

CREDIT: "USS Arizona, at height of fire, following Japanese aerial attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii," 1941. Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress. Reproduction Number LC-USZ62-104778.



Figure 11: Pearl Harbour naval base aflame after the Japanese attack in 1941

CREDIT: Pearl Harbor naval base aflame after the Japanese attack, 1941. Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress. Reproduction Number LC-USZ62-16555.



President Franklin Roosevelt called December 7, 1941, "a date which will live in infamy." On that day, Japanese planes attacked the United States Naval Base at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii Territory. The bombing killed more than 2,300 Americans. It completely destroyed the American battleship *U.S.S. Arizona* and capsized the *U.S.S. Oklahoma*. The attack sank or beached a total of twelve ships and damaged nine others. One hundred and sixty aircrafts were destroyed and 150 others damaged. The attack took the country by surprise, especially the ill-prepared Pearl Harbour base.

The ranking United States naval officer in Pearl Harbour, known as the Commander-in-Chief Pacific, sent a dispatch to all major navy commands and fleet units. Radio stations receiving the news interrupted regular broadcasts to announce the tragic news to the American public. Most people knew what the attack meant for the U.S. even before Roosevelt's official announcement the next day. The U.S. would declare war on Japan.

The U.S. was already close to joining the war, but in an attempt to preserve its stance of isolation and neutrality, it had only committed to sending war supplies on loan to the Allied forces, mainly Great Britain, France, and Russia. Within days, Japan's allies, Germany and Italy (known as the Axis powers), declared war on the United States. December 7, the "date which will live in infamy," brought the United States into World War II.

The attack on Pearl Harbour, appeared to be a major success that knocked out the American battle fleet—but it missed the aircraft carriers that were at sea and ignored vital shore facilities. Ultimately, the attack caused only short term damage, by stopping the battleship fleet, but caused little significant long-term damage. The Japanese official announcement declaring the start of hostilities to the US government was delivered to the White House as the attack was underway. This made the Japanese air raid a sneaky attack which provoked the United States to seek revenge.

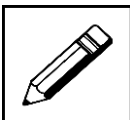
Here is a helpful hint on the Pearl Harbour attack by the Japanese.

What does TORA mean?

This phrase originated during the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, and was popularised in the U.S. by the movie of the same name.

It was sent by Mitsuo Fuchida, the leader of the first wave of Japanese fighters, to his superiors on the aircraft carrier *Akagi*. The word *tora* means "tiger" in Japanese, but in this case is an abbreviated radio codeword, an abbreviation for *totsugeki raigeki*, literally meaning "lightning attack," indicating to his superiors that the objective of complete surprise had been achieved.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.4.1.10**

1. Why was there tension and public outcry against Japanese aggression in the USA?

2. What did the US do when Japan invaded French - Indo China?

3. Who was the Prime Minister of Japan at that time?

4. Why was the attack on Pearl Harbour a complete surprise to the USA?

5. Refer to the comic strip below and answer the following question.





Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1



Sub topic 11.4.1.11: Expansion of Japanese militarism 1933-1937

In this sub topic, you will study about Japan's expanding military power between 1933 and 1937.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain the occupation of China's northern provinces
- describe Chinese reaction of the Communists
- explain the motive of Japan's attack on China and Indo-China (Vietnam)

Second Sino-Japanese War

From September 1932, the Japanese were becoming more locked into the course that would lead them into the Second World War (WW2), with Araki leading the way. In a September 23 news conference, Araki first mentioned the philosophy of "Kōdōha". The concept of Kodo linked the Emperor, the people, land, and morality as indivisible. This led to the creation of a "new" Shinto and increased Emperor Worship in Japanese society.

On February 26, 1936, a coup was attempted (the February 26 Incident). Launched by the Kōdōha faction within the military, it ultimately failed due to the intervention of the Emperor. Kōdōha members were **purged** from the top military positions and the Tōseiha faction gained dominance. However, both factions believed in expansionism, a strong military, and a coming war. Furthermore, Kōdōha members, while removed from the military, still had political influence within the government.

The state was being transformed to serve the Army and the Emperor, but in the form of a contemporary Military **Shogunate**. In such a government the Emperor would be a figurehead (as in the Edo period). On the other hand, the Navy militarists defended the Emperor and a constitutional monarchy. With the launching of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association in 1940 Prime Minister Fumimaro Konoe, turned to form a government that resembled **totalitarianism**. This unique style of government, very similar to **fascism**, was known as Japanese nationalism.

Under the excuse of the Manchurian Incident, Lieutenant Colonel Ishiwara invaded Inner (Chinese) Manchuria in 1931. As a result of international disapproval of the incident, Japan resigned from the League of Nations in 1933. After several more similar incidents fueled by an expansionist military, the second Sino-Japanese War began in 1937 after the Marco Polo Bridge Incident. The **Marco Polo Bridge Incident** was a battle between the Republic of China's NRA and the Imperial Japanese Army, often used to mark the start of the second Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945).

After joining the Anti-Comintern Pact in 1936, Japan formed the Axis Pact with Germany and Italy on September 27, 1940. Many Japanese politicians believed that a war with the Occident was hard to avoid due to cultural differences and ongoing Western imperialism.

Japan was defeated by the Soviet Union in 1938 in the Battle of Lake Khasan and 1939 in the Battle of Khalkhin Gol. As the Army did not see a benefit to fighting the Soviet Union,



the Soviet–Japanese Neutrality Pact was signed in 1941. The treaty held until August 1945 when the Soviets invaded Manchuria and Korea.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.11

1. Describe the events that unfolded on February 26, 1936.

2. What are some features of Japanese nationalism?

3. Which event caused Japan to resign from the League of Nations?

4. When and how did the second Sino-Japanese war start?

5. When did Japan signed the following pacts and with whom?

- a) Anti-Comintern

- b) Axis



c) Japanese-Soviet Neutrality

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1

Sub topic 11.4.1.12: Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere

In this sub topic, you study Japan's expansionism policy and the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- define Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere
- identify the cultural, economic, and political reasons for the development of the Co-Prosperity Sphere
- explain steps the Japanese took to develop the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere

The **Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere** was an imperial **propaganda** idea created and spread for occupied Asian populations during the Shōwa era by the government and military of the Japan Empire. It extended beyond East Asia and promoted the cultural and economic unity of Northeast Asians, Southeast Asians, and Oceania nations. It also declared the intention to create a self-sufficient "bloc of Asian nations led by the Japanese and free of Western powers". It was announced in a radio address entitled "The International Situation and Japan's Position" by Foreign Minister Hachirō Arita on June 29, 1940.

The Japanese planned the Sphere in 1940 in an attempt to create a Great East Asia, comprising Japan, Manchukuo, China, and parts of Southeast Asia. According to imperial propaganda, it would establish a new international order seeking "co-prosperity" for Asian countries who would share prosperity and peace, and be free from Western colonialism and domination. Military goals of this expansion included naval operations in the Indian Ocean and the isolation of Australia. The term "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" is remembered as a front for the Japanese control of occupied countries during the war for the benefit of Imperial Japan.

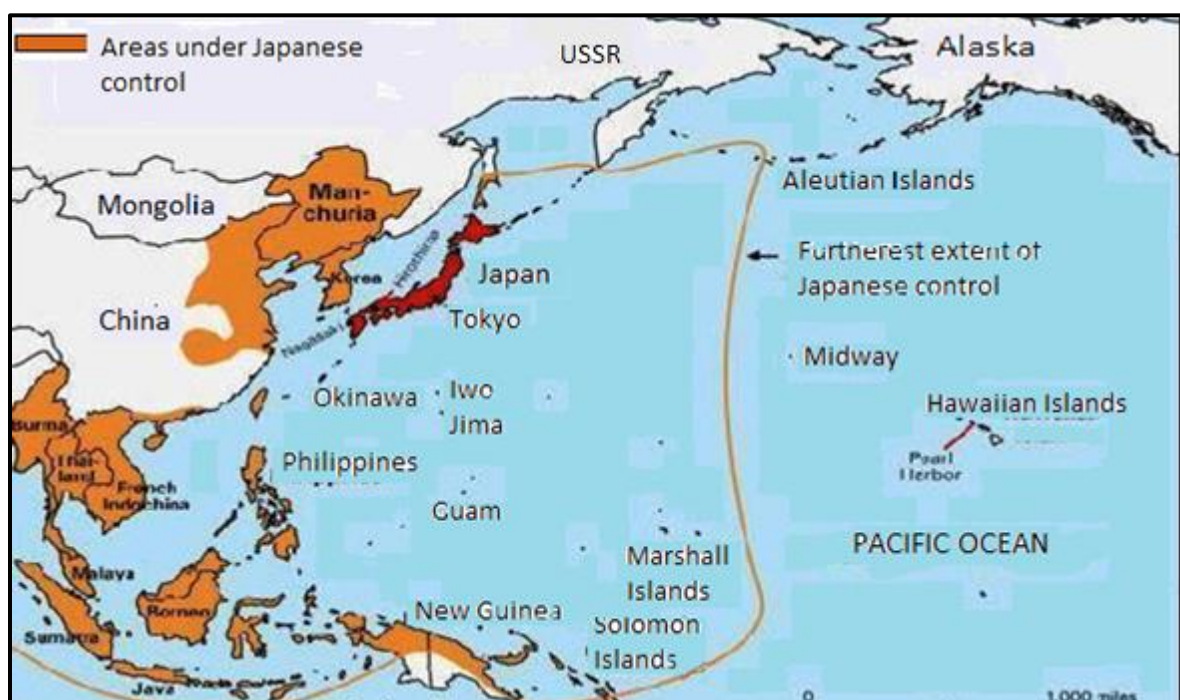


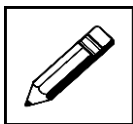
Figure 11: Map showing Japanese Expansion - mid 1942



The following events caused by Japan during WW2 between 1940 and 1945.

- Japan made plans to control the whole Pacific. This plan was called the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”. In 1940, Japan joined Germany and Italy to form the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.
- The United States put pressure on Japan to stop its aggression. US cut off shipments of gasoline, scrap iron, and steel. Japan anticipated war and decided to strike the first blow. On December 7, 1941, Japanese navy pilots attacked the U.S. base at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii. The surprise attack led to war in the Pacific and Europe.
- By 1942, Japan controlled much of Asia and Southeast Asia as well as Oceania. From 1942-1945 Japan fought the United States in a series of bloody battles to control these regions. Casualties were very high.
- In August, 1945, the United States dropped two bombs on Japan. The bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki resulted in Japan’s surrender.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.12

1. What is the South East Asian co-prosperity sphere about?

2. Why did Japan embark on this policy?

3. Name five countries that were invaded by Japan during this expansion policy?

4. What did US do to make Japan stop its aggression?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.1



Sub topic 11.4.1.13: Pearl Harbour and Pacific War

In this sub topic, you look at the introduction to the war in the Pacific and the bombing of Pearl Harbour.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify Japan's actions in Asia that led to World War II in Asia and the Pacific
- describe the reactions and response to Japan's actions.

Japan's actions leading up to WW2 in the Pacific (1937–1941)

Between 1937 and 1941, increasing conflict between China and Japan influenced U.S. relations with both nations, and finally contributed to pushing the United States toward full-scale war with Japan and Germany.

At the start, U.S. officials opposed Japan's invasions into northeast China and the rise of Japanese militarism in the area, in part because of their sense of a longstanding friendship with China. On the other hand, most U.S. officials believed that it had no vital interests in China worth going to war over with Japan. The domestic conflict between Chinese Nationalists and Communists left U.S. policy makers uncertain of success in aiding such an internally divided nation. As a result, few U.S. officials recommended taking a strong stand and did little to help China for fear of provoking Japan. On July 7, 1937, the Chinese and Japanese forces clashed on the Marco Polo Bridge near Beijing. This incident caused the two nations to go into a full-scale war. Tensions with Japan rose when the Japanese Army bombed the U.S.S. Panay as it evacuated American citizens from Nanjing, killing three. The U.S. Government, however, continued to avoid conflict and accepted an apology and indemnity from the Japanese. An uneasy truce held between the two nations into 1940.

In 1940 and 1941, President Franklin D. Roosevelt formalised U.S. aid to China. The U.S. Government extended credits to the Chinese Government for the purchase of war supplies, as it slowly began to tighten restrictions on Japan. The United States was the main supplier of the oil, steel, iron, and other commodities needed by the Japanese military. Prolonged Chinese resistance caused Japan to abolish the existing treaty of commerce with the United States in January, 1940. Although this did not lead to an immediate **embargo**, it meant that the Roosevelt Administration could now restrict the flow of military supplies into Japan and use this as influence to force Japan to stop its aggression in China.

After January 1940, the United States combined a strategy of increasing aid to China through larger credits and the Lend-Lease program with a gradual move towards an embargo on the trade of all militarily useful items with Japan. The Japanese Government made several decisions during these two years that worsened the situation. Unable to control the military, Japan's political leaders sought greater security by establishing the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" in August, 1940. In so doing they announced Japan's intention to drive the Western imperialist nations from Asia. However, this Japanese-led project aimed to enhance Japan's economic and material wealth so that it would not be dependent upon supplies from the West.



In fact, Japan would have to launch a campaign of military conquest and rule, and did not intend to pull out of China.

At the same time, several pacts with Western nations only made Japan appear more of a threat to the United States. The following points outline the reason why Japan was a threat to the United States.

- First, Japan signed the **Tripartite Pact** with Germany and Italy on September 27, 1940 and thereby linked the conflicts in Europe and Asia. This made China a potential U.S. ally in the global fight against fascism.
- Then in mid-1941, Japan signed a **Neutrality Pact** with the Soviet Union, making it clear that Japan's military would be moving into Southeast Asia, where the United States had greater interests.
- A third agreement with Vichy France enabled Japanese forces to move into Indochina and begin their Southern Advance.

The United States responded to this growing threat by temporarily halting negotiations with Japanese diplomats, instituting a full embargo on exports to Japan, freezing Japanese assets in U.S. banks, and sending supplies into China along the Burma Road. Although negotiations restarted after the United States increasingly enforced an embargo against Japan, they made little progress.

Faced with serious shortages as a result of the embargo, unable to retreat, and convinced that the U.S. officials opposed further negotiations, Japan's leaders came to the conclusion that they had to act swiftly. The Japanese government decided to execute a plan developed by the military branch largely led by Osami Nagano and Isoroku Yamamoto to bomb the United States naval base in Hawaii, thereby bringing the United States into World War II on the side of the Allies. For their part, U.S. leaders had not given up on a negotiated settlement, and also doubted that Japan had the military strength to attack the U.S. territory.

On September 4, 1941, the Japanese Cabinet met to consider the war plans prepared by Imperial General Headquarters, and decided:

Our Empire, for the purpose of self-defense and self-preservation, will complete preparations for war ... [and is] ... resolved to go to war with the United States, Great Britain and the Netherlands if necessary.

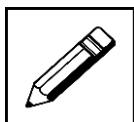
The Imperial Japanese Navy made its surprise attack on Pearl Harbour, Oahu, Hawaii, on Sunday morning, December 7, 1941. The Pacific Fleet of the United States Navy and its defending Army Air Forces and Marine air forces sustained significant losses. The primary objective of the attack was to disable the United States long enough for Japan to establish its long-planned Southeast Asian empire and defensible buffer zones. However, as Admiral Yamamoto feared, the attack produced little lasting damage to the US Navy with priority targets like the Pacific Fleet's aircraft carriers out at sea and vital shore facilities, whose destruction could have crippled the fleet on their own, were ignored.

The following day, the United States declared war on Japan, and it soon entered into a military alliance with China. When Germany stood by its ally and declared war on the United States, the Roosevelt Administration faced war in both Europe and Asia.

Four days later, Adolf Hitler of Nazi Germany declared war on the United States.



Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.1.13

Use the following codes to uncover the coded items in the sentence below.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

- (1) Japan seized 13-1-14-3-8-21-18-9-1 in 1931.
- (2) The second Sino-Japanese War began in 1937 when Japan attacked 3-8-9-14-1.
- (3) Many Filipinos and Americans died during the 2-1-20-1-1-14 Death March in the Philippines.
- (4) Thousands of Chinese women and girls were brutally raped during what is known as the "Rape of 14-1-14-11-9-14-7."
- (5) In 1940, the United States enacted a complete 5-13-2-1-18-7-15 against all American exports to Japan.
- (6) General 20-15-10-15 led Japanese forces during World War II.
- (7) The Japanese attacked the American fleet at 16-5-1-18-12 8-1-18-2-15-18, Hawaii, on December 7, 1941.
- (8) Fought from the air, the allies won the battle of 13-9-4-23-1-25 in June, 1942.
- (9) General Douglas 13-1-3-1-18-20-8-21-18 served as Supreme Allied Commander in the Pacific.
- (10) The policy of 9-19-12-1-14-4 – 8-15-16-16-9-14-7 involved capturing strategic islands in a move to eventually reach Japan.
- (11) Japanese who, on suicide missions, flew their airplanes into American warships were known as 11-1-13-9-11-1-26-5 pilots.
- (12) Participants in the 13-1-14-8-1-20-20-1-14 Project created the first atomic bomb.
- (13) The first atomic bomb was dropped on 8-9-18-15-19-8-9-13-1, Japan, on August 6, 1945.
- (14) The second atomic bomb was dropped on 14-1-7-1-19-1-11-9, Japan, on August 9, 1945.
- (15) Emperor 8-9-18-15-8-9-20-15 forced the Japanese government to surrender on August 10, 1945.

2. Why did Japan bomb Pearl Harbour?

3. When did Japan bomb Pearl Harbour?



4. What happened as a result?



Answers to Activities 11.4.1

Activity 11.4.1.1

1. Qing family also known as the Manchu Dynasty
2. Qing family – Emperor Guangxu
3. Trade with China particularly the opium trade
- 4.

Event	Date	Who was involved?
Taiping Rebellion	1850-1864	Guerilla Soldiers/peasants vs Manchu Dynasty
Boxers Rebellion	1899-1900	Boxers vs Foreigners/Christians

5. In 1898, the emperor Guangxu introduced a batch of reforms during the so-called Hundred Days of Reform. These Hundred Days of Reform introduced new schools and colleges to boost the educational system in China. Corrupt officials were removed from the court and the financial structure of the government was reformed and modernised.

Activity 11.4.1.2

1. The causes for revolution were a decision by the Qing to nationalise two privately-owned railways in central China, to help fund the government's Boxer Protocol reparations. When this nationalisation was announced in May 1911 it created a firestorm of protest, particularly in Sichuan province, where a large number of businessmen had invested their own money in the railway.
2. October 10th or 'Double-Ten Day' was the day, the Wuchang regiment mutinied and stormed government buildings, arresting loyalist soldiers and seizing control of the city
3.
 - a) China became a republic and end of the Manchu Dynasty and imperial rule.
 - b) Declaration of a republican government in Hubei province. A flag hoisted containing 18 connected stars, representing the unification of China's 18 provinces. A successful uprising in Wuchang. A wave of similar rebellions around China. Over the following six at least 22 different uprisings happened across China.

Activity 11.4.1.3

1. Three competing warlord factions:
 - a) the Chihli clique (led by Feng Guozhang)
 - b) the Anhwei clique (Duan Qirui) and
 - c) the Fengtien clique (Zhang Zuolin)



2. Southern part of China
3. Make them rich
4. A good warlord was Yan Xishan, who ruled Shanxi province. Yan was well educated, a career soldier in the Qing military and an advocate of self-strengthening and good reforms.
5. Unemployment, hunger, starvation, poverty, many civilians died and also sold into prostitution.

Activity 11.4.1.4

1. In 1915, Japan presented China with “The Twenty –one Demands”. The demands aimed at making China part of Japan Empire. China had no choice but to accept those demands.
2. The whole of China was united in anger for a brief period. Shops were closed, Japanese goods were destroyed, students demonstrated and newspapers wrote fierce articles about foreign actions. The students took on themselves to show the world that they were not ready to be branded as a worthless race of the twentieth century. May fourth movement was largely a student movement; it reflected the growth of nationalistic feeling in China.
3. Biography of Sun Yat-sen

Events	Dates/description
Name	Sun Yat-sen
Date of Birth	12 th November 1866
Place	Cuiheng village, Xiangshan Country
Family	2 wives and many children
Education	Medical Doctor
Death	1925
Achievements	-Establish Revive China Society in 1894. -Formed the Kuomintang -Lead the 1911 Rebellion -President of Kuomintang in 1919. -Lead Northern Expedition/Unification of China

5. KMT – Capitalism/Democracy
6. CCP – Communism
7.
 - (a) 1945-49
 - (b) 1926-1928
 - (c) 1945-9
 - (d) 1921
 - (e) 1937-45

Activity 11.4.1.5

1. The Northern Expedition was a Kuomintang (KMT) military campaign, led by Chiang Kai-shek, from 1926 to 1928. Its main objective was to unify China under its own control, by ending the rule of Beiyang government as well as the local warlords.
2. These problems were still unresolved in China when Chiang took over from Sun Yet-sen.
 - China was still divided
 - The KMT was too large a party to satisfy all its different member groups
 - The KMT had not developed economic programs to deal with the poverty issues.



- To solve poverty, China needed to unite.
 - The Warlords were still very strong
 - The famine of 1928-30 caused great suffering and misery.
3. The main targets of this expedition were three notorious and powerful warlords: Zhang Zuolin who governed Manchuria, Wu Peifu in the Central Plain region and Sun Chuanfang on the east coast.
 4. When Chiang reached Shanghai, he ordered his own soldiers to kill the communists and their supporters. In the Shanghai massacre, thousands of Communists were executed or went missing, while others were arrested and imprisoned. Thousands of communist soldiers who have helped the GMD gain Shanghai were ruthlessly killed by the GMD troops in the massacre known as the 'Great Betrayal' of 1927.
 5. Taiwan (Formosa)

Activity 11.4.1.6

1. Chiang failed to control China because:
 - Former warlords were still in control over some areas.
 - Factional disunity and corruption within the party.
 - KMT power was not based on an ideology,
 - There was opposition from the communists
2.
 - (a) 1893
 - (b) 1921
 - (c) 1921
 - (d) 1931
 - (e) 1949
 - (g) 1958
 - (h) 1958
 - (i) 1966
 - (j) 1976
3. Timeline
 - a) Ideology- communism
 - b) Army – Red Army / Communist Army
 - c) Essay – Thoughts
 - d) Book – Little Red Book

Activity 11.4.1.7

1. The long march was a retreat of the communist in fear of the Kuomintang's attack on them.
2.
 - (a) The communists (Red Army) and their supporters, about 87, 000 of them.



- (b) Mao Tse Tung and Russian adviser Otto Braun
- (c) Escape from the attack by the Kuomintang army who surrounded the Red army. They also desired to have a new communist base or target
- (e) Covered over 9, 000 kilometres and took 368 days
- (f) Jiangxi to Yanan

Activity 11.4.1.8

1. Mao Tse tung for the Red army and Chiang Kai-shek for the Kuomintang (nationalists).
2. Because the Kuomintang were attacking the communists and not the Japanese.
3. China united in 1937. The Japanese were the enemy, not the Chinese communists. The Chinese needed to be united to protect their country from Japanese expansion (imperialism).
4. The effects of the unification:
 - Stronger Chinese national unity
 - Contributed to 2nd Sino-Japanese War
 - Weakening of the Kuomintang
 - Spread of communism
 - Strengthening and Politicalising of Chinese Nationalism
5. Order of events
 - 1) The CCP had retreated to Northern Shensi
 - 2) Chiang orders the 6th and final extermination of the CCP
 - 3) Chiang is arrested by Chuang Hseuh-liang, his own general
 - 4) Chiang is released because he agreed to end the civil war
 - 5) The KMT agreed to cancel the official ban on CCP

Activity 11.4.1.9

1. A document issued by the emperor that showed the new government aims.
2. Impacts on Japan for having a central government:
 - Feudalism had been abolished, ending Daiymo and Samurai control of Japan
 - A rich group developed, consisting of the ex-daiymo, some of the riche ex-samurai and the merchants who have become wealthy under the Tokugawa. This rich group formed the basis of the new nobility and provided capital for Japan's development.
 - Some samurais were opposed to the new government, especially the poor ones who sank into poverty and resented the loss of their privileges.
3. Taishō became emperor when Emperor Meiji passed on in 1912. The new emperor suffered from various nervous problems and it was impossible for him to carry out public functions. The life of Emperor Taishō was very different to that of Emperor Meiji, which led to the declining imperial power during this period, and the Taishō democracy.



