Year 12
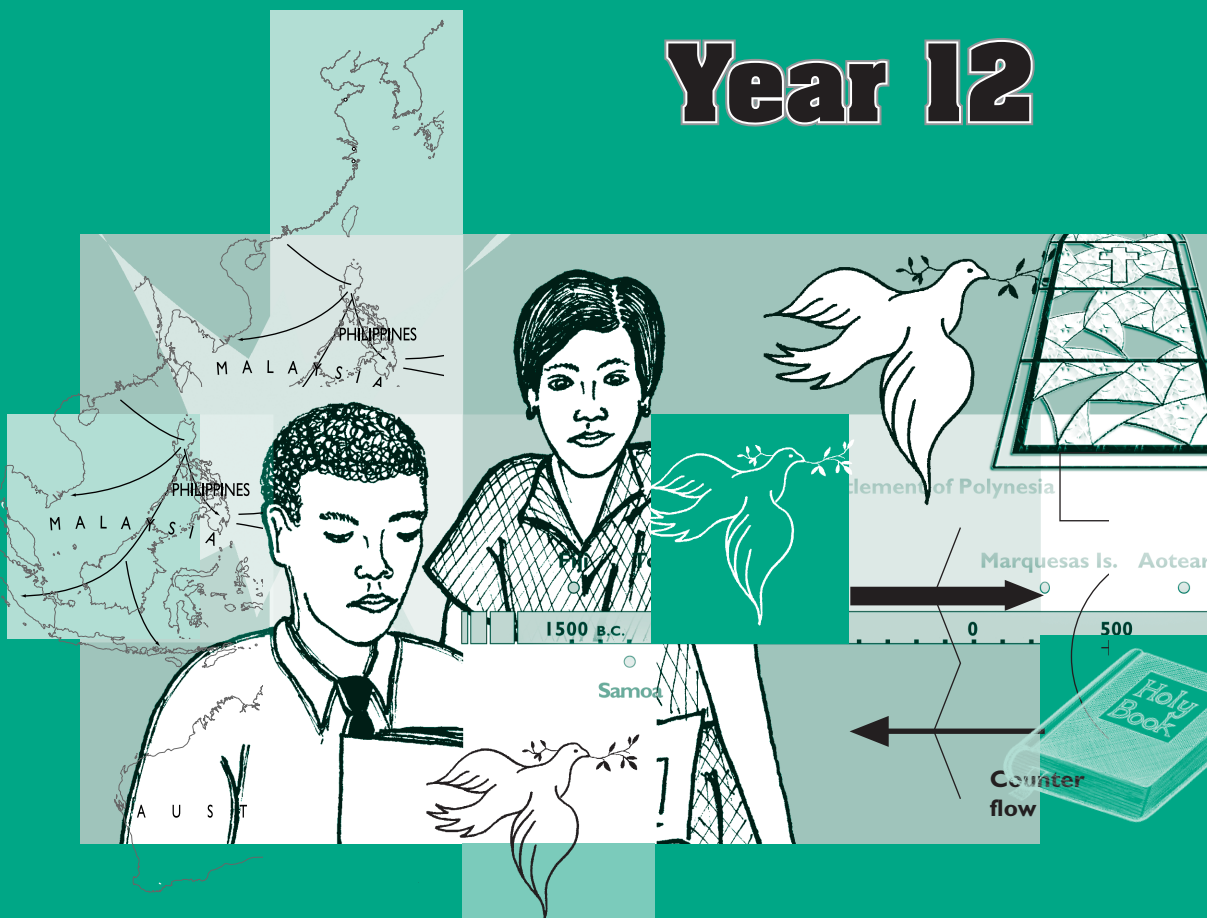
History

HISTORY

Year 12

GOVERNMENT OF SĀMOA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SPORTS AND CULTURE

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Part 1

Migration

There are a number of very important concepts that you will be 'meeting' in Part 1, perhaps for the first time. Be alert to the following key concepts in the text – look out for them! Your teacher will help you and your classmates to develop your understanding of these concepts. Remember – key concepts are important ideas that are specific to the study of history.

Key Concepts:

Theories

Oral history

Oral traditions

Perspectives

Evidence and Proof

Introduction

Migration is when people move from one place to another to live. There is much evidence to show that Sāmoans have moved from one place to another to live for centuries up until the present. Whether this movement has been within the islands of Sāmoa, or from Sāmoa to other Pacific islands, or to places on the Pacific Rim and beyond, Sāmoans have long migration histories. That has been a huge influence on Sāmoan society and culture over time.

These histories also include the migration of other groups of people, of non-Sāmoans, to Sāmoa. The migration flows to and from Sāmoa, by Sāmoans and non-Sāmoans, have had profound effects. These effects have often been shaped by political, economic and social changes going on at the same time at the local, national and even global level.

There are a number of ways that we can study migration in the past and the present. The two approaches that we will use in Part 1 are:

❑ the push/pull model of migration, and;

❑ global economic patterns.

Push/Pull

The push/pull model of migration is a useful one for understanding the decisions that people made before they migrated. Doing your education in Social Studies, particularly at Year 9, you would have studied this model, and the process of migration. You would have looked at examples from within your family and your own community.
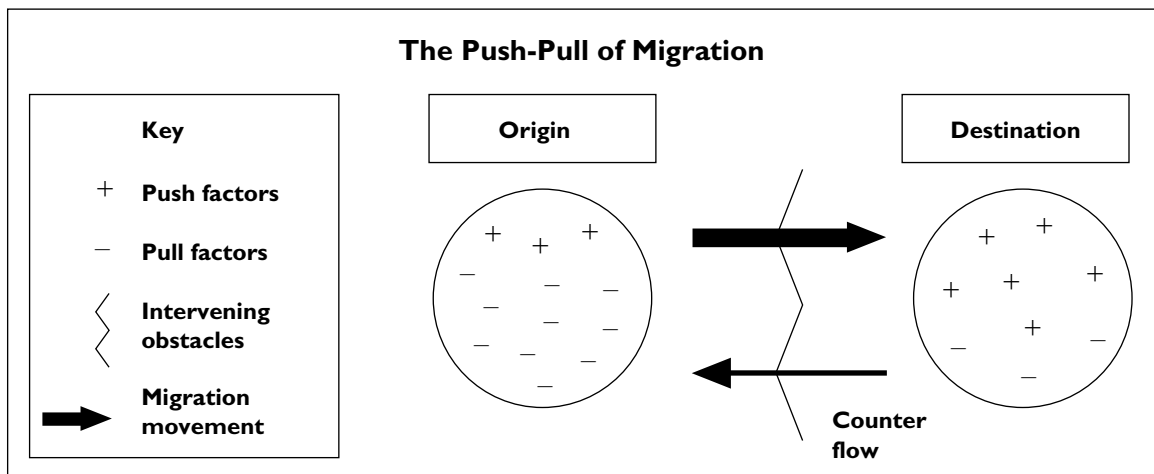
Figure 1.0.1 Push-Pull of migration

Global Economics

Another important way of understanding the process of migration is to look at global economic conditions. International migration (the movements of people from one country to another) is often caused by global political and economic conditions. These political and economic conditions provide people with a chance to make the individual decisions based on push and pull factors. However, migration is usually a result of economic and political factors that the migrants have no control or influence over.

Part 5, about Economic Transformations, will also be very helpful in aiding you to develop a better understanding of how national structures interact with global processes, and how they in turn shape patterns of migration.

Unit 1

Which Theories Explain Sāmoa's Origins?

Which theories explain Sāmoa's origins (particularly the origin of the people of Sāmoa)? How significant are these theories, e.g. theories of Asian origins?

Useful terms

Social Scientist: a person who studies people, and the way people in the past and present live;

Pottery: pots, bowls, plates made from baked clay;

Archaeology: the scientific study of people from the distant past through examination of the things that they left behind.

There are a number of theories about the origins of the Sāmoan people. Two theories come from social scientists outside of the Pacific region. Social scientists have spent many years searching for evidence to prove these theories.

Theory One: 'Lapita Pottery' And Origins In South East Asia

This is widely accepted because of the amount of evidence that supports the theory. A type of pottery called Lapita pottery has been found in different parts of the Pacific. Lapita pottery has been found in South East Asia, through different islands in Melanesia, right through to Fiji, Tonga and Sāmoa. Twentieth century social scientists called the people who made these pots the Austronesians, and they are considered to be the ancestors of the Polynesians (a grouping of people with strong racial, linguistic, cultural and genetic similarities). The movement of Austronesians through the Pacific took many years – and the evidence for this movement is the dating of locations of Lapita pottery. Using this evidence, it has been estimated that these people arrived, and settled for a time, in the Bismarck archipelago by 1500 BC. They arrived in Tonga (via Fiji) by 1300 BC. They arrived in Sāmoa about 1000 BC.

So what evidence supports this theory?

❑ Archaeological evidence
❑ DNA
❑ Language
❑ Cultural practices

Settlement of Polynesia

| Fiji | Tonga | | Marquesas Is. | Aotearoa |

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1500 B.C.      1000        500         0         500         1000 A.D.
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Fiji Tonga   Marquesas Is.   Aotearoa

         Samoa   Rapanui   Society Is.
                                 Hawaii
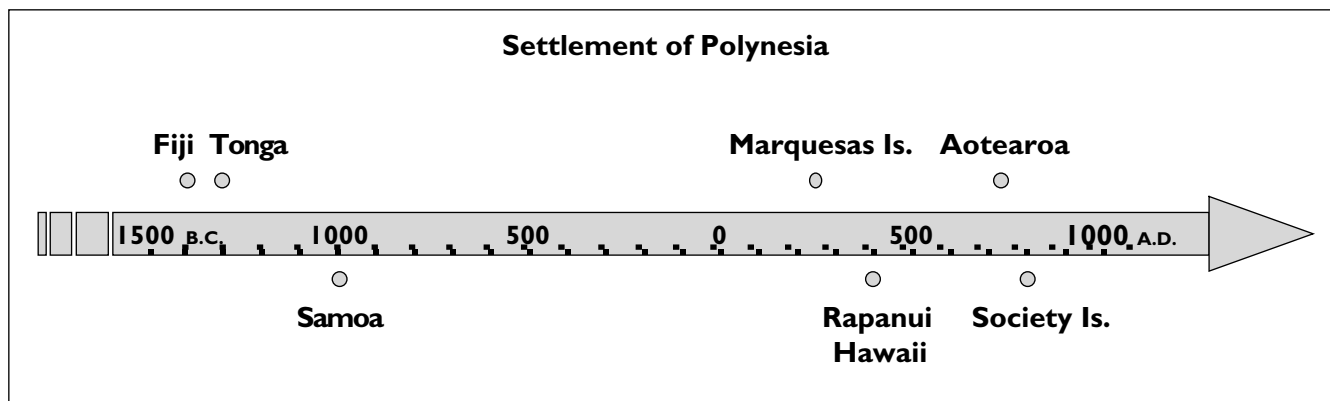
Figure 1.1.1 Settlement of Polynesia

Archaeological Evidence

❏ Distinctive Lapita pottery, decorated with horizontal patterns and with unique angular designs.

❏ Lapita pot pieces and fragments have been found from New Britain to New Caledonia, Tonga and Sāmoa.

❏ Lapita pottery is named after the place in New Caledonia where it was first discovered.

❏ In the mid 1970s, archaeologists from Utah in the United States discovered several pieces of Lapita pottery at Mulifanua, on the north west coast of Upolu.

❏ The scientific technique of carbon dating was used to find out how old the pieces were. The results showed they were about 2990 years.

❏ Evidence like this has helped social scientists such as archaeologists to make quite accurate calculations of the migration patterns of the Austronesian-speaking people throughout the Pacific.

❏ The carbon dating of Lapita pottery found in Sāmoa has given an approximate date for when the ancestors of the Sāmoan people first arrived in these islands.

DNA – Genetic Studies

❏ Other scientific studies have involved looking at samples of human DNA from different groups within the Pacific region (particularly Polynesian people). When there are very strong similarities in DNA between groups of people, this is evidence that they share some of the same ancestors.

❏ DNA studies have produced evidence that there are genetic links between different groups of people and scientists can use this information to track migration patterns.

❏ DNA evidence has shows that the ancestors of the Sāmoan people travelled from Taiwan to the Philippines, Indonesia, New Guinea, Fiji and Sāmoa.

Language

❏ The Sāmoan language is part of the vast family of languages that social scientists have classified and called Austronesian. There are two types of Austronesian languages – Formosan and Malayo-Polynesian.

❏ Seafaring people moved from island to island over a long period of time.

❏ The Austronesian languages spread across the Pacific and Indian Oceans, and can be identified as far north in the Pacific as Hawaii, and as far west in the Indian Ocean as Madagascar.

❏ More than 1200 of these languages remain in the world today (about a hundred of these are found in Vanuatu alone!).

❏ Sāmoan is classified as Malayo-Polynesian, and it has similarities to Tongan, Cook Island Maori and other Polynesian languages and this suggests there is a strong link or relationship.

❏ At the same time, the Sāmoan language has special or unique features of its own.

Cultural Practices and Traditions

❏ In addition to language, there are other strong similarities that can be found among many Polynesian groups.

❏ For example, the art of making siapo (e.g. Sāmoa, Tonga, Fiji); tatau (Sāmoa, Maori in New Zealand, Tahiti), ava ceremonies (Fiji, Sāmoa), house building techniques, food preparation, gift exchanges, and navigation and sailing.

The Lapita Trail Through the Pacific

❏ The location of Lapita pottery through the Pacific has supported scientists' beliefs that this was the route taken by the Polynesians. The older pieces of Lapita have been found in South East Asia and Melanesia. It has also been found in greater quantities in the islands to the west of the Pacific.

❏ The journey from the west to the east would have been made easier because the islands of Melanesia are close to each other.

❏ Sāmoa and Tonga are thought to be the first Polynesian settlements. People stayed in each of these islands for a few hundred years before groups left them to settle elsewhere (and spread further to other parts of the Pacific).

❏ Settling other parts of the Pacific was much harder because of the huge distances between island groups (e.g. the distance between the Hawaiian Islands and French Polynesia).
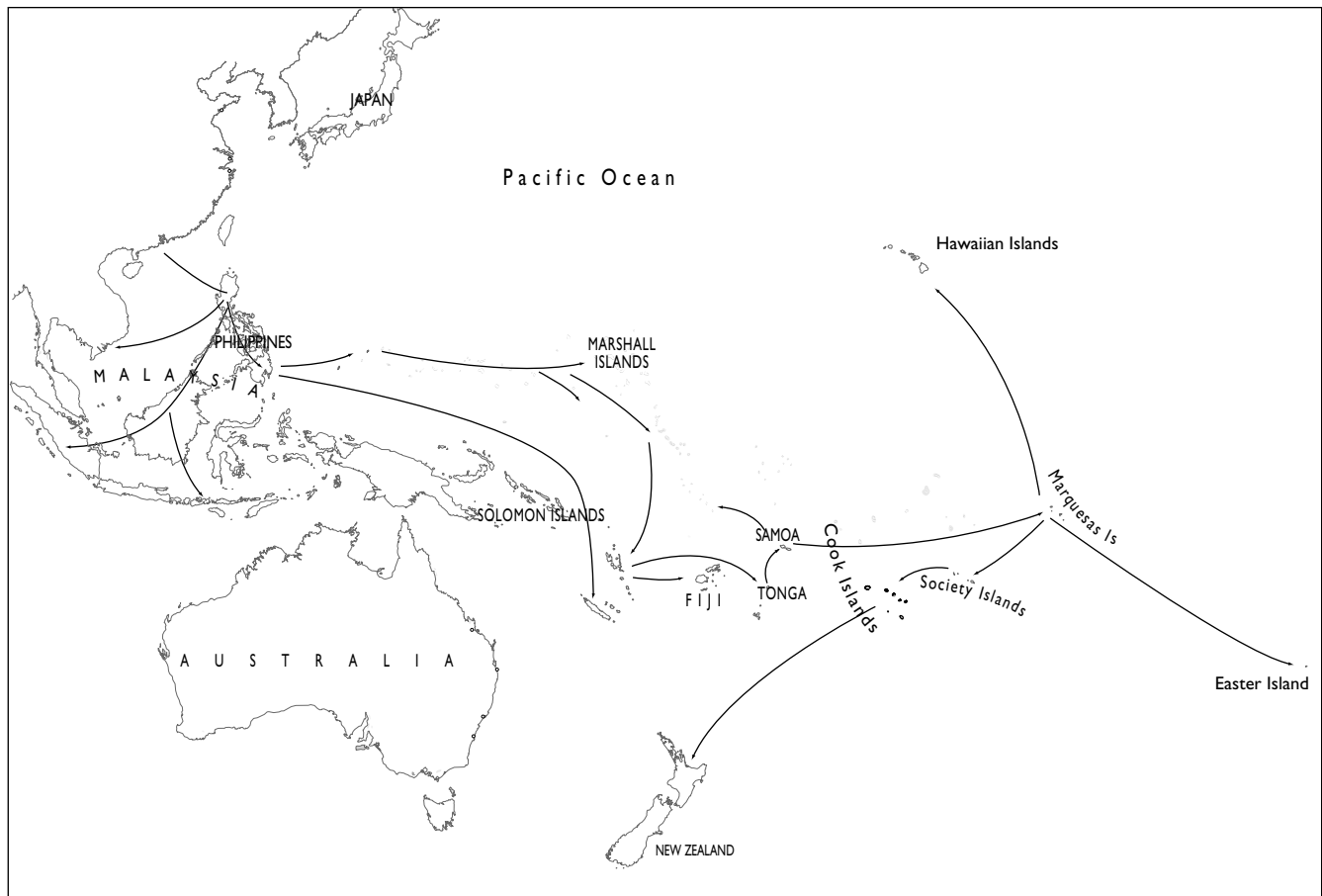
Figure 1.1.2 Peopling of the Pacific (South East Asian origins)

Theory Two: They Came From the East

Some social scientists support the theory that the ancestors of the Polynesians originally came, not from South East Asia, but from the western coast of South America.

So what evidence supports this theory?

❑ modern day experimental voyages

❑ botanical or plant similarities

❑ general similarities in the shape of ancient ruins

Modern Day Voyages

❑ In 1947 a Norwegian scientist called Thor Heyerdahl built and sailed a craft called the Kon-Tiki. It was made from balsa wood, a material found on the coast of South America.

❑ Together with a small crew, and using simple, traditional navigation techniques, they set sail towards the Pacific Islands. Thor Heyerdahl's theory was that it was possible for people from South America to sail across the Pacific

❑ The Kon-Tiki was swept to the west on ocean currents. It reached islands in French Polynesia. Thor Heyerdahl put forward his successful voyage as proof that this could have happened.

Botanical or Plant Similarities

❑ An important staple food crop in many Polynesian islands is the kumara or sweet potato. It is found throughout the Pacific. It could not have drifted from one island to another because salt water destroys the plant.

❑ It must have been transported from one island to another by human beings.

❑ Scientists have found that the kumara plant originated in South America

Similarities of Ancient Ruins

❑ Some social scientists noticed that funeral mounds found in some Polynesian islands (e.g. Tonga, Sāmoa) have a similar pyramid shape to tiered, pyramid-like structures found in ancient ruins in South America.

❑ However, these are very general similarities. There is no other archaeological evidence to prove they are the same.

❑ Theories that the ancestors of the Polynesians came from the east have NOT been supported by much other evidence. There are far more physical, linguistic and other forms of other evidence to support the theory that they originated from South East Asia.

Theory Three: Sāmoan Theories And Beliefs

Many Polynesian cultural groupings have their own theories and beliefs about where their people came from, and how and why they arrived in their islands. In other words, people like the Sāmoans have their own explanations. Among some groups, oral traditions tell of their direct descent from the gods, and that their people migrated from a homeland called Hawaiki.

In the case of Sāmoa, oral traditions have shaped the Sāmoan theory of the origins of the people. Oral tradition, in the form of genealogies, myths and legends, states the belief that Sāmoans originated from within Sāmoa. The Sāmoan god, Tagaloalagi, created the Sāmoan people and organised them into the traditional districts and villages of Sāmoa. It has been estimated (again, based on the information provided by different forms of oral tradition such as genealogies) that Tagaloalagi lived in Sāmoa 2600 years BC.

So what evidence supports this belief?

Physical evidence is very weak. There are no significant artefacts such as pottery pieces or very old tools. The absence of such materials makes it very difficult to explain the early history of Sāmoa.

Because this theory relies on oral traditions, its strengths and weaknesses depend on the oral traditions themselves. Oral traditions that are a source of historical evidence take the form of legends, proverbs, genealogies, and place names.

> *Quote One:*
>
> *'The main vehicles of Sāmoan oral traditions are perhaps* fagogo *(oral history) and* lauga *(oratory). While many Sāmoans are aware of European theories of early Polynesian migration, the historical reference points of fa'aSāmoa are defined by legendary figures of the Tui Fiti (Fiji), Tui Toga (Tonga) and Tui Manu'a (Sāmoa)'.*
>
> *1990, Dr Morgan Tuimaleali'ifano,* Sāmoans in Fiji: Migration, Identity and Communication, *Institute of Pacific Studies, Fiji, Tonga and Western Samoa Extension Centres of the University of the South Pacific, p 17.*

Oral Traditions: Fact or Fiction?

Polynesian cultures are based on oral traditions. These are the total store of cultural knowledge that is passed from one generation to the next. Such a store is a specialised data bank that can contain family histories, creation stories, the origins of important chiefly titles, the location of boundaries between one tribe or village and another, important political and religious practices and practical knowledge and skills.

This knowledge was so important, or even sacred, that only certain people were given the responsibility for 'looking after' that knowledge. They became the experts, leaders in their own right, and the community respected them very much. Others would come to the experts for advice, guidance, and counsel. It must have been a great responsibility to find someone worthy enough to learn and carry that knowledge into the next generation.

Oral traditions were not just recorded mentally and passed down orally. Important knowledge that could be symbolised was contained in stories, legends and myths. Sometimes these symbols and stories were carved into buildings, canoes, ornaments and weapons. Sometimes they were remembered in songs and dances. It was still important to know what these symbols meant, and to make sure that the next generation was taught this.

Sometimes there may be different versions or accounts of the same oral tradition. The question is, Could there be a 'true' version? What is 'true' for one group may not be so for another. The truth may just depend on where you are, and where your loyalties lie.

Source*: Tagata, Tangata – Our People, Our Lands,* T Samu, M Papalii, A Carter,1996, Pearson Education, Auckland, New Zealand.

Activity 1

1 Read through the different theories of the ancient origins of the people of Sāmoa. Discuss the different theories together as a class.

2 Copy and complete this table into your workbooks, by ticking the type of evidence that supports each theory.

Table 1.1.1 Types of evidence					
Theory	**Types of Evidence**				
	Archaeological	**Oral Traditions: Legends, Genealogy, Place names, etc**	**Genetic**	**Linguistic**	**Botanical**
Theory One					
Theory Two					
Theory Three					

3 Which theory (Theory One, Two or Three) do you think is the best one? Write 1–2 paragraphs and give reasons for your answer.

4 Choose one of the other three theories. What are the strengths and weaknesses of this theory? Write 2–3 sentences to explain your answer.

Unit 2

What Are The Causes And Effects Of Internal Migration In Sāmoa?

What are the causes and effects of internal migration in Sāmoa? How and why have neighbouring island groups been an influence?

Useful terms

Settlers: people who arrive at a place and make their home there;

Alliance: a union or a special partnership that will give benefits to both people or sides that agree to make the alliance;

Isolation: to be alone and far away from other people;

Voyage: a special organised journey or trip, usually by sea on a boat.

At present, the population of Sāmoa is not evenly distributed throughout its islands. Many people live on the coastal lowlands, and the population density there is relatively high. The population density of inland areas, generally speaking, is quite low. This, however, was not always the pattern of settlement for Sāmoa.

The first settlers to Sāmoa probably settled on coastal areas before they moved further inland. It was not until later in the seventeenth century, and into the eighteenth century, after Sāmoan people made contact with European people, that they moved back into the coastal regions. Possible reasons for this are, (i) the missionaries encouraged people to settle on coastal areas so that the mission's education and religious programmes could be more easily administered and delivered, and (ii) to be closer to European trading links (which relied on sea-based transport).

We can explain where people live (or population distribution) in terms of internal migration. That is, people live where they live because other people have moved there. Internal migration is the movement from one place to another within the same nation. We can study the patterns of internal movement, and the reasons for such patterns, on different scales. Population distribution patterns tend to be on a national scale. But some migration patterns involve small numbers of people at a time. The reasons for these movements, however, can be generalised, and specific examples given. We will look at multiple (different) movements of people in Sāmoa's history in the following section.

Multiple Movements In The Past

1 In the Distant Past (pre-European contact)

Marriage Alliances

Marriage was an important way to make different groups of people into allies and relatives, and this led to the movement of people from place to place. Oral traditions record such movements. Evidence of specific movements as a result of a marriage between a man and a woman of high status, is found in genealogies (family histories) as well as in the stories that account for specific titles.

> *An oral tradition tells of a faletautu by Leifi and Tautolo, leading tulafale of Aleipata. They tried to find a suitable wife for their Tuiatua, whose name was Mata'utia Fa'atulou. They wanted So'oa'emalelagi, a cousin of Tamalelagi of Aana district. She was also the first cousin of Mata'utia Fa'atulou. This was not a problem for Leifi and Tautolo. They wanted children of high blood from Mata'utia Fa'atulou's marriage – and this dictated their choice of a wife for him. He eventually agreed to the wishes of his tulafale. So'oa'emalelagi soon moved to Atua to become the wife of Mata'utia.*

War and Conflict

Wars and conflicts are another reason why groups of people move to live elsewhere. Often, those who have lost a battle lose lands and territory as well as their loved ones. Those who win the battle take control of the resources and the wealth of the defeated. The defeated either stay and become slaves or they leave to find safety and security (and independence) elsewhere.

> *The war in the 1600s between Fonoti and the combined forces of his half-brother Va'afusu'aga (Tole'afoa) and half-sister Samala'ulu was one such war. The war broke out when the three children of Tuia'ana Tuiatua Faumuina could not agree on a successor to the titles that their father held. Other oral tradition accounts say that the cause of this war was the issue of who should the ietoga pepeve'a be given to. Fonoti won the conflict. Tole'afoa was exiled to Tutuila along with his most loyal supporter, Alipia. We can speculate that close family members went with them.*

Sports and Recreation

Sporting events (usually competitive) were other occasions that resulted in the movement of people from one part of Sāmoa to another. Chiefs usually played important traditional sports.

> *There is a story about a game of taulafoga between Tuitele of Leone and Lilomaiava of Palauli. Lilomaiava won the game. As his award, Lilomaiava took Tuitele's two daughters with him to Palauli.*

Aristocrat Kidnapping

Important tulafale used to kidnap children with prestige, those of highborn or aristocratic parents, to be the chiefs of their villages. This practice was called aigaaliʻi.

> *One such instance was when the two tulafale Taloʻolemaʻagao and Tofuiofoia from the village of Salani in Falealili kidnapped Tapumanaia, Salemasina's son to be their aliʻi or high chief. Tapumanaia's descendants still form an important 'royal' lineage of modern Sāmoa.*

Visiting Parties

More evidence of internal migration in the more distant past of Sāmoa comes from village faʻalupega.

> *One example of this is Saoluafata village in Anoamaʻa district. This village has the same faʻalupega as the villages of Ulutogia in Aleipata and Masefau in Tutuila. Similarly, the matai title of Lealaisalanoa is mentioned in the faʻalupega of the villages of Falefa in Atua and Tula in Tutuila. Likewise, the chiefly title of Faumuina (after Fonoti, Vaʻafusuʻaga and Samalaʻulu's father's name) is mentioned in the faʻalupega of Vailoa and Alofau villages in Tutuila, and Lepea and Gagaifo in Lefaga and other villages in Upolu and Savaiʻi.*

2 Inter Island Migration in the Distant Past (Pre-European Contact)

Some scholars believe that islands in the Pacific were settled accidentally – that groups of interisland Polynesians lost their way while sailing or were blown off their original courses. These theories call such voyages 'one-way drift voyages'.

Other scholars argue that different Polynesian groups deliberately planned to travel from one island group to another. Some of these deliberate voyages covered huge distances.
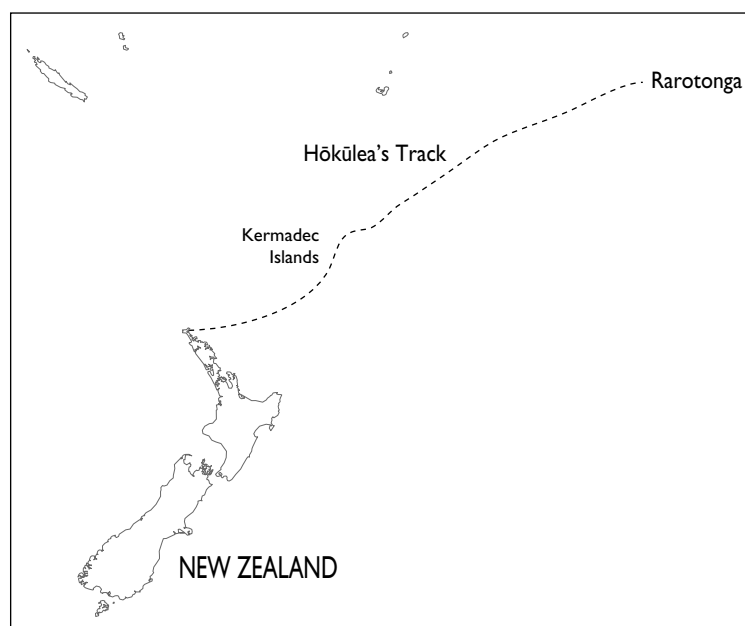
Figure 1.2.1 The track of Hōkūleʻa from Rarotonga to Bay of Islands, New Zealand (1985)

The Hōkūleʻa arrived in the Bay of Islands, in the North Island of New Zealand, on 8 December 1985.

According to the captain of the voyage:

We cannot say that our voyage to New Zealand was exactly like that of the early canoe voyages by the Maori. And we cannot use our experiences to prove, without doubt, any particular theory. What we have done is to show that it is possible to sail deliberately in a double-canoe from Rarotonga to New Zealand during the Southern Hemisphere's summer, and that it is unlikely that the early Maori settlers arrived by pure 'accident'.

Our experience relates more specifically perhaps to those legendary voyages made by groups of people who knew, or had been told, of the existence of a huge land to the south-west, and who also knew when and how to sail there. As modern-day canoe voyagers who have sailed, not only to Aotearoa but also throughout much of Polynesia, we have little difficulty in thinking that tales [stories, legends, oral traditions] of two-way voyaging and of multiple arrivals to New Zealand may in some way reflect real events . . . Yet many modern . . . scholars doubt the historicity of these legends of return voyages from Aotearoa [New Zealand] to the homeland area, as well as subsequent colonisation voyages back to the North Island of Aotearoa . . . nor do they [some scholars] consider seriously the possibility that the tales might contain valuable information about routes . . . and the problems of sailing over them.

We wish to report something that we noticed as we approached the Bay of Islands. We were impressed with the pohutukawa trees along the shoreline, especially with the brilliance of the red flowers. Many modern scholars doubt the oral traditions that the red blossoms also caught the eye of voyagers arriving in Aotearoa aboard the legendary canoes. The pohutukawa only flower along the northern shores of the North Island in late November and in December. This is also the best time for catching the winds that helped us arrive in Aotearoa. No matter what the so-called experts may say about these oral traditions, one thing is certain: the Maori knew that the best time for sailing to Aotearoa was when the pohutukawa were in bloom.

Source: Adapted from *Voyage to Aotearoa*, C.Babayan, B.Finney, B. Kilonsky and N. Thompson, pp 191–199.

Activity 1

Read the text above and the reference in *Year 9, Book Two, Social Studies*. Use it to answer the questions that follow.

1 There is no doubt that Pacific people travelled great distances between the islands, in pre-European contact times. But there is some debate about whether or not such voyages were *deliberate* or *accidental*.

   What is the difference between deliberate and accidental voyages?

2 What evidence can you use to theorise that voyages were accidental? What evidence can you use to support theories that voyages were deliberate?

3 Do oral traditions support theories of accidental or deliberate voyages? Use a specific example to support your answer.

After the ancestors of the Sāmoans first settled in these islands, they were never isolated from other Pacific islands and societies. Interisland travel became very important between several Pacific islands long before the arrival of Europeans and their impact on the Pacific region and specifically, Sāmoa.

The source of our knowledge today of these interisland visits and migrations (of individuals and small groups of people) are oral traditions, genealogies and monuments. Other evidence can be found in cultural traditions and crafts, where there are strong similarities in patterns, design, practice and protocol.

Sāmoan oral tradition refers to interisland movements between Sāmoa and Tonga, Fiji and Uea. But these may not have been the only places where there was interisland travel in the distant past. What is interesting is that some of the oral traditions of Polynesian Outliers in the Solomon Islands and Kiribati (for example) talk about their islands being settled by groups of people from Sāmoa.

Tonga

There are many stories about Tongans visiting Sāmoa or coming to stay.

Tongans of the royal family often came to Sāmoa to look for wives from the highborn families of Sāmoa. A Tongan prince, Ngata, married Tofu'ia, the daughter of Ama of Lotofaga village in Safata. This marriage established the third royal line of Tonga called Tuikanokupolu (the native of Upolu). The current king of Tonga, King Taufa'ahau Tupou IV, is a direct descendant of the Tuikanokupolu royal line.

Vaetoifaga was the daughter of Tuitoga and a Sāmoan woman whose name was Taupoimasina, of Amoa, Savai'i. She visited with her father in the 1500s. During this visit, she met and married Tamalelagi, becoming his tenth wife. They only had one child, a beautiful daughter named Salamasina. She grew up and held all the four papa titles of Sāmoa, making her the first tafa'ifa (queen or national ruler) of Sāmoa. Vaetoifaga lived in Sāmoa for a long time. But she returned to Tonga when her daughter was grown up. Vaetoifaga's uncle (her father's brother) travelled to Sāmoa and stayed after marrying the daughter of a high ranking ali'i of Falefa. His name became one of the important titles of Fagaloa district, where his descendants live to this day.

Fiji

There are also several stories or oral traditions in Sāmoa that show that Fijians were also frequent visitors to Sāmoa.

The Tuifiti had three sons – and together with their sister, they came to Sāmoa to conquer the Sāmoan warrior Vaea. The three sons were: Aloiva'afulu, Tauaputuputu and Aioufitunu. Their sister was Apaula. Vaea frightened the Fijians off by taking their huge boat and placing it on the top of some trees. The three warriors begged his forgiveness, and offered their sister, Apaula, to be his wife. Vaea spared their lives.
When Apaula was expecting their child, she asked her husband if she could give birth in Fiji. Vaea agreed to this. His son, Tuisavalalo, was born at sea. He grew up in Fiji to be a strong man, like his father. However, he

was murdered in Fiji. Apaula travelled back to Sāmoa to tell her husband what had happened. When she arrived, Vaea's body was already turned into earth except for his head. He told Apaula to go to Savai'i to his younger brother Va'atausili, and to ask him avenge the death of his son.

Mount Vaea stands today as a marker of this event. The small river at the foot of this mountain marks the place where Apaula stood crying when she came to tell Vaea what had happened to their son. This small river is called Loimata o Apaula (The Tears of Apaula).

There is a Sāmoan proverb 'Ua atoa tino o Va'atausili' or 'Va'atausili has regained his full strength'. When Apaula met Va'atausili in Savai'i, he was skinny and weak. Once he had slept in the cave of Va'atausili, he came out a strong and fierce-looking warrior.

The Tuifiti of a different generation had a son named Tuife'ai (Tui the cruel). Tuife'ai came to Sāmoa to visit his cousin Pate, who was Malietoa Ganasavea's wife. When he arrived, Malietoa changed his name to TuiSāmoa and sent him to live on his land at Falealili. At Falealili, TuiSāmoa built himself a Fijian-style house. As the house only had one pole (unlike Sāmoan houses), the place where the house was built was known as Poutasi ('one post'). The descendants of TuiSāmoa still live today at Vaovai village in Falealili. Some of TuiSāmoa's daughters married famous men of Sāmoa. TuiSāmoa had two daughters, Gauifaleai and Totogata. The descendants of these girls became important people in the history of Sāmoa. They include: Vaetamasoali'i, Atogaugatuitoga, Lalovimama, Tamalelagi, Levalasi, Mata'utia Fa'atulou, Salamasi'ina, Fofoaivao'ese, Tapumanaia, Sina, Fonoti, Tupua Fuiavailili, Galumalemana and many others.

Uea (Wallis Island)

A story of the first settlement of Savai'i tells of the daughter of Tui Uea (King of Uea) whose name was Sina-lalama. She came to Sāmoa to look for a husband. On arrival at the southern side of Savai'i, she realised that there were no available men. They were either married or engaged to be married to other women. So she named this side of Savai'i Itu-o-fafine ('the side of women') as there were no available men there. On the northern side of Savai'i, however, she noticed that most of the men were not married. She married one of them, thus the name of that side of Savai'i became Itu-o-tane (the side of men). Descendants of this marriage settled most parts of Savai'i.

Leutogitupa'itea was the sister of Lafai taulupo'o of Savai'i. She married the Tuitoga. She was later banished to an island where she was going to be burnt alive as punishment for the murder of her husband's Tongan wife's child. Her brother from Sāmoa helped to put out the fire. The Tui Uea met her and married her. They had a son – his name was Fa'asega. Leutogi sent her son to Sāmoa with the three titles Tonumaipe'a, Tau'ili'ili, and Tilomai, which commemorated what happened to her on that uninhabited island in Tonga. These titles became important titles of the Tonumaipe'a family in Savai'i.

Historians such as Dr Morgan Tuimaleali'ifano of the History Department, University of the South Pacific in Suva Fiji, study oral traditions when they research Pacific history. In his study of Sāmoans in Fiji, Dr Tuimaleali'ifano has made these points about his research methods:

❑ 'I relied on documented oral traditions for the pre-contact era and for the colonial period from 1874 to 1970.'

❑ 'There were marked similarities in the genealogies . . . with myths and legends.'

❑ 'There was little difference between Kramer's recorded genealogies (1902) . . . and the *gafa* of the *aiga potopoto*.'

❑ 'My sources were family genealogy books, mainly in Sāmoa, interviews with family members and submissions before the Lands and Titles Court in Mulinu'u.'

❑ 'I also had access to Sāmoan genealogical data at the Institute of Polynesian Studies, Brigham Young University in Hawaii, the Genealogical Society Library at Salt Lake City . . .'

❑ 'Dr Gubler, a specialist in Sāmoan genealogy, and Dr Suzuki, a computer programmer, provided genealogical material.'

Source: adapted from *Sāmoans in Fiji: Migration, Identity and Communication*, pp 2–3, 19, USP, Suva.

Activity 2

1 Think about the push/pull model of migration. Use some of the examples of interisland travel BEFORE European contact, to complete the following chart. (One example has been completed for you). You may need to speculate (make a reasonable guess) on possible answers for some categories.

Brief Description	Origin	Destination	Push factors	Pull factors	Intervening Obstacles
Tongan royalty search for wife	Tonga	Lotofaga, Safata	Origin *No suitable women at home* Destination *Will she still be available when I get there?*	Origin *Get to see women before choosing bride* Destination *Increase status of my own family with this Sāmoan wife*	❑ Distance between Sāmoa and Tonga ❑ Other risks of travel, e.g. bad weather ❑ Language barrier? ❑ Obeying my parents – agree to arranged marriage

2 Write sentences to describe the impact that different experiences of interisland migration may have had on families; systems of power and authority; places and environments; social and cultural change.

3 Carefully read Dr Tuimaleali'ifano's description of his research methods when using oral traditions. Then answer these questions.

   a What are 'documented oral traditions'?

   b He names one example of documented oral traditions. What is it? Ask your teacher for more information about this source.

   c Name three other sources of information that he used.

   d Researchers *cross reference* their sources of information in order to find out how reliable their sources of information are. An oral tradition or account (for example a legend) becomes more reliable when there are other oral traditions that say the same or similar things (for example if the people in the legend are also identified in genealogies).

   ❑ What did Dr Tuimaleali'ifano find when he compared myths and legends to genealogical sources?

   ❑ What were his sources of genealogical information?

   ❑ Write sentences to describe methods of cross referencing in research that involve oral traditions as sources of information.

3 From the 1900s to the Present

Natural Disasters

Matavanu volcano, in the districts of Gagaifomauga and Gaga'emauga on the island of Savai'i, erupted in 1905. At the time of this major eruption, Sāmoa as a nation was under the colonial rule of Germany. The lava flow covered the villages of Salaeula and Lealatele. To help solve the problem of the loss of homes and lands, Catholic priests, Methodist pastors and the German administration arranged for the relocation of the villagers to the island of Upolu.
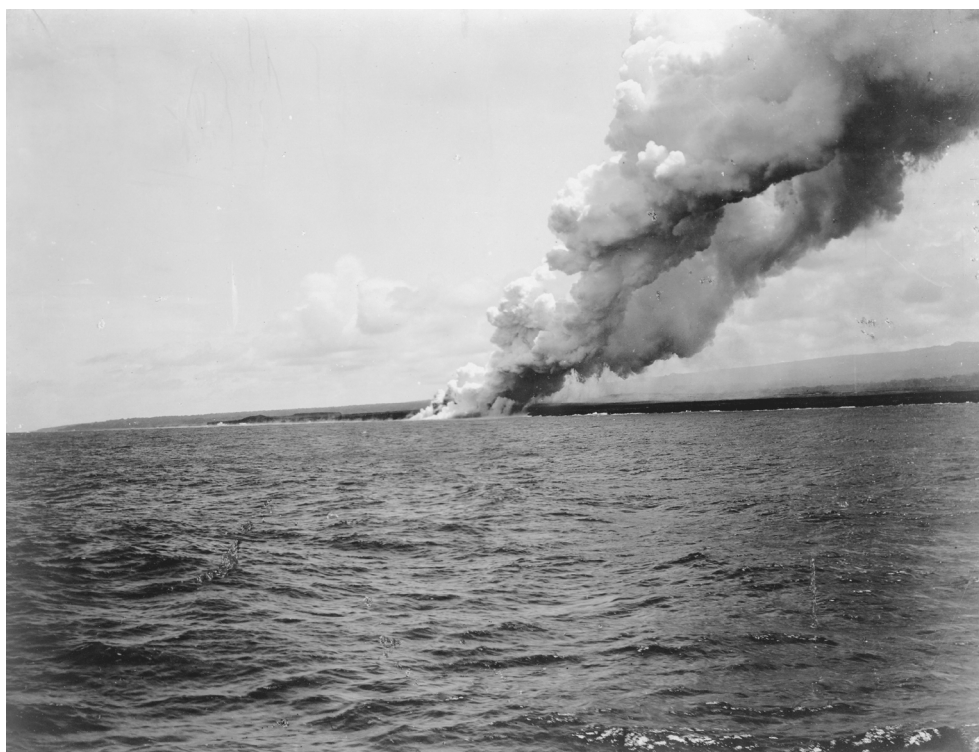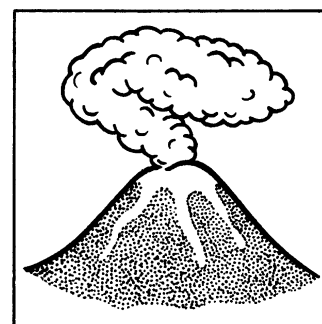
Figure 1.2.2 Volcanic plume rising from an eruption at Savai'i, Samoa

In 1908, the people from Lealatele were settled near Tuana'i and Sale'imoa villages. Today they make up the village of Le'auva'a. On 10 August 1909, a steamer carrying the people of Saleaula arrived at Utuutu Lefaga on the Safata border. This location became the village of Salamumu. Today, while the residents of these two villages (Le'auva'a and Salamumu) live in Upolu, they are part of the constituencies of Gaga'emuga on the island of Savai'i. Their modern political identity remains based on the island of Savai'i and it is the source of their parliamentary representation.

The worst cyclones in living memory to hit Sāmoa were Cyclone Ofa (1990) and Cyclone Val (1991). The damage was extensive throughout the islands of Sāmoa. However, some parts were more severely damaged than others. Coastal areas on the north-west of Savai'i were particularly devastated by the winds and the waves. The residents of the coastal villages had to move inland for safety during the cyclones. After the cyclones, because damage to their villages was so serious, some villagers

Figure 1.2.3 Cyclone damage in Sāmoa.

Figure 1.2.4 Cyclone damage in Sāmoa.

decided it was best to live inland permanently. The villages of Falealupo and Papa Sataua in Savai'i are examples of such decisions. Some families of these villages are beginning to reoccupy coastal areas and resettle there. An example, on the island of Upolu, of a village formally located inland because of the cyclones of the early 1990s is the village of Gagaifo-ole-vao, in Lefaga.

A Response to War and the Threat of War

When World War II broke out in Europe in 1939, Sāmoa was under New Zealand rule and the League of Nations mandate. When the threat of Japanese invasion of the Pacific developed and intensified in the early 1940s, the United States tried to protect different parts of the Pacific. American marines arrived in Sāmoa in 1942 to assess the situation and to protect Sāmoa against an invasion by the Japanese if it should take place. As a part of these preparations, the people of the villages of Satuimalufilufi and Satapuala were relocated to their current locations. The marines used the village lands to build an airstrip. This airstrip was later to become the site of Faleolo International Airport.

Changes in Land Tenure

Changes in land tenure in and around the Apia area led to the development of the present-day villages of Vaivase-uta, Vaivase-tai, Fagali'i and To'omatagi. These areas began to be settled in the 1950s. Settlement increased in the 1960s and 1970s. The land in these areas was originally customary land that belonged to villages in the district of Vaimauga. In the nineteenth century, foreign firms such as the German company Godeffroy and Sohn bought these lands. The company also bought large tracts of land in other parts of Upolu and Savai'i to develop commercial plantations. When Germany lost Sāmoa as a territory at the beginning of World War One (1914), the company lost its ownership rights to the lands, which came under control of the New Zealand administration (that had been given the responsibility of looking after Sāmoa on behalf of Britain and the League of Nations). The lands were known as New Zealand Reparation Estate (NZRE).

