2021

History Journal

Around the Globe

Edition V

HISTORY JOURNAL 2021
AROUND THE GLOBE
Edition V

Preface

The 2021 History Journal is a culmination of some brilliant collaboration by the members of a keen, creative and dynamic committee so ably led by Tom Mitev. The group was essentially made up of History enthusiasts who gathered together in the Nelson Mandela room every Wednesday lunchtime, rain, hail or shine and meticulously promoted, wrote, edited and then finally published the 2021 History Journal. I should also pay special tribute to my colleague, Mr Alex Bean, who encouraged and supported the group throughout the process. Eric Luksch, our graphic designer, also deserves immense gratitude for his tireless work. An admirable team effort by all.

Now in our fifth iteration, with subtle improvements each year, the History Journal has expanded to encompass many characteristics. In addition to some fine historical writing, the journal itself now has interesting professional book reviews and important cultural, historical and personal links to the College's past. It also incorporates a launch evening where lectures are prepared and delivered, thanks are given and the Ron Gibbs' History Award is presented.

An avid History scholar, Ron attended PAC from 1951 to 1955 and within the pages of his comprehensive, *A History of Prince Alfred College* maligned the lack of attention given to the History program during this era with Science appearing to be the fashionable discipline of the age – replete with its own chic Journal. Well, I know Ron would be pleased that many years later, interest in History has blossomed at PAC and can now claim its own journal inspired by a group of enthusiastic History scholars and the generous contribution of others from within the student, staff and Old Scholar communities.

So, congratulations to all involved for establishing the History Journal as an entrenched component in the rich academic life of Prince Alfred College.

Ron Pippett
History Coordinator

Committee

Chairman's Foreword:

This year, in 2021, the College has seen the largest publication to date. The committee of staff and students have produced a journal which holds much pride and passion as it has been a year-long commitment for all involved. Special thanks to Eric Luksch, the designer of the journal, as without the fantastic work of Eric, you would not be reading the journal in its magnificent form.

The theme settled by the committee 'Around the Globe' aimed to focus on countries that are not typically featured in the traditional history spotlight. In the fifth edition of the journal, we hope you learn about a wide range of historical texts, featuring articles for Malta, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Israel, and many more.

2021 has been yet another distinctive year, with the COVID-19 pandemic still impacting our daily lives. Similar to 2020, 2021 will certainly have its place in the history books in the future with cryptocurrency adoption and implementation surging in popularity to the devastating impacts by COVID-19 on global health, poverty levels, and global economies.

It was an absolute pleasure to lead the 2021 History Journal with a group of dedicated staff and students. Hopefully you enjoy reading it as much as we enjoyed creating it.

Thomas Mitev, Chairman of the History Journal 2021

Thomas Mitev (Chairman)

Myles McEwen (Vice Chairman)

Eric Luksch (Head of Design)

Dhwarakesh Rajaram (Treasurer)

Josh Lasscock (Promotion)

Lachlan Hill

Wilfrid Ramsey

Mick Mercorella

Giles Atkinson

Liam Maloney

Sam Read

George Bartley

Alex Bean (History Teacher)

Ron Pippett (History Coordinator)

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ONE Chapter AUSTRALIA

The Prince Alfred College Archives

Kate Pulford (College Archivist)

Where history comes to life!
The Prince Alfred College Archives is a significant and valuable collection of tangible cultural heritage, which documents the unique history of school life over more than 152 years. The materials we have acquired add to the College's rich narrative and ensure that the College's research and stories are preserved for the benefit of both current and future generations.

About the collection
We are growing! The Archives currently comprise 1806 Archival Series records of approximately 1.3 linear kilometres of materials relating to the history of Prince Alfred College and with much more on display around the College. These include collections of photographs, papers, memorabilia, a range of objects, trophies, medals, uniform, ledgers, score books, College publications, official records, rare objects and more than 200 valuable artworks.

Instagram // Sharing our stories to the world
As well as our new webpages, The Prince Alfred College Archives posts to Instagram three times a week and the content relates directly to what I am working on in the Archives at the time. From discovering old inscribed ceiling boards, to recording podcasts of excerpts from the Chronicle, there is always something happening in the Archives.

Follow me @princealfredcollegearchives

PAC podcasts
This year, the Archives has recorded our first ever podcast! Featuring voice artists from our staff, these recording will be edited and uploaded to the Archives webpage, which will showcase themed series reading excerpts from our Archives collection, including the Chronicle magazine (est. 1884), correspondence and diaries. I will also be working on Oral Histories of some of our staff, like Headmaster Fenner, Ben Evans and former Headmaster Bean.

The South Australia's History Festival events at Prince Alfred College

Est. 2004, the 2021 South Australia's History Festival, explores places, spaces, stories, collections and ideas that make us who we are. The theme this May was Change; a major thread that runs through the histories we share and the world around us. In celebration, the College Archives presented two special events. The first event this year 'Prince Alfred College Open Doors', provided special access to our buildings and unique heritage items and a rare behind the scenes glimpse of the rich antiquity and heritage of school life at Prince Alfred College. The second event, 'One crowded hour, from Prince Alfred to Lionel Logue and James Ashton' focussed on individual items and featured links between the history of the College, Kent Town, and surrounding areas.

The Old Gymnasium built 1881

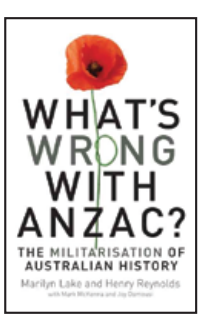
History of the Old Gymnasium built 1881

In 1983, a new mezzanine ceiling divided the original 1881 Gymnasium building into two levels, and the Art Centre was born. During these Christmas holidays, work in the Art Centre revealed a portion of the original ceiling boards. The boards are auto-inscribed with around 260 of our boys' names. The boys would have climbed a rope from the ground level, some 20 feet up to the top of the roof, and inscribed their name with graphite pencil or by incision, perhaps as a rite of passage! The inscriptions date from 1881 to around 1930 and there are fascinating stories associated with the names of these boards, which include Chapple, Chipper, Cooper, Hassell, Hone, Heaslip, Lever, Sheirlaw and Throssell (just to name a few!).

The boards were carefully removed and preserved, and a section has now been installed in the RED Centre for all to enjoy. Not unlike an ancient autograph book or a modern hieroglyph these boards are a significant and tangible piece of the College's cultural heritage.

What's wrong with Anzac? (Book Review)

Thomas Mitev (Committee Chairman)



In the 167 page book titled *What's wrong with ANZAC?*, Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds embark on a conversation about Australian history that has been left relatively untouched for the fear of 'unpatriotic' ideas and perspectives. Ideas presented in this text are criticized as being ungrateful to the service men and women who paid the supreme sacrifice for the freedom of our country. The book tackles the 'ANZAC Myth', and how our current commemoration of ANZAC (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) Day is damaging the social fabric of our society through the misclassification of war (its glorification) and its commercialisation.

"The test of a first-rate intelligence is the ability to hold two opposed ideas in the mind the same time, and still retain the ability to function."

F. Scott Fitzgerald

The quote from Fitzgerald, author of *The Great Gatsby* which pioneered literature during the Jazz Age, is printed on the W18 English classroom door. This quote perfectly captures the ideal balance in ideological perspectives we must aim to uphold as global citizens. Irrespective of your viewpoint on the ANZAC Myth, or any other matter, it is critical to appreciate and understand counterpoints and alternative perspectives to challenge your own perception of the facts – through a more objective lens. It also facilitates positive discourse on an important subject for modern-day Australians.

ANZAC Day in Australia is the 4th of July in America. Well, at least that is the narrative that has been pushed by several governments in the mid-late 20th Century. ANZAC Australian and New Zealand Army Corps Day commemorates the mateship and comradery of the first major test for Australians and New Zealanders at the Battle of Gallipoli. However, there were 26,111 Australian casualties alone in what was a military disaster . It was the evacuation of the Australian troops was a success – its only success. The image below captures the evacuation tactic where the forces configured the rifle to fire automictically using a drip bucket system. It is a popular tendency to gloat the successful evacuation of the Gallipoli campaign but brush past the ultimate brutality of the warfare. In doing so, it does not de-glorify war with the gravity needed to encourage more diplomatic resolutions in future. Gallipoli was, and should be regarded today as, a total military and diplomatic disaster.

'ANZAC evacuation strategy'

It was at a time when Australia was scrambling to forge a national identity. As such, government funding was allocated to educational programs, historical sites commemorating war, and ANZAC Day ceremonies and functions. It instilled the idea that the nation was born in 1915 with the Battle of Gallipoli baptising Australia. The ideals of mateship, comradery, and the general Australian spirit was a beacon for what the government perceived to be model citizens. The national day was pushed to be the Battle of Gallipoli in 1915 as the facts could remain largely uncontested. It enabled the ANZAC Myth to emerge.

For example, the popular myth of 'Simpson and his Donkey' has been popularised as a true feat of courage, masculinity and mateship which Australians should aspire to fulfill and replicate. It is an example of the glorification of war of which Australia promoted to fulfill the duties to the British Empire – the Battle of Gallipoli established a dangerous precedent that Australia would be there for future war confrontations to aid the British Empire. The image bellow of Simpson on his Donkey is used as a resource on government education websites to propagate an exaggerated story. Simpson was a deserter, and had been caught on two occasions fleeing the battlefield. Simpson, it was reported, was no more special than any other gritty soldier out there who was merely looking for a cheap ticket back home to England. Simpson and his Donkey has underpinned the ANZAC Myth and it continues to serve as a tool for the embellishment of the myth.

Moreover, Anzac day celebrations, historically and concurrently, have embodied comertialisation and glorification. Incidents such as the Woolworths campaign 'commemorating' the 100 years of the Battle of Gallipoli, with the campaign "Fresh in our Memories " which, despite Woolworths denying that the campaign was not an emotional appeal, it would be dubious to suggest that the Anzac Spirit was not used for commercial gain. Likewise, take the 'Raise a Glass' Victorian Bitter beer campaign which was "abandoned" after serious backlash from the public over the commercialization of the ANZAC spirit. The ANZAC Myth and the promotion of the ANZAC Spirit has attempted to underpin the Australian identity, and these large corporations have abused this for profit.

In summary, ANZAC Day, I believe, has lost its way through the years. The true meaning of ANZAC Day was meant for commemorating and honouring the lives lost in war, and for those returned service men and women. However, through Australia's desperate grip for a national story, war has ultimately been glorified. More attention is required to focus on the service men and women returning to live a comfortable and stable life in society, and ways we can evaluate and prevent future wars, rather than using the bloodshed of previous and current Australians as the cornerstone of what our nation stands for.

Simpson and his Donkey on the right

The Bombing of Darwin (My experiences in the NT)

Archie McEwen

When my brother chose the Bombing of Darwin as the topic for a project in primary school, he was told by his teacher to re-evaluate his choice as this historical event was 'not significant enough' in Australian history. Now, more than ever, I realise how very wrong she was in her opinion.

Figure 1. A bomb goes over during a Japanese raid on Darwin

Australia's closest and most dangerous encounter with genuine war came through the ventures of the Imperial Japanese Army Air Services. After first striking America at Pearl Harbour in late 1941, this terrifyingly effective force of aircraft hosted by colossus aircraft carriers soon moved west to terrorise Australia, a country no more than 40 years old. Pearl Harbour, although largely ineffective to Japan's cause of total domination, is understood as one of the vital turning points in World War II, which perhaps serves to justify why these two words resonate or at least create ripples in the thought processes of the modern youth, unlike the bombing of Darwin.

Figure 2. "Pearl Harbour," released in 2001

Thousands of depictions of the bombing at Pearl Harbour exist in movies, books, and through television. Australians, naïve in their knowledge of our own historical triumph, are likely more proud of the actions of our US allies during this time period than the brave men who defended not only Darwin, but even Broome and as far south as Katherine. More bombs fell on Darwin than Pearl Harbour, although smaller in size and tonnage. While the bombing of Pearl Harbour was bombed over the course of one day, our Australian mainland was bombed on more than 100 occasions , spanning across 22 months. While the purpose of this article is not to create a side by side comparison, these statistics help in gathering any form of understanding of the event, an understanding which is quite tremendously lacking.

Come February of 1942, the Northern Territory had been established as Australia's key foothold in the war for the pacific. With the help of US troops stationed around the NT along with countless Australian servicemen, a rugged and warm landscape was turned into a fortress with hundreds of air strips and military camps. In conditions exceeding 30-40 degrees, men worked to utilise Darwin as a "jump off point" for Asian offences. The state consisted almost entirely of young men, with women and children being ordered to evacuate following the attack on Pearl harbour.

Figure 3. A building is destroyed by Japanese bombs

Only 70 women remained, with roles as army nurses, secretaries, telephonists, maids, and post office workers . Although preparations had been made to defend this foothold from any potential air threat, including the emplacement of sixteen QF 3.7-inch AA guns, two 3-inch AA guns , and smaller Lewis guns, when the day was to arrive, total chaos would erupt.

Figure 4. A Japanese Imperial Carrier

In the early hours of the 19th of February, 1942, aircraft carriers launched 188 aircraft comprised of Nakajima B5N light bombers, Aichi D3A dive bombers, and Mitsubishi Zero's, with the objective of attacking "ships and port facilities in Darwin Harbour." With the first signs of Japanese aircraft being mistaken for USAAF P-40s, no alarm was raised until the bombing began. This early raid was to prove fatal for most of the shipping and cargo held in the Darwin harbour. Casualties included the famous but tragic story of the members of the post office. At the postmaster's residence, a group of civilians including the postmaster's wife and daughter took cover in a small slit trench. This trench received a direct hit, instantly killing all ten of its occupants.

Less than two hours after the departure of the aircraft in the initial raid, the Japanese would return. Secondary attacks were made on the RAAF base along with the wharf, destroying large numbers of aircraft not yet airborne. In the afternoon, a third attack was made by a group of dive bombers on two ships. Both ships were successfully sunken with a resulting loss of 88 crewman. In one single day, the Japanese had sunken 8 ships , destroyed 30 aircraft both on the ground and in the air, and killed over 250 military personnel and civilians. This casualty figure is scrutinised by many. While some say over 400 lives were lost, others argue that it was significantly lower. The most widely agreed upon figure belongs between 250-300 deaths. These attacks would continue until November of 1943.

Figure 4. A Japanese Imperial Carrier

And yet, we still have teachers who question the significance of this event and the battlefield of Australia's north. We have nationwide curriculums that solely display Hitler and the theatres within Europe, or the gallantry actions of British and US men and women. We have generations of youth who may never know that bombs were ever dropped on Australian soil. In April of this year, (2021) I was lucky enough to win one of sixteen spots on a trip to Darwin for the Premier's Anzac Spirit Prize. On this trip we were exposed to numerous perspectives of the horror faced by Territorians in 1942. We were presented with disputes in figures, with the need to consider and question evidence even when firsthand. We were questioned as to our opinions on stimulating debates, such as if Japan planned to invade Australia. (Evidence falls on both sides, and it is unlikely we will ever know.) In being exposed to so much information about Australia's war time, I gained an understanding that hurts me to think is special. I feel that this knowledge should be commonplace; known by everyone; and I commend the Anzac Spirit competition for striving to achieve this. This was the largest single attack ever mounted by a foreign power on Australia.

Figure 6. 'Malady,' the site of a crashed B-24J Liberator in remote NT bush

Through this trip and holidays with my family, I have been to Darwin more times than I can remember. While rarely the destination of choice when looking for a comfortable beach holiday, these visits have allowed me to spectate real and often surreal war time areas. For many years we have camped at the same location on a remote, undeveloped beach. Perhaps passing the sign for a B-24J Liberator crash site was the catalyst that sparked my interest in history and wartime aviation. Too many times we passed this sign, hurrying to experience the serene bush and sand of our camping haven. Finally, after years of asking, I was granted my wish and we turned off the small highway down a narrow track. This site hosts the wreckage of "Malady," a 9-man bomber operating with the USAAF stationed in Darwin. After departing for a training mission on the 17th of January 1945, with only 6 instead of the usual 9 on board, reports indicate that a fire broke out, although unconfirmed. Captained by first time pilot-in-command lieutenant Bobby Neal, the plane crashed south of Two Fella Creek in thick NT vegetation, killing all onboard. Although extremely sombre for the crew and their families, for a little boy obsessed with flying war machines, the sight of broken and mangled debris heightened my love for aviation along with my sense and understanding of war in Australia. Real war, with real machines, and sadly, real deaths.

To do this day, my grandma lives just minutes away from East Point. Here, two 6-inch gun emplacements still remain. Peter Roberts, a gunner stationed here, recalls how dive bombers and zeros attacked the East Point defences while he was at his post. Originally 9.2-inches, these guns were reduced to 6-inches, with no shots ever being fired from the downgraded guns. East Point also hosts the modern Darwin Military Museum. I have visited this museum countless times, each time pondering over the array of artefacts covering the bombing, the spread of Nazi fascism, and even Australian and US involvement in the Vietnam war

Figure 7. Photo from an album by Colin James Ellis, men stationed in Darwin

Having been given the chance to get to know Darwin and the NT throughout my childhood, I have learnt that the climate is often intolerably hot. Even in the dry season, the cooler of the two seasons, it is impossible to do much between the hours of 12 and 4. For modern tourists this bides no impact; most houses come equipped with shady backyard pools and if not, there are always magazines to be read; television to be watched. But I cannot help thinking about the men stationed here- drawn from all over Australia- not accustomed to the climate. These men, working constantly to clear vegetation for new air strips, building and rebuilding infrastructure, and manning posts, faced harsh sun, extreme humidity, and long hours. Not only were these men bombed by the Japanese, but the surrounding mosquito and fly populations would have been dreadful. With water access often restricted by the looming threat of the largely unhunted crocodile and no air conditioners, these men would have been unable to cool down. Work here would have been exhausting, but still thousands of men chose to do it. It is this conscious decision that embodies the kind of courage I believe remains unappreciated.

The Story of Jack Champion

Lachlan Hill (Committee Member)

Jack Eunson Champion was born on August 18th, 1909 and was the fourth child of eight. The Champion family farmed a property at Jupiter Creek west of Echunga in the Adelaide Hills. Jupiter Creek is known for the numerous gold mines established there in the 1800's. Jack's father had served in the Boer War at the turn of the century. Because of this, the Champion family was heavily involved with the Military, raising generous funds for the war effort during WW1. In 1938, Jack moved away from Jupiter Creek and purchased a Barber shop in Bordertown in the south-east of South Australia, near the Victorian border hence the name. At the outbreak of the War in Europe, Jack was spurred with a sense of duty to King and Country, enlisting in the Australia Imperial Force (AIF) on June 2nd 1940. After attending basic training in Bathurst, Jack was shipped out from Sydney to England and found himself assigned to the 2nd/48th infantry battalion as Private Jack Champion.

Jack Champion (centre) and his dog Toby on the SS Kingston during the evacuation of Tobruk, November 1942.

The 2nd/48th infantry battalion quickly found themselves in the deserts of North Africa fighting against the Axis for the control of the desolate coastline. Notable battles included that of El Alamein and Palestine. However, the Axis tanks and guns were not the only opposition, the deserts of Africa proved themselves to be a challenge. The arm-wrestle along the Libyan coast-line led to the 2nd/48th eventually digging in at the contested coastal port town of Tobruk. Tobruk was the only deep-water port available for hundreds of miles, so securing and holding it was of great importance from the logistical side of the campaign. Having won and lost the town numerous times the British commander of the campaign being the infamous General Bernard Montgomery ordered the port town to be held at any cost. The 2nd/48th, along with another Australian battalion the 2nd/13th, dug in and turned Tobruk into a fortress. Opposing Jack was the intelligent German Field Marshal Erwin Rommel, known as the 'Desert Fox' for his cunning tactics that had so far kept the Allies on the back foot. Rommel also saw the strategic importance of having a port close to the front as getting supplies to the front was proving to be difficult in the soft sands of the Northern Desert. Rommel mounted an assault on the Australians in Tobruk on April 10th, 1941, with the German forces outnumbering the allied garrison in Tobruk by approximately 8,000 troops. However, the German forces for the first time did not over run Tobruk, instead, they were rebuffed. Rommel sent in his troops again only to be rebuffed again. Rommel ordered a siege. And with their backs to the sea Jack and the 2nd/48th held out for 241 days, being resupplied by sea at night by the Allied Mediterranean fleet. An impressed Rommel called the defenders the 'Rats of Tobruk' due to their nature to hide in dugouts and holes only to pop up and repel the enemy. The Australian's eventually had to withdraw due to a combination of supply and serious manpower issues on the 27th of November, but their tenacious resistance against the seemingly unstoppable Blitzkrieg had slowed the Axis advance down severley. Rommel did not recover from this delay, not having the provisions for a long war in Africa. After securing Tobruk after the Australian withdrawal, Rommel himself was the forced to withdraw himself after the major defeat further along the coast at El Alamein. Jack and the other Australian's effort contributed to a major turning point of WW2, providing the first defeat of the German war machine, setting in motion the gradual but consistent axis retreat all the way to Berlin.