4. Japan's reason for militarism;

- Japan's desire to be a Western-style imperialist power and
- Japan's concerns for its security and safety, played important roles in the growth of militarism up to the end of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905. The next two reasons,
- Japan's belief in its leadership role for Asia and
- Japan's frequent provocations by Western powers, gave rise to an expansion of militarism and imperialism from 1905 to the 1930s. The final reason,
- Japan's desire to secure its economic interests, rose in importance as Japan entered the decade of the 1930s.

5. Emperor Showa of Japan. Taisho's son who succeeded him.

Activity 11.4.1.10

1. Tensions were mounting with the U.S. as a result of a public outcry over Japanese aggression and reports of atrocities in China particularly of the Nanjing Massacre.
2. In retaliation to the invasion of French Indochina, the U.S began an embargo on goods such as petroleum and scrap iron products. On July 25, 1941, all Japanese assets in the US were frozen. Because Japan's military strength, especially the mobility of the Navy, was dependent on its now dwindling oil reserves, this action had the contrary effect of increasing Japan's dependence on and need for new acquisitions.
3. Prime Minister Konoe Fumimaro
4. The Americans were expecting an attack in the Philippines and sent bombers to deter Japan. On Yamamoto's advice, Japan made the decision to attack the main American fleet at Pearl Harbour in Hawaii. American strategists believed that Japan would never be so bold as to attack so close to its home base, and the US was taken completely by surprise.
5. Japan's official announcement that they have declared war on the United States was being delivered to the White House when the bombs fell on Pearl Harbour. The attack caused short term damages. American battle ships were destroyed but its aircraft carriers, air support and mainland facilities were intact.
The Japanese planned a surprise attack on the U.S. military base on December 7, 1941. According to the cartoon, the Japanese must have attacked just as the sun set. They bombed the Pearl Harbour military base only and returned home.

Activity 11.4.1.11

1. On February 26, 1936, a coup was attempted (the February 26 Incident). Launched by the ultranationalist Kōdōha faction with the military, it ultimately failed due to the intervention of the Emperor. Kōdōha members were purged from the top military positions and the Tōseiha faction gained dominance.
2. A feature of Japan's government is a fascist or totalitarian type of government.
3. Invasion of Manchuria – China
4. 1937 – After the Marco Polo Incident



5.

- (a) 1936 with Russia (b) 1940 with Germany and Italy (c) 1941 with Soviet

Activity 11.4.1.12

1. The Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere was an imperial propaganda concept created and promulgated for occupied Asian populations during the first third of the Shōwa era by the government and military of the Empire of Japan.
2. It extended greater than East Asia and promoted the cultural and economic unity of Northeast Asians, Southeast Asians, and Oceania's. It also declared the intention to create a self-sufficient "bloc of Asian nations led by the Japanese and free of Western powers".
4. Manchuria, Korea, Burma, Thailand, Malaya, Philippines, Indonesia, French Indochina and parts of New guinea.
5. The United States put pressure on Japan to stop its aggression. President FD Roosevelt cut off shipments of gasoline, scrap iron, and steel.

Activity 11.4.1.13

1. Each number represents a letter of the alphabet. Crack the code and decipher each series of numbers to complete the statements.
 - (a) MANCHURIA
 - (b) CHINA
 - (c) BATAAN
 - (d) NANKING
 - (e) EMBARGO
 - (f) TOJO
 - (g) PEARL HARBOUR
 - (h) MIDWAY
 - (i) MacARTHUR
 - (j) ISLAND-HOPPING
 - (k) KAMIKAZE
 - (l) MANHATTAN
 - (m)HIROSHIMA
 - (n) NAGASAKI
 - (o) HIROHITO
2. To disable the U.S long enough for Japan to establish its long planned Southeast Asian empire and buffer zones.
3. It was on the morning of December 7th 1941.
4. USA declared war on Japan thus starting the war in the Pacific.



Sub unit 11.4.2: World War 2 (1939-1945)

Introduction

This sub unit looks at the period during the World War 2 from 1939 to 1945. The effects of the Great Depression could still be felt in most major economies in the world particularly the United States. By this time Japan was already expanding its military power preparing for war. WW2 was fought in the Pacific and in Asia. Britain, the U.S and Australia formed the Allies. The Axis comprised Germany, Italy and Japan. The World War started in Europe in 1939 by the Axis and spread to the Pacific by Japan's bombing of the Pearl Harbour in 1941 that brought the United States into the war.

The Allies won the war with the help of the United States.



Sub unit 11.4.2.1: Pre World War Two

In this sub topic, you look at the events that had happened before World War II in Europe. You will discuss and study the events or happenings after World War One but before World War Two.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Describe the events before World War II
- identify and describe the causes of the war in Europe

World War Two was a global military conflict that, in terms of lives lost and material destruction, was the most devastating war in human history. It began in 1939 as a European conflict between Germany and an Anglo-French coalition but eventually widened to include most of the nations of the world. It ended in 1945, leaving a new world order dominated by the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republic.

More than any previous war, World War II involved the commitment of nations' entire human and economic resources. In the last stages of the war, two new weapons were introduced: the long-range rocket and the atomic bomb. In the main, however, the war was fought with the improved weapons of the types used in World War I (1914-1918). The greatest advances were in aircraft and tanks.

The World after WW1

Three major powers had been dissatisfied with the outcome of World War I. Germany, the main defeated nation, bitterly resented the territorial losses and reparations payments imposed on it by the Treaty of Versailles. Italy, one of the victors, found its territorial gains far from enough either to offset the cost of the war. Japan, also a victor, was unhappy about its failure to gain control of China.

Causes of WW2

France, the United Kingdom, and the United States had achieved their wartime objectives. They had reduced Germany's military power terms and reorganised Europe and the world. The French and the British frequently disagreed on policy in the postwar period, however, and were unsure of their ability to defend the peace settlement. The United States, disappointed by the Europeans' failure to repay their war debts, withdrew into **isolationism**.

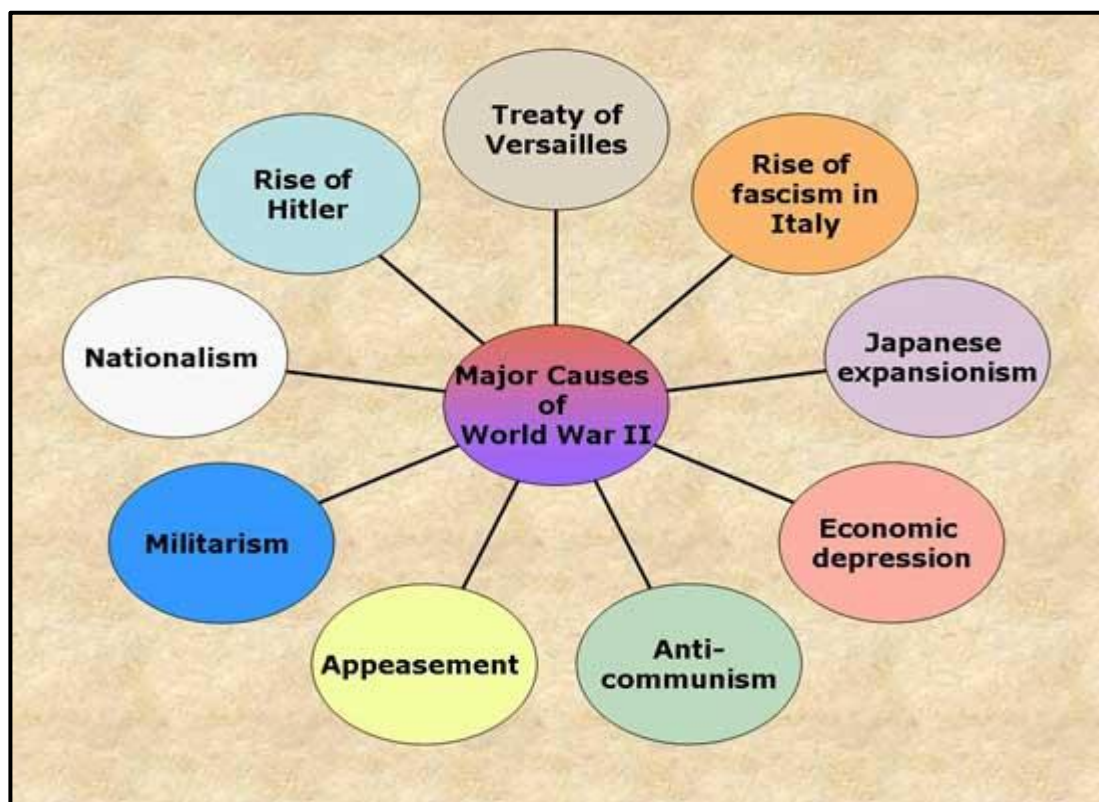


Figure 12: Major Causes of WW II

The failure of the Peace Efforts

During the 1920s, attempts were made to achieve a stable peace. The first was the establishment (1920) of the League of Nations as a forum in which nations could settle their disputes. The league's powers were limited to military and economic powers. At the Washington Conference of 1921-22, the principal naval powers agreed to limit their navies according to a fixed ratio. The Locarno Conference (1925) produced a treaty guarantee of the German-French boundary and an arbitration agreement between Germany and Poland. In the Paris Peace Pact (1928), 63 countries, including all the great powers except the USSR, renounced war as an instrument of national policy and pledged to resolve all disputes among them by peaceful means. Great Britain and France adopted a policy of leniency towards Germany known as appeasement so that there could be a period of peace in Europe.

The Rise of Fascism



more effectively than democracy and presented itself as the one sure defense against communism. Benito Mussolini established the first Fascist dictatorship in Italy in 1922 and then

One of the victors' stated aims in World War I had been "to make the world safe for democracy," and postwar Germany adopted a democratic constitution, as did most of the other states restored or created after the war. In the 1920s, however, the wave of the future appeared to be a form of nationalistic, militaristic totalitarianism known by its Italian name, **fascism**. It promised to minister to peoples' wants



Hitler rose to power in 1932 with its own form of fascism in Germany. This type of government was totally opposite of what democracy promoted.

Formation of Axis Coalition

Adolf Hitler, the *Führer* ("leader") of the German National Socialist (Nazi) Party, preached a racist brand of fascism. Hitler promised to overturn the Versailles Treaty and secure additional *Lebensraum* ("living space") for the German people, who he contended deserved more as members of a superior race. In the early 1930s, the Depression hit Germany. The moderate parties could not agree on what to do about it, and large numbers of voters turned to the Nazis and Communists. In 1933 Hitler became the German chancellor, and in a series of moves established himself as dictator.

Japan did not formally adopt fascism, but the armed forces' powerful position in the government enabled them to impose a similar type of totalitarianism. As dismantlers of the world status quo, the Japanese military were well ahead of Hitler. They used a minor clash with Chinese troops near Mukden in 1931 as an excuse for taking over all of Manchuria, where they claimed the puppet state of Manchukuo in 1932. In 1937-1938 they occupied the main Chinese ports.

Germany's expansion in Europe

Hitler launched his own expansionist drive with the **annexation** of Austria in March 1938. The way was clear: Mussolini supported him; and the British and French, restrained by German rearmament, accepted Hitler's claim that the status of Austria was an internal German affair. The United States had reduced its ability to act against aggression by passing a neutrality law that stopped material assistance to all parties in foreign conflicts.

In September 1938 Hitler threatened war to annex the western border area of Czechoslovakia, the Sudetenland and its 3.5 million ethnic Germans. The British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain started talks that ended at the end of the month in the Munich Pact, by which the Czechs, on British and French advice, surrendered the Sudetenland in return for Hitler's promise not to take any more Czech territory. Less than six months later, in March 1939, Hitler seized the remainder of Czechoslovakia. Alarmed by this new aggression and by Hitler's threats against Poland, the British government pledged to aid that country if Germany threatened its independence. France already had a mutual defense treaty with Poland.

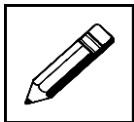
Joseph Stalin, the Soviet dictator, had offered military help to Czechoslovakia during the 1938 crisis, but had been ignored by all the parties to the Munich Pact. Now that war threatened, he was courted by both sides, but Hitler made the more attractive offer. Allied with Britain and France, the Soviet Union might well have had to fight, but all Germany asked for was its neutrality. In Moscow, on the night of August 23, 1939, the Nazi-Soviet Pact was signed. In the part published the next day, Germany and the Soviet Union agreed not to go to war against each other. A secret protocol gave Stalin a free hand in Finland, Estonia, Latvia, eastern Poland, and eastern Romania.



Figure 13: Nazi – Soviet Pact - 1939

In the early morning hours of September 1, 1939, the German armies marched into Poland. On September 3 the British and French surprised Hitler by declaring war on Germany, but they had no plans for giving active assistance to the Poles.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.2.1

1. What is the name of the treaty which Germany resented and was bitter about? Why were the Germans bitter about this Treaty?

2. List the main causes of World War



Figure 14: Cartoon depicting USA attitude towards WW II-Isolation

U.S. Involvement in WWII

After WWI, many people in the United States were isolationists. This meant that they did not want to become involved in the problems of the world. When Nazi Germany invaded the country of Poland in 1939, Great Britain and France declared War on Germany. The United States did not enter the war against Germany. Many people, especially those in Great Britain became angry at the United States. When Germany started openly attacking Great Britain and France, both of those countries turned to the United States for help. The United States gave them money and weapons but wouldn't commit any troops.

3. Study Figure 14 and read the passage above to answer questions (a) and (b).

a) What policy did US adopt after WW1?

b) Explain how the policy contributed to WW2?



4. Which dictator in Europe started the war?

5. When did the WW2 start?

6. Arrange these events in chronological order of happening from earliest to latest, and indicate with numbers 1 to 5 for each statement.

- | | |
|--|-------|
| a. Germany invades Poland. | <hr/> |
| b. Britain declares war on Germany | <hr/> |
| c. Nazi-Soviet Pact signed | <hr/> |
| d. Hitler became the German chancellor | <hr/> |
| e. Germany annexes Austria | <hr/> |

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.2



Sub topic 11.4.2.2: The Dominance of the Axis Powers

In this sub topic, you look at the Dominance of the Axis Powers.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the course of the war in Europe
- Explain events and the first phase of military operation in Europe.

The German and Polish forces were about equal in numbers. Hitler committed about 1.5 million troops, and the Polish commander, Marshal Edward Smigły-Rydz, was expected to gather 1.8 million. However, the Germans had six panzer (armoured) and four motorised divisions while the Poles had one armored and one motorised brigade and a few tank battalions. The Germans' 1,600 aircraft were mostly of the latest types. Half of the Poland's 935 planes were old-fashioned.

The Blitzkrieg in Poland

Polish strategic doctrine called for a strong defense of the whole frontier and expected several weeks of opening warfare. It was wrong on both counts. On the morning of September 1, waves of German bombers hit the railroads and spoilt the Polish mobilisation. In four days, two army groups—one in the north out of East Prussia, the other in the south out of Silesia—had broken through on relatively narrow fronts. This was blitzkrieg (lightning war): the use of armor, air power, and mobile infantry in a fast movement to encircle the enemy.

Between September 8 and 10, the Germans closed in on Warsaw from the north and south, trapping the Polish forces west of the capital. By September 20, practically the whole country was in German or Soviet hands.

The Phony War

A French and British offensive in the west might have enabled Poland to fight longer, but until enough British soldiers arrived, it would have had to be mounted mainly by the French. French strategy, however, was defensive, based on holding the heavily guarded **Maginot line**. The quick finish in Poland left both sides at loose ends. Dismayed, the British and French became preoccupied with schemes to prevent another war. Hitler made a weak peace offer and at the same time ordered his generals to ready an attack on the Low Countries and France. The generals, who did not think they could do against France what they had done in Poland, asked for time and insisted they could only take Holland, Belgium, and the French channel coast. Except at sea, where German submarines operated against merchant shipping and the British navy imposed a blockade, so little was going on after the first week in October that the U.S. newspapers called it the Phony War.

The Soviet- Finish War

On November 30, 1939 after two months of tension, the Soviet Union invaded Finland. Stalin was bent on having a blitzkrieg of his own, but his plan failed. The Finns, under Marshal Carl G. Mannerheim, were expert at winter warfare. The Soviet troops, on the other hand, were often badly led, in part because political purges had claimed many of the Red Army's senior officers. Outnumbered by at least five to one, the Finns held their own and kept fighting into the New Year.

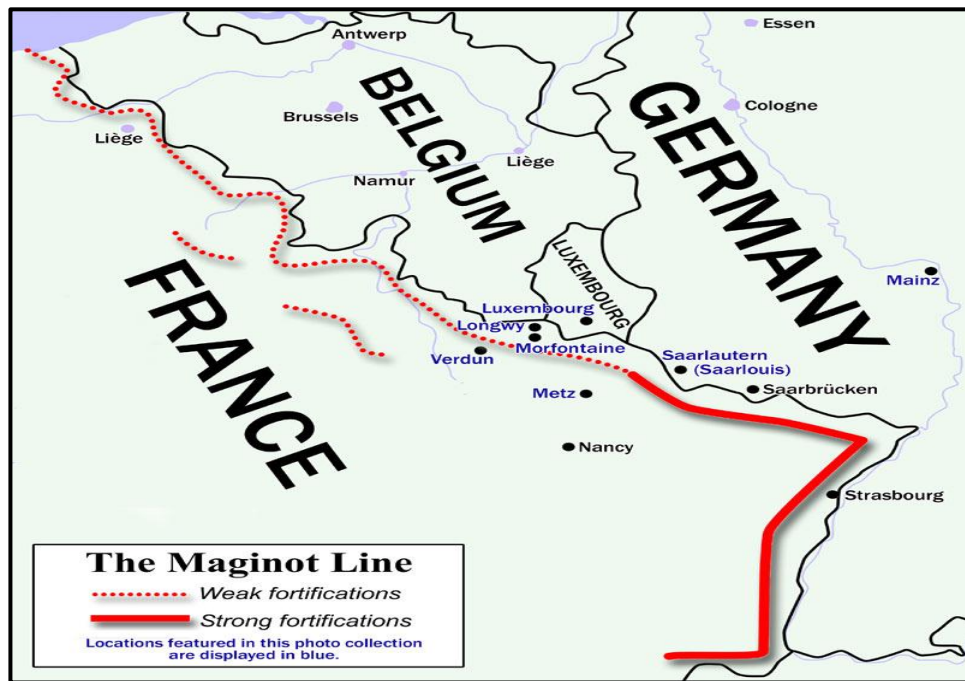


Figure 15: The Maginot Line

The Defeat of France

On June 5, 1940 the Germans launched a new assault against France. Italy declared war on France and Britain on June 10. The Maginot line, which only extended to the Belgian border, was intact, but the French

On June 17, Marshal Henri Philippe Pétain, a World War I hero who had become premier the day before, asked for an armistice. The **armistice** was signed on June 25 on terms that gave Germany control of northern France and the Atlantic coast. Pétain then set up a capital at Vichy in the unoccupied southeast.

The Battle of Britain

In the summer of 1940, Hitler dominated Europe from the North Cape to the Pyrenees. His one remaining active enemy—Britain, under a new prime minister, Winston Churchill—vowed to continue fighting. The British army had left most of its weapons on the beaches at Dunkerque. Stalin was in no mood to challenge Hitler. The United States, shocked by the fall of France, began the first peacetime conscription in its history and greatly increased its military budget, but public opinion, although sorry for Britain, was against getting into the war.

The Germans hoped to beat the British by starving them out. In June 1940 they undertook the Battle of the Atlantic, using submarine warfare to cut the British overseas lifelines. At the outset the Germans had only 28 submarines, but more were being built—enough to keep Britain in danger until the spring of 1943 and to carry on the battle for months thereafter.

Invasion was the fastest way to finish off Britain, but that meant crossing the English Channel; Hitler would not risk it. As a result, the Battle of Britain was fought in the air, not on the beaches. In August 1940 the Germans launched daylight raids against ports and airfields and in September against inland cities. The objective was to draw out the British fighters and destroy them. The Germans failed to reckon with a new device, radar, which increased the British fighters' effectiveness. Because their own losses were too high, the Germans had to

switch to night bombing at the end of September. Between then and May 1941 they made 71 major raids on London and 56 on other cities. On September 17, 1940, Hitler postponed the invasion indefinitely.



Figure 16: The Battle of Britain

North Africa (1940-1941)

Hitler had told his generals in late July 1940 that the next attack would be on the USSR. There, he said, Germany would get its “living space” and defeat Britain as well. He claimed the British were only being kept in the war by the hope of a falling-out between Germany and the USSR. When the Soviets had been defeated and British positions in India and the Middle East were threatened, he believed that Britain would make peace. Hitler wanted to start in the fall of 1940, but his advisers persuaded him to avoid the risks of a winter campaign in the Soviet Union and wait until the spring.

When Italy entered World War II in June 1940, the war quickly spread to North Africa, where her colony of Libya bordered the vital British protectorate of Egypt. On 7 September 1940, Marshall Graziani’s troops began a land offensive. Their large army won them initial success. They captured the port of Sidi el-Barrini and established a chain of fortified camps. The British counterattack, launched in December 1940 and led by General Wavell, crushed the Italians. As British armaments grew daily, Italian supplies decreased. Italian forces retreated in chaos, and the surrendering soldiers slowed down the Allied advance and made movement of tanks difficult.

Early in 1941 British forces pushed the Italians back into Libya, and in February Hitler sent General Erwin Rommel with a two-division tank corps, the Afrika Korps, to help his allies. Because he would need to cross their territory to get at Greece (and the Soviet Union), Hitler brought Romania and Hungary into the Axis alliance in November 1940; Bulgaria joined in March 1941. When Yugoslavia refused to follow, Hitler ordered an invasion of that country.