When Sāmoa became independent in 1962, the NZRE lands became the responsibility of the Sāmoan government. The Western Sāmoa Trust Estate Corporation (WSTEC) was created by government to administer to the lands. Over time, the Sāmoan government sold some of the land (particularly land surrounding Apia) from these estates to Sāmoans as freehold.

This change in land tenure and the opportunity to own land close to Apia encouraged people from outside Apia to relocate there.

An area of land within Vaivase, next to the village of Magiagi, was later called To'omatagi, a combination of the names of To'omata and Tagipo. To'omata was the Minister of Lands and Survey when this area was opened up for sale and settlement and Tagipo was an officer of the Department of Lands and Survey.

Other suburban settlements were established in the 1960s. For example, Moamoa was settled at this time. The land that was made available for sale had been owned by the Chinese community and the Catholic Church.

Other settlements or areas for residential settlement continue to be made available today. Places such as Vaitele, Vailele, and Palisi are the most recent. The lands in Vaitele and some of the lands at Vailele were owned by WSTEC, before the national Provident Fund (NPF) took them over. During the 1980s, the NPF began to sell pieces of land in these areas to the public.

In other words, more freehold land was made available for purchase. People from rural areas began to settle these lands. Some moved into Apia to live to be closer to

schools and to enhance their children's education, especially secondary education. Many parents still believe that schools in the Apia urban area are better than those further away.

Other reasons for living closer to Apia include being close to employment and reducing the costs of travel to work. Another attraction of living on freehold land close to Apia, for some families, is the greater independence from the cultural obligations of village life. Land at Palisi was owned by the Catholic Church – it made parcels of this land available for lease in the 1970s, and more available as freehold in the 1990s.
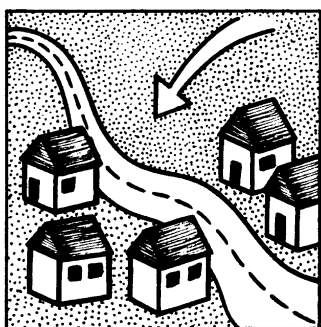
The Pull of Urbanisation

Remember your studies of migration during Year 9? One of the most significant internal migration movements in Sāmoa's modern history was the move from rural areas to the Apia urban area. This process is known as urbanisation. Change in land tenure (discussed above) has not caused this movement – although it has encouraged it. The attraction of Apia is the same as those of other urban areas throughout the Pacific – better paid employment, schooling, entertainment or 'the bright lights', desire for freedom from village and aiga-based obligations and expectations. Sāmoa's only significant urban area, Apia, and the areas around it (including the villages on the North West coast of Upolu) now account for 25% of the total population of Sāmoa.

Activity 3

1 Review the push/pull model of migration as a class. Think about the examples of internal migration in Sāmoa in the distant past, and from the 1900s to the present. Then make a copy of the following chart in your workbooks. Work in pairs to complete the chart.

Brief Description	Origin	Destination	Push factors	Pull factors	Intervening Obstacles
Examples from the distant past					
Examples from the 1900s to the present					

2 Write sentences to describe the impact that different types of internal migration may have had on: families; systems of power and authority; places and environments; social and cultural change.

Why And How Did People Migrate To Sāmoa?

Why and how did other Pacific people and non-Pacific people migrate to and settle in Sāmoa since the 1800s?

Useful terms

Contact: coming together or meeting of two groups of people for the first time;

Beachcomber: a person who lives on what he can gather or earn casually by the waterfront or on the beach;

Castaway: someone who was left behind on an island or a beach by the crew of the ship he or she was travelling with.

European Migrants

When the mast of the first 'tall ship' to visit Sāmoa broke the horizon, the people thought it had pierced the heavens. Thus people on board were called papalagi, which means 'heaven breakers'. This was the first contact with people from European countries, far beyond the Pacific. The papalagi were given different names in other Pacific islands – in Aotearoa (New Zealand) they were called pakeha; the Hawaiians called them haole; and in the Cook Islands they were called papaʻa. The first European voyagers returned to their homelands with reports and stories describing the islands and their populations. The Europeans who were first to encounter different Pacific groups were described in their homelands, and in written historical accounts that followed, as the first to 'discover' the people of the Pacific. However, Pacific populations have their own beliefs about who 'discovered' them and their islands. That is, '. . . we believe our ancestors and ancestral gods were the first discoverers of our world'.

The people of the Pacific were amazed by the European newcomers, their technology and the material goods that they brought with them. Different Europeans came to the Pacific for different reasons.

Discoverers and Explorers

A number of Europeans sailed through the Pacific in the eighteenth century hoping to discover what they believed was 'the lost continent'. They were searching for a large land mass, rich in natural resources. Many such explorers discovered small inhabited island groups instead. Jacob Roggeveen was a Dutch explorer. He was the first European to sight the Manuʻa islands in 1722. Louis de Bougainville of France was the next European to see the islands of Sāmoa. When contact was actually made between European explorers and Sāmoans, the encounters were not always peaceful. The people of Asu in Tutuila attacked the explorer La Perouse's men in 1768, killing twelve. The explorers on the ship *Pandora*, from Great Britain, were attacked with rocks and spears in 1791. The crew of the *Pandora* responded with gunfire, giving the Sāmoans their first experience of gunpowder.

Traders and Whalers

Many European ships sailed into the Pacific in search of what were then valuable resources – such as whale bone, oil and seal furs, goods that were in high demand in Europe. Other trades developed. For example, tea, silk and porcelain from China were in very high demand in the countries of Europe. Traders collected sandalwood and bêche-der-mer (sea slug) from the Pacific, and traded these for goods in China. Trade routes developed in the Pacific from the 1780s until the 1820s. Whalers and traders did not settle permanently in Sāmoa at this time.

328   THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS.   [Nov. 20, 1847.

W.J LINTON Sc

SOUTH SEA WHALE FISHING.—DRAWN BY DUNCAN.
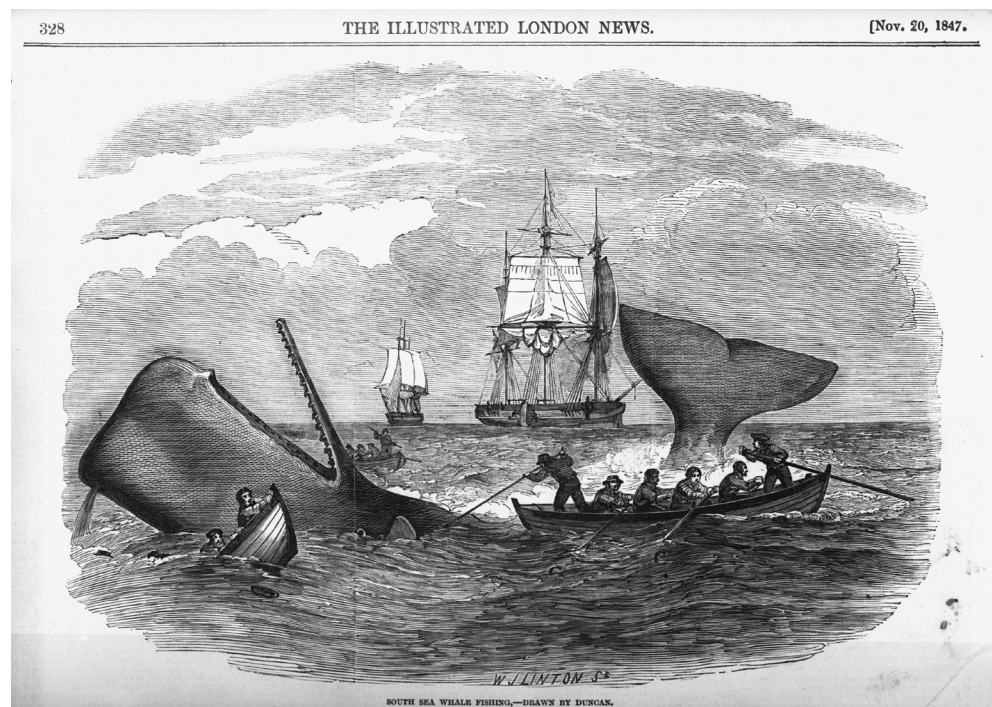
South sea whale fishing

Beachcombers and Castaways

Most Europeans who settled permanently in Sāmoa in the early 1800s were either convicts escaped from New South Wales (Australia) or beachcombers. Beachcombers lived by gathering articles along the beaches or from wreckage from ships. They were widely accepted by Sāmoans because (i) they usually arrived as individuals and did not make up a large number of people, and (ii) their skills and knowledge of palagi technology interested Sāmoans. They taught Sāmoans how to fix guns and build whaleboats.

Most beachcombers developed good relationships with the Sāmoan people they lived with. However, some relationships became very violent if the beachcomber became tyrannical. A beachcomber named Irish Tom who lived in Manono was killed in the early 1820s because of such behaviour.

Missionaries

Missionaries became active in the Pacific in the early part of the 1800s. The London Missionary Society (LMS) and the Methodist missionaries were particularly influential in the Pacific. The missionaries brought their religious beliefs as well as their belief that their culture and lifestyles were superior to those of the Pacific people whom they preached among. Religious faith was very much integrated with a specific European way of life. The conversion of Pacific people, including Sāmoans, resulted in many profound changes to their lifestyle.

One significant change introduced by missionaries throughout the Pacific was the introduction of literacy. The missionaries developed a way to put oral language into writing and taught converts to read and write in their own language. While the reason was to increase access to the Bible and to facilitate conversion, the introduction of writing also meant Pacific people had new ways to keep historical records.

❑ John Williams and Charles Barff of the London Missionary Society arrived in Sāmoa in 1830 with eight teachers from Tahiti and Rarotonga. Amongst their travel companions were Fauea (a Sāmoan who had been living in Tonga) and his wife, Puaseisei. Puaseisei said the first prayer on Sāmoan soil at Safune, which was a grace before a meal, before their ship, *Messenger of Peace*, continued sailing to Sapapaliʻi.

The conversion of Sāmoans to Christianity often followed the conversion of an influential leader, or high chief. During a civil war in Sāmoa, Malietoa Vaiinupo (Vainuʻupo) accepted Christianity and many of his followers were led by his example (and perhaps by his instructions). Because the missionaries came to Sāmoa from Tahiti, the church that John Williams helped to establish in Sāmoa became informally known as Lotu Taʻiti (Tahitian church).

❑ Peter Turner was a Methodist missionary. He had visited Sāmoa previously but returned in 1835 because Sāmoans and King George Tupou Taufaʻahau I of Tonga had asked him to. He returned to Sāmoa to reintroduce the Wesleyan mission, and arrived at Faleu Manono. Sometime afterwards, Satupaitea became the centre of the mission. Tuinaʼula of Satupaitea was
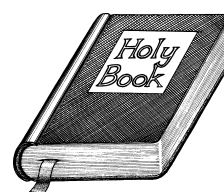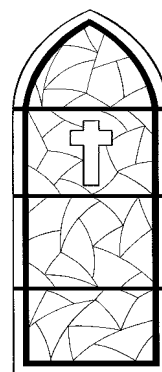
one of the Sāmoans who asked for the mission. He was a close friend of Peter Turner. The church became widely known as Lotu Toga (Tongan church) because the first Wesleyan missionaries were from Tonga.

❑ The Catholic priests from France, Fathers Roudaire and Violette, accompanied by two Sāmoans (Ioakimo and Kesetatino), whom they met in Wallis Futuna, established a Catholic mission in Sāmoa in 1845. The Catholic missionaries were rejected several times by Sāmoans in Savai'i before they were accepted by Tuala Taetafe (who became known as Tuala Talipope as a consequence). The church became known informally as Lotu Pope (the Pope's church).

❑ Missionaries from the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (commonly known as 'Mormons') arrived in Apia in 1899. They were Elders Dean, Beesley and Wood, and originally came from the United States. Their ship had sunk and they were saved by a boat that travelled between Apia and Tutuila. They stayed at a hotel and bought land at Fagali'i where they established a church.

Those villages that received the first Christian missionaries and the particular denomination they accepted have been recognised in the history of Sāmoa. Thus Mataniu Feagai ma le ata places in Sapapali'i commemorate the arrival of the LMS, Faleu ma Utuagiagi at Manono Island commemorates the arrival of the Methodist church, and Malaeola ma Gafoaga in Lealatele commemorates the arrival of the Catholic church.

Non-European Migrants

The two main groups of non-European migrants to Sāmoa in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were Chinese and Melanesians, whom the German administration recruited in their homelands to come as contract labourers. In the late 1800s, Europeans realised that the land and the climate on some of the larger islands of the Pacific was suitable for crops that could not be grown in the colder, temperate climates of Europe. These crops were: coconuts (for copra and coconut oil), cotton, sugar cane, coffee, rubber, cocoa, and rice. Such agricultural products were in high demand in countries such as Great Britain, France, Germany and the Netherlands.

Growing these crops commercially takes large tracts of land, and is often labour intensive. In tropical locations, commercial crops of coconuts, cocoa and sugar are grown on plantations. In the late 1800s, German companies in Sāmoa set up large cocoa and coconut plantations, but local Sāmoan people were not interested in working on them. So the German companies recruited labour from overseas (China and the Solomon Islands) and brought indentured (contracted) labour to Sāmoa.

Melanesians, as young as fourteen, were recruited from Bougainville, Malaita and the Bismarck Archipelago and brought to Sāmoa by the Godeffroy and Sohn company. They were expected to work on Sāmoan plantations for three years before they could return to their home islands with a box of goods. These goods were a source of pride and status when they returned to their home communities.
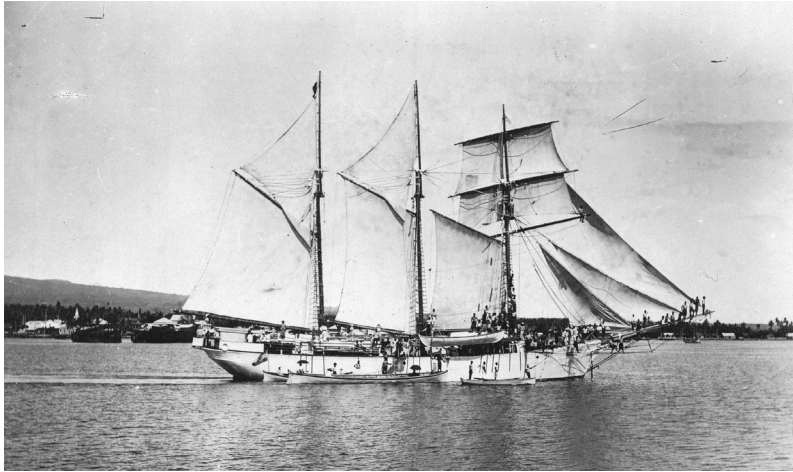
Figure 1.3.1 Sailing ship which conveyed indentured labourers from the Solomon Islands to Sāmoa

Figure 1.3.2 Tapping rubber trees in Sāmoa

Figure 1.3.3 Solomon Island labourers at work on a copra plantation, Western Sāmoa

Figure 1.3.4 Coconut Industry labourers cutting out copra

The Chinese labourers were recruited by Deutsche Handels und Plantage Gesellschaft (the German Trading and Plantations Company, DHPG; which succeeded Godeffroy and Sohn). The DHPG was one of the largest plantation-owning companies in Sāmoa at the time. It owned four plantations on the island of Upolu and one on Savai'i, a total land area of 1973 hectares.

The first shipload of 289 men from China arrived in Apia in March of 1903. Contracts were for three years after which they could go home. However, working conditions were hard.

By 1914, 2184 Chinese were at work in German Sāmoa. They were supposed to return home to China after three years but the German administration made it difficult and many workers stayed on. When the New Zealand government took control of Sāmoa during World War One, at first it ordered 1254 Chinese to return home between 1915 and 1919. However, the New Zealand government soon realised that it needed the Chinese to work the plantations that had been confiscated from the Germans. So the indentured labour system was started up again.

The Chinese indentured labour system was managed in a different way by the New Zealand administration, which was strict about two things: (i) Chinese workers had to return to China when their contracts were finished and (ii) they were not allowed to marry Sāmoan women. Men who had already married and had families with Sāmoan women were forced to leave their wives and return to China, often never to see their families again. By the end of World War II, most Chinese who had come to Sāmoa to work in this way had returned to China. However, almost 200 did settle permanently in Sāmoa, and raise their families as part of Sāmoan society, speaking Sāmoan and practising the culture.

Table 1.2.1 A Record of Chinese Recruitment					
Date			**Name of Ship**	**No of Immigrants**	**Cumulative Total**
Month	**Day**	**Year**			
April	28	1903	SS *Decima*	289	289
May	30	1905	SS *Progress*	528	817
July	22	1906	SS *Holstein*	575	1392
June	10	1908	SS *Progress*	351	1743
November	28	1909	SS *Mathilde*	535	2278
December	28	1911	SS *Paklak*	551	2829
May	18	1913	SS *Michael Jepsen*	1039	3868
August	9	1920	SS *Haldis*	502	4370
October	7	1921	SS *Ascot*	959	5329
April	12	1925	SS *New Mathilde*	280	5609
August	16	1926	SS *Hai Ching*	180	5789
April	14	1928	SS *Hai Yang*	456	6245
May	8	1930	SS *Apoey*	251	6496
September	8	1931	SS *Apoey*	207	6703
July	27	1934	SS *Seistan*	281	6984

Source: Nancy Y.W. Tom, *The Chinese in Western Sāmoa, 1875–1985: The Dragon Came From Afar*, (1986), p 36.

Other non-European migrants to Sāmoa were from islands in Micronesia. Between 1872 and 1873, 95 Caroline Islanders worked in Sāmoa. From 1867–1885, 2250 Gilbertese were employed and working in Sāmoa. Most of the Micronesian migrants worked on British plantations.

Groups of Cook Islanders, Niueans, and Tuvaluans also settled – their descendants still live in places with names like A'ai-o-Niue' (village of Niueans); and Elisefou (new Ellice). Tuvalu is the modern-day name for Ellice Island. There is also a place in Sāmoa called A'ai-o-fiti (village of Fijians) in the village of Alamagoto. It is more than likely to have been a place where Fijians settled. Possibly Fijians lived here long ago, coming as indentured labourers during the German administration or having settled in Sāmoa long before European contact.

Activity 1

1 As a class, analyse the photographs in this section carefully. Your teacher may guide you through a photo study learning activity.

2 Plan and construct a fishbone diagram that accounts for non-European migration and settlement in Sāmoa since the 1800s. Keep the written points in your diagram brief and to the point.

Unit 4

Socio-Economic And Political Impact Of Immigrant Groups

What has been the socio-economic and political impact of immigrant groups in Sāmoa?

Useful terms

Decentralised: power is spread throughout the society within different groups of people. It is not centred or based on a king or ruling group;

Civil: anything to do with the citizens of a nation or country.

Europeans who came to the Pacific brought with them material goods and different belief systems and views of the world. They had an enormous impact on Sāmoan society. Interactions between Sāmoans and Europeans affected the lifestyles and value systems of both groups of people.

Political Changes

Before the arrival of Europeans, power and administration were decentralised. Administration was at district level. No recognised central government ruled Sāmoa.

At first, settlers governed themselves, and settled any differences between themselves and Sāmoans through the relevant fono-a-nu'u (village councils) and matai. When significant numbers of Europeans (British, German, American and others) arrived and settled in Sāmoa, they brought with them their own ideas and beliefs about government. American, British and German settlers in Sāmoa set up their own administration systems (including courts) to manage the behaviour of their nationals as well as to protect their own growing economic and social interests. In the 1840s, for example, their consuls formally represented their home nations in the new communities that they were now a part of. In the 1860s, some settlers proposed that a settler-Sāmoan government be formed, but Malietoa Talavou and Malietoa Laupepa, the leaders of the two rival Sāmoan governments, opposed it.

After the Europeans arrived, a great deal of civil unrest developed between Sāmoans in their struggle to decide who would have national leadership of Sāmoa. They were warring to determine who would be king of Sāmoa. The European settlers became involved in the conflicts and took sides. British, American and German officials supplied warring groups with guns, ammunition and other materials. Sāmoans were so involved and distracted by the civil wars, that the British and Americans took advantage of the situation to take control of Sāmoa for themselves.

One unfortunate outcome of the unrest was that Sāmoan customary landowners lost large areas of land when they sold it in order to get money for guns and ammunition. In some instances, those who sold the land were not entitled to represent all who had ownership rights.

Economic Change

Apia developed as the main urban centre. By the mid-1800s hotels and shops were established along the beach front. These businesses met the needs of the growing number of sailors and business people who came to Sāmoa by ship. Economic changes became more noticeable when large German trading firms, such as Goddefroy and Sohns of Hamburg, Germany, became established and developed coconut plantations, producing copra and oil for export to markets in Europe.

Social And Cultural Effects

The Europeans who had the greatest impact on the social and cultural life of the Sāmoan people were the missionaries. Missionaries aimed to convert Sāmoans to organised Christian religions, and from the missionaries' points of view true conversion involved changing to European ways of living. This meant that many traditional cultural practices were either discouraged or even banned.

For example, the missionaries promoted the nuclear family, which challenged the Sāmoan belief that the basic unit of the family was the extended family. While Sāmoans did not easily accept notions of the superiority of the nuclear family, they did accept the banning of practices such as polygamy and polula (night dances, often resulting in naked dancing). Today, some Christian denominations still ban socials and dances that occur at night time.

Other changes introduced by missionaries concerned the roles of the matai. Today, matai deal with secular matters (e.g. land use, village laws and regulation) but prior to the missionaries, the matai also acted as the priests for their aiga. Pastors and other religious leaders now have that role, which is why pastors are highly respected in Sāmoan communities – they are considered to be the representatives of God, and therefore will often have special privileges.

Impact On Health

European settlers introduced diseases that the Sāmoan people had never been exposed to before. Their immunity levels were very low against measles and simple flu strains. Pastors and their wives often took the roles of doctors and nurses to the communities they served, and facilitated the introduction of more modern elementary health practices. Sāmoans tended to experience these alongside traditional health treatments of the fofo Sāmoa.

Technology

Sāmoans, like many other Pacific people, were interested in the technologies that the Europeans brought with them. They wanted to access them, learn how to use them, and own them for themselves. Sāmoans wanted to go to the schools that the missionaries established because they believed that learning to read and to write would give them access to the knowledge and skills that the Europeans seemed to have.

Figure 1.4.1 Apia wharf and harbour, Sāmoa

Figure 1.4.2 King Malietoa with the Vaiala polo team, Sāmoa
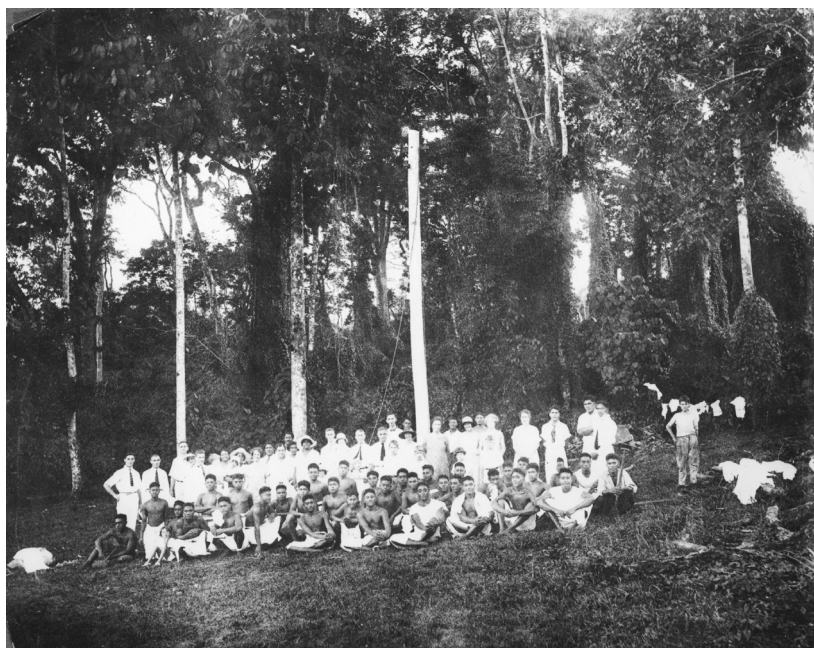
*Figure 1.4.3 First electric light pole in Western Sāmoa,
erected at Avele School*

Figure 1.4.4 Banana plantation, Sāmoa

Figure 1.4.5 View of Matafele

Figure 1.4.6 Group of nursing staff and members of the armed forces at Apia Hospital during World War I

Figure 1.4.7 Regatta day in Apia

Activity 1

1 Read through the information in this section carefully. Then take the five headings and construct a learning guide to the main effects under each heading on the people of Sāmoa, i.e. political change, economic change, social and cultural effects, impact on health, and technology.

2 Carefully study the selection of photographs of Sāmoa taken in the late 1800s and early 1900s.

   a How does each photograph show how migrants have impacted on Sāmoa? Write a list of the photographs (e.g. photo one, photo two, etc.) and alongside write your answer.

   b Imagine you are a photojournalist from Britain and you are travelling through the Pacific to find out how non-Sāmoan settlement has impacted Pacific nations like Sāmoa. You have taken the photos in this section. Write a suitable caption for each photograph.

3 Keep imagining! You have returned home and you have to write a news article about the impact of migrant groups in Sāmoa. Write an essay to go with your photographs. In your essay, account for the socio-economic and political impact of immigrants on Sāmoa and the Sāmoans.

Trends And Patterns In Sāmoa's Emigration

What are the trends and patterns in Sāmoa's emigration patterns? What have been the long-term effects of these patterns on Sāmoan society?

Useful terms

Economic recession: a time of serious economic decline;

Transnational: an organisation that is spread across international borders and boundaries (in different countries);

Remittances: money sent home to family by relatives living in other countries.

This unit looks at trends and patterns of Sāmoan emigration in the modern era or period (the second half of the twentieth century). The long-term effects of these movements will be studied.

After European contact was first made with the people of Sāmoa in the early 1800s, a small number of Sāmoans decided to leave for other Pacific nations or places that were further away – such as New Zealand or Australia. However, the number of Sāmoans emigrating, from the early 1800s through to the early 1900s, was always low. Some Sāmoan men joined ships' crews to earn cash and see the world beyond Sāmoa. Some women had married European men (businessmen or men in the military) and left the islands when their husbands returned to homelands such as New Zealand or Australia. Some Sāmoans were missionaries and were sent for training at mission colleges and training centres in Australia and New Zealand before serving in different parts of Melanesia. Sāmoans of mixed ancestry sent their children to attend schools in New Zealand and Australia.

However, significant migration of Sāmoans to Pacific rim nations such as the United States, New Zealand and Australia did not happen until after Word War II.

According to Dr Leulu Felise Vaʻa, big changes to the cash economy of the islands of Sāmoa (Tutuila included) during World War II had a huge impact on Sāmoan society. Japan brought the war into the Pacific Region when it attacked the USA at Pearl Harbour in 1941. Thousands of American soldiers arrived in the region and Sāmoa was part of the defence system.

There were many opportunities to earn good cash incomes – new jobs became available almost overnight, e.g. translators, labourers (building roads, airports, docks,

medical facilities, etc). Local businesses found many opportunities to provide services such as food and laundry and there were also opportunities to entertain soldiers with music for dances and shows. The war years brought an economic boom time for Sāmoa.

With more money to spend, Sāmoan society became even more interested in buying imported European goods. When the war ended, and the US military left, economic opportunities were reduced and opportunities to earn cash were as limited as they had been before the war. But the Sāmoan desire for the goods and services that they enjoyed during the war did not change. They began to look elsewhere, overseas (not at home) for better income earning opportunities.

Migration To The USA

From American Sāmoa

- ❑ early 1950s a deep recession took over
- ❑ serious drought and poor weather conditions affected crops
- ❑ shipping strike in the USA
- ❑ population of American Sāmoa increased sharply (due to immigration from Western Sāmoa) – this increased pressure on land
- ❑ US Government decision to transfer administration of American Sāmoa from the US Navy to Department of the Interior. Huge loss of navy jobs
- ❑ widespread unemployment and limited cash incomes
- ❑ 1952: the US Navy offered to transport to Hawaii the families of Sāmoan personnel based in Hawaii. Almost 1000 Sāmoans applied for the chance:
  - – more emigration was to follow. Between 1950 and 1960, more than 6000 Sāmoans migrated to the USA
  - – Sāmoan migrants moved from Hawaii to mainland USA (California). Some migrants went directly to their families in California
  - – the movement of American Sāmoans to the USA continues today but at a much slower rate. Because of their status as US nationals, they can move easily between the two locations
  - – according to the 1980 US census, 41 948 Sāmoans lived in the USA. Of these, almost 30% were born in Sāmoa, 22% were born in American Sāmoa, and 48% were born in the USA itself.

Important note: In 1990, 31% of the population of American Sāmoa was born in Sāmoa.

Migration To New Zealand

From Sāmoa (formerly called Western Sāmoa)

- ❑ economic factors have also been an important influence on migration to New Zealand, i.e. opportunities for employment and to earn a good cash income, and educational opportunities for migrants' children.

- ❑ the New Zealand Government did not have strict rules about Sāmoans migrating to New Zealand. However, in 1955, New Zealand began to issue permits – one for short-term visitors (three months or less), and one for permanent residents (that was harder to obtain)

- ❑ the rate of Sāmoan migration increased sharply but the greatest increase in numbers happened after independence in 1962

- ❑ in the post-war New Zealand economy there was a high demand for unskilled labour – and this encouraged migration from Sāmoa

- ❑ in 1975, the New Zealand economy went into recession, which meant a decrease in job opportunities. New Zealand put in place strict rules about migration and limited emigration from Sāmoa to New Zealand:
  - – from April 1961–March 1991, a total of 38 832 Sāmoans migrated to New Zealand
  - – in 1996, the Sāmoan population in New Zealand reached over 100 000, half of whom were New Zealand-born
  - – most migration to New Zealand in recent years has been influenced by the Treaty of Friendship signed between New Zealand and Sāmoa on 1 August 1962. Under this agreement, New Zealand gives special treatment to potential migrants from Sāmoa
  - – from 1967 onwards, a migrant quota was set. Every year, up to 1000 Sāmoans can migrate to New Zealand IF they meet certain criteria (e.g. guaranteed employment, able to speak English, no criminal record, etc)
  - – there has been a decline in the number of people migrating to New Zealand using the quota system, mainly because of the poor job situation
  - – most of the Sāmoans who migrate to New Zealand use the general family reunification and points systems (these systems are open to all potential migrants not like the quota system which is just for Sāmoans).

Migration To Australia

From New Zealand

- ❑ migration of significant numbers of Sāmoans to Australia happened in the 1980s

- ❑ they came largely from New Zealand

- ❑ the New Zealand economy was in recession from the mid-1970s, and employment opportunities were poor. The manufacturing sector of the labour market was badly affected, and many people lost their jobs when manufacturing industries closed down

- ❑ some Sāmoans went to Australia because there were more jobs there. These settlers then encouraged their families to join them, and the numbers grew as a consequence of what is known as chain migration

- ❑ the New Zealand and Australian Governments had an agreement called the Trans-Tasman agreement, signed in 1975, which allowed travel without visas and permits between the two countries

- ❑ most Sāmoans who live in Australia arrived by this means:
  - – from 1981–1992, 3672 Sāmoan-born migrants went to Australia. Of these, 2890 were New Zealand citizens and residents

 – it is expected that the number of Sāmoans migrating to Australia will increase as their families encourage others (from New Zealand and Sāmoa) to join them

 – strong Sāmoan communities are established in Sydney, Brisbane, and Canberra.

The Impact Of Sāmoan Emigration?

❑ Sāmoans were able to financially support their families and villages in Sāmoa by emigrating (to New Zealand and the USA) and sending back money

❑ remittances (money sent back) could raise the status of families at home and meet cultural and social needs

❑ better educational opportunities were also important for migrants – in Sāmoa, senior secondary education was limited. Potential migrants knew that overseas education was free and more accessible to their children

❑ goods as well as money (remittances) were sent to homes and families in Sāmoa

❑ Sāmoan villages were affected by the decrease in the population of the most able and most economically productive people

❑ Pacific countries like Sāmoa experienced rapid population growth (due to natural increase) and with limited government resources to meet the needs of an increasing population, migration from Sāmoa and remittances provided useful immediate solutions to these issues

❑ Pacific peoples (Sāmoans included) migrated to New Zealand a result of the post-war labour boom – the industries of New Zealand were growing and the population of New Zealand could not supply enough unskilled and semi-skilled labour

❑ Sāmoans now live in the major urban areas of New Zealand, in Hawaii, California and on the east coast of Australia, in addition to the Sāmoan population of the homelands of Sāmoa and American Sāmoa

❑ an increasing proportion of the Sāmoan migrant communities was born in new homelands. Commitment to and knowledge of the faʻaSāmoa and language are changing in the younger generation.

Sāmoan extended family networks now extend over a much larger geographic area – and are sometimes called 'transnational corporations of kin' and 'transnational island societies'. The impact of the emigration of Sāmoans since World War II has affected society in Sāmoa and American Sāmoa as well as in overseas countries.

Activity 1

1 Construct detailed push/pull diagrams for emigration to the United States of America, to New Zealand and to Australia.

2 Migration to the United States of America began in significant numbers in the 1950s; migration to New Zealand in significant numbers began in the 1960s; and in Australia, it began in the 1980s.

 ❑ What was similar about these migration movements? What was different?

 ❑ What were the short-term benefits of each migration to the people who migrated?

❑ What have been the long-term consequences of these migrations?

❑ Write an essay on the following topic: 'Evaluate the long-term effects of emigration on Sāmoan society.'

Part 1 - Summary

Think through what you have learned in Part 1. Ask yourself if you can provide specific, in-depth answers to each of the focusing questions that have guided the unit.

1 I have investigated the theories of Sāmoa's origins. I can explain the significance of theories of the Asian origins of Polynesian people. I can explain the Lapita theory and describe the range of evidence to support this theory.

2 I can describe the causes and effects of internal migration within Sāmoa in the past and the influence of movements of people from and to neighbouring island groups

3 I can account for the various immigrant settlements and settler groups that arrived in Sāmoa from the 1800s to the early twentieth century.

4 I can analyse the socio-economic and political impact of early immigrant groups in Sāmoa

5 I can account for the trends and patterns in Sāmoan emigration from the 1950s to the early 1970s, and evaluate the long-term effects on Sāmoan society.

Part

2

Imperialism, Colonialism, Nationalism And Decolonisation

Achievement Objective

At the end of this section, you will demonstrate that you know and understand the nature of imperialism and its consequences as well as the responses of the colonised people in their struggle for independence.

Focusing Questions

❏ What were the motives of the imperial powers in the Pacific in the nineteenth century?

❏ What were the different types and nature of colonial rule?

❏ What were the roles of missionary societies in colonial Sāmoa and the Pacific?

❏ What were the origins of Mau a Pule and Mau? What was their role in achieving independence? What were some other similar nationalist movements in the Pacific and what was their role in achieving independence?

❏ What role did the United Nations play in the decolonisation process? What impact did the Fono a Faipule and the Citizens' Committee have on Sāmoa's independence?

❏ Is there evidence of continuing colonialism in the contemporary Pacific?

Key Concepts:

Colonialism

Annexation

Decolonisation

Imperialism

Mandate

Trusteeship

Sovereignty

Independence

There are a number of very important concepts that you will be 'meeting' in this Part, perhaps for the first time. Be alert to the following key concepts in the box to the left when they appear in the text – look out for them! Your teacher will help you and your classmates to develop your understanding of these concepts. Remember – key concepts are important ideas that are specific to the study of history.

Introduction

Part 2 looks at the period of imperialism, colonialism, nationalism and decolonisation in the Pacific in the nineteenth century. The unit will be divided into three sections: imperialism; colonialism and nationalism; and decolonisation. The three sections will be dealt with separately, but they are all related because each is the consequence of the one before. For instance, dissatisfaction with colonial rule led to the rise in nationalist movements.

All the Pacific countries were affected in one way or another by the imperial powers that had set out conquer the Pacific islands. The motives and consequences of this interaction will be analysed. The rise of nationalistic feeling among the indigenous peoples that led to nationalist movements will also be analysed.

Part 2 will also look at the paths the different colonies took towards reinstatement of their independence. Decolonisation will be classified into three sections, depending on how independence was achieved:

❏ independence was achieved as a result of pressure from within: Western Sāmoa, Nauru and Vanuatu

❏ independence fostered by a colonial power, e.g. Fiji

❏ states that were internally self-governing while external matters were handled by the colonial ruler.

The importance of Part 2 is to give students an insight into the trials that their ancestors have endured to achieve independence. By understanding this unit, students will have a better understanding of who they are and where they come from, as well as their place in the world today.

Unit 1

Motives Of Imperial Powers

What were the motives of imperial powers in the Pacific in the nineteenth century?

> ### Useful terms
>
> Raw materials: materials used for manufacturing, e.g. cocoa to make chocolate;
>
> Industrial revolution: the transformation of the European economy from agricultural to industrial;
>
> Strategic location: a position that is useful or important, e.g. in time of war;
>
> Explorers: people who travel to find new places, which people from their part of the world have not been to before;
>
> Rivalry: competition between two people, or groups of people, for something.

The first Europeans were navigators and explorers, and next came the whalers, traders and beachcombers looking for raw materials to trade with other countries. Some came because they had heard tales about the islands, and they wanted to see for themselves. The islands, especially Polynesian islands, were thought of as the home of the 'noble savages', who lived in paradise and did not require any of the European institutions to maintain law and order. Missionaries were also interested in the islands because they wanted to spread the word of God. It was not until the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries that Pacific island nations were formally colonised.

The Imperial Powers

The main imperial powers in the Pacific were Great Britain, Germany, France and America. They were in the Pacific mainly to pursue their own interests, which was often in conflict with the interests of the native people. Imperialism was a political act that arose out of the economic activities of the Europeans. For instance, Britain's primary interest in Fiji was economic. Some colonisers encouraged internal disputes in their colonies because they gave the foreign power, e.g. Britain a good reason to intervene and assume control.

Industrial Revolution In Europe

The Industrial Revolution in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries was one of the major reasons why Europeans were interested in the islands. The Industrial Revolution had transformed the economy from an agricultural one to one based on machines and industries. More goods were produced with better technology. Thus, trade was opened up between European countries, and between Europe and Pacific islands. However to produce these goods, European countries needed raw materials that were often not found in Europe. The European countries, therefore, ventured out to establish colonies that could supply them with raw materials. Raw materials from the colonies were very cheap, and sometimes free. For instance, Britain moved millions of Africans and Chinese around the world to work on plantations producing raw materials for the European markets. Indians in Fiji came as a result of British rule, while the Chinese and Melanesians in Sāmoa came because of German rule.

Empire Building

European countries were also interested in the Pacific for security reasons. Apart from their economic motives, they wanted to expand and strengthen their empires in case of war. At that time, the more colonies a nation had, the more powerful it was. European countries had colonised most of Africa, Asia, the Middle East and the Americas; and were competing to include Pacific islands in their list of colonies. For instance, the main reason why the United States was interested in Tutuila was the harbour in Pago Pago, which would provide a good anchorage for their battleships if a war were to erupt in the Pacific, and a fuelling station for merchant ships.

Britain did not need more colonies, as it already had the largest empire by the nineteenth century, but British whalers, traders and missionaries argued that if Britain did not annex these Pacific territories, Germany and France would.

Christianity

Church rivalries were transferred to the Pacific islands in the nineteenth century. Disagreements over doctrine between Catholics and Protestants, and among Protestant factions, meant churches established competitive missions and missionary organisations without consulting one another. For instance, Lotu Taʻiti and Lotu Toga are both Protestant but represented different factions in the church. The differences were small, but were magnified when the churches became established in the islands.

Some critics argued that Christianity was used to 'tame the barbaric and savage Pacific islanders' before they were annexed, and maintained that 'Christianity before the flag' perhaps best described this motive. With the introduction of Christianity, Pacific islanders discarded their old beliefs and missionaries kept them under control through the laws and rules they introduced.

Trade

Whalers, traders and beachcombers in the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century came to the islands to trade. Before they arrived, most islanders lived by subsistence agriculture or hunting, fishing and gathering, or a mixture of all of these. So when the ships began to arrive, island people began to establish

trading contacts with the Europeans, usually involving the exchange of goods, such as nails and hammers, for 'refreshment' from the islanders. Whale bone and whale oil, as well as furs, were in high demand in Europe. Whalebone was used in women's corsets while whale oil was used for lamps. Furs were used for clothing in the winter by upper-class Europeans.

The China tea trade was also another reason why many Europeans came to the Pacific. China tea, silk and porcelain were other goods high in demand by the wealthier classes of Europe. But in order for the traders to get these goods from China, they had to sell them something and they discovered sandalwood and 'bêche-de-mer' (sea slugs) that they were able to trade with China. Sandalwood was in demand in China for burning as incense and for scenting wooden chests, while bêche-de-mer was used for food and medicine. They exchanged the sandalwood and bêche-de-mer for china tea, silk and porcelain, which the traders then sold.

Activity 1

1 Many changes took place in the Pacific as a result of contact with the Europeans. These changes were revolutionary (new changes with lasting impact). Your task is to fill out the table. In the first row the motives are given, so you need to write down the impacts. In the second row, your task is to write down the motives.

European Motives	Impact on the Islanders
Mapping blank spots.	
New ideas, e.g. noble savage.	
Civilising the natives.	
	Depletion of natural resources such as sandalwood.
	Supply refreshment to the ships.
	Sexual contacts (disease).
	Metal goods.
	Loss of traditional skills.
	Appointment of consuls.
	Land purchases and alienation.
	Introduced crops and plantation.
	Islands become part of European empires.
	'Christianity before the flag'.
	London Missionary Society and Wesleyan missions.

Types And Nature Of Colonial Rule

Explain the types and nature of colonial rule in the Pacific in the nineteenth century.

Useful terms

Indigenous: the first settlers of a country/island, e.g. Maori are the indigenous people of New Zealand

Exploit: when you use other people/countries to get want you want, e.g. Germany exploited Sāmoa for its resources;

Suppressed: put down by means of force;

Administrator: the person looking after and running the affairs of the country;

Alienate: transfer ownership of, isolate from, e.g. land when it was taken by the Europeans;

Indentured labourers: labourers who were under a contract or agreement.

Colonial rule was the domination by one group (usually race) of people over another. Colonialism in the Pacific was exploitative, which means that the colonisers used the Pacific islanders to achieve their goals and gave them little or no share of the profits. For instance, the indigenous people lost a large proportion of land to European plantation. Some were also used as labourers in the plantations. They were taxed and, if they resisted, they were suppressed. The harshness of colonial rule varied depending upon the country that colonised, how extensively the colonisers administered the country, and how much the colonisers used the natural resources. However, in all colonies the interests of the colonising country came first.

United States Of America

The United States was the only non-European power in the Pacific in the nineteenth century. The USA dominated whaling and the China tea trade. Their trading centre was Hawaii. In 1898, Hawaii was annexed and became a formal colony of the United States of America. In 1878 the United States Secretary of State with the co-operation of a Sāmoan chief set up a naval base at Pago Pago, and in 1899, the islands of Tutuila and Manua were annexed and called 'American Sāmoa'.

The nature of American colonial rule was mainly to safeguard its economic and strategic interests, for without colonial annexation it would have been difficult for American business to continue.

Germany

Germany realised that if it did not colonise the islands there would always be rivalry between the islanders and the Europeans, and also between other Europeans and themselves.

Marshall Islands

Their policy here was harsh towards the indigenous people. They prevented the manufacture of sour toddy (a highly fermented beverage made from the sap of coconut palms). The aim was not to prevent drunkenness, but to protect the copra industry because making sour toddy affects the growth of the tree and its ability to produce coconuts.

Sāmoa

In contrast to this harsh approach was the administration of Sāmoa by Wilhelm Solf. Many claim that he was a good administrator because he took into account some of the interests of the Sāmoan people and prevented other interested Europeans from setting up plantations in Sāmoa. On the other hand, there was already a well-developed German plantation in Sāmoa. Solf did not exploit the Sāmoans as labourers only because he had indentured labourers from New Guinea and China who were considered more efficient than the Sāmoans.

Germany had only became a unified nation in 1870, and so was late in the quest for colonies

In 1899 the Germans in Sāmoa called upon naval support to back up their claims over Sāmoa. A war almost broke out between Germany and Britain and America, but was prevented due to a hurricane. As colonisers, Germans did not try to develop other areas of the economy. For instance, they left it to the missionaries to set up schools in the town and in the villages.

During its period of colonisation of the Pacific, Germany annexed the Marianas, Marshall Islands and Caroline Islands in Micronesia, the north-western part of New Guinea (1884) and Western Sāmoa (1899). They also set up a naval base in Saoluafata, Western Sāmoa.

Great Britain

Great Britain was the world's largest empire in the nineteenth century. They had colonised parts of Africa, India and the Middle East, besides New Zealand, Fiji and Australia. Britain was involved in the Pacific because of pressure from its

citizens in the islands, and from the missionaries. Like Germany, Britain's policy differed from island to island. Below are three examples of the nature of British rule.

Gilbert and Ellice Islands, now known as Kiribati and Tuvalu (1892)

Britain did not exploit the people and resources mainly because the islands were coral islands with very limited resources. Therefore, Britain developed a policy that was sensitive to the islanders' needs.

Fiji (a colony in 1874)

Britain took a different approach to Fiji. They did not want to affect the Fijian culture and traditions, so their policies protected the Fijians. For example, foreign indentured labourers were brought in to work on the plantations instead of the Fijian people. This saw the immigration of 61 000 Indians between 1879 and 1916. Although this was all done in good faith, the results are still felt today as evident in the 1987 and 2000 coups.

Fijian values were protected by having the hereditary chiefs rule in each village as well as by setting up a separate Fijian administration using the Fijians as regional and local officers.

The disadvantages of this were that the Fijians were sheltered from experience of dealing with the world economy, and were developing more slowly than the Indians who were, therefore, able to buy land from them and start their own businesses.

Solomon Islands

These islands had the potential for plantation development as well as other resources that Britain could use, and it was decided to develop and to take advantage of the islands' natural resources.