Closer to home, the Imperial Japanese Empire was expanding at an alarming rate across the Pacific Ocean. The Japanese eventually attacked Australian territory, bombing Darwin on the 19th of February 1942, killing 230 people, as well as the Submarine attacks on Sydney Harbour from May to June which sunk 4 ships, as well as severely damaging port infrastructure. Additionally, once the Japanese committed to the Kokoda/New Guinea campaign in July 1942, it was obvious that Australia was in danger. Recognising this, the Australian Prime Minister at the time, John Curtain, recalled all Australian troops home for the defence of Australia. After the victory in the desert, now Lance Corporal Jack Champion, found himself being shipping home and re-equipped for jungle fighting in New Guinea off the northern coast of Australia. And by September 4th, 1942, Jack and the 2nd/48th found themselves assaulting a Japanese position in Lae which proved to be a long and bloody business but the Japanese were pushed back against the mountains at Sattenburg by November 22nd. The depleted Japanese forces put up a fierce but short resistance and once the battalion had secured Sattenburg they were shipped to North Queensland for some well-deserved rest at Ravenshoe in the Atherton Tablelands. During this time out of action, the battalion underwent extensive training as well as acquiring replacements for the men that had been lost in continuous years of fighting across the globe. The war would be almost over when Jack went back into action in Borneo. However, the Imperial Japanese army in 1945 was a shell of its former self. A decade of continuous war in Asia had depleted their resources and supplies. Borneo was captured with relative ease when compared to previous battles in the Pacific Theatre. After the Borneo campaign, the Japanese surrendered on September 2nd 1945 due to the Atomic bombs in Nagasaki and Hiroshima. The ranks of the 2nd/48th were thinned as men were discharged. Jack found his way home after serving for 1635 days, with 1035 of these being spent outside of Australia.

Post war, Jack reopened his Barber shop in Bordertown where he built his home, and his son Wayne was born in 1946. However, Jack soon sold the Barber shop and utilised the AMP land development scheme where veterans were given parcels of land. Jack was awarded 100 hectares of land at Willalooka between Keith and Naracoorte. He successfully farmed this land until he retired in 1965. Jack passed away on November 9th, 1990, aged 81, due to complications following a sudden stroke.

The 2nd/48th Battalion was the most highly decorated Australian Battalion of the Second World War. Awards to its members included: 4 Victoria Crosses (the highest and most prestigious military award in the British Commonwealth honours system), 4 Distinguished Service Orders, 12 Military Crosses, 10 Distinguished Conduct Medals, 24 military Medals and 36 Mentions in Despatches. They were known as the 'Devil's Own' and they were regarded as the elite within the prestigious Australian Imperial Force.

Jack was my Grandfather's uncle. Having spent lots of time at 'Uncle Jack's' when he was a boy, my Grandfather learnt a lot from Jack often seeing him as a father figure, he often talks fondly of his time there. This is Uncle Jack's story.

THE PHOTO THAT CAPTURES THE SCHOOL'S SPIRIT
The Oldest and Youngest at the Old Old Boys Assembly

David Cornish (1983-1987), PAC Staff 2001 – present
President, Historical Society of SA 2001-09

I first attended the Old Old Boys' Assembly as a Year 8 in 1983. I'd heard about this event from my father as his father had been a very proud Old Old Boy from 1969 until his death in 1971. But nothing prepared me for this gathering of men who had entered the College before 1923. Let alone the presence of the Oldest Old Old Boy who had commenced in 1899.

2020 was the first year since the inaugural assembly in 1935 that the Assembly wasn't staged. This got me thinking about the history of the assembly and I've dug deeply to gain a thorough understanding of how it evolved and its place in the life of the College.

In this article I focus on the Assembly's inception in 1935 and the initiative taken in 1938 to photograph the Oldest and Youngest present, a photo which in my view captures the spirit of our school.

In The Beginning
J.F. Ward (1897-1900) was the College's Headmaster 1930-49 and it is likely that the concept of the Assembly came from him and built on an 'open morning' for boys and their fathers held before this.

The sole criteria was that an Old Old Boy had to have entered the College sixty or more years ago, regardless of age or year level of admission, and this criteria formed the 'calling of the roll' by the Headmaster from the New Old Old Boys and culminating in the announcement of the Oldest Old Old Boys. The format of the Assembly has changed little over the years.

The first Assembly is detailed in the Chronicle (as has every assembly since) and it states that there were fifteen Old Old Boys present including two from 1869. A founding year boy was present until 1941 and until 1945 an apology from Dr J.T. Mitchell (NSW, enrolment 9) would be proudly reported in the Chronicle.

It is clear from reports that the Assembly was an immediate success. No one could have imagined that in the years since over 8,500 Old Old Boys have had their names called by the Headmaster in the presence of the School.

PRINCE ALFRED COLLEGE CHRONICLE

Old Boys' Day

MORNING SERVICE

This year an early morning service was arranged for all those "Old Boys" who had attended School 60 or more years ago.

Undaunted by the damp and nippy air, 15 veterans who were students there 60 or more years ago trooped into the well left Princes in 1873, and Mr. Colliver completed his education at the college in 1875.

These two, as well as the others present at today's re-union, expressed delight at the opportunity to meet former college chums again. Mr. Colliver, who is in his eighty-second year, was the oldest of the assembly.

At Morning Service, "Old Boys'" Day, 1935

"head's" study between 8.30 and 9 a.m.

Some of the "Old Beds" had to cast their memories back 66 years before setting in the year of their enrollment at Princes. It was evident that recollections of classroom adventures came rushing back into their minds as they did so.

Two of the old brigade attended the college in 1869. They were Messrs. E. H. Bakewell and W. Colliver. Mr. Bake-

Then, just as they did in the days of their boyhood, the old boys took their places in the assembly hall, where hundreds of students were gathered for the morning service. It was a fitting climax to the re-union—age and youth linked by the ideals and traditions of Prince Alfred College.

After the head master (Mr. Ward) had offered a special prayer for the old

Photo 1: The First Old Old Boys' Assembly.

The first assembly was held during Old Boys' Week in 1935 and is reported with photographs in the October 1935 edition of the Chronicle. Fifteen Old Old Boys were photographed on the steps of the Main Building with Headmaster Ward, and PAOCA President Mr P.R. Claridge (1899-1902) an architect who designed the Preparatory School. In the photograph we can see two men from the College's first year.

Edward Howard Bakewell (1859-1944) was born in North Adelaide. He commenced aged 9 years on 25 January 1869 a week after the first intake at the Methodist Meeting Hall (which still stands behind the Adelaide Town Hall) as the Main Building at Kent Town wasn't ready until mid-1869. Bakewell became a bank manager and is buried in the Mitcham Cemetery.

William Henry Colliver (1854-1941) attended the College from Norwood and was enrolment number 45. His brothers Frederick (1873) and Alfred (1874) also attended the College, and in 1906 his son Eustace was enrolled. Colliver was a building contractor by profession and is buried in the Payneham Cemetery.

Mr. W. H. Colliver (83 years), Hugh Williamson (6), John Looker (5), Mr. E. T. Fyffe

Photo 2: First Photo with Oldest and Youngest

In 1938 the tradition of taking a photo of the Oldest Old Old Boys with the smallest lads present began. In the first photo Henry Colliver is shown with fellow foundation year scholar Edwin Thomas Fyffe (1856-1940) who was enrolment number 58 and attended 1869-70. The Old Old Boys are pictured with John Looker (1938-47) who died in 1988 and Hugh Williamson (1937-49) who died in August 2021 aged 89.

Photo 3: 1965 Oldest and Youngest

This photograph shows the 93 year old Walter Angel (1886) with Tommy Kassai (1965-76) and
William 'Bill' Waite (1888-90) with David Berriman (1965-77).

Colonel W.C.N. Waite DSO, MC led an extraordinary life serving in the Boer War and World Wars I and II. He is reputed to have fired the last shell at Gallipoli (he had it mounted as a dinner gong and it was used at the 2005 PAOCA dinner at the Australian War Memorial) and so unique is Waite's service record that he has an entry in the Australian Dictionary of Biography. MAJ-GEN Steve Gower, AO, AO (Mil) (1956-57) Director of the Australian War Memorial 1996-2012, wrote in the entry:

Waite's service to the nation in three wars was outstanding; he also served the community well, being an active participant in ex-servicemen's organizations, a visiting justice of the peace to the South Australian Department of Prisons for twenty-seven years and a member of the Burnside Town Council for seventeen. The Colonel Waite Memorial Oval at Kensington Gardens, Adelaide, honours his service to the council. He was a Freemason and a keen tennis player. Healthy and active until late in life, Waite cut a dapper, cheery and sprightly figure; presided over the last memorial meeting of Boer War veterans. He was especially well known as chief marshal on Anzac Days in Adelaide; proudly mounted on a dapple-grey charger, he led the parade on twenty-nine occasions.

The photo shows Colonel Waite looking as Gower describes and remained until shortly before his death in 1973.

Sixty years later in 2021 the three little boys from 1961 were all set to attend their first Assembly as Old Old Boys. In 1961 H.E. Pitt (1881-83), O.A. Witt (1880-86) and H.E. Fuller (1880-85) were joined in the photo by new Preparatory School boys Andrew Davies, Bill Close and Mark Waters.

All three have remained in South Australia. Bill Close operates Newbold Sheep Stud which is the oldest Dorset stud sheep property in Australia having commenced breeding programs in 1901. Andrew Davies became an architect and was made a Member of the Order of Australia for his contribution to his profession. Mark Waters is currently the Executive Director of Palliative Care South Australia.

Photo 4: Where have the years gone?

Photo 5: A Proud Tradition

L-R John Haigh, Yichen Wang Xu, Warwick Rowe, Nash Noble, Colin Coker and Theodore (Teddy) Teasdale.

In 2019 centenarian Warwick Rowe was the Oldest Old Old Boy present having entered the College in 1934 and it is likely he was present at the first Assembly in 1935. Photographed with him is John Haigh (1934) and Colin Coker (1938). All three men are likely to have witnessed Headmaster Ward introduce to the school men who entered in 1869.

As for the little boys, they'll be New Old Old Boys in 2079. The photograph will prove that in the College's Sesquicentenary year they met men who had links with founding year scholars. They will appreciate that Rowe and Coker served in World War II which concluded 134 years earlier. Amazingly, they will be able to say they me Warwick Rowe who was born less than six months after the World War I armistice 160 years earlier.

And to cap it off PAC will be celebrating its 210th anniversary when Yichen, Nash and Teddy are new Old Old Boys. I hope they will proudly show the photo of themselves with John Haigh, Warwick Rowe and Colin Coker sixty years earlier.

Premier's ANZAC Spirit School Prize

Max Thomas (Joint Ron Gibbs Award Winner)

'Every face has a story'

On the 17th of August 1922, a triumph of the Australian ideals of courage, mateship and compassion was born. Born into the Adelaide middle class to businessman Walter Thomas and Linda May Penno, Maxwell Leonard Thomas spent his childhood growing up in Malvern. A talented young tennis player and keen footballer, he spent much of his childhood playing sport. A bright student, Maxwell attended Unley Primary School before moving to Prince Alfred College in year eight, where he would stay until the completion of his studies.

Figure 1: Prince Alfred College Main Building

After leaving Prince Alfred College, he moved to an undeveloped property in Coonalpyn purchased by his father, who intended to turn it into a farm. Maxwell worked alone on building fences and clearing vegetation for paddocks for several years. Concurrently, the outbreak of war in Europe had begun to stir up trouble in Australia. On the same day that UK Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain declared war, Australian Prime Minister Robert Menzies announced a tragic yet consequential outcome: Australia was again going to war too. the increasing possibility of having to serve Australia saw Maxwell apply for the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) Reserve at the No.5 recruiting centre in September 1940.

Moving back to Adelaide in 1941, Max began work at the family business. Max worked alongside his father, who had achieved modest wealth as the managing director of H.J. Penno & Co, a hessian bag manufacturer on Franklin St in the Adelaide CBD. The six months following Maxwell's enlistment in the Reserve saw the conflict rapidly escalate including the Italian invasion of Greece, and then Slovakia, Hungary and Romania joining the axis forces. It was likely this escalation and a sense of duty that motivated him to enlist as a permanent member of the armed forces.

Maxwell enlisted in the Royal Australian Air Force on the 29th of March 1941. At 18 years of age, weighing 153lbs at a height of 5'10, he was modest in stature. After taking his oath, Maxwell was mustered as Air Crew, and received some basic training in Adelaide and was briefed on his forthcoming service. On the 1st of May 1941, he was posted to No. 1 WAGS in Ballarat to begin his training as a wireless air gunner.

For five months he was trained to communicate through wireless signals in flight and assist other members of aircraft with navigation. Further training in Port Pirie and Geraldton saw him train with Avro Anson aircraft, a twin-engine British design used by the RAAF throughout World War II. As is noted by the RAAF Museum at Point Cook, "It was also the RAAF's first low-wing monoplane, the first with a retractable undercarriage and with an enclosed gun turret." (RAAF, 2009).

On October 1st, 1942, following a period of 18 months of training, Maxwell was deemed sufficiently prepared for his duties to go forth and fight for the country. He was commissioned as a Pilot Officer and appointed to the position of Wing Air Gunnery Sergeant to the 13th Squadron, which was situated in Darwin. Formed in June 1940, this squadron was initially tasked to fly reconnaissance missions and survey maritime movements over the seas north of Darwin in Avro-Ansons. As the presence of Axis forces around Australia escalated, the squadron were equipped with Lockheed-Hudson bombers and duties expanded to include operational attack missions. By the time Max arrived, the squadron had already been severely affected by the February 1942 Bombing of Darwin, losing many resources at the Darwin base.

Figure 2: Maxwell in his RAAF uniform

Figure 3: Lockheed-Hudson Bomber Aircraft

Despite this major setback, the determined ANZAC spirit conveyed by the RAAF allowed the squadron to continue to carry out reconnaissance missions and operational attack missions against the Japanese. Throughout these daily missions, Max played a key role on the aircraft, communicating with Allied forces on the ground and assisting in navigational duties.

Furthermore, during his time in the 13th Squadron, it was said that Maxwell was also successful in gunning down a Mitsubishi A6M Zero Fighter Aircraft. This type of long-range fighter aircraft gained a notorious reputation for its outstanding agility, with a dogfight win ratio said to be 12:1. However, he was never awarded a medal for the supposed downing of one of these aircraft, due to the defeat never officially being confirmed.

Figure 4: Mitsubishi Zero Aircraft

On April 1st of 1943, Maxwell was promoted to the position of Flying Officer and posted
to 2 Squadron in Darwin. On the same day, the 13 Squadron gave its Hudson Bombers to the 2 Squadron before relocating to Canberra. Maxwell continued flying in Hudson Bombers surrounding the East Indies throughout April and was involved in the attack on the
18th of April.
As historian David Vincent notes in his 2010 book, The RAAF Hudson Story, an attack against Koepang and Penfoei on the night of April 18th was the "largest ever force of bombers ever assembled to undertake an offensive operation from the Darwin area" (Vincent, 2010). The squadron was up against a large fleet including Mitsubishi Zeros on floats, allowing them to land on water. By April 25th, the attack was still underway, and disaster had struck. Hudson Bomber A16-217, with Max working as a wireless air gunner onboard, was shot from the ground whilst flying over Timoeka, New Guinea. One of the pieces of shrapnel injured Maxwell in the leg, and another bullet passed through the arm of a fellow crew member. Flying back to Darwin, Max's directorate of postings indicates that he had the small piece of metal removed from his leg. It is difficult for one to imagine the impact that near misses like this had on the mental health of military personnel. Although only a minor injury, this incident would go on to be a cause of Max's Post-Traumatic-Stress-Disorder.

Demonstrating the perseverance of the ANZAC spirit, following this incident Maxwell took to the skies again, further participating in daily attack missions on Kupang, Lautem, Penfoei, and Dili for the remainder of 1943. On New Year's Day of 1944, Max was posted to Evans Head, New South Wales, for further training to become a Flight Lieutenant. At this base he would also meet his future wife, Margaret Nancy Clarke. Enlisting at age 14, Margaret, an intelligent woman served in the Women's Auxiliary Air Force as a wages clerk and carried out administrative tasks for the war effort. They would go on to be married for 60 years, until Max's passing in 2004. Upon his promotion to Flight Lieutenant, Max was also trained to fly in Consolidated B-24 Liberator aircraft. A Californian design, these planes could reach up to 400km/hr and featured a highly efficient, low drag 'Davis Wing' design (US Air Force [via Wikipedia], 2007).

Figure 5: Evans Head RAAF Base during WWII

At the 24th Squadron, Flight Lieutenant Thomas participated in highly successful attacks on power stations in East Java, limiting the functionality of enemy bases in Indonesia. He was also involved in taking down an enemy convoy near Koepang, and troop concentrations at Tawao. By this stage of the conflict, the Allies were in full control of the war. Paris and Guam were both liberated, and the Russians managed to gather pace in Eastern Europe. Nevertheless, the squadron continued movements throughout much of the island states north of Australia. 1945 saw Max continue dangerous bombing operations and anti-shipping strikes against the Japanese in the 24th Squadron which no doubt required immense courage like the rest of the war effort. These operations were carried out right through until September when the conflict was formally ended, and Max was officially discharged in March 1946.

Maxwell was awarded the 39-45 Star, Defence Medal, War Medal 39-45 and the Australian Service Medal 39- 45. Upon being discharged, he would go on to work at H.J. Penno & Co alongside his father before the sale of the business several decades later. He was very much involved in his local community, becoming the president of the Sturt Lawn Tennis Club, and an active participant in the Returned & Services League. However, the scars from war never truly left his side, and Max suffered from these memories in fits of anger and stress for the rest of his life.

Most Australians are aware of the concept of the ANZAC Spirit. A term used in memorial services, history books and speeches, the true meaning of the phrase is somewhat ambiguous. What most can agree on however, is that it most certainly includes a love of country, sense of duty and immense courage. Whether it be overcoming injury or having the courage to take to the skies after having his life flashed before his eyes, Maxwell's story is truly one that embodies the true ANZAC spirit, whatever definition that might indeed be. Without the sacrifice of our ANZACs we would likely live in a far gloomier world, and as such, it is essential to acknowledge the sacrifice that people like Maxwell gave in defending our ability to call Australia home.

TWO

Chapter

ASIA

How The Great Wave Off Kanagawa changed the world

Dinan Perera (Joint Ron Gibbs Award Winner)

-

"You can never cross the ocean until you have the courage to lose sight of the shore"

Christopher Columbus

Figure 1: The Great Wave Off Kanagawa by Katsushika Hokusai

Many people say that "a picture is worth a thousand words", where it is the belief that some paintings convey a greater meaning and idea which can only be expressed in a thousand words. Such an idiomatic expression, however, is especially true for Katsushika Hokusai's print of "The Great Wave Off Kanagawa". Despite the various inspirational and memorable artistic works over the course of history, the profound ideas and implicit story which is present within Hokusai's work has provided an insight into traditional Japanese culture and the transformation of its principles as a country, when emerging from isolationism to globalism. Despite this, few historians, or even the general populace, would claim that a print such as Hokusai's has had the significance to alter the course of history, where many world-changing events have occurred irrespective of the print's existence. However, it is the subtle message from Hokusai's work that enables it to have remarkable significance. Especially as we live in a current period of uncertainty, the print provides a message for the innate struggle of mankind and a reflection on humanities response to COVID-19, all accumulating to the unconventional yet justified claim in its pivotal role in changing mankind.

Due to its iconic position in history, many contemporary and current scholars have tried to unravel the meaning and significance of Hokusai's work. Made between 1830 to 1833, the print was part of Hokusai's series called "Thirty-six views of Mount Fuji", an arranged composition of the various depictions of the highest mountain in Japan, Mount Fuji. To the locals, Mount Fuji has been viewed as a place to gather "immortality", which stems from the traditional tale of the Bamboo Cutter4. The tale explores a young princess named Kaguya who deposits an elixir of life on top of a cliff and leaves it for an elderly Emperor. The Emperor then seeks to reach out to her, climbing to the closest point to heaven, being Mount Fuji's summit. With the prospect of her returning, he burns the elixir on the top of the summit and gives it immortality, where it has stood for the rest of time. It is Hokusai's fascination of Mount Fuji's and its grandeur which has been the central idea of all his work in this series – except the "Great Wave".

Placed in the foreground of the work, the focus of the image is instead placed directly on the massive cresting wave. Known as the "Great Wave", the threatening wave is the main subject of Hokusai's work. Hokusai's use of optical view and perspective is effective in diminishing Mount Fuji's size, even to the extent of it appearing to be swallowed by the wave. The nature of the wave almost breaking, signifies the impending doom towards the three boats and its men which are helplessly trying to escape their inevitable death. The light blue and white colours, which associate with serenity, provide a conflicting view in comparison to the overall dark and destructive tone of the wave and its immensity2. There are countless other artistic features and techniques used by Hokusai which further compliment the setting of the wave whilst still adhering to traditional Japanese style.

However, there is no clear indication from Hokusai on what the print is intended to be. Various scholars have suggested that the wave describes a tsunami that Hokusai experienced in Japan, or a rogue wave which had been formulated from the extreme weather circumstances. Whilst these interpretations have been valid in supporting what is represented on the print, they do not necessarily reflect on Hokusai's comment on society as a whole and whether society can truly survive the aftermath of the "Great Wave".

Despite the unclear message from Hokusai's work, it is important to see the impact of his traditional work on further European artists and establishing the japonisme movement. During the 19th century, as Japan opened its traditional ports with the Western world, the spread of culture and especially art played an influence within European society. Notably, various artists such as Claude Monet, Edouard Manet and Vincent Van Gough saw the beauty behind traditional Japanese art and the Great Wave, where the limited perspective, flat areas of colour and fleeting human gestures appealed to Westerners. In the end, Impressionism, Art Nouveau and Modernism were consequent styles adopted by many French artists because of Hokusai's work, and was considered foundational to its creation. Styles of paintings called "ukiyo-e" or "pictures of a floating world" were a method of distinguishing class in Japan, eventually being emulated within Western art and added on with further contrasting colours. Such changes which contrasted with conventional Western art was therefore considered a threat and characterised under "nouvelle vague", or a "new wave" of art in the Western that would gain inspiration from the "Great Wave" itself.