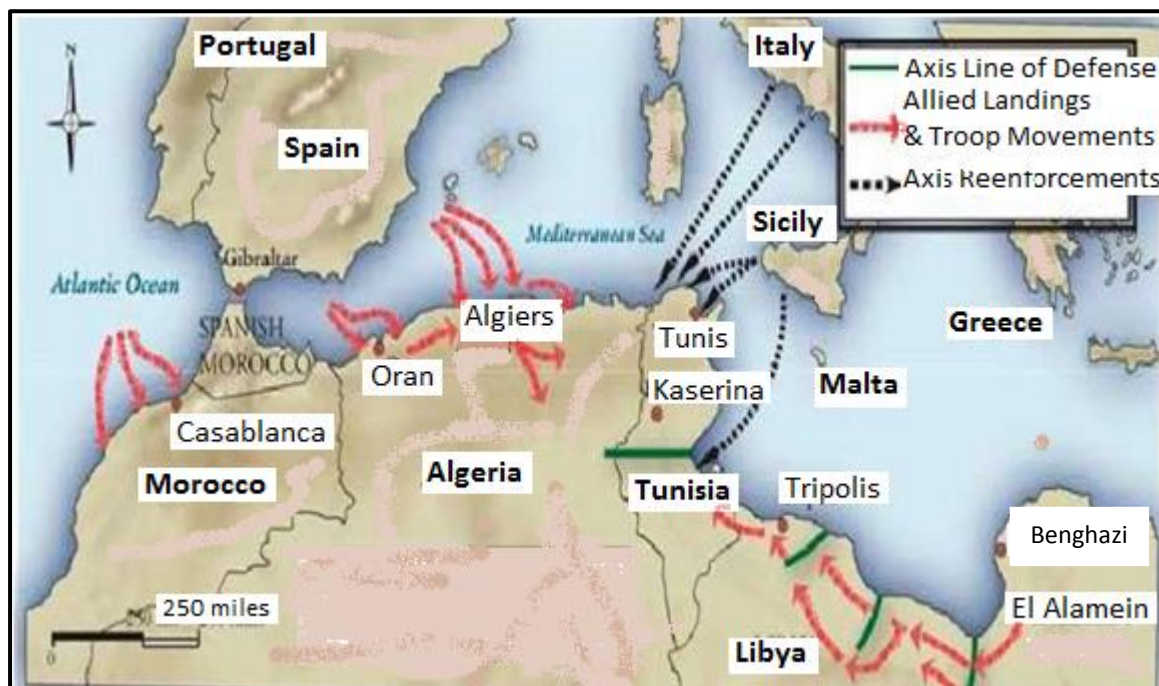
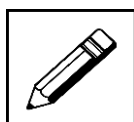


Figure 17: The campaign in North Africa 1940-41

Yugoslavia

The operations against Greece and Yugoslavia began on April 6, 1941. The Germans' main problem with the attack on Yugoslavia was in pulling together an army of nine divisions from Germany and France in less than ten days. They had to limit themselves for several days to air raids and border combat. On April 10 they opened drives on Belgrade from the northwest, north, and southeast. The city fell on April 13, and the Yugoslav army surrendered the next day. Yugoslavia, however, was easier to take than it would be to hold.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.2.2

1. Explain the two terms: Blitzkrieg and phony war



2. Fill in the table. Write clearly which side each country supported, that is, Allied or Axis, and state which country they fought against.

Country	Allied/Axis	Fought against
France		
Britain		
Yugoslavia		
Russia		
Finland		
Balkans		
Denmark		
North Africa		

3. Where was the Battle of Britain fought and how was it fought?

4. Why did Hitler invade Yugoslavia? Briefly explain.

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.2

Sub topic 11.4.2.3: Expansion of the War

In this sub topic, you look at the World War 2 events that occurred in Europe.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the second phase of military operations
- Identify and discuss the events that occurred during the war

In the year after the fall of France, the war moved toward a new stage—world war. While conducting minor campaigns in the Balkans, in North Africa, and in the air against Britain, Hitler positioned his main forces to the east and brought the countries of southeastern Europe (as well as Finland) into a partnership against the USSR.

US aid to Britain

The United States ended neutrality in the European war and approached a confrontation with Japan in Asia and the Pacific Ocean. In March 1941 the U.S. Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act and lent \$7 billion, weapons and other aid to any Allied countries. By this, United States hoped to ensure victory over the Axis without involving its own troops. By summer of 1941, however, the United States was in a state of undeclared war with Germany. In July, U.S. Marines were stationed in Iceland, which had been occupied by the British in May 1940, and took over the task of escorting convoys in the waters west of Iceland. In September President Franklin D. Roosevelt authorized ships on convoy duty to attack Axis war vessels.



Figure 18: Map of Operation Barbarossa

Operation Barbarossa was the name given to Nazi Germany's invasion of Russia on June 22nd 1941. Barbarossa the largest military attack of World War Two and was to have appalling consequences for the Russian people.

Operation Barbarossa was a massive attack based on blitzkrieg. Three army groups attacked Russia on June 22nd 1941. Army Group north, led by von Leeb, Army Group Centre, commanded by von Bock and Army Group South commanded by von Rundstedt. Russia was

defended by four army units. Though Russia had a large army, the purges had wiped out a considerable part of the army's senior commanders.

- In total, Germany amassed 117 army divisions for the attack excluding Romanian and Hungarian units.
- In total, Russia amassed 132 army divisions for the defence of the 'motherland', including 34 armoured divisions.



Figure 19: Russian prisoners of war

Plans for the attack on Russia had been around since 1940. It is now thought that Hitler lost interest in the Battle of Britain as he was far too focused on his desired attack on Russia.

In August 1940, Erich Marck (was a German general in the Wehrmacht during WW2) envisaged a massive attack on Moscow – his primary target. He also wanted a secondary attack on Kiev and two masking attacks in the Baltic towards Leningrad and in Moldavia in the south.

The next version of the plan was completed in December 1940 by Halder. He changed Marck's plan by having three thrusts; a major one against Moscow, a smaller attack on Kiev and a major attack on Leningrad.

The third and final version was Hitler's plan which he codenamed Barbarossa. This plan was constructed in December 1940. For Hitler, the primary military activity would take place in the north. Hence Leningrad became a vital target as did Moscow. His drive in the south was confined to the occupation of the Ukraine to the west of Kiev. The attack started at 03.00, Sunday morning June 22nd 1941. In total Germany and her allies used 3 million soldiers, 3580 tanks, 7 184 artillery guns, 1830 planes and 750, 000 horses.

"It is probable that history will regard June 22, 1941, as the apocalyptic date of the military calendar. No military plan of the scope of Operation Barbarossa had ever before been launched, for never before had techniques of organisation, transport, and communication been available on such a scale."

Barry Pitt -1941



The initial attacks involved numbers never seen before – and the success rate must have even taken Hitler by surprise even if Hitler had proclaimed:

“We have only to kick in the front door and the whole rotten Russian society will come tumbling down.” (Hitler) 1941

By Day 17 of the attack, 300, 000 Russians had been captured 2, 500 tanks, 1, 400 artillery guns and 250 aircraft captured or destroyed. This was only in the territory attacked by Army Group Centre. To any military observer, the Russian Army was on the verge of a total collapse and Moscow seemed destined to fall.

The Attempt to take Moscow

After a standstill of six weeks, Army Group Center resumed action on October 2. Within two weeks, it completed three large encirclements and took 663, 000 prisoners. The autumn rains turned the unsealed roads to mud stopping the advance for almost a month.

In mid-November, the weather turned cold and the ground froze. Hitler and the commander of Army Group Center, Field Marshal Fedor von Bock, faced the choice of having the armies dig in where they were or sending them ahead, possibly to be overtaken by the winter. Wanting to finish the 1941 campaign with some sort of a victory at Moscow, they chose to move ahead.

The panzer divisions had often covered such distances in less than a day, but the temperature was falling, snow was drifting on the roads, and neither the men nor the machines were equipped for extreme cold. On December 5 the generals commanding the spearhead armies reported that they were stopped: The tanks and trucks were freezing up, and the troops were losing their will to fight. The Russian winter had stopped Hitler’s advancement.

Soviet Counter-offensive

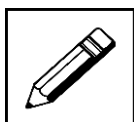
Stalin, who had stayed in Moscow, and his commander at the front, General Georgy Zhukov, had held back their reserves. Many of them were recent recruits, but some were hardened veterans from Siberia. All were dressed for winter. On December 6 they counter attacked, and within a few days, the German lead armies were rolling back and abandoning large numbers of vehicles and weapons, rendered useless by the cold.

On Stalin’s orders, the Moscow counter attack was quickly converted into a counter offensive on the entire front. The Germans had not built any defense lines to the rear and could not dig in because the ground was frozen hard as concrete. Some of the generals recommended retreating to Poland, but on December 18 Hitler ordered the troops to stand fast wherever they were. Thereafter, the Russians were able to push many out of the German front, but enough of it survived the winter to maintain the siege of Leningrad, continue the threat to Moscow, and keep the western Ukraine in German hands.



Figure 20: German artillery in Russian winter

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.2.3

1. When did the war move to a new stage – a world war?

2. Describe Operation Barbarossa.



3. Why was operation Barbarossa the war's most massive encounter?

4. What made it easy for the Russians to win?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.2



Sub unit 11.4.2.4: The Turn of the Tide

In this sub topic, you look at the events that turned the war around resulting in Allied victory in Europe.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Discuss the development of Allied strategy in Europe and the Pacific
- Describe the Russian Front of Summer 1942
- Outline and describe the other battles of the third phase

In late December 1941 Roosevelt and Churchill and their chief advisers met in Washington. They confirmed the strategy for defeating Germany. The war against Japan became almost solely a U.S. responsibility. On January 1, 1942, the United States, the United Kingdom, the USSR, and 23 other countries signed the Declaration by United Nations in which they pledged not to make a separate peace.

The North African Campaign

With Italian positions crumbling, Hitler, shocked by the Italian failure, sent out the German Afrika Korps – commanded by the brilliant General Erwin Rommel.

The ‘**Desert Fox**’ rapidly adapted his formations and tactics to a Desert War fought in the open, with few natural obstacles and a small civilian population. Rommel launched his first blow against the Allies in February 1941, taking the British by surprise and carrying out a risky triple attack on the Sollum-Halfaya line on the Egyptian border. The Germans captured the key port of Benghazi, moving on to take the other major port of Cyrenaica, Tobruk.

Did you know?

Rommel’s Afrika Korps arrived in Egypt with grey-green tanks unsuited to desert conditions. The ‘Desert Fox’ adapted to the new situation by sticking sand to them and making camouflage

In June 1941, Operation Battleaxe, the British attempt to liberate Tobruk, was stopped in its tracks by well-prepared defences. In November, the Allies launched Operation Crusader, catching Rommel’s forces by surprise. Although German 88 mm guns caused destruction among the British ranks, Axis forces were forced to retreat to El Agheila - their starting-point in March. At the end of 1941, Tobruk was liberated and Benghazi returned to British hands.

At the beginning of 1942, British supply lines were overextended, and Rommel counter attacked, forcing the British to retreat to the defensive positions. The Battle of Gazala - one of the fiercest of the Desert War – resulted in Tobruk cut-off once again, falling rapidly to Axis forces.

An unsatisfied Churchill reorganized the military command, placing Montgomery at the head of the Eighth Army. The battle-hardened general started the Battle of El Alamein, using his huge advantages in artillery, infantry and supplies. After two weeks of intense fighting, Commonwealth forces had reduced the German tank force to 35, and the rest of Axis forces into retreat.

For the Axis, defeat came in November 1942 with Operation Torch - the American-led landings in Algiers, Oran and Casablanca. After random fighting against Vichy French forces, the Allies took possession of the Moroccan and Algerian coasts. The Axis forces were now encircled, and in May 1943, more than 230, 000 troops surrendered to the Allies in Tunisia, marking the end of the campaign.

The Casablanca Conference

The Casablanca Conference (codenamed SYMBOL) was held at the Anfa Hotel in Casablanca, French Morocco from January 14 to 24, 1943, to plan the Allied European strategy for the next phase of World War II. In attendance were United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and representing the Free French forces, Generals Charles de Gaulle, and Henri Giraud. Premier Joseph Stalin had declined to attend, saying the ongoing conflict in Stalingrad required his presence in the Soviet Union. The conference agenda addressed the specifics of procedure, allocation of resources and the broader issues of diplomatic policy. The debate and negotiations produced what was known as the “Casablanca Declaration”, and what is, perhaps, its most historically challenging statement of all, **“unconditional surrender”**. The doctrine of “unconditional surrender” came to represent the unified voice of cruel Allied will—the determination that the Axis powers would be fought to their ultimate defeat and death.

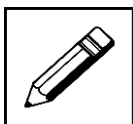


Figure 21: United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and their advisors in Casablanca, 1943

The invasion of Italy

Three American, one Canadian, and three British divisions landed on Sicily on July 10. They pushed across the island on the south coast in five weeks, against four Italian and two German divisions, and overcame the last Axis resistance on August 17. In the meantime, Mussolini had been stripped of power on July 25, and the Italian government had entered into negotiations that resulted in an armistice signed in secret on September 3 and made public on September 8.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.4.2.4**

1. Who were Roosevelt and Churchill?

2. Why did Hitler dispatch the German Afrika Korps?

3. What were the results of these two operations?

(a) Operation Battleaxe

(b) Operation Crusader

4. List impacts of the Battle of El Alamein,



5. Fill in the information about the Casablanca Conference.

Codename	
Date	
Place	
People	
Reasons	
Outcomes	

6. How did the North African Campaign end?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.2



Sub unit 11.4.2.5: Allied Victory

In this sub topic, you will learn about the events surrounding the Allied Victory in World War Two.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the term Allied
- Explain the importance of Allied victory in WW2.

Operation Overlord was the code name for the Battle of Normandy, the Allied operation that launched the successful invasion of German-occupied Western Europe during World War II. The operation commenced on 6 June 1944 with the Normandy landings (Operation Neptune, commonly known as D-Day). D-Day is a military term that refers to the basic date and time from which an important event, usually an attack, could be scheduled. In other words, the “D” in D-Day merely stands for Day. The best known D-Day was June 6, 1944, during World War II, when Allied forces landed in Normandy, France. In the early morning of June 6, thousands of Allied paratroopers landed behind enemy lines, securing key roads and bridges on the flanks of the invasion area. As the sun rose on the Normandy coastline, the Allies began their **amphibious** landings, traveling to the beaches in small landing craft lowered from the decks of larger ships anchored in the Channel. The attack on four of the beaches went according to plan.

A 1, 200-plane airborne assault preceded an amphibious assault involving more than 5, 000 vessels. Nearly 160, 000 troops crossed the English Channel on 6 June, and more than three million allied troops were in France by the end of August.

The decision to undertake a cross-channel invasion in 1944 was made at the Trident Conference in Washington in May 1943. General Dwight D. Eisenhower was appointed commander of Supreme Headquarters Allied Expeditionary Force (SHAEF), and General Bernard Montgomery was named as commander of the 21st Army Group. In the months leading up to the invasion, the Allies conducted a military deception, Operation Bodyguard, using both electronic and wrong visual information. Hitler placed German Field Marshal Erwin Rommel in charge of developing defense lines all along the Atlantic Wall in expectation of an invasion.

The Tehran Conference

At the end of November 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill journeyed to Tehrān for their first meeting with Stalin. The president and the prime minister had already approved, under the code name Overlord, a plan for a cross-channel attack. Roosevelt favoured executing Overlord as early in 1944 as the weather permitted. At Tehrān, Churchill argued for giving priority to Italy and possible new offensives in the Balkans or southern France, but he was out voted by Roosevelt and Stalin. Overlord was set for May 1944. After the meeting, Eisenhower was recalled from the Mediterranean and given command of the Supreme Headquarters Allied Expeditionary Forces (SHAEF), which was to organise and carry out Overlord.

The Tehrān conference marked the high point of the East-West wartime alliance. Stalin came to the meeting as a victorious war leader; large quantities of U.S. lend-lease aid were flowing into the Soviet Union through Murmansk and the Persian Gulf; and the decision on Overlord satisfied the long-standing Soviet demand for a second front. At the same time, strains were

developing as the Soviet armies approached the borders of the smaller eastern European states. In May 1943 the Germans had produced evidence linking the USSR to the deaths of some 11, 000 Polish officers found buried in mass graves in the Katyn Forest near Smolensk. Stalin had severed relations with the Polish exile government in London, and he insisted at Tehrān, as he had before, that the postwar Soviet-Polish boundary would have to be the one established after the Polish defeat in 1939.

The Normandy Bay Invasion

June 6, 1944, was D-Day the day of invasion for Overlord. First Army, under General Omar N. Bradley, and the British Second Army, under General Miles C. Dempsey, established beachheads in Normandy, on the French channel coast. The German resistance was strong, and the footholds for Allied armies were not nearly as good as they had expected. Nevertheless, the powerful counterattack with which Hitler had proposed to throw the Allies off the beaches did not happen.

Enormous Allied air superiority over northern France made it difficult for Rommel, who was in command on the scene, to move his limited reserves. Moreover, Hitler became convinced that the Normandy landings were a **ploy** and the main assault would come north of the Seine River. Consequently, he refused to release the divisions he had there and insisted on drawing in reinforcements from more distant areas. By the end of June, Eisenhower had 850, 000 men and 150, 000 vehicles ashore in Normandy.

The Allies launched another invasion of southern France (Operation Dragoon) on 15 August, and the Liberation of Paris followed on 25 August. German forces retreated across the Seine on 30 August 1944, marking the close of Operation Overlord.



Figure 22: Allies crossing the English Channel for D- Day invasion



The Warsaw Uprising

The Soviet offensive had spread to the flanks of Army Group Center in July. On July 29 a spearhead reached the Baltic coast near Rīga and severed Army Group North's land contact with the German main front. Powerful thrusts past Army Group Center's south flank reached the line of the Wisła (Vistula) River upstream from Warsaw by the end of the month. In Warsaw on July 31 the Polish commanded by General Tadeusz Komorowski (known as General Bor) staged an uprising. The **insurgents**, who were loyal to the anti-Communist exile government in London, disrupted the Germans for several days. However, the Germans had the upper hand; and Komorowski surrendered on October 2.

While the Soviet Union was letting the Warsaw uprising run its tragic course, it was enjoying successes elsewhere. An offensive between the Carpathian Mountains and the Black Sea, opened on August 20, resulted in Romania's asking for an armistice three days later. Bulgaria, which had never declared war on the Soviet Union, surrendered on September 9, Finland on September 19. Soviet troops took Belgrade on October 20 and installed a Communist government under Tito in Yugoslavia. In Hungary, the Russians were at the gates of Budapest by late November.

The Air War in Europe

The main action against Germany during the fall of 1944 was in the air. Escorted by long-range fighters, particularly P-51 Mustangs, U.S. bombers hit industrial targets by day, while the German cities crumbled under British bombing by night. Hitler had responded by bombarding England, beginning in June, with V-1 flying bombs and in September with V-2 rockets; but the best launching sites, those in northwestern France and in Belgium, were lost in October. The effects of the Allied strategic bombing were less clear-cut than had been expected. The bombing did not destroy civilian morale, and German fighter plane and armored vehicle production reached their wartime peaks in the second half of 1944. On the other hand, iron and steel output dropped by half between September and December, and continued bombing of oil plants, coupled with loss of oil fields in Romania, severely limited the fuel that would be available for the tanks and planes coming off the assembly lines.

The Yalta Conference

The Yalta Conference, sometimes called the Crimea Conference and codenamed the Argonaut Conference, held February 4–11, 1945, was the World War II meeting of the heads of government of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union, represented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Premier Joseph Stalin, respectively, for the purpose of discussing Europe's post-war reorganization. The conference convened in the Livadia Palace near Yalta in Crimea.

The meeting was intended mainly to discuss the re-establishment of the nations of war-torn Europe. Within a few years, with the **Cold War** dividing the continent, Yalta became a subject of intense controversy.

Yalta was the second of three wartime conferences among the Big Three. It had been preceded by the Tehran Conference in 1943, and was followed by the Potsdam Conference in July 1945, which was attended by Stalin, Churchill (who was replaced midpoint by the newly elected British Prime Minister Clement Attlee) and Harry S. Truman, Roosevelt's successor.



Figure 23: The Big Three: The Allied Leaders: Prime Minister Winston Churchill (UK), President Franklin, Delano Roosevelt (US), and First Secretary Joseph Stalin (USSR)

End of the War

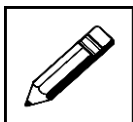
VE Day (Victory in Europe Day) finally arrived on May 8, 1945 announced by Great Britain and USA after fierce efforts by the allied forces. By 1945, the German defences had begun to collapse. The Soviet army occupied the eastern one-third of Germany. Eventually, the allies surrounded Berlin. On April 30, Adolf Hitler committed suicide. Germany surrendered soon after. The war in Europe was over!

Following the encirclement and fall of Berlin by the Soviet army in April of 1945 and the suicide of Hitler, Germany surrendered on May 7th in Rheims, France. With the war over in Europe, the American forces now focused on conducting an enormous invasion of the Japanese mainland in an effort to bring the war in the Pacific to an end. On further reflection, however, to prevent large numbers of U.S. casualties that would result from the invasion, President Harry S. Truman ordered the use of a new atomic weapon instead. The atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima on August 6, 1945 and a second bomb on the port city of Nagasaki three days later. On September 2, the Japanese High Command formally surrendered aboard the battleship USS Missouri in Tokyo Bay.



Figure 24: Victory Day celebrations in London.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.4.2.5**

1. Fill in the table with the information about the Normandy Invasion.

Codename	
Date for D-Day	
Place	
Commander	
Reasons	
Outcomes	

2. Where were the Germans stationed in anticipation of the Normandy invasion?

3. Who are the Big Three?

4. What was the Warsaw Uprising and what caused it?



5. Study the image of V-Day (Figure 24), answer the following questions.

a) What is V-Day?

b) When was V-Day in Europe?

c) Why were there celebrations?

6. Fill in the information about the two conferences.

	Date	Place	People	Reasons	Outcomes
Tehran					
Yalta					

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.2

**Sub unit 11.4.2.6: Cost of World War 2**

In this sub topic, you look at the Cost of WW2. World War 2 caused world the countries involved to spend millions of money. This particular world war was the most costly in the number of deaths and funds.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the social, political and economic effects of the war
- discuss and describe the social, political and economic effects of the war

Basic statistics of World War 2 qualify it as the most costly war in history in terms of human casualties and material resources expended. In all, 61 countries with 1.7 billion people, three quarter of the world's population, took part. A total of 110 million people were mobilized for military service, more than half of those by three countries: the USSR (22 million to 30 million), Germany (17 million), and the United States (16 million). For the major participants the largest numbers on duty at any one time were as follows: USSR (12,500,000); United States (12,245,000); Germany (10,938,000); British Empire and Commonwealth (8,720,000); Japan (7,193,000); and China (5,000,000).

A rough consensus has been reached on the total cost of the war. The human cost is estimated at 55 million dead—25 million in the military and 30 million civilians. The amount of money spent has been estimated at more than \$1 trillion, which makes World War II more expensive than all other wars combined.

Economic Statistics

The United States spent the most money on the war, an estimated \$341 billion, including \$50 billion for lend-lease supplies, of which \$31 billion went to Britain, \$11 billion to the Soviet Union, \$5 billion to China, and \$3 billion to 35 other countries. Germany was next, with \$272 billion; followed by the Soviet Union, \$192 billion; and then Britain, \$120 billion; Italy, \$94 billion; and Japan, \$56 billion.

Human Losses

Although the human cost of the war was tremendous, casualty figures cannot always be obtained and often vary widely. Most experts estimate the military and civilian losses of Allied forces at 44 million and those of the Axis at 11 million. The total number of civilian losses includes the 5.6 million to 5.9 million Jews who were killed in the Holocaust. Of all the nations that participated in World War II, the human cost of the war fell heaviest on the USSR, for which the official total, military and civilian, is given as more than 20 million killed. The United States which had no significant civilian losses, sustained more than 400, 000 deaths. Perhaps the most significant casualty over the long term was the world balance of power. Britain, France, Germany, and Japan ceased to be great powers in the traditional military sense, leaving only two, the United States and the Soviet Union.