Large areas of prime coastal land were alienated from the indigenous people as Britain developed plantations, and the Solomon islanders worked on the plantations as cheap labourers.

Britain banned the emigration of the islanders because it needed them on the plantations.

Other countries colonised by Great Britain were: Fiji (1874), Tokelau (1892), Cook Islands (1888) and Niue (1900).

France

French rule in New Caledonia saw about 90% of the land alienated from the indigenous people for European farming and plantation.

In 1871, the demand for labour for mines and public works led to forced labour and the indigenous people were forbidden to migrate out of the country because they were needed as labourers. The harsh laws led to uprisings in 1878 and 1917 but they were suppressed.

French colonies in the Pacific were: French Polynesia, made up of the Society Islands, which were taken over by the British in 1842, New Caledonia and Vanuatu.

Case Study: German Colonisation Of Sāmoa

By the 1870s Apia was the centre for German commercial interests in the South Pacific, but it wasn't until 1899 that Sāmoa (western) was formerly colonised by Germany.

Economic Policy

German annexation of Sāmoa was motivated by the commercial interests of the German company called Deutsche Handels und Plantagen Gesellschaft (DHPG), formerly Godeffroy and Sohn.

Wilhelm Solf was appointed the new governor, and he was the former manager of DHPG. His economic policies were therefore to improve the company and to protect it from other companies. He was biased, because everything he did was for the development of the DHPG. He did not encourage small German and other European planters, because they might get involved with Samoan politics and cause trouble. They might turn the natives against him and his administration.

Indentured labourers worked in the plantations. Melanesians and Chinese were treated differently. The Chinese were treated like Europeans, because they had a consul who looked after their best interests. The Melanesians had no such protection and were treated poorly by the Germans. For instance, they were not paid in cash; instead they were paid in goods such as axes, lamps and clothes. They were beaten with whips if they disobeyed the Germans.

Elsewhere than on the DHPG plantations, Solf also ordered the Sāmoan landholders to plant a certain number of coconuts and fined them if they did not. His intention was for the company to buy copra from the Sāmoans cheaply, and also tax them on what they earned from the sale of their copra.

These economic policies led to conflicts and the formation of the Mau a Pule.

The DHPG was a large company that was based in Germany, but it had branches in German New Guinea and Sāmoa. Three main plantations: Mulifanua (over 5000 acres), Vaitele and Vailele. The store and the central administration office were at Sogi, Apia.

In 1906, the labour force was 300 Melanesians and 16 Chinese.

The overall impact of colonialism was the exploitation of many island people.

Political

❑ local chiefs lost their rights and authority because they were in conflict with the motives of the Europeans

❑ land alienation

❑ foreign systems of government were alien to indigenous people, who did not understand or accept the relevance of collecting taxes

❑ division of one people into two countries (e.g. Sāmoa into Western Sāmoa and American Sāmoa)

❑ uniting of two ethnically different people (the Gilbert and Ellice islanders).

Economic

❑ introduced the islands to cash economy (this caused loss of self-sufficiency)

❑ exploited the resources of the islands (coconut plantations in Sāmoa, phosphate mining in Nauru).

Social and Cultural

❑ mixed race

❑ introduced new diseases to the island people, who were not immune to them

❑ schools were set up

❑ hospitals were set up.

Activity 1

1 How do you think 'Tumua and Pule' felt when they were omitted from the Faʻalupega of Sāmoa? Was this fair on the people and matai of Sāmoa?

2 Can you think of problems that the Pacific Island nations are facing as a result of colonisation? One example is given. Discuss this further in your class. Consider the rights of both peoples.

Problem	Cause
Coup in Fiji in 1987 and 1999–2000	British policy on indentured labour

3 How were the policies of the different colonial powers in the Pacific similar and/or different? Give examples to support your answers.

4 As a direct result of colonisation, Sāmoa was split into two. Which nation do you think is better off – Western Sāmoa or American Sāmoa? Use the pointers below to help you.
   ❑ Sovereignty
   ❑ Education
   ❑ Standard of Living
   ❑ Economic Development
   ❑ Security.

5 Which of these nations are independent? When did they gain independence? Who was their former colonising power?
   ❑ Sāmoa
   ❑ Tuvalu
   ❑ Fiji
   ❑ New Caledonia
   ❑ Guam.
   ❑ American Sāmoa
   ❑ Cook Islands
   ❑ Tonga
   ❑ French Polynesia

Unit 3

The Roles Of Missionary Societies

What were the roles of missionary societies in colonial Sāmoa and the Pacific?

> *Useful terms*
>
> Missionaries: people spreading religion;
>
> Prophecy: prediction/foretelling of future events;
>
> Convert: to change beliefs from old gods to Christianity.

The missionaries and their religion brought many changes to the Pacific islands. They introduced their beliefs, taught the natives how to read and write, and set up schools.

Religion was brought into the Pacific mainly by British and French missionaries. French missionaries spread the Catholic faith, while the English spread the Protestant, Wesleyan faith.

From England came two missionary organisations: the London Missionary Society (LMS) that was formed in 1795, and the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society that was formed in 1817. From France came Catholic missionaries, active in the Pacific from 1825 onwards.

London Missionary Society (LMS)

The LMS was sent to Tahiti in 1795. It did not succeed in this first attempt, but was successful in 1813. Its first missionaries to the Pacific were not ordained ministers but were mainly lay missionaries and skilled tradesmen. In Sāmoa, the LMS was also known as the Lotu Taʻiti because the first LMS mission in the Pacific was founded in Tahiti.

In 1830, the LMS arrived in Sāmoa. When John Williams arrived in the *Messenger of Peace* at Sapapaliʻi, Savaiʻi, he brought with him another missionary named Charles Barff, and eight teachers from Tahiti as well as a Sāmoan called Fauea. When they were at Falealupo, Fauea learned that Tamafaiga had been killed, so he told Williams to go to Sapapaliʻi, which was the residence of Malietoa Vainuʻupo. Fauea said religion would be accepted because the obstacle (Tamafaiga) had been removed.

Nafanua's Prophecy – Tali i lagi sou Malo

Malietoa Fitisemanu asked Nafanua for a share of the government but was told that only 'tail' was left as the head was already given to Leulumoega. Nafanua told Malietoa to accept it and wait for a 'head' from the heavens. 'Tali i lagi sou malo' means wait for a government from the heavens. As the papalagi were thought to have burst out of heaven, the white men's religion was therefore accepted because the Sāmoans thought at first that the papalagi were gods themselves. Hence, Malietoa Vainu'upo accepted the religion, and it was a peaceful mission because the missionaries were not met with any hostility as they had been on other islands.
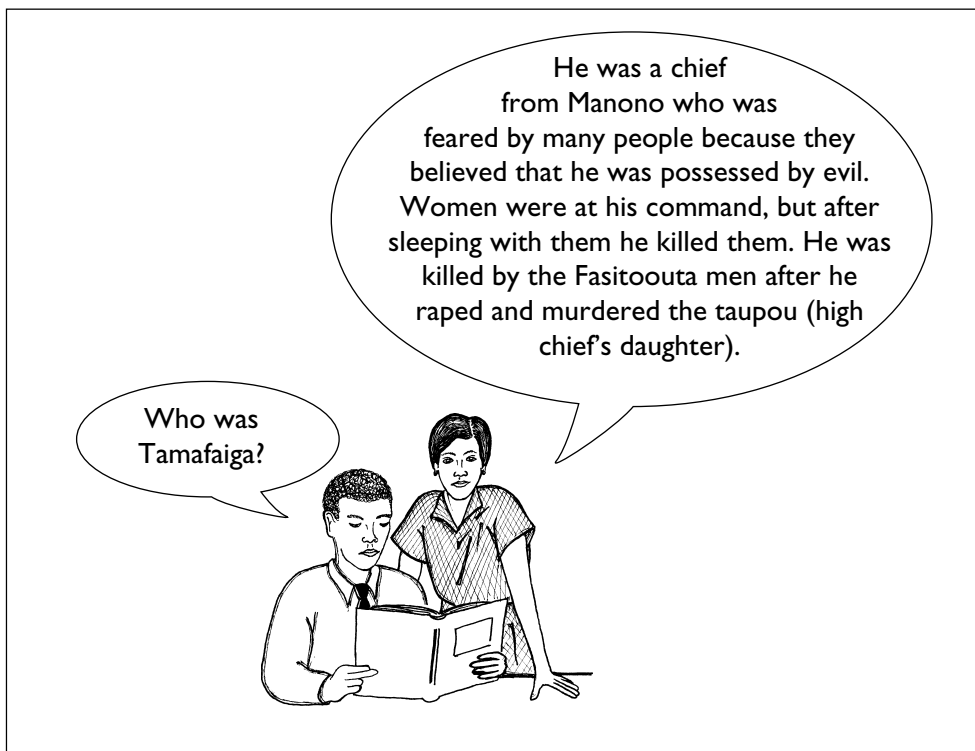
Figure 2.3.1 Who was Tamafaiga?

In 1834, the mission brought the first printed books to Sāmoa, which were hymn, reading and spelling books that had been printed in the Society Islands (Tahiti). Not very long after that, the missionaries began to translate the Bible into Sāmoan. The Old Testament was printed in 1848 and the New Testament in 1855.

Literacy

The LMS through the local pastors taught the villagers how to read and write through Aoga Faifeau.

Health

The missionaries taught the Sāmoans basic hygiene, e.g. wash your hands before eating.

Role and Impact of LMS

Church

LMS set up churches around Upolu and Savai'i and a local pastor conducted the services. The villages offered food and money for the care of the pastors as they still do today. Some villages to this day will not allow any other church to practise in the village. For instance, Saoluafata has only one religion, and that is the Lotu Ta'iti.

Schools

Education was a major programme of the LMS in Sāmoa. Their schools were the Malua Theological College, which was founded in 1842, the Leulumoega College and the Papauta Girls College. The Malua Theological College was to educate the pastors while the Papauta Girls College aimed at educating women to be wives of the pastors.

The pastors and their wives further spread the word of God by running schools in villages, which educated the people about the bible as well as teaching simple arithmetic and church music. The Aoga Faifeau was a result of this. The LMS missionaries, therefore, let the pastors educate the villagers while the British missionaries took up posts at Malua to teach the pastors before they went out to the villages.

Wesleyan Methodist Mission (Lotu Tonga)
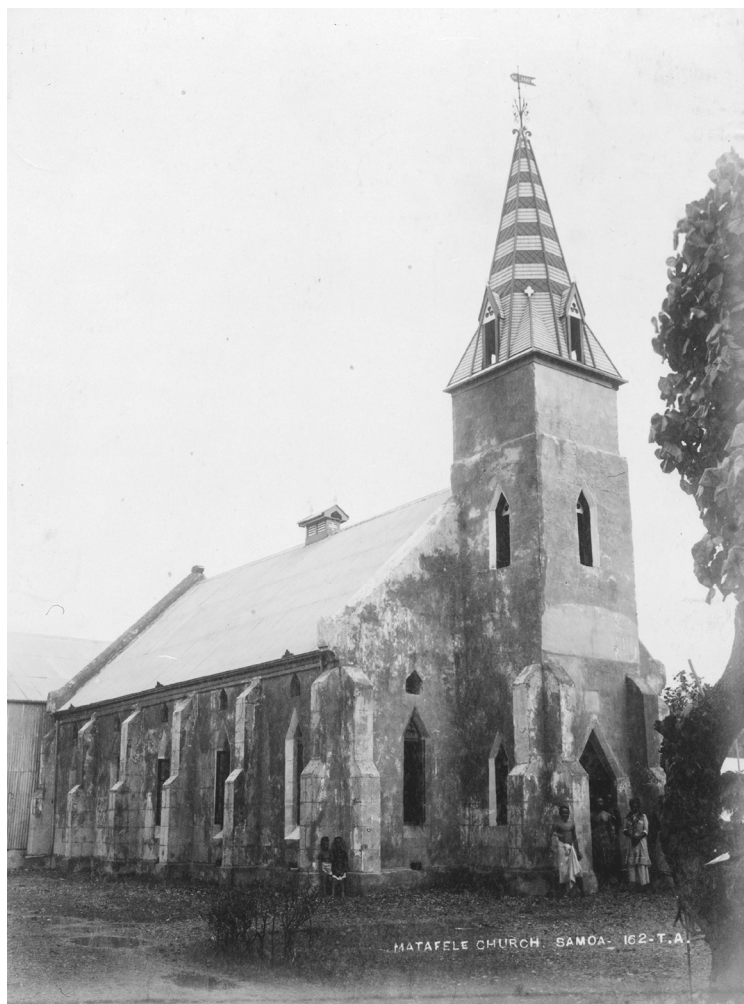
The church founded in England by John Wesley in the late eighteenth century arrived first in Tonga in the 1820s. The Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society was also known as Lotu Tonga in Sāmoa, because Tonga was where it was first established.

Before the Methodist church arrived in Sāmoa, they had had an agreement with the LMS that Sāmoa would be left to the LMS alone. However, because some Sāmoan chiefs requested it, Peter Turner along with Tongan teachers established a mission in Sāmoa around 1835.

Today, the Lotu Tonga is well established in Sāmoa. They set up a theological college in Piula to educate pastors. A church was built in Matafele in the heart of Apia. Today the church still stands, but has undergone some renovations.

The Lotu Toga was similar to the LMS in their policies. They also set up schools and encouraged the local pastors to educate the villagers through Aoga Faifeau.

Figure 2.3.2   Methodist Church at Matafele, Apia

Lotu Pope (The Roman Catholic Church in Sāmoa)

'Lotu Pope' or Church of the Pope (or the Pope's church) is the informal name used to identify the Catholic church by people (usually non-Catholics) in Samoa. The name derives from the Pope, who is the leader of the Catholic Church. Lotu Pope was brought to Sāmoa by two French priests, Father Foudaire (Lotuvi'o) and Father Violette (Silipele). They tried to establish the church in Falealupo in May 1845, but were unsuccessful because the LMS and the Wesleyan missionaries got Sāmoans to oppose them. There were other failed attempts, but they were finally successful when welcomed by a chief named Tuala in the village of Saleaula. Hence he was called Tuala 'Tali Pope', meaning 'Tuala who accepted the Catholic faith'.

The Catholic faith spread and in 1852 the Marist priests bought land from Prichard, a former British consul in Tahiti. The land was at Mulivai and that was where they built the cathedral that still stands today. One of the challenges to their missionary efforts was the negative propaganda about the Catholic church that had been spread by the LMS and Methodists missionaries that had established their missions in Samoa before the arrival of Catholic missionaries.

In 1846 Mataafa Fagamanu, who had already joined the Methodist Church, converted to Catholicism and this led to many more people taking up the Catholic faith. In 1860, the Marist Brothers school was founded, followed by the Saint Mary's school, which was set up in 1864. The training college was established in 1875 at Mount Vaea, and was later moved to Moamoa.

In 1836 Pope Gregory XVI divided Oceania (which includes Samoa) between the Society of the Sacred Hearts of Jesus and Mary, and the Marists.

In 1851 the Vicar Apostolic of Central Oceania was appointed by Pope Pius IX. He was also the Administrator of Samoa (of the Catholic church). This double title was borne by the succeeding bishops, until 1896, when Mgr. Broyer was appointed Vicar Apostolic of Samoa and Tokelau, with residence at Apia.

Lotu Mamona (The Church Of Jesus Christ Of The Latter Day Saints)

The Lotu Mamona arrived late in the Pacific islands and Sāmoa, and were not very successful at first. By the time the Mormon missionaries arrived, other religions had been established there. Also, civil wars made it hard for the missionaries to travel in Sāmoa.

It was not until after World War II that the Mormons increased, especially with more funding from the United States. The Mormons built a secondary school at Pesega.

Summary

Although the different missionary societies had different policies, they brought similar changes to the islands. They introduced education, got men to cut their hair, banned cannibalism, infanticide and polygamy and reversed the roles of women and men. Men now are the breadwinners while women do the cooking and chores around the house.

Sāmoa was influenced dramatically by Christianity. Unmarried girls, instead of staying with the aualuma, often stayed with the pastor and his wife so that they could learn how to sew, to cook using an oven, and to clean the house. The word 'susuga', which was once used to address the high chiefs, was transferred to the pastor. 'Afioga' was used to address Catholic priests.

Christianity had become so much part of the Sāmoan culture that when Sāmoa became independent, its motto was 'Faavae i le Atua Sāmoa' or in English 'Sāmoa is founded on God'.

Activity 1

1 Study the picture below.

What activity are the men engaging in?

What stance did the European missionaries take on this activity?

How does the description of 'noble savage' apply to this?

2 Role of Women

> 'You should act thus. Let the wife remain home and put the house in order, and the husband go out and cultivate the land day by day. Be industrious and fit up your houses and house lots, furnish yourselves with seats, beds, plates, bowls, knives, spoons and glasses. Provide separate sleeping rooms for parents and children; and increase the produce of your hands.
>
> Take proper care also of your children, that you be not destitute of heirs. Let the daughters remain at home with their mothers, and learn to sew, cook and iron . . .'

What changes are outlined above?

Why do you think these changes were imposed on the natives?

3 What roles did the missionary societies play in obtaining colonies? Give examples.

4 What are the origins of the:
   ❑ Lotu Tonga
   ❑ Lotu Ta'iti?

5 Why do you think the address 'susuga' is used for the pastors in the Lotu Ta'iti and Lotu Tonga, and the address 'afioga' for priests, in the Catholic Church?

6 The figures below show the various churches and the number of people in the church from the 2001 census.
   ❑ Why are there more people in the Congregational Christian church (Lotu Ta'iti)?
   ❑ Which 'tama aiga' accepted the Catholic church and why did he convert? What incident took place in Sāmoa that hindered the spread of the religion?

Table 2.3.1 Population by Religious Affiliation (2001)

Religion/Church	Number of People	Percentage of Population
Congregational Church	61 444	34.7
Roman Catholic	34 754	19.7
Methodist Church	26 460	15.0
Latter Day Saints	22 535	12.7
Seventh Day Adventist	6 198	3.5
Assembly of God	11 751	6.6
Jehovah's Witness	1 362	0.8
CCCJS	1 793	1.0
Nazarene	744	0.4
Protestants	392	0.2
Baptist	436	0.2
Full Gospel	1 440	0.8
Voice of Christ	629	0.4
Worship Centre	2 356	1.3
Peace Chapel	380	0.2
Anglican Church	335	0.2
Community Church	563	0.3
Elim Church	132	0.1
Sāmoa Evangelism	226	0.1
Aoga Tusi Paia	653	0.4
Bahai	902	0.5
Muslim	48	0.0
Others	1 102	0.6
Not Stated	213	0.1

Unit 4

Why were the 'Mau a Pule' and 'Mau a Sāmoa' formed?

Why were the 'Mau a Pule' and 'Mau a Sāmoa' formed? What were the other similar nationalist movements in the Pacific? What role did they play in achieving independence?

Useful terms

Petition: formal written request signed by many people;

Denounce: to speak against;

Antagonism: active opposition;

Quarantine: isolation of animals or people who might carry infectious diseases;

Exile: expel from home or native land;

Paternalistic: acting like parents;

Ordinance: an order;

Epidemic: widespread disease.

Nationalism refers to patriotic feelings and principles. Nationalistic feelings were strong among those who were under the control of the colonial powers. The peoples' pride in their own country grew and they wanted to regain independence from their colonial rulers. An example of a nationalist movement was the 'Mau', which dominated Sāmoan politics in the 1920s, thought it was not the first such movement in Sāmoa.

Mau a Pule

The Mau a Pule was the first attempt by the Sāmoans to regain their independence. The leader of the 'Mau a Pule' was Namulau'ulu Lauaki Mamoe. He was a faipule in the Malo and a famous orator (tulafale) of the district of Faʻasaleleaga Safotulafai. Lauaki had been observing the German administration of Sāmoa and had raised a number of objections.

1   Matai in Malo were losing the power to make decisions on how to govern the country.

2   The Mau objected to the Germans imprisoning and threatening Sāmoans.

3   Sāmoans wanted to take a more active part in running their country.

Lauaki's popularity grew and so did the number of his supporters. He waited until Solf returned to Sāmoa before making his objections known to the government in a petition. Solf did not heed the petition; rather he exiled Lauaki, his supporters and their families to Saipan. By doing this, Solf had put an end to 'Mau a Pule', however the movement gave the Sāmoan people hopes of self-rule. The 'Mau a Pule' reminded people that they did not need to be controlled by foreign powers, that they were quite capable of handling their own affairs.

Lauaki died at sea in 1915 on the ship that was sent by New Zealand to bring him home to Sāmoa.

To understand the origins of the 'Mau a Pule', we must look at the nature of the German administration of Sāmoa and its policies.

Sāmoa was formally colonised by Germany in 1900. Wilhelm Solf became the first Governor. He immediately made changes to Sāmoa's political structure. He abolished the position of Tupu and replaced it with Paramount chief, or Aliʻi Sili. Mataafa Iosefo was given this position and denounced claims by Tumua and Pule. Solf also abolished the tafaʻifa and disarmed any Sāmoans who where in possession of weapons, because of the civil wars.
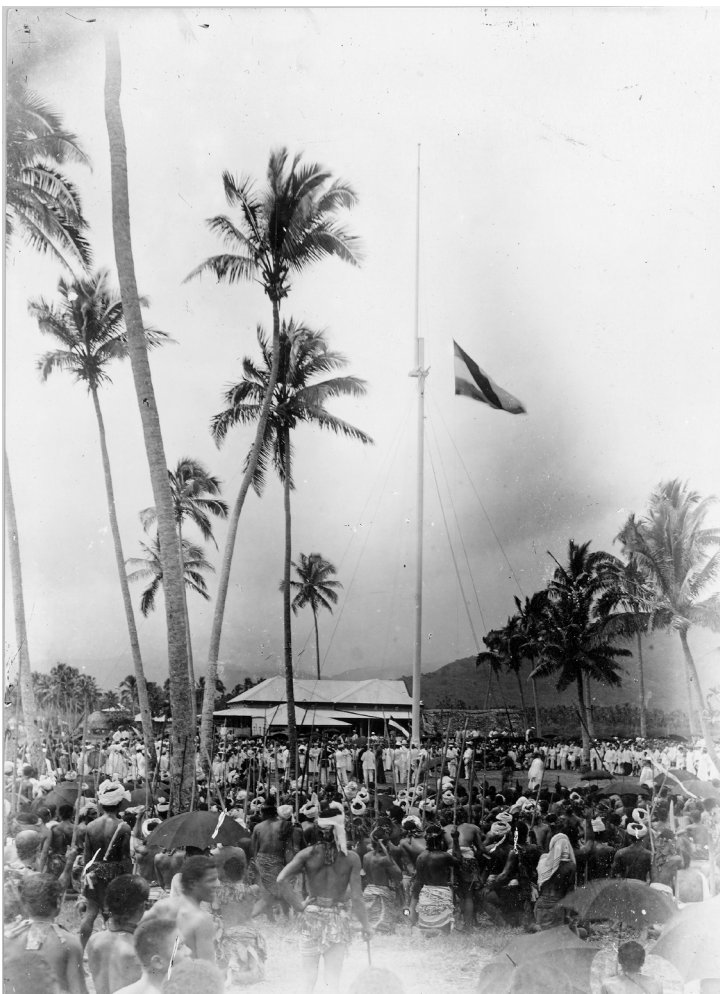
Figure 2.4.1 Raising of German Flag marking the beginning of German colonisation of Sāmoa

Structure of Solf's Native Administration (Malo)

Ali'i Sili (Mataafa Iosefo)

↓

Faipule (among them were the Tama a 'āiga, known as Taimua), Tupua Tamasese and Faalata from the Malietoa family
Other Faipule represented all the districts of Sāmoa.

↓

District Administration
Taitaiitu (representatives from districts)

↓

Pule nuu (enforced local regulations, and acted as spokesmen for the administration)
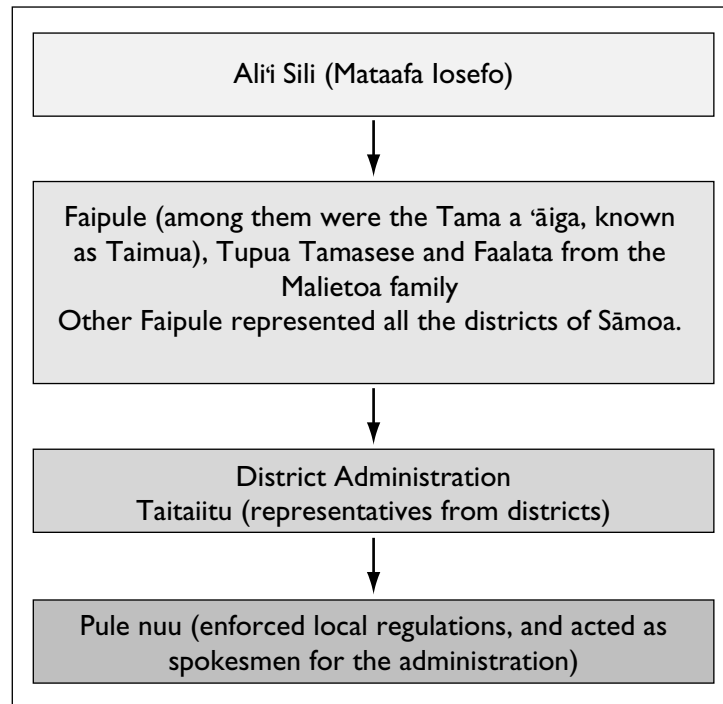
The Sāmoans Reject Solf And His Administration

Momoli or o'o for Mataafa
Mataafa's family prepared a o'o to acknowledge Mataafa's new position. Solf interfered because he did not want the Sāmoans to think that Mataafa was king. So he told Mataafa to convey this to the Sāmoans, that he (Mataafa, was Ali'i Sili) but the head of the government was the Kaiser (emperor) of Germany and the Kaiser was represented in Sāmoa by Solf. Solf also ordered Mataafa that the o'o was to take place in Mulinu'u instead of Mataafa's village. Furthermore, he told Mataafa that no food was to be distributed, all the districts were to receive the same fine mats, and once they received their fine mats they were to leave. Sāmoans were offended and started to dislike and mistrust Solf.

1903 **Lands and Title Commission**
Solf set up a commission but did not include any Sāmoans on it. Sāmoans, however, were appointed as advisors who did not really have any impact on the decision making. Again, Sāmoans were disappointed.

Mataafa died **1912**
In the same year Schultz took over from Solf as administrator.

1913 **Change in the structure of the government and Fa'alupega**
In 1913, Schultz abolished the position of Ali'i Sili and replaced it with Fautua (advisor), which was held jointly by Malietoa Tanumafili I and Tupua Tamasese Lealofi I. The Fa'alupega (National Ceremonial Address) was also changed so that the highest authority in the government (the Kaiser) was included. To the disappointment of many Sāmoans, especially Tumua and Pule, Schultz had omitted Tumua ma Pule.

The Old Fa'alupega

Sāmoan	English
1. Tuluona a Tumua ma Pule	Respect to Tumua and Pule
2. Tulouna Ituau ma Alataua	Respect to Ituau and Alataua
3. Tulouna Aiga i le Tai	Respect to Aiga i le Tai
4. Ma le Vaa o Fonoti	And the crew of Fonoti
5. Tolouna tama ma o latou	Respect to the sons and their families
6. Aiga poo aiga ma o latou tama	Or to the families and their sons.

New Fa'alupega

Sāmoan	English
1. Tulouna o lana Maisetete le Kaisa, o le tupu mamalu o lo tatou Malo Kaisalika aoao	Respect to his Majesty the Kaiser, the most dignified king of our Imperial Government
2. Tulouna a lana Afioga le Kovana o le Kaisalika o le sui o le Kaisa i Sämoa nei	Respect to his honour the Imperial Governor, the Kaiser's representative in Sämoa.
3. Susu mai Malietoa. Afio mai Tupua, ua faamanatuina ai aiga elua i lo oulua tofiga o le kaisalika o le Fautua	Welcome to Malietoa and Tupua, who represent the two families, in your positions as advisors to the Imperial Government.
4. Tulouna a le vasega o Faipule Kaisalika o e lagolago malosi i le malo. Afifio mai le nofo a vasega o tofiga Kaisalika o e ua fita i le tautua i le Malo.	Welcome to the various officials who have served the Imperial Government faithfully.

Oloa Company

This was perhaps the main reason behind the Mau a Pule. Under Solf's administration, interaction of European and part-European (half Sāmoan) in Sāmoan politics was prohibited

Therefore, when Pullock, a part-European, proposed the 'Oloa Company' it was opposed by the German administrator.

The Oloa Company was to be a national trading company to be owned by Sāmoan shareholders. The company would buy copra from the Sāmoan growers and export it to raise funds for capital; the villages were to contribute into a central fund. The Malo liked the idea and supported the Oloa Company because it meant that they could finance the government and not have to rely on the German administration. The administrators opposed it, and imprisoned two chiefs for spreading the news about the 'Oloa Company'.

Mau (Sāmoa Mo Sāmoa)

The Mau was a non-violent nationalist movement formed in the 1920s as a response to the ill-treatment of Sāmoans by the New Zealand administration. Their main aim was to allow Sāmoans to have a say in the running of their own government, but because of New Zealand's paternalistic and racist attitude as well as its violent response, the Mau declared its goal of independence from New Zealand. On the outbreak of World War I, New Zealand sent a force to Sāmoa to seize the colony. Germany did not resist because it was busy fighting in Europe, and so Sāmoa became a territory of New Zealand in 1914. When Colonel Logan arrived in Sāmoa with 1413 officers, mechanics, technicians and medical staff, the German flag was lowered instantly, on the 31 August 1914 and the New Zealand flag raised to mark the takeover by New Zealand.

Figure 2.4.2 Hoisting the Union Jack

The Mau movement unified the Sāmoans. Their antagonism towards New Zealand had built up for a number of years. Native Sāmoans and the part-Europeans had

different interests but, because they were both powerless under New Zealand administration, they were united in their opposition to it. The Mau leaders were the part-Europeans, A.G Smythe (secretary), Taisi Olaf Nelson, and native Sāmoan Tupua Tamasese Lealofi III, who was the leader of the Central Committee. The colours of the Mau were purple (lavalava) and white stripes. Its headquarters was in Vaimoso.

Colonel Logan and his force were inexperienced and did not know how to run a colony. His inexperience led to the Sāmoans reasserting their traditions and political influence. Logan did not make any changes to the political organisation of Sāmoa. Laws and policies made by the German administration were maintained. New Zealand also took over the DHPG and renamed it 'New Zealand Reparation Estates'. Other part-Sāmoans were able to purchase assets from the Germans, who had returned to Germany, therefore enabling them to assert influence.

The 1918 Influenza Epidemic (A Deadly Mistake)

The way it handled the epidemic was New Zealand's major mistake and became the last straw for the Sāmoans. It united the country (native Sāmoans, part-Europeans and local Europeans) against the New Zealand administration, because almost every family lost several family members from the epidemic. For instance, Taisi Olaf Nelson, one of the leaders in the Mau movement, lost his mother, his brother and sister in law, another of his brothers and his only son. So many people died that mass graves were used to bury the people whose bodies had been collected by trucks. About one fifth of the population died and this was the most devastating incident in Sāmoa in a century.

Causes of the Mau movement

Military government (it was run more like an army then a civilian administration). The Sāmoans, especially the native Sāmoans, were subject to many rules and regulations, and if they disobeyed them were punished by way of fine or imprisonment. The rules and regulations imposed by Logan and his military government for governing Sāmoa are outlined clearly in the Proclamation. For instance:

❏ Sāmoans were to submit to all orders of the new government.

❏ No inhabitants were allowed to communicate with the Germans who were still living in Sāmoa.

❏ Sāmoans were not allowed to resist the New Zealand officers.

❏ Curfew was imposed from 10 p.m. to 6 a.m. in the morning.

❏ Sāmoans were forbidden to change place of residence.

❏ No public meeting was allowed.

❏ No liquor was to be supplied to indigenous Sāmoans.

Sāmoans objected to the interference of the New Zealand administration in their own village affairs. There was an ordinance in place to control Sāmoan customs. This ordinance: forbade the village chiefs to exile (faatea) villagers. Instead, this power was transferred to the administration. By doing this, the administrator had taken over the rights and responsibilities of the aiga potopoto and the village fono.

It also gave the administration the power to take away matai titles to punish those who disobeyed. Between 1921–1926, fifty-three matai were stripped of their titles, including Tupua Tamasese, a tama aiga.

Another reason for the formation of the Mau was the paternalistic attitude New Zealand took towards the Sāmoans. New Zealand administration believed that the Sāmoans were like immature children who needed to be looked after. New Zealand put it in these terms when it negotiated Sāmoa's future with the League of Nations without consulting the Sāmoans. The Legislation for the mandate outlined power be given to the administrative body (New Zealand), the Fono a Faipule was given the role of advisors and the Citizen's Committee was given two seats. However, the Amendment Act of 1923 did not change the roles of the Fono a Faipule and the Citizen's Committee.

Why Was New Zealand Blamed For The 'Flu?

Responsibility lay with the failure and ignorance of the administration, for the incident could have been prevented but the New Zealand authorities in Sāmoa did not act quickly enough. The ship *Talune* was not quarantined when it arrived in Apia, although the administration was aware that there was an epidemic spreading throughout the world. Sāmoans like people in many other countries, died because they had no immunity and there was no vaccine. Logan was offered help from American Sāmoa by a medical team, but he refused it. Furthermore, he cut communications with Pago Pago. A group of Apia women tried to set up a temporary hospital but were ordered to stop.

The Activities Of The Mau (1920–1945) And The Path to Independence

Through the non-violent movement of the Mau, Sāmoans passively resisted the New Zealand administration. They did this by refusing to pay tax, withdrawing children from government schools, avoiding the use of courts of law to settle disputes. New Zealand plantations were abandoned by the Sāmoan workers and, instead of paying taxes, the Sāmoans collected money for the Mau.

New Zealand responded by sending two warships to establish control, and by trying to arrest members of the Mau. However, this did not work. Hundreds of other Mau members volunteered to be arrested and the authorities had to release everyone because the prisons were not big enough to take everybody.

New Zealand also appointed a Royal Commission to assess the grievances of the Sāmoans. The finding was that the Mau had been initiated by local Europeans and part-Europeans who had used the Sāmoans to voice their grievances. W.A. Gurr, A.G. Smythe and Olaf Nelson were deported to New Zealand as a result.

On the 28 December 1928, Mau protestors marched on the streets of Apia to welcome back the exiled Mau member, A.G. Smythe. It was a non-violent protest, but a scuffle broke out when the police tried to arrest the secretary of the Mau. As police shot at the crowd, a machine gun opened fire from a nearby police station. Eleven people were killed, included Tupua Tamasese Lealofi. Three of those killed had tried to shield Tupua Tamasese. His departing words to his followers were,

'My blood has been spilt for Sāmoa. I am proud to give it, do not dream of avenging it as it was spilt in maintaining peace. If I die, peace must be maintained at any price.'

The death of Tupua Tamasese increased the support for the Mau and consequently the number of New Zealand troops trying to suppress the organisation. Men had to seek refuge in the bush to avoid exile. The troops broke into houses and harassed the old, women and children.

While the Mau members were hiding in the bush, the Women's Mau took over. The wives of the Mau leaders travelled extensively throughout Sāmoa to encourage support by telling the people not to give up the fight.

Figure 2.4.3 60 Mau prisoners arrive from coast at dawn, Apia

The Mau continued their fight although the original leaders had died. The victory of the Labour Party in New Zealand, and the outbreak of World War Two, meant less pressure on the Sāmoans and the Mau.

New Hebrides (Vanuatu): Steps Towards Independence

Another country that gained independence as a result of pressure from the indigenous people was New Hebrides. Like Sāmoa, they engaged in an anti-colonial struggle. Before independence, Vanuatu was jointly run by Britain and France. The people described their status as aliens in their own land. They did not have legal status. They did not have passports, only identity cards, which were hardly recognised.

In 1958, the New Hebridians asked for an active role in the Advisory Council but this was ignored. In 1971, a pro-independence New Hebrides National Party (NHNP) was formed. They sent a petition to the United Nations asking for improvement to the situation in New Hebrides. Some of the requests in the petition were:

❏ the country to have one system of government as this would provide stability

❏ that the influence of Britain and France be stopped

❏ that they discuss independence with UN guidance.

The New Hebrides, under its new name of 'Vanuatu' (which means 'our land'), gained independence in July 1980 and Father Walter Lini became the first prime minister. Independence came gradually but was complete after the Vanuaku Pati had won the majority of seats in the general election of 14 November 1978.

Activity 1

1 Why was the Mau a Pule formed, and who was its leader? Did it fail to bring about its aims? Explain.

2 Why was the Mau a Sāmoa movement formed? Who were the leaders?

3 How did they resist New Zealand administration?

4 What do 'passive resistance' and 'non-violent' mean?

5 How did the 1918 Influenza Epidemic arrive in Sāmoa?

6 The Sāmoans blamed the New Zealand administration for the epidemic. Give reasons.

7 Approximately, how many people in the country died from the epidemic?

Figure 2.45 Women's mau leader and committee

Unit

5

Role Of The United Nations In Decolonisation Process

What role did the United Nations play in the decolonisation process in Sāmoa and the Pacific? What impact did the 'Fono a Faipule and Citizens Committee have on independence for Sāmoa?

Useful words

Referendum: a process by which a question is given to the public to decide by voting on it;

Constitution: body of fundamental principles used to govern a state;

Aid: financial help given from one country/organisation to another. It can also be in the form of food etc;

Scholarship: a payment from the funds of a school;

National: belonging to a nation;

Negotiation: to arrange or bring about results;

Investigate: to find out the cause of something.

Decolonisation means governments giving up their colonial powers. The colonial powers move out, and the running of the government and affairs of a nation are in the hands of the indigenous people. Decolonisation in the Pacific saw the United Nations Organization involved in preparing the Pacific island nations for self-government or independence. Generally, the decolonisation of the Pacific was achieved mainly through negotiation between a colony and their former colonial power. Sāmoa was the exception.

Sāmoa

After World War Two, the League of Nations was replaced by the United Nations Organisation. The UN now looked after the territories that were once under the League of Nations.

In 1946 New Zealand was given Trusteeship of Sāmoa. Trusteeship is when a country is being prepared for independence. The UN usually gives this responsibility to the colonial power. In the case of Sāmoa it was given to New Zealand.

Mau leaders had sent a petition to the UN, asking it to make Sāmoa self-governing as a protectorate of New Zealand.

The UN sent a mission to Sāmoa to investigate whether Sāmoa was fit and ready for self-government. They arrived in 1947 and they were presented with two conflicting proposals. Taisi Olaf Nelson had died, and there was no unifying voice for the Europeans and the Sāmoans. The two groups, 'Citizens Committee' and the 'Fono a Faipule' (representing local Sāmoans) were concerned about their roles in an independent Sāmoa and wanted reassurances before independence.

The UN recommendations resulted in the 1947 Sāmoan Amendment Act:

❑ New Zealand administration was replaced by a High Commissioner

❑ Government of Sāmoa replaced Administration of Sāmoa

❑ Legislative Council was replaced by Legislative Assembly that comprised of 11 Sāmoan and five European members

❑ Sāmoa was to have a national flag, a national anthem and a national day.

In 1960, the Constitutional Convention was held to discuss the draft constitution. Those who attended were holders of government positions, church representatives, planters and storekeepers. The matai decided on the issues of electoral roll, land reform, religion and the selection of head of state.

In 1961, Fiame Mataafa, the first Prime Minister of Sāmoa, took the draft constitution for an independent Western Sāmoa to the UN.

The New Zealand Prime Minister of the new Labour Government, Walter Nash, began a programme to improve health, education and other services in Western Sāmoa.

The New Zealand Reparation Estates was handed over to Western Sāmoa and was renamed Western Sāmoa Trusts Estates Corporation.

Transfer of ownership had now passed through several stages (Goddfrey and Sohn – DHPG – New Zealand Reparation Estates – WSTEC)

In May 1961, a referendum was held on whether the Sāmoans would accept the constitution and whether they wanted independence on 1 January 1962. Of the 38 000 voters, 83% voted 'yes' for the constitution and 78% voted 'yes' for independence. Sāmoa became independent in 1962, and was the first Pacific island to become so.

Independence Fostered By The Colonial Power

Fiji, the Solomon Islands, Kiribati, Tuvalu and Papua New Guinea achieved independence without as much struggle as the Sāmoans had. Fiji, for instance, was a colony of Britain for 96 years but gained independence on the 10 October 1970, after the United Nations General Assembly ordered Britain to 'take immediate steps to transfer real power to the people of Fiji'.

Internally Self-Governing States

These states are semi-independent because they govern themselves internally, while foreign matters are handled on their behalf by their former coloniser. The Cook Islands and Niue run their internal affairs but matters of security and external affairs are left to New Zealand.

Today, the United Nations continues to help island nations by providing aid through UNESCO and by supplying food in times of natural disaster, and providing peacekeeping forces to former colonies such as Fiji and the Solomon Islands.

Is There Evidence Of Continuing Colonialism?

Is there evidence of continuing colonialism in the Pacific?

> *Useful terms*
>
> Development: improving the economy of a nation;
>
> Interactions: actions and influence between one person and another.

It is argued that although the Pacific island nations have gained independence from their former colonies, they still rely too much on their former colonial rulers and other European and Asian countries for economic development. This in itself can be seen as another form of colonialism. Countries like New Zealand and Australia, in their projects such as AusAid, grant the islands funds for development. For example, Australia and New Zealand give a certain number of scholarships to the Pacific Islanders to study in Australia and New Zealand. The aim is to train island people well so that they can return and contribute to the development of their own nations.

Globalisation describes the era of new technology and worldwide interactions through trade agreements. It is inevitable that the Pacific island nations get involved. The Pacific island nations need to move with the rest of the world. Organisations such as the World Bank and IMF (International Monetary Fund) lend money to nations for development. Most Pacific island nations have to borrow heavily from these organisations, which can dictate indirectly the running of debtor nations. For instance, when they demand payment, the governments may introduce changes so that money can be raised to pay the loan.

Pacific islands like Niue and the Cook Islands have self-government, but they still rely on New Zealand for security and external affairs. Today, more people from these two nations live in New Zealand than on the islands themselves. The people of these two islands also hold New Zealand citizenship.

In 2003, Sāmoans in New Zealand and some in Sāmoa presented a petition to the New Zealand government outlining their demands for New Zealand citizenship. In some ways, the petition was unrelated to the struggle for independence, but on the other hand it is in conflict with the aspirations and the nationalistic feelings shown when Sāmoa first declared its desire to be independent from New Zealand.

Theoretically, the era of colonialism has ended. However, the Pacific island nations still depend very much on their former colonisers.

Activity 1

1 The Pacific island nations are not fully independent of their former colonial powers.

Arguments For	*and*	*Arguments Against*

2 Research

Write an essay of about 500 words on the following topic (you can include pictures and other sources of information in your essay): 'Petition to New Zealand to grant New Zealand citizenship to Sāmoans'.

Guiding questions for the research

1 What was the cause of the petition?
2 Who was the leader?
3 What was outlined in the petition?
4 Why did other Sāmoans object to this?
5 How was this in conflict with the Mau movement?

Steps:

1 Design a hypothesis with the help of your teacher.
2 Design focusing questions to guide you.
3 Gather information, e.g. newspapers, interviews, etc.
4 Record your information.
5 Present your information.

Part 2 - Summary

Think through what you have learned through the units in Part 2. Ask yourself if you can provide specific in-depth answers to each of the focusing questions.

1 I can understand the terms and how they relate to Part 2:

a paternalistic   b racist   c trusteeship
d independence   e sovereignty   f democratic
g passive   h globalisation   i colonialism
j imperialism   k decolonisation   l nationalism
m citizenship

2 I can analyse the impact of the different missionary societies present in Sāmoa in the early 1900s.

3 I can describe the causes and consequences of imperialism, colonialism, nationalism and decolonisation on Sāmoa and the Pacific.

4 I can explain the causes of the 'Mau a Pule' and 'Mau: Sāmoa mo Sāmoa' and their role in achieving independence for Sāmoa; and other similar movements in the Pacific.

5 I can account for the role of the United Nations in the decolonisation process.

Conflict

Achievement Objective

At the end of Part 3 you will be able to demonstrate your knowledge and understanding of the origins and consequences of conflict within nations; and critically examine the role of foreign influence in internal conflicts.

Focusing Questions

❏ What were the main causes of conflict in Sāmoa in the 1800s?

❏ What were the immediate and long-term consequences for Sāmoa.

❏ Who were the foreign powers and what role did they play in fuelling or easing the tension?

❏ What are the causes of the conflict in the Middle East in the 20th century?

❏ What wars were fought between the Arabs and Israel during the 20th century?

❏ What are the consequences of the Palestine/Israeli conflict in the Middle East?

❏ What role did foreign powers play in the conflict? Did they ease the tension or intensify the problems in the Middle East?

Key Concepts:

Conflict

Civil wars

Land alienation

Zionism

Centralised government

Tafa‘ifa

Exodus

Anti-Semitism

Diaspora

Holocaust

Introduction

Part 3 discusses the causes and consequences of conflicts on people, government and environment. It also looks at the role played by foreign powers. Two regions will be studied: (**a**) Sāmoa in the 1800s and (**b**) the Middle East in the 1900s. Although the regions and timeframes are different, the underlying causes are very similar – it is the struggle for power. The consequences differ in some respects and this is due to the scope and scale of the conflict.

Civil War In Sāmoa In The 1800s

Useful terms

Renounce: to withdraw or give up;

Factions: divisions or sides within a government;

Defeat: when you lose;

Deported: when you are forced by law to return to your country;

Struggle: fight between two people/parties for something;

Monarchy: a type of government led by a king.

What Were The Main Causes Of Conflict In Sāmoa In The 1800s?

The establishment of centralised government in 1854

Foreigners set up a 'Foreign Resident Society', which covered the area from Matautu to Sogi. The aim was to set up a court to deal with issues between the Sāmoans and the foreigners in this district, as the Apia chiefs could no longer control the area. They encouraged other districts to set up similar codes of laws but the districts did not take them seriously. The consuls and mission leaders therefore decided that it would be best if a central government made laws and conducted courts.