Furthering from the realm of paintings and drawing, Hokusai's work also influenced a famous French composer, Claude Debussy, to arrange his famous "magnum opus" called La Mer. When visiting Japan, Debussy was able to gain inspiration off the countless images of the "Great Wave" within various Japanese shops. The influence of impressionism present in Hokusai's work displayed parallels with Debussy's, where he could compose such that his atmosphere represented the turbulence and uncontrollable nature of the ocean. Author Michael Cirigliano would say that "just as Hokusai's print was on its way to the immortality it enjoys today as a symbol of the finest nineteenth-century Japanese art, so was Debussy advertising that his new orchestral score would contain the power, elegance and the colour of the work represented on its cover" 1. Overall, Hokusai's work provided a new perspective towards both artists and composers proceeding him, where the "Great Wave" paved the way for impressionism and the future expression of the arts.

Considering the print's direct influence on future impressionists and establishing the worldwide significance of Japanese traditional art, it would only be considered a great work of art. However, it is the indirect influence of Hokusai's work and the greater message it holds, which is the primary reason for its consideration as a revolutionary print that would change the world. Many people view "The Great Wave of Kanagawa" as a representation of life's struggles, where it is bound for humanity to experience natural disasters, economic collapse, world conflict and even a pandemic. The multitude of life's challenges can be represented by rogue and rough tidal waves, where they are seemingly recurrent and never ending upon causing trouble within an individual's life. As a result, many people viewed the print as a symbol of hope for how humanity, which are the sailors, would be able to overcome the hardships. Pearl Buck's story in 1948 called "The Big Wave" was a representative of Hokusai's work, where Buck intended the novel to help children in dealing WW2 and the fears of what the atomic age could give us3. Such a print was also of great significance to Japan in 2011, where the Tohoku earthquake and subsequent tsunami was a difficult time for the locals and resulted in the death of 20,000 people3. People eventually resonated with the "Great Wave," where the print regained popularity during the time and reflected upon humanities to restore itself from a disaster as devastating as the tsunami. Such messages inferred from Hokusai's work could be drawn from Japanese traditional culture, where the famous Japanese story of "Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes" drew upon ideas of dealing with adversity and the ability to overcome difficult situations.

Figure 2: Image depicting the aftermath of the tsunami in Tohoku 2011

Prior to Hokusai's work, not many prints in Japan, nor across world, explored the concept of an indestructible natural force such as the "Great Wave" and whether society would be able to cope with it. Especially due to the perspective of print which diminishes the status of Mount Fuji, a supposedly divine natural site that is highly regarded in the world, Hokusai's work provides deep reflection for audiences in truly recognising the natural struggles of life. The constant turmoil and swaying associated with the ocean provides the ideal representation of society, being unpredictable in its nature and unknown in revealing the future state. As a result, such visual description of the ocean within Hokusai's work was not only the reason of its iconic status as a print, but as a print that could change history.

The print also plays pivotal significance in reflecting upon the greatest issue within current day society – Coronavirus. Being the largest pandemic since the Plague, it was imperative for leaders of nations across the globe to co-ordinate a response for the pandemic and for the public to be resilient in the efforts of stifling the spread of the virus. CEO of Healthcare Worldwide Marc Plumart believes that the situation of COVID could not be better depicted than Hokusai's work5. Just like the coronavirus, Plumart sees the greater understanding and destination of the men on the boat to reach Mount Fuji, where currently healthcare workers and those on the frontline are seeking the "destination" of eradicating the virus which has impacted millions. As they are facing the "Great Wave" of the pandemic, a seemingly impossible feat to overcome, it provides a reflection of society towards the importance of keeping the goal in mind and working together. Whilst other factors within society are of importance, there should be an active recognition that fighting the pandemic takes work and commitment, where society should not underestimate the urgency of the pandemic which should crumble us, just as what Hokusai depicts.

Looking through the proposed direct and indirect influences within the report which argue that "The Great Wave of Kanagawa" is a revolutionary piece of art, there is validation for people being dubious that such a print has changed the world. However, it is important to consider what Hokusai's work truly represents – life. The print is the perfect and simple depiction of the journey that every individual shall experience upon living on Earth, where the comfort and familiarity of our lives, represented by the sacred Mount Fuji, will eventually be threatened by some great force. Whether it is personal struggles, moral struggle or societal struggle, the repetitive nature of waves implies the expectation of their always being conflict to overcome. However, just like the men on the boat, the perseverance of the human spirit and determination to confront nature is essentially the purpose of society and who we are. The essence of human history can be simplified in Hokusai's work and can provide guidance in dealing with problems in the future, only when we acknowledge its significance to change history.

Vietnamese people's hopes

PAC Student

This is the story of my family history and in particular, my grandparents involvement with the Communist Party of Vietnam. My two grandfathers were on opposite sides of the war. My mum's father belonged to a rich merchant family who was one of the richest families in the middle region of Vietnam. My dad's father, on the other hand, belonged to a middle-class fisherman family. When the Communists came to the North, they ravaged all they could from both the rich and the poor. That is why the Communist ideology that consumed Vietnam is more of a dictatorship than what communism is meant to be - based on my grandfather's viewpoint. He has witnessed everything, from his family being robbed of all its wealth to the NV Army beating up poor people for all they had. After a while of suffering, he defected to the South in the search for a new and better life. However, while attempting to defect to the South, the Viet Cong shot my great grandfather and almost killed him. The result was that my great Grandfather lived in a wheelchair for the rest of his life until his recent death due to age.

Hoping for a better life, my other grandfather joined the Viet Cong. He started as a small unit captain for the navy and marines. From there, he rose through the ranks in the army. By the end of the war in 1972, he became a Major General. He was second in command of the army units 7 & 8. He, alongside major general Vo Nguyen Giap, was the best general in the Viet Cong serving Ho Chi Minh at the start of this campaign until his death at the age of 102 in 2013. My grandfather rose up in the ranks due to his spectacular war strategy; one of his famous strategies was shown at the Battle of Long Tan, where he utilised the civilian boats to transport food and resources downstream for the fight to continue. He achieved this by digging an artificial river towards the location of the Battle of Long Tan. The battle of Long Tan took place on 18th August 1966 and was one of the quickest battles of all time of a whopping 20 minute. Casualties were countless on the North Vietnamese side and were never recorded but local people believe that it is was as much as the casualties of the Australians. When I asked my grandfather, he said that the Northern Vietnamese won the war, however, when I asked my other grandpa he believed that the Americans won the war. Although my grandfather did not have direct involvement he still helped the North Vietnamese to hold out against the Americans to keep up the army's morale.

Post-war, my parents' families lives were polar opposites. They were against the regime that they sought help from. My dad's father retired from his position as major general and sought to repatriate lost or missing Americans and Australians back to their home country by providing a home for them. Although he did not like the new Soviet style regime anymore, he still occasionally brought up ideas to help improve the country, like building the one of the largest motorways from Ba Ria to Vung Tau which was one of the biggest at the time. On the other hand, my mum's father regretted moving south to seek help from the Americans as he thought they were weak and useless. However, he was quite happy that he was able to regain some of the wealth that the Communists had ravaged.

Despite the opposing ideology, they agreed that their kids should receive the best of both worlds and therefore their final decision led to the unlikely marriage of parents. This proves that there can be a time one day where communism and democracy can find a way to merge and become one. This might make the world a better place, because in my opinion there are advantages in both democracy and communism.

Now onto my generation who have not experienced the hardship of wars and extreme ideologies. I managed to gather insights that most people would not have known. I can happily say that hardcore communism is not ideal but democracy isn't a perfect world either.

Tim McCombe is one of the supporters for the AFOM (Australian Families of the Military research and support foundation) and a former war vet and a journalist was one of the people who was saved by my grandfather. This image shows them reuniting after the war had ended.

Both were very thankful and kind to each other. Tim had brought POW (prisoners of war) letters for my grandpa, and he was very thankful for doing such a meaningful thing. In return Tim thanked him for saving him and his comrade even though what he did was against the authorities. Both were very grateful and acknowledged that each were determined opponents during the key battles which would have brought them together.

Although it was an emotional meeting this is proof that even people from different regimes can celebrate and reconcile together.

To what extent can the The Great Leap Forward be considered as 'a widespread success.'

Eric Luksch (Head of Design)

Through the period 1958-1961 after Mao and the CCP successfully established their authority in China, Mao created a new economic and political campaign known as the Great Leap Forward which aimed to industrialise China and increase Mao's political and societal control. (Dor-Ner Z, 2001) The Great Leap Forward was mildly successful in some respects, such as increasing industrial production and securing economic independence from the USSR. However, a lot of these achievements were superficial due to unsustainable production methods, devastating loss of life through famine, and the schism created in the Party between economists and idealists. Ultimately the Great Leap Forward expanded China's industry allowing for independence, however, this cannot be seen as a "widespread success" due to the superficial nature of China's industrialization which regressed the countries modernization, killed 20-60 million Chinese peasants, (Fenby J, 2008) and fostered doubt in Mao's authority leading to his temporary relinquishing of power in 1961 (Fenby J, 2008).

The Great Leap Forward benefited the escalation of China's industry, pushing self-sufficiency; however, this success was undermined by poor production quality and Mao's unrealistic expectations. Through the movement Mao "decided to make self-reliance [China's] major priority."(Lynch M, 2008) which was to be achieved through major industrial development between 1958-1964. Therefore, China's expansion of key industries such as coal, which increased to 200 million tonnes in 1964, and oil which increased to 7 million tonnes, shows China gaining a degree of self-reliance, making this aspect of the Great Leap Forward successful. (Lynch M, 2008) This autonomy is further evident via the Sino-Soviet split in 1959 (Lynch M, 2008) as through the campaign, China achieved self-sufficiency no longer relying on soviet loans to sustain its industry. However, this industrial independence came at the cost of overall production quality and exposed Mao's inability to lead mass industrial reform. This leadership failure can be seen through Mao's unrealistic expectations as he believed that China's industry would equal the US in 8 years (Mao 1958). This degree of industrial growth was unattainable and overexaggerated the capabilities of China's industry at the time, which is evident as by 1963 they merely reached 9 million tonnes in steel production ."(Lynch M, 2008), and due to the nature of backyard furnace production, 60% of the steel was unusable (Chang and Halliday 2007). This exposed Mao's weaknesses as an economic leader and subsequently the campaign's limitations as he had unrealistic views on industrialisation and overestimated the effectiveness of the backyard furnace. Ultimately Mao's Great Leap Forward had achievements in increasing production and attaining a level of autonomy; however, most of that success was superficial due to the substandard production quality and lack of real industrial leadership.

1959 Backyard Furnace China

While the Great Leap Forward had mild successes in industrial expansion, Mao prioritized superficial ideological achievements over practical and meaningful development. Historian Michael Lynch supports this thesis by conveying that collectivised movements had "lots of energy…and endeavour, but little substance" (Lynch M, 2008) exposing Mao's flawed leadership. This view is further supported through the effect of various mass campaigns such as the Sparrowcide (1958), where hundreds of millions of sparrows were killed in the name of The Great Leap Forward and agricultural progression (Steinfeld J, 2018). However, the sparrows' death and the lack of labour during mass campaigns damaged the movement's effectiveness as insect numbers increased destroying crops. (Steinfeld J, 2018)

This mass campaign shows the vast capabilities of the population, but also its limitations as a result of poor leadership and how this resource was ultimately wasted. The drawbacks of the mass campaigns can also be seen through the creation of the backyard furnaces (1959), which journalist Roderic MacFarque described as a "scything clattering frenzy." (Lynch M, 2008) This description highlights the unorganized, frantic nature of mass campaigns which is further emphasized through the blatant failures in quality steel production as the campaign merely contributed to the production rate and not to the production of usable steel, (Lynch M, 2008) creating a superficial triumph. Therefore, the campaign was fundamentally limited by Mao's naïve belief that the people's will would be enough to improve the Chinese economy, illustrating his lack of understanding regarding industrialization. Ultimately, The Great Leap Forward successfully collectivised the people for mass- movements; however, Mao was ineffective in using this resource prioritizing ideology over practical industrial development.

In addition, the Great Leap Forward's detrimental impacts on Chinese population caused a schism in the Party between the economists and idealists weakening Mao's authority. Due to political disorganization and Mao's aura of fear, the Party and society were not able to voice concerns over the movement's shortcomings, creating issues in the campaign's sustainability. This is seen through the conspiracy of silence as people were afraid to dispute unrealistic agricultural goals that created the horrific conditions of the Famine (1958), killing 20-60 million peasants and leading people to turn to cannibalism.(Fenby J, 2008) This is a clear failure in the campaign as the death rate affected the population immensely and called into question Mao's ambitions and ability to lead a mass movement. This questioning of Mao can be further seen at Lushan (1959), where Peng Dehuai challenged Mao's authority vowing to "speak out on behalf of the people" dying in fields.(Short P, 2004) This breaking of the conspiracy of silence is crucial as it shows Mao's loss of authority and the schism in the Party between the economists and idealists, which threatened the campaign's continuation and Mao's overall vision for China. This is further epitomised through Mao's abdication of power in 1961 and the movement's end three years earlier than projected (Fenby J, 2008). Ultimately Mao's failures in the Great Leap Forward and the subsequent deaths via Famine gave political opposition a platform to weaken Mao's authority, creating Party division which remained up until the death of Mao in 1976.

Images from the 1960's Chinese Famine

The Great Leap Forward cannot be considered a widespread success exclusively based on the merit of limited industrial reform, since there were far more areas such as Mao's authority, production quality and sustainable industry in which the campaign fundamentally failed. Conclusively the Great Leap Forward was only successful to a minor extent in achieving superficial ambitions, while the harsh ramifications of the movement left China in a worse state than before 1958.

The conditions in which authoritarian states emerged were mainly determined by economic factors.

Angus Porter

Economic factors play a predominant role in the rise of authoritarian states, and one example that is emblematic of this concept in the fall of the Guomindang (GMD) that allowed the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) to come to power. The Guomindang faced insurmountable internal and external economic issues, sprouting from the poor governing and careless disregard of the GMD's leader Chiang Kai Shek and his bureaucratic sect. The key economic factors that contributed to the GMD's demise include a failure to generate revenue and the numerous consequences concerning said revenue shortage and a failure to reform in almost all economic facets in a meaningful way. However, one cannot pin the demise of the GMD entirely on their economic failings, one must also look at the role of the Second Sino-Japanese War in the installation and rebirth of the Chinese Communist Party. Overall, it's a combination of these key factors that lead to the fall of Guomindang.

The Guomindang failed to generate any substantial amount of revenue, leading to dire and irreversible damage to the Nationalist economy. After the death of the popular Sun Yat-Sen in March 1925, the Guomindang seemingly lost their prioritization of the livelihood of the people, one of the three main principles of Sun Yat-Sen. The GMD, seeing flaws in its taxation system, sought a course correction. Due to the low-income tax, averaging around 10%, land and other miscellaneous taxes had to fill the large revenue gap. The opus then fell on the peasants, as rich landlords easily evaded taxes. Landlords took advantage of widespread corruption to have themselves removed from the tax records, or simply register their land under a false name. The GMD in 1932 estimated that the government received only 52% of land tax from the Zhejiang Province, given the amount of land registered. The effect of this unbalanced tax policy was reflected in the morale and opinion of the people toward the GMD, the beginning of a growing anti-nationalist sentiment that became a key tool in the assent of the Communist Party. The nationalist economy also suffered from the poor banking system. Due to very high-interest rates on loans, few entrepreneurs felt comfortable taking the risk, with banks often lending to the government for a 12%-20% annual return. In 1946, a last-ditch effort to combat the lack of revenue came after the resignation of finance minister T. V. Soong. H. H. Kong, his successor, had the idea of printing more currency to generate revenue. In June of 1946, a sack of rice cost 6.7 million yuan, and by August of the same year, a bag of rice cost 63 million yuan, an increase of 840%. The consequences of the GMD failure to generate revenue was reflected in the everyday life of the average Chinese peasant, who suffered horrific conditions with little to no government interaction outside of tax collection. In their failure to generate revenue, the GMD created a large number of issues that contributed to their downfall. Without revenue, the money needed to effectively reform education, medical care and the distribution of land was simply unavailable. Revenue became the first domino to fall in a series of economic failings, leading to the Chinese Communist Party's ascension.

The failure of the Guomindang to appropriately and effectively reform the fiscal structure of China inevitably lead to dire economic straits that the CCP manipulated to come to power. Inheriting an agrarian economy, Sun Yat Sen realized the need for economic modernization and industrialization and creating a self-sustaining productivity in both the agricultural and industrial sectors. While Sun Yat Sen was a reformist, the more conservative Shek proved to fail this principle of reform. When the Guomindang captured land that had already been redistributed by the CCP, instead of following Sun Yat Sen's idea of "equalization of land ownership", they instead restored the lands ownership to local landlords. The lack of reform came not from a lack of will, rather any attempts to make a genuine change getting bogged down in the bureaucratic quagmire of the GMD's political structure. The GMD suffered from overstaffed offices in which little to no work was completed, and after documentation had been passed from desk to desk, it was often lost in the pile on a staffers desk. The reform process was also bogged down due to the factionalism of the GMD. from 1926 to 1929, the number of GMD members rose from 150,000 to 630,000, many being accepted despite lacking any cohesive political ideology and little concern shown for their purpose. The overcomplication of the reform process was a contributing factor to the economic stagnation faced in both the industrial and agricultural sectors. The failure to reform the agrarian economy into one based primarily off of industrial output also ensured the failure of the nationalist economy. The over devotion to funding the military also contributed to the failure of reform, as by the late 1930's 60%-80% of the budget was spent on the military and reservicing of loans. The inefficient structure of the government and the misappropriation of funds played a major part in the failure of the Nationalists Economic reform.

However, one would be amiss to state that economic factors solely contributed to the rise of the CCP, one must also look at the Second Sino-Japanese War and its effects on the GMD's reputation and stability as a government. The GMD understood the threat of a full-scale Japanese invasion ever since the occupation of Manchuria in 1931. However, Shek failed to prepare effectively for this inevitability, instead focusing and targeting military efforts on squashing the CCP, famously stating "The Japanese are a disease of the skin, the Communists are a disease of the heart." This seemingly irrational targeting of the CCP fell to the wayside with the establishment of the Second United Front, an ill-fated alliance between the GMD and the CCP. Without this alliance, it is safe to say that the CCP would have been stomped out under the boot of the GMD, however, due to the relative safety afforded to the communists with an alliance, their party membership grew from approximately 50,000 to 500,000 by the end of the Second Sino-Japanese War. This increase of membership also coincided with a shift in public opinion, as people felt disillusioned with the nationalists and their inability to diminish the damage caused to China during the war, such as the Rape of Nanking. Even members of the Aristocracy and Bourgeoise began to support the CCP, as the Nationalists showed themselves to be incompetent and not only managing a country in the economic sense, but in the fray of warfare they accrued both debt and fatigue that lead to the parties demise. The Japanese invasion had taken its toll on China in an economic, but political and cultural sense. Though their economic mismanagement played a large part in their demise, their mismanagement of the Second Sino-Japanese War also contributed to the takeover of the Communist Party in 1949.

The Chinese Communist Party used the economic failure of the GMD to catapult themselves to the forefront of the Chinese public consciousness as the people's liberator. The GMD continually prioritized the aristocratic and bureaucratic populace over the majority Chinese proletariat of the peasant, and in doing so sacrificed their standing with the people of China. The authoritarian state established by the Communists in 1949 was one enabled by the economic failings of Chiang Kai Shek and the GMD.

To what extent did Mohammad Reza Shah's economic policies cause the Iranian revolution in 1979

Sam McKenzie

Mohammad Reza Shah lead the Imperial State of Iran from 1941 until his overthrow in 1979. He aspired to "transport a fourteenth century country into the twentieth century in a decade" (the Iranian Revolution IB, n.d) and acquired a secular and Western approach to achieve such modernisation. Islamic fundamentalists opposed the Shah's policies and gradually, due to a variety of reasons, so too the rest of Iran. This widespread opposition lead to his eventual overthrow in 1979. Economic policies were a small factor in the Iranian revolution. Although the economy grew, it came at the cost of high inflation, urban congestion, unemployment, and unequally distributed income. More critical factors responsible for the Iranian revolution were the Shah's obsession with military dealings and his alliance with the United States, his use of force to supress civil and political opposition, as well as a failure to forge connections between the social and political sector. Ultimately, it was his main opposition, Ruhollah Khomeini, who was able to utilise these elements to turn Iran against the Shah and instead towards a theocratic Islamic republic with himself at the forefront.