The Holocaust

The Holocaust was the mass murder of six million Jews and millions of other people leading up to and during the Second World War. The killings took place in Europe between 1933 and 1945. They were organised by the German Nazi party which was led by Adolf Hitler. The largest group

of victims were Jewish people. Nearly 7 out of every 10 Jews living in Europe were murdered. Most of the victims were killed because they belonged to certain racial or religious groups which the Nazis wanted to wipe out. This kind of killing is called genocide. The Nazis also killed large groups of people who they thought were inferior. We will never know exactly how many died but there were many millions of non-Jewish victims, including:

- Civilians and soldiers from the Soviet Union
- Catholics from Poland
- Serbians
- Romany Gypsies
- Disabled people
- Homosexuals
- Jehovah's Witnesses

World War II Deaths

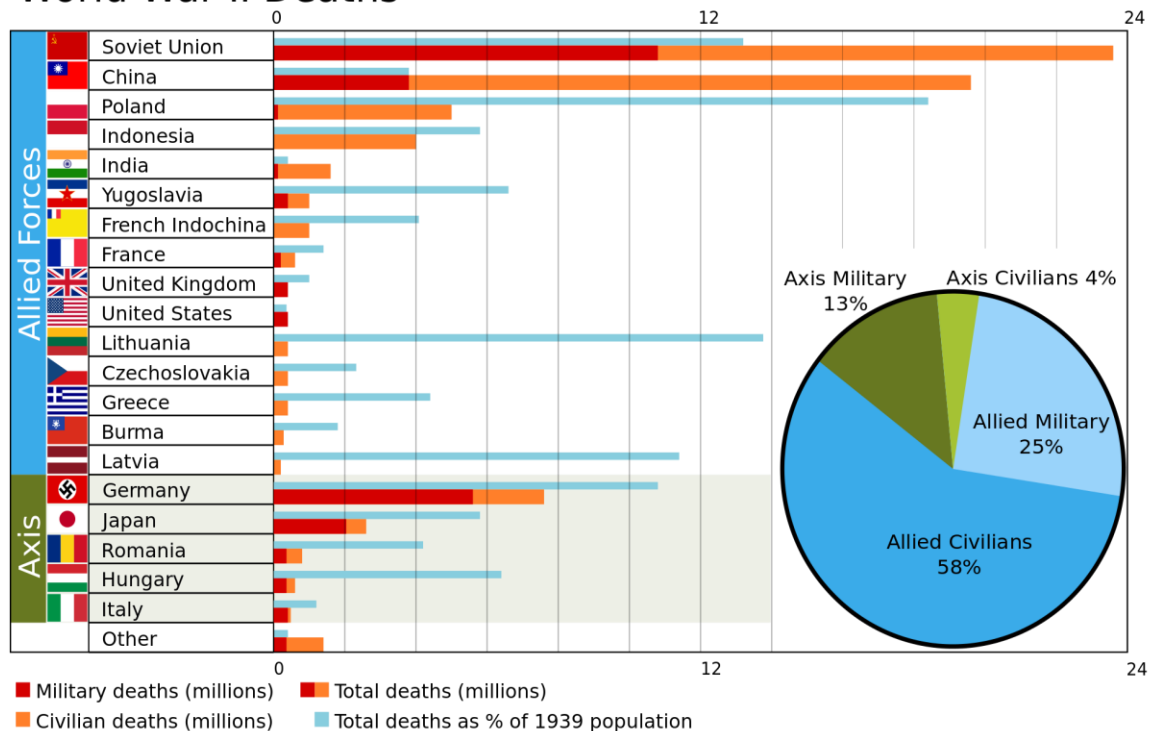


Figure 25: Table showing WW II Casualties

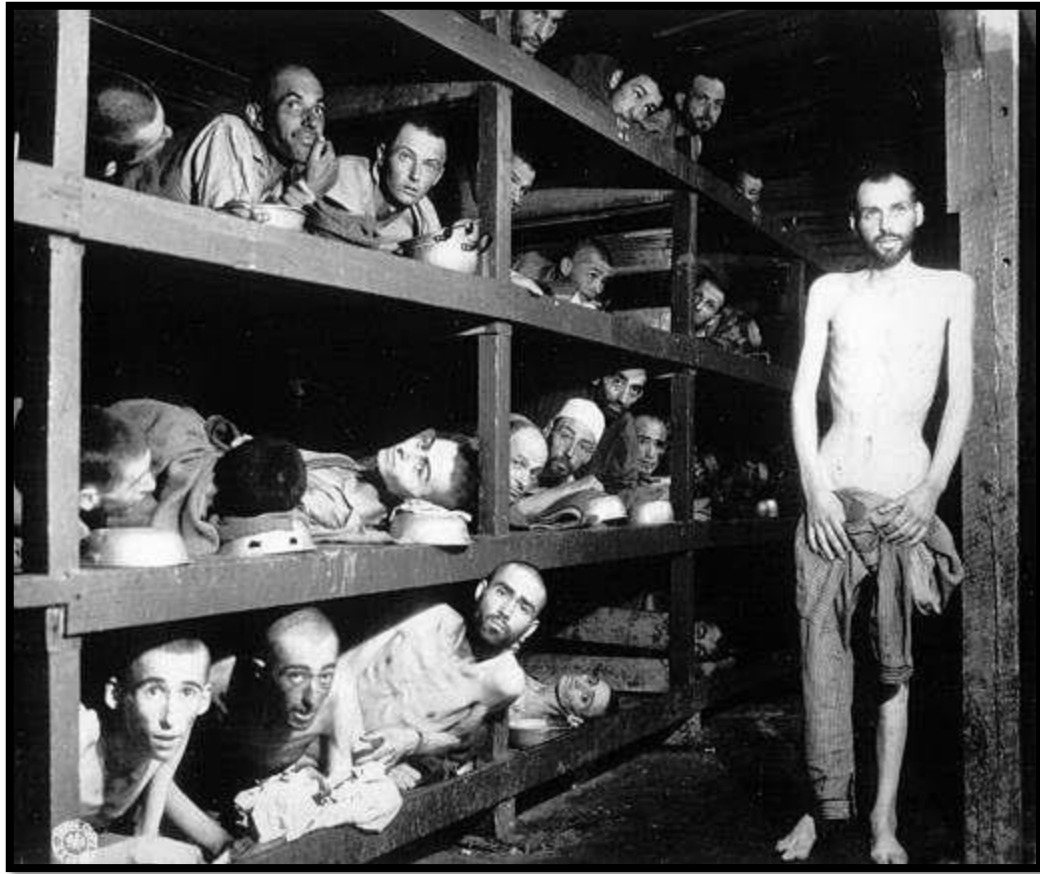
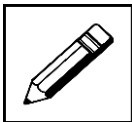


Figure 26: Jews in concentration camps

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.2.6

1. What was the cost of war

(a) Human lives

(b) Finance



2.

(a) What is the holocaust?

(c) When did the killings take place?

(d) Who was responsible for the killings?

(e) Which groups of people were killed?

e) Why were these people killed?



Answers to Activities 11.4.2

Activity 11.4.2.1

1. The Treaty of Versailles, The treaty imposed heavy penalties on Germany (loss of territory and payments) and (compensation for war).
2. Some of the main causes are;
 - The failure of the peace effort
 - The rise of Fascism
 - Formation of Axis Coalition
 - Germany's aggression/expansionism
3. Isolationism. It contributed to WW2, because USA did nothing to stop or slow down events in Europe. They were ignorant, applying their policy.
4. Adolf Hitler
5. 1939
6. The events are listed in the order of happening from the earliest to the latest or from 1 to 5.
 - (a) Hitler becomes the German Chancellor
 - (b) Nazi-Soviet Pact signed
 - (c) Germany annexes Austria.
 - (d) Germany invades Poland.
 - (e) Britain declares war on Germany

Activity 11.4.2.2

1. Blitzkrieg or (lightning war): was the use of armor, air power, and mobile infantry in a nipper movement to encircle the enemy all at once and in fast manner. It was an aerial war.

Phony War is when so little was going on after the first week in October that the U.S. newspapers called it the Phony War.

2.

Country	Allied/Axis	Fought against
France	Allied	Germany
Britain	Allied	Germany
Yugoslavia	Allied	Germany/Austria
Russia	Allied	Germany
Finland	Axis	Russia
Balkans	Axis	Russia
Denmark	Axis	Russia
Italy	Axis	Britain

3. in the air (aerial) over Britain. Airplanes were used to fight this battle.



4. Because he would need to cross their territory to get at Greece (and the Soviet Union), Hitler brought Romania and Hungary into the Axis alliance in November 1940; Bulgaria joined in March 1941. When Yugoslavia refused to follow suit, Hitler ordered an invasion of that country.

Activity 11.4.2.3

1. In the year after the fall of France, the war moved toward a new stage—world war
2. Operation Barbarossa was the name given to Nazi Germany's invasion of Russia on June 22nd 1941.
3. Operation Barbarossa was the largest military attack of WW2. It had terrible consequences for the Russian people. Operation Barbarossa was a massive attack based on blitzkrieg. Germany gathered 117 army divisions and the Russians 132.
4. The bitter and hard conditions of the winter.

Activity 11.4.2.4

1. Franklin Roosevelt was the president of USA and Winston Churchill was the Prime Minister of Great Britain.
2. With Italian positions crumbling, Hitler, shocked by the Italian failure, dispatched the German Afrika Korps – commanded by the brilliant General Erwin Rommel
3.
 - (a) Operation Battleaxe- the British attempt to liberate Tobruk, was stopped in its tracks by well-prepared defences
 - (b) Operation Crusader- catching Rommel's forces by surprise, Axis forces were forced to retreat to El Agheila - their starting-point in March. At the end of 1941, Tobruk was liberated and Benghazi returned to British hands.
4. After two weeks of intense fighting in the Battle of El Alamein, Commonwealth forces had reduced the German tank force to 35, pressuring the remnants of Axis forces into retreat.
- 5.

Codename	SYMBOL
Date	January 14 to 24, 1943
Place	Anfa Hotel in Casablanca, French Morocco
People	President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and representing the Free French forces, Generals Charles de Gaulle, and Henri Giraud. Premier Joseph Stalin
Reasons	to plan the Allied European strategy for the next phase of World War II
Outcomes	the "Casablanca Declaration" - most historically provocative statement of purpose, "unconditional surrender". The doctrine of "unconditional surrender" came to represent the unified voice of cruel Allied will—the determination that the Axis powers would be fought to their ultimate defeat and extinction.



6. Mussolini had been stripped of power on July 25, and the Italian government had entered into negotiations that resulted in an armistice signed in secret on September 3 and made public on September 8.

Activity 11.4.2.5

1.

Codename	Operation OverLord
Date/D-Day	June 6 th 1943
Place	Normandy Bay – French Coast facing English Channel
Commander	General Bernanad Montgomery
Reasons	Liberate France from German Army.
Outcomes	Liberate France and Germany retreats.

2. Hitler placed German Field Marshal Erwin Rommel in charge of developing fortifications all along the Atlantic Wall in anticipation of an invasion.
3. Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill and Josef Stalin
4. In Warsaw on July 31 the Polish underground Home Army commanded by General Tadeusz Komorowski (known as General Bor) staged an uprising. The insurgents, who were loyal to the anti-Communist exile government in London, disrupted the Germans for several days.
- 5.
- The war was over in Europe and victory was announced.
 - May 8th 1945
 - They were celebrating because the war was over and the Allies have won.
- 6.

	Date	Place	People	Reasons	Outcomes
Tehran	End of November 1943	Tehran	President Franklin Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Premier Joseph Stalin	a plan for a cross-channel attack.	Operation Overlord
Yalta	February 4–11, 1945	Livadia Palace near Yalta in Crimea	President Franklin Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Premier Joseph Stalin	discussing Europe's post-war reorganization	Controversial meeting

**Activity 11.4.2.6**

1.
 - (a) Human lives: more than 20 million people killed.
 - (b) Finance: The amount of money spent has been estimated at more than \$1 trillion, which makes World War II more expensive than all other wars combined.
2.
 - (a) The Holocaust was the mass murder of six million Jews and millions of other people leading up to and during the Second World War
 - (b) The killings took place in Europe between 1933 and 1945
 - (c) Nazi Party under Adolf Hitler, Führer and Leader of Germany
 - (d) 6 Million Jews and millions of non-Jewish victims, including:
 - Civilians and soldiers from the Soviet Union
 - Catholics from Poland
 - Serbians
 - Romany Gypsies
 - Disabled people
 - Homosexuals
 - Jehovah's Witnesses
 - (e) They were seen as inferior race to Hitler who promoted Aryanism and Anti-Semitism. The Aryan race which is of German descent was seen as the superior race; the German people were supposed to be blond and blue eyed. The Jews however were not of that physical make up.



Subunit 11.4.3: World War 2 in the Pacific

Introduction

In this sub unit, you will discuss World War 2 in the Pacific. World War 2 came to the Pacific in 1942.

**Sub topic 11.4.3.1: Pacific War 1941-1945**

In this sub topic, you look at the Pacific War that occurred from 1941 through to 1945. You will study the events of WW2 that happened in the Pacific.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the location and conduct of major battles and events
 - identify the people/nationalities involved in the fighting
 - explain the relationship between the foreign soldiers and the locals
-

The Beginning of the War in the Pacific

The pending defeat of the Soviet Union in the summer and autumn of 1941 had created chaos for Japan and the United States. The Japanese saw it as an opportunity to seize the petroleum and other resources of Southeast Asia. However, they knew they could not win the war with the United States. The U.S. government wanted to stop the Japanese expansion but doubted whether the American people would be willing to go to war. Moreover, the United States did not want to go to war with Japan while it faced the possibility of being alone in the world with Germany winning. After the oil embargo, the Japanese, also under the pressure at the time, resolved to move into Southeast Asia.

Pearl Harbour

Until December 1941 the Japanese leadership pursued two courses:

- Get the oil embargo lifted on terms that would still let them take the territory they wanted
- Prepare for war

The United States demanded that Japan withdraw from China and Indochina, but was rejected. After General Tōjō Hideki became Japan's premier in mid-October, he set November 29 as the last day on which Japan would accept a settlement without war. Tōjō's deadline, which was kept secret, meant that war was certain.

The Japanese army and navy had, in fact, come up with a war plan in which they had great confidence. They planned to make fast moves into Burma, Malaya, the East Indies, and the Philippines and, at the same time, set up a defensive perimeter in the central and southwest Pacific. They expected the United States to declare war but not to be willing to fight long or hard enough to win. Their greatest concern was the U.S. Pacific Fleet, based at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. If it reacted quickly, it could challenge their very tight timetable. As protection, the Japanese navy undertook to cripple the Pacific Fleet by a surprise air attack.



A few minutes before 8 AM on Sunday, December 7, 1941, Japanese carrier-based airplanes struck Pearl Harbour. In a raid lasting less than two hours, they sank or seriously damaged eight battleships and 13 other naval vessels. The U.S. authorities had broken the Japanese diplomatic code and knew an attack was forthcoming. A warning had been sent from Washington, but, owing to delays in transmission, it arrived after the raid had begun. In one stroke, the Japanese navy scored a brilliant success—and assured the Axis victory in World War II. The Japanese attack brought the United States into the war on December 8—and the U.S. was determined to fight to the finish. Germany and Italy declared war on the United States on December 11.

Japanese Conquest in Asia and Pacific

Before the end of December, the Japanese took British Hong Kong, the Gilbert Islands, Guam and Wake Island (U.S. possessions), and invaded British Burma, Malaya, Borneo, and the American-held Philippines. British Singapore, long regarded as one of the world's strongest fortresses, fell to Japan in February 1942, and in March they occupied the Netherlands East Indies and landed on New Guinea. The American and Philippine forces surrendered at Bataan on April 9, and resistance in the Philippines ended with the surrender of Corregidor on May 6. According to the Japanese plan, it would be time for them to take a defensive stance when they had captured northern New Guinea (an Australian possession), the Bismarck Archipelago, the Gilberts, and Wake Island, which they did by mid-March. Their first move was by sea, to take Port Moresby on the southeastern tip of New Guinea. The Americans, using their ability to read the Japanese code, had a naval task force on the scene. In the Battle of the Coral Sea (May 7th -8th), fought entirely by aircraft carriers, the Japanese were forced to abandon their plan to take Port Moresby.

The Battle of Midway

A powerful Japanese force, nine battleships and four carriers under Admiral Yamamoto Isoroku, sailed toward Midway in the first week of June. Admiral Chester W. Nimitz, who had taken command of the Pacific Fleet after Pearl Harbor, could only assemble three carriers and seven heavy cruisers, but he was reading the Japanese radio messages. Yamamoto, the architect of the Pearl Harbor raid, had planned another surprise. This time, however, it was he who was surprised. Off Midway, on the morning of June 4, U.S. dive-bombers destroyed three of the Japanese carriers in a 5-minute strike. The fourth went down later in the day, after its planes had battered the U.S. carrier *Yorktown*, which sank two days later.

Yamamoto ordered a general retreat on June 5. On June 6-7 a secondary Japanese force took islands in the Aleutians, but those were no compensation for the defeat at Midway, from which the Japanese navy would never recover. Their battleships were intact, but the Coral Sea and Midway had shown carriers to be the true ships of the war.

US Advances in the Pacific

In the Pacific, U.S. troops recaptured the Aleutians, in a hard-fought, 3-week battle beginning on May 23. The main action was in the southwest Pacific. There U.S. and New Zealand troops, under Admiral William Halsey, advanced through the Solomons, taking New Georgia in August and a large beachhead on Bougainville in November. Australians and Americans under MacArthur drove the Japanese back along the East Coast of New Guinea and took Lae and Salamaua in September. MacArthur's and Halsey's mission in 1942, had been to take Rabaul, but they discovered in the Solomons that having command of the air and sea around them was enough to neutralise the Japanese Island garrisons and render them useless. There were U.S.

landings on Cape Gloucester, New Britain, in December, in the Admiralty Islands in February 1944, and in March 1944 the Americans effectively sealed off Rabaul. The Japanese 100, 000-man garrison could not thereafter be either adequately supplied or evacuated.

The Battle of the Philippines Sea

Operations against Japan in the Pacific picked up speed in 1944. In the spring, the advances by MacArthur took place through northwestern New Guinea and into the Philippines and by Nimitz across the central Pacific to the Marianas and Caroline Islands. On June 19 and 20, Ozawa met U.S. Task Force 58, under Admiral Marc A. Mitscher, in the Battle of the Philippine Sea. The outcome was decided in the air and under the sea. Ozawa had five heavy and four light carriers; Mitscher had nine heavy and six light carriers. On the first day, in what was called the Marianas Turkey Shoot, U.S. fighters put down 219 of 326 Japanese planes sent against them. While the air battle was going on, U.S. submarines sank Ozawa's two largest carriers, one of them his flagship; and on the second day, dive-bombers sank a third big carrier. After that, Ozawa steered north toward Okinawa with just 35 planes left. It was the end of Japanese carrier. Mitscher lost 26 planes, and 3 of his ships suffered minor damage.

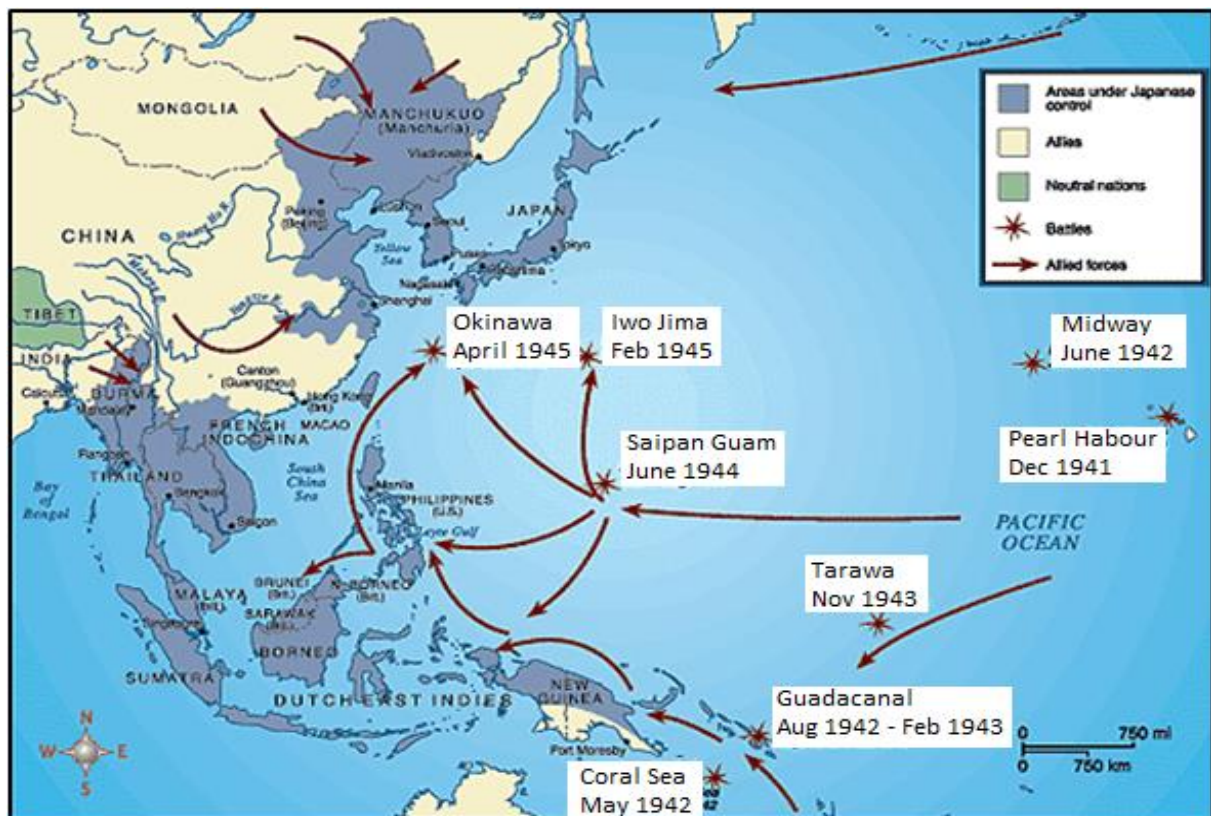


Figure 27: World War 2: Pacific battles between 1942 and 1945

The Defeat of Japan

Although Japan's position was hopeless by early 1945, an early end to the war was not in sight. The Japanese navy would not be able to come out in force again, but the bulk of the army was intact and was deployed in the home islands and China. The Japanese gave an indication of what was yet in store by resorting to kamikaze (Japanese for "divine wind") attacks, or suicide air attacks, during the fighting for Luzon in the Philippines. On January 4-13, 1945, quickly trained kamikaze pilots flying old-fashioned planes had sunk 17 U.S. ships and damaged 50. While the final assault on Japan awaited reinforcements from Europe, the



island-hopping approach march continued, first, with a landing on Iwo Jima on February 19. That small, barren island cost the lives of about 6, 800 U.S. personnel before it was secured on March 16. On April 1 the U.S. Tenth Army, landed on Okinawa, 500 km south of the southernmost island of Kyūshū.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki

The next attack was scheduled for Kyūshū in November 1945. An easy success seemed unlikely. The Japanese had fought practically to the last man on Iwo Jima, and hundreds of soldiers and civilians had jumped off cliffs at the southern end of Okinawa rather than surrender. Kamikaze planes had sunk 15 naval vessels and damaged 200 off Okinawa.

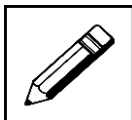
The Kyūshū landing was never made. Throughout the war, the U.S. government and the British, believing Germany was doing the same, had maintained a massive scientific and industrial project to develop an atomic bomb. The first bomb was exploded in a test at Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945.

Two more bombs had been built, and the possibility arose of using them to convince the Japanese to surrender. President Harry S. Truman decided to allow the bombs to be dropped. For more impact, they were used in quick succession, one over Hiroshima on August 6, the other over Nagasaki on August 9. These cities had not been bombed, and thus the bombs' damage could be accurately assessed.