This new central government would be made up of a confederation of chiefs. The British consul, J.C. Williams (son of John Williams) thought that Malietoa Laupepa should be made king because he represented Tuamasaga which had the biggest European population. Also, Malietoa Laupepa was assumed by the Europeans to be the rightful king as he was the successor to the Malietoa title. Laupepa was the son of the late Malietoa Moli, the son of Malietoa Vainuupo. Malietoa Vainuupo accepted Christianity and was the last one to hold the Tafaifa title. Malietoa Talavou heard about this decision and reacted by preparing his side for war. Another faction of the Malietoa family in Manono and Savai'i had bestowed the Malietoa title on Talavou. Refer to the genealogy of the Malietoa title. This faction supporting Malietoa Talavou wanted Talavou to be the leader of the new government.

The main reasons for the civil wars in the mid-1800s

The struggle of the different contenders to be king (western style)

Other paramount chiefs were opposed as they had the same right to be king as Malietoa. For instance Mataafa Iosefo and Tupua Tamasese had genealogy links to the Tafaifa titles.

Involvement of foreign powers

Foreign powers who were involved in the civil wars were Britain, America and Germany. They interfered because they wanted to safeguard their interests in Sāmoa, and this was done through the provision of arms and allying themselves with certain contenders for the position of king.

Figure 3.1.1 The main reasons for the civil wars in the mid-1800s

Civil wars in Sāmoa were due to various reasons. Before the Europeans arrived civil wars were triggered by (a) the murder of a high chief, (b) the raping of a taupou of a village and (c) over the contested succession to a high rank chiefly title.

A: Genealogy of the Malietoa Title

Malietoa Vainu'upo
(accepted Christianity in Sapapalii Savai'i)

Taimalelagi
(brother)

Moli
(Malietoa Vainu'upo's son)

Talavou
(Moli's half brother)

Laupepa
(Moli's son)
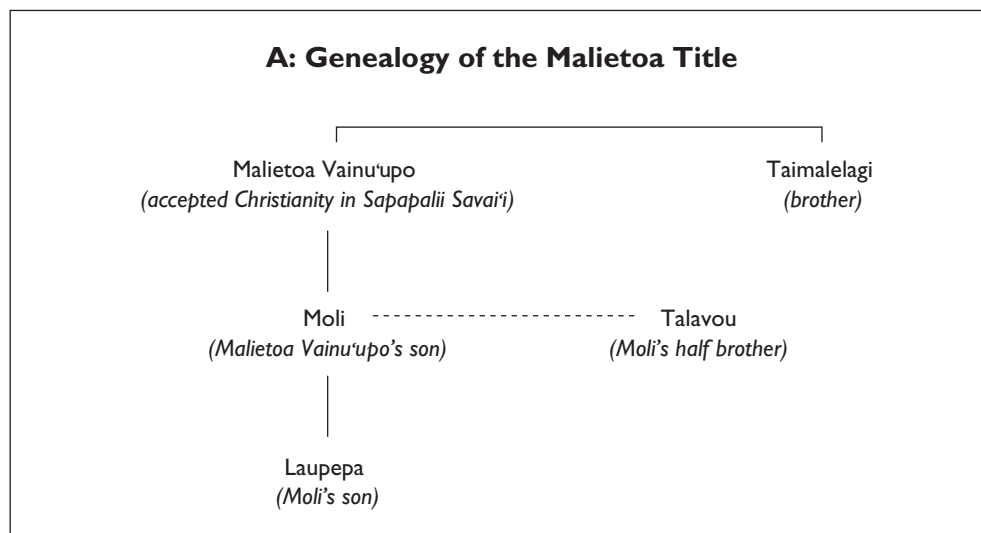
Figure 3.1.2 Genealogy of the Malietoa title

The European notion of king is similar to that of Tafa'ifa, that is, one person holding all four papa titles. Succession to the tafa'ifa was not automatic – you did not become tafa'ifa simply because your father was the last one. Rather, the title was conferred only by groups of tulafale who represented the districts to which the titles belonged. The last tafa'ifa was Malietoa Vainu'upo, but when he died, the papa titles returned to the respective districts.

A: Tafaifa: Equivalence to European 'king'

King = Tafaifa

- Tui Atua
- Tui Aana
- Tamasooalii
- Gatoaitele
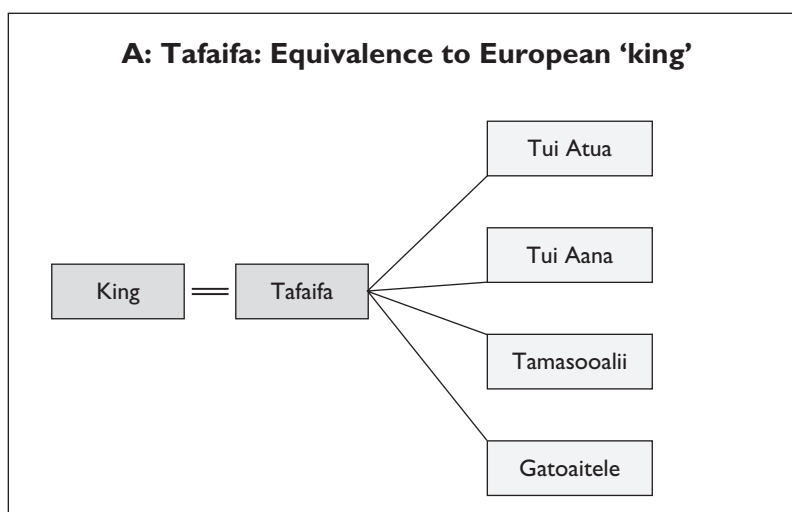
Figure 3.1.3 Tafa'ifa – equivalence to European 'king'

Civil Wars Fought In Sāmoa Mid-1800s And Those Involved

The civil wars were a series of wars fought in the mid-1800s by the different parties in their struggle for monarchy. There were different phases of the war of confederation, each resulting in a change of authority.
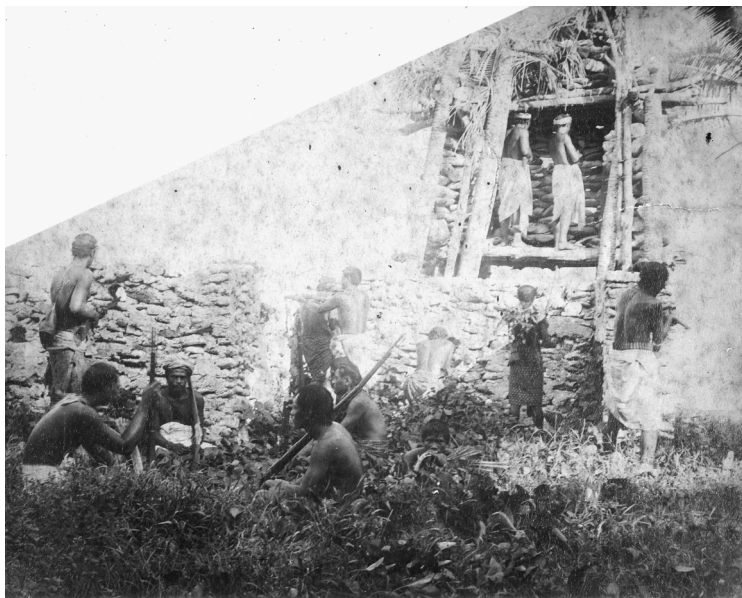
Figure 3.1.4 Fort Sāmoa

Figure 3.1.5 Naval Machine gun during the civil war

Figure 3.1.6 Forts during the 1888 civil war

Figure 3.1.7 Malietoa Laupepa

Malietoa Laupepa versus Malietoa Talavou: 1860

Following the proposal for centralised government, Malietoa Laupepa and his supporters set up their headquarters in Matautu, while Malietoa Talavou and his supporters set up a rival headquarters in Mulinu'u. After setting up their headquarters, they waited to see which headquarters the district leaders would favour to discuss the proposed confederation. Most went to Mulinu'u, but were soon attacked by Malietoa Laupepa's forces, who drove Malietoa Talavou and his supporters from Mulinu'u.

Malietoa Talavou eventually won the war, and in 1873 the rival Malietoa factions held peace talks. Talavou agreed to return to his power base in Savai'i and to allow Laupepa to become king and be the leader of the newly formed centralised government. The government was set up as follows:

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  King (Laupepa and a representative from Sa Tupua)   │
│                    (Pulepule)                        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  Fono a Taimua                       │
│          (14 representing the major districts)       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  Fono a Faipule                      │
│          (19 representing the sub districts)         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

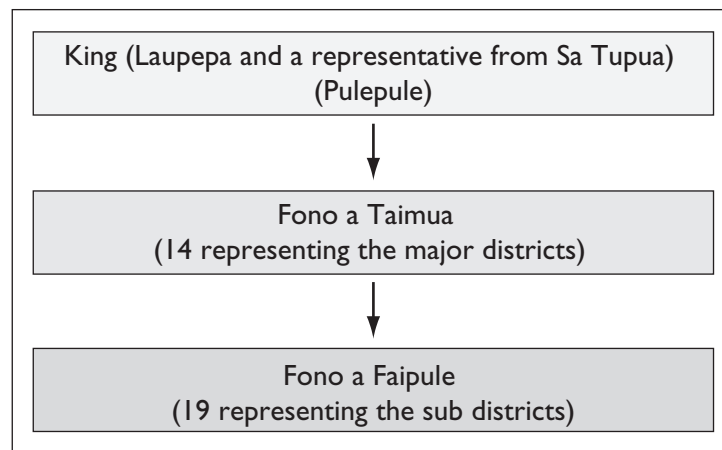Although one aim of the confederation was that the European claims on land would be legitimised, Taimua and Faipule both agreed that unproven land claims would be dismissed. This annoyed the Europeans because most of their land claims were unproven and had mainly been made in the last four years, when the Sāmoans were selling land in exchange for food and arms.

War between between Malietoa Laupepa and 'Taimua and Faipule': 1877

Taimua and Faipule were dissatisfied with Laupepa for signing the order for deportation of Steinberger. Steinberger was an American who sympathised with the Sāmoan people and opposed the land claims made by the Europeans, and he had ordered an enquiry on the issue.

Taimua-Faipule asked Laupepa to stand down as king. Laupepa did, and he set up his headquarters in Malie and called it the Puletua (rule from the back). Taimua-Faipule ruled for a while, but dispersed as they could not handle the pressure from the settlers and the rivalry between the powers. Talavou used this opportunity and moved in to Mulinu'u.

Talavou set up a new government and called it the Pulefou. He was made king and Laupepa vice king, but after Talavou died (1880), Laupepa was made king again in 1881, and this angered Mataafa who left the Tupua side to join Talavou in the Pulefou. The opposing side therefore made Tupua Tamasese their king.

In 1881, the **Lackawanna** Treaty was signed on the United States naval ship *Lackawanna* to bring the two parties together in a new compromise. Malietoa remained the king, with Tupua Tamasese the vice-king, and later they would take turns at being king.

Malietoa Laupepa versus Tupua Tamasese, 1884

Malietoa Laupepa drew up a petition to Queen Victoria asking her to make Sāmoa a protectorate. Laupepa was not happy with the Germans and how they had treated the Sāmoans.

Theodore Weber, the German consul, did not like what Laupepa had done, so retaliated by claiming ownership of the land in Mulinuʻu and expelling Malietoa from the area. Local Germans then backed Tupua Tamasese and encouraged him to form a government again.

Theodore Weber was also the manager of the German firm, Godeffrey and Sohn, which had set up plantations in Vaitele. He was further disappointed because he wanted to expand the plantations, but an issue on land claims was prohibiting this. He therefore supported Tupua Tamasese, so that if he became king, German land claims could be legitimised.

Tamasese attacked Malietoa and his allies. Malietoa was defeated and withdrew into the bush, but eventually gave himself up to save his people being fired upon by a German warship. He was exiled to Marshall Island. Tamasese and his German advisors went too far and he proclaimed himself the tafaʻifa, which angered Mataafa who at that time held the Tui Aana (papa title) and had a claim to the Malietoa title.

Tupua Tamasese versus Mataafa Iosefa, 1888

War broke out between Tupua Tamasese and Mataafa Iosefa. Tupua was supported by the Germans once again and Mataafa by other Europeans who lent him arms and other weapons. The competing foreign powers sent for naval support and the escalating war was only prevented by the hurricane of 1889, which sank all the war ships except for the *Calliope*, a British vessel, and prevented the three powers from going to war over Sāmoa.

Figure 3.1.8 Mataafa Iosefa

1889 'Berlin Act'

Mataafa won the war, but under the Act Malietoa was made king. The Act was signed in Berlin by the three great powers: America, Britain and Germany. It:

❑ acknowledged Malietoa Laupepa as king

❑ set up a Supreme Court

❑ avoided going to war

❑ established joint government by the three powers

❑ set up a Land commission to analyse the land claims by the Europeans.

In 1891 Tupua Tamasese Titimaea died and was succeeded by his son Tupua Tamasese Lealofi I. In 1893 another conflict broke out between Mataafa and Malietoa, but Mataafa was crushed and was sent to exile. Five years later, in 1898, Malietoa Laupepa died and was succeeded by his son Malietoa Tanumafili I. The same year, Mataafa returned from exile.

Mataafa Iosefo versus Malietoa Tanumafili I, 1899

Mataafa Iosefo was disappointed that the consuls had chosen a mere boy of 19 years to be king instead of him. According to Mataafa, *'they forced him, against his will, to leave his school at Leulumoega, and he came to Apia and lived in the houses of some of the white men so that he might always be under their control'.* (Transcript from the Cry of Mataafa to the three Great Powers.) Also, Mataafa had all the right genealogical links to the Tafaʻifa, and yet the Europeans chose Malietoa Tanumafili I, the successor of Laupepa. As a consequence, Mataafa and his supporters prepared for war and attacked Mulinuʻu. He won the war and Malietoa Tanumafili stood down.

In January 1899 Malietoa Tanumafili's leadership was restored. However, he did not retain his position for long, but resigned the office to take up theological studies in Fiji. The joint commissioners, who by this time were tired of the warring Sāmoans, decided to abolish the office of king altogether and gave full political authority to the local consuls.

In May 1899 Britain renounced claims to the islands of Sāmoa.

Division of Sāmoa

Germany and the United States divided the islands between them. Germany took the western islands because the plantations were centred there, and America took the eastern side because of the strategic location of the harbour in Pago Pago.

Mataafa Iosefo was finally acknowledged and was made paramount chief (aliʻi sili) by the Germans, while the Kaiser was declared the king of Sāmoa.

Consequences Of Civil Wars And Foreign Powers in Samoa

What are the consequences of the civil wars on Sāmoa? What role did the foreign powers play in fuelling/easing the tension?

Useful terms

Instability: continual change;

Customary land: land belonging to extended family;

Dispose: get rid of something.

Immediate And Long-term Consequences Of Civil Wars On Sāmoa

The civil wars impacted greatly on the Sāmoans. The civil wars of the 1800s were different from wars prior to this period because of the foreign influence, and the revolutionary changes they introduced. Perhaps the most obvious outcome of the civil wars was the instability of the central government that they set out to form. Each time war erupted, a new king came to power.

Land Alienation

For the first time, land was sold and private property introduced. Before the Europeans arrived, land did not belong to one person but to the aiga potopoto, that is, it was customary land as opposed to private land. Ownership of land had changed from Sāmoan hands to European. Below is an account from Trood, a resident at the time, who describes how Sāmoans disposed of their land so eagerly and willingly.

> In this year, particularly through the war, the natives in order to raise money to buy arms and food supplies began to mortgage and sell land.
>
> For nearly two years previously several thousand men through being under arms, had been prevented from working on their food plots or otherwise doing anything to support their families, and so the sale of the land…became absolutely necessary; what will become of them and their children and successors in future years gives them no anxiety so long as the present necessity is grappled with; and pieces of land which would have supported them and their families for the next hundred years were bartered away for a rifle or a few tins of biscuits. (1910: 84–85)

Political Changes

Formation of a centralised government was an effect of the civil wars as much as a cause. Nevertheless, it was the first of its kind in Sāmoa. Along with the centralised government, there were laws and regulations set up to govern the people but Sāmoans mainly opposed them. For example, the chiefs did not like taxation because they thought the money went to the Europeans.

Change in location of power bases: Malitoa Laupepa, for example, was traditionally based in Malie but had set up headquarters in Matautu because of proximity to the offices and headquarters of the European consulates.

The division of Sāmoa into two: Western Sāmoa and Eastern Sāmoa. This division came about because of the quarrels of the imperial powers more than because of the civil war itself.

The annexation of Sāmoa by Germany came in 1900, when Britain withdrew its interests from Sāmoa, and Eastern Sāmoa was annexed by America. The colonisation of Sāmoa by Germany saw the emergence of nationalistic feelings.

Demographic Changes

Many people died during battle and indirectly from the effects of civil war. If those who supported Mataafa against Malietoa (who was supported mainly by America and Britain) did not die from gunshots, they died from the unhealthy conditions in the bush where they sought refuge.

Many Sāmoan people moved out of Apia to make way for the development of the new capital. Some were forced from their homes and had to seek refuge elsewhere.

The Impacts of War

Economic changes

European businesses boomed as more Sāmoans were buying their goods. The Sāmoans sold their land for money, and in turn used this money to buy weapons and food. The system of exchange or barter was being replaced by an economy where money was used to buy goods and services.

Introduction of European weapons

The civil wars of the 1800s were the first time Sāmoans used European weapons. As a result, more people were killed and injured than had been the case in earlier Sāmoan conflicts where battle was of a hand-to-hand nature.
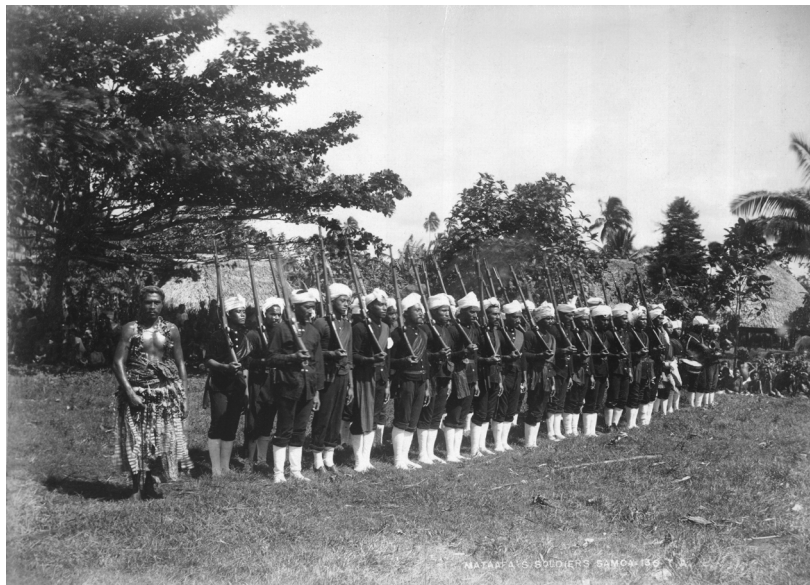
Mataafa Iosefo's Sāmoan soldiers presenting arms

Foreign Powers And Their Influence On Civil Wars

Who were the Foreign Powers and how did they influence the civil wars? Did they ease the tension, or fuel the already raging civil wars?

There were three main foreign powers in Sāmoa in the 1800s. They were the Germans, the Americans and the British. They were formally represented in Sāmoa by consuls who resided in Sāmoa to make sure that the interests of their settlers and mother country were safeguarded. While the civil wars were raging on Sāmoa, the imperial powers were embarking on a quest to find colonies. It was said that the more colonies, the more powerful the empire was. Note that they were interested in Sāmoa because of its raw materials, and the Pago Pago harbour for its strategic location.

Europeans influenced the civil wars to a great extent, and deepened and intensified the conflict in Sāmoa. Below are two graphs outlining the roles of the Europeans in general and of each country individually.

Table 3.4.1 The role of the foreign powers in the civil wars	
Fuelled the conflict	**Eased the Tension**
❑ Supplied the warring Sāmoans with arms, sometimes with naval ships, e.g. Germans had naval ships standing by to back Tupua Tamasese. ❑ The three powers were also fighting over Sāmoa, each therefore supporting their own paramount chief. ❑ Put their interests first before the people of Sāmoa. For example, they wanted a centralised government so that they could legitimate their claims. ❑ Created mistrust amongst the Sāmoans.	❑ Lakawanna Treaty. ❑ Central government: to some extent it provided law and order. ❑ Berlin Act 1899. ❑ Great Britain renounced its claim over Sāmoa.

Table 3.4.2 Role of the individual countries in the civil wars		
Germany	**Great Britain**	**America**
❑ Interested in Sāmoa because of raw materials to be sent back to Germany. ❑ German plantation was set up (Godeffroy and Sohn). ❑ During the wars of confederation, they backed Tupua Tamasese because Tupua represented the districts that held the German plantations. ❑ German consul was Theodore Weber. He supported the idea of centralised government. ❑ Germany annexed Western Sāmoa in 1899.	❑ 1830, John Williams arrived in Sāmoa. Christianity accepted by Malietoa Vainuʻupo. ❑ During the wars of Confederation, they supported Malietoa title holders. ❑ J.C. Williams (British consul and son of John Williams), introduced 'code of law' and subsequently the 'centralised government'. ❑ Malietoa Laupepa petitioned GB to make Sāmoa a protectorate but GB refused – they wanted full annexation.	❑ Did not play a major role except that they were clear from the start that they wanted Pago Pago harbour because of its strategic importance. ❑ 1899, America annexed Eastern Sāmoa and called it American Sāmoa.

Activity 1

1 Below is a list of questions to help evaluate what were the causes and impact of the civil war. Think about what you have learned.

   a Copy this chart in your exercise book. You will probably need a whole page for it.

   b Working in pairs or groups of three, spend some time answering each question. Work together to discuss the answers. Write your answers in the second column.

   c Have a class discussion about the questions and share answers.

Questions	Our group's answers	Answers from the class
What were the causes of the 'War of Confederation'?		
Why did the Europeans want to set up a 'centralised government'?		
How successful was this newly-formed government?		
Did it achieve its aims?		
How did the Europeans influence the war of confederation?		
What were the impacts of the civil war?		
What are some of the problems that we face today as a direct result of the civil war?		

2 Compare and contrast.

   Results from the **Land Commission** show how much Sāmoan land was claimed by the Europeans. However, most of the claims were not recognised, so land was returned to the Sāmoans. If all the land claims had been recognised, the Sāmoan land would have no longer belonged to the Sāmoans. The lands claimed were cultivable. Consider the following, then answer the questions that follow.

Nationality	Area claimed (acres)	Area confirmed
German	134 419	75 000 = 56%
English	1 250 270	36 000 = 3%
American	302 746	21 000 = 7%
French	2 307	1 300 = 57%
Others	2 151	2 000 = 95%
	1 691 893	135 300 = 8%

- ❑ Land claims confirmed by the Land Commission – 8%
- ❑ This 8% was about 35% of all cultivable land
- ❑ The municipal area and plantation belt of the northern coast of Upolu lost close to 60% percent of cultivable land.

Dr Kekuhi Blaisdell of Hawaii says, 'Today we are victims of depopulation. We live in a foreign system. Foreigners come here not to enjoy our culture, not to speak our language, not to worship in our ways and share our spirituality but to use us and our natural resources to serve their ends.

'The main way to revitalise our culture is to return to the ways of our ancestors and regain control over our natural resources. But our lands have been stolen. So we have to repossess our lands because returning to our lands and living off our lands is essential to our culture.'

Gilson said 'the Sāmoans got a very good deal from the commission and . . . could well ask themselves if any colonial government by a single power would have considered their land interests as favourably as the commission'.

- **a** What problem is identified in the above documents?
- **b** How serious is the problem for both islands? Give reasons for your answers.
- **c** According to the Unit, what organisation stood firmly against the land claims by the Europeans in Sāmoa?

Conflict In The Promised Land (Palestine/Israel)

> ## Useful terms
>
> Zionism: Jewish movement aimed at the formation of a Jewish nation in Palestine;
>
> Anti-Semitism: Behaviour and beliefs hostile to Jews;
>
> Diaspora: The dispersal of the Jewish people;
>
> Fedayeen: A commando, or guerrilla fighter;
>
> Holocaust: The Nazi attempt to kill all Jews under their regime;
>
> Mandate: a territory governed by another State on behalf of the international community;
>
> Exodus: A departure; specifically, the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, led by Moses.

The conflict in Palestine is about the struggle of the Palestinians and the Israelis over Palestine. The causes and consequences, as well as the role played by foreign powers, will be analysed.

What Were The Causes Of The Arab/Israel Conflict?

> ## Useful terms
>
> Dispute: when two or more countries/people do not agree on something;
>
> Assimilate: to merge with the dominant culture;
>
> Capture: to take prisoner;
>
> Declaration: an open announcement;
>
> Proposal: something put forward, an announcement;
>
> Allies: team or partners sharing a common goal;
>
> Communism: an ideology whereby property is publicly owned, e.g. the former USSR.

Palestine is the name the Romans gave to the area of land between the river Jordan and the Mediterranean after they had exiled most of the Jews from the region. Palestine is sometimes referred to as the Holy Land because certain places, notably the city of Jerusalem, have a special significance for the Jewish, Muslim and Christian religions. It is also often referred to as 'The Promised Land' by followers of Judaism and Christianity, because it is described in their sacred scriptures and writings as being promised to the Jews by God. After World War One, parts of the same area were freed from Turkish rule and placed under British mandate by the League of Nations, and named Palestine.

The main groups of people involved in this conflict were:

The Jews

Zionism

Zion was the old Jewish name for the homeland, and those who were 'lovers of Zion' became known as Zionists. They opposed other Jews who wanted to assimilate and blend in with the culture of whatever country they lived in. The Zionist movement came about as a result of a series of violent attacks in the early 1880s, known as pogroms, on the Russian Jews. In 1882, the Zionist movement was founded and dedicated to the formation of the Jews' own nation state. They argued that it was given to them by the mercy of God, and it was theirs as recorded in the archives of history.

A modern exodus

Jews began to migrate to Palestine in large numbers. The growing fear of anti-Semitism in many countries, together with nationalistic feeling, led to these mass waves of migration (exodus). They lived in settlements called kibbutzim. These were communal because they paid no wages, but profits and crops were shared among the people who lived and worked on the kibbutz.

The Arabs

The Arabs had occupied Palestine when the Jews were exiled many centuries before. To these people, it was their homeland too. The migration of the Jews into Palestine did not raise any resentment among the Palestine Arabs until after 1908. The Arabs sold land to and even worked for the Jewish people.

The word Arab is most commonly used to refer to any person of the Middle East or North Africa whose mother tongue is the Arabic language. In this sense, there are nearly 300 million Arabs. Many members of certain groups, such as the Maronite Christian Arabic-speakers of Lebanon, or the Arabic-speaking Copts of Egypt, or Arabic-speaking Jews, reject this definition, wishing to identify not with a group defined by language but with a narrower one defined by religion or shared communal history.

Most, but not all, Arabs have embraced the religion of Islam.

The Palestinians

While the largest population of Palestinians is found in the lands which constituted British Mandate Palestine, over half of Palestinians live elsewhere as refugees and emigrants. The world-wide distribution of Palestinians in 2001, according to estimates, were as follows.

Country or Region	Population
West Bank and Gaza Strip	3 299 000
Israel	1 013 000
Jordan	2 598 000
Lebanon	388 000
Syria	395 000
Saudi Arabia	287 000
Gulf states	152 000
Egypt	58 000
Other Arab states	113 000
The Americas	216 000
Other countries	275 000
TOTAL	8 794 000

Thus 49% of Palestinians live in the British Mandate bounds of Palestine – 38% in the West Bank and Gaza Strip and 12% in the boundaries of Israel – while 51% live elsewhere.

There are 4 082 300 Palestinians registered as *refugees* with UNRWA; this number includes the descendants of refugees from the 1948 war, but excludes those who have emigrated to areas outside of the UNRWA's remit. Thus, 46% of all Palestinians are registered refugees.

The outbreak of the World War One saw the beginning of the conflict over Palestine.

Britain's declaration of war on Turkey (an ally of Germany, which was the main enemy) on the 5 January 1914 affected the Arabs.

Why was Britain interested in the Arabs/Middle East?

❑ They wanted to control the Suez canal as a route to India, their colony.

❑ They didn't want the Middle Eastern oil fields to fall into the hands of their enemies.

How were the Arabs involved?

The British knew that the only way to defeat the Turks was to use the Arabs. The Turkish Empire had ruled in the Middle East for 800 years and the Turks knew the area well. If the British forces were sent in against the Turks, there was a big chance of them losing. Britain then negotiated with Hussein Ali (Sherif of Mecca)

to mount a joint operation of Arabs and British against the Turks. In return, the British High Commissioner in Cairo, Sir Henry McMahon, promised to recognise and support the independence of the Arabs in all the regions.

Britain and France (another Agreement)

Britain and France were allies, and during World War One they negotiated the division of the Turkish Empire should they win the war. This was known as the Sykes-Picot Agreement and was accepted by both governments in 1916.

Britain and the Jews (yet another Promise)

Britain's promise to the Jews that they could form a separate Jewish state is outlined below in the Balfour Declaration.

> *Dear Lord Rothschild,*
>
> *I have much pleasure in conveying to you, on behalf of his Majesty's Government, the following declaration of sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspiration, which has been submitted, to and approved by the Cabinet.*
>
> *'His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavour to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done that may prejudice the civil and religious rights of the existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in other country.*
>
> *I should be grateful if you would bring this declaration to the knowledge of the Zionist Federation.*
>
> *Yours sincerely,*
>
> *Arthur Balfour*

The Mandates

In the 1919 peace talks, an Anglo-French plan was accepted. Lands in the Middle East that had formerly been under the now-defeated Turkey were given to France and Britain to look after and to prepare them for self-government. France received Syria and Lebanon while Britain was given Iraq, Transjordan and Palestine. By this time Britain was faced with a problem in Palestine because both the Arabs and the Jewish people no longer trusted Britain. The Arabs felt especially cheated because they had supported Britain in overthrowing the Turks.

The 1930 White Paper

The 1930 White Paper refers to Britain's response to the problem in Palestine. This report proposed partition, and Weizmann (a campaigner for Zionism in Britain) accepted while the Arabs rejected it. As a consequence, the British rejected the report and violence and terrorist attacks broke out again.

Migration and Holocaust

Jews began to migrate into Palestine in great numbers as anti-Semitism grew in Germany. Hitler's Nazi party in Germany would go on to kill about six million Jews, and they displaced many more.

The 1939 White Paper

Another commission, another report, and again partition was recommended, but this time the area assigned to the Jews was small. In addition, immigration was limited and eventually stopped. Britain hoped that the Arabs would accept this. Why? World War Two was looming, and again Britain wanted to safeguard the Suez Canal and did not want the oil-fields to fall into hostile hands. The Arabs had also threatened to support Germany and its allies.

The Struggle to form a Jewish State

How were the Jews in Palestine involved in the Second World War?

On the outbreak of World War II, the Jews in Palestine volunteered their services to Britain and their allies. There were two main reasons why they did this: (**1**) they wanted to defeat Hitler because of what he was doing (the Holocaust), and (**2**) they were still pushing for an independent state. Not all Jews supported Britain. Extremists were still annoyed at Britain over the 1939 White Paper and their aim was to drive the British out of Palestine. Hence, they formed terrorist groups that attacked the British during and after the Second World War.

Independence is Proposed/Accepted/Formed

Towards the end of World War II, there was increasing pressure on Britain from Jews in America and the Jews in Palestine to relax their immigration policy. As Britain had been weakened by the war, they invited America to participate in a committee of enquiry into the post-war situation of the Jews. This came to be known as the Peel Commission.

Under this commission, the immigration ban was lifted and partition recommended. The British objected and consequently withdrew from Palestine and handed it back to the United Nations. In August 1947, the United Nations recommended Palestine be partitioned in accordance with the Peel Commission. So in May 1948 the new state of Israel was formed. David Ben-Gurion became the first Prime Minister, and Jews in Israel were now called Israelis.

Arab Response

The Arabs rejected the partition, and the future Palestinian Leader Yasser Arafat claimed that 'The Assembly [of the UN] partitioned what it had no right to divide – an indivisible homeland.' The proclamation of the new state of Israel started the modern Arab-Israeli conflict. It took the form of terrorist attacks, and two wars between Israel and the Arab world. Today, people on both sides are suffering the effects of the conflict and the terrorist attacks continue.

The Arab League

❑ Formed in 1945

❑ Sought to unify the Arab community on the basis of a common language, religion and culture

❑ At the time of its formation all Arab countries had achieved independence, except for Palestine

❑ Opposed the establishment of the State of Israel

❑ Tried to carry out policy of economic co-operation.

The Wars Fought Between Arabs And Israel

What wars were fought between Israel and the Arabs after the partition (in 1947)?

Useful terms

Intervene: to come between or interfere in the affairs of others

Launch: to start an attack

Partition: to divide

Invasion: the attack on a country.

Terrain: the land, mountains, rivers etc.

May 1948–July 1949

This war marked the first of a series of wars between the Arabs and Israel. The Arabs were angry at the partition and the subsequent formation of the independent state of Israel, and attacked Israel with the aim of driving Israelis out and taking back the land that had once belonged to them. However, Israel resisted the invasion and drove the Arabs back as well as capturing even larger areas of Palestine. Why did Israel win? It was superior in arms, as it had been purchasing large quantities of arms, especially from Russia and America. Secondly, The Haganah (Israeli army) was well experienced, as it had been trained in World War II by the British, and also knew the terrain well. Thirdly, the Jews were fighting for survival; if they lost, they would have had nowhere to go. Fourthly, and perhaps most importantly, was the division and mistrust among the Arab nations themselves. On one hand, some Arabs wanted a unified Arab state (Pan Arabism), but on the other there was growing nationalist feeling in other Arab countries. For example, when Jordan annexed land not occupied by Palestinians, other Arabs objected.

The Second Israeli War (Suez Crisis)

Cause

This war was a significant one because it saw the intervention of foreign powers.

Colonel Abdul Nasser, who came to power in Egypt in 1952, was a nationalist who wanted his country to be free of foreigners and to be the leader among the Arab states.

By this time, the United States of America was friendly with the Arabs, as indicated in the Baghdad Pact that aimed at supporting them against communism.

Turkey, Pakistan, Iraq, Iran and Britain joined, but Egypt refused because it had already signed an agreement with Russia in 1955, agreeing to exchange Egyptian cotton for Czechoslovakian arms. The United States reacted by offering US$50 million to Egypt to build its Aswan Dam. Nasser rejected the offer, nationalised the Suez Canal and used its revenue to pay for the dam. Another reason behind this war was the arms race between Israel and the Arab countries. Prior to 1955, a Tripartite Declaration was signed by Britain, America and France to limit the sale of arms to the Middle East. The arrangement between USSR and Egypt over the sale of arms prompted Israel to purchase arms from France after Britain and America had declined to supply them.

Reaction

Britain and France supported Israel when it launched an attack on Egypt on the 29 October 1956. They bombed military targets but were unsuccessful in taking over the Suez Canal, as the Egyptians had blocked it. The Soviet Union intervened by threatening to back Egypt if they (Britain, France and Israel) did not withdraw their forces. The United States did not intervene, but it was ready to back Israel if the USSR moved in. As a result, the foreign powers withdrew and Nasser was hailed as an Arab hero. The failure of Britain and France to achieve their aims was an embarrassment for them, and since then they have played little part in the Middle East.

So who were the main foreign players in the Middle East?

The main super powers were the USSR and the US. The primary manner in which the United States and the USSR fuelled the Arab-Israeli conflict was by supplying arms to either side. As we have seen, Nasser struck a deal with the USSR to obtain arms. The US, following the Suez crisis, promised to supply arms to any middle-eastern country that opposed communism.

Table 3.5.1 Supply of weapons		
Year	**USSR supplied the Arabs**	**USA supplied Israel**
1968–1973	Arms worth US$2.6 million	Weapons worth US$1.3million Economic aid worth US$420 million
1970	20 000 Soviet military advisors in Egypt, including Soviet pilots flying Egyptian aircraft	
1974	Egypt and Syria received about US$4 million	Israel bought arms from USA valued at US$1.5 million

The Six-Day War

The third war, known as the 'Six Day War', occurred in June 1967. The war, along the border between Israel and Syria, started when the Syrians tried to divert the waters of the River Jordan and the Israelis resisted by force.

The Israeli Minister of Defense, Moshe Dayan, decided that if Israel was to avoid defeat it had to strike first. On 5 June, Israel launched a massive air strike against

Egypt, virtually wiping out its airforce. With no air cover, the Egyptian ground forces were helpless and could not defend themselves, and within three days Israeli tanks had reached the Suez Canal. In the east, the Israelis drove the Jordanians back across the Jordan River, and by 9 June the Israeli army controlled the Golan Heights in Syria and was on the road to Damascus. The United Nations called for a cease-fire and this was accepted by Jordan on the 7 June, and then by Egypt and Syria. By 10 June, Israel had won one of the most remarkable victories in modern history.

The Israeli victory over the combined Arab forces in the Six-Day War of June 1967 was swift and complete, but it did not settle the conflict over Palestine. The Arab view was that this was just one round in a continuing fight, which they lost then, but which they would win next time.

The Arabs strike back: the 1973 War

The 1973 war was the fourth Arab-Israeli war. Egypt's president Nasser was succeeded by Anwar Sadat (1970–1981), who realised that it was going to be very difficult to defeat Israel in battle. He felt that only the super powers could bring the two sides together. He tried to do this by expelling the USSR from Egypt so that the US would take its place as Egypt's sponsor. When this did not happen, he determined to force the issue by showing the US that the existing situation would never allow for lasting peace or security. On the 6 October 1973, in conjunction with his Syrian allies, Sadat launched the fourth Arab-Israeli war.

There was cease-fire on 24 October. Israel won but at very high cost, in lost men and equipment. However, Sadat had erased the Arab humiliation after the 1967 war and had proved that the Arabs could still hit back at Israel with equal force and would continue to do so until a settlement was reached.

The war also showed that the Arabs could hurt Israel's Western allies too. To support the efforts of the army in the field, the oil-producing Arab states placed an embargo on the United States and also reduced oil shipments to Western Europe. The Western powers were thrown into confusion by the sudden shortage of oil for their industrial economies. Now at last, the Arabs had a weapon that would make the superpowers take notice.

Israel felt more isolated than ever before. Communist states and nearly all third-world countries supported the Arab cause. There was also isolation from Western countries because of the Arab oil embargo.

Any hope for peace?

❑ In March 1979, the Middle East Peace Treaty was signed between Egypt's President, Anwar Sadat, and Israel's Prime Minister, Menachem Begin.

❑ President Carter of the United States of America initiated the peace treaty, and he even went to the Middle East to address the Israeli Parliament.

❑ Under this treaty, Sinai would be returned to Egypt and Israeli ships could use the Suez Canal and the Gulf of Aquaba. Other Arab countries were disappointed with the treaty because only Egypt had gained from it. As a result, they expelled Egypt from the Arab League.

Activity 1

Study the section on 'Conflict in the Promised Land' and answer the following questions.

1 Why is Palestine referred to as the 'Promised Land'?

2 What events in Europe led to migration of Jews to Palestine?

3 Why did Britain make conflicting promises to the Jews and the Arabs? What were Britain's motives?

4 When did Israel become a nation? Who was its first Prime Minister?

The wars

5 How did the Arabs respond to the formation of Israel as a new state?

6 Why do you think Israel won the first Arab/Israeli war? Explain the factors that contributed to their victory.

7 What was the cause of the Suez Crisis? Why did Britain and France intervene? What were the outcomes of this war?

What Are The Consequences Of The Palestinian/Israeli Conflict?

What have been the consequences of the Palestinian/Israeli conflict for the Middle East?

Useful terms

Refugees: people who have been uprooted from homes and have nowhere to live;

Terrorists: those people who use violence and terror to fight their cause;

Plight: an unfortunate or poor condition;

Recruit: to select;

Settlement: an area where people live.

Human suffering

This is the worst effect of the conflicts. Lots of men have been killed on the battlefield and many more men, women and children killed by attacks during the wars, and as a result of terrorist actions.

Palestine Liberation Organization

The Palestinians were slower to develop an effective movement than were the Zionists. The PLO was the first attempt by Arabs to unify against the Jews. In January 1964, President Nasser had called together the Arab heads of state, the kings and the revolutionaries, to discuss Israel and to put forward a proposal to establish the Palestine Liberation Organization. The proposal was approved and the PLO came into being. A total of 422 representative members of the Palestinian Arab people were appointed to the Palestine National Council that ruled the PLO. The main aim of the PLO was to liberate Palestine and to expel the Israelis from the region. They argued that armed struggle was the only way to liberate Palestine.

Actions

❑ Palestinian National Fund was set up to draw contributions from all those who sympathised with the Palestinians. Saddam Hussein (the leader of Iraq) contributed $4 million per month.

❑ The Palestine Liberation Army was formed.

- ❏ In 1969 Yasser Arafat was elected chairman of the PLO.
- ❏ In October 1974 the Arab summit in Morocco announced that the PLO with Arafat as chairman was the sole and legitimate representative of the Palestinian people.
- ❏ On 13 November 1974, the United Nations recognised him as head of the Palestinian state.

The PLO attracted attention in the western world because of its terrorist activities directed at Israelis. Many Israelis died at the hands of the PLO. For instance 'Black September' terrorists (PLO sympathisers) killed 11 Israeli athletes at the Munich Olympic Games in 1972. Israel has constantly opposed the PLO and Arafat, and argues that it negotiates with countries not organisations. Today, the PLO is still operating and still under the leadership of Yasser Arafat.

Refugees

The Middle Eastern refugee problem was a direct result of the conflict. Before Israel was formed, the Jews did not have a homeland. They had spread throughout Europe, and many other countries in the world; but after 1948 the Palestinians had no home and found that they had become refugees. Palestinians were driven out as Israel took over their land. Initially, the refugees were from Israel, but the numbers grew as Israel annexed other areas, for example the Golan Heights. Below is an estimation of the number of Palestinians living in refugee camps. (1989 United Nations Relief Works Agency.)

Table 3.5.1 Number of Palestinians living in refugee camps		
Country	**Number of Camps**	**Refugees in camps**
Lebanon	13	148 809
Syria	10	75 208
Israel – West Bank – Gaza Strip	19 8	373 586 244 416
Jordan	10	208 716
Total	60	1 050 735

Terrorism

Terrorism was born out of the conflict and is still very much a problem today. Terrorism was carried out by guerrilla fighters (fedayeen) and extremist groups such as Al Fatah (the movement for the national liberation of Palestine), who did not support the idea of negotiation and diplomacy to achieve their aim. They argued that the world did not take seriously the plight of the Arabs, and they took matters into their own hands, killing any Israeli regardless of age and gender.

Al Fatah usually recruited their members from Palestinians in the refugee camps. The refugees could be used in this way, because they had suffered a great deal because of Israel.

Al Fatah was later headed by Arafat and was used by the Syrian Government to raid the Israeli border settlements

Arafat, the leader of the PLO, is often described as a terrorist although he regards himself as a freedom fighter.

Activities of terrorists ranged from throwing stones, raiding Jewish settlements, looting, suicide bombing and hijacking of planes. It was widespread and targeted Israelis and their perceived British and American allies.

Economy

The economies of the Arab countries and Israel were not developed to their full potential because the bulk of their financial resources was channelled into the war effort. For instance, Israel spent a quarter of its assets on war when funds were urgently needed for housing, education, health and agriculture.

Activity 1

Answer the questions below

1 Who is to blame for the refugee problem?

Use the accounts below and your knowledge of the conflict to support your answer.

> Palestinians say that Israel caused the refugee problem because they kicked the Palestinians out of their homeland.
>
> Israel says that one day's revenue from the sale of oil would solve the refugee problem overnight, but the Arabs allow the problem to continue because they want to attract the world's attention to the plight of the Palestinians. Israel has given as much to the Palestinian Refugee camps as any Arab state.
>
> The Arab reply is that the Palestinian's right to their homeland is not for sale.

2 Are the actions of terrorism justified?

Use the sources below to support your answer.

> Most people argue that terrorism has harmed the Palestinian cause. The terrorists' reply to this is that the world ignored the Palestinian plight until they engaged in violent attacks.
>
> Palestinians also argue that their actions are in response to the greatest act of terrorism of all – that is, Israel taking over Palestine.
>
> Many people – men, women and children of all ages – have died at the hands of the terrorists. This problem continues and is spreading. For instance, around 3000 people were killed in the September 11 attack on the Twin Towers in New York in the United States of America.

Unit 6

Role Of Foreign Powers In Middle East Conflict

What role did foreign powers play in the conflict? Did they ease the tensions or intensify the problems in the Middle East?

Useful terms

Foreign: not local, from outside

Humanitarian: the improvement of human welfare

Safeguard: to protect.

There were five main foreign influences on the Middle East: Britain, USA, France, USSR and the United Nations.

Britain

It seems that Britain had guaranteed the Promised Land to more than one country.

The British played a major role in the conflict. Their intervention made matters worse for both the Arabs and Israel. Britain interfered to safeguard its own interests in the Middle East because of the Suez Canal, which provided a route to India, at that time a colony of Britain. Britain's intervention can be summarised as follows:

- ❑ 1915: McMahon (British High Commissioner in Egypt) promised to support the Arabs in their fight for independence from the Turkish rulers if they fought alongside Britain in World War One.

- ❑ 1916: The Sykes–Picot Agreement between France and Britain on how to divide the Middle East after the war.

- ❑ 1917: The Balfour Declaration. Britain promised the Zionists that they could set up an independent State of Israel.

- ❑ 1917–47: The British mandate failed to solve the problem. At one point, the British were sympathetic to the Jews and the next to the Arabs. Under British mandate rule, the Peel Commission was set up and recommended partition. On the eve of World War Two, Britain halted Jewish immigration because they wanted the support of the Arabs, who were threatening to support Britain's enemy. Also, because of their interest in the Suez Canal, Britain did not want it to fall into hostile hands.