The economic progression Iran faced was tremendous but left many Iranians behind. Following WW2, Iran enjoyed the spoils of their oil rich nation, and their profits began to increase steeply (Abrahamian, 1980). In 1953, oil revenues totalled less than $34 million, but in 1973 they reached up to $5 billion (Abrahamian, 1980). From 1953 to 1978, oil income reached $54 billion, majority of which the was spent on economic development spread throughout the Shah's second (1955-62), third (1962-68), fourth (1967-73) and fifth (1973-68) development plans (Abrahamian, 1980). This saw GNP rise from $200 to $2000 and industrial output dramatically increase (Axworthy, 2018). Iran enjoyed an abundance of social development, including increased primary school and university attendance from 750 0,00 to 4 million and 14,500 to 154,300 respectively (Axworthy, 2018). Additionally, doctors increased from 4,500 to 13,000 and hospital beds rose from 24,000 to 48,000 between 1963 and 1977, improving health standards and sanitation (Axworthy, 2018). However, the population's dramatic increase from 19.3 million in 1950, 27.3 million in 1968 and 33.7 million in 1976 eroded the value of these successors (Axworthy, 2018). Though the literacy rate increased from 26% to 42%, such an influx of people increased illiterate individuals from 13 to 15 million people and left only 60,000 university places available for 290,000 applicants (Abrahamian, 1980). Hence, although social progression was evident, it frequently failed to keep up with the population's increases. Such population growths, coupled with a general push for mechanization of agriculture, resulted in unemployment skyrocketing and the establishment of a new lower class (Axworthy, 2018). The Shah's government also held a number of corrupt officials. In 1974-75 alone, the commander-in-chief of navy was found pocketing $3.7 million, and the commander-in-chief of Air Force (the Shah's brother-in-law) was involved in a $5 million kickback scheme (Abrahamian, 1980). Word spread of the polarities between the standard of living of these officials and the lower working class. Surveys from the world bank show that by 1974, the top 20% of families accounted for as much as 55.5% of expenditure, while the bottom 20% only accounted for 3.7% (Abrahamian, 1980). This inegalitarian nature prompted opposition from two ends of the spectrum: the religious faction, who recognised the modernisation to be un-Islamic were angered by these policies (Axworthy, 2018), and the lower-middle class were furious and jealous for not being brought along in the improved living standards that the revolution encapsulated. Economic situations only worsened in 1974 as inflation climbed up to the 35-50% range resulting in many Iranians suffering from real income declines and decreasing living standards, particularly for the new group of unemployed, unskilled workers (Cottam, 1980). Overall, economic policies contributed to the revolution by worsening living standards and promoting inequity, which made lower class Iranians feel exploited and frustrated at the Shah. However, this alone was not enough to spark a revolution.

Khomeini, the Shah's successor, was a crucial figurehead in unifying Iran against the Shah, by publicly denouncing his actions and portraying him as unpatriotic and ungodly. In 1961, Khomeini became Ayatollah and gained a popular religious support base and began to preach against the Shah's rule (Buchan, 2014). He was attacked and arrested by the SAVAK in 1961 but was released shortly after (Axworthy, 2018). In 1963, Khomeini made a convincing speech about a variety of social reforms titled the 'White-revolution' and, once again, got arrested (Axworthy, 2018). Once news of his arrest spread, demonstrations broke out in major cities and the Shah imposed martial law (Axworthy, 2018). Consequently, hundreds of demonstrators were killed (Axworthy, 2018). Soon after, in 1964, following another speech attacking the Shah for a law regarding US diplomatic immunity, Khomeini was exiled (Afkhami, 2009). His influence, however, remained through his book titled Hokumat-e Eslami: Velayat-e Faqih (Islamic Government: Regency of the Jurist) and his preaching of martyr's during demonstrations (Axworthy, 2018).

The Shah's military obsession and inability to uphold Iranian sovereignty when dealing with the US lost his patriotic backing. Mohammed Reza yearned for Iran to become the "big man in the neighbourhood" and when Kennedy's successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, was elected as US president in 1963, the Shah began moving towards this objective (Buchan, 2014). Trading began in 1964, and the Iranian government established a new law that gave US diplomatic immunity to US military personnel in Iran. Unsurprisingly, Khomeini attacked the Shah for "reducing the Iranian people to a level lower than that of the American dog" (Axworthy, 2018). Following the law, the Shah received $200 million US credits and then $100 million a year after 1966 (Buchan, 2014). In this instance, patriotic and nationalist Iranian's recognised that the Shah's lust for military came at the cost of Iranian sovereignty. This obsession for weaponry grew such that by 1971, a third of the country's oil revenue, or 10% of all national income, was going towards weaponry (Buchan, 2014). The devotion toward security lost some support from financial management within the party. Successfully, this raised Iran's armoured forces beyond those of Britain by 1972 (Buchan, 2014). However, this transformed into an obsession and in 1970, following some $2 billion in debt to foreign creditors, the Shah commented he would "get the money for arms from somewhere or other, even if it means our going hungry" (Buchan, 2014). These dealings were primarily recognised by the Iranian people for their nature, that being with the US. Increasing ties with the US developed a widespread belief that the Shah was a puppet of the US, decreasing the credibility of the Shah's rule.

The Shah's use of force to suppress both political and civil opposition developed widespread hatred towards him. Established with the help of the CIA and Israeli secret service, Mossad, the Shah's SAVAK, was a brutal element to his rule (Axworthy, 2018). According to historian Richard Cottam, they were considered by most Iranians to be "omniscient, omnipotent and omnipresent" (Cottam, 1980). The SAVAK limited political opposition and had tight control over the press and speech. These forces set up two puppet political parties for the Majles (Iranian parliament), the National Party, founded in 1951 and the Peoples Party, founded in 1957 (Axworthy, 2018). Both these parties, based on fear, contained a plethora of sycophants which praised the Shah and became satirized as the 'yes' and 'yes sir' party (Axworthy, 2018). During the 1970s, as the political climate developed, more legitimate opposition formed, such as Marxist Fedai and the Mojahedin-e. In response, the SAVAK expanded, and their use of torture became routine and increasingly brutal (Axworthy, 2018). In 1975, Amnesty International pronounced the Shah's government to be one of the world's worst violators of human rights (Axworthy, 2018). Two years later, Jimmy Carter promised to make an "Unceasing effort to preserve human rights" (Buchan, 2014). Responsively, in 1977, the Shah decreased his oppression and released political prisoners (Axworthy, 2018). This backtrack was mistimed, for it only led to more public criticism of the Shah's rule. In August 1978, the Rex cinema burned down, and some 400 people died (Buchan, 2014). Although later proved incorrect, the majority of people blamed the SAVAK and the government received a wave of backlash for such actions (Buchan, 2014). However, the most obvious and undeniable evidence for the Shah's misuse of force is the imposition of martial law. Firstly, amongst a volatile political climate, after the arrest of Khomeini in 1963, when demonstrations broke out and the Shah imposed martial law. Hundreds of demonstrators were killed before these protests were supressed (Axworthy, 2018). Secondly, and more importantly, in January 1978, after an article came out in the Ettelaat (intelligence), which was the oldest newspaper in Iran, attacking Khomeini (Buchan, 2014). After calling him an "Indian sayyid" and commenting on his relations "with… English imperialism" it also highlighted that he was the "Chief instigator of the events of 1963" which, according to historian James Buchan, "[Placed] Khomeini at the centre of the movement for change in Iran, and then at its head" (Buchan, 2014). That afternoon, the country was in turmoil, thousands of religious students began to protest for a constitution and the return of Khomeini in Qom (Axworthy, 2018). Police fired at the crowd, killing several of them (School History, n.d.). After a traditional 40-day mourning period, protests broke out all over Iran and many were killed. The momentum continued, protests began to grow and with aggressive slogans such as "death to the Shah" (Axworthy, 2018). By September 1978, the Shah imposed martial law and, on the 8th, on a day of ignominy, as many as 4 500 unarmed demonstrators were killed (Cottam, 1980). In Qazvin, 135 demonstrators died when tanks drove over them (Axworthy, 2018). In Tabriz, using tear gas or baton rounds instructed for crowd control, the army jumped to gunfire. The two days of rioting left six dead, 125 injured, 250 arrested (Buchan, 2014). The government was sending tanks and gunships to supress riots. After such events, the majority of Iran recognised the Shah as a tyrant, including the educated middle class who were traditionally widely supportive, but understood these events to be a violation of human rights (Axworthy, 2018). Furthermore, Iran understood that Khomeini was leading the movement against him, such that when the Shah went for a "vacation", Khomeini flew back to Tehran and became the new leader.

The Shah not only failed to forge links between political and social sectors, but broke the few existing ties, isolating his depleting supporters. The bazaars held a political community of mostly lower-middle class merchants, and absent landowners, which were responsible for two-thirds of the countries retail trade (Abrahamian, 1980). During the 1960s and 70s, bazaars were a hotspot for exchanged social, political, religious, and ideological dogma. The bazaars had strong ties with the religious and fundamentalist establishment and had the ability to mobilise many clerics and students of theology. In 1963, the Shah set out a variety of reforms titled 'white revolution' which included land reform, a revision of female rights and agricultural mechanisation (Axworthy, 2008). The land reform benefited well off peasants and bazaaris, but other social issues stirred debate. The White revolution enforced the family protection law which allowed women to obtain a divorce, obliged men to seek court permission for a divorce, prohibited men from having a second wife (unless the first allowed so) and allowed the court to assign a child to his/her mother's care (Afkhami, 2009). These drastic social changes were widely recognised by the intelligentsia as ungodly, and by many politicians as impractical (Axworthy, 2008). Although it gained some support from women, despite them still having little socio-political influence. To combat the economic crisis in 1974, particularly inflation, the Resurgence party was formed (1975) which completely dissolved traditionalist values and aimed to modernise, or Americanise, society under the state's bureaucracy (Abrahamian, 1980). The Shahs long-lasting viewpoint on the bazaars was to let "sleeping dogs die" (Abrahamian, 1980). This maintained his policy until the latter part of the 1970s, when he decided to use them as scapegoats for the economic downfall, labelling them as 'bazaar-profiters' by mass media (Abrahamian, 1980). Notably, this is the first time the monarchy intervened with the bazaars. The Resurgence party continued to pursue the bazaars and arrested up to 8000 businessmen, shopkeepers, and peddlers, exiling 23,000 more from their homes (Abrahamian, 1980). For many, this was the last straw for the Shah government. The bazzaris responded by attacking the elements of Americanisation. In Tabriz, seventy-three bank branches in the city, eight cinemas and four hotels were burned down (Buchan, 2014). Furthermore, in 1976, the Shah replaced the traditional Iranian solar calendar, also known as the 'days of god', with a new imperial calendar, changing the year from 1355 to 2535 overnight (Buchan, 2014). Khomeini believed it was "the worst thing this man has done during his reign, playing games with the dignity of God's Prophet, worse even than the massacres" and issued a legal opinion to outlaw the decision, which was widely supported (Buchan, 2014). This change immediately positioned the intelligentsia and other religious fundamentalists to oppose the Shahs rule. By this point, the Shah had alienated the bazaaris and traditionalists, and his rule was on a steep decline.

Although economic conditions divided Iran and contributed to another level of dissatisfaction with the Shah's rule, it was only a small factor in the list of causes for the Iranian revolution. In a society dictated by religion and patriotism, the Shah's failure to uphold Iranian sovereignty with America, and his military obsession, diverted the nationalists away from the Shah. The use of force and violation of human rights on his own people allowed the country, including the educated middle class who were originally supporters, to recognise the Shah as a tyrant. His failure to connect the social and political sectors of Iran by targeting the bazaaris developed his opposition. Finally, to synergise all these failures, Khomeini preached against the Shah's calamities and unified the Iranian people, which lead to continuous demonstrations and the end of the Iranian Monarchy in 1979.

Borneo

Myles McEwen (Vice Chairman)

In 2018 I travelled with my family to Borneo, Malaysia. Whilst our time was spent in the Malaysian part of Borneo (26% of the territory), the island is also constituted by Indonesia (73%) and Brunei (1%). Prior to colonialist intervention, Borneo stood "virtually impassable and unexplored," (Butler A. R. 2020) as dense rainforests, swampy coastal areas fringed with mangrove forests, and a mountainous interior was home to rich habitats. In his 1904 book, 'Wanderings in the great forests of Borneo,' naturalist and researcher Odoardo eccari refers to his travels in Borneo "without telegraphic communication with the rest of the world, no railroads, no roads, clothed by dense and interminable forests in which wanders the orangutan." These magnificent forests were later "leveled (deforested) at a rate unparalleled in human history" (Ibid). The 1980s and 90s saw an enormous transition for Borneo; its rainforests fell to industrialized countries like Japan and the United States in the form of garden furniture, paper pulp and chopsticks (Ibid). However, I will not delve into the devastating environmental impacts in Borneo, particularly the loss and abuse of the orangutan population. I will instead use a cultural story, recorded in the Penrissen area (West Sarawak), to metaphorically convey Borneo's transition:

(translated and paraphrased)

The story follows a woman whose husband punished her for becoming friendly with a crocodile who'd been bringing her food, by chopping her body in two. He threw the lower part of her body to the grass at the back of their house, and the upper part into a deep pool. The lower part of the body transformed (barui) into various fruit trees, and the upper part turned into a turtle. The couple had two sons. Unfortunately, the loss of his mother left the younger boy both hungry and very upset, and he cried without stopping. To help, his older brother went to the edge of the pool, and said,

'My little brother is crying inconsolably; he misses your milk'

The turtle appeared and immediately fed the younger brother. Unfortunately, the father later found out, and went over to the pool and called the turtle up with the same words. When the turtle emerged, the father shot it, cut it into pieces, cooked and ate it, then threw the bones behind the hearth. The older brother and younger brother collected the turtle bones, went into the jungle, built a small hut, burned a piece of land and buried the bones in it. The bones grew into watermelons. When one ripe watermelon was split open, it turned into a beautiful house. The other fruits later turned into rata—wealth and possessions— and food. And from that day on, the two brothers lived well and comfortably, thanks to their mother's bones.

(Chua, L 2018)

For me, this represents much of the change across the world, whereby mining, commercialisation, foreign trade, and general economic desire has brought comfort, wealth, and possessions to society. However, these are simply material, insignificant benefits at the expense of vast ecosystems and habitats, of what is truly important. Innovation and consumerism are, really, much the same; driven by short-term, material gain, society has deprived itself from appreciation of the natural world. We all want more and more and more. This brings me to one of my most memorable moments on our two-week trip in Borneo at the Sepilok Orangutan Rehabilitation Centre in Sandakan, Sabah. I was walking along the boardwalk with my Dad, entranced by the breathtaking trees which seemed to hold such knowledge. Only metres away, a beautiful orangutang unexpectedly jumped down from a branch. People rushed to their phones trying to capture the moment. The magnificent creature stood there in silence. Staring into its eyes, it seemed to have more understanding, more appreciation and more knowledge than I could ever comprehend. Those eyes struck me. I took the photo without even looking at my camera, an instinctive press of the button. I had forgotten I was even holding a camera (the original image is quite out of focus and poorly framed as a result). I reflected on this moment for a long time afterwards. I saw something in those few seconds. A creature with a lineage dating back 12-16 million years ago. Differences between us seemed to fade away. In that moment, I had never felt so connected to a living creature in my life. Staring into its eyes, that orangutan created a bit of history in my own life. A moment of unfathomable connection. Words cannot do justice to these kinds of moments.

Only metres away, I stood with my Dad as a beautiful orangutang unexpectedly jumped down from a branch.

Months later, I opened the photo. What I saw was, at first, disappointing. The image was ruined, the orangutan out of focus and a person stood in front of half the frame! I could never capture the moment ever again. But, after close examination, I realised something. I could see that a person stood in front of the orangutan, logging into her phone, unable to appreciate the creature in front of us. Taking her phone out, attempting to capture a photo. Getting the next social media post. The need for validation. Missing the moment. We are all guilty of it. The orangutan stands, appearing to look sorrowfully at the phone, but with an ever so subtle smile. It never did anything wrong. Humans certainly have. We continue to manufacture moments through our camera rolls, thereby destroying authentic connection to our surroundings. We are desensitizing ourselves through the superficial realm of technology.

My plea to everyone is to enjoy every moment. And then, only then, you will be able to look back and you will have yourself a bit of your own history. Sometimes, the best kind of moments are those personal experiences. Moments that only you witnessed. Not everything requires a post on social media. Not everything requires validation. Like the two brothers in the aforementioned story, we all have the power to make the best with what we have. So, put away your phones. Enjoy life knowing that, first and foremost, you lived it.

How prominent was American and British involvement in the overthrow of Iranian Prime Minister Mohammed Mossadeq in the Iran coup d'état of 1951-1954?

Billy Trim

On the 15th of August 1953, Mohammed Mossadeq (1882-1967), the democratically elected Prime Minister of Iran was overthrown and replaced by Fazlollah Zahedi (1882-1963), strengthening the monarchical Shah (Mohammad Reza Pahlavi (1919-1980)), in the Iranian coup d'état. With Mossadeq's plan for oil nationalisation and "independence from foreign domination" directly conflicting with their interests, the coup was initiated by Britain, whose role mainly involved gaining American participation and establishing the conditions prior to the coup by attacking Mossadeq's support base (Omrani & Nayebian, 2017). Whereas America's role in the coup as the "operational leader, planner, and executor", included the conduction of the overthrow, and the suppression of the [Soviet-supported Tudeh] communist threat (Military Wikia, 2015). However, functions of the domestic powers assisted in the takeover, involving the Shah's reluctant participation whose position of royalty was undermined, Zahedi and his network's conspiration against Mossadeq, as well as Abol-Ghasem Kashani and Mozaffar Baqai's cooperation with the West (America and Britain). However, Britain's role was limited by its militaristic and economic weakness, meaning that its operational influence was drowned in American authority. Similarly, the role of the domestic powers was bounded by their reliance and actions for the West. Thus, it was primarily the USA's involvement that ensured the deposition of Mossadeq in the 1953 coup d'état.

Section A – Britain's Role

Following losses from World War Two, Britain's weakness increased the importance of their oil assets and characterised their involvement in undermining Mossadeq's base of support, and in instituting the conditions prior to the coup. Mossadeq's passing of an oil nationalisation bill (1951), and his creation of the National Iranian Oil Company, instigated Britain's immediate interference, as they held 50% of Iran's oil stock, which provided the British treasury with $24 million in taxes, $92 million in foreign exchange and supplied the British Navy with 85% of their fuel needs (Abrahamian, 2001). This attempted nationalisation attacked assets that were critical to "London's international economic standing", and hence, created Britain's aim "to bring to power a government which would reach an equitable oil settlement" (Balaghi, 2013). Britain's role in the period before, then followed a "Three-track Strategy", comprising of legal and illegal tactics (Gasiorowski, 1998). Mossadeq's rejection of a proposed 50-50 sharing of profit, and Britain's failed appeal to the International Court and United Nations, triggered Britain's pursual of aggressive tactics, dependent on undermining Mossadeq's base of support. The slowing of production by the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, and the deliberate oil ship blockade in July (1951), demonstrated Britain's deceitful attempt to compromise Mossadeq's regime without direct conflict (Gasiorowski, 1998). Again, evident in Britain laying off 20,000 workers for the AIOC at Abdan, causing Mossadeq to put them on government payroll (Gasiorowski, 1998). These British actions in the 'Oil Embargo' showed significant success in putting strain on Mossadeq's nationalisation plot and rallying opposition against his "fraying" political coalition, since "Iranians were becoming poorer and unhappier", and "people began to realise that promises were empty" (Kressin 1992; Brew, 2019). Additionally, Britain recruited internal forces to act in their interest. Britain's actions to "subvert" the Mossadeq government in 1953, included the hiring of the Rashidarian brothers to "stir up unrest and serve as a conduit for the Shah", so that the coup could be performed without resistance (Kressin, 1992; Iran/History of Western Civilization II, 2021). The British funded the Rashidarians $1.5 million so that they "had enough military units" for the operation (Norouzi, 2020). The Rashidarians utilised terror to produce this unrest, evident in their "kidnapping, murdering and torture" of people working with Mossadeq, including the Chief of SAVAK (Mossadeq's secret police), Mahmoud Afartorous in April (1953) (Norouzi, 2020). This murder fuelled the political instability in Iran and similar actions were encouraged by the British, who described the assassinations as an "indication that they couldn't have it their own way" (Norouzi, 2020). Britain's strategy of bribery was again seen with the twin sister of the Shah, who eventually become a power behind the resulting dictatorship (Gambrell, 2016). Hence, Britain's role in the conditions prior to, the 1953 coup is best described by Darbyshire, as a "combination of legal practices and straightforward bribery" (Norouzi, 2020).

Moreover, being directly threatened by Mossadeq's regime, Britain's role in the coup also comprised of gaining US support to facilitate their incompetence, and to perform the coup. Britain's weakness additionally resulted in their role centring around gaining American involvement in the coup, in order to maintain their control over oil resources. Britain's lack of resources and influence resulted in their influence of America to partake, to facilitate the coup. Evident in the "twenty-two paged proposal", which saw "America finally joining in" because "Darbyshire had persuaded the CIA that it was a good idea" (Milani, 2012; Transcript of Interview with Norman Darbyshire, 1985). This persuasion involved provoking America by convincing the US Secretary of State (John Foster Dulles) that Iran was falling to the Soviets, hence effectively exploiting the American Cold War mindset. While President Harry S. Truman was against the plan, in 1953, when Dwight D. Eisenhower became president, Britain was able to convince him to a joint coup d'état, by reminding him that; "Britain supported the Americans in Korea and had a right to expect Anglo-American unity in Iran." (Kinzer, 2003; Military Wikia, 2015). Whilst the coup d'état was essentially Britain's idea, once American participation began, British input and interests were soon lost. Thus, limitations of Britain's role in the coup were also evident, where their desired installation of power was Sayyid Zia Tabataba'i, whereas Fazlollah Zahedi was really elected, demonstrating America's authority in the operation (Gasiorowski, 1998). Additionally, America's power also meant that after the coup, they received 40% of Iranian oil production, previously owned by Britain (Brew, 2019). Therefore, once Britain had persuaded America to engage in the operation, American interest outweighed that of Britain's, and the coup essentially developed into America's. Overall, Britain's institution of tactics that undermined Mossadeq's regime was largely responsible for the erosion of his base of support, and the introduction of America incited the eventual oust of Mossadeq.