Japanese Surrender

On August 14 Japan announced its surrender, which was not quite unconditional because the Allies had agreed to allow the country to keep its emperor. The formal signing took place on September 2 in Tokyo Bay aboard the battleship *Missouri*. The Allied delegation was headed by General MacArthur, who later became the military governor of occupied Japan.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.3.1

1. What created chaos for USA and Russia?

2. What two things did Japan prepare for?



3. Who was Japan's premier?

4. What was the greatest concern to Japan's expansion?

5. Complete the cloze passage with words from the readings.

A few minutes before 8 a.m. on _____, December 7, 1941, Japanese carrier-based airplanes struck _____. In a raid lasting less than _____, they sank or seriously damaged _____ battleships and 13 other naval vessels. The U.S. authorities had broken the Japanese diplomatic code and knew an attack was imminent. A warning had been sent from _____, but, owing to delays in _____, it arrived after the raid had begun. In one stroke, the Japanese navy scored a brilliant success—and assured the _____ defeat in World War II. The Japanese attack brought the _____ into the war on December 8. _____ and Italy declared war on the United States on December 11.

6. Fill in the date for the following events.

Events	Date
1. Battle of Coral Sea	
2. Midway Sea battle	
3. Philippines Sea battle	
4. Bombing test in Mexico	
5. Bombing of Nagasaki	
6. Bombing of Hiroshima	
7. Japan surrenders	
8. Signing to end war on board Missouri	

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.3

**Sub unit 11.4.3.2: World War 2 comes to Papua New Guinea 1942-1945**

In the sub unit 11.4.3, you looked at the events leading up to WW2 in the Pacific. In this sub topic, you now will study World War 2 in the Pacific and in Papua New Guinea and its effects.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the location and describe the major battles and events
 - identify the those involved in the fighting on PNG soil
 - describe the relationship between the foreign soldiers and the locals
-

After the start of World War 2 in the Pacific, the island of New Guinea was invaded by the Japanese in January 1942. Most of West Papua, at that time known as Dutch New Guinea, was occupied by the Dutch. The Australian Territory of New Guinea was under Australian rule after World War 1. However, Papua was protected by its southern location and the near-impassable Owen Stanley Ranges to the north.

Before the war, the island of New Guinea was split between:

- Territory of New Guinea, the north-eastern part of the island of New Guinea and surrounding islands, were controlled by Australia under a League of Nations Mandate;
- Territory of Papua- the south-eastern part of the island of New Guinea, was an Australian colony and;
- Dutch New Guinea- the western part of the island (later known as West Papua) controlled by the Dutch.

Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU)

In April 1942 the Australian military authorities established the Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU). ANGAU administered those parts of Papua New Guinea which were not occupied by the Japanese. Many ANGAU officers had worked for the pre-war colonial authority. With the support of the police, which was placed under its control, ANGAU recruited Papua New Guineans as soldiers, stretcher bearers and carriers for the Allied troops. It also recruited labourers to build roads, wharves and air- strips and to work on the plantations, especially copra and rubber.

ANGAU patrols collected much information about the movements of the Japanese. This was useful in military planning. ANGAU units, which included Papua New Guineans with local knowledge, often accompanied the front line troops. Because they were familiar with the territory and could act as interpreters they were very useful to the Allied troops.

ANGAU was also expected to keep law and order. As the Japanese were driven back, ANGAU was supposed to help restore villages and gardens and provide education and medical services. But little was done. Sometimes ANGAU was not popular because some of its officers were harsh towards the people. People tend to link ANGAU with hard times and the many problems of the war. Only the Japanese were remembered less favourably



Figure 28: A native pointing out the position of the enemy.

The First Battles

The main tasks of the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) was to protect the airfield near Rabaul, and the nearby flying boat anchorage in Simpson Harbour, which were important for the surveillance of Japanese movements in the region. However, the RAAF contingent, under John Lerew, had little offensive capability, with 10 lightly armed training aircraft and four light bombers.

The Battle of Rabaul, also known by the Japanese as Operation R, was fought on the island of New Britain in January and February 1942. It was a strategically significant defeat of Allied forces by Japan in the Pacific Campaign of World War Two. Following the capture of the port of Rabaul, Japanese forces turned it into a major base and proceeded to land on mainland New Guinea. Hostilities on the neighboring island of New Ireland are also usually considered to be part of the same battle. Rabaul was important because of its proximity to the Japanese territory of the Caroline Islands, site of a major Imperial Japanese Navy base on Truk. Rabaul was Japanese main headquarters in the south west Pacific. Their attacks and all battles against the Allies were planned and carried out on PNG soil against the Allies (Australians and Americans).

The Australians and Americans fought several battles against the Japanese in Papua and New Guinea. The Papuans and the New Guineans were used as carriers by the Australians, Americans and Japanese to fight their battles here in Papua and New Guinea. The New Guinea Campaign opened with the battles for New Britain and New Ireland in the Territory of New Guinea in 1942. Rabaul, the capital of the Territory was invaded on 22-23rd January and was established as a major Japanese naval base. From the base the Japanese advanced on mainland New Guinea and went towards Port Moresby and Australia. The original effort to capture Port Moresby by a seaborne invasion was disrupted by the U.S Navy in the Battle of the Coral Sea.

The Battle of the Coral Sea

In May 1942, a Japanese invasion force sailed toward Australia's base at Port Moresby on the south coast of the island of New Guinea. Port Moresby lay at Australia's doorstep. American warships met the Japanese force in the Coral Sea, northeast of Australia. The Battle of the Coral Sea, fought from May 4 to 8, was unlike all earlier naval battles. It was the first naval battle in which opposing ships never sighted one another. Planes based on aircraft carriers did all the fighting. Neither side won a clear victory. But the battle halted the assault on Port Moresby.

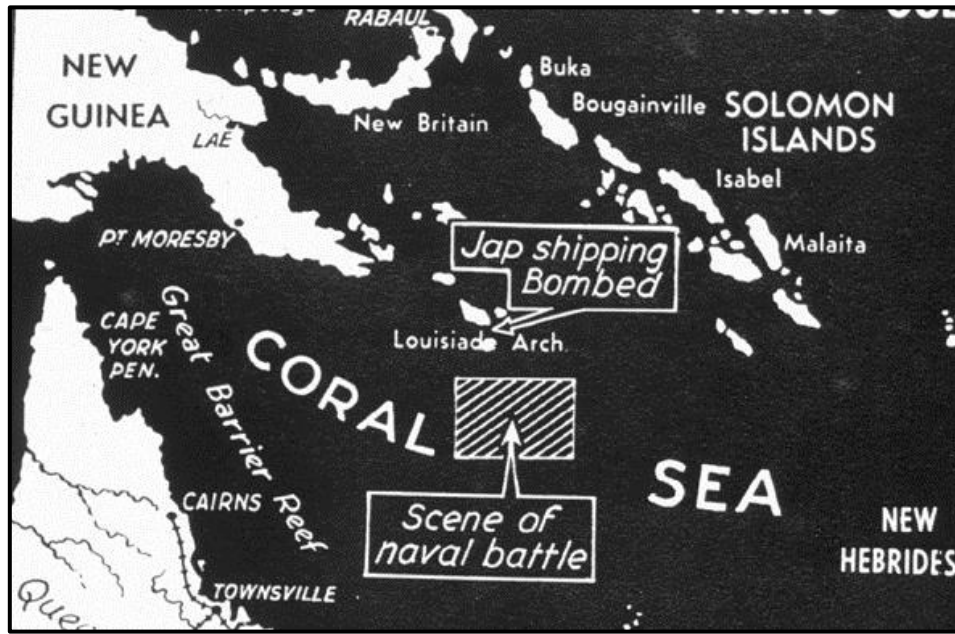


Figure 29: Scene of the Coral Sea Battle

The Japanese then attempted a landward invasion from the north via the Kokoda Trail. The Papuan Infantry Battalion and a few Australian reserve battalions comprised of very young and untrained soldiers. They fought difficult battles against a Japanese advance along the Kokoda Track. Local Papuans, called *Fuzzy Wuzzy* Angles by the Australians, assisted and escorted injured Australian troops down the Kokoda trail to safety. The militia, worn out and severely depleted by casualties, was relieved in late August by regular troops, returning from action in the Mediterranean. The Japanese were driven back.

The bitter Battle of Buna-Gona followed in which Australian and United States forces attacked the main Japanese bases in New Guinea, at Buna, Sanananda and Gona. Facing tropical disease, difficult terrain and well-constructed Japanese defenses, the allies only secured victory with heavy casualties.

In early September 1942 Japanese marines attacked a strategic Royal Australian Air Force base at Milne Bay, near the eastern tip of Papua. They were beaten back by the Australian Army, and the Battle of Milne Bay is remembered as the first outright defeat of Japanese land forces during World War II. The offensives in Papua and New Guinea of 1943–44 were the single largest series of connected operations ever engaged by Australian armed forces. The Supreme Commander of operations was the US General Douglas MacArthur and with Australian General Thomas Blamey who took a direct role in planning and operations. Bitter fighting continued in New Guinea between the largely Australian force and the Japanese until the Japanese

surrender in 1945.

The New Guinea campaign was one of the major military campaigns of the Pacific War. In all, some 200,000 Japanese soldiers, sailors and airmen died during the campaign against approximately 7,000 Australian and 7,000 American service personnel. The number of native army constabulary, helpers and trackers who died in the battle is estimated to some 20,000.

The 1,400-strong Australian Army Garrison in New Britain—known as Lark Force—was commanded by Lieutenant Colonel John Scanlan. It included 716 frontline Australian Imperial Force (AIF) soldiers deployed from March 1941 as fears of war with Japan increased. The force also included personnel from a local militia unit, the New Guinea Volunteers Rifles, (NGVR) a coastal local support group.

Table 1: Significant Battles and Campaigns in New Guinea during World War 2

Battle of Rabaul	January 23, 1942	Battle of Cape Gloucester	December 26, 1943 - April 22, 1944
Battle of the Coral Sea	May 4 - 8, 1942	Landing at Saidor	January 2 - February 10, 1944
Kokoda Track Campaign	July 21 - November 16, 1942	Admiralty Islands Campaign	February 29 - May 18, 1944
Battle of Milne Bay	August 25 - September 7, 1942	Operation Reckless	April 21 - 27, 1944
Battle of Buna–Gona	November 16, 1942 - January 22, 1943	Operation Persecution	April 22, 1944
Battle of Wau	January 29 - 31, 1943	Battle of Wakde	May 15 - 18, 1944
Battle of the Bismarck Sea	March 2 - 4, 1943	Battle of Biak	May 27 - June 20, 1944
Salamaua–Lae Campaign	April 22 - September 16, 1943	Battle of Lone Tree Hill	June 14 - September 1, 1944
Finisterre Range Campaign	September 19, 1943 - April 24, 1944	Battle of Driniumor River	July 10 - August 25, 1944
Huon Peninsula Campaign	September 22, 1943 - January 15, 1944	Aitape-Wewak Campaign	November 1, 1944 - August 13, 1945
Battle of Arawe	December 15, 1943 - January 16, 1944	Bougainville Campaign	1 st November 1943 – 21 st August 1945

The people involved in the fighting

Those involved in the fighting were about 300, 000 Japanese, 500, 000 Australians, and about 1, 000, 000 Americans, and an unknown number of our own people.

The Japanese

The Japanese paid a very heavy price for their invasion of Papua New Guinea. Their front-line troops were often far from their source of supply and they suffered from shortages of food. Even when completely cut off from their supply routes, they clung to their positions and refused to surrender. Over 200 000 Japanese were estimated to have died fighting or from lack of food or disease and very few were captured.

The Australians

The Australians were better fed and equipped than the Japanese. With the help of Papua New Guineans, they developed considerable skill in jungle warfare. Only the local people were more skilful. It was Australians who fought in the most decisive battles of the campaign.

The Americans

American troops made a strong impact on our people. They were much better supplied than the Australian or Japanese troops. Our people were astonished by the variety and quantity of the goods which arrived from the United States. The people also saw black men serving as soldiers and apparently enjoying all the privileges and wealth of white soldiers. It was an inspirational sight and a cause for amusement; it made our people wonder about and admire these black men so much that many dreamt to be like them.

The Papua New Guineans

Our people were seriously affected by the war. The war was not our war but it was fought on our soil. Few understood what the war was about but many fought bravely for the Australians and the Americans and some for the Japanese. Papua New Guineans were valuable soldiers because of their skill in jungle fighting.



Figure 30: Cargo carriers



Figure 31: Soldiers in the war

Last Battles in Papua New Guinea

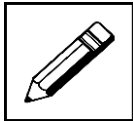
During the last years of the war with Japan, thousands of Australian men and women served in Australia's largest military campaigns in the islands north of Australia: on the mainland of Papua New Guinea and its islands of Bougainville and New Britain, and in Borneo. Six Australian divisions, supported by the RAAF and the RAN, (Royal Australian Navy) were in action against the Japanese and most Australians were confident that the Allies would be victorious.

In late 1944, the Australians took over former American bases in northern New Guinea, on Bougainville and on New Britain and the troops were determined to defeat the large numbers of Japanese forces which remained there. The Japanese, despite having been cut off from their supply base at Rabaul, and often having to rely on their own resources for survival, refused to concede defeat and they continued to fight the Australians in long and bloody battles.

In New Guinea, between November 1944 and August 1945 the 6th Division fought in the Aitape-Wewak region. On Bougainville, the Australian 3rd Division, together with troops from

the 11th and 13th Brigades from US army, conducted patrols with some severe fighting, including the bloody battles at Slater's Knoll in March and April in 1945. Meanwhile, the Australian 5th Division undertook difficult operations on the island of New Britain, pushing the Japanese back towards Rabaul.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.3.2

1. What jobs did the natives do during WW2?

2. Which countries fought each other in PNG during the war?

3. This is an image of African Americans in Manus in WW2. How was the involvement of these Afro-Americans a positive influence to the Papua New Guineans?





4. List five battles fought in PNG.

5. Where were the following Australian divisions fighting in November 1944 to August 1945?

- a) 6th division

- b) 3rd division

- c) 5th division

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.4

**Sub topic 11.4.3.3: Impacts of World War 2**

In this sub topic, you study the impacts of World War 2 in the Pacific.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the short and long-term effects of the war
 - discuss and describe these short and long term effects
-

Consequences of the war

The exact number of people killed because of World War II will never be known. Military deaths probably totaled about 17 million. Civilian deaths were even greater as a result of starvation, bombing raids, massacres, epidemics, and other war-related causes. The battlegrounds spread to nearly every part of the world. Troops fought in the steaming jungles of Southeast Asia, in the deserts of northern Africa, and on islands in the Pacific Ocean. Battles were waged on frozen fields in the Soviet Union, below the surface of the Atlantic Ocean, and in the streets of many European cities. World War II affected the civilian populations of all the fighting nations. Much of Europe and large parts of Asia suffered widespread destruction and severe hardship. The United States and Canada, which lay far from the battlefronts, were secured from most of the horrors of war. Victory in World War II required an enormous amount of war materials, including huge numbers of ships, tanks, aircraft, and weapons. The United States and Canada built many plants to manufacture war goods. They also turned old factories into war plants. North America, in fact, prospered during World War II.

Millions of women in the United States and Canada joined the labor force during World War II, after men left for combat. Women worked in shipyards and aircraft factories and filled many jobs previously held only by men.

Death and destruction

World War II caused more lives and caused more destruction than any other war. Altogether, about 70 million people served in the armed forces of the Allied and Axis nations. About 17 million of them lost their lives. For the Soviet Union suffered about 7.5 million people died, more than any other country. The United States and the United Kingdom had the fewest battle deaths of the major powers. About 400, 000 American and about 350,000 British military personnel died in the war. Germany lost about 3.5 million servicemen, and Japan about 1.25 million.

Aerial bombing during World War II caused destruction on civilian as well as military targets. Many cities lay in ruins by the end of the war, especially in Germany and Japan. Bombs wrecked houses, factories, and transportation and communication systems. Land battles also spread destruction over vast areas. After the war, millions of starving and homeless people wandered among the ruins of Europe and Asia.

The Soviet Union and China suffered the highest toll of civilian deaths during World War II. About 19 million Soviet civilians and as many as 10 million Chinese civilians died. Many of the deaths resulted from famine.

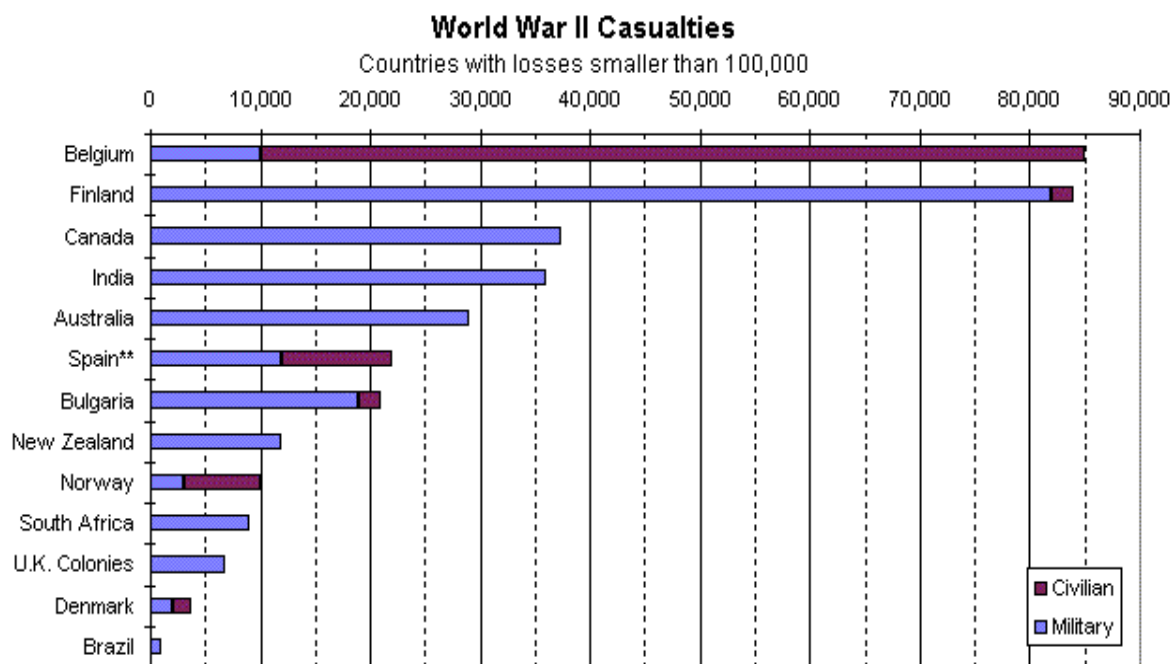
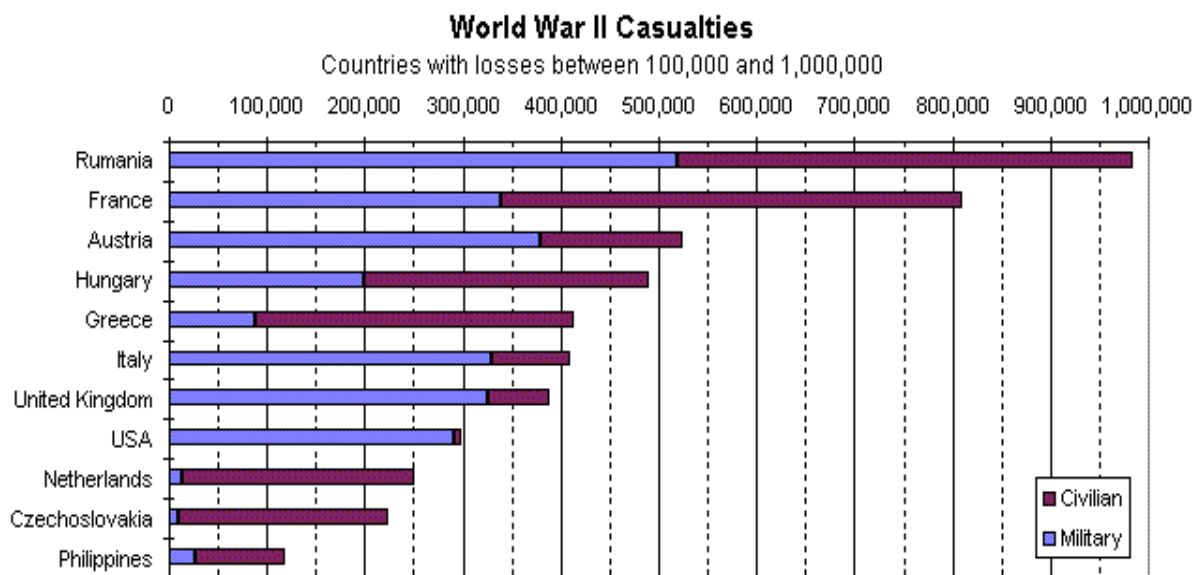


Figure 32: Tables showing WW2 Casualties.

Displaced persons

World War II uprooted millions of people. By the end of the war, more than 12 million displaced persons remained in Europe. They included orphans, prisoners of war, survivors of Nazi concentration and slave labor camps, and people who had fled invading armies and war-torn areas. Other people were displaced by changes in national borders. For example, many Germans moved into Poland, Czechoslovakia, and other lands in Eastern Europe that the Nazis took over. Many had fled from countries in Eastern Europe and refused to return to their homelands that had come under Communist rule.

New Power Struggle

New power struggles arose after World War II ended. The war had exhausted the leading prewar powers of Europe and Asia. Germany and Japan ended the war in complete defeat, and

the United Kingdom and France were severely weakened. The United States and the Soviet Union emerged as the world's leading powers. Their wartime alliance soon collapsed as the Soviet Union sought to spread Communism in Europe and Asia. The struggle between the Communist world, led by the Soviet Union, and the non-Communist world, led by the United States, became known as the Cold War.

The United States had fought the Axis to preserve democracy. After the war, Americans found it impossible to return to the policy of isolation their country had followed before the war. Americans realized that they needed strong allies, and they helped the war-torn nations recover.

World War II had united the Soviet. The Soviet Union came out of the war stronger than ever before, in spite of the severe destruction it had suffered. Before the war ended, the Soviet Union had absorbed three nations along the Baltic Sea-Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. It had also taken parts of Poland, Romania, Finland, and Czechoslovakia by mid-1945. At the end of the war, Soviet troops occupied most of Eastern Europe. In March 1946, Churchill warned that an "Iron Curtain" ideological separation had descended across Europe, dividing Eastern Europe from Western Europe. Behind the Iron Curtain, the Soviet Union helped Communist governments take power in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, and Romania.



Figure 33: The Iron Curtain

Communism also gained strength in the Far East. The Soviet Union set up a Communist government in North Korea after the war. In China, Mao Tse tung's Communist forces battled Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist armies. Late in 1949, Chiang fled to the island of Taiwan, and China joined the Communist world.

By 1947, President Truman announced that the United States would provide military and economic aid to any country threatened by Communism. American aid helped Greece and Turkey resist Communist aggression. In 1948, the United States set up the Marshall Plan to help war-torn nations in Europe rebuild their economies. Under the plan, 18 nations received \$13 billion in food, machinery, and other goods. The Soviet Union restricted countries in Eastern Europe to participate in the Marshall Plan.

Colonies took advantage of the weak masters who were economically and politically exhausted from fighting in WW2. Nationalism grew and was actioned in colonies of Asia and Africa. Many colonies took the opportunity and declared independence.