- ❏ In 1948, Britain left Palestine.
- ❏ 1956 – the Suez Crisis. Britain and France attacked Egypt.

USSR

The post-World War II era sees two superpowers emerging, engaged in the Cold War, a non-violent war of ideology; *communism* versus *capitalism*. The main interest of the USSR in the Middle East was the spread of communism, and they fuelled the conflict mainly by supplying arms. The USSR's intervention can be summarised below:

Struck a deal with Egypt to exchange cotton for arms.

Threatened to intervene in the Suez Canal if Britain and France did not withdraw their forces. The USSR threatened to use its nuclear weapons.

USA

The US supported Israel because of influential Jewish Americans. The US played an important role in easing the tension as well as fuelling it at other times.

Supplied Israel with arms and economic aid.

Eisenhower Doctrine of support to any Arab nation that resisted the spread of communism.

President Carter initiated a peace treaty between Israel and Egypt in 1978.

France

Minimal impact but they contributed to the conflict by first selling arms to Israel, and fighting alongside Israel in the Suez war.

United Nations

The United Nations was formed after World War II. Its main role was to send in peacekeeping forces and to resolve disputes. Some Pacific countries have sent forces to the Middle East to observe; not to fight but to make sure that both sides, Israel and its Arab neighbours, respect a cease-fire. Australia, New Zealand and Fiji have all sent troops to be part of the United Nations peacekeeping forces. The United Nations was heavily involved in the conflict in the Middle East, but none of its efforts have got very far as today the conflict continues.

However, intervention has eased the tension at some stages of the conflict. This has been achieved through peacekeeping missions and humanitarian aid.

Peacekeeping forces for instance were sent to stand between the Egyptian and Israeli forces while the Suez Canal was cleared, but as soon as they left, conflict resumed and resulted in the Six-Day War.

UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for the Palestinian refugees). It was set up in 1949 to help the refugees, and it provided education, healthcare and relief services.

Activity 1

Answer the questions below:

1 Why was there a lot of interest in the Middle East from:
   a Britain   b France   c USA   d USSR?

2 What specific actions were taken by these powers to ease the tension in the Middle East? Did they achieve this?

3 What was the role of the United Nations in the conflict? How successful were they in maintaining peace?

Origins of the Middle East Conflict

1890		
	1897:	World Zionist Organisation Formed
1900	**1909**:	Jewish town of Tel Aviv founded in Palestine
	1914–18:	First World War
	1915:	MacMahon promised the Arabs to support their fight for independence if they supported Britain in World War One
1910	**1916**:	Sykes–Picot Agreement to divide Middle East between Britain and France
1920	**1917**:	Balfour Declaration
	1920–48:	Palestine became a mandate of Britain
1930	**1933**:	Nazi Party in power in Germany and anti-Semitism grew
	1937:	Peel Commission recommended partition of Palestine
	1938–39:	White paper that limited immigration into Palestine
1940	**1945**:	Arab League formed
	1947:	United Nations votes to partition Palestine
	1948:	Britain departs Palestine Israel declares itself a nation state Arabs declare war on Israel (first war)
1950		
	1949:	Jewish immigration ban lifted UNRWA established
1960	**1956**:	Suez Crisis (second war)
	1957:	Eisenhower Doctrine to support anti-communist states
1970	**1964**:	PLO formed
	1967:	Six Day War
	1969:	Yasser Arafat becomes chairman of PLO
1980	**1973**:	Fourth Arab-Israeli war. Oil embargo
	1974:	PLO given responsibility as representative of all Palestinians
1990	**1990s**:	International diplomatic relations increase

Revision

Compare and Contrast

1 From your knowledge of the units, fill out the table below by answering the questions in groups of three or four.

2 Compare your group's answer with the other groups in the class.

3 With the help of your teacher, write an essay on one of the following topics:

   a How were the causes of conflict similar in Sāmoa in the 1800s and in Palestine today?

   b Explain the immediate and long-term consequences of the conflicts on the people of Sāmoa and Palestine.

   c Are foreign powers to be blamed for the ongoing conflict in Palestine? Give reasons for your answer.

	Palestine	**Sāmoa**
Make a list of the causes of conflict. Say whether they are similar or different.		
List the consequences. Similar or different?		
Scale of war. Similar or different?		
Intervention of foreign powers. Similar or different?		

Short answer questions

1 What is Zionism?

2 What do these terms mean? Exodus and Diaspora.

3 What was the 1920 White Paper about?

4 Who was Balfour?

5 Which country nationalised the Suez Canal?

6 What is the PLO and who is its leader?

7 When was Israel formed and who was its first Prime Minister?

8 What does anti-Semitism mean?

9 What branch of the United Nations was set up to help the refugees in Palestine? When was it set up?

10 Why did Britain stop migration to Palestine? When did this happen and why was the ban lifted again?

11 What does tafaʻifa mean and how is it similar to 'king'?

12 What does 'centralised government' mean?

13 What was the Lackawanna Treaty?

14 When was the Berlin Treaty signed and what were the results?

15 What was the relationship of Malitoa Laupepa and Malietoa Talavou?

16 Why was Germany interested in Sāmoa?

17 Which paramount chief did Germany favour during the civil wars?

18 What does civil war mean?

Part 3 - Summary

Think through what you have learned through the units in Part 3. Ask yourself if you can do each of the following skilfully, and with in-depth knowledge and understanding.

1 I have discussed the causes of a specific conflict that began in the mid-1900s in what is now called Israel and the surrounding countries in the Middle East.

2 I have discussed the causes of the Sāmoan civil wars that occurred in the Pacific in the 1800s.

3 I can identify and assess the short-term and long-term consequences (of each of the conflicts I have studied in this Part) within their regions, and the role of foreign powers.

4 I have examined the role of an international organisation in easing the tension between colonial territories and their colonial administrations.

5 I can compare and contrast the similarities and differences between specific conflicts and their long-term effects on people, governments and surrounding regions.

Part 4

International Relations

Achievement Objective

At the end of this unit you will know and understand ideologies that shaped Sāmoa's regional and international relations.

Focusing Questions

❏ What are some of the significant treaties signed between Sāmoa and other foreign powers since European contact?

❏ To what extent has Sāmoa contributed to regional and international organisations?

❏ How significant is her membership and how has regionalism impacted on the country?

❏ What are some of the key trends in Sāmoa's foreign policy since 1962? Why?

❏ How effectively has the 'Pacific Way' addressed regional issues within both regional and international forums?

Here are some of the important concepts that you will be learning in this Part. Think about them carefully – and look out for them as you learn about economic processes and patterns of the past and their relationship to the present.

Key Concepts:

Treaties

Pacific Way

International relations

Regional

Colonialism

Trusteeship

Mandate

Introduction

The aim of Part 4 is for students to understand the reasons why Sāmoa is involved in regional and international organisations. It looks at Sāmoa's significant treaties since the contact period with Europeans as well as the trends in its foreign policy.

Part 4 attempts to address the importance of regionalism and why Sāmoa needs to play an ever-increasing role in the Pacific as well as forming good relations internationally. Finally, the notion of the 'Pacific Way' is looked at and its role and place in regional and international forums.

Figure 4.0.1 Abel Tasman's discovery ships Heemskerck *and* Zeehaen

Unit 1

Significant Treaties

What are some of the significant treaties signed between Sāmoa and other foreign powers since European contact?

> ### Useful Terms
>
> Due: owed or owing as a debt;
>
> Significant: important, having influence;
>
> Consul: a person appointed by a government to live in a foreign country to look after its people and interests in that foreign country;
>
> Commercial: work designed for the market (buying and selling);
>
> Rivalry: two or more people competing over something.

From Colonialism To Independence

The earliest recorded treaties signed between Sāmoans and early European visitors were during the early contact period after the missionaries and the traders had come to Sāmoa.

The arrival of missionary John Williams in 1830 impacted greatly on the Sāmoan culture. Williams, by 1834, had produced transcribed texts in the Sāmoan language, traditionally an oral culture, for the very first time.

Captain Bethune of the Conway and some leading chiefs negotiated a commercial treaty in 1838 to establish a system of payment of harbour **dues** in return for guaranteed rights.

A similar agreement protected Commander Charles Wilkes while he carried out detailed surveys for the United States Exploring Expedition.

By 1850, Apia played a **significant** role because it had become a base for Pacific traders and attracted the major powers to Sāmoa.

Britain and America were interested in setting up trading posts. G. Pritchard was appointed the first British Consul in 1847. Similarly the first US **commercial** agent was appointed in 1853. Three years later, Augus Unshelm from Germany began commercial activities in Apia for the Hamburg Company, J.C. Godeffroy and Sohn. In 1861 Theodore Weber, the manager of the same firm, was appointed as the German **consul**.

Figure 4.1.1 Early explorers – British, American and German ships
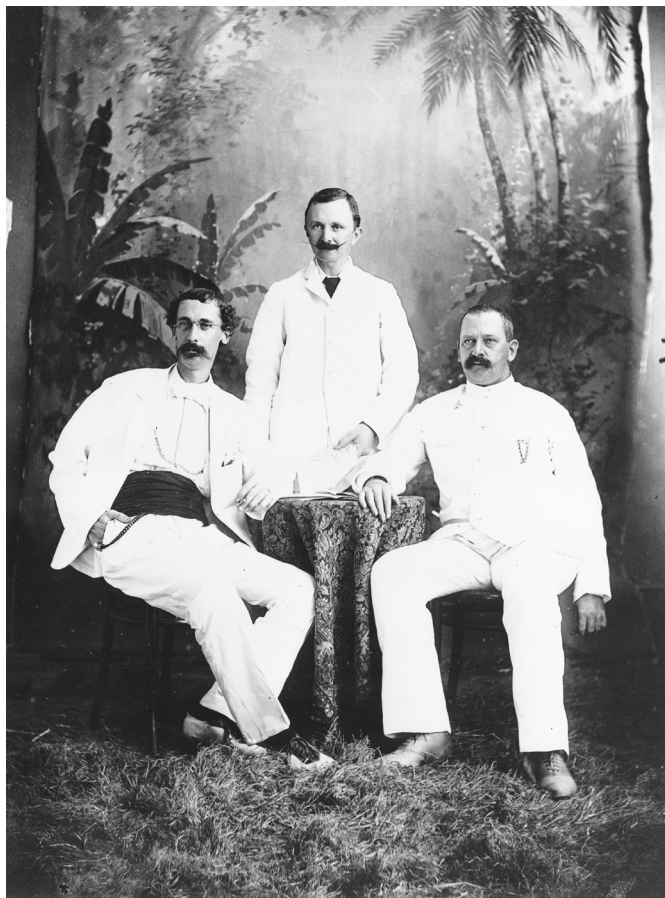
Figure 4.1.2 American, British and German Consuls in Sāmoa

Foreign Powers And Colonial Rule In Sāmoa

In the late 1860s the increasing rivalry between the representatives of Germany, Britain and the United States led to their interference in the issues of Sāmoan chiefly rule.

Sāmoa's two chiefly aiga had become locked in a 30-year conflict between two rival 'kings' after the death of Malietoa Vainu'upo of Savai'i in 1841.

Useful Terms

Negotiation: talking in order to reach an agreement;

Peace settlement: an agreement to end fighting;

Constitution: the principles and laws of a nation;

Independent: self-governing, free from foreign rule;

Municipality: local government in a town or district;

Annulled: cancelled or abolished;

Governed: controlled or ruled.

The concerted efforts of the British and American representatives, helped by the involvement of Colonel Albert Steinberger (US agent), produced **negotiations** in the early 1870s. This resulted in a **peace settlement**, in which Malietoa Laupepa became king in April 1873.

A **constitution** was drafted on the European model to aid Sāmoa in becoming an **independent** state.

Steinberger left his American post and took up the important role of Prime Minister or Premier under King Malietoa.

The constitution was completed and the dispute over chiefly authority was finally settled.

In 1879 the **Municipality** of Apia was set up by the Western Pacific High Commission, with the three consuls (British, American and German) who united to enforce European law on foreigners.

The Berlin Treaty

A significant treaty was signed in 1889, called the Berlin Treaty because it was signed in Berlin, Germany. The treaty established the following:

❑ Malietoa Laupepa as King

❑ An independent Sāmoan government

❑ A Supreme Court of Justice

❑ A Land Commission

❑ A municipal council for Apia

❑ Restrictions on arms and liquor

❑ A tax system (personal tax of $1.00 per adult male and licence fees)

Ten years later, in 1899, in a further series of treaties, the Berlin Treaty was **annulled**. The new arrangements were:

❑ Britain gave up all claims in Sāmoa in favour of Germany and America.

❑ Western Sāmoa was to be **governed** by Germany.

❑ Eastern Sāmoa was to be governed by America.

Figure 4.1.3 King Malietoa at the reading of the Berlin Treaty (or Berlin Act)

Useful terms

Trusteeship: appointment of a country by the United Nations to supervise a trust territory;

Mandate: appointment of a country to establish governance over another nation;

High Commissioner: a representative of one Commonwealth country staying in another, an ambassador of one Commonwealth country to another;

Plebiscite: a vote by the people for or against a proposal.

In 1921 the **Sāmoa Act** established different systems for administration, law and many other things for Sāmoa. It also **confirmed that Sāmoa was a mandate territory of New Zealand** as defined by the League of Nations.

Steps Towards Independence

At the end of World War Two, when the United Nations was established, the New Zealand Prime Minister, Peter Fraser, took a leading role in developing the new **'trusteeship'** system to replace **mandates**. A trust territory like Sāmoa was to be prepared for self-government or full-independence according to the wishes of the people.

In Sāmoa, a strong movement for self-government had grown. Many Sāmoans were dissatisfied with the New Zealand administration. They requested that the United Nations investigate the situation in Sāmoa.

In 1947, a Sāmoan 'parliament' and public service was created. Guy Powles became the **High Commissioner** to Sāmoa and was responsible for drawing up a timetable for self-government.

In 1961, the Sāmoans were asked in a **plebiscite** organised by the United Nations for their views on gaining full independence. A majority of the people (79%) voted for independence. On 1 January 1962, the Sāmoan flag was raised on its own for the first time.

Treaty With New Zealand

A Treaty of Friendship in 1962 laid down the relationship between New Zealand and Sāmoa.

- ❏ Sāmoa's foreign policy outside the Pacific region is negotiated by New Zealand.
- ❏ The education system of Sāmoa is fostered by New Zealand.
- ❏ In 1984–85, bilateral aid to Sāmoa amounted to $6 million.

This Treaty allowed Sāmoa to call on New Zealand for help with foreign relations. New Zealand agreed to sympathetically consider requests for aid and technical assistance.

In 1976 Sāmoa, which used to be called 'Western Samoa' or, in Sāmoan, 'Sāmoa i Sisifo' joined the United Nations, using the name 'Sāmoa' only and it confirmed its present name by a 1997 constitutional amendment.

Figure 4.1.1 Independence Day in Western Sāmoa, 1962. The Sāmoan flag is raised as Keith Holyoake lowers the New Zealand flag

Unit

2 Contribution To Regional And International Organisations

To what extent has Sāmoa contributed to regional and international organisations? How significant is her membership and how has regionalism impacted the country?

Useful terms

Implementation: to put into action;

Indigenous: living naturally in a particular area or environment;

Catalyst: something whose actions inspire further important events;

Dissemination: to spread ideas freely and widely;

Depository: storehouse.

Regionalism: Sāmoan Involvement And More Treaties

The end of World War Two was to see the increased interaction of Sāmoa with the Pacific region as well as with the rest of the world.

Since independence Sāmoa has signed some major treaties, which have had a significant effect on its economy as well as on its place in the Pacific.

1 South Pacific Commission (SPC)

Early co-operation between the colonial powers resulted in the 1947 South Pacific Commission (SPC). The SPC gave advice on economic and social matters to the governments who looked after island territories in the Pacific.

This agreement is also known as the **Canberra Agreement** because it was signed in Canberra, Australia.

The six original members were:

❏ Britain
❏ France
❏ The Netherlands
❏ Australia
❏ New Zealand
❏ United States of America.

Since the signing, the Netherlands withdrew from the Commission in 1962 because it was no longer responsible for the former colony of Dutch New Guinea (Irian Jaya). Later, as many island nations became independent, their political leaders joined the Commission.

Sāmoa was the first independent Pacific nation, joining in October 1965.

The Commission has been involved in improving agriculture, health, and community development.

The SPC agreed to undertake these functions:

❑ to be a vehicle for the development and **implementation** of the concept of regionalism;

❑ to assist in meeting the basic needs of the peoples of the region;

❑ to foster and develop means to facilitate the flow of **indigenous** products, technical know-how and the movement of people among the islands;

❑ to serve as a **catalyst** for development of regional resources that are beyond the capability of individual island governments to develop;

❑ to serve as an aid-organising machine for islands which are otherwise unable to reach aid sources outside the island or outside the region itself;

❑ to act as a centre for collection and **dissemination** of information on the needs of the region and also as a **depository** for such information;

❑ to undertake such other appropriate activities as may be determined by the South Pacific Conference.

Because they were not able to discuss political matters at the conferences of the SPC, leaders of the newly independent countries requested a new regional body. The result was the establishment of the South Pacific Forum.

2 The South Pacific Forum (SPF)

The South Pacific Forum is an organisation of Heads of Government of independent and self-governing countries of the South Pacific. It was established in 1971 at a meeting in Wellington, New Zealand.

The original leaders were from:

❑ Australia

❑ New Zealand

❑ Nauru

❑ Tonga

❑ Sāmoa

❑ Cook Islands

❑ Fiji.

More island states have joined since, so it now has 16 member countries.

Meetings are held annually to discuss a wide range of topics, including trade, shipping, education, fishing rights, and nuclear testing in the Pacific. Different countries take turns in hosting (being the place where the leaders meet).

Tension between colonial and self-governing states caused some of the Pacific islands to form the **Pacific Island Producers Association** as the region's first special purpose organisation in 1965, and the University of the South Pacific in 1970.

The other regional organisations the forum has established:

❑ **South Pacific Bureau for Economic Cooperation (SPEC)**

Established in 1973 to promote trade and industrial development.

❑ **South Pacific Regional Economic Cooperation Agreement (SPARTECA)**

Established in 1981, it was an agreement that allowed unrestricted and duty-free access to all products exported by foreign countries to New Zealand.

❑ **Pacific Forum Line (PFL)**

Established in 1977 to provide a regular shipping link in the region. It is jointly owned by the governments of Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, New Zealand, Nauru, Niue, Papua New Guinea, Sāmoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga and Tuvalu. Named the Forum Sāmoa and Fua Kavenga, the vessels have served the Pacific since 1979.

❑ **Forum Fisheries Agency:**

Set up in 1979, this agreement was to promote policy on fishing zones.

Other committees and organisations which have been of benefit to members include:

❑ **the Pacific Island Tourism Development Council (1975)** which led to the **Tourism Council of the South Pacific (1983)**

❑ **The Pacific Island Development Programme** established in 1980 to provide research, publishing, policy advice and training for the South Pacific Conference.

❑ **The Pacific Island Law Officers Meeting**, established in 1981, to bring together senior government legal advisers.

❑ **The South Pacific Telecommunications Development Program**, which was formed in 1983.

The three significant areas of regional co-operation are those concerned with

❑ fisheries

❑ coastal and submarine minerals

❑ protection of the environment.

Fisheries

To protect fisheries the **Forum Fisheries Agency (FFA)** collects, evaluates and distributes statistical and biological information as well as information about the shipping, processing and marketing of fish.

A major achievement of the FFA was an agreement with the United States in 1987 on a treaty with Forum members over the control of highly migratory fish species.

Driftnet fishing by Japan, South Korea and Thailand concerned the committee. An active campaign to ban this fishing technique resulted in the **Convention for**

the Prohibition of Fishing with Long Driftnets in the South Pacific, which was signed in 1989.

Coastal and Submarine minerals

In 1972 a committee was established for the co-ordination of joint prospecting for mineral resources in the South Pacific. It was renamed as the **South Pacific Applied Geo-science Commission (SOPAC)**. Considerable offshore resource mapping has been completed and mineral deposits located.

Protection of the Environment

The South Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP) secured a Treaty to deal with issues of climatic change, watershed and water quality management, pesticide hazards, the protection of areas and species, natural resources management and pollution control. It also dealt with the problem of radioactive wastes and nuclear testing of explosive devices.

In 1990, SPREP was established as an autonomous regional organisation with its headquarters in Apia.

One of the greatest and most significant achievements in regional co-operation was the **South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty** which followed a long period of regional opposition to nuclear testing and nuclear waste dumping by the United States, Britain and France.

This was the first and most consistent example of collective work on the part of members of the South Pacific Forum.

The treaty (South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty) was signed in Rarotonga in 1985. It prohibited the making or testing of any nuclear explosive device, as well as the dumping of nuclear waste at sea within the treaty area. It stopped short of banning the passage of nuclear armed or powered ships through the region. The Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China also signed the treaty. Finally in 1996 Britain, the United States and France also signed.
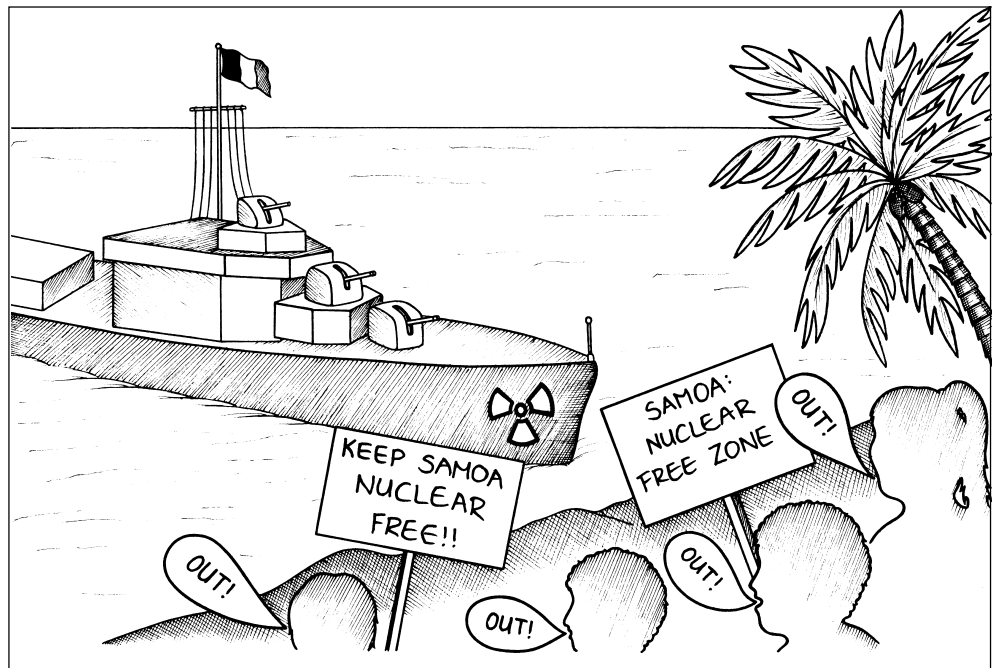
Activity 1 Cartoon Study

1 What nations are represented in the cartoon?

2 Who are the Sāmoans ordering 'out'? Why?

3 What treaty was signed in Rarotonga in 1985, prohibiting the making, testing and dumping of nuclear waste at sea?

Other regional non-governmental bodies who have made a significant impact on political and social developments in the Pacific region are:

❏ The Pacific Conference of Churches (1966) tried to tackle social justice in the region.

❏ The Nuclear Free and Independent Pacific movement (NFIP) – an activist group formed in 1975 that has shifted its focus to issues of indigenous rights especially in New Caledonia, French Polynesia, Hawaii and New Zealand.

❏ Pacific Concerns Resource Centre (PCRC), which deals with many social justice initiatives in the region.

❏ The Pacific Islands Association of Non-Government Organisations (PIANGO), formed in 1991 to develop Pacific identities, cultures and well-being and to co-ordinate communication and provide a common voice at regional forums.

Regionalism is a way to solve the financial and economic problems of the Pacific nations, and Sāmoa has certainly played a key role in the area.

Membership In Regional And International Organisations

How important is Sāmoa's membership in regional and international organisations? To what extent has Sāmoa's involvement in regional and international organisations had a positive impact on her economy?

Sāmoa's membership in regional and international organisations has helped the welfare of the nation.

Economically, Sāmoa has been able to benefit from regional developments in trade, shipping, education, fishing rights, the protection of the environment and telecommunication as well as in many other areas.

One great benefit of these regional organisations has been financial assistance not only to the individual island nations but also to the various regional organisations and agencies.

External Aid

Sāmoa receives much external financial and technical assistance from various sources, i.e. **bilateral** and **multilateral** aid.

Apart from the traditional donors such as New Zealand and Australia, other foreign countries such as Germany, Japan, and the Netherlands have been supporting this country's development efforts.

Foreign Aid

Foreign aid or Official Development Aid (ODA) plays a key role in the economy of Sāmoa. Most island nations have to rely heavily on aid to finance their development programs.

External Aid can be divided into two groups:

Bilateral aid – Financial assistance given by the government of a country to another country. For example, aid from New Zealand to Sāmoa.

Multilateral aid – Financial assistance when a group such as the United Nations or the European Community (EC) sends money to a country or region.

- ❑ In 1993 the Pacific region received a total of US$689.2 million in aid.
- ❑ Australia (US$279.2 million) and Japan (US$130.6 million) were the largest bilateral donors.

❑ Multilateral donors to Pacific island countries in 1993 were the Asian Development Bank (US$42.4 million), the European Development Fund (US$32.1 million) and various United Nations agencies (US $32.4 million).

As well as country-to-country programmes, some donors send aid to regional organisations. Australia is the leading donor to many regional organisations, including the South Pacific Forum Secretariat, the University of the South Pacific and many more. In 1993–94, AUD$32.9 million was allocated to regional organisations and programmes.

Aid is not always just cash or loans given to a country. Aid can be when experts in many technical areas, teachers, equipment and foodstuffs have been sent from one country overseas to help people in another country.

Activity 1

Foreign Aid to the South Pacific Forum Secretariat 1996

People's Republic of China (F120 000)
Korea (F140 000)
Taiwan (F346 000)
France (F385,000)
Canada (F385,000)
United Nations Development Programme (F753 000)
Japan (F845 000)
Australia (F3.27 million)
European Union (F1.48 million)
New Zealand (F1.1 million)

F =French Francs
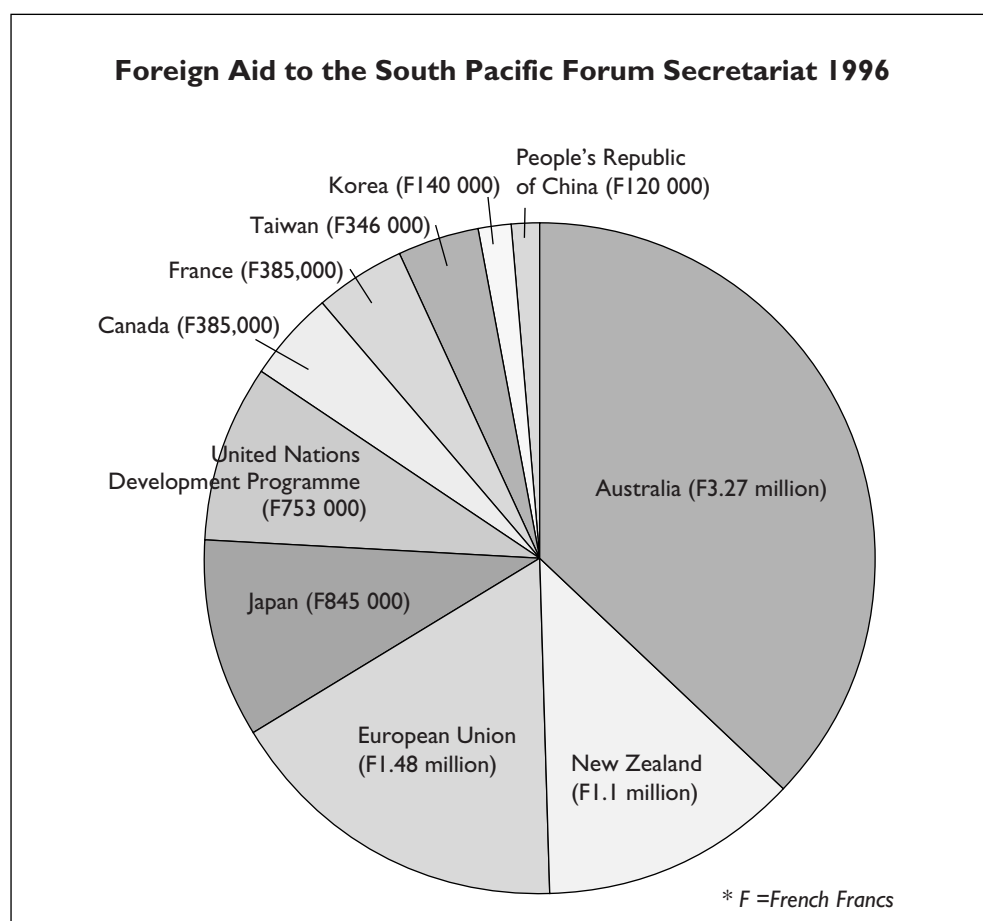
Study the pie chart above and answer the following questions:

1 Which country donates the greatest amount of aid?

2 What is the total amount of aid that the European countries have donated?

3 How much have the Asian countries donated?

4 How much was spent in total aid to the South Pacific Forum Secretariat in 1996?

5 What does the Secretariat do?

Reasons for Giving Aid

- ❑ Maintain political stability in the region. Poverty can lead to political instability and revolution. Poverty can make a country an easy target for stronger countries to take over.

- ❑ Humanitarian reasons (the wish to help those less fortunate than themselves)

- ❑ Donor countries expect something in return for their investment. Rich neighbours make better customers for trade.

Tourism

Sāmoa's involvement in the Tourism Council of the South Pacific contributed to an increase in foreign exchange earnings, increased employment and fostered economic development.

Figure 4.3.1 Visitors to Church College

Figure 4.3.2 Visitors at Insel–Kehmarn Hotel

Sāmoa's tourism **receipts** (money and goods it received) are significantly higher than income from its commodity exports: these range from 20% to 25% of all exports. In 1996, 70 000 tourists visited Sāmoa.

Fisheries

The Pacific islands are rich in fish. They have an enormous sea area, with **exclusive economic zones (EEZ)** – and, thus, fishing grounds of more than 30 million square kilometres, compared to just over half a million square kilometres of land area.

As a member of the Forum Fisheries, Sāmoa has benefited from the licensing agreements with Japan and the United States.

In 1988 the United States signed a Multilateral Treaty on Fisheries with the South Pacific Forum's 16 member countries.

Under this agreement, the United States pays US$18 million for access to fishing grounds. The bulk of this payment is distributed to the member countries on the basis of catch.

Japanese assistance to commercial fishing has undergone considerable development. A fisheries training centre was built and a fish market was opened in Apia in 1983.

Activity 2

1 Draw a timeline from 1960 to 2000. Fill in the timeline, using the title of each Act.

(Do not copy out the information in the boxes)

1990: The Village Fono Act

This is a very important act of parliament. This act, at the national level, confirms and supports the power of the traditional village fono (the ali'i and faipule of the village meeting). This act defines the power and authority of the fono, and its jurisdiction (that is, who and what is under its authority).

This act is not about the marine environment. It is, however, very important to marine environmental management and regulation because it means that if village fono want to make decisions about the marine environment in their village areas, they have the authority to do so.

1972: The Fisheries Protection Act

This act of parliament gives rules to protect the fish resources of Sāmoa by controlling the way fishing boats from other countries take fish from the ocean territory that belongs to Sāmoa. The Government of Sāmoa, under the law, can allow fishing by other countries if it is for research, or, if the fishing by another country will help Sāmoa in some way.

1988: Fisheries Act

This act is about the conservation, management and development of fisheries in the waters of Sāmoa. The Director of Fisheries has the authority to work with fishermen, the industry and villages to form management and development plans. This act also gives the pulenu'u of any village, working with the village, the authority to make by-laws for the conservation and management of the marine environment of their own village.

1977: Exclusive Economic Zone Act

This act prohibits fishing boats from other countries from fishing in Sāmoa's exclusive economic zone without a licence from the Sāmoan government. Our exclusive economic zone (EEZ) is one of the smallest for a Pacific nation. However, it means that for up to 200 kilometres away from our shores, the area of sea or ocean is ours.

This authority supports the strong feelings of responsibility that villages already have about the marine environment that is close to them.

1972: Fish Dynamiting Act

Section 2 of this act makes it illegal for anyone to use dynamite or other explosives to catch fish. The main reason for this act is to protect the marine environment from harmful activities.

1988: Proposed Marine Pollution Act

This act explains what will happen to those who cause pollution in the marine environment of Sāmoa.

1974: National Parks and Reserves Act

This act of parliament helps government to set up and manage national parks and reserves for the benefit of the people of Sāmoa.

2 Draw a chart like the one on the next page in your exercise book. Read the various Acts on the Marine Environment, and fill in the table.

Table 4.3.1 National Laws of Marine Management and Regulations	
Name of the Act/Law	**Main purpose of the Act/Law**
For example, 1962: Article 104 of the constitution	Defined the marine area belonging to the State, in which all citizens of Sāmoa have the right to access.

Communications

Sāmoa has seen considerable improvements to internal and international communications. Under the **Lome Convention**, the **European Economic Community** (EEC) in 1979 granted a loan of $2.5 million to Sāmoa to allow for direct dialling telephone services to other countries by satellite, and improved telex services.

European Economic Community (EEC)

The EEC was formed in 1957 by a group of European countries: namely Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Their plan was to remove all trade barriers and operate a free trade relationship between member countries. Many more countries have joined since its foundation.

Key Trends In Sāmoa's Foreign Policy

What are some of the key trends in Sāmoa's foreign policy since 1962? Why?

Useful terms

Plural economy: more than one economy;

Conservative: traditional;

Progressive: moving forward continuously;

Foreign policy: overseas or external affairs;

Protectorate: a state that is partly controlled by and dependent on the protection of a more powerful state, without being fully taken over.

After achieving the status of 'an independent country' Sāmoa had to make a decision on two different types of policies:

❑ Little change at all.

❑ Progress and many changes.

The first view was that Sāmoa should continue with traditional institutions and a **plural economy**. The plural economy meant that a few Sāmoans and part-Europeans would run the plantations and stores while the majority of Sāmoans would live 'as they had always lived'.

The second view was the need for growth, an expanding economy with Sāmoans participating in commercial agriculture and other kinds of enterprise.

These two views were labelled respectively as **conservative** and **progressive** by many.

The progressive policy became the trend after the gaining of independence. Sāmoa's foreign policy required new initiatives.

Sāmoa found that independence in the modern world was quite different from the pre-colonial independence of the nineteenth century and earlier. Modern technology meant that Sāmoa could not escape from the international network of trade and communication.

With very limited resources the politicians then took two approaches.

- ❑ the pursuit of further economic initiatives and development.
- ❑ the development of regional organisations

Because it was the first Pacific Island to become independent, Sāmoa did not pursue a vigorous **foreign policy**. Its ties with the rest of the world were through the South Pacific Commission and with New Zealand.

There was to be an initial gap of six years before Nauru became independent in 1968, Fiji in 1970, Papua New Guinea in 1975, the Solomon Islands and Tuvalu in 1978, Kiribati in 1979 and Vanuatu in 1980. Tonga re-emerged from its **protectorate** in 1970.

> ## Useful Terms
>
> Self-sufficient: capable of providing for one's owns needs;
>
> Dependent economy: relying on somebody or something else for support or help;
>
> Diversification: expanding into various products or markets.

In the late 1960s it became increasingly obvious that Sāmoa's economy could not be **self-sufficient**. Sāmoa needed overseas aid to assist economic growth and prosperity.

In 1970 Sāmoa joined the United Nations Development Programme and it was classified as belonging to the group of 'least developed countries'.

A Dependent Economy

Sāmoa has a dependent economy because its prosperity depends on foreign aid and the sale of exports to other countries.

Countries with a dependent economy usually identify closely with the country they are dependent on. Sāmoa increasingly looked to New Zealand for assistance.

Foreign economists from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank were consulted and advocated **diversification**.

Due to the tax breaks introduced by the Sāmoan government, a joint Japanese firm, Yasaki Sāmoan Ltd, was established, which specialises in automotive electrical equipment. The success of this alternative export industry encouraged other export industries.

Vailima beer is exported to New Zealand, Hawaii and American Sāmoa and is another example of diversification.

Figure 4.4.1 Tourists at Palolo Deep

Tourism was recommended as a way of taking advantage of indigenous cultural assets and the natural beauty of island settings.

Opinions were divided. Some thought that tourists would bring in much-needed revenue and investment. Others feared that tourism would have a negative effect on Sāmoan traditions.

> ### Useful terms
>
> Depressed: great economic hardship;
>
> Balance of trade: the difference in value between a country's imports and exports;
>
> Remittance: money sent back home;
>
> Third world: poor countries (the less industrialized nations of the world).

In the 1970s developments to promote tourism greatly affected the country as a whole.

The airport and other public facilities were repaired and upgraded. The plan paid off as the number of tourists visiting Sāmoa increased to 25 000 in 1971 from 2200 in 1962. The revenue from the industry in 1971 was a massive $1 700 000.

In 1971 an award-winning travel film *Sāmoa, The Best Kept Secret*, recorded and celebrated the changes.

Most of the Pacific countries, with similar environments and resources, were producing similar products for a limited world market. When there was a world recession in the 1970s, Sāmoa with the other countries of the Pacific who were competing for the same market, experienced **depressed** world market prices.

The goal of all governments was to be independent economically as well as constitutionally. However, by the early 1980s none of the independent island nations had achieved even a favourable **balance of trade** (more exports than imports). Papua New Guinea, the giant of the Pacific, received for its exports only about two thirds of the value of its imports.

Sāmoa's imports were worth about four times the value of its exports. The profits from tourism or **remittances** from citizens overseas were not enough to make up the balance.

According to the 1996 census, the Sāmoan community in New Zealand numbered 101 754 people and remittances from Sāmoans overseas had become a major source of income, amounting to $74.4 million.

Even though two-thirds of the labour force were employed in agriculture and produced 90% of exports, such as coconut cream, coconut oil and copra, the exports were insufficient to cover the huge amounts of imported goods that came into the country.

Sāmoa continues to be highly dependent on loans, foreign aid, technical assistance and remittances from families and relatives overseas. But in spite of the many problems that Sāmoa has experienced since 1962, it has managed to avoid the acute poverty of some **Third World Countries**.

One of the most significant moves that Sāmoa undertook was joining the Commonwealth and the United Nations in 1976.

Figure 4.4.2 Map of the Commonwealth

TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL
Supervises nations who administer Trust territories.

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE
Based at The Hague, Holland. Fifteen elected judges. Serves all member nations. Rules on international disputes.

SECRETARIAT
16 000 staff from all members. The civil services for all UN organisations. Prepares reports statistics, budgets, etc.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

Secretary-General. Elected by General Assembly. Chief Administrative office of the UN.

Organisations include:

IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency)

159 members. Meets annually. Debates any issue. Six major committees. Resolution (non binding) with two-thirds majority. Elects Secretary-General and judges in International Court. Votes UN budget. Helps supervise and select members of other UN bodies.

INSTRAW (International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women)
UNHCR (Office of the United nations High Commissioner for Refugees)
UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund)
UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East)
UNU (United Nations University)

Disarmament Commission

SECURITY COUNCIL
Fifteen members (five permanent and ten elected for two years). Main UN peacekeeping organisation. Can order cease-fires, negotiate, impose sanctions and intervene with force. Permanent members have a veto on decisions. Nominates Secretary-General. Votes for judges in International Court.

UN Forces include:
UNDOF (United Nations Disengagement Observer Force
UNFICYP (United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus)
UNIFIL (United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon)
UNMOGIP (United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan)

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL
54 members elected by General Assembly. Meets twice a year. Supervises the many specialised agencies and commissions. Works through six functional commissions, five regional commissions, eight standing committees and various groups of experts.

Specialised international organisation include:
FAO (Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations)
IDA (International Development Association)
ILO (International Labour Organisation)
IMF (International Monetary Fund)
IMO (International Maritime Organisation)
UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation)
WFP (Joint UN/FAO World Food Programme)
WHO (World Health Organisation)
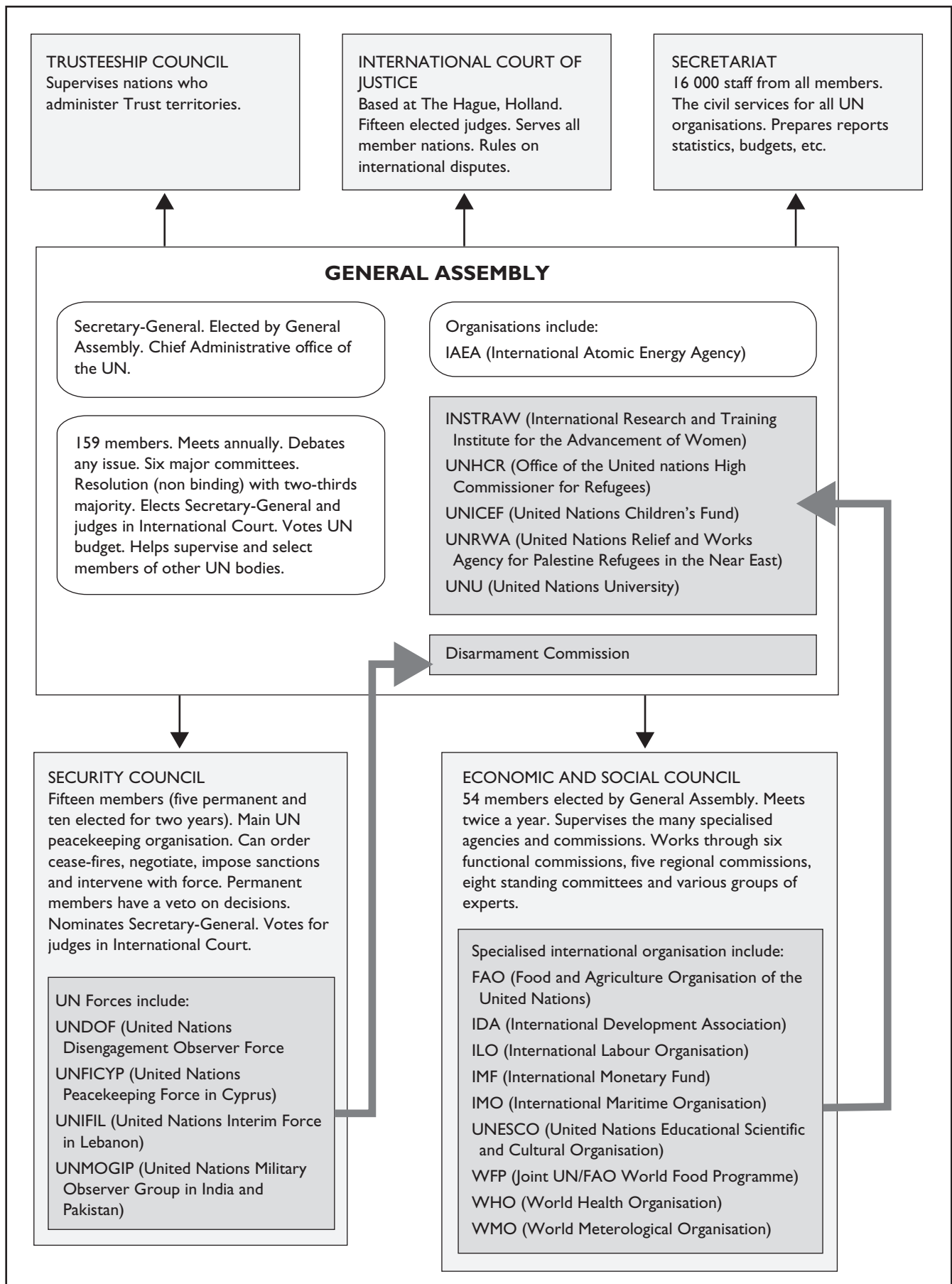WMO (World Meterological Organisation)

Figure 4.4.2 The United Nations System

Useful terms

Diplomatic: international relations;

Identity: the characteristics by which a country can be recognised.

As a result of Sāmoa's foreign policy it has set up **diplomatic relations** with countries such as the United States, Canada, Great Britain, France, Yugoslavia, Russia, China, Israel, Egypt, India, Thailand, Japan, the Philippines, Indonesia, Australia, Chile, and Sweden to name a few.

Regionally, Sāmoa is very active in all of the important organisations such as the South Pacific Forum, South Pacific Commission, South Pacific Bureau for Economic Co-operation and numerous others

In pursuing a strong and active role regionally and internationally, Sāmoa has increasingly been able to retain and assert its own **identity**.

Unit 5

How Effective Is The 'Pacific Way'?

How effectively has the 'Pacific Way' addressed regional issues within both the regional and international forums?

> ### *Useful terms*
>
> Mediation: the action of a middle person to solve a dispute;
>
> Arbitration: the settlement of a disputed issue by a neutral person;
>
> Democracy: a form of government in which the will of the people is expressed through free elections;
>
> Entity: separate and distinct existence;
>
> Evolve: to develop naturally;
>
> Congruent: equal in size and shape, or identical;
>
> Compatible: consistent or capable of existing.

What Is The Pacific Way?

During the 1970s, the phrase the Pacific Way became popular after the Fijian Prime Minister, Ratu Kamisese Mara, had spoken about it to the United Nations General Assembly in 1970.

The phrase or term refers to a way of behaviour that is considered to be appropriate for Pacific islanders.

It has developed from the culture and traditions of the Pacific, especially the traditional laws that are individually referred to as the 'Sāmoan way' – fa'aSāmoa – or 'faka Tonga' or the 'the Melanesian way' and so on.

The Pacific Way can be a method or way of communicating comfortably and effectively with others. It is also a consistent form of behaviour, manners and attitudes, and emphasises shared cultural values such as courtesy and respect for parents and elders, generosity and sharing with others. Basically, it is the **Christian ethic**, and an agreed set of values such as enjoyment in the form of ceremonial dancing, feasting, sports and many other activities.