Section B – America's Role

Additionally, the United States role in the coup was also centred on their self-interest, which followed the 'containment' of the communist [Soviet-supported] Tudeh party and asserting their spherical influence in the area. America's participation was catalysed and initiated by Mossadeq's cooperation with the "Moscow controlled" Tudeh communist party, indicated in his speech stating his plan to "fight landlords and capitalists whose ownership of means of production…controls the state", as well as the Tudeh's increasing popularity, seen in them winning 40% of fair elections (Roosevelt, 1979). Accordingly, Iranian nationalism was in sharp contrast to the strategic "link in the Western security chain" (Saghaye-Biria, 2002). This justified the passing of the CIA's aggressive and "rouge elephant policy", 'Operation Bedamn' (Gasiorowski, 1998). The operation comprised of monitoring, espionage and guerrilla warfare tactics against the Tudeh. The propaganda and political action sphere of the operation was funded $1million per year, which went towards taking control of the media [Iranian newspaper & leaflets] and the Funding of street gangs [Somka and Pan-Iranist Party], to act against the Tudeh (Gasiorowski, 1998). Bedamn also included mass attacks on Mossadeq's National Front's base, through the funding of Kashani and Baqai to take a fundamentalist line, who hired extremist Toilers' and Pan-Iranist groups (Gasiorowski, 1998). The control over the media was additionally significant as it meant that Mossadeq's retaliation could be portrayed as corrupt to the public. Moreover, America's 'Harriman Mission' which included the funding of religious figures to denounce Tudeh as anti-Islamic, in addition to organising attacks on mosques and public figures under the Tudeh (carried out by U.S embassy staff, CIA and U.S information agency) (Encyclopaedia Iranica Foundation & Azimi 2012). While US policymakers were motivated mainly by fears of a communist takeover in Iran, and tactics initially involved an effort by the Eisenhower administration to block Soviet expansion in the Cold War, once participation in the coup had begun, the aim of the US quickly changed to the overthrow of Mossadeq for economic and spherical influence interests.

While Britain's actions in the coup were devised of interventionist strategies without deployment, America's role included a higher degree of aggression and direct conflict in Iran, but while also making use of funding, to popular local figures. Comparable to Britain, America's funding of prevalent regional personal was used to facilitate complex manoeuvres, evident in the total $5.3 milllion funded by the US, and the CIA's approval of a monthly budget of "$1,000,000 which could be used by the Tehran Station in any way that would bring about the fall of Mossadegh" (April 4, 1953) (Wu, 2019) (Times, 2018). America's continuous actions towards; the encouragement of opposition figures to create a disturbance, the dismissal of Mossadeq and apposition of Zahedi by the Shah, and the seeking of support of key active military officers, signified these domestic powers' importance to the coup. Along with external funding, America also had local strategic tactics in Iran. The major policy was 'Operation AJAX', which was essentially an "orchestrated program of destabilisation" (Gasiorowski, 1998). The strategy for the coup involved switching Operation Bedamn's (propaganda campaign) target from the Tudeh towards Mossadeq and his regime, and the organisation of constant [troop supported] demonstrations. These US troop endorsed demonstrations, rationalised the protests as; retaliation against Tudeh protests. The demonstrations attacked government office buildings, newspapers, political parties, and seized radio stations, which subsequently broadcasted pro-Zahedi bulletins (Gasiorowski, 1998). Success of these movements was seen in the report sent by US embassy staff who stated that "the Mossadeq government will soon fall" (Brew, 2019). Additionally, the US Air Force led armed tanks to the CIA safe house where Zahedi was hiding (Bayandor, 2012). Together with a group of pro-Shah demonstrators, these forces then seized the army headquarters and marched on Mosaddeq's home. Following a nine-hour battle, ensued in which some 300 people were killed in artillery fire, Mossadeq surrendered to Zahedi (Gasiorowski, 1998; Wu, 2019). Thus, the US's anti-Mossadeq actions undertaken in Bedamn played a key role in preparing the conditions prior to the coup, and their role in the overthrow, including the provision of funds, troops, arms and being the main source of intelligence suggests that the participation of America ultimately resulted in the successful coup d'état in 1953.

Section C – The Shah

Furthermore, with Mossadeq' regime undermining their royalty, the Shah's somewhat reluctant position involved conforming to Western initiatives and plans. The Shah, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, interests of a coup increased with the rise of the Tudeh party, USSR's ambitions, and because of Mossadeq's distaste in his hierarchical position, exclaiming that the Shah should "reign not rule" (Arash Norouzi, 2013). The Shah's perception of Mossadeq was also formed by the campaigns designed against the Shah and the British, in the creation of the United Front. This was evident in Mossadeq rallying a "national uprising", resulting in the purge of 136 officers, the cutting of the palace budget, appointing an anti-royalist as the Court minister, and forbidding the Shah from communicating with foreign ambassadors (Gasiorowski, 1998). This conflict was elevated in 1952 by Mossadeq's attempt to reform the electoral law to weaken the monarch; these actions pushed the Shah "over the edge" towards Western powers (Gasiorowski, 1998). Although the West and the Shah shared a mutual enemy, reluctancy of the Shah commitment was shown in that their involvement was only confrmed once US support was announced over radio broadcast (Times, 2018). These actions indicate that the Shah's significance as a force in the coup was feeble and overshadowed by their reliance on external powers. In May (1953), the Shah stated that although Zahedi was not an 'intellectual giant", he would be suitable if "massive economic aid" was provided, again asserting the limitations of the Shah's power (Richards, 1975). However, some merit of influence was shown in the Shah's persuasion of the US into utilising minimal military action, and instead using his "constitutional authority" to appoint a new prime minister (Rahnema & Mokhtari, 2016). Limitations of the Shah's role in the coup were additionally evident in the public protests, where pro-Mossadeq and Tudeh supporters were offering 100,000 rials for locating Zahedi; at the time of which the Shah fled to Baghdad in fear, delaying and complicating the coup (Gambrell, 2021). Hence, US President Eisenhower's narrative that the Shah was the "primary architect" in the coup, can be argued as a statement to protect America's reputation (Zonis, 2009). Again, the Shah's role as a 'puppet of America' in the coup was further defined in America's actions of calling for armed forces to support the Shah, and in them paying $50,000 for a fake Tudeh crowd in August, in order to provoke public unrest of a communist takeover, which rallied support for Zahedi and the Shah's decisions (Gasiorowski, 1998). Ultimately, with the Shah refusing to commit to the coup without America, and by telling Roosevelt "I owe my throne to you", the Shah's involvement was built on being employed as a Western puppet, of whom was funded and promoted by the US, and whose influence in the coup was significantly restricted by US strategies (Wilkinson, 1981).

With the Iran 1953 coup d'état planned and initiated by Britain, whose oil assets were threatened by Mossadeq's regime, their role also involved gaining American involvement and aiding in the operation, with continuous actions that eroded Mossadeq's base of support. However, Britain's financial and military weakness, meant that their involvement was limited, and hence their influence in the coup was substandard to that of America. While America's involvement was initially structured on supressing the [Soviet-supported, Tudeh] communist threat and gaining a share in oil companies, their role in the coup shifted to being the prime orchestrator and was the most significant force in the coup's completion. The Shah's somewhat reluctant participation in the coup was triggered by Mossadeq's regime undermining the position of the Shah's royalty, and his involvement was based conforming to American and British initiatives. Thus, without America the coup d'état's would not be possible, hence it's completion can be accredited primarily to America, who used other powers as a means of accomplishing the operation.

THREE
Chapter

AMERICA and SOUTH AMERICA

45 years ago, a US Cold War ally assassinated one of its biggest critics with a car bomb in the heart of Washington D.C.

Dhwarakesh Rajaram (Committee Member)

On September 21, 1976, a car bomb detonated in Sheridan Circle, in the heart of Embassy Row in Washington, DC. The car's windows shattered and the floor panel was blown off. The road in front of the Romanian Embassy was littered with blood and debris. Orlando Letelier, an ambassador and minister jailed and exiled after Chilean President Salvador Allende was overthrown, and his colleague, Ronni Moffitt, were killed in the blast. Moffitt's husband, Michael, survived.

The bombing, orchestrated by the US-backed regime of Chilean dictator Augusto Pinochet, has faded from memory in the US. It came amid Operation Condor, a larger effort by right-wing governments' in Latin America to target opponents at home and abroad, at times with the US government's knowledge. "The cooperation of Latin American regimes to silence opponents was fuelled by zealous beliefs in economic and development models," one of Letelier's sons, Francisco, said at a commemoration this weekend in Washington. "Recently I learned that white supremacists marched in US cities wearing T-shirts that say, 'Pinochet did nothing wrong' … Operation Condor lives in the present. Everywhere we can we have to share what we know."

Who was Orlando Letelier and why did Pinochet want to kill him?
Letelier was the former Chilean ambassador to the United States, who had served under the Marxist but democratically elected president, Salvador Allende, from 1970 to 1973. By 1973, Letelier had come back to Chile and served as a minister with three portfolios in quick succession. When the Pinochet coup came on September 11, 1973, the junta jailed Letelier, then minister of defence, for a year. In late 1974, Letelier was exiled and ended up in Washington as an activist for the Institute for Policy Studies, a leftist think tank. Pinochet's regime targeted him because he convinced a large Dutch corporation to disinvest from Chile and because he was a potential unifier of Chilean exiles. We should not forget that the assassination also killed Ronni Moffitt, a 25-year-old US colleague at IPS who happened to be in the car with Letelier.

How was the bombing executed and who was involved in Chile and the US?

The bombing was the work of the Directorate of National Intelligence, the Chilean secret police, otherwise known as DINA. Its head, Manuel Contreras, ordered the chief of operations, Pedro Espinoza, to find someone to assassinate Letelier. Espinoza gave the order to Michael Townley, an American-Chilean who had lived in Santiago for years and had embraced the Pinochet regime. He was also an explosives expert.

So he and a Chilean came to the United States and connected with a handful of New Jersey-based Cuban Americans. Their motivation was to improve their status among Cuban-American terrorists by doing this favour for the Letelier regime. In the summer of 1976 they helped Townley surveil Letelier make the bomb and install it under Letelier's Chevelle. Two Cuban-Americans drove the car behind Letelier's, from which they detonated the bomb. While everyone involved suspected that Pinochet was the one who gave Contreras the original order, there was no substantive evidence. Only in 2015 did the CIA release a 1987 report in which it came to this conclusion. So, while the evidence is still not definitive, it is quite clear that Pinochet himself was the intellectual author of this crime.

How did the assassination of Letelier fit into the broader context of Operation Condor?

It was one of the hundreds of deaths under Operation Condor, which was a conspiracy among right-wing South American dictatorships and military regimes to hunt political opponents outside their borders. But Letelier-Moffitt was one of very few assassinations that took place outside South America. Another prominent Chilean exile was killed in Rome.
Operation Condor was a reflection of the impunity that the South American dictators thought they enjoyed in the 1970s and 1980s. Condor also spoke to the transnational nature of right-wing militaries, since Townley took part in several assassinations and usually connected with a different fascistic group in each country.

What role did the US have in the plot? Did US officials do anything to encourage or discourage the Pinochet regime?

As far as we know, the US government did nothing directly to encourage or discourage the Letelier assassination. We do know that Operation Condor was well known at the CIA and elsewhere, and the Department of Defence even lent it some intelligence capabilities. We also know that the Henry Kissinger State Department indirectly encouraged Pinochet.
Two instances in the summer of 1976 are noteworthy. In the first, Kissinger met with Pinochet, and when Pinochet brought up Letelier explicitly as one of many exiles who were a thorn in his side, Kissinger said nothing. In the second, Kissinger signed a diplomatic cable meant for US ambassadors in South America to tell dictators that the State Department knew of and opposed their plans to kill opponents abroad. Yet the ambassadors never warned the dictators and, five days before the assassination, Kissinger recalled the cable, saying he wanted no further action on the matter. Such lack of action could only be construed by Pinochet and DINA as a green light to target exiles.

What were the consequences for the Pinochet regime and its plotters, and what effects did the attack have on Chile more broadly?

Michael Townley was expelled to the United States and spilled the beans. All five Cuban-Americans involved served some jail time, but three of them were soon freed on technicalities.
In Chile, after the FBI and the Department of Justice investigated the regime, DINA was disbanded and Manuel Contreras retired. Later, when more heat descended, Pinochet freed some prisoners, lifted the curfew, and let some exiles back into the country.
Letelier's assassination might have served as a cautionary tale against making alliances with dictatorships based on perceived strategic interests, due, if nothing else, to the blowback that can result. This wasn't the case. Murders like Letelier's were very much a feature, not a bug, of the government's friendship with Pinochet. In the 1980s, the assassination led to Democrats in Congress forcing the Reagan administration to pressure the regime to democratize, which helped persuade Pinochet to leave power in 1990. When he did, the courts convicted Contreras and Espinoza, the first time that Cold War human-rights violators went to prison in all Latin America. The former died in prison and the second is still incarcerated. Pinochet [who died in 2006] was never tried for the Letelier assassination.
Most important, perhaps, is that the quest for justice that followed the assassination inspired many in Chile to pursue other violators of human rights, and today about 1,000 cases have been adjudicated. So in many ways, the Letelier assassination helped bring about a revolution in human rights.

How important was President Lyndon B Johnson in the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964?

Thomas Mallick

The United States had sweeping attitudes concerning political and social change within the late 1950's and early 1960's regarding the rights of minority groups, most notably those of African American heritage under the oppression of Jim Crow laws. With the ultimate goal for these minority groups being a civil rights bill, President Johnson was one of many composite factors in the success of the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 through his statesmanship and ability of using Kennedy's death positively. However, Johnson's 'heroics' were mere reactions to the real change presented by the activism and leadership of those involved with the Civil Rights Movement (CRM), including that of Martin Luther King Jr, Rosa Parks and Malcom X. As a result, the combination of internal governmental factors as well as those involved within the movement itself during the late 1950's and the early 1960's helped both parties combine to form the Civil Rights Act in 1964.

A key aspect of the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was the way in which President Johnson was able to use the legacy of JFK to his own advantage. With JFK's tenure being from 1960-1963, the short abruption of his life saw an outpour of sympathy from the American people towards his intended goals. As such, the notion from Kennedy that Civil Rights was a "moral issue which could no longer be dodged" (Maclean, 2006), President Johnson was able to use his death as a catalyst to ensuring a bill would be passed during 1964. Johnson was able to use Kennedy's death favourably as the polls idealised the change that had been brought forward through Kennedy's first bill in early 1963. As well, his legitimisation of the movement provided Johnson with a starting platform from which he could build upon his own bill of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This is evidently seen with the outpour of cultural change within the US which resulted in the approval rating of the bill in 1964 being of 61% (Woods, 2006) and most notably, within the South, "83% of those questioned believed racial integration to be inevitable; 49% predicted that it could come about in the South within 5 years.". What is ultimately evident from Johnson is that his initial 'push' for the bill was heavily dependent off of the death of Kennedy in 1963. Without the national uproar of support through a change of political attitudes coming from the North and South alike, what Kennedy couldn't achieve during his presidency alive, his death laid the foundation for LBJ to have enough of a political argument within the senate to pass the Civil Rights Act.

President Johnson's severe involvement through the passing of the Civil Rights act in government also came through his involvement as a multidimensional political leader. With his ability of being an influential figure as a President as well as an aggressive politician within the Senate, his dynamic leadership was key to the passing of the bill. Firstly, Johnson was able use his influence as a political leader through a variety of mass rallies from 1963-1964 to help spread the message he was reinforcing. That being of building a society that focuses on equality through civil rights. Johnson was able to spread this message through a focus of academic facilities as well as regular labourers base of operations across the United States. For example, Johnson appeared at the University of Michigan in 1964 in front of a strong 80,000 crowd and illustrated the need for a Civil Rights bill. He influenced the people by speaking about "the demand of morality…can [and must] be realised in the life of the nation"(Branch, 1998). Johnson was further able to emphasise his points in March of 1964 with a speech in front of the Atlantic city union. Johnson in front of a mixed raced crowd, reiterated his commitment and patience in ensuring that a bill will be passed "without hesitation and without discrimination." (L. Johnson, 1963). Johnson's clear message and firm position was further able to be shared through the revolutionary developments in television during this time. As such, a variety of his speeches including important members of the crowd such as that of his state of union address in January of 1964, attended by all of congress. As well as the ultimate signing of the act in July of 1964 (Renka, 2008), in which key CRM leaders were present. Ultimately, Johnson's presence as a public influential figure was proven to be extremely crucial in the passing of the Civil Rights act in 1964. Without his countless of public efforts to a variety of socioeconomic facilities to help persuade crowds, as well as his shared message through television, the necessity of the bill would not have been reinforced to the American people.

Furthermore, President Johnson was crucial to the signing of the Civil Rights Act as a politician that was able to use his aggressive role and first-hand experience to ensure that the bill was passed. With Johnson's challenge of changing the opinions of hard-line conservatives within the Senate and the ultimate national political perspective on civil rights, he resulted to key tactics such as 'The Johnson Treatment'. An almost bullying and intimidation method of politics, Johnson's techniques were extremely persuasive in changing the political perspective of members from the South, of which were needed for success. The use of his 6'3 stature and his aggressive tone towards his political opponents played a crucial role in Johnson individually securing votes. With Johnson evidently showing this with Supreme Court Justice Abe Fortas, as "He [was] towering over [him]" (Coleman, 2021) to persuade his vote. This tactic was again shown with Johnson approaching the leader of the Southern caucus, Richard Russell, in which their group posed a significant threat in deposing the bill. As such, Johnson's ability to get very close and intimidate Russell in a secluded section of the Senate indicated his determination of getting the bill 'across the line'. While these methods were extremely effective in changing the voting opinions of Southern Senators, the morality behind the usage of the Johnson Treatment is something that is frowned upon within democratic politics due to its bullying nature. However, in these circumstances, and the success that was shown, it was absolutely crucial Johnson did this as without the Senate vote from Southern Senators, the bill would not have been able to been executed.

However, another key aspect to the signing of the bill outside of the government was the leadership of a variety of leaders within the CRM itself. While Martin Luther King Jr was the outstanding focal point of leadership, the aided assistance of Rosa Parks and Malcom X within their respective communities allowed for change to occur. While their methods and effectiveness differentiated, they were still crucial in gaining support for the movement as a whole. For example, Rosa Parks' initial involvement in being the facilitator for the Montgomery Bus Boycott in 1955 by refusing to move from her seat on a bus. From that point forward, her name had been associated with the hope and symbolism that segregation could end through the protests of the masses which in turn aided the support needed for the CRM. Parks' commitment to allowing for average coloured American's to not feel outcasted and emphasising that she "did not want to be mistreated" ("Main Reason For Keeping Her Seat", 1992) for the colour of her skin.

In contrast to Parks' thought through approach to civil rights, Malcom X was able to inspire people to the movement through violence. Malcom X's initial perspective that violence was the answer to ending segregation appealed to a variety of coloured communities due to the violence they had received from white oppressors. With Malcom X being recognised as one of the main leaders of the Nation of Islam, a violent group that advocated for black superiority in America, his approach to advancing the black population by "any means necessary" (Lomax, 1963) allowed for the spread of terror from his involvement in 1952 to his disillusionment with the organisation in 1964. With riots and mass shootings being inspired by his pro-African-American agenda, key cities such as Birmingham and the capital of Washington faced severe violence. Ultimately, while these two influential leaders differed on their approach of civil rights, they were still crucial in identifying to Americans and the global community of the injustices faced by African Americans and thus rallied support for the necessity of a Civil Rights Bill.

While the work of other leaders were evident, the work of Martin Luther King Jr had great significance in the passing of the bill due to his ability to lead the CRM as a figure head which in turn, legitimised the CRM. King's role within the movement was to be able to be the face by which people of all backgrounds and occupations could recognise the movement. As such, King was severely involved with events from the Montgomery Bus Boycott in 1955 to the March on Washington in August of 1963. His importance was displayed by becoming a leading voice in the political tasks involving lobbying bills and ultimately was catapulted "Into the spotlight as a Civil Rights Leader" (Mirams, 2014). His leadership led to the passing of the bill with the most notable achievement being shown on August 28th 1963 with the March on Washington in which MLK spearheaded the enormous protest. With over 200,000 Americans of both white and black expressing their support (Woods, 2006), the event became a symbolic gesture of those being oppressed protesting to the government in front of a major political landmark. With the organisation of the event being led by King, his influence showed that there is an overwhelming support for civil rights and the enormous scale of the event put pressure on those who deposed of the bill. The importance of King was further emphasised with the 'I have a Dream' speech being televised to millions across the nation brought about an increased social acceptance at the knowledge of people of colour and whites reconciling through his positive messages. This acceptance of all allowed for the necessary support needed to be able to allow further pressure onto congress to pass the bill as with an unfavourable opinion held in the senate, it saw the risk of senators losing their positions of power. With the March on Washington achieving over a 50% support for the bill, with 1/3 being unsure still, King's actions allowed for LBJ to have a solid support from the public when passing the bill. Ultimately, King's presence in organising events was crucial in displaying a united front in providing the ushered importance of a Civil Rights bill being needed where by, LBJ was able to successfully pass the bill.

Moreover, King proved crucial with his passive approach being more appealing to Americans compared to the aggressive and violent actions of Malcom X. This passive approach allowed for peaceful protests and ultimately favoured the public image of the CRM of which, King thrived off to continue to spread his message of equality. This difference in approach is evidently shown when Malcom X responded to deaths of white people positively, of which King replied "I would certainly disagree with him" (Branch, 1998). This highlighted the important political integrity of morals that King upheld compared to having a leader such as Malcom X who divided the population further, giving conservatives an excuse to not pass the bill. Ultimately, King's leadership was vital to the passing of the Civil Rights act as he became the face of the entire movement and consequently spread a positive message of equality which, through his leadership, allowed for a politically sound environment within the senate for LBJ to pass through the Civil Rights act in 1964.