Establishing the peace

The League of Nations (now United Nations) was set up to prevent war from ever again engulfing the world. In 1943, representatives of the United States, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and China met in Moscow. They agreed to establish an international organisation that would work to promote peace. The four Allied powers met again in 1944 at Dumbarton Oaks, an estate in Washington, D.C. The delegates decided to call the new organisation the United Nations. In April 1945, representatives from 50 nations gathered in San Francisco, California, to draft a charter for the United Nations. They signed the charter in June, and it went into effect on October 24.

Some positive and negative impacts of the war on Papua New Guinea are listed below.

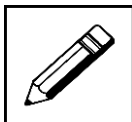
Disadvantages

- ◆ warring tribes took sides escalating tribal warfare.
- ◆ Women doing men's jobs
- ◆ Women and children were left behind
- ◆ Many Widows and orphans after war
- ◆ Many things used in the war were very new to the natives, esp weapons.
- ◆ The intensity and bulk of war equipment had great psychological impact.
- ◆ Islands that had airstrips are sinking from rising sea levels
- ◆ Traumas of war was with the people for long. Seeing dead bodies, rotten corpse, disfigured men
- ◆ Deaths, 18,000 + natives
- ◆ Coral reefs & Marine Life destroyed.
- ◆ Damage to food gardens, houses etc
- ◆ Displaced natives

Advantages

- ◆ Black Americans had a great psychological impact on our natives.
- ◆ Australians and Natives became comrades during the war.
- ◆ Australian became more responsible for Papua and New Guinea.
- ◆ Attitudes of all who took part in the war changed.
- ◆ Developed *Cargo cult* mentality
- ◆ New ideas and developments after the war

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11. 4. 3. 3**

1. Which countries in these regions started the war?

(a) Europe

(b) Pacific

2. List the consequences of the war?

3. What were the purposes of (a) Marshall Plan and (b) UN?

4. What does the iron curtain refer to?

5. What was the new power struggle?



6. Name few countries that were with the communist bloc.

7. List five positive and negative impacts of the war in PNG

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.3



Answers to Activities 11.4.3

Activity 11.4.3.1

1. The pending defeat of Soviet in the summer and fall of 1941
2. Until December 1941 the Japanese leadership pursued two courses:
 - They tried to get the oil embargo lifted on terms that would still let them take the territory they wanted, and
 - they prepared for war
3. General Tōjō Hideki
4. Their greatest concern was the U.S. Pacific Fleet, based at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii.
5. A few minutes before 8 AM on Sunday, December 7, 1941, Japanese carrier-based airplanes struck Pearl Harbour. In a raid lasting less than two hours, they sank or seriously damaged eight battleships and 13 other naval vessels. The U.S. authorities had broken the Japanese diplomatic code and knew an attack was imminent. A warning had been sent from Washington, but, owing to delays in transmission, it arrived after the raid had begun. In one stroke, the Japanese navy scored a brilliant success—and assured the Axis defeat in World War II. The Japanese attack brought the United States into the war on December 8. Germany and Italy declared war on the United States on December 11.

6.

Events	Date
1. Battle of Coral Sea	May 7-8 th 1945
2. Midway Sea battle	June 4 th
3. Philippines Sea battle	June 19-20 th
4. Bombing test in Mexico	July 16 th 1945
5. Bombing of Nagasaki	August 9 th
6. Bombing of Hiroshima	August 6 th
7. Japan surrenders	August 14 th
8. Signing to end war on board Missouri	September 02 nd 1945

Activity 11.4.3.2

1. The natives work for both the Japanese and the Allies as carriers, spies, trackers, guides, massagers, interpreters some even fought as soldiers.
2. The Japanese Imperial Army against the Allies made up of Australia and US army.
3. It was an inspiring sight and made our natives dream to be like these black men.
4. Battle of Coral Sea, Buna-Gona, Bismarck Sea battle, Battle of Wau, Milne Bay battle, Admiralty Campaign.

5.

- (a) Aitape – Wewak
- (b) Bougainville
- (c) Island of New Britain

Activity 11.4.3.3

1.

- (a) In Europe the war started when Germany invaded Poland and Great Britain and France declared war on Germany.
- (b) In the Pacific the war was started by Japan bombing the Pearl Harbour and USA declared war on Japan.

2. Consequences of the war:

- Death toll went up to 20 million
- Destruction was more than ever
- Displaced people total 70 million
- New Power struggle which lead to Cold War period
- De-colonialisation of colonies
- Establishment of United Nations

3. In 1948, the United States set up the Marshall Plan to help war-torn nations in Europe rebuild their economies.

The birth of the United Nations (UN) was out of the horror of World War II came efforts to prevent war from ever again engulfing the world.

4. In March 1946, Churchill warned that an "Iron Curtain" had descended across Europe, dividing Eastern Europe from Western Europe. The division between the communist and the non- communist blocks

5. The struggle between the Communist world, led by the Soviet Union, and the non-Communist world, led by the United States, became known as the Cold War.

6. Communist block: Romania, Hungary, Estonia, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Poland, Lithuania, and Latvia.

7. Negative impacts: Many widows and orphans after war. Many things used in the war were very new to the natives, especially weapons. The intensity and bulk of war equipment had great psychological impact. Islands that had airstrips are in danger from rising sea levels, Traumas of war was with the people for long. Seeing dead bodies, rotten corpse, disfigured bodies, and deaths, and 18,000 plus natives.

Positive impacts: Black Americans had a great psychological impact on our natives. Australians and Natives became comrades during the war. Australian became more responsible for Papua and New Guinea. Attitudes of all who took part in the war

Subunit 11.4.4: Australia in Papua New Guinea 1945-1975

Sub topic 11.4.4.1: A wind of change: 1947-1960

In the last sub unit, you learnt about World War 2 in Papua New Guinea and its impacts. In this sub topic, you look at Australia and its contributions to Papua New Guinea from 1945 to 1975. You look at how Australia had administered both Papua and New Guinea.

- identify and describe the action taken by Australia to administer both Papua and New Guinea immediately after the war
- explain the colonial authority's policies

Following the surrender of Japan in 1945, civil administration of Papua and New Guinea was restored, and under the Papua & New Guinea Provisional Administration Act (1945–46), Papua and New Guinea were combined in an administrative union. The Papua and New Guinea Act 1949 united them as the Territory of Papua and New Guinea. The Act formally approved the placing of New Guinea under the international trusteeship system and confirmed the administrative union of New Guinea and Papua. It also provided for a Legislative Council (which was established in 1951), a judicial organisation, a public service, and a system of local government. The Australian Labour Government promised a 'New Deal' for Papua New Guinea. Under the New Deal the Australian government provided money to improve the living standards and education, health and welfare services for our people. The government also abolished the **indenture system**. They sent the labourers back to their villages. Some villagers were compensated for their time and services and damages caused during the war. The New Deal was meant to thank Papua New Guineans for supporting Australia during the war.

Administrator Colonel John K Murray

Colonial JK Murray, the first post war administrator, was only given general guidelines on how the 'New Deal' should be put into practice. Murray established a public service with two key departments – the Department of Labour and the Department of Education. He believed that it was in these areas that he could best promote the economic and social development of Papua New Guinea. JK Murray remained administrator until 1951.

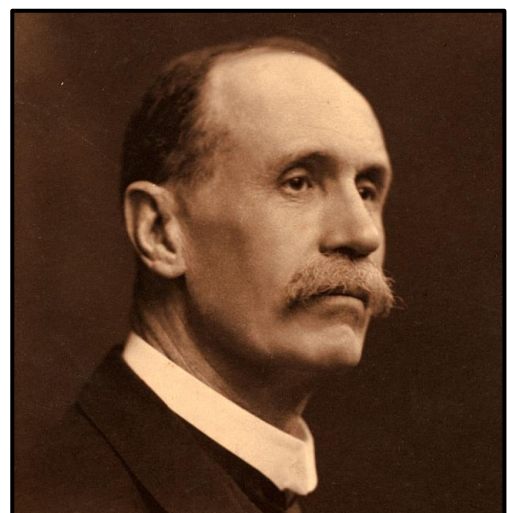


Figure 34: JK Murray - 1913

Labour Policy

The reform under the labour policy was in October 1945 when the indenture system and all labour contracts were cancelled in a single day. This reform, and the return of the labourers to their villages, was unpopular with the expatriate communities. Murray also improved the conditions under which free workers could be recruited. These included proper medical care and a rise in wages of 15



shillings a month and a reduction of working hours. Murray also got rid of the rule under which labourers would be goaled if they ran away from their employer. The expatriate community objected but Murray replied:

“A new spirit, new idea, new demands and standards have spread through the native community. I do not propose to attempt, even if I could hope to succeed, to stifle that so European employers can return to the standards of a vanished world. On the contrary, that spirit will provide energies for new productive activities under administrative guidance. The period of change is not an easy one for all the parties concerned, and employers cannot be exempted from the need for adjustment”. (Waiko, n.d)

Education Policy

Education suffered during the war. Many schools were damaged, materials were scarce and teachers were given for other duties. Children were told to stay away from school as there was a war fought in PNG. After the war the Department of education took over. It organised schools (including mission schools) and set down standards and the language of instruction. The first Director of Education, W C. Groves, wanted schools to have strong community support. Also, schools were to have a social welfare as well as an educational role. In the early 1950s some vocational training centres were established. These centres taught practical skills such as carpentry and boat building. In 1955, after criticism of Grove's policy, Murray took a more active role in education. Schools were required to keep to educational activities and to concentrate on providing primary education and instruction in the English language. It was hoped that all children would eventually be offered primary schooling. The policy was known as 'universal primary education'. But there was a shortage of teachers, teacher training, classrooms and teachers' housing. Progress was slow. Funds were scarce. Most education continued to be provided by the missions subsidised by the colonial authority.

The colonial authority had assumed that teaching in the English language would encourage unity in the territory where hundreds of local languages were spoken. But it created a cultural gap between school and village life. A former student, Nelson Giraure, had difficulty with English:

“I could no longer make fun through speech. My quick wit was no use to me. I was like a vegetable. I was controlled by the limits of my vocabulary. My days were spent listening to my teacher. Many questions I wanted to ask remained unasked because I did not have the ability to express them in English. Eventually I found it much easier just to sit and listen rather than attempt to speak. So I sat and listened.” (Waiko, n.d)

Health Policy

There were no clear guidelines on funding. Departments with strong Directors received the most money. Public Health received, what some regarded as more than its fair share of funds. The influence of its director, Dr John Gunther, was strong. From 1947 to 1960, the amount spent on public health was almost twice that of the combined budgets of the Department of Agriculture and Education. Gunther's efforts were opposed by some of the racist members of the white community. They believed that the colonial authority should provide whites, not Papua New Guineans, with the best possible health service. Many new drugs had been developed during the war to treat Allied soldiers. Gunther began a widespread campaign to get rid of the most serious diseases such as



malaria, yaws, tuberculosis and leprosy. To achieve these aims he took over some responsibilities from education and agriculture.

Medical Training

There was no medical training within the Education Department. Instead, Gunther organised the training of young Papua New Guineans as laboratory workers and medical assistants. In 1964 he sent students to the Central Medical School in Suva to be trained as medical officers. Sir Albert Maori Kiki, Dr Rueben Taureka and Dr Gabriel Gris all owed their training to Gunther's efforts.

At the end of the war more than half of the population lived in the central highlands. There were no Western health services except for occasional patrols sent to treat epidemic diseases introduced from the coast. By 1949 Gunther had established 60 village aid posts and training schools for medical and hygiene assistants at Goroka, Kundiawa, Kerowagi, Mount Hagen, Kainantu and Wabag.

Most of the diseases brought under control through patrols organised by Gunther with the help of the natives he trained.

The Missions

Many missionaries lost their lives during the war. Many mission stations were destroyed. Most foreign missionaries left or were killed. Some missions continued to provide religious education, and limited education and health services. The efforts of many Papua New Guinean Christians were dedicated and often heroic. After the war a returning Lutheran missionary found that the area which had been in his care had changed almost beyond recognition:

The first few weeks were a time of bewilderment. Even on the mission station at Ampo I was lost-the old landmarks were gone, almost endless army installations covered the area which had been so familiar to me, roads had no relation to the old ones, villagers were not seen, all old buildings destroyed and their old sites entirely overgrown. (A short history of Papua New Guinea)

Mission Education, Health and community assistance

As foreign missionaries either returned or were replaced, the missions continued to provide education, health and welfare as well as religious services. They also encouraged self-help social and economic projects, especially in rural areas. They helped to establish plantations, community centres and village cooperatives. They built roads and set up small businesses.

Some people did not like to send their children to mission schools. They said there was too much emphasis on the Bible. Some churches taught reading and writing in the vernacular so that people could read the Bible in their own language. In Milne Bay the Anglican mission adopted the Wedau language of the Milne Bay district as the 'Church language'. The Lutheran mission used the Kote language in the Morobe District and the highlands.

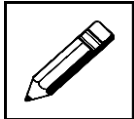
There was a considerable expansion of mission activity in the post-war period. Catholics, Lutherans, Methodists, Anglicans and the London Missionary Society set up stations in the highlands. Following an arrangement made under Sir William MacGregor in 1890, the established churches (apart from the Catholic) had agreed to work within certain boundaries.



They agreed not to compete in each other's 'territories'. This arrangement began to crumble after the arrival of other Christian churches, such as the Baptists.

By 1960 Papua New Guinea was basically a Christian country. However, while most people regarded themselves as Christians, many also continued to practice traditional spiritual beliefs. Christianity and traditional beliefs existed side by side as they do in many places today.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.4.1

1. What changes were brought about under these two acts?

i. Papua & New Guinea Provisional Act (1945-46)

ii. Papua & New Guinea Act (1949)

2. Describe or explain the terms: New Deal and Indenture System

3. Name the changes made under the new policies.

(a) Labour Policy

(b) Education Policy



(c) Health Policy

4. Who was the first post war administrator of Papua and New Guinea?

5. Name three Papua New Guineans who benefited from the new Health Policy?

Check your answers at the end of 11.4.4

**Sub topic 11.4.4.2: Post War Changes 1947-1960**

In this sub topic, you will look at the Post War changes between 1947 and 1960 in Papua New Guinea.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the main social, economic and political changes after the war
- list and discuss the main social, economic and political changes after the war

Economic Change

Before the war the cash economy was mainly dependent upon the export of gold, cash crops and timber. In the towns, there were also service industries. Service industries included the sale and repair of motor vehicles and boats, and food processing industries such as bakeries. After the war the colonial authority assisted primary industries' such as fishing. The marketing of cash crops was supported and small-scale timber mills were developed. Funds provided under the 'New Deal' supported building and transport. In spite of this assistance there was no significant secondary industry by 1960. There were, however, developments in the financial sector. Some banks had existed before the war. After 1945, the Australian-based Bank of New South Wales and the Commonwealth Bank expanded their activities. They were joined by several other Australian-based financial institutions. In 1960 the Australian government established, in Port Moresby, a branch of the Australian Reserve Bank to control the activities of all financial institutions in Papua New Guinea.

Agriculture

Administrator J. K. Murray established a Department of Agriculture to help villagers grow cash crops and subsistence food, and redevelop the plantations which had been destroyed or neglected during the war. Some people successfully grew cocoa, tea and coffee. Some schemes failed because the colonial officials did not know enough about local conditions and did not consult local people.

The Agriculture Department was expanded to include livestock and fisheries. It also conducted research and training, and provided advice on marketing. Some efforts were successful but the growth of commercial agriculture in most villages was slow. The large coconut plantations owned and operated by foreigners in the islands and lowlands, continued to produce considerable quantities of copra. The coconut palms which local people had been forced to plant in villages in the 1890s continued to be looked after, but produced little copra.

Cocoa continued to be produced on foreign-owned plantations. Little was produced by the local people except on the Gazelle Peninsula. In this area one colonial official advised villagers to plant cash crops. He recognised the land laws of the Tolai people and encouraged them to grow the crops on their own land. The Tolai, using their own expertise and following colonial advice, successfully produced cocoa. The Tolai also produced copra but it was their cocoa project which was a particular success.

Village-based cash-cropping was most successful in the highlands. Although the large plantations continued to be owned by foreigners, the high price paid for coffee during this period encouraged production by villagers. Coffee cash-cropping was encouraged by the colonial authority. The success of coffee production depended upon the skill and labour of the women. Because women were traditionally the gardeners, they took a major role in the planting and tending of the coffee trees. This involved women in the cash economy. However, most of the money from the sale of coffee went to the village men.

Slow growth of village cash crops

One reason for the slow growth in village cash crop production was the lack of transport and marketing systems. Village growers often carried produce overland on their shoulders to a collection point on a road. Or they went by canoes and rafts down the rivers to the coast where their produce would be transported to towns. Growers could not depend on getting the same price for their produce each time it was bought. They often became discouraged. Another reason for the slow growth of village cash-cropping was that people continued to depend upon subsistence agriculture to provide for their daily needs. Everything they needed for survival was in the villages. Communication networks were not established at this stage, Australian broadcasters used radio station in Port Moresby but those frequencies could not reach the bulk of the people living in villages.



Figure 35: A Sepik River villages



Figure 36: Highlands villages in central New Guinea

Administrator DM Cleland

Administrator Murray retired in 1951. He was replaced in 1952 by Colonel D. M. Cleland. Cleland had considerable administrative experience in the Territory. He had been head of the Australian New Guinea Administrative Unit (ANGAU) during the war and held senior positions in the post-war period from 1945 to 1951.

The period of Cleland's rule continued to be a time of stable administration within the Territory. After the war the colonial authority continued to use the administrative districts which had been established before the war. Each district was controlled by an official called a commissioner. The Commissioner had very wide powers to impose white men's law. The police station and the gaol were the most obvious signs of European authority in each district. People in the villages could not understand the aims of colonial rule. They

did not trust the officials:

“To the villagers, at first, there was no difference between a miner and a missionary, or between a trader and a government official, all of whom were regarded as ruthless intruders from an unknown world, with their peculiar ideas and the powerful ... [guns].” (Waiko, n.d)

Colonial authority extended to the highlands



Figure 37: The Leahy brothers and Jim Taylor in Mt Hagen.

Before the war the highlands had not been fully explored by Europeans and there was no colonial control. The people in the highlands were not affected by the Japanese invasion of Papua New Guinea. Immediately after the war the colonial authority organised a series of patrols from the coast into the central highlands. In 1945 the colonial authority created a Central Highlands District. In 1951 the highlands was carved into three districts- Southern, Eastern and Western. Later changes to the boundaries created other districts. At first the highland people welcomed the patrols. They willingly cleared land for colonial stations and built dirt roads. In 1947, Jim Taylor, the District Commissioner, paid his labourers in cash. But there was no trade store in the highlands in 1947. The highlanders refused cash and demanded to be paid in kina shells.

Development in the highlands

Goroka was the first colonial centre in the highlands. In the 1950s the number of Europeans based at Goroka rose from 15 to 450. But the highlands district was so vast that it remained mostly unpatrolled. In 1958 the first highlands local government council was established. Based in the Goroka Valley, the council imposed a tax of one pound ten shillings on men and ten shillings on women. In this way thousands of pounds were raised and spent on services such as schools and aid posts.

The highlanders quickly accepted coffee growing as a cash crop. It was mainly with money earned from the sale of coffee that they were able to pay the council tax. Economic development in the highlands was held back by the lack of a road to the coast. The main cash crop (coffee) was air freighted, at considerable cost, to the port of Madang. In 1953, Ian Downs was District Commissioner based at Goroka. He was provided with 9000 shovels and picks so that the people could construct a road between Goroka and Gussap and then Gussap to



Lae, on the coast. But this first road was so badly built that sending freight by truck was more expensive and much less reliable than by air. Work on the upgrading of what later became the highlands highway began in the early 1960s.

The Highlands Labour Scheme

There was a shortage of labour to work on the plantations in the lowlands and islands. The colonial authority saw the highlands as a source of unskilled labour. In 1950, the authority recruited 2500 highland men to work on the coconut and copra plantations in the lowlands and the islands. By 1960 the number of recruits had risen to 7000. It was known as the highland labour scheme.

Conditions were better for the highland labourers than they had been for the indentured labourers in the lowlands. Rations were more balanced and the labourers could not be put in prison for breaking small rules. When the colonial officials spread word that labourers were needed on the coast, many men came into Goroka for recruitment. Those chosen had to be over 16 years of age and in good health. The usual length of contract was two years but the men had to agree to work for at least 18 months at 15 shillings a month.

It was not only unskilled labourers who were recruited to work away from their home districts. Skilled people from the lowlands, who had Western education, were recruited to work in the highlands where there was a shortage of educated people. These recruits included teachers, clerks, motor mechanics, electricians and carpenters.

Social Changes and Post War Social Movements

Between 1945 and 1960 steps were taken to break down the racial discrimination practised by many whites against Papua New Guineans. One response to the upheaval experienced by many Papua New Guinea societies during the war was a resurgence of social movements often known as cargo cults. Most cargo cults believed that Western goods had been made by the spirits of the ancestors and stolen by the white men. Many local people were astonished by the quantity of goods brought in by the troops, especially the Americans, during the war. The people had no understanding of where and how these goods were produced. Some believed that they had been produced by the spirits who would give them to the people when white men left.

After the war villagers in various parts of Papua New Guinea stopped hunting, fishing and working in the gardens in the belief that the spirits of their ancestors would arrive with goods. The colonial authority had little understanding of these movements. Whites often wrongly believed that local attempts to establish cooperative societies and welfare movements for reform within villages were cargo cults.

The Paliau Maloat Movement

One social movement which the colonial authority wrongly labelled a cargo cult was the Paliau Movement. It was founded by Paliau Maloat on Manus Island in 1946. The Paliau Movement is a good example of war- time culture contact leading to post-war social change. During the war Manus had been a major military base. Operations involving a million Allied troops were launched from Manus



Figure 38: Paliau Maloat shaking a child's hand.

The Allies came with planes, ships, cars and tanks most of which they left behind when they retreated to escape the invading Japanese army. Paliau Maloat was born in 1918 on Baluan, a small island close to Manus. He was in his twenties during the war. He and his family witnessed these dramatic events. He had little schooling but he rose to the rank of sergeant in the police force and served in both New Britain and Morobe. Because he had sided with the Japanese during the war he was badly treated by the Australians on their return to Manus, but he was held in high regard by his people.

Paliau founded a movement through which he hoped to improve the lives of his people. Many traditional practices were given up. Marriage payments were fixed and feasts and customary exchanges were no longer held. Land was to be owned by all members of the community. Villages were to be clean and well planned. People were encouraged to save and contribute to a fund to purchase European goods. Paliau rejected Christianity. He formed a new religion known as the Paliau Movement – Win Wun Won.

Paliau's movement undermined both the church and the colonial authorities. He was gaoled on cargo cult charges on several occasions.

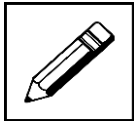
In 1951 Paliau was elected president of the Baluan Local Government Council. His followers on Manus Island demanded that he be president of the Manus Local Government Council as well. These councils were among the first in Papua New Guinea to push for schools, aid-posts and co-operatives.

In 1953 representatives from the United Nations reported favourably on his activities. In the early 1960s he visited the United States at the invitation of the United Nations.

Paliau represented the Manus Province in the first national House of Assembly from 1964 to 1972. He became a founding member of the Pangu Pati. In the late 1960s he was accepted by the colonial authority and in 1970 awarded an Order of the British Empire.

However, the Paliau Movement was not typical of the people's response to the economic, social and political policies of the colonial authority during this period. In most societies the people accepted colonial administrative control.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.4.4.2**

-
1. Identify two Australian Banks that existed before the war?

2. What was the purpose for establishing Department of Agriculture?

3. Discuss 3 reasons for the slow growth of cash crops?

4. What cash crop was successful in the Highlands?

5. When Murray retired, who replaced him?

6. In 1951, how many districts were established in the highlands? Name them.

- Which town was the first colonial center in the Highlands?