Today politicians, churchmen and businessmen use it frequently when they speak at important functions.

Figure 4.5.1 Kava making ceremony in Apia, Western Sāmoa

Lecture or speech by Tuiatua Tupua Tamasese Efi, Prime Minister of Sāmoa (1976–77), on 'The Pacific Way' at the University of the South Pacific. He spoke about the 'Fa'aSāmoa' or the Sāmoan way and its basic values and principles.

'I am convinced that for far too long we have imitated and inherited imported forms of development, life-styles, ethics, dress, thinking, etc. Over the years, these have taken a heavy toll of the vitality of our own ways, of our pride in our inheritance, and of our self-confidence and self-respect. I am equally convinced that we must rediscover and reaffirm our faith in our values – the vitality of our past, our culture, so that we may develop our own uniqueness, our own way of doing things, our own solutions to our problems . . . When the ali'i matua (senior chief) or the tu'ua (senior orator) senses that the end is near, he will perform the farewell ritual, (making) many references to the word tofi . . . Tofi is more than the right to land or to a title. It means the right to our way of life – our cultural and spiritual values, our work ethic . . . A work ethic that places the highest priority on service to the community.'

In 1992 Fijian Lawyer Julian Moti said the 'Pacific Way' is quite useful when applied to **mediation** and **arbitration** of disputes, because the people in the Pacific are already comfortable with solving disputes in a different way or by an alternative method. He argued that the people of the Pacific have traditionally preferred to resolve disputes informally, without the aid or intervention of the official legal system.

The first president of Vanuatu (1980–89), Ati George Sokumanu, had this to say:

'In the European way, you put up your hands to vote for a motion . . . The Pacific Way can often be seen operating in an organisation such as the South Pacific Commission. "All in favour?" asks the chairman. There is total silence, and the motion is passed. This may puzzle the European because he thinks his way is democratic and that of the Pacific islander is not. Little does he know that many islanders have lived with **democracy** since time immemorial . . . Again the European tends to build a separate home for his grandmother or mother to live in when she is old. It is the European way of dealing with family ties. The Melanesian way is different . . . It is not only an extended family tie but a custom that has been practised from generation to generation. Grandmother or mother lives with you until she dies. This Pacific or Melanesian way . . . is a basic cultural and traditional **entity**, showing how traditional principles play their part in the daily life of the people . . . The task must be . . . to **evolve** a way of life, particularly a system of government, that is **congruent** with key principles of our traditional cultures, which, while adapted to the needs of the growing nation, is **compatible** with interaction with the rest of the world.'

The Pacific Way is evident throughout the Pacific wherever it is recognised in the courts, by a constitution and as a way of life. For example:

Village court system of Papua New Guinea

In 1973 a law was passed in Papua New Guinea to provide for informal village courts. Magistrates or judges would be selected by the people in the villages from among themselves, rather than being qualified people or people who were specialists trained in the law, and the courts were to follow the custom as far as possible in procedures and decisions.

Sāmoan Matai Titles

For more than a 1000 years, the matai (chiefly) system, in which chiefly titles are bestowed or earned through birth and ability, has been the backbone of the Sāmoan way of life (fa'aSāmoa).

When Sāmoa became independent, only matai titleholders were entitled either to vote or to be candidates in general elections. The United Nations, to whom universal suffrage is vital, approved this situation after it accepted the central place of matai in Sāmoan society. The system changed only after a referendum in 1990, in which every Sāmoan citizen aged 21 or more voted. Universal suffrage won just 51% of the vote. However only matai titleholders are eligible to be candidates for 47 of the 49 parliamentary seats.

Vaisigano College demonstrating kava ceremony attended by various matai (chiefs)

Sāmoa in the twenty-first century has evolved from being a pioneering nation that resisted colonial domination to being the first Pacific Island nation to achieve independence. Sāmoa plays a key role in the Pacific region, is actively involved in regional organisations and plays its part in the international arena. Sāmoa's foreign policy has been to form international relations with major powers to pursue a progressive policy of economic growth and prosperity, and at the same time, preserving the Sāmoan way and its distinct identity.

Activity 1

Research Essay:

Choose one of the topics below.

❑ What new directions did Sāmoa's foreign policy take after 1962? How successful was its foreign policy?

❑ Why and how has Sāmoa become increasingly involved in the Pacific region? and internationally since independence?

❑ What issues faced Sāmoa in the period of international contact leading up to 1962? What changes if any has Sāmoa experienced since 1962?

❑ What issues faced Sāmoa in the 1960s? What economic improvement had been made by the 1980s?

❑ What changes took place in the Sāmoan economy immediately after 1962? What effect did Sāmoa's membership in regional and international organisations have on the economy?
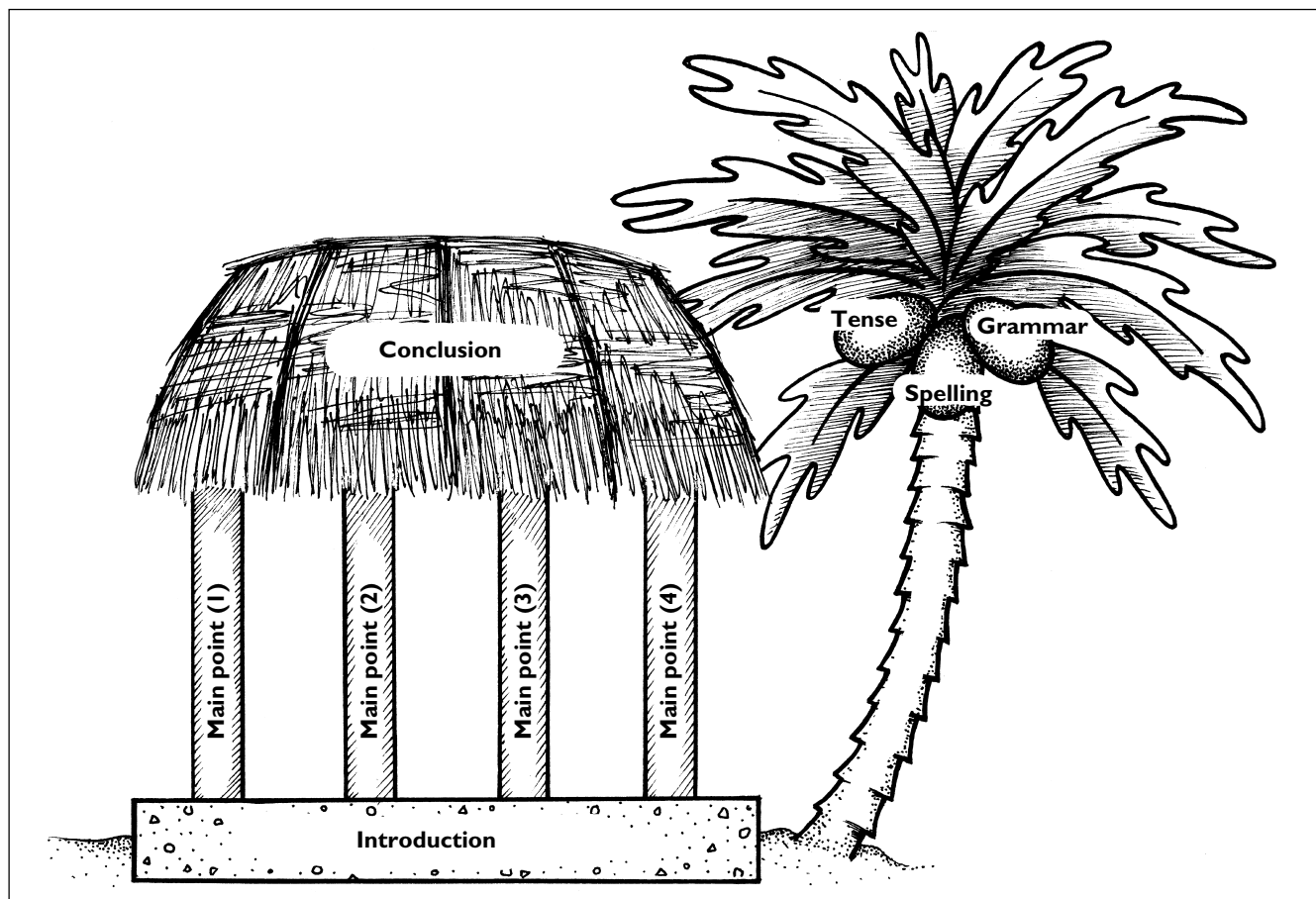
Figure 4.5.3 The FALE method of essay writing

Writing Essays In Social Sciences

Writing essays is best done after you have learned (and practised!) writing paragraphs in social studies. Essays need careful planning. After you have done your research, you must plan how you are going to organise or structure your essay. You will need to write an essay plan. This is an example of an essay plan.

Introduction (foundation):

❑ The influenza epidemic in Sāmoa.

Main points (posts):

❑ Where did the disease come from?

❑ How did the disease get into Sāmoa?

❑ Why did it spread so quickly?

❑ What were the effects of this disease on Sāmoan people?

❑ Who was responsible for this tragedy?

Conclusion (roof):

❑ The influenza epidemic: What? Why? Who was responsible?

Learning how to write essays is like learning all other skills — the more you write essays, the better you will become at writing them. In this unit, the method to help you write an essay is called the FALE method.

Steps

1. The first paragraph of an essay is the introduction. Some people write long essays and these may have an introduction with two paragraphs, instead of one. The introduction explains what the essay topic is about, and what the essay is going to do.

   The introduction is like the foundation of the fale.

2. The next part of the essay is the paragraphs. Each new topic is a new paragraph. Other paragraphs are written to help explain that topic. Each topic is an important point. The paragraphs should be in a logical order and they should not be mixed up.

   Each main point or new topic in the essay is like a post in the fale. They join the introduction to the next part of the essay and to the end or the conclusion.

3. The last part of the essay is the conclusion. This is usually one paragraph. It is the paragraph that summarises the main message of the essay. This paragraph should not contain new information.

   The conclusion is like the roof of the fale.

Remember: when you write a paragraph or an essay, you must make sure you check your spelling and express yourself carefully, using the correct tense and grammar.

Revision

Short answer questions

1. What is bilateral aid?
2. In trading terms, what is meant by 'diversification'?
3. Name two international finance institutions that Sāmoa belongs to.
4. In which year was the Friendship Treaty signed and what did it provide for Sāmoa?
5. What does EEC mean?
6. Name two European countries with whom Sāmoa set up new diplomatic relations?
7. What was the purpose of the South Pacific Forum?
8. What is meant by EEZ?
9. What is meant by regionalism?
10. Sāmoa belongs to an organisation that was set up in 1977 to provide access to shipping. Name the organisation.
11. What are Sāmoa's major export goods?
12. What are the two most important international organisations that Sāmoa is a member of?
13. What is the meaning of 'plural economy'?
14. What is the balance of trade?

Multiple choice questions

1 The first international agreement that Sāmoa signed since independence was:

    a SPEC   **b** SPF

    c EEZ   **d** SPC.

2 The Berlin Treaty was signed in:

    a 1847   **b** 1889

    c 1899   **d** 1962.

3 The term 'Pacific Way' refers to:

    a progressive actions in the Pacific

    b organisations set in the Pacific

    c a shipping Line called the 'Pacific'

    d doing things in the Pacific Way (appropriate behaviour).

4 SPEC was formed to:

    a promote trade and industries

    b promote tourism

    c promote exports and imports

    d promote policy on fishing zones.

5 The Treaty of Rarotonga is commonly known as:

    a Canberra Treaty

    b South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone

    c South Pacific Commission

    d Treaty of Friendship

6 Multilateral aid is:

    a aid given by one state to another

    b aid to non-profit organisations

    c aid given to Third World Countries

    d aid given by more than one country, usually to finance expensive projects.

Part 4 - Summary

Think through what you have learned in this Part of the textbook. Ask yourself if you can do each of the following skilfully, and with in-depth knowledge and understanding.

1 I can explain the significance of treaties that were signed between Sāmoa and other countries since European contact.

2 I can identify key trends in Sāmoa's foreign policy since 1962 and explain the reasons for it.

3 I can discuss the rationale of regional and international co-operation for Sāmoa.

4 I can evaluate the impact on Sāmoa of regional and international organisations.

5 I can discuss the attributes of the 'Pacific Way' and discuss its effectiveness in dealing with recent crises in the region, within regional and international forums.

Part

5

Economic Transformations

Achievement Objective

At the end of this unit you will be able to demonstrate that you know and understand the role of the economy and the effects of economic relations on a country's development

Focusing Questions

❑ Which political philosophies motivate economic behaviour? How and why does this happen?

❑ What is the subsistence economic system? What is the market economic system? How has the market economic system (or market economy) impacted on the subsistence economy and land in Sāmoa?

❑ Why was migrant labour introduced into Sāmoa and Fiji during the colonial periods of their histories? How did this influence the indigenous people, the culture and the economy of both countries?

❑ What is globalisation and how and why has it affected Sāmoa?

❑ What has been the role of donor agencies in the development of Sāmoa's modern economy?

❑ What was the Great Depression and how did it impact on Japan's economy in the 1930s? How have Japan's strategies for economic recovery from the Depression been evaluated?

Key Concepts:

Market economy

Subsistence economy

Globalisation

Capitalism

Socialism

Communism

Philosophies

Ideologies

Here are some of the important concepts that you will be learning in this Part. Think about them carefully – and look out for them as you learn about economic processes and patterns of the past and their relationship to the present.

Introduction

People throughout the world and throughout time have developed systems to help them to meet their needs and wants. These systems can be very simple – or very complex. As social groups have become larger and much more complicated, people have not always been able to meet their need and wants within their neighbourhoods and communities. They have developed systems of trade in order to get those things that they cannot produce themselves. These simple economic relationships have developed and grown over time – and have become more and more complicated.

The economic situation of a nation has a profound effect on factors such as employment or work and income. When an economy is growing, there are more jobs and people have a secure income. Spending is high – and the government is able to provide better services (e.g. health, education, transport) because there is more income for the government to tax. Confidence in the government is high – and there is generally stability throughout the nation. But when an economy is in decline (a recession), unemployment rises, there is less income earned, spending declines as well . . . and the general population become worried, and discontented with the government.

As historians, we are very interested in the decisions that people have made in the past, and the roles that governments have taken, to meet the needs and wants of the people in their countries.

Globalisation as a process takes several different forms. In other words, there are several different types of globalisation – for example, cultural globalisation. However, the main focus of this part of the textbook is economic globalisation.

Unit 1

Political Philosophies That Motivate Economic Action

What are the political philosophies that motivate economic behaviour? How and why does this happen?

Useful terms

Political: involved with government and governing;

System: something that is made up of connected parts or things. A system works well when all the parts are working, and carrying out their specific function.

A society is a social group of human beings that manages to meet most of its own needs, interacts across the generations, and is relatively large in size. A society is larger than a community but does not always have the geographic and political boundaries that a nation does. Most of the members of a society become members when they are born and raised into that society.

Every society has basic tasks that it must do for its members. Each society has to make decisions about what kind of and how many economic goods and services it must produce, and where and how that it will do this. The society also needs a system to distribute, or pass around, the goods and services that it produces. Different societies have different ways of achieving these tasks. These are sometimes called economic systems. Different societies have specific values and beliefs about the production and distribution of goods and services, and will organise economic systems that are based on these beliefs. These belief systems are often called political philosophies.

There are a number of different economic systems. Economic systems are the ways that societies have organised the production and distribution of goods and services.

The market socialist (planned) economy

❑ with the pure market capitalist economy, important resources would come under the control of just a few people

❑ such a country would have a small group of very wealthy people, and a much larger group of poor people

❑ the wealthy people would have the most power because they own and control the resources – so in a country with this type of economy, there would be a very unfair distribution of income and power

❑ in a market socialist (planned) economy, resources are NOT owned by individual people, but by the state or government.

❑ The prices of goods and services are still influenced by the market price system.

❑ Prices are the result of the demand and supply of goods and services

Governments in countries with this type of economy take a very important role directly in the economy – and the main reason for this is egalitarianism

Pure market capitalism

❑ this system is an ideal which has never really existed in real life

❑ it is given as a model of what a well-organised, successful economic system should look like

❑ resources of production (land, factories, machinery, etc) are all privately owned

❑ the purpose of producing goods and services is to make as much profit as possible

❑ people are free to make their own decisions about what to produce and how much to produce

❑ there is competition for goods and services in this system – this affects prices

❑ the reason for producing goods and services is in order to sell them to earn a profit

❑ the market mechanism or the price system is what directs the distribution of goods and services in a society with such a system

In this system, people are allowed to make economic decisions based on their own self-interest. The pursuit of self-interest in this system is supposed to promote the interests of the nation.

❑ governments do not interfere or get involved in the economy

Traditional subsistence systems

❑ every household or village tries to take care of its own needs

❑ little or no interaction with other groups beyond the village

❑ this system produces its own food, clothing, shelter (housing)

❑ goods are distributed in accordance with that society's traditional customs and traditions.

Types of Economic Systems

The developed or advanced market capitalist economic system

❑ most of the western or so-called 'First World' or developed nations have economies that are mixtures of public and private economic decision-making

❑ over time, the governments of such countries have become more and more involved with the economy, even controlling parts of it

❑ governments control the economy through monetary and fiscal policies

❑ governments control or influence the economy by directly participating in the economy, e.g. industries that they own and run themselves

❑ governments regulate the growth and activities of big corporations and businesses, especially those that are the only ones providing quite important goods and services to the nation

In market-orientated developed nations, governments are involved in the economy in a number of important ways:

  ❑ planning

  ❑ taxing people and companies

  ❑ making rules for companies to follow

  ❑ spending government money to provide services for the people of the country

  ❑ controlling the wage rates, e.g. 'the minimum wage'

  ❑ controlling the prices of some goods and services

The mixed market (capitalist) and planned (socialist) economy

❑ most developing countries (including Sāmoa) have mixed capitalist–socialist economic systems

❑ There is private ownership of resources, and state/government ownership of resources

❑ Some developing countries (e.g. Brazil, Mexico, Kenya and Taiwan) have very large private sectors (this is when most of the economy is based on private ownership of the resources). Others have very large public sectors (government) and these have an enormous influence on the economy (e.g. Sāmoa, India, Tanzania, Peru)

Countries that develop mixed economic systems try to borrow some of the best characteristics of capitalist market systems and socialist planned systems. In some countries this system seems to work, in others, it seems to create more problems.

Summary

1 In some ways, capitalist, socialist, and mixed economic systems in the world today are very similar. Governments actively intervene and manage the economies of their countries.

2 Sometimes, the more important issue for governments is not who owns the resources (and therefore the wealth and power) but how the resources are used and how the benefits are distributed through the population.

3 In most non-socialist countries, there is a very strong relationship between unequal resource ownership, and unequal income distribution.

4 Labels such as 'socialist', 'capitalist' and 'communist' are still used but they are not useful for accurate descriptions of most national economies today.

5 However, if we are also thinking about the ideologies (political belief systems) that different systems of national government are based on, then terms such as socialist, capitalist and communist are often used. These terms include the type of economic system that has developed in that country. The type of economic system is based on the main beliefs or the ideology of the government.

6 There is often a gap between the professed beliefs of a government, and the actual economic system that it has, e.g. China is a communist country ideologically, however its economy is allowing more and more private ownership of resources. The price or market system is very strong now in the twenty-first century. This was not permitted 30–40 years ago.

What Is The Subsistence Economic System?

What is the subsistence economic system? What is the market economic system? How has the market economic system (or market economy) impacted on the subsistence economy and land, in Sāmoa?

Useful Terms

Specialist: a person who is an expert, or very skilled, at a specific task or job;

Trader: someone who owns a shop or a business where goods are bought, sold and exchanged. Traders exchange goods for raw materials and resources, e.g. copra for sugar and flour; fish for fabric, etc;

Commercial: money-making, profit-motivated activity.

Activity 1

1 Describe the characteristics of the subsistence economic system, using the knowledge you gained from your work in the previous section (FQ1).

2 Describe the characteristics of the market economic systems, using the knowledge you gained from your work in the previous section (FQ1).

Traditional Subsistence Economic System In Pre-European Sāmoa

The traditional economic system of Sāmoa was subsistence. People produced the goods and services that they needed and wanted. If they needed or wanted more, they would exchange what they had for things that they did not have. The groups or organisations that worked to produce goods were usually family-based, especially extended family. Family groups organised activities such as planting and harvesting of crops, and the gathering of foodstuffs from the forests and shellfish from the inshore marine environment. The groups that organised larger scale activities (e.g. fishing) were at the village level, e.g. village level fishing trips. The men of the village would catch fish in large nets, and the catch was divided and given to all families in the village.

Some individuals and their immediate family members (e.g. sons and daughters, even nieces and nephews) provided specialist services for the rest of the village, for example house builders, tattooists, traditional healing. Their knowledge and skill was passed on to selected family members in the younger generation. Others would come to them seeking their services, and in exchange give the experts food, and traditional items of wealth, e.g. fine mats.

Elaborate exchange systems (of fine mats, ava and food) developed between extended families within districts and between districts. According to oral traditions, exchange systems even developed between Sāmoans, Fijians and Tongans, for the trade of things that had a very high cultural and ceremonial value. For example, Sāmoans prized the red feathers of a Fijian parrot for their very special fine mats. Tongans prized the ie toga of Sāmoa. Fijians prized whale teeth.

Natural, renewable resources and traditional knowledge and skills were an essential part of the traditional, subsistence economy of Sāmoa. The units of production in traditional Sāmoan society were the family (for day to day needs), the village (for special collective needs) and highly respected specialists and experts (for specific highly skilled responses to needs).

Introduction Of The Market Economic System And Its Impact On Sāmoa In The Late 1800s

European settlers introduced the market economic system to Sāmoa. The first visitors to actually stay and live in Sāmoa (for example, beachcombers), introduced Sāmoans to European technology. They exchanged these goods for food and housing. When other Europeans settled (missionaries, traders) in greater numbers, they brought with them new goods that became highly desirable to Sāmoans – for example, processed sugar, flour, and tools made from iron. Other goods that became very desirable included fabric or cloth for clothing. Even the clothing and the styles of clothing that the Europeans had, became something that Sāmoan people began to want to have themselves.

Some of the goods became a necessary part of Christian conversion – for example, the clothing. To be a true Christian convert, people were supposed to wear more European-styled clothes, particularly women. Traders set up their businesses. People could trade for these goods – they could bring copra. The traders would weigh it, give it a monetary value, and then people could get goods (such as sugar and material) from the trader's shop up to this value. Or, customers could pay cash for the goods they wanted. But how could people from a traditional subsistence economy obtain cash?

Sāmoan people who wanted to get the European goods had to change their patterns of production. When traders wanted copra, people began to collect coconuts and produce copra (something that was not an essential activity beforehand), and sell this to traders. They would also gather shellfish and catch fish and take it to the trader in exchange for cash or goods from the store. People began to change what they did, and why they did it, as a part of their daily activities. Those who wanted more began to plant extra crops (particular crops that the Europeans had introduced), gather more food (from the sea and the forests) and fish more, to supply the demand for such products from the growing settlement of Apia. They were no longer producing to directly meet their own needs or their family needs, or for traditional cultural events (feasts) and activities. Their needs and wants were changing – and the ways to meet those needs and wants were changing, too.

The Establishment Of Commercial Plantations In The Late 1800s

The introduction of plantations by such commercial companies as the German company Deutsche Handels und Plantagen Gesellschaft had a significant influence on the development of the new type of economy in Sāmoa. Opportunities to work for a cash income (a wage) became available. The general effect was that some Sāmoans would work until they earned the money for the things that they wanted – and then they would stop working (that is, they would leave the job). They still had their subsistence means of support, and working on the plantations was seen as a way of earning money for specific things. This was not a situation that was ideal for plantation companies – growing large areas of cocoa and coconuts required lots of reliable labour. When this type of labour was not available, the companies brought labour in from elsewhere – from the Solomon Islands, and from China. This type of labour was called indentured labour. The workers came on three-year contracts (some were longer), to live and work on the plantations.

These migrant workers saved their money and sent it back to their families. They would have spent some of their earnings within the local economy, but not a large proportion. But their presence in Sāmoa helped commercial planters to develop their businesses, and soon other people began to set up businesses too – Apia began to be an important commercial centre for Sāmoa. Banks were set up, restaurants and hotels and more shops. More Europeans came and settled in Apia, with their families. The market economy grew.

Activity 2

1   Discuss these questions:
    ❑ What are some specific examples of the needs and wants that you might have in a traditional subsistence economy?
    ❑ What do you need to do to meet your needs and wants in a traditional subsistence economy?
    ❑ What were some of the goods that Europeans introduced or brought to Sāmoa in the mid-1800s?
    ❑ Did people in Sāmoa want or need these new goods?
    ❑ What did people in Sāmoa have to do in order to get European goods?
    ❑ Over time (from the mid 1800s until the late 1800s), how did commerce change? How did the population of Apia change?

2   Design and draw a diagram that will show the change from a traditional economy to a market economy in Sāmoa in the 1800s. Choose one of these types of diagrams – make sure you label it clearly.
    ❑ a spiral diagram
    ❑ a comic strip
    ❑ a flow diagram (using symbols and pictures).

3   What were the reasons for introducing migrant labour into Sāmoa and Fiji during the colonial periods of their histories? How did this influence the indigenous people, the culture and the economy of both countries?

Indentured Labour In Fiji

Early in 1870, European settlers found that the land in many parts of Fiji was excellent for growing sugar cane. Not only did it grow well, but there were large markets for sugar close by in Australia and New Zealand, rather than half way around the world in Britain and other countries in Europe.

Cheap labour is vital for sugar cane plantations – but generally speaking, the Fijian people were not interested in working on the plantations for the low wages that were offered. Most Fijian people at the time still met their needs and wants through the subsistence economy. Many of their needs were met through the cultivation of their own food gardens, fishing and collecting sea foods inshore. Their traditional lifestyles did not rely on getting a cash income. Another important factor to take into account was that the Fijian population had been seriously affected by a measles epidemic after 1875 – this caused the deaths of almost 20% of the population.

The solution to the need for labour was met by recruiting labour from India, particularly from the state of Gujarat. India, like Fiji, was a part of the British Empire. Economic conditions were particularly difficult in the rural areas of this part of India at the time. Drought had affected crops and alternative ways to earn an income (jobs) were limited. There was a great deal of internal migration and movement, as people went in search of work in order to support their families. Therefore, the chance to go to Fiji to work was very attractive – even if it meant being contracted for five or more years, in a country half a world away that many people in India had, up until that point, never heard.

Indians were taken to Fiji to work on the sugar cane plantations between 1879 and 1916, 60 537 Indian men and women were recruited.

Working conditions were very hard. A normal day of work might start at four o'clock in the morning. The Indian workers were forced to work long hours, often six days a week, and they lived in long, narrow barrack-type buildings which were divided into sections of narrow, windowless rooms.

They signed on for five years. When their contracts finished, the workers had to pay their own fares back to India. They could get their fares paid for, on the condition that they contracted to work another five years.

When the indentured labour system was abolished, many Indian workers decided to stay in Fiji. They did so in the hope that they could make a new life for themselves – as free men and women – and for their children.

Today, the population of Fiji is made up of two distinctly different ethnic groups, each with their own language, culture and religious beliefs. The population of Fiji is about 46% Indian and 48% Fijian.

Indentured Labour In Sāmoa

Carefully review the Migration Unit of this textbook. Then study the following diagram carefully.
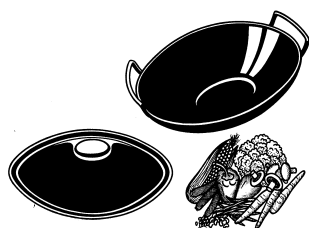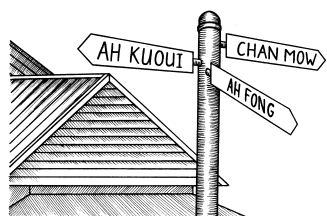
The Impact of Indentured Labour in Sāmoa: Case Study, the Chinese

The Economy

❑ Well-organised, smoothly-run cocoa and coconut plantations. Exports of cocoa and copra to markets in Europe and Australia and New Zealand.

❑ Although the Chinese indentured workers remitted money to their families in China, they still contributed to the local economy when they spent part of their wages in Apia for imported Chinese goods (herbal medicines and food); restaurants (Chinese meals); basic goods such as soap, cooking oil and so on; and entertainment (joining in games such as mah jong, etc).

❑ Not all Chinese in Sāmoa came on the indentured labour scheme. Some were free men who had arrived of their own accord and settled in Sāmoa. They established small businesses, and developed other services to cater to the indentured workers from China, e.g. translation services, as well as importing goods from China for the Chinese market.

The Social and Cultural Make-up of Life in Apia

❑ When the Chinese labourers came into Apia on their days off, many tended to go to Saleufi where there were shops run by Chinese that had Chinese products for sale. There were also restaurants offering Chinese meals. This area of town was a place where the workers could relax, play Chinese games and read Chinese papers. It became known as 'china town'.

Food and Food Preparation

❑ Some of the Chinese labourers established vegetable gardens and grew a much wider range of vegetables than was usually found at the Old Market on Beach Road in Apia. It is possible that these vegetables were introduced into the diets of some Sāmoans, as well as the practice of growing vegetable gardens.

❑ The restaurants that grew and catered to the Chinese market were also frequented by local Sāmoan people. It is possible that some Chinese dishes and ways of cooking were also introduced to some Sāmoan households and taste buds.

Intermarriage

❑ Twenty-five percent of the workforce on the commercial plantations were Sāmoan women. The type of work that they were used for was mainly the clearing of weeds underneath the coconut trees so that it would be easy to locate the mature coconuts that fell to the ground.

Men were therefore free to do more demanding physical work. Many of the commercial plantations provided separate housing for male and female Sāmoan workers, in addition to the housing for Chinese workers. Relationships formed between some Chinese men and Sāmoan women. However, under the New Zealand Administration, marriage between Chinese and Sāmoans was not permitted – due to the Sāmoan Marriage Ordinance Act of 1921. Marital-type relationships formed, and families were started, despite this.

❑ When the indentured system ended and Chinese workers were repatriated back to China, some Chinese chose to remain with their wives and families. Some were forced to return to China and leave behind their Sāmoan wives and families. Chinese workers who remained in Sāmoa sought naturalisation (citizenship). They integrated into the Sāmoan extended families of their wives and children. Older generations have maintained certain aspects of Chinese language and culture – but with the passage of time, and as individuals have aged and passed away, the younger generations have not retained distinctively Chinese cultural characteristics.
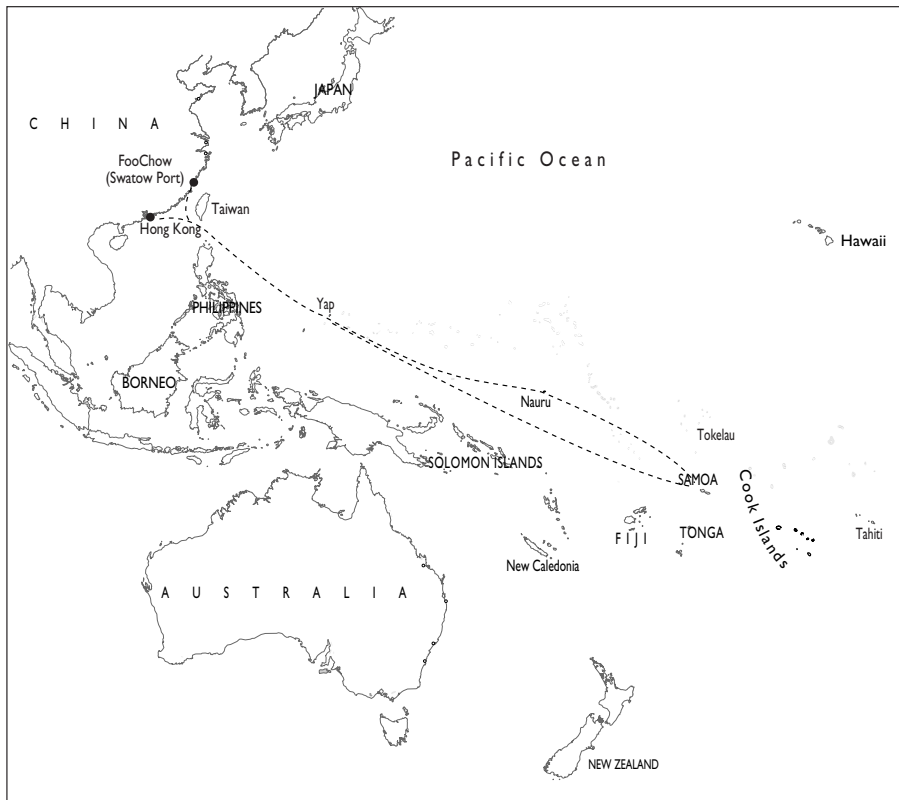
Figure 5.2.3 Map showing route from China to Western Sāmoa

Unit 3

What Is Globalisation?

What is globalisation, and how and why has it affected Sāmoa?

> ## Useful terms
>
> Economic downturn: when an economy begins to decline, unemployment increases, people's incomes or wages decrease and general standards of living for many people, especially working class people, begin to go down too;
>
> Bureaucracies: the large, complex system of departments and officials on which large organisations and governments rely to do their work for them;
>
> Elite: group of people in a society who are seen as the most privileged and favoured over others. Elite groups have better access to education, resources and so on.

Globalisation is a new word that describes an old process. Globalisation is the integration of national economies into a global economy. The word is new – but the process began over 500 years ago.

The process has become faster, however, in recent decades. This has been caused by:

❑ the development of computer technology

❑ some governments have protected their economies from having to compete with goods and services from other places. If trade barriers are taken away, the market place across international boundaries is more 'free'

❑ changes to the systems of government in different parts of the world from socialist or communist systems to capitalist and democratic systems (e.g. the end of the Soviet Union in the 1990s)

❑ the growth in size, power and political influence of multinational corporations and companies

The History Of Globalisation In The Pacific

Table 5.3.1 Timeline for Globalisation	
Period of Time, Dates	**Process and Description**
Late 1700s–1800s →	**Imperialism** The nation-states of Europe began to expand their economic and political influence on and control of other countries into the Pacific. New trade routes were established; old ones were strengthened. Plantation agricultural systems established. Colonialism and capitalism spread. New trade routes were established; old ones were strengthened.
First voyage in 1769 →	Captain Cook accurately mapped much of Polynesia and Melanesia. This made the region more accessible to traders in sandalwood and sea cucumbers, for whaling and labour.
By 1790 →	Trading networks connecting Polynesia, Melanesia, China, Europe, North America and Australia.
1873–1896 →	Economic downturn in Europe and North America. European powers tried to expand their empires and strengthen and secure their interests in Asia and in the Pacific.
1870–1900 →	**Colonialism** Almost all of the Pacific came under the colonial control of Great Britain, New Zealand and Australia (which were then colonies of Great Britain), France, Germany, the USA and Chile. New bureaucracies and trading systems were established. Local elites (important, higher ranking groups of people in a Pacific country) became a part of these trading systems and bureaucracies. Colonialism changed social and economic processes but many people throughout the Pacific region, in colonised nations, continued to work as smallholders or in subsistence or semi-subsistence lifestyles. As more people became wage earners and reliant on cash income (to meet all or even part of their needs), the consumption of foreign products increased. There was an increase in the production of indigenous products and other products for export. Populations (including migrant, but particularly local) began to increase in size in many Pacific countries, due to advances in health and sanitation introduced by colonial administrators. Colonialism can be seen as a steady force of economic modernisation and social change. Under colonial administration, European systems of law and order established; concept and system of private property introduced; basic infrastructure built (e.g. wharf, main roads); western political and legal systems established. From more critical perspective: colonialism caused destruction of natural environment and social structures, dependency and exploitation.
1930s+ →	**The rise of nationalism** Almost all of the countries in the Pacific region were colonies of a European country, the USA or Japan. Political organisations began to form in the colonised nations – these organisations began to question the impacts of colonisation on their country's development.

Table 5.3.1 Timeline for Globalisation (cont)	
Period of Time, Dates	**Process and Description**
1930s+ →	**The rise of nationalism (*cont*)** Such organisations and groups focused on: the negative pressures that the colonial administrations were placing on the people; the way the nations were being forced into unequal trading relations both within the country and with other countries. Before colonisation, people in these countries had allegiance to family, royalty and/or religious leaders. In reacting to the negative impacts of colonialism, political groups took on the ideology of independent, national identities. The ideology of the nation state was taken on – but such groups wanted a nation state determined by their own people (and not by the colonial administration). The Pacific War (World War II) had a greater impact on the Pacific Islands than any other single event and went a long way toward establishing the strategic importance of the Pacific Ocean in world affairs. During WWII, the USA developed military bases in the Pacific; militarisation during the war also impacted on employment and the economies of different island nations; infrastructure improved, etc. After WWII there was even more nationalism and many countries worked at achieving independence.
After WWII →	**Decolonisation** Political independence did not necessarily mean economic independence. Independent Pacific nations found themselves heavily reliant on professional skills that their own citizens did not yet have – and therefore 'imported' the skilled labour (doctors, teachers, engineers, etc), often from their former colonial administrators. Newly independent countries also found themselves with economies that relied on the exports of primary products with world prices that fluctuated – and societies that had become very dependent on expensive imported goods. Newly independent nations came to rely heavily on former colonial powers, and other nations with interests in having a presence in the Pacific (e.g. China), for assistance (loans, aid and expertise) to build up the different sectors of the economy.

The Role Of Donor Agencies

What has been the role of donor agencies in the development of Sāmoa's modern economy?

Activity 1

1 Have a class discussion around these questions:
- ❑ What is a donor agency?
- ❑ What are examples of donor agencies in Sāmoa?
- ❑ What are examples of some of the activities of donor agencies in Sāmoa?
- ❑ What are other names that are used for countries and organisations that help developing countries?

A Pattern For Development

The development of many of the Pacific Islands nations has followed similar patterns. A model called the MIRAB model has been developed to try and explain this pattern of economic development.

The status of many Pacific nations such as Sāmoa has been described as 'under-developed'. The key factors to explain this are:

- ❑ the relative isolation and distance from major trading partners

- ❑ limited land bases (i.e. small land areas)

- ❑ small internal market or domestic market.

In this model, a county's efforts to modernise or to develop have been very reliant or dependent on:

- ❑ Migration (MI) of Pacific people to countries like Australia and New Zealand

- ❑ Remittances (R), or the money that people who have migrated send back to their Pacific homelands

- ❑ Aid (A), or the money, and skilled people that donor countries and organisations provide to developing countries

- ❑ Bureaucracy (B), the systems and structures that governments and other organisations develop in order to carry out their different roles and

responsibilities, e.g. the public service, government departments and government organisations, and the administrative structures within each.

It can be argued that these factors together prolong dependency by Pacific nations on developed nations such as New Zealand and Australia for work, money, goods, education and aid. Another belief is that these factors make the economies of Pacific nations strong – and this may not be such a bad situation.

Activity 2 Ideas for Research and Further Learning

1 Invite a speaker from a donor agency to speak to your class about the role of their agency in Sāmoa.

❑ Students prepare interview questions before the speaker's visit. Students are to listen to the presentation and ask questions afterwards.

❑ Your teacher will make sure your questions are relevant to your ability to develop answers for the focusing questions.

2 Design a Social Science enquiry on perceptions of the role of donor agencies in Sāmoa. Students will interview a range of people to find out what their views are on these agencies and organisations.

The Great Depression

What was the Great Depression and how did it impact on Japan's economy in the 1930s? How can Japan's strategies for economic recovery from the Depression be evaluated?

Before The Great Depression

Some historians have described the period of time 1924–1929 as 'an era of hope' in the world, particularly for Europe, Great Britain and the United States. It was when the nations of Europe (particularly those involved in the First World War), Britain and the United States seemed to be settling the problems they had with one another. For example, the:

❑ Locarno Pact was signed in 1925 between Germany, France, Belgium, Great Britain and Italy. Germany agreed to accept a western border with France and Belgium.

❑ Kellog-Briand Pact was signed in 1928 between France and the United States, and both countries agreed that war was only justifiable if it was in self defence. Sixty-five countries (including Japan, the USSR and the United States) signed this agreement.

❑ Young Plan was developed in 1929 to deal with the amount of money that Germany was supposed to pay as a consequence of World War One – these compulsory payments were called reparations. An international committee reduced the amount that Germany had to pay off in instalments from 6.6 billion pounds to 2 billion pounds.

❑ League of Nations was formed and was trying to solve disputes between small member nations, run peacekeeping activities, and oversee the mandate system. This was the system where former colonies of Germany and Turkey were administered by Allied countries on behalf of the League of Nations.

An increased sense of security was not the only positive feature of the late 1920s, there was also prosperity. Different nations had recovered from the war and production, trade and personal incomes were rising. Germany made reparation payments and yet expanded her economy.

However, Germany could only expand its economy because it borrowed money from other nations, particularly from the United States. It borrowed three times as much money as it paid out in reparations. The money that the Allied countries

(Britain and France) were paid (from Germany) was used to pay their war debts to the United States. During this period or 'era of hope', the United States became an even greater international economic power.

The Great Depression

Suddenly, economic systems collapsed. The economic prosperity of the 'era of hope' ended suddenly in the 1930s. Historians argue that the main cause of the Great Depression, which was experienced worldwide within the economies based on the free market or capitalist system, was World War I.

❑ the European economies collapsed because of the war

❑ the US helped out with huge loans to the Allied countries

❑ the Allied countries planned on repaying the loans by (i) making Germany (the nation that lost the war) pay very heavy reparations (i.e. money), and (ii) exporting goods to the US (one of the few economies that had good market potential).

❑ neither of these plans worked out. Germany struggled to pay its debts (its economy was severely damaged by the war), and so the US helped it out by loaning it money. Most European countries also needed to borrow money – and they turned to the US

❑ not surprisingly, the US became the economic centre of the world.

However, in October 1929, the American stock market crashed – this was called the Wall Street crash. Banks wanted their money back from the counties that had drawn out the loans. A number of European banks, in trying to pay these loans, collapsed. Their own customers lost confidence and tried to withdraw their money. However, they found that the banks did not have the funds to pay their customers. Many people and companies lost their money.

When people have less money, or lose their ability to earn money, the amount spent on goods and services in a country's economy goes down. When spending is down, the demand for goods and services goes down. Businesses have to reduce the amount of goods and services that they produce. They lay off their employees because they do not need as many to produce a lesser amount of goods. Some businesses are even forced to close down. The number of unemployed people rises.

This is the situation that developed in the United States and impacted on countries in Europe and throughout the world.

As the world economy collapsed, many people in different countries were very worried. In some countries, without a sense of hope that the future would bring positive change, people were ready to listen to any party or government that said it could offer a solution even if the solution was dangerous – in other words, could offer them hope that their lives would change for the better.
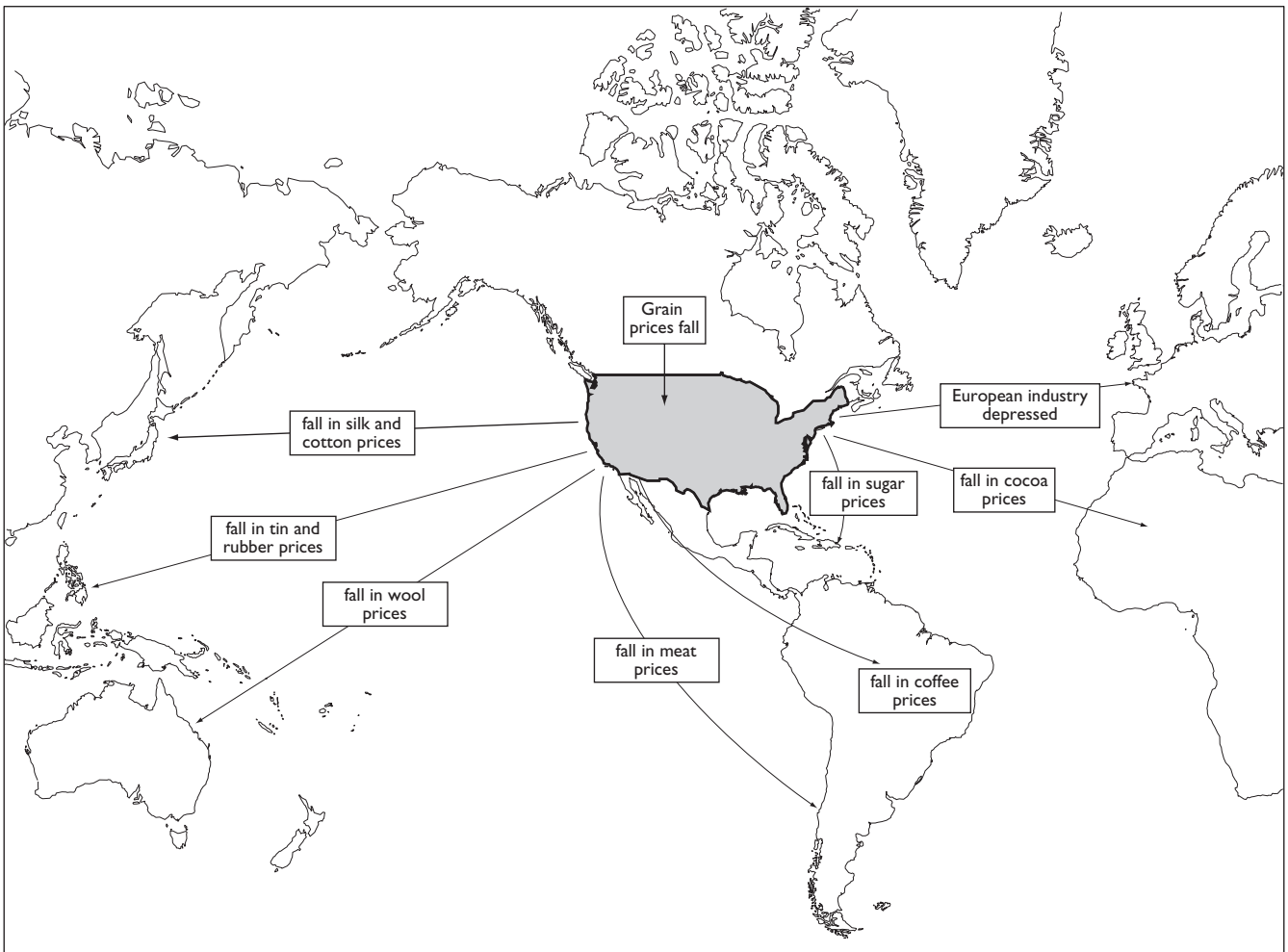
Figure 5.5.1 The Depression spreads to the rest of the world
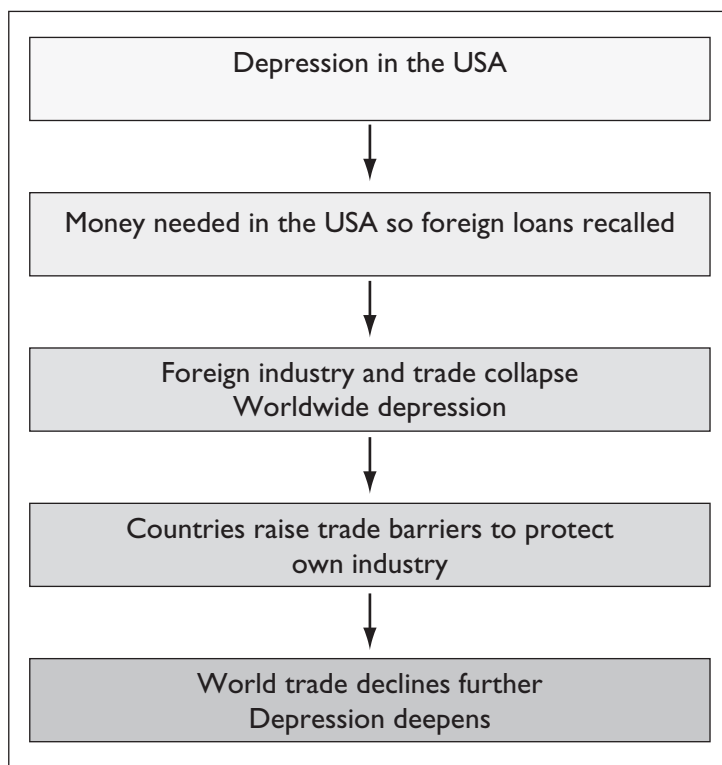
Figure 5.5.2 World dependence on the US economy

Figure 5.5.3 Unemployment demonstration, Wellington, New Zealand

Figure 5.5.4 Relief workers during the Depression, Akatarawa Region, New Zealand

Case Study: The Great Depression and Japan

The Japanese economy relied on the silk trade. Japan exported silk to the rest of the world – but the silk crop fell by 50%. By 1931, half the silk factories of Japan closed down. High unemployment, lower incomes (i.e. economic depression) had a huge effect on the population. There was widespread unrest, and this unrest affected the Japanese army as well. Some people thought the answer to the economic depression, for Japan, was a strong government at home and expansion overseas. The 'strong' government took the form of a military-led non-democratic government. And the programme of 'expansion' was the military takeover of territories in neighbouring countries.