Conclusively, President Lyndon B Johnson was a part of the success in the passing of the Civil Rights act of 1964 through his dynamic role as a political leader and influencer. His committed and ruthless work within the Senate and influential public appearances across America ensured he had a solid commitment within the government. However, his actions would have proven to be pointless without the overwhelming support of the CRM and MLK respectively. Without millions of American's pledging their support for the movement, and MLK creating a positive image of the movement through his leadership, the existence and the success of the bill would have been impossible. Moreover, without the change in political climate and public opinion through the death of Kennedy, the success of all may have been limited, particularly for that of LBJ. Such, it cannot be just LBJ credited to the success of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, but rather, the actions of those involved within the movement had an equal or greater influence on the success of the passing of the bill.

What was the influence of America in the Brazilian military coup in 1964 that replaced the government with a brutal military dictatorship?

George Bartley (Committee Member)

In Brazil, the 1950s were known as the "golden '50s". The President of Brazil, Juscelino Kubitschek, elected in 1955, focussed on modernizing the Brazilian economy, increasing the availability of televisions, cars, and food to ordinary Brazilians. He brought 80% industrial growth, enabled millions of industrial jobs and by the time he had left presidency in January 1961, he was a hero within Brazil (Brown University, 2020). Brazil even won the soccer world cup in 1958! So, what went wrong? What happened during the 1950s and 60s to influence the Coup D'etat?

To begin with, the Brazilian government remained a corrupt and extremely unstable system politically, while economically, Kubitschek's massive spending to create political growth had created an enormous 1.5 billion dollar increase in national debt and a horrific 43% inflation rate increase in Brazil (Brown University, 2020). Janio Quadros, the newly elected president, attempted to negotiate with Russia and America in 1961, however, during the Cold War, following Bay of Pigs disaster in April 1961, this was perhaps one of the worst times to attempt such negotiations and thus was incredibly unsuccessful.

By August, Quadros resigned.

The newly elected Brazilian president in August, Joao Goulart, was unfortunately visiting Communist China at the time. This damaged relations with America, and even inside Brazil, furthering tensions between right-wing politicians being a presumed Communist, fresh after the era of McCarthyism in the US where there was a fear and mass persecution of communism. Further, after the failed Cuban bay of pigs' invasion directly caused by a fear and hatred of communism, the Americans had declared "we don't want another Cuba".

In December 1962, despite not taking an initial hard-line approach towards Goulart, the Executive Committee of the National Security Council in America met to discuss their Brazilian policy options; to do nothing, to support a coup or to shift Goulart and his government's political agenda. (Martins Filho, 2019) However, when Bobby Kennedy, the president's brother, optimistically met with Goulart that month to talk to him about the Brazilian political system, there was a clear failure of any diplomatic negotiations. Three months later, when he was asked to remove anti-American politicians, Goulart refused.

Perhaps, if Goulart had listened to the Americans, they would not have subsequently turned on him, and might have even supported his government in the event of a coup.

Meanwhile, in the economic sphere during 1963, the Brazilian economy was rapidly imploding, as the minimum wage in Rio de Janeiro had fallen from 50 cruzeiros in mid 1958 to 20 by late 1963, with low pay workers becoming severely disillusioned with the Goulart government and their inability to maintain economic control. Meanwhile, though total expenditure remained almost the same as prior to 1960, revenue drastically fell from 23.3% to 18.8% in those years (Instituto Brasilia de Estatistico 1972), with growing dissent among large groups in Brazil due to the decaying economy, only amplifying their hatred of Goulart's political orientation.

The Brazilian elite were one such group that hated the direction of the Brazilian political sphere with left-wing ideals, disliking Goulart's attack on corruption and decadence in Brazil, and believing that a coup d'état to displace the current government would be the only way to ensure their extravagant lifestyle. The Brazilian elite believed a dictatorship would prove stronger than communism as the economic damage was proving to be highly fatal to the government, ultimately exacerbating right-wing fears.

The Americans agreed with the Brazilian conservative elite in so far as hating the stubborn 'communist' Goulart government's ideals. By this point, a secret meeting held in the US, in 1963, Richard Goodwin confiding "we may well want to take over at the end of the year", while US ambassador Lincoln Gordon stated "we are not hostile to military actions" in Brazil if Goulart doesn't agree to stop communist ideals and take out anti-American sentiment (AW Pereira, 2016). The Americans subsequently blocked economic assistance to Goulart's government and began to fuel political anti-Goulart hate within Brazil. However, the Americans were still doubtful about the Brazilian military's ability to carry out the coup. The Americans increased corruption within Brazil, and even increased the decadence of the upper class solely for the purpose of their hatred of communism.

The following year, on March 31, Brazilian military forces carried out the coup and faced no resistance, the Americans realised they did not need to intervene. The US afterwards labelled it a "democratic success" as Goulart fled to Uruguay to prevent a civil war. However, behind their façade of aiding "democratic" achievement, they sent four navy tankers to Brazil in late March as they were more than prepared to defend the military coup if necessary, demonstrating the intent they had in forcefully taking down the government, and why Goulart may have fled to avoid American involvement.

Regardless of the American influence, this coup was most definitely not for democratic purposes and their actions cannot be justified as such. It kicked off a brutal military dictatorship, in which roughly thirty thousand people were tortured, and thousands imprisoned over the next 20 years. In fact, CIA officers actively trained hundreds of Brazilian military officers in torture techniques, with documents revealing that these were horrifically tested on kids and beggars (Cardenal Paulo Evaristo Arns).

Conclusively, a political anti-leftist and economic motivation formed the basis of the military Coup, which was exploited and subsequently further manipulated by the American government desiring to rid Latin America of Communism due to the importance of resources and foreign support during the Cold War.

FOUR
Chapter
AFRICA

The Democratic Republic of the Congo

Thomas Mitev (Committee Chairman)

The Democratic Republic of the Congo, as many of us know it to be, has not always been called by this name. This country located in Central Africa was named after the Congo River, a beautiful river that spans 4,700km . However, it was only on the 30th of June 1960, that the Congo earned its independence after Belgium colonised it from 1908 – 1960 . Ironically, Belgium has been observed historically for its neutrality in international conflict. However, the heinous acts of colonialism remain largely unnoticed by many as Belgium's 'neutrality' is exposed for greed and power. Most notably, and what this article will primarily focus on, is Belgian Congo's involvement in what was effectively a proxy war endorsed from the two superpowers at the time, the United States, and the Soviet Union, during the Cold War . In classic Cold War fashion, external powers invested resources into a civil war to bolster their ideological views – capitalism vs communism.

Transitioning from colonial rule to an independent nation is always a challenge for any country. Belgium in the late 1950s was not ready to leave the Congo. Despite establishing an advisory board where the Congolese would aid Belgium in running the country, many were left unsatisfied. Naturally, as the push for independence grew through large demonstrations and rallies, Belgium agreed to independence. The Congolese people were no longer willing to endure the numerous human rights violations of the colony . It was revealed that millions were "dying of starvation, disease, and poor working conditions". Consequently, a power vacuum engulfed the Congo following a successful independence movement where the Congo was now ripe with instability with several tribal groups grappling for power .

Patrice Lumumba (Image on the right) was the leader of the Congolese National Movement. This political party was the first to take power after the Congo had gained its independence. However, when mutinies emerged, and divorced from the united army, conflict and instability prevailed. The Republic of Congo was divided up into four separate independent states. Most notably, the Republic of Katanga, which departed from the Congo-Léopoldville on 11 July 1960 sparking international interest. This was where the term the 'Congo Crisis' was coined following post-independence conflict.

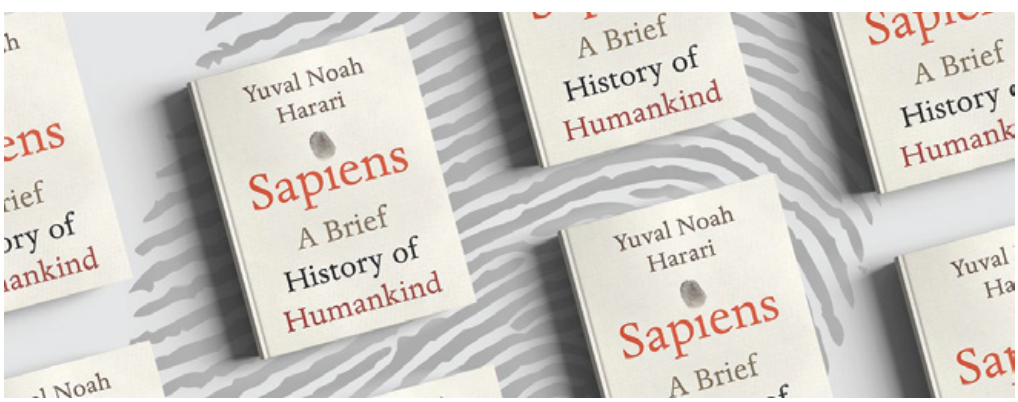
Lumumba, the Prime Minister of Léopoldville, and his government adopted a Communist rhetoric which alarmed the West, but also inviting a relationship Soviet Union. The underlying foundation for the proxy war between the US and USSR was unveiled. Moïse Tshombe was the President of the Republic of Katanga and had adopted a more pro-western agenda enticing the United States to support Tshombe due to the recent events in Léopoldville. It was the difference in these two states that set the stage for a proxy war that would last five devastating years, with Soviet support for Lumumba and United States support for Tshombe. It was not uncommon for the United States and Soviet Union to invest resources in 'Third World' countries grappling instability as it provided a platform to instil their ideologies .

Interestingly, and disappointingly, it was not the Congolese people that drove foreign power attention, rather, the rich and high-quality uranium deposits used for the creation of atomic bombs. As the Cold War was increasing at fearful rates with a nuclear arms race, this was critical for the national security of the West. Moreover, the era of McCarthyism dominated the West (the fear of Communism and its spread internally and externally) and promoted an environment engrossed with the fear that the Soviet Union might grab hold of the US's largest uranium supply: the Shinkolobwe mine located in the Katanga province .

Ultimately, through US support, Lumumba was overthrown via a coup. Belgian authorities and the UN were in support for toppling the Communist regime. However, endorsed by the United States, a new, authoritarian leader would rule the unified Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mobutu Sese Seko.

Sapiens: A Colossal Undertaking Worth Digesting!

Ron Pippett (History Coordinator)



Although published six years ago I have only recently encountered Yuval Harari's Sapiens: A Brief History of Mankind, and regret it's taken so long. Everything about this book is formidable from its author; a Professor of History, taking a PhD. from Oxford in 2002, a keynote speaker at Davos 2020, his books have sold over 30 Million copies and have been translated into 60 languages, to the topic; covering 2.5 million years of human history and the book itself; Sapiens has sold 18 million copies and is a New York Times top 10 bestseller. In fact The Guardian credited Sapiens with revolutionising the non-fiction market and creating the contemporary 'brainy books' genre. So, it is definitely a book worth reading for any History scholar (and I should acknowledge my son, Greg, for urging me to read it).

As a specialist in world, medieval and military history, Harari's strength is his examination of pre-historic man and the forces behind great Empires from the Persian, Chinese, Greek, Roman, Arab and Mongol to the modern Spanish, British and American hegemonies. Understandably, his futuristic prophecies concerning eternal life (he terms, amortality), genetic engineering and bionic humans (or robotic versions) are less convincing. From my experience, Historians tend not to make great futurists.

Harari's style is witty and droll, particularly evident in his investigations of early Homo-sapiens, with quips like: "That evolution should select for larger brains may seem to us like, well, a no brainer", furthermore he counters this with the absurdity, "...but if this were the case, the feline family would also have produced cats who could do calculus and frogs by now would have launched their own space programme." There are definitely some appealing 'Brysonian' elements that make this book highly readable.

Ultimately, perhaps it is the questions Harari raises, rather than the ones he answers, that are the most profound aspect of this book. Undoubtedly, the more one studies a particular time in History the less inevitable things seem, that is; the harder it is to explain why things happen. On the surface, the spread of Christianity from a tiny cult in Palestine to the predominant religion in the Roman empire may seem an inevitability founded on Constantine's desire, around 312 A.D, to unify his empire politically, economically and spiritually. However, Harari points out that "Manichaeism, Mithraism, the cults of Isis or Cybele, Zoroastrianism, Judaism, and even Buddhism..." were all realistic possibilities. Some contemporary questions are offered to make his point concerning historical crossroads and how arbitrary the direction taken can often be. "Will China continue growing until it becomes the leading superpower? Will the United States lose its hegemony? Is the upsurge of monotheistic fundamentalism the wave of the future or a local whirlpool of no long-term significance? Are we heading towards ecological disaster or technological paradise?" Alas, there is no inevitability about the answers to these questions. However, some sage advice is offered to all students of History. "Those more deeply informed about the period are much more cognisant of the roads not taken."

Perhaps the greatest example of this is discussed earlier in Sapiens where Harari considers the freakish and transitory windows in the evolutionary process that allowed Homo-sapiens to develop and eventually flourish. The 'Replacement theory' regarding the dominance of Sapiens over Neanderthals and Homo-erectus suggests that there are virtually no genetic differences between Africans, Europeans and Asians. However, if some interbreeding did occur 70,000 years ago then there may indeed be considerable genetic differences. This of course is potentially political dynamite in today's world of racial dogmatism and upheaval.

Alas, Sapiens concludes with a fundamentally bleak perception of where our world might be headed.

"Despite the astonishing things humans are capable of doing, we remain unsure of
our goals and seem to be as discontented as ever...We are more powerful than ever,
but have very little idea what to do with all that power... Is there anything more dangerous than dissatisfied and irresponsible gods that don't know what they want?"

The challenges ahead are colossal, but as a child of the Cold War (when a nuclear holocaust appeared inevitable) I feel less pessimistic, but clearly none of us can afford to be complacent. Harari's sequel, Homo Deus – A Brief History of Tomorrow evidently dips much more into futurism. I suspect, I may not be able to recommend it quite as much.

FIVE

Chapter

EUROPE and RUSSIA

Compare and contrast the importance of the use of force on the emergence of two authoritarian states, each from a different region.

Ryan Schwarz

The Nationalist Socialist German Workers Party (Nazi) and Chinese Communist Party (CCP) Chairman both achieved power in varying manners under two vastly different circumstances. A strategy employed by both sides of differentiating importance, was the use of force. Whilst the CCP employed force in a time of war to promote power and to develop their following, the Nazis used force to ensure Germany fell into a state of chaos, so that they could provide an image of stability. However, other methods were crucial to their rise to power such as the manipulation of propaganda and enabling the pair to develop a fanatical following. Overall, whilst the use of force was critical for Mao and the CCP as they violently came to power through a civil war, it was far less important for Hitler and the Nazis who merely used it to aid their already growing popularity.

The use of force was significant in the Nazi party's rise to power, as the Nazi-created Sturmateiblang galvanised political popularity and prevented potential opponents through intimidation tactics. This paramilitary organization created in 1921 drew members from anti-leftist and anti-democratic former soldiers, "composed in large part of ruffians and bullies" in the words of the Nuremberg Military Tribunal (Graham Land, 2021). Known colloquially as Brownshirts due to their strictly brown attire and based on Mussolini's Facist blackshirts in Italy, their initial responsibility was to protect Nazi political events and terrorize political opponents. This menacing came in the form of thuggish vigilantism as they broke up opposing political meetings and brawled with communists and Jews in the streets (James Barret, 2018) As the SA was seen to be combatting these public enemies, this generated what Historian Gordon Craig called "negative cohesion". This meant the German population did not support the Nazi party because they held common views, but because due to common fears and hatred of certain elements within German society (Walsh, 2008). These views enabled the Nazi Party to develop a following of those who would otherwise view the Nazi ideals as radical or extremist. Furthermore, this cohesion a certain political irony where the Nazis were increasingly seen as important to restore order to the chaos that Hitler himself was fashioning. As the Great Depression evaporated the German economy, the unemployed turned to the ranks of the SA, leaving numbers to swell to 2 million by 1933 (Graham Land, 2021), the use of an organization to exert force against external elements gaining popularity through an appearance of strength amongst the social and economic fragility. Altogether, the use of force was somewhat important as it enabled the Nazi party to be viewed as a source of stability and action in a time of disunity and chaos.

The use of force was also critical for the emergence of Mao and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) as with no democratic system and communism outlawed, the CCP were forced to enter power through revolution and militaristic force. The second Sino-Japanese war enabled territory growth for the communists, as the CCP began the war controlling 75 000 square kilometres inhabiting around 2 million people, but by the end held a territory of 750 000 square kilometres and almost 90 million inhabitants (Tony Taylor, 2002). This territorial gain enabled the CCP to introduce communism to a much broader audience. Furthermore, whilst the nationalists faced the vast majority of Japanese assaults, 'it was the communist armies which impressed the Chinese public' (Jack Gray, 2004). This was due to the fact the Guomindang (GMD) held the coastal cities and major infrastructure that the Japanese sought and were geographically closer to. Such important cities include the capital of Nanjing, Beijing and Shanghai, all of which fell to the Japanese during the invasion. On the contrary, the communist forces escaped relatively unscathed in rural China (Jack Gray, 2004). Due to the guerrilla warfare tactics and the avoidance of large-scale engagements, CCP military forces grew to between half a million and a million men (Kenneth Pletcher, 2016). This was further emphasised by Nationalist casualty numbers reaching well above 3 million compared to approximately 500 000 by the communists. This sharp spike in communist numbers led to a commanding victory in the re-emerging civil war. Chinese historian Immanuel Hsu states that the nationalist government, "was so depleted physically and spiritually that it was manifestly incapable of coping with the new challenges of the post-war era". As a result, the use of force was vital for the CCP's rise to power as it provided an important opportunity to capture the popular support of a much larger audience through a demonstration of military strength.

However, economic instability provided a foothold to power for both authoritarian states of the CCP and Nazis, being particularly important for the Nazis as they both manipulated these conditions through the use of propaganda to present a solution to the turmoil. Those most heavily impacted by the economic problems: the elderly, middles classes and the some 6 million unemployed, began to take a particular interest in Nazi policy (Richard Evans, 2003) , (Walsh, 2008). As a result, from the 1930 election to that of the November 1932 election, the Nazi party climbed from 107 seats to 200 (Walsh, 2008). Such propaganda was crucial for the party. Hitler himself proclaimed, "Through clever and constant application of propaganda, people can be made to see paradise as hell", illustrating his view as influencing people's opinions regardless of the circumstance, and in this case enabled Hitler to gain power through destroying the image and reputation of the Weimar government. The manipulation of events produced what Ian Kershaw called, a 'super interest party,' where a large portion of the population was able to be drawn to the policies of the party. In a similar way, propaganda was also applied by the CCP as they manipulated the economic fragility of the Nationalist government. The Nationalists failed at producing revenue through income and corporate taxes, introducing a series of 'Special taxes' on an array of items, boosting tax payments by up to 45% (Fenby, 2013). A culmination of economic failures led to hyperinflation. In June a sack of rice would cost 6.7 million yuan, in august it would cost 63 million (Aris Teon, 2018). As the government failed at improving the wellbeing of the population, the CCP presented ideals of equality to capture the hearts and minds of the people. Historian Jonathan Fenby depicts the success of propaganda imploring, 'people were a blank sheet of paper, mere numbers to be used as the leader saw fit' (Fenby.J, 2008) Overall, other methods such as the exploitation of economic instability were crucial in the Nazi rise to power to galvanise electoral support and played a lesser, but still important role in the CCP's emergence, by gaining popular support.

In conclusion, the use of force was successfully employed by both the Nazi Party and the Chinese Communist Party to propel their rise to power, being far more prominent for the CCP due to facing external and internal violence, as the Nazis faced an extremely unstable democratic system that meant they could enter government through political means. Both the wartime conditions and the lack of functional democracy in China ensured it was a necessity they take power forcefully. On the contrary, the Nazi use of force could be seen to be overshadowed in importance by more permissible strategies such as propaganda. Interestingly, their methods to gain power can be seen in their consolidation, as the CCP continued to use force internally to maintain control through coercion, while the Nazis were more successful with force against foreign nations to maintain an image of control.

To what extent did internal social activism and protest in East Germany bring about the fall of the Berlin Wall?

Eric Luksch (Head of Design)

Post 1949 Germany was divided by the ideological tensions between an America supported west and the USSR occupied east, cemented through the building of the Berlin Wall in 1961. Throughout this there was much internal and external political turmoil regarding the prospects of a united Germany culminating in the eventual collapse of the eastern GDR government on November 9th, 1989 (German Democratic republic). While the power of the people was a factor in bringing about small-scale political change within the GDR government, its success was ultimately dependant on several external factors such as Gorbachev's reformative policies, the revolutionary wave, or the de-escalation of the Cold War. Therefore, the people's power and protest was successful in accelerating the process towards German reunification, however, was reliant on the momentum generated by various external factors.