- List 3 differences between the Highlands Labour Scheme and the lowlands Indenture System?

9. Give an example of a Post war social movement.

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.4

**Sub topic 11.4.4.3: Transition to Independence 1961-1975**

In this sub topic, you look at the transition to independence. You will learn about how Australia tried to prepare PNG through economic activities for independence in 1975.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the major economic changes undertaken by Australia in order to prepare Papua New Guinea for independence
 - explain the significance of the Five Year Plan and the failure of the Eight Point Plan
-

United Nations Missions

By 1962 Australia was under international pressure to prepare Papua New Guinea for independence. In 1962 a United Nations mission, chaired by Sir Hugh Foot, recommended rapid economic progress. The World Bank was asked to draw up a development plan based on a survey of the economy. The report supported the colonial authority's view that expatriates should provide the money and technical skills and be responsible for marketing agricultural and livestock products.

The report also stressed that:

“Australia should substantially concentrate its efforts on the advancement of the native people. This advancement will come through the native taking a much greater part in expanding production and by accelerating his training and education. The agricultural and livestock program provides for the native farmers to take a major part in increasing production.” (Waiko, n.d)

The expatriate community, in particular white planters, did not believe that the local people should be given the 'advancement' recommended. But the colonial authority accepted the report. Within the next decade it put into practice most of the recommendations

The Five Year Plan

The first Five Year Plan was an economic plan which was expected to carry the country through the period 1968-69 to 1972-73. It was an attempt to put into practice some of the recommendations of the World Bank which had issued a report following a survey of the economy. The plan aimed to increase cash crop and livestock production; to use natural resources more profitably; and to improve the infrastructure of the economy. Cash cropping of copra, cocoa, rubber, coffee, tea, oil palm, rice, peanuts and sugar and the production of cattle and pigs were to be encouraged. The plan assumed that Papua New Guineans would be involved in all these activities. However, it emphasised that large scale overseas investment would be required to exploit natural resources such as minerals and timber.

In 1973 the United Nations Development Programme sent a team from the University of East Anglia to prepare a *Report on Development Strategies for Papua New Guinea*. This report became the basis of the second Five Year Plan which was to cover the period 1973-78.



This Plan proposed an Improvement Programme to aid rural development and encourages self-reliance rather than dependence upon overseas investment and expertise.

The Eight Point Plan

Michael Somare was Chief Minister in the House of Assembly and the most influential Papua New Guinea politician. He used the second Five Year Plan as the basis for an economic and social programme which came to be known as the Eight Point Plan. Somare's plan reflected the policies of the PANGU Pati of which he was leader. It provided for:

1. a rapid increase in the proportion of the economy under the control of Papua New Guineans;
2. a more equal distribution of economic benefits including the equalisation of income among people and equalisation of services in different parts of the country;
3. decentralisation of economic activity and an emphasis on agricultural development, village industry and internal trade;
4. an emphasis on small-scale businesses;
5. a more self-reliant economy less dependent upon imported goods and services;
6. an increasing capacity to meet government expenditure from locally raised revenue;
7. a rapid increase in the equal and active participation of women in all forms of economic and social activity;
8. Government control and investment in those sectors of the economy where control was necessary to achieve the desired kind of development.

These points were all accepted by the House of Assembly in February 1973. This plan emphasised that the government and the people must be involved in social and economic development. It aimed to improve the quality of life for the people, especially in the rural areas.

However, few of these aims were achieved. By 1973 the government was committed to allowing the Bougainville Mining Company, owned by the multi-national Conzinc Riotinto Company, to mine copper on Bougainville Island. Michael Somare and his PANGU Pati wanted to go down the path of the Eight Point Plan. This policy was not implemented because Julius Chan, the Minister for Finance, and the leader of the Peoples Progress Party, encouraged large scale foreign investment.

Timber Resources

During and after the war, the colonial authority conducted detailed surveys of Papua New Guinea's forests. In the 1960s the colonial authority encouraged private investment in the timber industry and established research and training programmes. In 1964 a World Bank report recommended that development of the industry be speeded up and overseas investment was encouraged.

There were many difficulties connected with the way in which big companies exploited Papua New Guinea's timber resources. Some of these were:

- Lack of skilled labour and management in the industry
- The most difficult problem for overseas companies was to find out who were



the real land owners were. Land was communally owned.

- Some landowners opposed logging on the grounds that taking their trees would destroy the land on which they relied for hunting and collecting food. A lack of understanding of the cash economy meant that some landowners received very little compensation.

In spite of these difficulties a number of major timber projects were established. By 1974 there were 70 projects of which only four were managed by Papua New Guinea firms. The national government had an interest in another five. The foreign-based companies were mainly Malaysian, Japanese, Taiwanese, South Korean and Australian owned. The main projects were in the Gogol area in Madang, the Kautara region in New Ireland, Mount Giluwe in Southern Highlands and Open Bay in West New Britain. Most companies preferred to export logs rather than establish timber processing mills in Papua New Guinea.

Secondary Industry and commerce

The commercial sector expanded. The two hundred registered foreign companies were almost all branches of overseas companies. These included Burns Philip, Steamships and W R. Carpenter which had established branches in both New Guinea and Papua in the early days of the colonial period. These companies had developed a wide range of trading and transport interests. There were also almost two thousand other companies registered, mainly by Papua New Guineans and Chinese.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.5.3

1. Who put pressure on Australia in 1962 to prepare Papua New Guinea for independence?

2. What did the report stress?

3. What type of plan was the first 5 year plan?



4. Who was the most influential Papua New Guinean in the first House of assembly?

5. Which 8 point improvement plan talks about:

- a) Equal distribution of wealth

- b) Active participation of women

- c) Self - reliant economy

- d) Decentralisation of economic activity

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.4.4

**Sub topic 11.4.4.4: Pre Independence development 1961-1975**

In this sub topic, you look at the developments leading to independence.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain the colonial authority's policies
- identify the main social, economic and political changes during this period
- describe the local reactions and responses to authority's policies.

Most commercial activities were owned and managed by Australians, but an important business sector was in the hands of mainly locally-born and Australian-educated Chinese. These Chinese owned wholesale and retail stores in the towns and other areas that were referred to as China Towns. There was also a small but influential group of educated Papua New Guineans, mostly politicians, who developed business interests. These were usually on a small-scale and in competition with the Chinese rather than the large foreign-owned and foreign- managed companies. However, most educated citizens joined the public service or large private companies rather than establish their own businesses.

Education UPNG

The policy of 'universal primary education' introduced in the 1950s, improved primary school enrolment and literacy rates by 1960. But secondary education was weak and there was no tertiary education except for a few poorly funded teachers colleges. So between 1963 and 1975 many secondary schools were established, secondary education was expanded. This policy was actively promoted by the Australian, Les Johnson, who became Director of Education in 1962. A 1964 Commission on Higher Education, also known as the Currie commission recommended that a university and an institute of higher technical education be established in 1965. The University of Papua New Guinea was established in Port Moresby in 1966. Dr John Gunther, a former Director of the Department of Health, was the first vice- chancellor. The first students were selected from those who had completed Form 4 (the equivalent of Grade 10). They were brought to Port Moresby to undertake a preliminary year to qualify for university studies. At the end of 1967, 37 students qualified. The majority of them were fully sponsored by the Australian colonial authority which paid their fees and provided them with accommodation and food. By 1971 the University offered courses in economics, anthropology and sociology, English language and literature, history, comparative religion, geography, political studies, mathematics, physics, chemistry, earth sciences, biology, science and society, medicine, law and education. At the end of 1970 six men were awarded Bachelor of Arts degrees and four men awarded Bachelor of Science degrees. There were no women in the first group of graduates. At the end of the second semester of 1970, a further 18 Arts degrees and two Science degrees were awarded.

The University of Technology, first known as the Institute of Higher Technical Education was established in Port Moresby in 1966. Shortly afterwards it was moved to Lae because some people believed that Port Moresby should not have the only two tertiary institutions in the country. The Institute of Higher Technical Education became the Institute of Technology. In 1967 it became the PNG University of Technology (UNITECH). UNITECH provided courses at both diploma and degree levels in a wide range of technical subjects. Courses offered included



civil engineering, surveying, accountancy and business studies. Courses in mechanical and electrical engineering began in 1969, and architecture and building technology in 1970. Diplomas were first awarded in 1971 and degrees in 1975. By 1969, all school was placed under the National Department of Education as one system. This system was followed by all schools, both government and mission.

Sports and Creative Arts

Between 1950 and 1970 competitive sport became organised. School carnivals flourished and the first national titles were held in Lae in 1962. Swimming and boxing became popular sports. The first South Pacific games was held in Suva, Fiji, in 1962 and held every three years after that. This provided an opportunity for teams from the region to compete against each other. The PNG Amateur Sports Federation (PNGASF) was created to coordinate amateur sport. It organised teams for the South Pacific Games. A few sports (like PNG Amateur Athletic Union) became attached to world organisations (like the International Amateur Athletic Federation). Sports associations were formed in the districts and organised events in the main towns. They arranged their own competitions and annual national championships through the PNGASF. Long holiday week-ends in June and September became popular times for sports people to compete in regional, national and international events. For the first time Papua New Guinea sent a small team to the British Commonwealth Games in Perth, Australia, in 1962.

Missions and churches

After 1960 the established churches continued to grow and move into new areas. They were joined by a number of minor fundamentalist Christian sects which insisted that their followers accept the Bible as historical fact. This brought them into conflict with the people's traditional beliefs in a way which had not occurred with the teaching of the established churches. The fundamentalists undermined the established churches. Most of the new sects concentrated on conversion. They did not regard it as their responsibility to help improve the education, health or welfare of the people. Partly in response to the arrival of fundamentalist sects, the established churches (Catholic, Lutheran, Anglican, Baptist, Uniting Church and the Salvation Army) formed the Melanesian Council of Churches. This body encouraged national unity which was important in the period leading up to, and after, independence. But the churches often broke down traditional customs and value systems. Traditional ceremonies were replaced by Christian rituals.

At independence some churches had a better record than others of appointing local people to senior positions. The Anglicans, the Lutherans and the Uniting Church were almost completely localised. Whereas, the Catholics, in spite of having appointed the first Papua New Guinea priest, had mainly expatriate priests. Local people in the mission service were mainly men, but some women who had been trained in mission schools stayed on as missionaries, teachers, health workers, clerks or domestic servants.

By 1975 the vast majority of Papua New Guineans regarded themselves as Christians. Also, most leading politicians were practising Christians through whom the established churches could exercise political influence. Some churches such as the Catholic and Lutheran churches held considerable property, including established plantations. Furthermore, they also established and owned most schools and health centres. These churches could exercise economic and social as well as political influence.

Bougainville Copper Pty Ltd



Figure 31: The Bougainville Mine

As early as 1964, the multinational Conzinc Riotinto found a large, low-grade copper deposit with gold content at Panguna, in the Bougainville District. In 1967 the company and the colonial authority agreed, in Port Moresby, that the Australian government should buy 20% of the shares on behalf of the Papua New Guinea people. Conzinc Riotinto was to hold 53.6% of the shares and 26.4% would be sold to other share- holders, a limited number of whom were to be Papua New Guineans.

Conzinc Riotinto created a smaller, subsidiary company, the Bougainville Mining Company, especially to exploit this resource. The company commenced operations in 1969 and production began in 1972 when the Bougainville Mining Company changed its name to Bougainville Copper Pty Limited (BCL). The people on Bougainville had mixed feelings about the mine. Some were against any mining at all. Others believed that the mine should go ahead if the people were given a sufficient share of the profits. There were disagreements as to what percentage of the profits should go to the national government and what percentage should go to the traditional landowners. Most of those who believed that the project should proceed did not, in 1970, realise the extent to which mining operations would damage their land and disrupt their society.

In 1966 the expatriate Director of Lands and Mines introduced a bill in the national parliament under which landowners would be compensated at the rate of 5% of the value of the land. Paul Lapun, the member for Bougainville, persuaded the parliament that 5% of BCL's total contribution to the national budget should go to the land- owners. At the



time many people regarded this as a victory for the Bougainvillians but it still represented only a token return of the profits to the landowners.

Some Bougainvillians believed that Bougainville would not get a fair share of the profits from the mine. They thought that the Bougainville District should break away from Papua New Guinea and govern itself. In 1968 a small group of Bougainvillians living in Port Moresby, including Paul Lapun and university students, asked the national government to organise a special vote called a referendum. The referendum would allow the people of Bougainville to vote on whether or not they wanted to remain part of Papua New Guinea. The government did not agree to this demand but it was forced to consider the political future of Bougainville.

Financial benefits of Bougainville copper

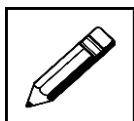
Bougainville Copper Limited provided a huge amount of money to the nation's revenue. In the financial year 1974-75 the mine contributed more than half the national revenue-K96 million of the total national revenue of K180 million. In that financial year, K2 million went to the Bougainville District government to fund a capital works programme; K363 000 went to the landowners; and K190 000 was granted as the first annual contribution to a special fund to be kept by the colonial authority on behalf of the people.

At independence in 1975, the Bougainville copper mine was by far the single most important economic project that guaranteed enough money for the Papua New Guinea government to run the country.

Towards independence

Australia spent the years from 1962 to 1975 taking steps to prepare Papua New Guinea for independence. Perhaps most significant was the creation of an educated Papua New Guinean elite who could take over political and administrative power at independence. This process caused the expansion of secondary and tertiary education, and the training of Papua New Guineans for the Public Service and greater local participation.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.4. 4

1. Most commercial activities were owned and managed by _____. However, a good number of businesses were also in the hands of locally-born and Australian-educated _____.
2. When were the University of PNG and the University of Technology in Lae established?

3. Who sponsored the first number of students to the University of PNG?



4. Which two sports became popular?

5. How did the churches or missions contribute to the development of the sectors in PNG?

a) Education

b) Health

c) Agriculture

d) Politics

6. Which churches formed the Melanesian Council of churches and why was it formed?



7. Fill in the table.

Multinational Company in Bougainville	
% shares	
Operation Started	
Bougainvilleans response	
Benefits to PNG	

8. Why did Bougainvilleans in Port Moresby organise a referendum?

Check your answers at the end of 11.4.4

**Sub topic 11.4.4.5: Political Paths to Independence (1962-1975)**

In this sub topic, you learn about the Political paths to Independence from 1962 to 1975.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify the main political changes leading towards self –government and independence for Papua New Guinea
 - identify roles Papua new Guineans played to prepare themselves for self-government
-

The House of Assembly replaced the Legislative Council in 1963, and the first House of Assembly of Papua and New Guinea opened on 8th June 1964.

In 1972, the name of the territory was changed to Papua New Guinea. Under Australian Minister for External Territories Andrew Peacock, the territory adopted self-government in 1972. The 1972 elections saw the formation of a ministry headed by Chief Minister Michael Somare, who pledged to lead PNG to self-government and then to independence. On 16th September 1975, during Prime Minister Gough Whitlam's Government in Australia, the Territory became the independent nation of Papua New Guinea.

Local government councils

The first way in which Papua new Guineans became involved in Western government was in the village councils. The first village councils were established at the end of 1949. The councils were meant to provide a link between the villages and colonial authority. Their main role was to help enforce the European law and to introduce villages to Western-style elections and democratic ways. A local government association with representatives of village councils was established in 1968.

Before 1960 slow progress was made towards establishing village councils throughout Papua New Guinea. The colonial authority had little money to fund them. Also, the Tolai on the Gazelle Peninsula opposed councils. The Tolais did not trust the colonial authority which wanted to establish the councils. After 1960 the opening up the highlands increased the number of councils rapidly. In 1964 there were 89 councils representing about one million people of the adult population.

Legislative Council

The Legislative Council was established in 1951. It was expanded in 1961 to include greater representation of local people. After 1960 local representatives became more confident about participating in Council meetings. In 1969, local representatives managed to defeat a Land Bill which they believed was not in the best interests of Papua New Guineans. In 1962 a United Nations Mission, Sir Hugh Foot, recommended that the Legislative Council be replaced by an elected national parliament with greatly expanded Papuan New Guinea representation. At the end of 1962, a Select Committee chaired by John Guise recommended that a national House of Assembly be established. This Assembly was to have 64 elected members, the majority of whom were to be Papua New Guineans.

The first House of Assembly: 1964-1968

The first general election to the House of Assembly took place in 1964. Most Papua New Guinean members had little experience in parliamentary procedures. But at least they had been elected by their own people and they had the authority to make laws. However, in practice their powers were limited. All decisions had to be approved by the colonial administrator or the Australian-appointed Governor-General.

A committee was established in 1962 to consider a new constitution, but it made little progress. In May 1965, another committee was established to draft guide-lines for a constitution. As the constitution was to set out the principles by which the country should be governed, the committee visited many towns and villages to collect the views of the people.

In 1965, a system was introduced under which members of parliament were appointed as ministers to be responsible for particular areas of government such as education and health. This was to give Papua New Guineans administrative experience in running the affairs of the country.

Political parties

The first two political parties were not founded until 1967. They were the United (Christian) Democratic Party which was renamed the United Democratic Party (UDP) shortly after its formation, and the Papua New Guinea Union (PANGU) Pati. The UDP wanted continued close association with Australia, even suggesting that Papua New Guinea become an Australian state. The larger and better organised Papua and New Guinea Union (PANGU) Pati wanted early self-governance leading to independence.

Between 1967 and independence a number of small parties were formed. Most split or went out of existence. Six political parties contested the 1968 elections. The vast majority of candidates did not belong to any political party. Most party activity was in the House of Assembly. Few parties were active except immediately before elections when the better organised held congresses. The establishment of political parties was supported by the Labour Party in Australia but opposed by the conservative Liberal and Country Parties.

The Second House of Assembly: 1968-1972

In 1968 elections were held for the second House of Assembly. The number of members increased. There were 69 members elected from open electorates and ten were appointed as official members by the colonial authority.

The most important party in the second House of Assembly was the PANGU Pati. It had ten elected members led by Michael Somare. The colonial administrator wanted to appoint some PANGU members to the ministry but the party refused to accept the positions. They formed a vocal opposition instead. John Guise was the first Papua New Guinean to be elected speaker of the House.

The strong presence of the PANGU Pati and Michael Somare's personal ability meant that the Australia government had to take demands for self-governance seriously. The Australian government was also influenced by the 1968 United Nations report in favour of self-government and by the active support for self-government from groups within Australia, in particular, the Australian Labor Party.

**Self-government**

Self-government meant that all powers (except foreign affairs, defence and the legal system) were transferred from Australia to an elected Papua New Guinean government. The remaining powers were to be handed over at independence. Moves towards self-government gathered pace in the early 1970s. In 1971 the report of the Select Committee on Constitutional Development was accepted by the House of Assembly. The House also adopted a national flag and emblem, and a national day which was declared a public holiday. The name Papua and New Guinea was formally changed to Papua New Guinea.

Gough Whitlam: Champion of independence

In Australia, Gough Whitlam was the leader of the Labour Party. He became a champion of self-government and independence. In 1969 he visited Papua New Guinea to collect up-to-date political, social and economic information. He met the Papua New Guineans who wanted early self-government.

The governing parties in Australia at the time were the conservative Liberal-Country Party coalition. Whitlam's Labour Party was in opposition. There was an Australian election due in 1972 and Whitlam promised that if Labour won the election, Papua New Guinea would become self-governing in 1972 and independent in 1976. The Australian administrator, Les Johnson, resigned because his efforts on behalf of the Papua New Guinea people were opposed by public servants in Canberra. This, and Whitlam's promise, embarrassed the Australian government. Gough Whitlam won the election and became the Australian Prime Minister.

The third House of Assembly: 1972-1975

A very large number of candidates stood for election to the third House of Assembly in February 1972. There were 553 candidates for the open electorates and 58 for the regional seats. There were three main parties. The People's Progress Party supported lowland business enterprises. The United Party represented highland conservative white planter interests and those highlanders who were concerned that the House would be dominated by the educated lowland elite. PANGU, the least conservative party, claimed to represent the whole of the people.

Papua Besena

An important political development in the period just before the election for the House of Assembly was the emergence of Papua Besena. Papua Besena means 'Papua generations'. It was founded in the Central District by Josephine Abaijah, with assistance from a white advisor Dr Wright, to fight for self-government for Papua. Abaijah and her supporters were concerned that Papua would become dominated by the populous highlands after self-government and independence. The movement attracted support and Abaijah was elected to the House of Assembly in 1972. She was one of the few women candidates and the only woman to be elected.

Michael Somare: Chief Minister

In 1972 Michael Somare's PANGU Pati formed a coalition government with the People's Progress Party. The coalition was in favour of early self-government. In June 1972, Chief Minister Somare told the House of Assembly that the constitution would need to be changed if Papua New Guinea was to have self-government by 1 December 1973. The opposition United

Party continued to try to delay self-government and suggested December 1975 as the target date.

In September 1972 Somare put the motion for early self-government before the House of Assembly. Anton Parao, a young highlander, led the United Party attack.

He said: "I do not want to see the white colonial government handed to a black 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?" (A short history of Papua New Guinea)

Of the 109 members in the House 52 voted in favour of early self-government and 34 voted against it. The highlands representatives were the only ones to vote overwhelmingly against Somare's motion. The House then agreed to a target date of 1 December 1973 for self-government.



Figure 32: 1975-Michael Somare and Gough Whitlam – Australian Prime Minister.

Breakaway movements

Some people in Bougainville had violently opposed the exploitation of their resources by Bougainville Copper Ltd. As early as 1964, they threaten to break away. The first interim provincial government was granted to the North Solomons District in 1973 to avoid the politics over regional autonomy spreading to other districts and boiling over to both self-government and independence.

In the 1960s the Tolai people in East New Britain established the Mataungan Association which wanted the people to forcibly take back land which had been taken for expatriate plantations. In the Central District, Papua Besena wanted independence for Papua. And in the Trobriands the Kabiswali Association opposed the local Government councils established by the colonial authority. They wanted to administer their own affairs. These four movements died down after independence.

PANGU and the People's Progress Party



The main parties in the governing coalition were the PANGU Pati led by Michael Somare and the People's Progress Party led by Julius Chan. They had very different policies but they formed a coalition because it suited them to do so. PANGU policies included rural development, welfare for the people and self-reliance rather than dependent upon foreign investment to develop the country. The People's Progress Party welcomed foreign investment and favoured urban business people at the expense of the people in the villages.

The constitution

The constitution set out national goals and directions for Papua New Guinea. The constitution was home grown in the fact that most of it was written by Papua New Guineans. Most of the features also occur in Australia and England. Although certain amendments have since been made, the constitution which was adopted in 1975 is basically the same as it is today.

The constitution sets out our national goals as: human development; equality and participation in development; national sovereignty and self-reliance; and the conservation of natural resources and the environment. The constitution guarantees the right to freedom from inhuman treatment, forced labour, and searching of premises by police without good reason. It also guarantees freedom of speech, religion and gathering of people for lawful purposes. These rights apply to everyone whatever their race, tribe, place of origin, political opinion, colour, religion or sex.

The Westminster system

The Westminster system of democracy was inherited from Australia, which, in turn got it from Great Britain when Australia became independent from Britain in 1901. The system is called Westminster because the British House of Parliament is in Westminster in London. Under this system a Parliament is elected by all adults over a certain age. In Papua New Guinea everyone over the age of 18 is entitled to vote in Elections. The Westminster system has been adjusted to some extent since 1975 but has, on the whole, served Papua New Guinea well.