Japan owned industries in the northern part of China's Manchuria province.

↓

Japan had an army base close by, near Port Arthur.

↓

Japanese troops blew up a section of the Japanese-owned railway near Mukden.

↓

Japan blamed the explosion on the Chinese – and used this to justify their invasion of Manchuria.

↓

China went to the League of Nations for help – the League of Nations set up a special enquiry and group (called the Lytton Commission) to look into the matter.

↓

Japan continued its invasion – by 1932, all of Manchuria was under Japanese control and the Japanese renamed Manchuria 'Manchukuo'.

↓

The Lytton Commission told Japan to leave – but no other action was taken by the League of Nations.

↓

Japan simply left the League of Nations after the Commission's order.

↓

Japan continued its expansion in north-east China until 1936.

↓

The army became more powerful and influential in the Japanese government.

↓

Japan began a full-scale war with China in 1937.

↓

This war with China ended in 1945.

Figure 5.5.5 The Great Depression's effect on Japan

Table 5.5.1 Depression in Japan	
Japan's problems in the early 1930s	**The solutions that Japan saw in Manchuria**
❏ economic depression ❏ high levels of unemployment ❏ influential groups with strong militarist views ❏ many people dissatisfied with the government at the time ❏ markets for key export products (mainly primary products, e.g. silk) fell, worldwide demand for products such as silk very low (due to depression in the economies of overseas markets)	❏ Manchuria had natural resources such as coal, iron ore, bauxite, timber (Japan's natural resources to support industrialisation very limited) ❏ Land or space to develop settlements (population pressure in Japan) ❏ Markets – the populations living in the newly acquired territories were potential buyers of Japanese goods and services

Figure 5.5.6 Japanese invasion of China 1931–8

> 'The absence of any effective action by the League (over Manchuria) had encouraged those who had been proclaiming the belief that might is right,' Dr Wellington Koo, China's representative to the League of Nations Assembly, 1933.

Activity 1

1 Write paragraph answers for the following questions.

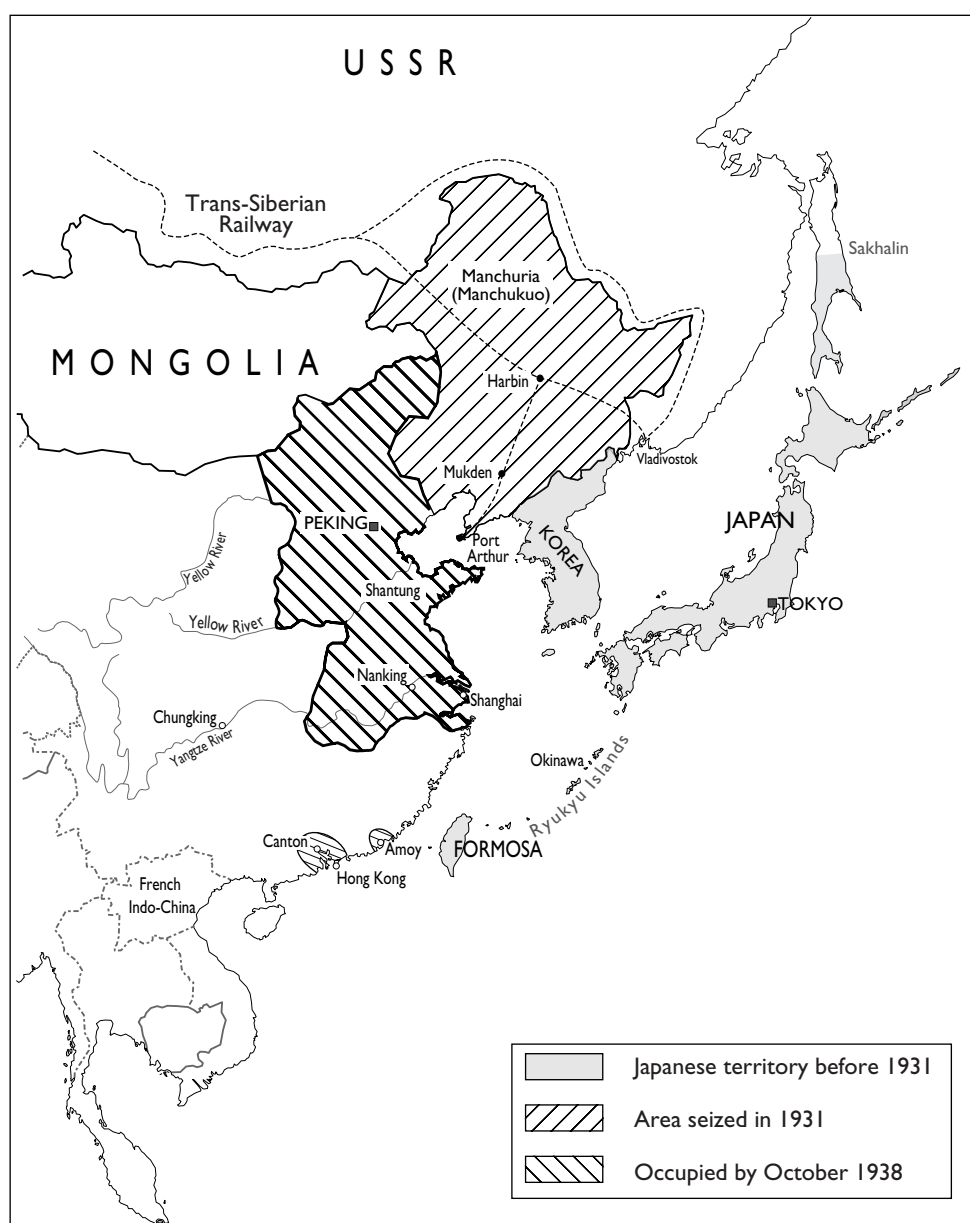   **a** How and why did the Great Depression affect Japan? Carefully take into account the global trade situation in the world at the end of the 1920s, and into the 1930s.

   b Which economic activity in Japan collapsed as a result of economic events outside Japan? Do you think the situation would have been any different if the Japanese economy at that time was more diversified?

   c How did people in Japan react to this economic situation? Why were the ideas and solutions of militarist groups so attractive to many people in Japan at this time?

2 Choose ONE of the following:

   a Imagine you are the head of a Japanese family – you have lost your job because the silk factory where you are a supervisor has gone out of business. You are very unhappy with the government because it does not seem to be solving the economic problems that you and your family are suffering from. Write a letter to the editor of the newspaper. In that letter, explain why you think the invasion of Manchuria offers hope for Japan as a nation.

   b Imagine you are a journalist from Britain, visiting Japan in 1931. You are reporting on the Japanese invasion of Manchuria. Write a short article for the readers of your newspaper back at home, explaining what is happening and why. In your story, you describe what you feel are the problems that Japan's actions are causing.

Part 5 - Summary

Think through what you have learned through the units in Part 5. Ask yourself if you can provide specific, in-depth answers to each of the focusing questions that have guided the unit.

1 I can identify and discuss different political philosophies and the way these influence economic behaviour. ☐

2 I can explain how subsistence and market economic systems operate and the impact that the market economy has had on the subsistence economy in Sāmoa ☐

3 I can explain why and how indentured migrant labour was introduced into Sāmoa and Fiji during the colonial era and explain the effects on indigenous populations, culture and the political economy of each country. ☐

4 I can describe globalisation and its effects on Sāmoa after European contact. ☐

5 I can assess the role of the main donor agencies to Sāmoa in the development of Sāmoa's economy. ☐

6 I can discuss the impact of the Great Depression on Japan's economy in the first half of the twentieth century and evaluate the strategies that were used to promote economic recovery. ☐

Systems Of Power And Authority

Achievement Objective

At the end of this unit you will know and understand Systems of Power and Authority.

Focusing Questions

❑ What are the contrasting features of communism and democracy/ capitalism.

❑ What are the major conditions that shape a country's specific system of government?

❑ What are the major forces or foreign influences on the chosen form(s) of government in selected countries?

❑ What are the contrasting leadership styles within selected countries?

❑ What are the internal and external factors or forces that give rise to leadership in selected countries?

There are a number of very important concepts that you will be 'meeting' in this unit, perhaps for the first time. Be alert to the following key concepts in the text – look out for them! Your teacher will help you and your classmates to develop your understanding of these concepts. Remember – key concepts are important ideas that are specific to the study of history.

Key Concepts:

Fascism

Democracy

Capitalism

Social conditions

Political conditions

Economic conditions

Foreign influences

Internal factors

EXTERNAL FACTORS

Leadership

Introduction

Part 6 is an attempt to provide information about and understanding of different political systems as methods of social control. It attempts to look at individuals, and groups such as political parties, as agents of social change.

A government is the organisation of people that directs the actions of a country, state or community. A government has the power or authority to make, carry out and enforce laws and to settle disagreements about those laws.

The people who are in power, or the leaders of a government, can get to power in different ways. Some government leaders are elected or chosen by the people in the country (citizens). Other governments are led by people who are related to a previous ruler, or are led by people who force their way into power. This unit will look at the origin of democracy as well as a case study of democracy (or capitalism) in the United States, and the origin of communism in Russia and communist China.

What is a political system?

❑ A political system is the way a country is run. Sāmoa's political system is democracy. China's political system is communism.

❑ The power and authority of a political leader in a country, whether democratic or communist, is vital to the future development of a country as leadership brings privileges, but also great responsibilities.

❑ The famous Greek philosopher Aristotle (384–322 BC) said that people are 'political animals and it is natural for them to live in an ordered society under a system of government'.

❑ No matter how boring some may find politics, the fact is that the political system under which we live has a huge influence on our life.

Many systems of government have existed over time. In this unit we will study the capitalist/democratic system. At the opposite end is the one-party system where people have the right to vote, but only for members of the same party, and no other parties are tolerated. This is also known as a totalitarian system of government.

Comparing Communism And Democracy/Capitalism

What are the contrasting features of communism and democracy/ capitalism?

Absolute Authority – Or Not?

Here are two possible types of leadership:

Democratic Leader	**Totalitarian Leader**
People vote the leader into power and by their votes can oust leaders who do not satisfy them.	The leader comes to power by force or through other means. People have no say in the leadership and are powerless to change it. **(A)**
Democracy moves ahead slowly with many twists and turns along the way.	Totalitarian government moves quickly but there are many 'rocks' on the way. **(B)**
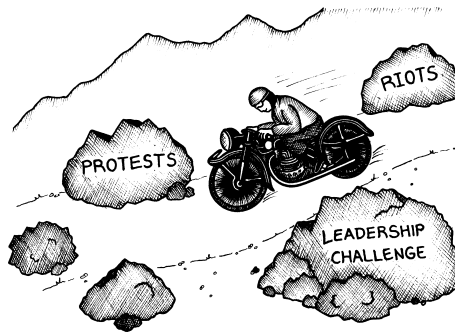
A totalitarian leader who does not depend upon majority decisions and votes can get things done quickly. The democratic process is much slower since the majority has to agree on any course of action. In an emergency, such as a natural disaster, revolution or war, even democratic leaders have to take on some of the extra powers of a dictator so that they can make vital decisions very quickly. However, in a democracy, even in an emergency, a leader may still respect the democratic process. For example, during World War II, the prime ministers of Britain, Australia and New Zealand had members of opposition parties helping to make decisions about the running of the war.

Democratic leaders may be dismissed or defeated in elections. However, totalitarian leaders can usually only be dismissed through extreme measures. Because the people are unable to vote a dictator out, they may resort to assassination or revolution. At the same time, dictators can be more violent with the methods they choose to deal with rivals and to stop the growth of opposition.

Activity 1

Refer to the text and the sketches (**A** & **B**) to answer the following questions:

1 Explain the main differences between a democratic and a totalitarian leader.

2 What are the main advantages and disadvantages of each type of leadership?

Influential Systems Of Power

Communism
All economic activity is carried out by the state under one political party. (Communist Party)

Democracy/Capitalism
Government by the chosen representatives of the people in the interests of the people.

Fascism
Dictatorship where government controls everything and limits individual freedom.

Continuum

Communism   Democracy   Fascism
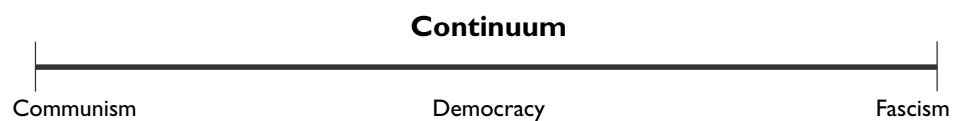
Activity 2

1 Draw a line across your page like the one above. This is called a continuum. At the far left place the word 'Communism', at the other end place the word 'Fascism'. Head up your continuum 'Systems of Government'.

2 Place 'Capitalism' on the continuum under the system in which you think it would most likely be tolerated or encouraged.

3 For each of the different systems of government (communism, democracy and fascism) write in the names of two countries that have that form of government.

Names of other political systems

Absolutism	One person has total control of government.
Anarchy	People do what they like because there is no government.
Aristocracy	The upper or privileged class is in power.
Autarchy	One person has power.
Clan or Tribal system	Group of people who rule themselves.
Civilian	Non-military government.
Despotism	Tyranny, absolute or autocratic government.
Benevolent Despotism	The absolute ruler has the interests of the people at heart, so rules kindly.
Dictatorship	One person has unlimited power, and has usually taken control of the country by force.
Federation	Joining of states that still have their own government under one central government.
Feudalism	Europe was governed by feudalism in the Middle Ages, when land was allowed to be worked by a serf or peasant, in return for service to the lord.
Hereditary monarchy	Crown is passed down through the generations.
Junta	A political group, usually military, who get power by force.
Military regime	The army runs the country.
Monarchy	Government has a hereditary monarch (king or queen, also called the sovereign).
Constitutional monarchy	The monarchy is only a figurehead and Parliament the has real power.
Absolute monarchy	The monarch has all the power and the people have none.
Nazism	The rule of Hitler's Fascist party in Germany.
Oligarchy	Power is held by a small group of people.
Papal rule	Ruled by the Pope.
Plutocracy	The wealthy class rules.
Republic	A country without a monarch, especially one with an elected government and a president as its head.
Theocracy	The established church or religious group rules.
Totalitarianism	A single party or dictator has absolute power.
Tyranny	Cruel and unjust government.

GREECE

The Roman Empire

Example of migration
of people and ideas
from Britain and
Western Europe

Figure 6.1.1 The origins of democracy

Activity 3

Research Work.

1 Choose a political system and find a country that is being ruled by that political system.

2 What are the social, political and economic conditions of that country as a result of its political system?

3 What types of competing leadership styles are there within the country?

4 What are the weaknesses and the strengths of such a system?

Where did our ideas on government come from?

The Origins Of Democracy

Sāmoa has a democratic system of government. This means we can describe Sāmoa as being a democracy. Democracy is by no means the only system of Government and we will be studying other systems.

The words 'democracy' comes from the Ancient Greek word 'demos', which means people. Our original ideas about democracy came from a system of social control developed in Ancient Greece where the people of Athens had a say in how they were governed. This was the first formal democracy recorded, and it lasted only 40 years, from 469 BC to 429 BC. This period is sometimes referred to as the Golden Age of Greek culture. Ancient Greek power lasted from 550 BC to 130 BC.

Some of the Greeks' democratic ideas were later adopted by the next major power to develop around the Mediterranean Sea, the Roman Empire. The Romans had a senate where senators met to discuss the day-to-day running of the Empire, but they could only advise the Roman emperor. The emperor was the person who made the decisions, and he had the final say in things. The idea of one person representing a large group of people came from this period, as well as many European concepts about law and peoples' rights. The Roman Empire spanned some 600 years, from 130 BC to 470 AD.

With the fall of the Roman Empire, this area of the world lived through a period called 'The Dark Ages'. It was a time when new kingdoms were established and the power of social control lay with a king and his advisors. The people who made up most of the population had no say in how they were governed. Knowledge about how the Athenians and the Romans used to govern themselves was almost lost. It was only in the monasteries, where monks could study safely, that the knowledge of the ancient languages and the way things had been done was kept alive.

By 1500 AD people began to successfully question many of the values of the previous 1000 years. Artists, sculptors and poets flourished. Sailors from Western Europe started to explore the world, and science was rediscovered.

This period is known as the Renaissance, and with it came an outpouring of the knowledge that had been held in the monasteries. Part of that knowledge was the democratic system of social control practised in ancient Athens, and the legal systems developed by ancient Rome.

Over the next 350 years, many kingdoms changed from being a system where the king had total control to one where people were elected to represent areas of the kingdom. The transfer of power took time and was not always peaceful. This was

the time of the English Civil War (1642–58), the American War of Independence (1775–81) and the French Revolution (1789). Britain, in particular, had evolved a system of elected representation.

Ancient Athens fact sheet

Athens was known as a city state.

It had a small population (around 20 000 people).

A city state comprised of the city and the immediate land around it.

The city people were fed by the farmers who occupied the surrounding land.

Sparta was another city state to the south-west of Athens. It had a different form of Government.

City states often fought each other.

All the citizens of Athens could help make decisions about things, which affected the running of their city.

To be a citizen you had to be:
- ❏ male
- ❏ over 30
- ❏ born of Athenian parents.

Those who were not citizens were:
- ❏ women
- ❏ slaves
- ❏ anyone under 30
- ❏ anyone who had a parent who was born outside of Athens.

All citizens qualified as members of the Assembly, which met once every month.

Everyone who attended the Assembly was equal. (It did not matter what you did for a living.)

Any citizen could put a motion to the Assembly.

To help run the day-to-day matters, a council of 500 citizens was organised.

Every citizen had the chance of being chosen by lot to serve on the council for one year.

A citizen could serve only once on the council.

The Assembly met in the marketplace called the *Agora*, around which were committee and council buildings.

Debating in the Assembly was a very noisy affair, which means that only very persuasive speakers tended to get their ideas accepted.

If no decision was reached, the citizens would debate the issues and talk about them at the next Assembly.

It was believed that to enable a system of direct government by citizens to work *you have to have a small state* and *limit the numbers you allow to be citizens*.

The English word 'idiot' comes from the Greek word that means a private citizen. A private citizen was one who only looked after their own affairs, and didn't bother with the affairs of the city.

	Ancient Athens	**Sāmoa**
Who can have a say?	You have to be male, over 30 and of Athenian parents.	Any person over 21 can vote, so long as they are not serving a prison sentence.
Attendance at the Assembly	Anyone who is a citizen can attend the Assembly.	Only those people who are matai title-holders, elected by the voters, can attend Parliament.
Time of service	Once a month.	People are elected for five years as a full-time job.
Responsibility for day-to-day running	A Council of 500 people who are chosen by lot and can serve only one year.	A civil service (Government Departments) which is run by full-time employed workers
Choice of leaders	Decided by those attending the assembly.	Chosen by the party that wins the election.

Table 6.1.1. Comparison between the Ancient Athenian system of government and Sāmoan system of government

Activity 4

1 Time lines

After reading *The Origins of Democracy* draw a time line to show the events mentioned. Use a scale of 1 cm = 100 years and make your line 25 cm long. This represents 2500 years. Start your line at 500 BC and end it at 2000 AD. Illustrate you time line with drawings from the periods mentioned.

In this way you can 'read' your time line without referring to words.

See the example of a time line layout below:

Time Line

| 500 BC | 0 | 500 AD | 1000 AD | 1500 AD | 2000 AD |
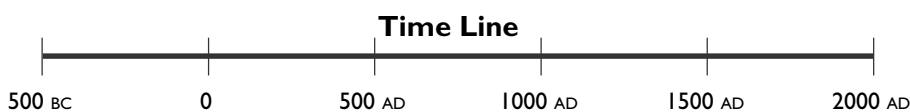
2 Processing information

Using Table 6.1.1, write a series of paragraphs outlining ways in which the Athenian system of government has influenced our system of government. Work in small groups and make sure you talk about what you are going to write before your group puts a finished copy together.

So, What Is Democracy?

In 1863 President Abraham Lincoln abolished slavery in America and defined democracy as 'government of the people, by the people, and for the people'.

In 1935 President Franklin D. Roosevelt said 'Democracy is not a static thing. It is an everlasting march.' Democracy can never be taken for granted, and can always be improved.

Democracy works better in some conditions than in others and succeeds in countries free from foreign threats, where the military are obedient to the civil government, where important political and religious values are shared, and where there is some measure of economic equality.

Figure 6.1.2 Abraham Lincoln

The Features Of Democracy

Power comes from the people:

❏ Those who make and enforce the laws act on behalf of the country.

All people have an equal right to take part in political activity:

❏ This right includes one vote for each person entitled to vote, each vote counting equally; and freedom of speech and information.

The people must be consulted:

❏ Policies must be decided by the people themselves, or by the governments that they choose. Paid officials must do what a government tells them, whether the officials agree with a particular policy or not.

The majority decides in cases of disagreement:

❏ When important choices have to be made, an election or referendum must be held.

Figure 6.1.3 Franklin D. Roosevelt

A modern democracy has some or all of these:

Freedom of speech (you can criticise the government).

Freedom of the press (government cannot say what newspapers do and don't print).

Freedom of peaceful assembly and association (meetings and gatherings of people).

Freedom of religion (government cannot stop you following any religion).

Freedom of movement (government cannot stop you travelling).

Free and regular election for government.

Equal rights for all citizens (people of a country).

A constitution (written or unwritten rules for government).

Two or more political parties (Human Rights Protection Party – HRPP, or Sāmoa All People's Party – SAPP).

Non-violent changes of government (new governments are chosen by an election, not by military takeover).

Courts to uphold the rule of law (in Sāmoa, government has to obey the law like everyone else).

Secret ballot for voting (nobody is allowed to see who you vote for).

Power sharing in the Houses of Parliament (some parliaments have two houses; New Zealand has one and Sāmoa has one also).

Cabinet is under some control from Parliament.

A Bill of Rights to protect people's human rights (a statement of rights that all citizens have).

Government is accountable (can be asked to explain its actions) to the people.

Democracy: Case Study Of New Zealand

New Zealand is a democracy because:

It has a constitution (unwritten but defined in a Constitution Act).

It has a Bill of Rights (1990).

Its laws about government change with the times.

It has a constitutional monarchy style of government (its Head is the British Queen).

The Queen appoints a Governor-General as her personal representative in New Zealand.

The Governor-General does not favour any political party and is a symbol of a united New Zealand.

It has an elected parliament (called the House of Representatives, or just 'the House').

Anyone has the right to ask parliament to fix a grievance (complaint) or change a policy.

It has an elected head of government called the Prime Minister (the old name was Premier).

It has free speech.

People aged 18 years and over are allowed to vote (this is called universal suffrage).

A new parliament is elected every three years.

Anyone who is enrolled as a voter is allowed to stand for election as an MP.

Government cannot function properly without parliament because it cannot raise money or spend money unless parliament gives its permission.

Figure 6.1.4 Cartoon about New Zealand and US political systems

Other Examples Of Democracy

❑ **Monarchies are either constitutional or traditional.**

Constitutional is where the monarch is the symbolic head of state only, and Parliament has the actual power, such as in Britain, Japan, New Zealand, Spain and Sāmoa.

Traditional monarchy is not as democratic because the monarch still controls government, as in Jordan, Nepal, Thailand and Tonga.

❑ A federation is a group of states or provinces that have joined together to make a nation. Usually the national (central or federal) government deals with things like foreign policy, which concern the whole country, while state assemblies or state parliaments pass laws for just themselves. Examples of federations are United States of America, Germany, Canada, Brazil, India and Australia.

❑ A **republic** has no monarch but it has an elected president, as in France and the United States, who has many powers, but is still responsible to the country's central assembly. Some countries are republics because their head of state is an elected president, but the president is the symbolic head of state only. Germany, India and Portugal are three such countries.

Capitalism: Case Study – United States of America

The American citizens who set out to frame a constitution for the United States were keen to adopt and improve upon the better parts of the British system. The people especially did not want to create their own monarchy. They decided instead to become a republic, with a separately elected executive presidency.

A statement about American democracy is the **Declaration of Independence**. Britain used to rule the United States, but on 4 July 1776 the United States rebelled against Britain and declared its right to govern itself. Its declaration of independence starts like this:

'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government . . .'

United States presidential democracy and British parliamentary democracy have both stood the test of time. Each works in its own way, and each has been imitated by other countries over the last 300 years.

There are three branches of government:

1 Executive (President and cabinet).

2 Legislative (Congress).

3 Judicial (Supreme Court);

- ❑ The voters elect the legislature directly, and they also elect the President.
- ❑ The President appoints the members of the cabinet and the Supreme Court.
- ❑ Presidents are elected every four years.
- ❑ Judges of the Supreme Court (nine in all) hold their office for life or until they resign.
- ❑ Members of Cabinet hold office only at the President's will.
- ❑ Congress has two Houses, the Senate (two senators from each state) and the House of Representatives.
- ❑ Members of the House of Representatives, and one-third of the Senate, are elected every two years.

Both can exercise checks on the President's powers in financial matters. The Senate has the power to scrutinise important appointments the President makes, including those to the Supreme Court, to ambassadorships and to the President's Cabinet, and the senate can veto (refuse to support) them. The senate has used its veto, for example when President Clinton wanted to make a particular person ambassador to Egypt. Because the senate committee thought that person was not suitable and did not have enough experience, it vetoed President Clinton's choice and he had to put forward another person.

The Court can veto legislation passed by Congress if it is believed to be unconstitutional. The system has been described as one of 'checks and balances'.

The state governments also consist of three branches:

1 Executive (Governor and Lieutenant Governor).

2 Legislative (two state houses called the State Senate and State House of Representatives).

3 Judicial.

The Governor and the state legislature are elected directly and in most states the lower court judges are also elected directly.

The United States System of Government

Legislative Branch   **Judicial Branch**

Judicial Review

Approves Appointments

CABINET

CONGRESS

| House of Representatives | Senate |

JUDICIARY

Power of Veto →

President

Appoints for life →

← Financial Checks etc.

Elect every two years

Elect one-third every two years

ELECTORAL COLLEGE

Elect every four years

THE VOTERS
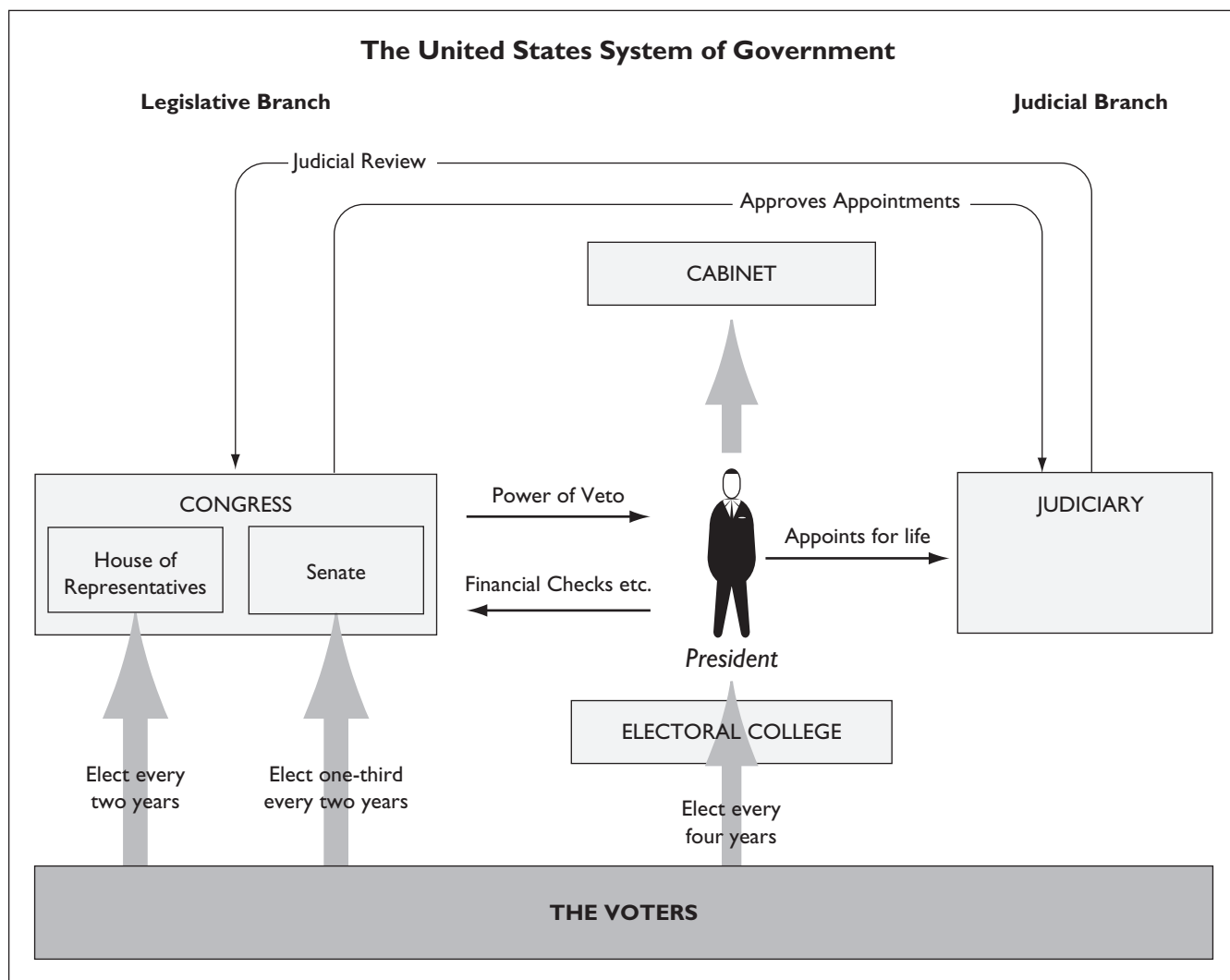
Figure 6.1.4 The United States of America System of Government

What are the features of Capitalism?

❑ Most property is owned by individuals.

❑ Goods and services are exchanged:

In a competitive free market (one that is open to everyone).

❑ Capital (either money or other forms of wealth) is invested in businesses in order to make a profit.

The main belief of capitalism is that individuals try to make as much money as possible and this will be good for humankind as a whole. The freedom to buy and sell goods and services can lead to wealth for many. Capitalism tends to create a different kind of world. Money becomes the centre of society. Capitalism without the control of a government tends to generate wealth and inequality at the same time. The rich become richer, while the poor lose their jobs, wealth and rights.

Capitalism is the economic system that dominates the world we live in. Since the late eighteenth century it has revolutionised the ways people live and work. It has enabled people to provide goods and services in huge quantities, creating great wealth for some. The inventions driving the industrial revolution have rapidly moved

on to greater technical innovation, such as the Internet. At the same time, capitalism has been accused of causing inequality, poverty, socio-economic upheaval, and massive damage to the environment.

Features Of Non-Democratic Government

Tyrants or dictators ban all political parties but their own, smash trade unions and stop freedom of the press. To stay in power they often use brutal methods such as killings, concentration camps, exile, disappearances and imprisonment without trial for anyone who disagrees with them. Adolf Hitler of Germany, Benito Mussolini of Italy and Joseph Stalin in Russia were dictators.

In 1973, Salvador Allende, who was Chile's elected President, died in a bloody military coup led by General Pinochet. Pinochet ignored the constitution, banned all political parties and brought in strict censorship. During his dictatorship, about 3000 dissidents (people who disagreed with the government) were killed, or 'disappeared'.

A *military government* happens when a group of discontented army officers and soldiers uses force to grab power. Examples are Idi Amin in Uganda in 1971, Muammar Qaddafi in 1969 in Libya and Colonel Rambuka in Fiji.

In 1976 a military junta overthrew the widow of General Peron and seized power in Argentina. The reign of organised terror, in which 30 000 people were arrested and vanished without trace, ended only when Britains crushingly defeated the Argentinian military in the 1982 Malvinas/Falklands War. The period 1976–83 is called 'The Dirty War'.

In 1998 a Nigerian-led African force overthrew a military junta from Sierra Leone. The junta had a reputation for brutality and looting, but this was also true of the Nigerian government, which had come to power after the army cancelled the results of elections in 1993 and had executed or imprisoned hundreds of dissidents.

Building a Star Diagram

A star diagram is the easiest diagram of all to make. It is quick to understand and it can help you remember information.

The aims of a star diagram are to summarises information and to show relationships between pieces of information. Its name suggests its shape. Arms (as many as you like) radiate out from the centre. The arms are sometimes called spokes. The spokes are evenly placed around the centre. The centre contains the topic. At the end of each arm is a piece of information, which has been abbreviated so that it is as short as possible. A star diagram needs a title, even if it is the same as the topic in the centre.

1 Ioane and Akesa set out to answer a research question. 'What power in papal government in the Vatican City does the Pope have?'

Part of the challenge was they had to show their conclusions in the least wordy way possible.

❏ They collected and recorded information about papal government from a number of sources.

❏ They chose a star diagram to show their conclusions.

❏ They highlighted the relevant (to do with the topic) information.

❏ They chose the title, the main idea for the centre, and the information at the end of the arms.

2 Ioane and Akesa's information was:

❏ Area of Vatican City – 0.44 sq/km

❏ Vatican City is an independent state within the city of Rome

❏ Sistine Chapel is where College of Cardinals gathers to select new Pope

❏ Population – less than a thousand

❏ Parliament – none

❏ Political pressure groups and leaders – none

❏ Vatican City – headquarters of Catholic Church

❏ Political parties and leaders – none

❏ Elections – Pope elected for life by College of Cardinals

❏ Vatican City was created in 1929 when the Pope agreed that the Papal States (an area in central Italy that he controlled) should be part of Italy and the Italian government recognised the Pope as ruler of the new independent state

❏ Swiss Guard – Pope's personal bodyguard

❏ Cabinet – Commission appointed by the Pope

❏ Head of government – Secretary of State, an Archbishop appointed by Pope

❏ Head of State – Pope – absolute ruler

❏ Suffrage – limited to Cardinals younger than 80

❏ Vatican City has own flag, postal service, radio station, newspaper, coins, laws and diplomatic relations with foreign states.