The Berlin Wall

Social activism by East-German citizens was an important factor to bringing about the fall of the Berlin wall by expediting internal political change. A majority of the people living under the authoritarian rule of the GDR government opposed the state and supported the idea of a reunified Germany through public protest. This becomes evident through the increasing rates of participation for the weekly Monday marches organised by the Catholic Church, from 80-300 people attending in January through to July, which can be compared to October 9th were there was an estimated 70000-95000 protestors (Dale G, 2006). One of the most significant protests dubbed the of battle of Dresden Station where on the third of October 1989, 15,0000 people protested forcing the GDR to implement crowd dispersal methods such as water hoses and tear gas. (Dale G, 2006) This laments that the protestors were beginning to become bolder and more willing to risk themselves for their freedom, furthermore it characterizes the beginning of a power struggle between the will of the people and the authority of the GDR. Therefore, the increasing growth in participants and swelling political activism reflects on the increasing internal support for the "We want out" movement and on the failures of the government successfully stop protests (1989) (Taylor F, 2006). This is further supported by reduction of arrests made during the Monday marches, as in January-July 10-40% were arrested while on September 25th only 0.1% got arrested and on October 9th 0% (Dale G, 2006). This indicates that by rejecting and discrediting the GDR the protestors successfully "exposed the contradictions [in their] society" (Egon Krenz 1989) and weakened their formerly dominant authority. However, the protesters not only challenged the government's authority but they also limited it's economy as 225,000 people launched strikes in 332 factories (Taylor F, 2006). These strikes were detrimental to the economy, leading to east Germany becoming economically unable to sustain themselves, as their foreign debt reached 26.5 billion at the end of 1989 (Caryle C, 2009). This economic limitation became detrimental to the future of the GDR as it became an unsustainable system which threatened economic collapse in east Germany. Ultimately the success of the culminated movement becomes apparent on October 9th with the removal of President Erich Honecker from power, and the inauguration of a supported candidate in Egon Krenz. (Taylor F, 2006). This suggests that the people's protest was very successful in forcing internal political change and starting the process of German reunification, with Egon Krenz opening the east German borders only 1 month after his instatement into office. Ultimately public protest was an important factor in forcing internal political change within the GDR which expedited the process towards a reunified Germany.

Monday Marches 1989

Furthermore, social activism was effective in triggering an international response within America and the European parliament, garnering support for the reunification of Germany. The Monday marches, the battle of Dresden and political activism of a similar nature were very successful in raising global political awareness in the hope of gaining external support. This awareness can be seen through the declaration of the European parliament stating there "[concern] at the crackdown on the demonstrators who called on 7 October 1989 for democratic reforms". (OJEC 1989) Furthermore the European Parliament released a additional decree which "Calls on the GDR to put an immediate end to all action against individuals who simply wish to live in a free country…and to abandon judicial and police proceedings". (OJEC 1989)

While the European parliament's show of support lacked offensive actions against the GDR government their formal statement was able to generate momentum for the internal movement, and also intimidated the GDR in limiting their response towards the protestors. The success of this momentum can be seen in the high numbers of protestors two days later, on the 9th of October with 70-95000 people (Dale G,2006) and the arrest rates dropping to 0%. Ultimately while the European parliament never took any offensive action against the GDR, the implied threat was enough to both inspire the east German citizens to continue to fight for their freedoms, as well as to get the GDR to shift their policies in dealing with protestors. This idea of global outrage having a significant impact is held by many Historians including Steven Paff who characterizes this social movement as "A commonly understood signal of the magnitude, of public grievance which will likely raise the expectation that others will speak out." (Paff S, 2006) This gathering of international support is further exemplified through east German protest invoking the support of America who have been attempting to free berlin since the 1960's (Dale G,2006) as it regarded the Berlin wall as a symbol of Communism in eastern Europe. This pronouncement of support was shown through President Ronald Regan's visit to Berlin on the 12 of July 1987 where he declare "Mr Gorbachev tear this wall down". (Granieri R,2013) This was an effective show of support as due to the current Cold War climate (1987) limiting the USSR's ability to involve themselves with the berlin wall crisis without invoking an international incident. This American support can be further seen through the Grand protest at Alexander's Platz November 4 th 1989 in front of the American embassy with 200,000-100,000,000 participants which invoked a further declaration of support by America (BPN Editors, 2019). Ultimately this show of American support towards the protestors made it difficult for the GDR to react against the protestors without heightening the tensions of the Cold War. Ultimately social protest was successful in gaining an international response which gave the reunification movement greater credibility and limited the ability of the GDR or USSR to involve themselves without creating an international incident.

While Social protest was a key factor, the political climate in the USSR as a result of the Cold War altered it's policy regarding East Germany which was essential to providing the conditions for the "We want out" movement to arise. Due to the de-escalation of the Cold War and a shift in political leadership to Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985, the Soviet Union adopted more reformative policies which, was a key factor towards the reunification of Germany. This can be seen in through the improved relations between the USSR and the USA as Gobarchev sought to create a "common European home" (Granieri R, 2013). Under this policy Gorbachev decreased the threat of a military response against any USSR controlled European nation allowing greater freedom for movements to form in countries previously under the iron curtain. The effect of this decree can be seen through the developing of successful independence movements in Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland and eastern Germany t 1987-1989 (Taylor F,2006). The development of greater political freedom in countries behind the Iron curtain was a significant factor in the success of protests in east Germany, as it allowed the development of a full-fledged movement which could reunify Germany. Furthermore, the most significant factor to the increase in public protests was the USSR's decision to remove their military troops from east Germany in early October 1989 (Dale G, 2006). This was done as the USSR feared that keeping an occupying military force in East Germany "would have catastrophic consequences not only for the [Eastern European] countries and the entire east-west relations, but also for the policy of prestrokia (reconstruction) in the USSR" (Gorbachev's political advisor, 1989) (Dale G, 2006). By removing the USSR military in 1989 the GDR became far less equipped to crush political resistances as they did before in the 1971 people's uprising (Dale G, 2006), therefore providing the east German people with the agency to protest and bring about the internal political change required to bring down the Berlin Wall. A further factor to the soviets decision to abandon the GDR was the economic strain put on the USSR as a result of the Cold War and support of eastern European countries. In 1989 the USSR's economy was only approximately 50% of that of the US's. (Caryle C, 2009) Therefore it can be suggested that the USSR were no longer able to support the GDR financially especially as in 1989 East Germanys foreign debt reached $26.5 billion. (Caryle C, 2009) Alone the Servicing of East Germany cost the USSR $4.5 billion annually, which made up nearly 60% of export earnings. (Caryle C, 2009). As a result the USSR lost interest and the ability to support East Germany financially which made the push for German reunification and independence more beneficial to the USSR. Ultimately the global Cold War climate as well as the USSR's withdrawal from East Germany and new reconstruction policies, provided the proper conditions for a reunification movement to arise and successfully bring down Berlin Wall.

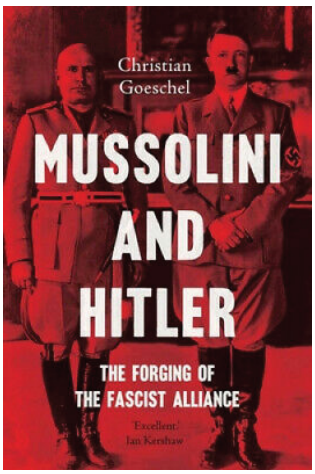
Finally another significant factor of the soviet's relinquishing control in east Germany, was the revolutionary wave which provided momentum and agency to east German protest, aiding in the successful reunification of Germany. The revolutionary wave is a term used to describe several independence movements of former USSR occupied states to gain independence and form free elections. The success of these movements can be seen in various countries throughout 1989 primarily Hungary, Czechoslovakia and Poland who all gained independence after successful protest and the relinquishing of USSR authority under Gorbachev's reformative policies. (Taylor F, 2006) The success of these movements as well as the failure of the USSR to maintain these states established a sence of agency for the east German people as well as additional validation to external powers to support their liberation. Therefore the revolutionary wave was essential to creating the momentum that the east German people required in order to successfully start the "we want out" movement. Furthermore, the revolutionary wave led to increased protest and support at the American, Hungarian, Bulgarian and Czechoslovakian embassy in October 1989 with roughly 339,000 people. (Dale G, 2006). This shows that the success of the revolutionary wave put pressure on the GDR, making it more difficult for their governments-maintained power. Therefore, by threatening and putting pressure on the GDR's maintenance of power the revolutionary wave made it easier for the reunification movement to have a meaningful impact and bring about the fall of the Berlin Wall. Furthermore, former USSR occupied countries helped support the independence of other states. This can be seen through Bulgaria and Hungary granting immigration to east German citizens with 30,000 people fleeing to Hungary on the 11th of September 1989 (Taylor F, 2006). By granting immigration to East German citizens Bulgaria and Hungary provided a way out of the oppressive state which further undermined the GDR's capabilities. Ultimately the reduction in USSR authority in allowing revolutionary wave established agency for the east German people to also gain independence and put pressure on the GDR government to follow the global political trend.

Ultimately while the people's protest was able to gain internal political change to reunify Germany, it's success was very dependant on Gorbachev's reformative policies and the USSR's willingness to relinquish control of it's eastern European states. Without these additional factors the movement would have been suppressed in a similar manner to previous independence movements uprisings in USSR states prior to 1989. Therefore while the protestors ability to create internal pressure and limit the GDR's authority was important it can not be seen as the key factor underpinning the liberation of East Germany, due to it's heavy reliance on the USSR's reformative policies providing the conditions for a successful movement to arise.

Fall of the Berlin Wall November 9th 1989

Mussolini and Hitler: The Forging of the Fascist Alliance (Book Review)

Alex Bean (History Teacher)



This was an outstanding read. Australian Historian Christian Goeschel analyses in 388 pages the Italian perspective of the actions taken by both dictators in the 1920's and 30's, leading to the creation of the Pact of Steel (1939), its evolution and eventual demise.

By looking deeply to how the Nazi-Facist/Hitler-Mussolini relationship was a propaganda construction while also exploring their underlying personal feelings and agendas, Goeschel argues there is more depth to the forging of the Fascist alliance than a simple similarity in ideology. This is especially conveyed in his emphasis on the support provided toward either side's foreign policy by allying together.

He retells this story in chronological order, beginning with Mussolini's role as arguably the most important figure in European politics until Hitler, then analyses how this relationship changes as Hitler begins to dominate the game instead, "emasculating" the attention-seeking Duce. He looks deeply to the personal feelings of jealously and arrogance in both figures and uses extensive primary sources such as personal correspondence as evidence for his ideas.

The emphasis on foreign policy as a driving force behind their relationship is critically explored. This is a relationship that was moulded by necessity, not adoration as Hitler would have us believe. He argues that while personal and ideological factors may have played a role, the two men had much to gain out of the other and use this relationship as a tool for territorial and strategic reward.

Goeschel references frequently the key shift that comes in 1938 where we see the Austria question finally answered. Would Hitler relent and allow this country to remain independent? Naturally, no. This dilemma plagued both ever since he seized power and would be the turning point for the power dynamic between the two. After this point Hitler becomes the dominant figure of the pair, pledging eternal support to Mussolini for allowing his annexation of the country, though the reality of this is heavily debatable.

This leads to the most exciting and interesting section of the novel. Mussolini, despite the successes of his Nazi ally, faces crisis in Italy. He is losing public support and became unsure as to whether he could actually commit to the impending war. This was a fascinating and seemingly critical aspect that I had little knowledge of prior to reading.

It is also interesting to see why the men continue to perform this facade after Mussolini's fall from grace, with the book effectively starting and ending with the meeting in the Wolf Lair in 1944 after the assassination attempt - the final meeting between the two. Goeschel begs the question, though a nuisance, and clearly perceived as inferior, why would Hitler have his parallel meet at the location of the largest coup against him?

Equally, it does not shy away from the often overshadowed evil of Mussolini's regime and it is satisfying to see Goeschel write about how the aggressive, imperialist and violent country devolved from one of the most prestigious dictatorships in Europe to a pathetic puppet government under the thumb of an ailing Nazi regime by 1944.

It explains complex ideas simply, is often insightful and overall very well researched. Goeschel provides explanations of key events/aspects for a more casual reader but doesn't shy away from complexities either. A great book to read on a criminally unexplored aspect of 20th Century history.

Discuss the view that Italian aggression was the biggest cause in the invasion of Abyssinia.

George Bartley (Committee Member)

The Italian invasion of Abyssinia, from the 3rd of October to the 5th of May 1936, was based around Italy's desire to expand its colonial empire in Africa. Italian aggression was a major factor in the invasion as they needed to support their failing economy, and the fascists wanted to create a strong national image to prove the significance of Italy amongst the global society. Despite this, previous confrontation between the Italians and the Ethiopians could be to blame, and to a larger extent, the complete failure of foreign intervention. Ultimately, although the Italian fascists wanted to rebuild the economy and national pride, internal and external resistance to the invasion was a failure.

The influence of economic problems clearly influenced Italy's decision to invade Abyssinia as the fascists believed it was their road to economic salvation. The fascist goal of Autarky, national economic self-sufficiency, was failing badly by the 1920s with a requirement to still import approximately 2.5 million tonnes each year at the cost of nearly 3 billion lire, highlighting why the fascists wanted to revitalise the failing economy by 1933 with plans for rapid industrialisation to achieve their albeit unrealistic aim (Alan Todd, 2015). The Fascist's plan called the "battle for the lira" aimed to increase unemployment, however, the lira had fallen drastically, and unemployment risen to over 2 million. This shows a dire need to improve the economy through outside means, and given they were receiving no foreign aid this needed to come from another source. According to Italian historian Patricia Knight, the Italians desired "economic gains in the form of oil, coal and gold", evidently illustrating their reasoning for wanting to invade Abyssinia came in part due to economic purposes. Knight's illustration of the fascist's reason for invading Abyssinia as being due to needing economic revitalisation has clear merit as high unemployment wasn't the only major problem as wages weren't high either; in agriculture for example dropping by more than 30% during 1933 as Mussolini's policies had only aided the wealthy landowners rather than small labourers and farmers (Alan Todd, 2015). The collapse of three major Italian banks in the aftermath of the great depression was the final tipping point as the fascists believed the economy was about to collapse if they did not do something drastic to save it and thus decided to spark aggression against Abyssinia, before subsequently invading. Fundamentally, the Italian aggression and subsequent attack on Abyssinia was due to the financial crisis inherent in the Italian economy as there was a dire need for outside resources to revitalise it.

Perhaps a more compelling desire was that of the fascists to create a strong Italy by reinstating their colonial empire, being a major factor in the invasion of Abyssinia. The fascists desired to unify the Italians under the goal of creating a strong Italy that would be emblematic of a new Roman empire. If the Italians could continue fighting, the soldiers would continue to believe in fascism with the ideal of "vitalism and violence" being one of the four key parts of fascism claimed by Mussolini. Historian Frank McDonough believes they pursued "glory, god and gold", demonstrating the desire for foreign aggression as being to drive nationalist fervour within Italy for the fascist regime. The fascists also wanted to further racism as part of nationalist ideals, although the claim that Ethiopians were "savages" was potentially just a claim to consolidate the personality cult of Mussolini, Il Duce, by attacking against a foreign element. Regardless of the motives of the fascists they successfully galvanised 500,000 Italian soldiers to invade Abyssinia in July 1935 (Sbacchi 1976). It was not just Ethiopian soldiers killed, but 30,000 civilians were murdered in the region of Addis Abba alone in a brutal massacre (Sbachhi 1976), demonstrating the success of Mussolini's racist ideology and therefore why he attempted the invasion as it was able to unite Italy against a common enemy. The Italian invasion was fully backed by the Catholic church, a powerful institution in Italian society, which believed it was a "Christian crusade" against "barbarism". This religious support clearly illustrates how the fascists were able to gain more support for their regime through their invasion and thus why they invaded. Regardless of whether it was simply the whims of the Italian fascists or desire of the Italian people to project nationalist ideals and compel fascist ideology, the Abyssinian invasion was in large part due to Italy wanting to show strength by taking down a foreign element.

However, it could be said that political confrontation was also a factor in the decision of Italy to invade Abyssinia. In the 1930s, the Italians believed they were one of the few European nations embarrassed by an African colony as from 1895-1896 they were defeated in the first Italio-Ethiopian war, the military failure being a potential reason for future desire to invade. On 22 November 1934, three Ethiopian commanders with a garrison of 1000 men formally asked the Italian Dubats garrison stationed in Walwal to withdraw their troops(Domenico Quirico, 2002), showing potential aggression from the Ethiopians towards the Italians and therefore reasons why the Italians may have been aggressive in retaliation. By 5-7 December 1934, there was a full-on military confrontation between Somalis under Italian service and Ethiopians, with Italy claiming that the Ethiopians attacked with machine guns. Italy claimed it was an act of war against them and that they needed to retaliate. However, given there is no evidence that the Ethiopians attacked first and that the Ethiopians claimed they instead were attacked first, this is historically questionable and could have been used by Italy as justification of aggression against the Ethiopians. Essentially, it was clear that while the Ethiopians may not have started direct conflict, they did nothing to ease tension between Italy and Ethiopia and could potentially be held liable for minor responsibility for the gradual escalation in conflict.

Furthermore, there was an apparent lack of impact on foreign countries after Italy's aggression. In the aftermath of the political confrontation between the Ethiopians and the Italians, the League of Nations didn't abide to the calls for the help of Ethiopia in response to Italian aggression for fear of the Italians joining the Germans in a coming war. In fact, due to Britain and France not wanting to lose the Italians to the Germans there was a plan called the Hoare-Laval pact proposed to the Italian fascists to give Italy some of Ethiopia in order to prevent it from being fully invaded. Given that Mussolini never accepted the pact, and even going as far as to say he "refuses to believe the authentic people of Britain will want to send Europe to its catastrophe for the sake of a barbarian country", he clearly demonstrated that the belief of future inaction of the League of Nations enabled the continuation of Italian aggression towards Abyssinia. According to historian Strang, "no important power outside of Ethiopia saw preservation of Ethiopian sovereignty as a vital interest," demonstrating the view of other nations towards the conflict and providing insight into the nature of their decisions. As Britain did not close the Suez Canal due to fears of sparking Italian aggression, Mussolini subsequently sent troops through demonstrating. The League's failures were conclusively highlighted in October 1935 when the Italians invaded Abyssinia and there were still no sanctions from the League of Nations, illustrating that the lack of international response to the crisis had given Italy reason to invade Abyssinia. Evidently, the policy of appeasement taken up by the major powers of the League of Nations was a catalyst for allowing Italian aggression to occur and was therefore a key factor.

Ultimately, while Italian aggression was the primary factor in the invasion of Abyssinia, other factors were also important. Italian and fascist desires to reinvigorate the economy through the amalgamation of foreign resources and re-building an empire by taking of land were paramount to the Abyssinian invasion. However, it was not necessarily just Italian aggression, but could be blamed on a failure of both the Ethiopians and the League of Nations to prevent the invasion through lack of relief of tension and lack of harsh action respectively. The clear failure of the League of Nations in response to the Abyssinian crisis serves as a catalyst for the onset of World War 2 as it would be the first step of allowing the Axis powers to act unchallenged and would directly provide the opportunity for Germany and the Nazis to expand in Europe whilst the major European forces were distracted. By March 1936, the Nazis had officially demilitarised the Rhineland and the first major steps towards World War 2 were laid, begun by the Fascist invasion of Abyssinia.

Olympic Spirit

Edward Payne

Pierre de Coubertin once said that the founding spirit of the Olympic Games was that "the most important thing in the Olympic Games is not to win but to take part, just as the most important thing in life is not the triumph but the struggle." In the 1954 Mille Migila, this was demonstrated to the fullest extent. The Mille Migila was a road rally race consisting of 300-400 entries competing across a thousand miles from Brescia to Rome and back. Such a race appealed to all professional and amateur drivers, and as such, led to the Strahle father and son team from Swabia, Germany to compete in the small engine capacity classes with a 1948 Volkswagen Beetle nicknamed Dapferle (the little brave one). They competed in numerous races before with much success, having won the Wurttembergische ADAC Gau-Orientierungsfahrt race in 1951, the Hessen Winter Rally, the Austrian Alpine run, and the Adriatic rally between 1952 to 1953. Paul Ernst Strahle's goal was to take part in the Mille Migila which he expressed it as, "a drug for every racing driver." Although at that point, the managing director of Volkswagen, Heinrich Nordhoff, had prohibited all participation of the Beetle in motorsport due to its lack of performance, even though he had turned a blind eye to the activities of the team up until that point. When news reached Wolfsburg of the endeavour, Heinrich wrote to Paul Strahle senior asking him to persuade his son to not use the Volkswagen without success. Nevertheless, Ernst and Viktor Spingler, his navigator, had set off for Verona, however before the race, they changed the fourth gear at the local Volkswagen importer Autogerma where news of their venture grabbed the attention of Italian Volkswagen head Gerhard Gumpert. He made it known to them that, "Gentlemen, you are not doing yourselves any favours by participating. I don't like it; you will only be able to achieve to the lowest ranking here.