The parliament consists of a 'government' and an 'opposition'. The 'government' consists of the political party, or parties, which win the greatest number of votes. It can also include independent members who do not belong to any political party, if they support the government. The opposition consists of the party, or parties, and independents who oppose the government. Some independent members choose not to belong to either government or the opposition.

Independence Day

In June 1975 the House of Assembly chose 16 September 1975 as Independence Day and on 15 August the constitution was finally adopted. Power over foreign affairs, defence and legal system was transferred from Australia to Papua New Guinea after the constitution was adopted. At 5.15 pm on 15 September 1975 Australian flag was lowered and at 10.25 a.m. on 16 September the Bird of Paradise flag of the independent state of Papua New Guinea was raised on Independence Hill at Waigani in Port Moresby. The raising of the flag was followed by formal celebrations.

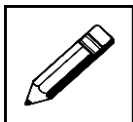


Figure 33: The lowering of Australia flag and a rising of PNG flag – September 16th 1975

One reason why there was little celebration and no disturbance on Independence Day was that power had been handed from Australia to Papua New Guinea in stages, over a period of time before 16 September 1975. The formal celebrations held in Port Moresby and the larger towns were recorded in a film *Yu Mi Yet* which means 'independence'.

In some rural areas people gathered in the schools or patrol posts and celebrated with singing and dancing but most villagers went about their daily work as if no important event was taking place. In some of the remote villages the people were not even aware that the country had become independent and many did not know what independence meant.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.4.5.5

1. When did PNG have the:

- a) First House of Assembly _____
- b) Second House of Assembly _____
- c) Third House of Assembly _____

2. What did Minister for External Territories Andrew Peacock do in 1972?



3. Name the first two political parties in 1967?

4. What system of government does PNG have?

5. Which Australian is referred to as the Champion for PNG Independence?

7. Refer to the dates and events below for a-e.

a) What happened in 1951?

b) When was the first election involving indigenous people?

c) When was self-government and Sir Michael chief minister? _____

d) When did PNG gain its independence? _____

e) What happened in 1977?

**Summary Timeline of Post War Papua New Guinea**

1942	Japanese forces occupy parts of both territories.
1949	Australia establishes a joint administration over The Territory of Papua and New Guinea.
1951	A 28-member Legislative Council established by Australia.
1954	Aerial survey reveals undiscovered highland valleys with 100,000 people.
1961	First elections involving indigenous population.
1963	UN transfers control of West New Guinea to Indonesia. Today this region is called Papua.
1964	A 64-member House of Assembly replaces Legislative Council and for the first time indigenous representatives are elected to the majority of seats in the legislature.
1971	Renamed Papua New Guinea (PNG).
1973 Feb	Indonesia and PNG agree position of Irian Jaya border.
1973 Dec	Self-Government. Michael Somare, head of the governing Executive Council.
1975	New currency, the kina, replaces the Australian dollar.
1975 16 Sep	Attains full independence from Australia. Sir Michael Somare becomes PM.
1975	Bougainville provincial government votes to secede from PNG. Somare's government
1977	First parliamentary elections since independence.



Unit 11.4 Summary

It was the bloodiest, deadliest war the world had ever seen. More than 38 million people died, many of them innocent civilians. It also was the most destructive war in history. Fighting raged in many parts of the world. More than 50 nations took part in the war, which changed the world forever.

World War II had a clear-cut purpose. People knew why they were fighting: to defeat tyranny. Most of Europe had been conquered by Nazi Germany, which was under the iron grip of dictator Adolf Hitler. Hitler practiced a foreign policy of expansionism in defiance of the Treaty of Versailles. However, Great Britain and France did nothing because they did not want war by adopting a foreign policy called Appeasement. So the war in Europe began with Germany's invasion of Poland in 1939. Wherever the Nazis went, they waged a campaign of terror, mainly against Jews, but also against other minorities. In Asia and the Pacific, Japanese armies invaded country after country, island after island. On December 7, 1941, Japanese planes bombed Pearl Harbour, Hawaii. The next day, the U.S. Congress declared war, taking the U.S. into World War 2.

Germany and its allies had been the losers in World War I. Germany was stripped of one sixth of its territory and forced to pay huge reparations (payments by a defeated country for the destruction it caused in a war). After World War I, Germany suffered from high unemployment and runaway inflation. German money became almost worthless. Many Germans seethed in anger at the peace treaty.

A League of Nations was set up after World War I to keep the peace. But the U.S. did not join, and other countries were too busy with their own problems to worry about Germany and other trouble spots.

Then, in the early 1930s, the world was hit by an economic depression. Workers lost their jobs, trade fell off, and times were hard. People looked for leaders who could bring about change. Germany, Italy, and Japan all came under the rule of dictators or military leaders. A dictator named Mussolini took power in Italy in 1922. Military leaders took control of Japan in the early 1930s. In Germany, Adolf Hitler, leader of the Nazi Party, gained power in 1933. These leaders promised to restore their countries to greatness. But they set up totalitarian governments. (A totalitarian government is controlled by a single political party that allows no opposition and tightly controls people's lives.)

Hitler began to arm Germany for war. Japan invaded China. Mussolini sent Italian troops to conquer Ethiopia, in Africa. None of the world's democracies did anything to stop them. Hitler had a plan to conquer Europe. He began by taking Austria, then Czechoslovakia. Again, no one tried to stop him. As Winston Churchill, who became Britain's wartime leader, said, "Britain and France had to choose between war and dishonor. Their foreign policy of appeasement had to come to end in the face of aggression through Hitler's expansionism policy

Churchill's words came true. In 1939, German troops invaded Poland. World War II in Europe had begun. The U.S. did not enter the war until December 1941, but once it did, it took a leadership role. U.S. troops fought in North Africa, Europe, and the Pacific. At home, Americans rolled up their sleeves to outproduce the Axis powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan) in the weapons of warplanes, battleships, and guns. Everyone did their part.



Germany surrendered on May 7, 1945, ending the war in Europe. The war in the Pacific did not end until after the U.S. dropped two atomic bombs on Japan — the only time such bombs were ever used in war. Japan surrendered on August 14, 1945.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt, who had led the U.S. in wartime, did not live to see peace. But in a speech written but never delivered, he spoke of the need to preserve peace: "Today we are faced with the preeminent [above all other] fact that, if civilization is to survive, we must cultivate the science of human relationships — the ability of all peoples, of all kinds, to live together and work together in the same world, at peace."



Summary for sub unit 11.4.1

- At the beginning of the 20th century, China was divided into sphere of influence with each powerful Western nation trying to exert as much control over it as possible.
- The Chinese resented foreigners control and expressed this at the beginning of the 20th century with the Boxer Rebellion. At the same time, the traditional government of China began to fail in the early years.
- The Chinese people, being resentful of foreigners and dissatisfied with inability of the present government to throw them out, initiated the Revolution of 1911, replacing the Chinese 2000 year old imperial system with the Republic of China headed by Sun Yat-sen.
- In March of 1912, Sun Yat-sen resigned and Yuan Shih-kai became the next ruler of China. Yuan attempted to reinstate an imperial system with himself as emperor causing Sun to start one of China's first political parties, Kuomintang or KMT.
- On May 4, 1919, the May Fourth Movement took place in which students demonstrated in protest of the Treaty of Versailles. The Movement helped the Chinese by promoting science and making Chinese adopt a new easier form of writing. Moreover, the movement was the foundation for the forming of the Communist Party of China (CCP).
- During the 1920's, China was divided in a power struggle began between the CCP and KMT. The KMT controlled a majority of China with a strong base in urban areas while the CCP displaying smallholdings in rural communities.
- The army of the Republic of China, under the leadership of Chiang Kai-shek tried to destroy the Communist army in 1934, however, Chiang failed but did cause the CCP to flee northward in the Long March.
- In 1931, Japan occupied Manchuria and established a puppet government called Manchukuo. The Japanese aggression in China became full blown on July 7, 1937.
- By 1939, Japan controlled most of the east coast of China, while Chiang blockaded the Communists in the northwest region.
- By 1948, the CCP began to wage war against the KMT, taking control of Manchuria and working its way south. On October 1, 1949, with the retreat of the KMT to Taiwan, Mao Tse tung established the People's Republic of China.
- Between 1937 and 1941, increasing conflict between China and Japan influenced U.S. relations with both nations, and finally contributed to pushing the United States toward full-scale war with Japan and Germany.



Answers to Activities 11.4.5

Activity 11.4.5.1

1.
 - (a) Papua and New Guinea were combined in an administrative union.
 - (b) They were now united as the Territory of Papua and New Guinea.
2. New Deal is a promise made by the Australian Government to improve the standard of living for the natives by providing education and welfare services for the natives. Under the New Deal Australia was to thank the natives for their support in the war.
Indenture system is a forced labour system more like slavery where able bodies were forced to work for the colonizers before the war.
3.
 - (a) Labour Policy –Indenture system and all other labour contracts were cancelled in a single day. Labourers returned to their villages.
 - (b) The new Department of Education took charge of both government and mission schools and same standards and language was taught. Vocational schools were set up. New Education policy ; Universal Primary Education’
 - (c) More spending on Public health care and campaign. New drugs were used and natives were sent for medical training overseas.
4. Colonial JK Murray
5. Sir Albert Maori Kiki, Dr Rueben Taureka and Dr Gaberial Gris

Activity 11.4.4.2

1. Bank of New South Wales and Commonwealth Bank.
2. The Department of Agriculture was to help villagers grow cash crops and subsistence food, and redevelop the plantations which had been destroyed or neglected during the war.
3. Due to lack of transport and marketing systems. They were also discouraged for price change for their goods. The villagers were content with their subsistence way of living.
4. Coffee
5. When Colonial Murray retired he was replaced by Colonial D M Cleland.
6. In 1951, 3 districts – Southern, Eastern and Western were created in the Highlands.
7. Goroka was the first colonial center in the highlands.
8. Unlike the low lands labour systems, the Highland’s labourers were firstly given better conditions, secondly rations were more balanced and lastly the labourers could not be put in prison for breaking the law.
9. Paliau Maloat Movement in Manus.

**Activity 11.4.5.3**

1. The United Nations mission chaired by Sir Hugh Foot.
2. The Advancement of the Natives through increasing Agriculture production.
3. It was an economic plan intended for practice between 1968-1973 as recommended by the World Bank.
4. Sir Michael Somare
5. a -2, b-7, c-5 and d-3

Activity 11.4.5.4

1. Australians/Chinese
2. UPNG – 1966 and Unitech – 1967
3. Australian Government
4. Swimming and boxing
5. Education – established and owned many schools which educated the bulk of our people
Health – established and owned hospitals and health centers caring for our peoples health
Agriculture – own and operated plantations, contributing to the economy of PNG
6. Catholic, Lutheran, Baptist, Anglican (main stream)
- 7.

Multinational Company in Bougainville	Conzinc Riotinto
% shares	✓ 20% Australian Government ✓ 53.6 % Conzinc Riotinto ✓ 26.4% sold
Operation Started	1969
Bougainvilleans response	✓ Some mixed feelings ✓ Others against mining ✓ Some wanted mining to continue ✓ Others wanted their shares.
Benefits to PNG	✓ Contributed more than half of the nation,s revenue. ✓ By 1975, BCL was the one major project to guarantee enough money for PNG government to run.

8. Because they (the Bougainvilleans) wanted to break away.

**Activity 11.4.5.5**

1. (a) 1964-1968 (b) 1968-1972 (c) 1972-1975
2. The name of the territory was changed to Papua New Guinea and the territory adopted self-government. Michael Somare became chief minister.
3. United Democratic Party (UDP) and Papua New Guinean Union Pati (PANGU)
4. Single house Westminster parliamentary system
5. Gough Whitlam then leader of Labour Party and later Prime Minister of Australia.
6.
 - a) A 28 member legislative council established by Australia.
 - b) March 1961
 - c) December 1973
 - d) 16th September 1975
 - e) First parliamentary elections since independence.



Glossary

Air Raid Precautions	Measures taken against air attack on British cities. Also the name of the government department in charge of air defense
Allies	Term generally used to describe the USA, British Empire and their allies in WW2
Artillery	Heavy guns
Atomic Bomb	Powerful bomb that could destroy cities and used by the USA against Japan in 1945
Auschwitz	Death camp where many thousands of Jews, gypsies and other groups were murdered by the Nazis from 1942-45
Axis	Alliance of Germany, Italy and Japan in WW2
Barbarossa	Codename for the German invasion of the USSR (Russia) in 1941
Battle of Britain	Campaign in 1940 to prevent German invasion of Britain that involved the RAF, Royal Navy and Army
Blitz	Heavy and frequent bombing raids carried out over British cities, ports and industrial areas from 1940-1941
Blitzkrieg	The German for "lightning war". A swift, sudden military attack using bomber aircraft to support fast moving tanks and motor vehicles
British Expeditionary Force (BEF)	British forces which fought against the Germans in France in 1940
Camouflage	Covering up weapons, buildings, troops or equipment so that they are difficult to see
Casualties	People killed and/or wounded in war
Censorship	Banning or deleting any information of value to the enemy
Churchill, Winston	British Prime Minister in WW2 from 1940-1945
Cold War	A state of political tension and military rivalry between nations that stops short of full-scale war, especially that which existed between the United States and Soviet Union following WW2



Collaborate	To work with, or co-operate with, usually referring to people who co-operated with forces who had taken over their countries
Commonwealth	Countries that were formerly part of the British Empire (e.g. Canada, New Zealand)
Communism	Political system that believes in the importance of the working classes and regards individual freedom as less important than the good of society as a whole
Concentration Camp	Camps in Germany used by the Nazis to hold and torture their opponents, not the same as death camps. However, many died in such camps
Convoy	A ship, fleet, or group of vehicles accompanied by a protecting escort
D-Day	Allied invasion of German held France in June 1944
Death Camp	Camps for killing racial groups, especially Jews, which the Nazis considered to be inferior
Democracy	System of government based on people voting for their leaders with a strong emphasis on the freedom of the individual
Dysentery	Serious illness usually caused by poor food or infected water supplies
Enigma	Machine used by German forces to turn their messages into code. It was supposed to be unbreakable but was cracked by British intelligence
Evacuation	The withdrawal or removal of troops or civilians
Fascism	Originally, the term "fascism" (fascismo) was used by the political movement that ruled Italy from 1922 to 1943 under the leadership of Benito Mussolini. A system of government that opposes individual freedom and democracy, is anti-communist and favours extreme nationalism
Final Solution	Nazi plan to kill the entire Jewish population in Europe dating from spring 1942, although hundreds of thousands of Jews already had been killed by death squads and in mass pogroms (see below) before this time
Gestapo	German Secret Police
Goering, Hermann	Head of the German Air Force and high-ranking Nazi leader



Hitler, Adolf	Leader of Germany in WW2 and head of the Nazi party
Holocaust	The mass murder of around 6 million Jews and other racial groups by the Nazis in WW2
Hurricane	British fighter plane
Infiltrate	To move into an organization, country or territory, secretly
Internment	The practice of detaining persons considered dangerous during a war. For example, Americans of Japanese descent were held in internment camps in the USA
Iron Curtain	Phrase used by Winston Churchill to describe the division of Europe after WW2 into Communist East and non-Communist West
Juno	Codename for one of the beaches in the D-Day landings of 1944, also known as Canadian beach as Canadian forces used it
Lebensraum	This was the name given to Hitler's policy to provide extra "living space" for the German population by conquest of the lands of Eastern Europe and the USSR
Lend Lease	Scheme introduced by US President Roosevelt in 1941 to give Britain military equipment in WW2 on very easy terms
Luftwaffe	German Air Force
Memorandum	An official note or statement
MI5	Military Intelligence Department 5. This is the Security Service for the UK. The Service has played a secret role over the past century in countering the activities of terrorists and spies
MI6	Military Intelligence Department 6. This is the Secret Intelligence Service, and undertakes spy missions overseas
Midway	Decisive naval battle in 1942 in which the US destroyed several Japanese aircraft carriers
Montgomery, Bernard	Leading British general in WW2
Mussolini, Benito	Leader of Italy in WW2 and head of Italian Fascist party



National Government	British government made up of politicians from Conservative, Labour and Liberal parties
Nazi party	Ruling political party in Germany 1933-45, headed by Adolf Hitler. (The National Socialist German Worker's Party)
Omaha	Codename for one of the beaches in the D-Day landings of 1944
Operation Dynamo	Codename for the evacuation of British and French forces from Dunkirk in 1940
Operation PLUTO	(Pipe-lines under the Ocean) was the plan to build undersea oil pipelines between Britain and France to keep Allied forces supplied with fuel after the D-Day landings in 1944
Operation Sealion	Codename for the planned invasion of Britain by German forces in 1940-41
Operation Torch	Codename for the British and US advance to drive German and Italian forces out of North Africa
Panzer	German tank
Paratroopers	Specially trained soldiers who could be dropped by parachute into enemy territory
Pearl Harbour	Main US naval base, attacked by Japanese forces in December 1941
Potsdam	Suburb of Berlin and location for the conference between Britain, USA and USSR towards the end of WW2
Propaganda	Spreading a particular message in order to influence public opinion
Radar	Electronic system for detecting aircraft, ships, motor vehicles or weather formations
Red Army	Army of the Soviet Union or USSR. In 1946, the Red Army was officially renamed the Soviet Army
Refugee	A person who seeks shelter especially in another country, from war, disaster, or persecution



Resistance	Term used to describe underground forces who fought against German occupation of their countries in WW2
Rommel, Erwin	Leading German commander
Roosevelt, Franklin Delano	American President for almost all of WW2 who died in April 1945
Royal Air Force (RAF)	British air force
Royal Navy (RN)	British navy
Russia	The largest republic in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (USSR or Soviet Union). The terms 'Russia' or 'Russians' were often used when strictly the term 'USSR' or 'Soviets' should have been used
Sabotage	A deliberate action to weaken the enemy by destroying equipment in secret raids rather than open attacks
Soviet	Workers councils which gave their name to the USSR
Special Operations Executive (SOE)	Special unit formed by the British to carry out attacks on German occupied Europe in WW2
Spitfire	British fighter plane
SS	Huge organisation within Nazi Germany which controlled many areas such as security, persecution of Jews and had its own armed forces, the Waffen-SS
Staff Officer	Officer responsible for planning and organising campaigns
Stalin, Joseph	Leader of the Soviet Union (USSR) in WW2
Stalingrad	Large industrial city in southern USSR and a key battleground with Germany in 1942-43
Sword	Codename for one of the beaches in the D-Day landings of 1944
Torpedo	Missile fired by submarines and ships designed to sink other surface vessels or submarines
Tribunal	Type of court in which a group of people are appointed to give judgement on official decisions



Truman, Harry	American Vice President for most of WW2 who took over as President after Roosevelt's death in April 1945
U-Boat	English word used for a German submarine or 'U-Boot'
United Nations	Organisation formed in 1945 to replace the League of Nations
United States Army Air Force (USAAF)	American Air Force. Its main role was to bomb German and Japanese cities in WW2
Utah	Codename for one of the beaches in the D-Day landings of 1944
VE-Day	Day marking Victory in Europe and the surrender of Germany on May 8th 1945
Vichy France	Vichy France, or the Vichy regime, was the government of France from July 1940 to August 1944 led by Marshal after the fall of France in WW2
VJ-Day	Victory in Japan day which marked the surrender of Japan in August 15th 1945 following the destruction of Hiroshima and Nagasaki by atomic bombs
Warsaw	Capital of Poland
Yalta	City in the USSR where Britain, the USA and USSR held a conference in February 1945

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FODE PROVINCIAL CENTRES CONTACTS

PC NO .	FODE PROVINCIAL CENTRE	ADDRESS	PHONE/FAX	CUG PHONES	CONTACT PERSON		CUG PHONE
1	DARU	P. O. Box 68, Daru	6459033	72228146	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229047
2	KEREMA	P. O. Box 86, Kerema	6481303	72228124	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229049
3	CENTRAL	C/- FODE HQ	3419228	72228110	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229050
4	ALOTAU	P. O. Box 822, Alotau	6411343 / 6419195	72228130	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229051
5	POPONDETTA	P. O. Box 71, Popondetta	6297160 / 6297678	72228138	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229052
6	MENDI	P. O. Box 237, Mendi	5491264 / 72895095	72228142	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229053
7	GOROKA	P. O. Box 990, Goroka	5322085 / 5322321	72228116	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229054
8	KUNDIAWA	P. O. Box 95, Kundiawa	5351612	72228144	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229056
9	MT HAGEN	P. O. Box 418, Mt. Hagen	5421194 / 5423332	72228148	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229057
10	VANIMO	P. O. Box 38, Vanimo	4571175 / 4571438	72228140	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229060
11	WEWAK	P. O. Box 583, Wewak	4562231/ 4561114	72228122	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229062
12	MADANG	P. O. Box 2071, Madang	4222418	72228126	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229063
13	LAKE	P. O. Box 4969, Lae	4725508 / 4721162	72228132	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229064
14	KIMBE	P. O. Box 328, Kimbe	9835110	72228150	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229065
15	RABAUL	P. O. Box 83, Kokopo	9400314	72228118	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229067
16	KAVIENG	P. O. Box 284, Kavieng	9842183	72228136	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229069
17	BUKA	P. O. Box 154, Buka	9739838	72228108	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229073
18	MANUS	P. O. Box 41, Lorengau	9709251	72228128	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229080
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21	HELA	P. O. Box 63, Tari	73197115	72228141	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229083
22	JIWAKA	c/- FODE Hagen		72228143	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229085

SUBJECT AND GRADE TO STUDY

GRADE LEVELS	SUBJECTS/COURSES
Grades 7 and 8	1. English
	2. Mathematics
	3. Personal Development
	4. Social Science
	5. Science
	6. Making a Living
Grades 9 and 10	1. English
	2. Mathematics
	3. Personal Development
	4. Science
	5. Social Science
	6. Business Studies
	7. Design and Technology- Computing
Grades 11 and 12	1. English – Applied English/Language & Literature
	2. Mathematics - Mathematics A / Mathematics B
	3. Science – Biology/Chemistry/Physics
	4. Social Science – History/Geography/Economics
	5. Personal Development
	6. Business Studies
	7. Information & Communication Technology

REMEMBER:

- For Grades 7 and 8, you are required to do all six (6) courses.
- For Grades 9 and 10, you must study English, Mathematics, Science, Personal Development, Social Science and Commerce. Design and Technology-Computing is optional.
- For Grades 11 and 12, you are required to complete seven (7) out of thirteen (13) courses to be certified.

Your Provincial Coordinator or Supervisor will give you more information regarding each subject.

GRADES 11 & 12 COURSE PROGRAMMES

No	Science	Humanities	Business
1	Applied English	Language & Literature	Language & Literature/Applied English
2	Mathematics A/B	Mathematics A/B	Mathematics A/B
3	Personal Development	Personal Development	Personal Development
4	Biology	Biology/Physics/Chemistry	Biology/Physics/Chemistry
5	Chemistry/ Physics	Geography	Economics/Geography/History
6	Geography/History/Economics	History / Economics	Business Studies
7	ICT	ICT	ICT

Notes: You must seek advice from your Provincial Coordinator regarding the recommended courses in each stream. Options should be discussed carefully before choosing the stream when enrolling into Grade 11. FODE will certify for the successful completion of seven subjects in Grade 12.

CERTIFICATE IN MATRICULATION STUDIES		
No	Compulsory Courses	Optional Courses
1	English 1	Science Stream: Biology, Chemistry, Physics
2	English 2	Social Science Stream: Geography, Intro to Economics and Asia and the Modern World
3	Mathematics 1	
4	Mathematics 2	
5	History of Science & Technology	

REMEMBER:

You must successfully complete 8 courses: 5 compulsory and 3 optional.