3 The finished diagram looks like this:

```
                    ┌──────────────────────────┐
                    │  Sacred College of Cardinals │
                    │   advises and helps Pope   │
                    └──────────────────────────┘
                               ↑
 ┌──────────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────────────┐
 │  Chief of State is Pope │          │  Pope is elected for life by │
 └──────────────────────┘            │   College of Cardinals     │
                    ↖    ↗           └──────────────────────────┘
 ┌──────────────────────┐  ╭──────────╮  ┌──────────────────────────┐
 │  Cabinet is a Commission│ │ The Power of│ │  vote is limited to Cardinals │
 │   appointed by Pope    │ │  the Pope  │ │     younger than 80        │
 └──────────────────────┘  ╰──────────╯  └──────────────────────────┘
                    ↙    ↘
 ┌──────────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────────────┐
 │     no parliament      │          │  no political parties or    │
 └──────────────────────┘            │   leaders or groups        │
                               ↓      └──────────────────────────┘
                    ┌──────────────────────────┐
                    │  Secretary of State is an  │
                    │ Archbishop appointed by Pope │
                    └──────────────────────────┘
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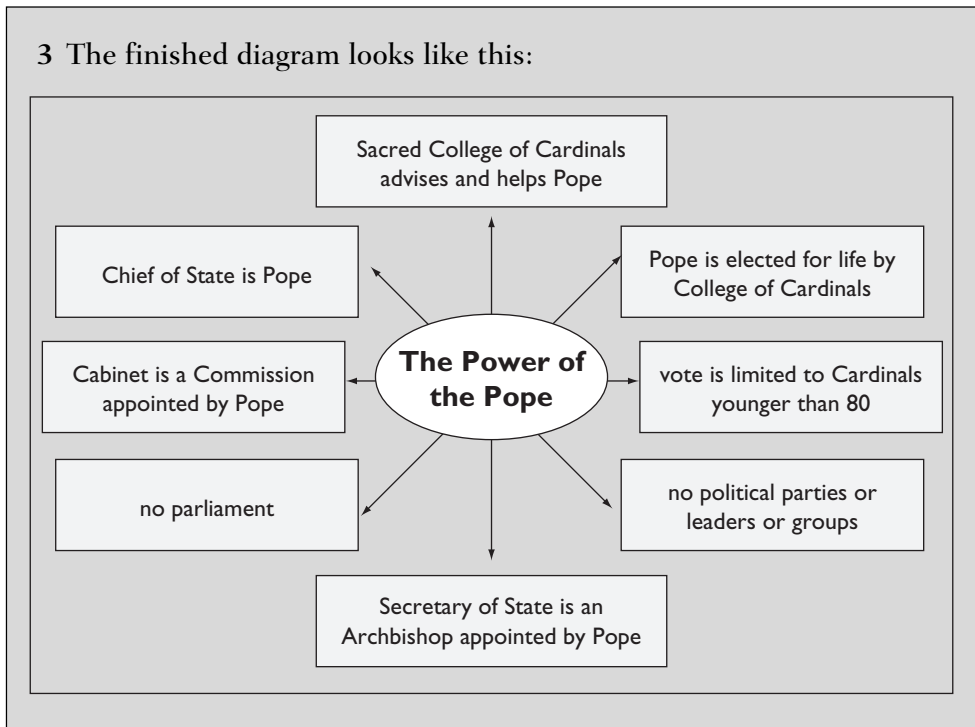
Activity 5 Building a Star Diagram

1 Research a non-democratic country today like Tonga, Zimbabwe, China, etc., and follow the steps that Ioane and Akesa took. Your finished product should be a detailed Star Diagram.

Islam as a Political System

Islam is the religion of Moslems or Muslims. Islamic countries are Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Brunei, The Comoro Islands, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Malaysia, the Maldives, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates and Yemen.

Benazir Bhutto, elected in Pakistan in 1988, was the first female leader of an Islamic state, but some other Islamic countries still do not even allow women to vote.

Absolutism

❑ One person has total control of government.

❑ No checks on the ruler, who can do as s/he wants.

❑ No political parties allowed.

❑ Traditional monarchies such as Bhutan, Saudi Arabia, and Swaziland are absolutist governments. Sheikhdoms and emirates like Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and United Arab Emirates are absolutist governments.

❑ Bhutan is an example of an absolutist monarchist state that has been shut off from the rest of the world. It is on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, between Tibet and India and has an autocratic monarch who has tried to keep the old culture alive and western influences out. TV was banned until

1999. Only about 5000 tourist permits are granted each year. Traditional Bhutanese costume is compulsory; those who wear anything else face a fine of $3.30, which is three days' wages. All buildings have to be in the traditional style with multi-coloured wood frontages, small arched windows, sloping roofs and no nails. There is no written constitution and the king is an absolute monarch. He has four wives who are all sisters, and has been in power since 1972. Bhutan is one of the poorest countries in the world but the King says: 'We seek Gross National Happiness, not Gross National Income'. According to Amnesty International, the King has ordered the imprisonment and torture of anyone who is suspected of working towards a democracy.

Activity 6 Map Exercise

1 Trace the outlline of the World Map opposite into your book.

2 Find the following places using an atlas, and place them into your 'own map'.

Locate the following:

a Some examples of **Constitutional governments**:

Britain

Japan

Spain

Sāmoa

b Some examples of **Traditional Monarchies**:

Tonga

Thailand

Nepal

Jordan

c Some examples of **Republics**:

Germany

India

Portugal
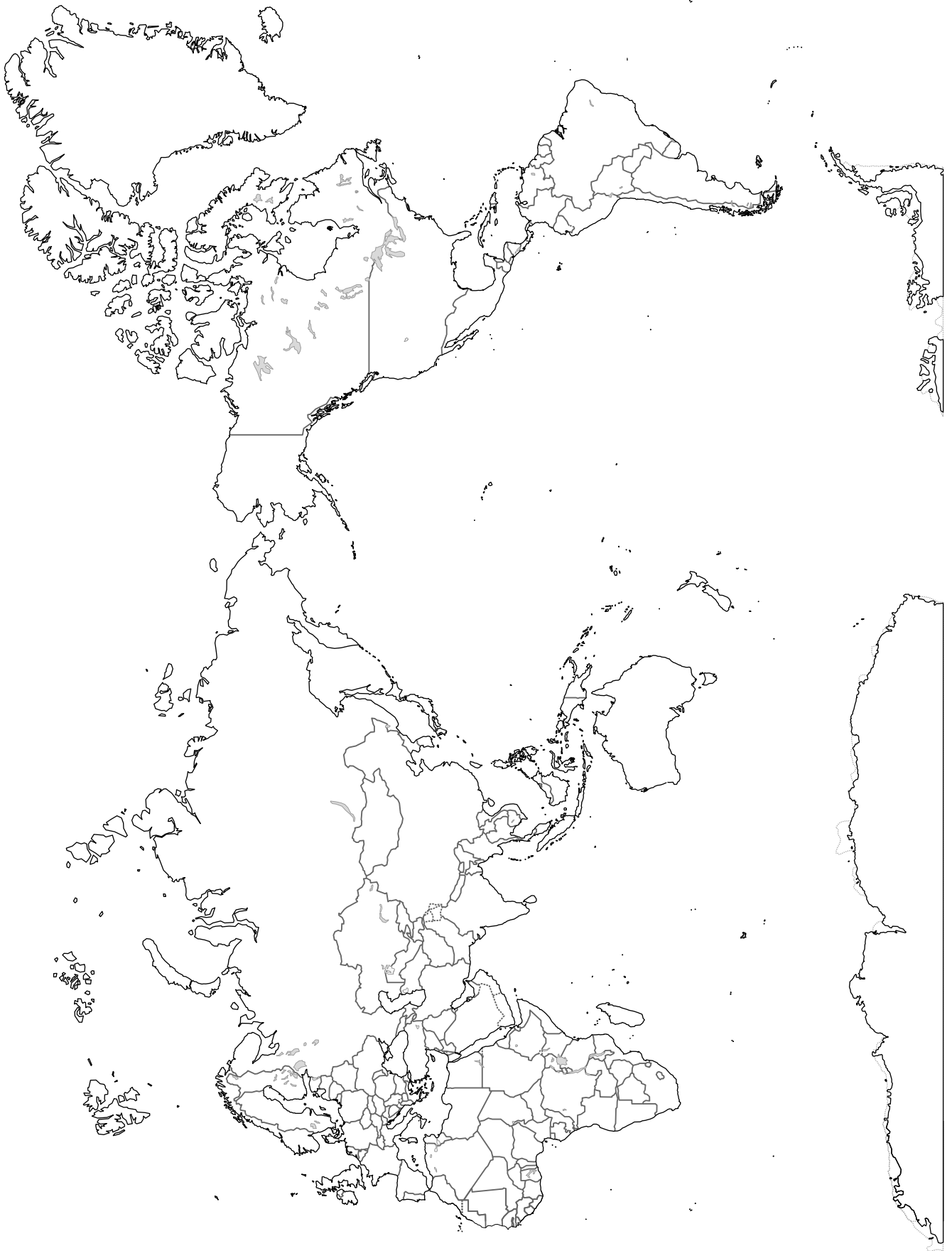
d Some examples of **Non-democratic governments**:

North Korea

China

Saudi Arabia

Bhutan

Communism: Case Study Of The USSR

A German called Karl Marx published the original notion of communism in 1867. His communist society was to have communal ownership of property, one social class and no government. Everybody would work, according to her/his ability and everything would belong to the people, to be shared by everyone according to need.

Communist governments are oligarchies (in which power is held by a few people – a clique). The Communist party controls all state organisations, trade unions and the media.

The first country to get a communist government was Russia (later called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or the USSR) after a revolution in 1917.

Communism in Russia after the 1917 Revolution

- ❏ All political parties except the Communist Party were banned.
- ❏ Elections were held, but the only names on the voting papers were communists.
- ❏ The government took control of all businesses, factories, farms, shops, banks and resources.
- ❏ Newspapers, books and television were made to follow the official line.
- ❏ The government took control of entertainment such as cinemas, ballet, orchestras and circuses.
- ❏ Religion was discouraged. Priests and other religious leaders were made fun of in state-controlled newspapers and television and many churches were turned into museums and government buildings.
- ❏ Secret police hunted down critics and huge purges (getting rid of unwanted people by killing them or sending them to labour camps) took place.
- ❏ Non-communist countries were scared that once communism took hold in one country, it would spread to neighbouring countries. They called this idea The Domino Theory.
- ❏ Until the early 1990s, there was tension between the communist countries (the USSR and its friends), and non-Communist countries (the US and its allies). This was called The Cold War, because both powers built up their armed forces and stock-piled weapons but did not actually go into battle against one another.
- ❏ Mikhail Gorbachev became leader of the Communist Party in the USSR in 1985. He started *perestroika* (economic restructuring), *glasnost* (openness) and *demokratsiya* (moves towards democracy). By 1991 the USSR and communism had collapsed. The old USSR is now called the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).
- ❏ Communism has survived in China, North Korea, Indo-China and Cuba. These five areas have 24% of the world's population.
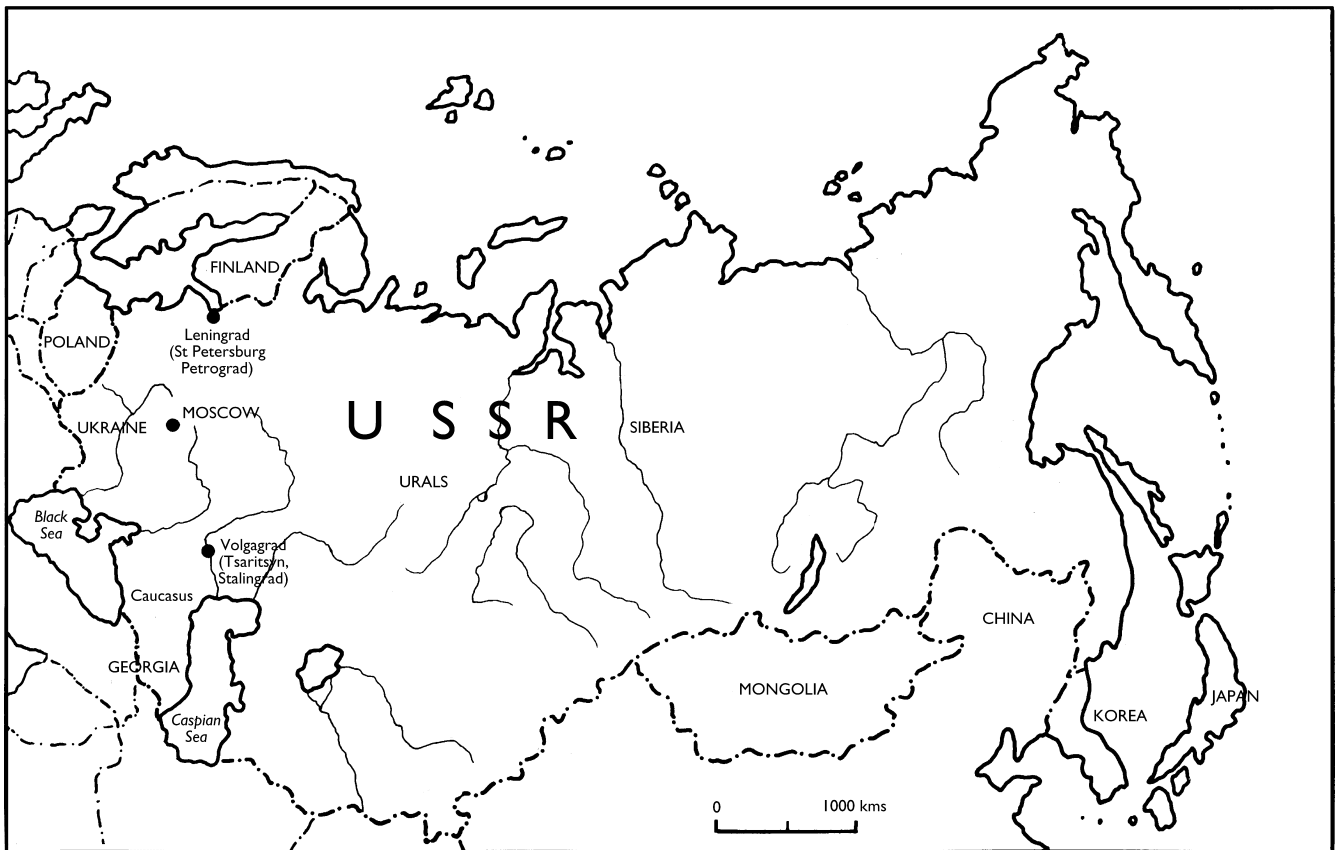
Figure 6.1.6 The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)

Activity 7

Look at the above map.

1. Make a list of countries that border the Russian empire.

2. How does the size of Russia compare with that of other countries on the map?

3. How can the size of the country be a disadvantage?

What were the major forces which influenced the change of government in Russia?

In the early twentieth century a Tsar (Czar), whose family had been in power for 300 years, ruled the Russian Empire. Some chosen ministers helped the Tsar to govern, but his authority was absolute. Russia in 1900 remained an **autocracy**. The Tsar's official title was **'Emperor and Autocrat of All Russians'**. The Tsar had a parliament, but it only advised him and he ignored it most of the time, for he decided laws by himself.

The nobility, a small group of wealthy titled families, supported him. So did the majority of the middle class of businessmen, lawyers and doctors. The Russian Orthodox Church also taught the peasants to respect the Czar. The church was rich and owned a lot of land. The peasants and workers were not asked for their advice. They did not have the vote. Any opposition to the Tsar was dealt with harshly by the secret police, the **Okhrana**.

The strength of an autocracy depends on the personality and ability of the person in authority. Tsar Nicholas II was a loving husband and father, devoted to his wife and family, but he was not an able politician. The flaws in his personality and those of his wife, the Tsarina Alexandra, were among the major reasons for the downfall of the Romanov dynasty in 1917.

Most of the Tsar's subjects were peasants who lived in very poor conditions. Until 1861, peasants (then called 'serfs') could be bought and sold – even killed – by their landlords. Even after 1861 they were poor, heavily taxed and could be forced to join the military. Most could not read or write because education was only for the rich.

The weaknesses of the Tsar's rule were quite simple. Russia was economically backward. Eighty per cent of the people were agricultural peasants who lived in shocking conditions. Industry had come late to Russia and was concentrated in large cities. The workers lived in slums, working long hours in bad conditions for low wages.

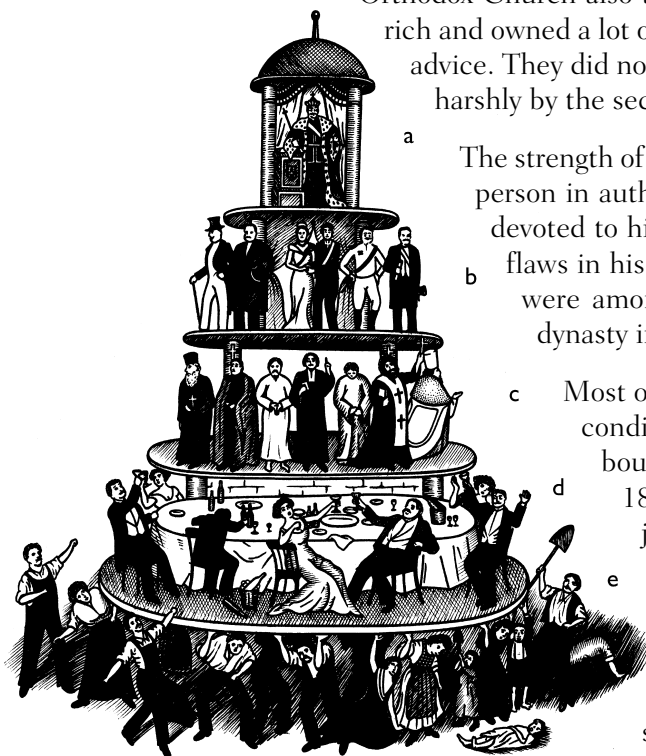*Figure 6.2.1 Society in Tsarist Russia – (a) the Tsar, (b) nobility, (c) Russian Orthodox Church, (d) the middle class and (e) the peasants*

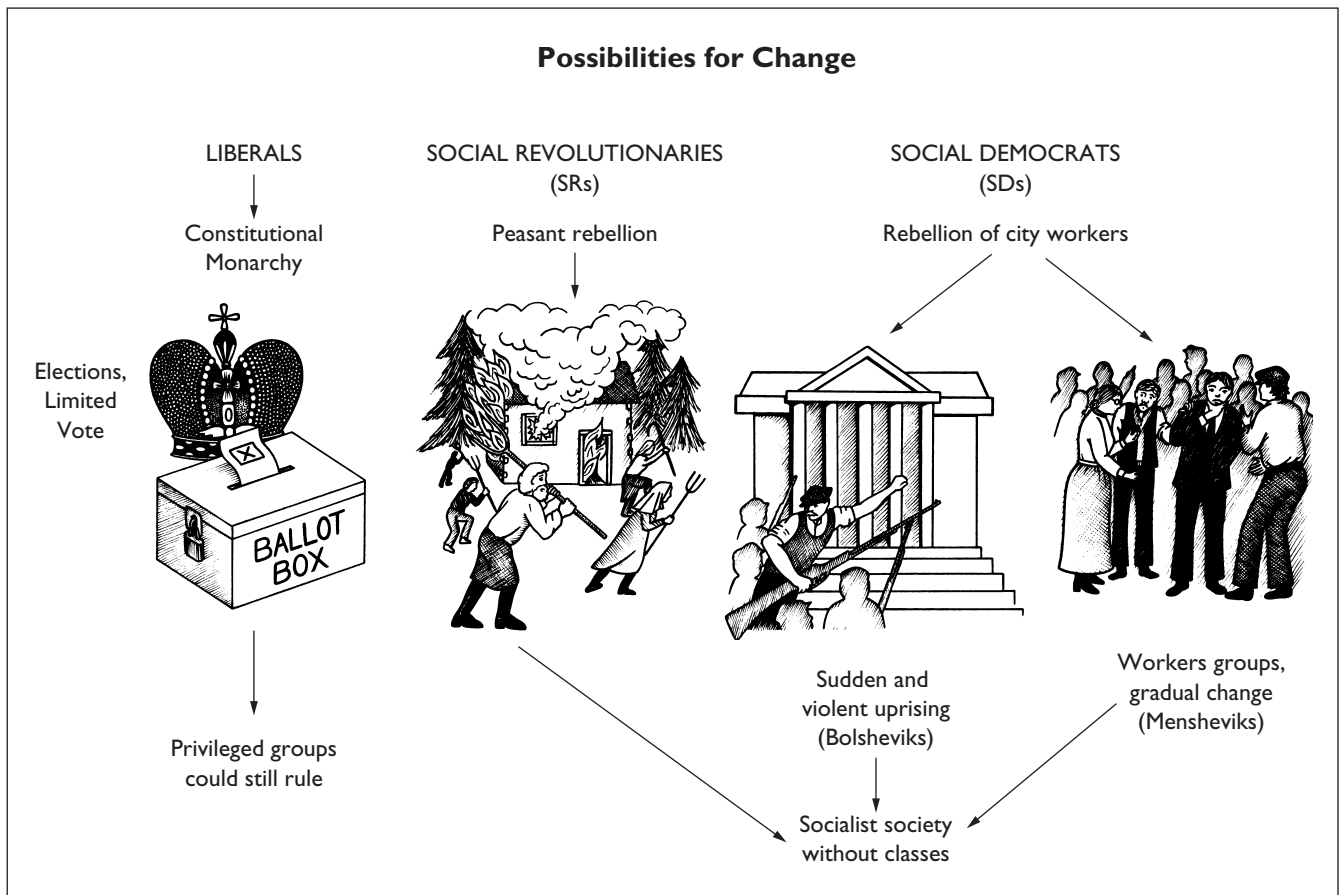The Tsar by 1905 did set up a type of parliament (**Duma**), after widespread trouble from the workers, but the Duma really only represented the nobility and middle class. The Tsar could overrule it, and he even abolished it when he did not like its recommendations.

Those who wanted change could not agree upon what sort of change they wanted, nor how they could achieve it. Three possibilities are shown here:

Possibilities for Change

LIBERALS → Constitutional Monarchy

Elections, Limited Vote

Privileged groups could still rule

SOCIAL REVOLUTIONARIES (SRs) → Peasant rebellion

SOCIAL DEMOCRATS (SDs) → Rebellion of city workers

Sudden and violent uprising (Bolsheviks)

Workers groups, gradual change (Mensheviks)

Socialist society without classes

Activity 1

1 Name the sections of Russian society labelled **a** to **e**. (Figure 6.2.1), page 182.

2 Imagine you are leading an invasion of the Tsar's empire. What would make it easy for you to take over the country?

3 What might cause you problems?

4 What are the meaning of the following Russian words?
   ❑ Okhrana
   ❑ Duma.

5 What was the **system of government** in Russia under the Tsar called?
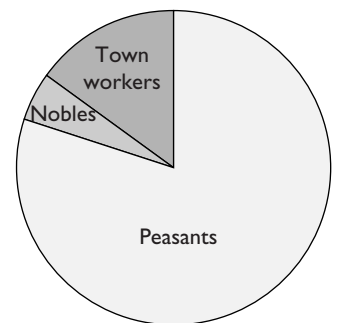
Proportions of Population

Figure 6.2.2 Pie chart showing the proportions of population in Tsarist Russia

What influences did Karl Marx and Lenin have on the change of leadership in Russia?

Useful terms

Abdication: giving up the throne;

Bosheviks/Bolshevism: former term for Communists;

Inflation: continuing rise in prices;

Assassination: killing of a person(s) secretly, usually an important leader.
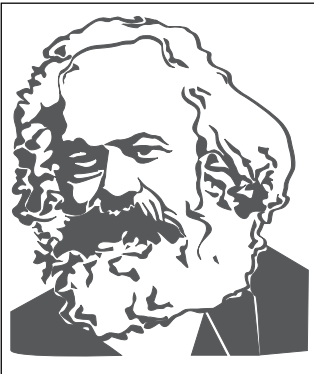
Figure 6.3.1 Karl Marx

Karl Marx

Born in 1818, Marx was a German philosopher and economist, but lived much of his life in London. He did not like what he saw of industrial Britain at that time. He saw the huge gap between rich and poor, and the horrible conditions under which many people, including children, worked for very little pay.

Marx believed that the proletariat (industrial workers in the towns) was becoming poorer and poorer because the rich people were exploiting them. The rich people who had the money (capital) he called 'capitalists' or the 'bourgeoisie', and he believed they held far too much power.

According to Marx politics was 'class warfare' – the proletariat against the bourgeoisie. He said the proletariat should take over the factories, and the running of the country by means of a revolution. Then the workers, who would share the profits equally among themselves, would own all factories.

The people would own all the property of the country. There would be no need for the 'state' to provide public services such as the army, police, prisons and so on. What would be left would be a perfect communist society.

'Dictatorship of the proletariat' came to be the basic idea on which the Russian Communist Party based its power.

Vladimir Ulyanov (better known as Lenin)

He was born in 1870. His mother was the daughter of gentry, his father a schoolteacher. In 1887, when Lenin was 17, his brother Alexander was executed for plotting to assassinate Tsar Alexander III.

Lenin was strongly influenced by Marx. Lenin and others thought and wrote about Marx's ideas and so developed what we now call 'communism'. Lenin did not believe in waiting for the revolution and aimed to do everything possible to start a revolt in Russia. He organised a tight-knit group around him, called 'Bolsheviks', and turned them into a highly trained and loyal group of revolutionaries. The Tsarist government was well aware of their existence and forced Lenin to spend many years in exile in Britain and Switzerland. He helped start a Marxist paper, Iskra ('Spark'). By 1911 he wrote in despair, 'I may never live to see the revolution'. A few years later Lenin had achieved his revolution and was in power.

Figure 6.3.2 Lenin

One way to change government and society

Karl Marx studied in nineteenth century Britain at a time when industry was growing rapidly. He identified two social classes: *Capitalists* – wealthy owners of factories and other property; and *Proletariat* – those who did the work and produced the goods but who owned little or nothing. Marx believed society would progess in the way shown by the pictures on the right and below.
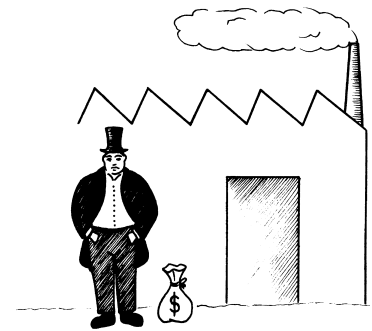
1. *Capitalism* – Most of the profits earned by the proletariat go into the pockets of the capitalists.

2. *Revolution* – The proletariat grows and becomes better organised. It overthrows the capitalists and their government.

3. *Socialism* – For a while there would have to be strict controls until society was reorganised. The State would own all land and industry. Anyone who disagreed would be disposed of.
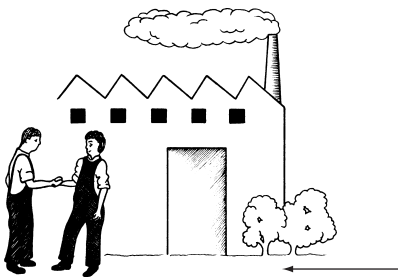
4. *Communism* – When society had adjusted to the Revolution, the state, no longer needed, would 'wither away'. A perfect communist society with no classes, no property owners and no bosses would emerge. Everyone would be equal.

Figure 6.3.3 Karl Marx's theory of communism

World War I

When war broke out, the exiled Lenin was scornful. The capitalist rulers had caused the war and it was being fought for their benefit, yet it was the workers and peasants who were to be sacrificed in battle. To him the real enemies were the capitalists of all countries.

At the beginning of the war, the Russians supported the war effort and were united around the Tsar, but compared to the Germans, Russian soldiers were poorly trained and equipped. Peasant soldiers were often badly fed and equipped, and were treated with contempt by their aristocratic officers.

By 1917, there had been six million Russian casualties. Sixteen million peasants had been taken off the land to fight, and the Germans had overrun some of the richest farmlands.

The Tsar, leader of the army and the country, was blamed for both the defeats and the shortages.

Internal And External Factors Of Revolution

What internal and external factors caused a revolution to break out in Petrograd in March 1917? How did this revolution lead to the downfall of the Tsar?

In February and March 1917, discontent throughout Russia reached dangerous levels. A severe winter had almost shut down the railway system. Serious food and fuel shortages resulted in ever-increasing prices (**inflation**). The situation was more acute in Petrograd, where a series of strikes and lockouts meant that thousands of cold, hungry citizens had time and opportunity to express their frustration and anger. People began to speak out about their opposition to a hated war and an incompetent and unpopular government.

Some army generals and politicians, who did not like the fact that Russia was losing the war, now secretly supported the **abdication** of the Tsar or his overthrow.

In March 1917, the Russian revolution that overthrew the Tsar broke out and a provisional government (a government to fill in until elections) was set up with Alexander Kerensky as Prime Minister. However, in October 1917, judging the time to be right, Lenin lead another revolution and within hours the **Bolsheviks** had taken control of the capital.

Russia withdrew from its war with Germany, a move that was popular with most Russians. However, Russia was soon involved in a civil war which raged from 1918 to 1920 between the Red (communist) army and the White Russians (anti-Bolsheviks) who were helped by Britain, France, the United States and Japan.

These countries, allies of the Tsar in World War I, wanted revenge for the **assassination** of the Tsar and his family by the Bolsheviks in 1918. They were also angry that Lenin had made his own peace with Germany. Most importantly, the allies wanted to stamp out **Bolshevism** before it secured complete control of Russia and possibly spread communist ideas to Europe and the rest of the world.

Despite tremendous odds, the Bolsheviks won and established the world's first Communist state. By 1923 the communists had proclaimed their new state – the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR).

Case study Of Communist China

What were the foreign forces or influences that shaped the change of leadership in China by 1949?

Chinese leaders believed that one of the serious problems which they faced was the interference of foreign nations in their country's affairs.

Sun Yat Sen described it: 'We are the poorest and weakest state in the world, occupying the lowest position in international affairs; the rest of the world is the carving knife and the serving dish while we are the fish and the meat'.

The European powers and Japan had used force to establish their trade in China since the 1850s. They did not want to take responsibility for China's government, but were in control in the areas of mines, railways and factories. They controlled and set China's tariffs (custom duties), collected taxes and brought into China their own armies and warships to defend their trade against local disturbances. The Chinese complained about being treated as second-class citizens in their own country whenever they went into Western-dominated parts of Shanghai. They saw the signs on parks and restaurants 'Chinese and dogs forbidden'. At racecourses and resorts the Chinese worked as servants only.

In the 1830s British and American traders brought opium from British-ruled India to China. The attempts by the Chinese to stop this trade led to the 'Opium Wars' (1839–1842) between Britain and China, in which China suffered a humiliating defeat.

In 1842, the Treaty of Nanjing was signed, which forced China to open five Chinese ports to foreign trade and to make trading concessions, which began a long period of national humiliation. China was repeatedly forced by the stronger military power of Western forces to make trading concessions.

The new 'open door' policy, in which foreign nations could trade freely with China, meant further economic crises for the Chinese. Cheap foreign textiles created unemployment, made worse by the rapidly growing population in the Chinese countryside.

Because China was weakened, other nations competed for Chinese territories. Tsarist Russia acquired territory in East Asia, taking half of Manchuria and the coast of Korea. The French annexed North Vietnam and the British extended their control over Burma.

China was further humiliated when it lost the war with Japan in 1894. In the Treaty of Shimonoseki, signed in 1895, Japan received Formosa, and Korea was

made independent from China. In the late 1890s Russia, Germany, France, Britain and Japan greatly increased their political and economic holdings in China.

By the early twentieth century, Chinese resentment at the 'open door' policy and their sense of humiliation led to the growth of Chinese nationalism.

Three important Leaders in the struggle for Leadership

Sun Zhongshan or Sun Yat Sen – Founder of the Chinese Republic
Born near Canton in 1867 into a peasant family in the southern Treaty Port of Guangshou. His family converted to Christianity, and Sun was educated in a Christian school. His anti-imperial ideas led him overseas. He trained as a doctor in Hawaii and Hong Kong and travelled to Japan, the USA and Europe to spread the anti-Manchu message. Returning to China, Sun founded the Revive China movement and the United League (Tungmenghui), to bring together different groups who wanted China to become strong again. This was the basis for the Guomingdang, the Nationalist Party founded by Sung Yat Sen, who died in 1925.

The 'Three People's Principles' which he had drawn up were:

❑ democracy;

❑ an adequate living stand for all, and;

❑ freedom from foreign control. (Democracy, Livelihood and Nationalism)

Jiang Jieshi know as Chiang Kai Shek – Leader of the Guomindang
Jiang was born in 1887 to a merchant family in Zheijiang. He was sent to Japan to get a military education. He returned in 1911, joined the revolution in overthrowing the Manchu Empire. In 1918, Jiang became a member of Sun Yat Sen's revolutionary government, and Commandant of the Whampoa Military Academy.

After Sun's death in 1925, Jiang became the leader of the Guomindang. He was also the President of the Nationalist Party from 1928–31, and again from 1943–49. After 1927, Jiang led the right wing of the Guomindang in a civil war against the communists. After many years of struggle, the communists won and exiled Jiang to the island of Taiwan, where he led an authoritarian, anti-communist regime with the backing of the United States.

Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) – co-founder of the Chinese Communist Party
Born in 1893 into a peasant family, Mao rose to become the most important figure in twentieth century China. Mao was born in the village of Shaoshan, in the Hunan province of southern China. His father was a farmer who grew and traded in rice. His mother was a devout Buddhist, and Mao was the eldest of four children. Mao loved to read and was a student when a revolution overthrew the Chinese emperor and government in 1911. In 1918, Mao worked as an assistant librarian at Beijing University and learned about the ideas and aims of communism. By 1919, he was one of 12 founding members of the Chinese Communist Party. The young communists joined forces with the Nationalist Party (called the Guomindang or Kuomintang) and tried to unite China.

Mao's unique combination of vision, stubbornness, political ingenuity and military skill played a major role in leading the communists to victory over the nationalists. Mao became the ruler of China from the foundation of the People's Republic in 1949 until his death in 1976.

Mao believed in the possibility of revolution based on the peasants, rather than the industrial workers as in Russia.

What were the internal and external factors and forces which gave rise to Communism in China?

By the early twentieth century many believed that the solution to China's problems was a political revolution. This idea was inspired by nationalism – the desire to rid China of foreign influence, which had been significant since the middle of the nineteenth century.

At the end of World War I, when Japan gained more territories from the Allies and the Bolsheviks had won the revolution in Russia, some Chinese politicians became more influenced by Marxist ideas. From this emerged the Chinese Communist Party (CCP).

China was very much like Russia in many ways. It was a vast country, supporting a huge population, whose economy was backward and the majority of whose people were poor. The CCP, mostly students and academics, looked for inspiration to Russia, where Lenin's Bolsheviks had seized power in 1917, and set up the world's first communist government. The possibility of socialism in China seemed very attractive. Mao Zedong later said that 'the gunfire of the Russian revolution brought Marxism to China'.

During the 1920s, poverty and desolation spread across the nation. The reformers who had sought to free China from imperial rule seemed to have destroyed the country. Many rival warlords fought small wars among themselves for control of large parts of China. The question was, with the emperors gone, where was the new political system to be found?

The Guomindang or Nationalist Party, set up in 1912, was to rule for the next 40 years. It was the dominant force in Chinese political life but its rival the Communist Party (CCP) was rapidly increasing in popularity.

As the communist movement gathered more support, the question of their relations with the nationalists became crucial. At first the two groups were happy to work together because both bitterly opposed foreign interference in China, both sought an end to warlord power, and both wanted to reunite the nation. They also shared concerns about the poverty and bad living conditions in the country.

The communists were very much the junior partners. By 1926 the nationalists had 200 000 members whereas the communists only had 10 000. However, many people were dissatisfied with the alliance. Businessmen were unhappy about the communists – because they encouraged waves of strikes that spread throughout

the cities, while landlords feared the threat of peasant unrest. As the 1920s advanced, the left and right wings of the nationalist movement became increasingly divided.

In 1924 Chiang Kai-Shek, later to become the leader of the party, became the new commander of the Guomindang military academy.

The alliance between the Guomindang and the communists was to end in a blood bath in 1927 because Chiang Kai-Shek saw the communists as a threat, and anyone suspected of communist sympathies was killed.

The Shanghai Purge marked the end of any co-operation between nationalists and communists. The two parties became enemies, locked in a power struggle for the future of China. There would be 22 years of conflict before one side finally won.

Maintaining an iron discipline

Mao believed from the start that the communists could only win power if they maintained tight discipline. Early in the War of Resistance against Japan, Mao spelled out the strict rules to be enforced on members of the Communist Party:

'We must affirm anew the discipline of the party, namely:

1 The individual is subordinate (second in rank) to the organisation

2 The minority is subordinate to the majority

3 The lower level is subordinate to the higher level, and

4 The entire membership is subordinate to the Central Committee.

Whoever violates these articles of discipline disrupts party unity.'

The Long March

After the disasters of 1927, China's communists found themselves on the defensive. A few organisers survived secretly in the cities, especially in Shanghai. Their activities tended to be very much under the influence of advisers sent from Moscow by the Soviet leader, Josef Stalin.

Other communists lived as outlaws in the countryside. By 1931 the largest of the guerrilla bands in Jiangxi province was led by Mao, who was only 36 years old. Mao was now in control of China's communists.

The Long March (October 1934–September 1935) took China's main surviving communist force from its south eastern base, where it was under siege from nationalists, to a new base in Shaanxi province around the town of Yan'an. The march took 12 months and covered 13 000 kilometres.
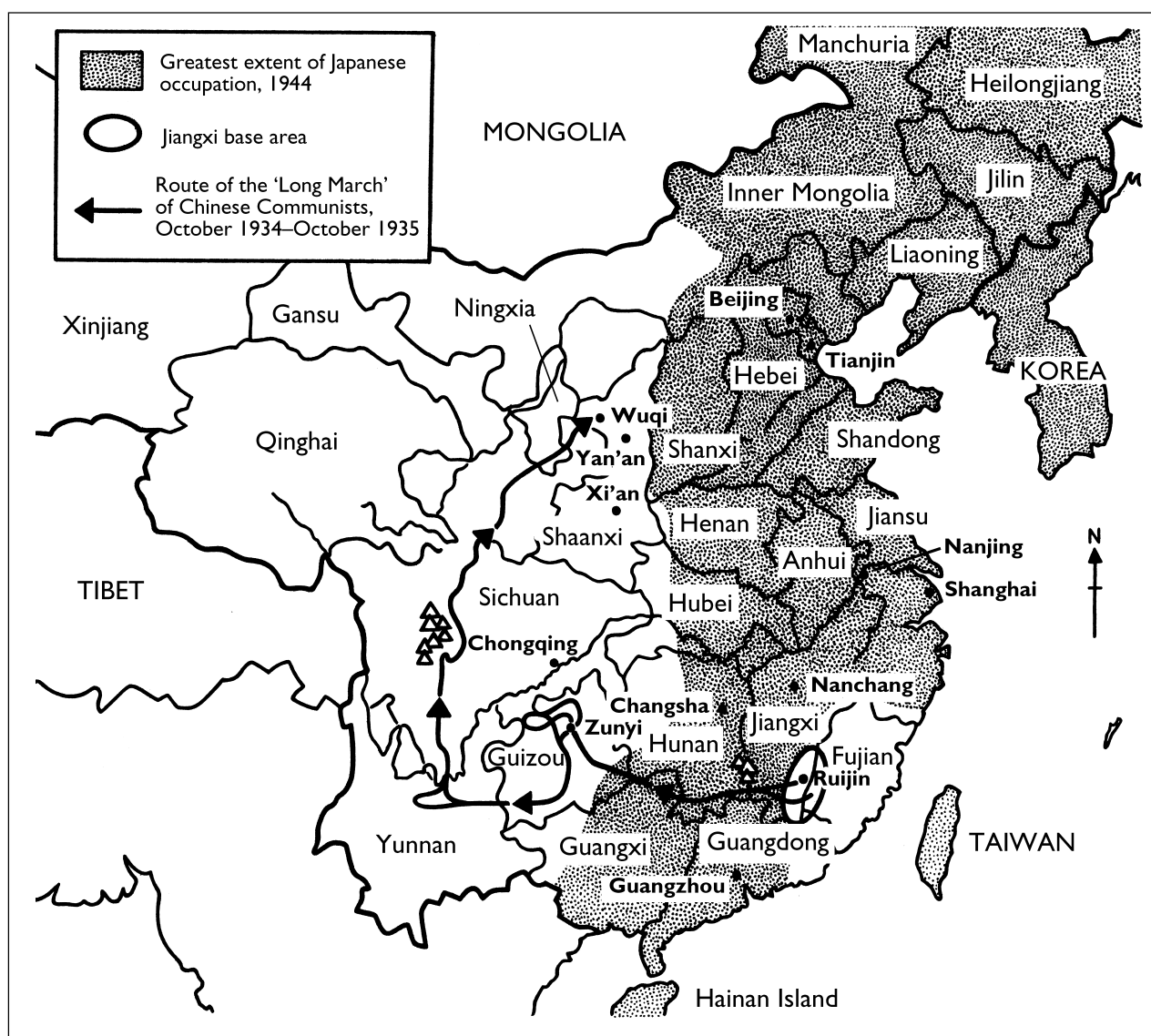
Figure 6.5.1 This map shows the dangerous, winding route of the Long March

Japan invades China

In July 1937 Japan launched a full-scale invasion of China. The communists and nationalists joined together to fight Japan. By the end of 1938, almost all of China's major cities were in Japanese hands. By the time World War II broke out in 1939, China was in effect divided into three uneven parts. The largest and most prosperous, in the north and east of the country, was under Japanese control although, from 1940, it was nominally governed by a puppet Chinese regime (who did what the Japanese told them).

In the north-west, Mao's communists gained ground. They won support by respecting the property of the local peasants and by campaigning to reduce rents and taxes in the area they controlled. Their corner of China was poverty-stricken, so they preached economic sufficiency, encouraged small-scale industry and set soldiers to work in the fields.

However, the main reason why the communists increased their popularity was the guerrilla war they waged against the Japanese.

On the other hand, the nationalist government became more corrupt. Chiang Kai-Shek responded to the shortage of money by printing large amounts of paper money. This resulted in massive inflation – prices rose by a factor of 250 between 1942

and 1944. Chiang Kai-Shek's local governors imposed harsh taxes on the local population, while his secret police clamped down on any protest. The nationalist leadership became very unpopular and many people called them 'downriver gangsters'

Japan and China fought for eight years, and when the Japanese finally pulled out in 1945, it wasn't due to the struggle in China but because the atomic bomb had been dropped by America on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, defeating Japan and ending World War II.

The war with Japan cost the Chinese an estimated 1.3 million soldiers, along with a huge number of civilian deaths.

Civil War breaks out

There were further problems with civil war as the nationalists and the communists battled for control of China now that the Japanese had departed. The nationalists had the support of the US, Britain and, nominally at least, the USSR. (Although the USSR was a communist state, it sometimes did not give strong support to Chinese communists because it wanted to be the leader of world communism, and it feared that China with its large population would compete for that role.)

Corruption amongst the nationalists was rife. Chiang Kai-Shek still maintained that he believed in democracy. His regime, however, was authoritarian. It repressed free speech, lost support of the middle class and aroused student protest.

Worst of all, the inflation that had already started in the war years was now out of control. By 1948, the asking price for 500 grams of rice had risen to a quarter of a million Chinese dollars.

People's savings disappeared. Those on fixed incomes found their salaries were worthless even before they were paid. Morale plummeted.

The civil war between the nationalists and communists raged on, with Mao planning a brilliant campaign using guerilla (underground) tactics. By 1949 the Red Army (communist) had won the war. The nationalists were beaten.

The People's Republic

On 1 October 1949 in Beijing, Mao pronounced the foundation of the People's Republic of China with himself as President. He declared: 'Ours will no longer be a nation subject to insult and humiliation. We have stood up.'

Revision

Short Answer Questions

 1 Explain the meaning of the following terms:
   a Democracy   b Communism
   c Fascism   d Capitalism
   e Totalitarianism   f Republic

 2 Where did democracy first originate?

 3 Give two examples of democracy.

 4 Name a country that is a republic.

 5 Name two countries that are ruled by a constitutional monarchy.

 6 Name two countries that are non-democratic.

 7 Where did the ideas of communism come from?

 8 Give four reasons why New Zealand is a democracy.

 9 Name two well-known dictators.

10 What power does the Pope have?

11 Why was the Tsar of Russia so powerful?

12 What was the Russian secret police called?

13 Give two reasons why the Russian working class were dissatisfied with the country's system of power.

14 What was China's 'Open Door Policy'?

15 What was the reason for the civil war in China?

16 Who was Chiang Kai-Shek?

17 Who was Mao Zedong?

18 Who won the civil war in China?

19 Why is present day China NOT a true communist country?

Multiple Choice Questions

 1 An extreme left-wing political system is
   a Fascism   b Communism
   c Democracy   d Capitalism.

 2 To be a citizen of Athens you had to be:
   a female, under 30 and born in Athens
   b male, under 30, and born in Athens
   c female, over 30, born of Athenian parents
   d male, over 30, born of Athenian parents.

 3 Tyrants or dictators are:
   a absolute rulers, where no other political powers are allowed in their country
   b military rulers with limited power
   c constitutional monarchs
   d republican leaders of their country.

4 Today communism has survived in:

    a the USSR, North Korea, Indo-China and Cuba

    b China, North Korea, Indo-China and Cuba

    c the USSR, South Korea, Indo-China and Cuba

    d China, North Korea, the USSR and Cuba.

5 The Bolshevik revolution refers to:

    a the Chinese revolution

    b the War of Independence in America

    c the communist revolution in Russia

    d the cold war between the USA and Russia.

6 China and Russia are similar because:

    a both are huge in population and size and the majority of the population are poor

    b both economies are backward with a huge population

    c both are huge in population and size and the majority are industrial workers

    d both economies are backward with a small population.

Part 6 – Summary

Think through what you have learned through the units in this Part. Ask yourself if you can provide specific, in-depth answers to each of the focusing questions that have guided the unit.

1 I can compare and contrast the differences between communism and democracy and capitalism ☐

2 I can identify the important conditions that shape a specific country's system of government ☐

3 I can describe the major forces or foreign influences on a specific country's chosen form of government ☐

4 I can compare and contrast different leadership styles within different countries ☐

5 I can identify and describe the internal and external forces that have shaped the type of leadership specific countries have developed ☐

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
access		
account	accountable	take into account
accurate	accurately	
acquire		
activity	active	
actual	actually	
administer	administration	
adopt		
advance		
affect		
agent		
agree	agreement	international agreements
aim	the main aim	
alter		
alternative		
analyse		
appear	disappear, disappearance	
appoint	appointment	
approve		
arise	arose, arisen	
arrange	arrangement	
arrest		
assist	assistant, assistance	
attempt		
attract	attraction, attractive	
available		
avoid		
balance	balance of trade	
base	basis, basic	based on
battle		
belief	believe	
benefit		
blame		
block		
border		
boundary		
bulk	the bulk of	
cancel	cancellation	
capable	capability	
capital	capitalism, capitalist	
carry out		
case	in case of, in the case of	
challenge		
characteristics		
claim	land claims	
collect	collection	

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
colony	colonial, coloniser	
combine	combined, combination	
commercial		
committee		
common	commonly	
communication	telecommunications	
compel	compulsory	
compete	competing, competition, competitive	
complex		
complicated		
concentrate	concentrated, concentration	
concern	concerned with, concerned about	
confer	conference	
confidence		
confirm		
conflict		
conquer		
consequence		
consider	considerable	
consult		
contact	in contact with, the early contact period	
contain		
contribute		
convert	conversion	conversion to Christianity
co-operate	co-operation	
council		
create	creation	
culture	cultural	
daily		
deal with		
debt		
decision	decide	
declare	declaration	Declaration of Independence
defend		
define	definition	
demand		
department		
descend from	descendant	
describe	description	
design		
desire	desirable	desire for, desirable goods
destruction	destructive, destroy	
determine		
develop	development	develop a policy, economic development
direct	directly	a direct result
discuss	discussion	

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
dispute	solve a dispute	
distinct		
distribute	distribution	
dominate		
draw	draw up a timetable	
efficient		
elect	elected, election	
empire	imperial, imperialism	
employ	employment, unemployment	
enable		
encourage	discourage	
equipment	equip	
essential		
establish	establishment	
evidence		
exception	except	
exist	existing, existence	
expand	expansion	
expert		
extend	extended, extent,	to a great extent, extensive, extensively
external	external aid	
extreme	extremist	
factor	economic and political factors	
failure		
favour	favourable, unfavourable	in favour of
financial		
firm	large trading firms	
firm	firmly	
formal	formally, informally	
fortunate	fortunately, unfortunately	
frame	framework, time frame	frame a constitution
frequent	frequently	
fuel	to fuel the conflict	
function		
gap	the gap between rich and poor	
generation	generate	
gradual	gradually	
grant		
harmful	harm	
hostile	hostility	hostilities between the two countries
huge	was a huge influence	
imitate	imitation	
incident		
independent	independence, independently	
individual	individually	
influence	foreign influence	

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
instance	for instance, in one instance	
interfere	interference	
internal		
international		
intervene	intervention	
invade	invasion	
involve	involved, involving	involved in the conflict
isolate	isolated, isolation	
justify	justification	
legal	legal status	
level	a high level of debt	
link		
loyal	loyalty	
maintain	maintain stability	
major	majority	
manage	manager	
mass	massive	massive quantities
military		
motive		
nature	the nature of British rule	
negative	negative effects on . . .	
object to	they objected to this	
observe	observation	
obtain		
obvious		
official	officially	
opportunity		
oppose	opposition	opposed to
origin	originally	the origins of the conflict
outcome	the most obvious outcome was . . .	
particular	particularly	in particular
party	a political party	
peaceful	peace	
permanent	permanently	
policy	economic policies	
popular	unpopular, popularity	
positive	a positive feature of . . .	
possess	repossess, possession	
possible	possibility	
potential		
poverty	poor	
power	powerful, powerless	
practice	practical	
prevent		
previous	previously	
primary	Germany's primary interest was . . .	

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
principle		
process	the democratic process	
produce	productive, product, production	
profit		
progress	progressive	
protect	protection, protectorate	
protest		
range	a range of interests, range from . . . to . . .	
rapid	rapidly	
realise		
recent		
recognise	land claims were recognised	
reform	reformer	
region	regional, regionalism	
regulate	regulation, regular	
reject		
relation	relationship	diplomatic relations
relief		
rely on	reliable	
replace		
represent	representative	
resist	resistance	
responsible		
right	the right to vote	
rule	ruler	
secure	security	
seize	seize power	
select	selected, selection	
separate	separately, separation	
series	a series of attacks	
serve	serve their interests	
settle	settler, settlement	
severe	severely	
shortage		
significant	significance	a significant change
similar	similarities	strong cultural similarities
social		
solve	solution, resolve	solve disputes
specific	specifically	
stable	stability	
status		
strike	striking	a workers' strike
tension	international tension	
threat	threaten	
treatment	treat	
undertake		

Key Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Derivations	Collocations
unite		
various		
violent	non-violent, violently	
vital	vital importance	
wealth	wealthy	
withdraw	withdrew, withdrawn	support was withdrawn

Topic Specific Vocabulary

Part 1   Migration

Unit 1   Which theories explain Sāmoa's origins?

migrate, migration

social scientist

archaeology

pottery

DNA, genetic links

language, linguistic

evidence

theory

Unit 2   What are the causes and effects of internal migration in Sāmoa?

alliance

voyage

population distribution

genealogies

cross-reference

land tenure

freehold

rural, urban, urbanisation

Unit 3   Why and how did people migrate to Sāmoa?

contact

explore, explorer

trading routes

commercial crops

contract

indentured labour

Unit 4   Socio-economic and political impact of immigrant groups

decentralised

civil

lifestyle

interaction

impact

Unit 5   Trends and patterns in Sāmoa's emigration

recession

visa

quota

permit

short term, long term

Part 2   Imperialism etc.

Unit 1   Motives of Imperial Powers

colonise

annex

rivalry

motive

impact

Unit 2   Types and nature of colonial rule

indigenous

strategic interests

alienate

suppress

exploitation

Unit 3   The roles of missionary societies

missionary

ban

Unit 4   Why was the 'Mau a Pule' and 'Mau a Sāmoa' formed?

nationalism

patriotic

petition

exile

abolish

paternalistic

racist

grievance

Topic Specific Vocabulary

Unit 5   Role of the United Nations in Decolonisation process

constitution

referendum

Unit 6   Is there evidence of continuing colonialism?

globalisation

loan

dictate

Part 3   Conflict

Unit 1   Civil War in Sāmoa in the 1800s

faction

monarchy

confederation

compromise

Unit 2   Consequences of civil wars and foreign powers in Sāmoa

tension

commission

Unit 3   Conflict in the Promised Land

mandate

Zionism

assimilate

anti-Semitism

partition

terrorist

proclamation

Unit 4   The Wars fought between Arabs and Israel

communism

nationalise

revenue

embargo

Superpower

Unit 5   What are the consequences of the conflict?

revolutionary

legitimate

negotiate

refugee

diplomacy

Unit 6   Role of foreign powers in Middle East conflict

peacekeeping

humanitarian

Part 4 International Relations

Unit 1   Significant Treaties

treaty

trust territory, trusteeship

plebiscite

foster

bilateral aid

Unit 2   Contribution to regional and international organisations

interaction

regionalism

implementation

catalyst

dissemination

nuclear

Unit 3   Membership in regional and international organisations

multilateral

donor

marine

convention

free trade

Unit 4   Key trends in Sāmoa's foreign policy

plural

conservative

progressive

self-sufficient

diversification

recession

remittance

Unit 5   How effective is the Pacific Way?

mediation

tradition

Part 5   Economic Transformations

Unit 1   Political philosophies that motivate economic action

distribution

political philosophies

socialist

market

capitalist

subsistence

monetary and fiscal policies

corporations

Unit 2   What is the subsistence economic system?

specialist, expert

pattern of production

plantation

Unit 3   What is globalisation?

integration

trade barrier

computer technology

multinational

infrastructure

sector

Topic Specific Vocabulary

Unit 4   The role of donor agencies

bureaucracy

Unit 5   The Great Depression

prosperity

reparations

depression

bankrupt

militarist

Part 6   Systems of Power and authority

**Unit 1   Contrasting Communism and Democracy/
Capitalism**

totalitarian

majority

Fascism

citizen

officials

ballot

dictator

junta

dissident

Unit 2   Change of government in Russia

peasant

Unit 3   Leadership in Russia

proletariat

bourgeoisie

Bolshevik, Bolshevism

revolution

Unit 4   Communism in China

inflation

Useful structures

Ways of specifying or limiting the scope of your sentence:

❑ *Economically*, Sāmoa has been able to benefit from regional developments in trade.

❑ *Politically*, the region is stable.

❑ *In addition to language*, there are strong similarities that can be found in between many Polynesian groups of people.

❑ *In the case of Sāmoa,* oral traditions have shaped the Sāmoan theory of the origins of the people.

❑ *Apart from the traditional donors like New Zealand and Australia*, other foreign countries such as Germany, Japan, and the Netherlands have been supporting this country's development efforts.