With such a car, and as foreigners, you will only demonstrate once more that the Volkswagen is a slow car, after all that the tourists have already done to discredit our car by dawdling through the countryside and annoying Italian drivers." He had even offered an all-paid vacation in Italy to tempt them; they refused. Both Henrich Nordhoff and Gerhard Gumpert did not know of the Beetle's increased performance due to a new regulation which was introduced regarding serial production vehicles in the Millie Migila. It enabled them to modify to such a large degree that it opened the possibility of shortening the performance gap between pedigree racing cars. Since the Volkswagen Type 1 shared similar engine housings with the Porsche 356, it allowed them to swap the standard 24 hp 1.1 litre for a 65 hp engine 1300. Because of this, the car's original maximum speed of 100 km/h was extended to 160 km/h. In addition to that, they fitted large Porsche drum brakes, 5-inch-wide tires, body contoured sports seats, wide beams, and additional dashboard instruments. But the conversion was found out by the Italian officials at the Mille Migila who feared for the Fiats in the special touring car category, having been previously being accepted and eligible to race, the officials revoked their entry stating that the engine conversion was non-compliant. Despite this, the Mercedes racing manager, Alfred Neubauer, provided a solution, the Strahle – Spingler team would race in the sports car category up to 1500ccm instead. The officials were content with the idea and declared the Beetle a sports car for the event. Even though it had no chance in competing against racing cars such as the Ferrari 500 Mondial or the Maserati A6GCS/53. It's racing number being originally 007 had been changed to 347 due to the starting time of which it would depart in the morning. As it was expected, it was passed by significantly faster cars, but mother nature decided to intervene. Thick fog appeared and the Swabian team were able to maintain the same pace as the OSCA driven by Guilo Cabianca in front of them. Because of the poor weather conditions, Cabianca couldn't use the much faster OSCA to his advantage and so when the Beetle reached Siena, they were surprised to discover that they were third in their respective class. The next stretch was over the Raticosa and Futa Pass, a tight and twisty section of the race, from Florence to Bologna. Within the mountains, the Beetle was able to play to its strengths and as a result made up a considerable amount of time for the long straight through Northern Italy. 14 hours, 24 minutes, and 35 seconds after starting, the Beetle crossed the finish line with Paul Ernst Strahle driving and Viktor Spingler navigating. Their average speed being 109.6 km/h was only 30 below the overall winner Alberto Ascari in the Lancia D24 at 139.6 km/h. Achieving third in the sports cars category up to 1.5 litres and outright victory in the category up to 1.3 litres, it placed 43rd out of the 182 that were classified as finishers.

All over Italy, people were talking about the feat accomplished by Paul, Viktor and Dapferle. They represented the Olympic spirit to the best degree possible and achieved amazing results in such an iconic vehicle against thoroughbreds.

Atonement: A fictional story of love, war and anguish grounded in historical truth

Wilfrid Ramsey (Committee Member)

The 2001 novel Atonement, written by Ian McEwan, encompasses three time periods, beginning in 1935 England, followed by the Second World War in England and France, and concluding in the present-day England. The Novel commences on the hottest day of summer 1935 on the country estate of the wealthy Tallis family, 13-year-old Briony Tallis witnesses a chain of events unfolding. This involves her older sister, Cecilia, Robbie Turner, a Cambridge University peer of Cecilia who is the son of the family's housekeeper, and working as a gardener, Briony's misconception of the events that she witnesses that day lead her to make an admission that will Irrevocably change the lives of all concerned. Briony's misunderstanding specifically leads to Robbie's incarceration for a crime for which he is not culpable.

The novel showcases unique periods in English history, firstly the plot of Atonement is shadowed by western Europe violent history, at the beginning of the novel the first world war is still a relatively recent memory. The novel captures a unique time period in England's history, the lead up to, and the duration of, the Second World War which dramatically impacting all areas of British society. Robbie, enlisting in the military to avoid his prison sentence, and his subsequent experience, is the vehicle through which the audience perceives the war. Various historical battles shape the plot of the novel. Robbie fights to impede the German invasion of France and finishes his journey in the war at Bray-Dunes during the Dunkirk evacuation.

The novel illustrates not only the hardships faced by soldiers in the warzones of France but also the impacts on their loved ones and those left behind. The impact of war on those who are not actively involved in the conflict but who must deal with its consequences. In Atonement, this takes the form of both Briony and Cecilia's work as nurses caring for wounded soldiers, directly witnessing the impact of man's brutality. War in Atonement is presented as a 'nightmare' in which its corruptive power puts men in a degraded state of mind.

Additionally, the novel depicts the complexities of 1930's society, particularly the class divide still prevalent at the time. The disparity between the upper and lower classes was something that was restrictive to many people and dictated their rights. The best personification of this idea seen in the novel is again seen through Robbie as he is discriminated against, purely because of his class and falls victim to accusation and persecution not on the basis of guilt.

Atonement's historical context allows McEwan to capture the enduring impact of war, not only on the those directly involved, but also those left behind to repair the damage afterward. Whilst not the biggest plot point, the Second World War is important to the development of characters and pleasingly conveys the embodiment of historical hardships in fiction.

Dunkirk Scene from Film adaptation

Malta's Historic population diversity

Mick Mercorella (Committee Member)

Current day Malta has a population of 503,000 people, consisting of 151 different nationalities. The reason for this diversity is Malta's history of colonisation. Beginning in the 8th century BC, Malta was first colonised by the Phoenicians (modern day Syria, Lebanon, and Israel) and named Maleth. This was continued in the 5th century BC when they became part of the Carthaginian Empire who fought with Rome over the land of Sicily in the 3rd century BC. This battle caused the annexation of Maleth (Malta) as it was then renamed to Melite.

In the 6th Century AD, they were colonised again by the Byzantine empire for the next three centuries. On instruction by the empire, Melite set up their land for defence in the Mediterranean, this saw a reduction in Melite's size by a third. Byzantium left Melite alone as they began to struggle for the next two centuries (now few ancient settlements left as well as Maltese primary sources).

This vulnerability of Melite caused a conquest by Arabian powers in late 9th century AD, the land was repopulated with Arabians and by 1048 AD they resettled and renamed Melite Medina (at the highest part of the mountain) (hence now named Mdina). This second wind of Arabian settlement saw a drastic shift in the language of Mdina as it is now partially recognisable in modern Maltese language as it is derived from Arabic.

Another seizure occurred in 1091 by the Normans as both parties joined mutually at Mdina. Due to the control of Italy and Sicily by the Normans, Maltese Arabic language was heavily influenced by Italian, becoming the only Sematic language written in Roman script. This seizure by the Normans led to a revoking by the Arabic population in 1127, with King Raja II conquering the island and assuming direct rule.

The frequent changing of Holy Roman Emperors saw a decline in Muslim population which grew even more severe in 1266 when control switched to the Dominion of England.

Malta then fell into Spain's rule of Aragon in 1282 who's King allowed the Knights of Acre (Modern day Lebanon) to flee to Malta in 1530 as they were under attack from Suleiman the magnificent on the island of Rhodes where they had previously built a fortress that prospered until 1522. Due to being a naval power, the knights set up Birgu on the East coast of Malta and spent the next 35 years fighting Ottoman ships in the Western Mediterranean. Suleiman caught drift of this and in 1565 assembled an army of 50,000 to attack Malta's army of just 5,000.

After four months of battle Spain recognised the importance of it and joined and aided Malta due to the Ottoman threat infiltrating Europe through Italy if Malta had lost. This war resulted in Malta losing a third of its population and the Ottoman Empire losing half of its army.

Just a few years later, the Great Siege took place. Malta helped defend Europe and was praised with gifts by European nations (for this well of a defence against the Ottomans) and constructed the town Valetta (now capital of Malta) in honour of their Military Commander Jean Parisot de Valette.

After passivity prevailed for two centuries, Malta thrived economically and built many aesthetically beautiful churches, some in honour of Saint Paul who shipwrecked in Malta on his way to Rome in the 1st century AD.

In 1798, Napoleon conquered Malta with little resistance because a large share of Malta's Knight population were French. During Napoleon's brief influence, he changed the education and government system as well as abolishing slavery, all for the better until he decided to seize Maltese treasures and loot churches. Thus, Malta asked Britain for aid against the French. This alliance held between the Maltese and British during the 1800 and 1900 hundreds the alliance held as Malta cared for many wounded British soldiers in the First World War (becoming known as the Nurse of the Mediterranean). Still under British alliance in the Second World War, Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany declared war on Britain and instantly bombed Malta whilst blocking them by sea for two years.

In ironic contrast to their earlier preventing of the Ottomans through Sicily and Rome, Malta helped the Allies reach Rome through Sicily in order to defeat Italy. This caused the country of Malta to be rewarded a King George cross in recognition of their bravery. This was reflected in creation of their national flag when they finally gained independence in 1964. Thus, ending the long history of colonialization of Malta.

Chernobyl

Myles McEwen (Vice Chairman)

Following the 'Era of Stagnation' (Brezhnev Era), Mikhail Gorbachev (General Secretary of the Soviet Union, 1985-91) paved the way for USSR transformation, launching sweeping reform both socially (Glasnost) and economically (Perestroika). Whilst unforeseeable the impacts of such transformation were, the technological disaster, that is, the Chernobyl Accident (26 April 1986) heightened the need for socio-economic and political transparency. Both the Chernobyl disaster, which paralysed the USSR's conspiracy of silence, catalysing the implementation of Glasnost (openness), and the Soviet Union's internal economic breakdown, resulting in Perestroika (economic restructuring), marked the "beginning of the end" of the Soviet System. Thus, both the Chernobyl accident and Gorbachev's reforms were synonymous in laying the foundation for the breakdown of the Soviet Union. External factors such as the influence of the Reagan administration, exacerbating Russian economic stagnation, and the Polish economic crisis further stimulated reform. Moreover, it was also Gorbachev's transformation in the military itself; the withdrawal of troops from Afghanistan (1988-89) and the reorganisation of the Soviet military command after the 'Rust Affair' (May 1987) unquestionably laid the foundation for the fall of the Soviet Union. Additionally, the underlying role of Boris Yeltsin ('Yeltsin Affair') undoubtedly cemented the eventual dissolution of the System. However, Chernobyl explicitly marked the irreversible turning point which set the Soviet Union on a path to collapse after 1986.

According to Grigori Medvedev (former chief engineer at Chernobyl), Chernobyl "marked the final, spectacular collapse of a declining era," (Medvedev, 1989) however, Chernobyl reaffirmed the need for Soviet transparency, placing the Soviet System on a permanent path to collapse, rather than instantaneous breakdown. In the town of Pripyat (Ukraine), after numerous, avoidable mistakes had been made, "the world's worst nuclear accident began at 1.23 am on Saturday (April 26, 1986)" (Elliot, 1991), alas, turning an "abstraction" of nuclear danger into a "palpable reality" (Akhromeyev – Zubok, 2007). The reactor of No. 4 unit at Chernobyl "spewed into the atmosphere almost 50 tons of evaporated fuel" (ten Hiroshima bombs) (Medvedev, 1989) as well as close to "70 tons of fuel and some 700 tons of radioactive reactor graphite" (Ibid), resulting in "130,000 evacuees . . . exposed to sufficiently high levels of radiation" (Plokhy, 2018). Despite the rarity of the incident, occurring after numerous reversible decisions, the Chernobyl accident was indictive of a "a culture of cronyism, laziness and a deap-seated indifference toward the general population" (Alexievich, 1997). Chernobyl thus symbolised the Soviet System's unwillingness to prioritise the safety of the nation, employing short-term, cheap solutions to much larger issues. This continuous conspiracy of silence had finally caught up to the Soviet's, whereby "if a man fires at the past from a pistol . . . the future will blast them with a nuclear disaster from a reactor" (Medvedev, 1989). Despite this, the Soviet leadership and military-industrial complex were silent as Gorbachev denied "information not only to the world but also to his own people" (Plokhy, 2018). However, as radiation spread across over 200,000 square kilometres of Europe (WHO, 2005), the Soviet regime had no other way but to admit failure. Crucially, the Chernobyl disaster's subsequent media coverage "marked a turning point in the history of Soviet communications," where "television . . . began to meet people's demands" (J. Sands, 1988). As a result, "the regime of secrecy was crumbling, and the era of glasnost . . . was beginning" (Plokhy, 2018), which, such reform, would turn the Soviet bureaucracy on its feet. The Chernobyl incident not only created social implications which silenced the falsity of the Soviet regime, but it exhausted its already depleted economy. In the short-term, the incident "consumed the Politburo's energies for three months;" facing long-term "contaminated agricultural products" (CIA, 1986). Hence, the Chernobyl incident exacerbated the economic breakdown of the Soviet Union, which, in turn, accelerated Soviet Union's demise. According to Gorbachev, Chernobyl "shed light on many of the sicknesses of our system as a whole," (Gaddis, 2005) thereby making the demise of the Union truly inevitable.

Images of Chernobyl Aftermath

In this context, post-Chernobyl Russia saw the solidification of Gorbachev's economic and social reforms. The introduction of Gorbachev's reforms highlighted the incompetence of the Soviet administrative System, thereby establishing the basis for the demise of the regime. Glasnost, which represented change "more profound than the destalinization begun by Khruschev," (Mandel, 1989) liberated the Russian media and the global literature, starting "scientific debate and critical analysis of daily life" (Ibid). As a result, Glasnost reports "refocused attention to the state of the Soviet Economy," (Marples, 2004) where Perestroika, which aimed to overcome economic stagnation and promote economic growth through market mechanisms (Mandel, 1989), laid in place. However, the economic collapse of 1985 (trade deficit and foreign debt) only worsened up to 1987. The only way the regime could increase its revenue was to increase both taxation and prices (Zubok, 2007), where "if you want[ed] to fill your fridge with food, plug the fridge into the radio outlet" (Plokhy, 2018). Perestroika was a seemingly inadequate solution, whereby "slogans of domestic reforms contrasted sharply with a sluggish economy" (Zubok, 2007). Yeltsin, at congress, questioned why "the word stagnation . . . made its appearance in [the party] vocabulary," answering "because some party officials lack the courage to recognise correctly" (Mandel, 1989). Yeltsin was politically ahead of Gorbachev, but only just. Ultimately, Perestroika demonstrated that the Soviet economy required a complete systematic reconstruction in contrast to surface level changes, as progressive they may have seemed. Furthermore, Gorbachev's anti-alcohol campaign had adverse effects on the economy, reducing "state revenues by 15 billion rubles" (Zubok, 2007), where the "self-praise and complacency of the past began to dissipate" (Marples, 2004). Therefore, by removing the "irresponsibility and carelessness" (Gaddis, 2005) of the Soviet System through reform, Gorbachev was, unknowingly, dismantling the System on his own accord. Notably, Yeltsin viewed Gorbachev's reforms as a "dead-end" (Quinn-Judge P, 1987). Gorbachev's reforms demonstrated that the "old system [had to] collapse before the new one [could] begin working" (Klein, 2016). Hence, both glasnost and perestroika, a result of Chernobyl, illustrated the need for systematic change which materialised the regime's eventual demise.

Critically, the internal economic collapse of the Soviet Union, whilst exacerbated externally by the Reagan administration, marked the beginning of the end for the regime to a significant extent. According to Richard Pipes, a conservative historian who cooperated with the Reagan Administration, "the Reagan administration . . .implemented a systematic policy of subverting the Soviet Union," in turn making a "decisive contribution" to the Union's collapse (Pipes, R 1994). Pipes however, neglects Reagan's unintended impact on Gorbachev's evolving mentality encompassing nuclear arms. Nevertheless, under Reagan, The CIA Director William Case persuaded Saudi Arabia "to cooperate with the United States in lowering oil prices . . . [which] shattered Soviet hard currency earnings" (Ibid) (Soviet budget lost nine billion rubles (Zubok, 2007)). The Soviet interference in Afghanistan from 1979-89, coined by Gorbachev as the 'bleeding wound,' (CIA, 2000) cost the Soviets over 15 billion rubles (1986) building up "their weapon inventories . . . and ammunition" (Ibid). Such effects worsened as the CIA "escalate[d] the war . . . in Afghanistan and waged intelligence warfare against the KGB" (Pipes, R 1994). Hence, US intervention exacerbated the internal Soviet economic crisis, founding the beginning of the end of the Union. Moreover, Reagan's SDI (Strategic Defense Initiative) threatened the Soviet Economy "beyond [its] capabilities," forcing Gorbachev's thinking to evolve "even in the absence of any signs of détente" (Pipes, R1994). Reagan's SDI indirectly heightened Gorbachev's views around nuclear disarmament as a result, otherwise the regime would face an even quicker economic collapse. Externally, under Polish general secretary Edward Gierek (1970-80), "the [Polish] economy was falling into shambles . . . and standard of living was falling sharply," reaching a national deficit of $2 billion (Tomasz, 2009). Both the failed harvests of 1979 and 1980 crippled the Polish economy, resulting in workers strikes which formed the 'Solidarity Union.' The Solidarity Union demonstrated the "hollowness of communist claims to represent the working class," which "aroused panic in Moscow" (Pipes, R 1994) with fears of Russian workers replicating such acts. In Russia, this fear "served as stimulus for reform," (Ibid) which such reform revealed the failure of the old system, thus, marking the beginning of the end for the regime. Under General Secretary Wojciech Jaruzelski, Poland's "practically bankrupt" (Hunter, R 1986) economy led to economic reforms (Feb 1982) which unravelled the communist system. Thus, the fear created by the Polish economic collapse not only amplified Gorbachev's reforms in Russia but necessitated reform within Poland itself. Such fear materialised in the USSR during the Kuzbass coalfield strike (10 July, 1989), whereby over 180,000 workers protested as Gorbachev declared to be "in sympathy with the miners" (Marples, 2004). This emerging discontent among Soviet workers illustrated the growing cracks in the Soviet regime. Overall, both the internal economic collapse of the Soviet Union, amplified by the Reagan administration and the Polish economic crisis, concreted the beginning of the regime's demise. The fact that members of the Politburo and Secretariat of the Central Committee "had been allowed to grow old together symbolised a stagnating system" (Brown, A 2009). Such economic failure would materialise into the poorly contrived systems within Chernobyl, as a result, commencing the Soviet's dissolution.

Finally, Gorbachev's role in the easing of Soviet military tensions, as evident through his desire for détente with the US, was significant in laying the basis for Soviet breakdown. Initially, the Polish economic crisis and subsequent Solidarity Union led to the implementation of Martial Law (13 Dec 1981-83). With 80,000 soldiers and 30,000 communist policemen (Glinski, 2016), Martial Law restored Poland's economic system which had paradoxically "caused the crises and total disintegration of faith in the Communist system" (Tomasz, 2009). However, taking into account the past animosity between Poland and Russia, Martial Law was necessary in preventing Soviet intervention and a potential civil war. This retreat back to communist bureaucracy, in direct confrontation with the origins of the new system led by the Solidarity Union, symbolised the beginning of the end for communism. As communism began to fall, (Solidarity Union victorious 4 June 1989 – first free elections (Sierakowski, 2019)), the underlying foundation of the Soviet regime, like that of the no. 4 reactor in Chernobyl, would begin to collapse. Washington's "clandestine support of Solidarity" (Pipes, R 1994), even if the Reagan administration could "have embarrassed and discredited the Polish regime," but instead "[did] nothing" (Kramer, ND), further indicates the US's ability subvert the Soviet Union. The Polish crisis demonstrated that communism, socio-economically, was well and truly obsolete. As Martial Law ended in July, one such event occurred 2 months later. The KAL 007 incident (1 Sept 1983), where "Soviet interceptors shot down a South Korean commercial jet that had strayed into Soviet territory" (Jones E and Woodbury B L), triggered immense condemnation to the Soviet regime. The Soviets could no longer hide behind a curtain of silence. Furthermore, after Chernobyl, the easing of conventional arms control in Stockholm, where the Soviet's initially "refused to accept on-site [American] inspections," was signed quickly by the Marshal who was "deeply shaken by Chernobyl" (Zubok, 2007). Chernobyl reaffirmed the Soviet's need to prioritise the socio-economic condition of the USSR rather than military aims. The sinking of the Admiral Nakhimov only 4 months later, resulting in the loss of over 300 lives, "received prompt [media] coverage . . . including reports about drunkenness" (Marples, 2004). The Admiral Nakhimov was yet another symbol for the beginning of the end of the Soviet Union. The threat of Soviet military intervention as evident in Poland would become a figment of the past. As a result, Gorbachev began to realise that a "healthy economy rather than a power military was the single foundation for world power" (Mandel, 1989), however, a 'healthy economy' was nowhere in sight. In an April meeting (1987), the Soviet Union "pledge[d] to cut its new short-range missiles" (Zubok, 2007) whereby Gorbachev began to reshape the Soviet military in its entirety. For Gorbachev, the famous flight of German Pilot Matthias Rust (28 May) ('Rust Affair'), which damaged the military's reputation, confirmed the need to remove longstanding Soviet military ministers (Ibid). Gorbachev "remove[d] most of the old top brass," (Ibid) and, after "humiliating Yeltsin in October" (Zlotnik, 2003), signed the INF treaty in December (Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces) (History.com, 2021). By April 1988, Gorbachev sealed the Afghanistan 'wound,' with Soviet authorities revealing that 13,310 Soviet troops had died, with 35,478 wounded, "an admission of failure . . . one unlikely to appease [Soviet] families" (Mandel, 1989). Beneath this, "the passionate dislike" between Gorbachev and Yeltsin, as well as Gorbachev's "arrogance and initial unwillingness" to deal with the evolving Russian Republic "accelerated the collapse of the union" (Zlotnik, 2003). Ultimately, Gorbachev's "deeply held perspectives . . . in shaping Soviet policy toward the United States," (Stewart, P D 1986) as well as his reform in the military itself, catalysed the breakdown of Soviet Union. These policy changes stemmed from the 1986 Chernobyl disaster and the subsequent fear, which broke the Soviet System down.

The beginning of the end of the Soviet Union was caused by numerous factors. The complexity of events between 1970-1991 in the USSR makes any singular factor unaccountable for the demise of the Soviet regime. It was, however, a combination of both leading and underlying factors. The 1986 Chernobyl incident was one of many leading factors which founded the Soviet dissolution, however, unlike the other factors, Chernobyl made the Soviet demise unavoidable. Chernobyl's inextricable influence on Gorbachev's reforms of Glasnost and Perestroika largely explains the Soviet collapse. The effects of long-term economic collapse, amplified by the Reagan administration, also cemented the eventual dissolution of the System. Additionally, the underlying impacts of the Yeltsin affair, and reform within the Soviet military, exacerbated the regimes demise.

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